

Nexus between Work and Family in Stay-at-Home Father Households: Analysis using
the Current Population Surveys, 1968-2008

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband, Amit, who was this stay-at-home father this dissertation is all about and who was involved in this dissertation both as a source of advice and a source of inspiration. I also dedicate it to my two beautiful and smart daughters Stav and Noam.

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Abstract

This study examined stay-at-home father households and their members. Different definitions of stay-at-home father households were constructed based on the income and the distribution of spouses' working hours. Using social exchange theory, gender roles theory, and feminist perspective, definitions were tested regarding the likelihood that the husband was the primary caregiver and the wife was the primary breadwinner. To answer this question, data from the Current Population Survey of 1968 to 2008 was used. By examining 41 years of data, I was able to follow trends in the characteristics of stay-at-home father households over time. Using descriptive statistics and logistic regression, results showed the probability of a household becoming a stay at home father household increased when: (a) there were fewer and older children in the household, as compared to stay-at-home mother households; (b) the husband suffered from some disability that limited his ability to work; and, (c) the wife had greater earnings or earning potential than her husband. Results also indicate that stay-at-home father households are growing in their relevance and that fathers are more likely to become stay-at-home fathers only when the family demands are lower in terms on number and age of children. In sum, stay-at-home father households experienced tremendous change in the last 41 years. This change was threefold. First, stay-at-home father households almost tripled in their frequency within the U.S. population. Second, stay-at-home father households shifted from being low-income, low-education and old parental-age households that were forced into such a household paid-work structure because of inability of the father to work or find work, to households that, in greater numbers, were *choosing* to become stay-at-home father households. The third and related shift was a change in the characteristics of stay-at-home

father households. Stay-at-home father households, and especially those who chose to become such households, became more similar in all characteristics (income, number of children, age of children, number of children 5 years of age and under, age of spouses and education of spouses) to dual-earner households and especially to stay-at-home mother households.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	vi
List of Figures	vii
Chapter I: Introduction	1
Chapter II: Definitions	2
Stay-at-Home Parent Households	2
Dual-Earner Parents Households	3
Characteristics of Stay-at-Home Mother Households and their Members ...	4
Characteristics of Stay-at-Home Father Households and their Members ...	7
Characteristics of Dual-Earner Households and their Members	10
Chapter III: Theoretical Background	13
Social Exchange Theory	13
Gender Role Theory	16
A Feminist Perspective	18
Theory Summary	21
Chapter IV: Research Question and Hypotheses	22
Chapter V: Method	26
Sample	26
Inclusion Criteria	27
Measures	28
Dependent Variables	28
Independent Variables	30

Control Variables	32
Analysis Plan	34
Empirical Strategy	34
Chapter VI: Results	35
Logistic Regression	68
Chapter VII: Discussion	78
Policy Implications, Limitations and Future Studies	85
References	88
Appendices	101

List of Tables

Table 1a: Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of study's variables, by income, 1968-1979	37
Table 1b: Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of study's variables, by income, 1980-1989	38
Table 1c: Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of study's variables, by income, 1990-1999	39
Table 1d: Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of study's variables, by income, 2000-2008	40
Table 2a: Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of study's variables, by working hours, 1976-1979	41
Table 2b: Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of study's variables, by working hours, 1980-1989	42
Table 2c: Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of study's variables, by working hours, 1990-1999	43
Table 2d: Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of study's variables, by working hours, 2000-2008	44
Table 3: Descriptive statistics of study's variables, income based definition, for SAHF households in which fathers indicated they do not work because they take care of the home/family	65
Table 4: Descriptive statistics of study's variables, working hours based definition, for SAHF households in which fathers indicated they do not work because they take care of the home/family	66
Table 5a: Logistic regression for estimating the probability of a family being a SAFH household compared to SAHM	71
Table 5b: Logistic regression for estimating the probability of a family being a SAFH by choice compared to force	74
Table 5c: Logistic regression for estimating the probability of a family being a SAFH by choice compared SAHM by choice	77

List of Figures

Figure 1: Married women participation in the labor force, 1963-1997, by having or not having children	6
Figure 2: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households number of children, by decade	47
Figure 3: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households number of children age 5 and under, by decade	47
Figure 4: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households age of youngest child, by decade	48
Figure 5: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households age of husband and wife, by decade	50
Figure 6: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households education of husband and wife, by decade	52
Figure 7: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households income from work, by decade	53
Figure 8: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households number of children, by decade	56
Figure 9: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households number of children age five and under, by decade	57
Figure 10: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households age of youngest child, by decade	58
Figure 11: SAHF and SAHM households age of husband and wife, by decade	59
Figure 12: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households education of husband and wife, by decade	61

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

The structure of American families with respect to spouses' participation in the labor force has seen many important shifts. The two decades after WWII have been characterized by an almost uniform family structure consisting of a male breadwinner and a female homemaker (Waite & Nielsen, 2001). Beginning in the late 1960's, women's influx into the labor force as well as increasing rates of divorce and out-of-wedlock births gave way to the rise of additional family structures such as husband as primary earner and wife as secondary earner; dual-earner and dual-career couples; and single parent households with a working mother (Marshall, 1998; Waite & Nielsen, 2001). A more recent family structure relatively uncommon in earlier decades is that of stay-at-home father households (Casper, 1997; Marshall, 1998). Although some studies have examined this emerging structure, most focused on societal perceptions regarding the stay-at-home father (e.g., Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2005; Bridges, Etaugh, & Barnes-Farrell, 2002), marital satisfaction of spouses who were engaged in such a family structure (Zimmerman, 2000), or basic descriptive statistics to estimate how common this family structure was within American society (Casper, 1997; Fields, 2003; Marshall, 1998). The current study built upon these previous studies by using statistical inference to estimate which family and individual characteristics were associated with a higher probability of being part of a stay-at-home father household. Specific attention was paid to the characteristics of both stay-at-home fathers and their wives. Using data collected over 40 years, the study also provided a longitudinal view of the phenomenon of stay-at-home father households and, as such, enabled estimation of whether the characteristics of stay-

at-home fathers, their wives, and of stay-at-home households significantly changed over time.

CHAPTER II: DEFINITIONS

Stay-at-Home Parent Households

Not surprisingly, most studies of stay-at-home parent households have focused on households in which the husband works and the wife does not. However, no consensual definition of what constitutes a stay-at-home parent household has been emerged. Researchers have discussed and examined stay-at-home parent households using operational definitions that were very narrow to very broad in scope. At the narrow end of the continuum, a stay-at-home parent household has been defined as a household in which one spouse (usually the husband) worked and the other spouse (usually the wife) *chose* to stay-at-home to take care of *pre-school* children (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2005; Bridges et al., 2002; Riggs, 1998). This definition stressed both the choice of the non-working spouse and the age of children. At the broad end of the continuum, the stay-at-home parent household has been defined as a household in which one spouse (usually the husband) was the primary breadwinner and the other spouse (usually the wife) was not working or is a secondary provider. This definition operationalized a stay-at-home parent household as long as there was a child living in the household, regardless of the child's age, and even if both parents were working, as long as one parent took the role of caregiver while the other parent was the primary breadwinner. For example, Casper (1997) defined a father who was taking care of his preschool children while their mother was at work as a stay-at-home household, regardless of the employment status of the

father or the role of choice in his care for the children. In the current study, I defined a stay-at-home parent household as any household in which one of the parents worked and the other parent did not work for at least 12 months and was not looking for work. In addition, I considered stay-at-home parent households if families had at least one child who was 18 years of age and under and was living in the household.

Within stay-at-home parent households, I differentiated two different types of households: those with a stay-at-home mother and those with a stay-at-home father. These households were defined with the same inclusion criteria detailed above with the exception of the gender of the working parent and of the stay at-home parent.

Dual-Earner Parents Households

Similar to variations in the definition of stay-at-home parent households, no consistent operationalization of dual-earner parent households has emerged. As with the definition of stay-at-home parent households, the definition of dual-earner parent households varied in how it considered work and age of children. For example, some studies defined dual-earner parent households as those in which both the husband and wife were employed (regardless of number of work hours) and at least one child in the household was five years of age or under (e.g. Presser, 1988; Volling & Belsky, 1991). Others defined dual-earner parents as those with two working spouses regardless of the number of hours worked, and at least one child in elementary school or younger (e.g. Schwartzberg & Dytell, 1996). Still others used definitions of dual-earner parent households that varied by the age of the children from 12 to 18 (e.g. Bumpus, Crouter, & McHale, 1999; Ehrenberg, Gearing-Small, Hunter, & Small, 2001) but did not define

work by hours. In sum, all studies defined dual-earner parent households as those with two working parents, regardless of the number of hours the parents worked, but great variation occurred in the way age of children was defined. For the purpose of this study, dual-earner parent households were defined as those in which both parents worked at least 20 hours a week in order to better differentiate them from stay-at-home parent households (e.g., Allen & Hawkins, 1999). In addition, I operationalized as dual-earner only those households with at least one child 18 years of age or under living in the household. As mentioned, previous studies used a variety of criteria when operationalizing children's age, ranging from 5 years of age or younger to 18 years of age and younger (e.g., Nomaguchi, Milkie, & Bianchi, 2005; Presser, 1988, 1994). In this study I used the 18 years old criterion and controlled for the number of children age five and under.

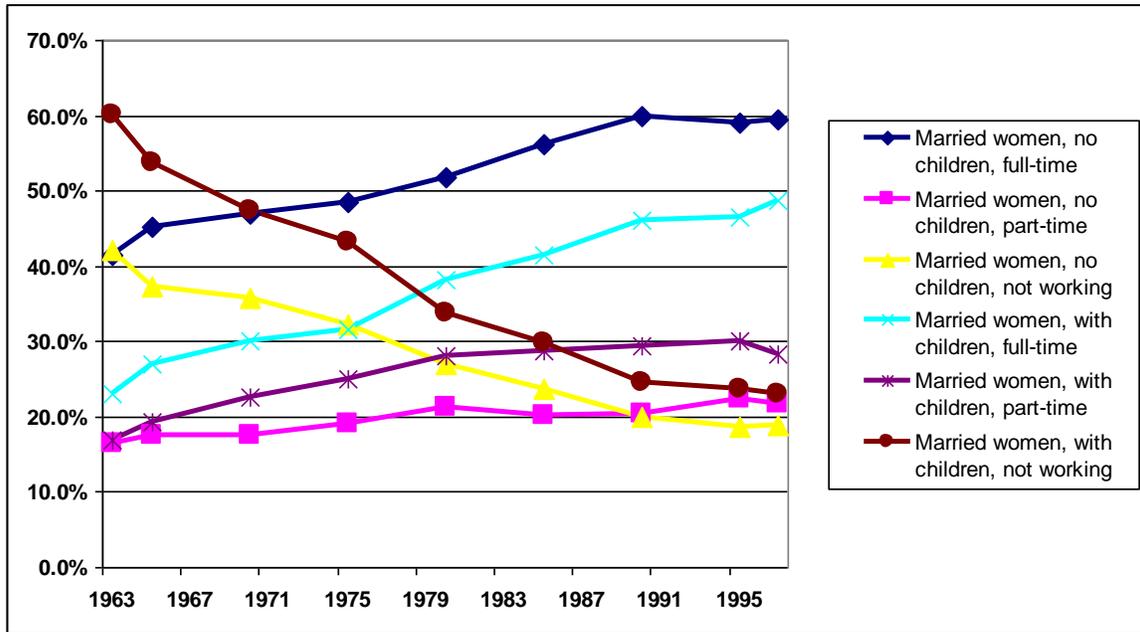
Characteristics of Stay-at-Home Mother Households and their Members

A stay-at-home mother household was the dominant household structure in the 1950s and 1960s although this was especially a middle-class white prototype and was less true in working class and minority families (Raley, Mattingly, & Bianchi, 2006). The so called "traditional family" consisted of a breadwinner male and a homemaker female. Divorce and unmarried childbearing were rare, and while most women worked until they got married and, for some, even after they got married, almost all women took a long, if not a permanent, break from paid work once they had their first child (Waite & Nielsen, 2001). In addition, women's earnings were far lower than men's earnings because they had less education, less training, were less committed to work, and mostly worked in

feminine jobs that were very low-paying (Blau, Ferber, & Winkler, 1998; Cherlin, 1992; Waite & Nielsen, 2001). Social changes emerging in the 1960s led to a more pluralistic household structure with a variety of employment structures. These included families in which both spouses worked full-time, families in which one spouse worked full-time and one worked part-time, and more traditional households with a single breadwinner. In addition, a substantial increase in the number of single parents occurred as a result of increasing rates of divorce as well as unmarried childbearing (Waite & Nielsen, 2001). Even with all the changes in household structure, the current percentage of households with children in which the wife does not work remains significant. Using the Current Population Surveys (CPS), Waite and Nielsen (2001) estimated that 23.1%, or almost a quarter, of all married couple households with children in 1997 were traditional households where the mother was not working. Furthermore, another 28.3% of households had a mother who worked part-time (Waite & Nielsen, 2001). These numbers indicated that approximately 50% of all married women with children were not working full-time, and represented a downward trend in the number of traditional households. In 1963, 60.2% of married women with children were not working and 16.9% were working part-time. In 1975, 43.2% of married women with children were not working and 25.1% were working part-time. By 1985, the proportion of non-working married women with children dropped to 29.8%, and 28.7% of married women with children were working part-time (Waite & Nielsen, 2001). As mentioned, this downward trend was also evident in 1997. A more detailed summary of the changes in workforce participation of married women with children can be seen in Figure 1. Also note that

many women stopped working when they had children as evidenced by their comparison to married women with no children.

Figure 1: Married women participation in the labor force, 1963-1997, by having or not having children



Surprisingly, very few studies have focused on stay-at-home mothers (Vejar, Madison-Colmore, & ter Maat, 2006). Most studies considering stay-at-home mothers primarily focused on children and their outcomes or characteristics (Hernandez, 1997; Lichter & Landale, 1995). Yet, as a side topic in some of these studies, preliminary conclusions were drawn regarding the characteristics of stay-at-home mother households. Four points concerning household characteristics emerge from these studies. First, the most intuitive characteristic is lower household income compared to dual-earner households (Hanson & Ooms, 1991; Waite & Nielsen, 2001). However, when taking into account the increased cost of child care for dual-earner parents, the household income gap between dual-earner households and stay-at-home mother households decreased by

68% (Hanson & Ooms, 1991). Second, stay-at-home mother households also tended to have more children than dual-earner households (Ciscel, Sharp, & Heath, 2000), and mothers devoted more time to the household than dual earner couples. Third, between 1975 and 1991, both husbands and wives in stay-at-home mother households tended to be slightly older than dual-earners, with husbands 1-3 years older and wives 1-2 years older (Ciscel et al., 2000). Fourth, husbands in stay-at-home mother households worked for pay 1.5 weekly hours less than husbands in dual-earner households (Ciscel et al., 2000).

At the individual level, stay-at-home mothers tended to have lower education than working mothers. For example, less than 8% of professional women born since 1956 were out of the labor force during their prime childbearing years (Percheski, 2008).

Characteristics of Stay-at-Home Father Households and their Members

Research on stay-at-home father households has rarely been conducted, especially in the United States. These few studies have largely focused on negative societal attitudes toward stay-at-home fathers who take care of their children as compared to the more positive societal attitudes toward stay-at-home mothers who take on these responsibilities (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2005; Bridges et al., 2002; Kaufman, 2005; Novack & Novack, 1996; Riggs, 1998). Similarly, studies have shown that career mothers were perceived more negatively than stay-at-home mothers in general, and specifically, were perceived as lower on parenting effectiveness and warmth than both career fathers and stay-at-home mothers (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2005; Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2004). In addition to the negative perceptions of career mothers by society as a whole, some career mothers also confronted a male spouse who often did not feel comfortable with a wife who earned

more money or who would be characterized as the primary breadwinner (Novack & Novack, 1996). These findings suggest that stay-at-home father households faced a double jeopardy; both the stay-at-home father and the career mother were perceived as deviating from their traditional roles as primary breadwinner and primary caregiver. The double jeopardy faced by both mothers and fathers in stay-at-home father households was evident in the perceptions of both men and women regarding the roles of men and women when they have children. Kaufman (2005) found that in a random sample of students who were 18-22 years of age, only 12.8% of women stated that if given a choice, they would like spouses to stay at home with their children, compared with 47.2% of men who would like their spouses to stay at home.

Few differences between stay-at-home fathers and stay-at-home mothers were found in a study by Zimmerman (2000), the only study that directly compared stay-at-home father households to stay-at-home mother households. Zimmerman (2000) found that one difference was focused on the reasons for staying home. Most stay-at-home mothers gave religious reasons for staying at home with children, while most stay-at-home fathers indicated they chose to stay-at-home so they could take care of their children. In addition, the decision to stay-at-home by mothers was a long-term decision, with no specific limit as to the duration of staying at home, while stay-at-home fathers saw their roles as stay-at-home parents as more temporal, with a specific duration (e.g. until the child was three years old). Finally, stay-at-home fathers reported they felt more isolated, and experienced higher levels of boredom, greater feelings of loneliness, and lower social support than stay-at-home mothers (Zimmerman, 2000).

Finally, it seems that gender role perceptions played a significant role in the attitudes regarding stay-at-home father households. Less egalitarian gender role attitudes were related to more negative perceptions of both career mothers and stay-at-home fathers, or even fathers as primary caregivers, while more egalitarian gender role attitudes were related to more positive perceptions of career mothers and stay-at-home fathers and fathers as primary caregivers (Kaufman, 2005; Novack & Novack, 1996).

In sum, stay-at-home father households were not common for several reasons. First, perceptions toward stay-at-home fathers as well as career mothers were negative. Both males and females appeared to perceive working fathers and stay-at-home mothers more favorably than they perceived stay-at-home fathers and career mothers. These negative perceptions were embedded in gender role expectations that the non-traditional stay-at-home father households violated. Second, mothers might have had greater choice than fathers in deciding whether to stay-at-home. For example, stay-at-home fathers were much more likely to be subjected to negative societal perceptions if they choose to stay-at-home than mothers who choose to stay at home. To put it differently, mothers seemed to have more leverage in choosing between work and home while fathers had much less leverage and were expected to work. Third, the gender-based income gap between males and females means, that even if fathers overcame the negative perceptions of stay-at-home fathers and preferred to be the primary caregiver of their children, economic reasons might have made this seem impossible. Household income was likely to be lower when a father stayed at home than when a mother stayed at home simply due to the significant gender income gap (Bittman, England, Sayer, Folbre, & Matheson, 2003; Marini & Fan, 1997). However, to date, no study reports the income gap between stay-at-

home mother households and stay-at-home father households. Finally, stay-at-home fathers perceived their roles as more temporal than stay-at-home mothers, making it less probable to observe such households, especially when using a cross-sectional design.

Characteristics of Dual-Earner Households and their Members

Dual-earner household as a household structure is a relatively recent phenomenon. As discussed earlier, in the 1950s and early 1960s, most families consisted of a man-breadwinner and a woman-homemaker. Some women worked before they got married, some even after they married, but significant numbers of women left the labor force for extended periods of time after having their first child, with many not returning to the labor force at all (Waite & Nielsen, 2001). Today, most households are dual-earner households (Moen, 2003) with both spouses working. In addition, although women earned lower wages than men, the gap in earnings has narrowed and the gap in education has disappeared. Dual-earner couples have been the “big winners” of the social change occurring since the early 1960s, especially if one considers financial well-being as an indicator of success (Waite & Nielsen, 2001). By the 1990s, 77% of married women with children were working and 48.7% of married women with children were working full-time (Waite & Nielsen, 2001). The increase in mothers’ labor force participation was especially dramatic when examining the changes in participation of women with children under 3 years of age. In 1966, only 21% of women with children under 3 were working. By 1993, this percentage has almost tripled, with 60% of mothers with children under 3 years of age working (Winkler, 1998). This change in women’s labor force participation, combined with growing career and occupational opportunities for women, led to a

situation unheard of in the 1950s and early 1960s. In many households today, wives earn about half (40%-60%) of the household income and in some households wives earn most of the household income (defined as earning more than 60% of the household income). In 2001, about 24% of women earned approximately half of the household income (Pixley, 2008) compared with only 9% in 1970, and in the same period, the percentage of women who earned most of the household income in dual-earner couples tripled from 4% to 12% (Raley et al., 2006).

Although the most obvious characteristic of dual-earner households was higher household income, other characteristics have been used to describe dual-earner couples. For example, dual-earner couples tended to have higher education than traditional couples with stay-at-home mothers. Dual-earner couples also tended to have a more egalitarian division of household work and child care, although women continued doing the majority of the housework and child care (Blau, 1998; Shelton & John, 1993). Furthermore, not all dual-earner households were created equal. Crouter and Manke (1997) developed a typology of dual-earner couples and defined three types of dual-earners: (a) high-status dual-earner families, also known as dual-career couples; (b) low-status dual-earner families; and (c) main-secondary provider families. A similar typology was offered by Moen and Yu (2000) who proposed that dual-earners could be divided into four sub-categories based on the level of career investment by the husband and wife. The first category included households in which both husbands and wives had *high investment and commitment* to their jobs, and was considered as dual-career or high-status dual-earner families. The second category included households in which both husbands and wives had *low investment and low commitment* to their work, and were considered low-

status dual-earner families. This kind of family-work structure was likely to be less a matter of choice and more a matter of inevitability given the way jobs, careers, and pay scales were structured in society (Blau et al., 1998; Han & Moen 1999; Moen & Yu, 2000; Schor 1998). The third household category included families with husbands who had high career investment and wives who had low career investment and were defined as neo-traditional households. Families described with this option were following a modified version of the traditional breadwinner-homemaker model in which husbands and wives assumed the traditional gender roles of primary provider and primary caregiver/homemaker (Becker & Moen, 1999; Moen & Yu, 2000). The fourth and last category included households in which husbands had low career investment and wives had high career investment. In such families, gender roles were at odds with societal expectations. Most studies have either focused on dual career couples or ignored the status, level of career investment, or level of work commitment of husbands and wives in dual-earner couples. (e.g., Burley, 1995; Ezzedeen & Grossnickle-Ritchey, 2008; Gordon & Whelan-Berry, 2005)

From the review of types of households, it is clear that couples approach their work/family roles in complex ways. Families can take the general form of stay-at-home mother households, stay-at-home father households, or dual-earner households and multiple sub-categories within these types of households. How do couples decide which type of household best suits their needs? The following sections present three theories, *social exchange theory*, *gender role theory*, and *feminist theory*, which guided me in describing the paths couples took when deciding on their type of household. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958, 1961, 1964; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959) takes

a structural-functionalism path in describing how couples choose to exchange their labor and family resources and social roles. Gender role theory emphasizes how social expectations regarding the roles of females and males affect family decisions regarding work and family roles. Finally, feminist theory emphasizes the power structure in societal institutions (e.g., government agencies, laws, organization) and within couples and the effects such power structures and power relations have on couples' "decisions" about their household structure.

CHAPTER III: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1961, 1964) is the most cited theory for the study of marital relationships (Karney & Bradbury, 1995), with its roots both in social psychology (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959) and sociology (Homans, 1958, 1964; Blau, 1964). The different roots of social exchange theory, while having equifinality, guided Blau, Homans, and Thibaut and Kelley to derive social exchange theory from different directions, using different social units. Blau emphasized the technical economic analysis of exchange and warned that too much emphasis on the psychological aspects of exchange might obstruct our understanding of exchange (Emerson, 1976). Thibaut and Kelley, on the other hand, began from psychological concepts and built an understanding of exchange upwards to dyads and small groups (Emerson, 1976). Homans took a third path and began from larger social units downward to an understanding of smaller groups (Emerson, 1976). Although Blau, Thibaut, and Kelley, and Homans developed and approached social exchange theory from different perspectives, more similarities than dissimilarities existed in their understanding of social exchange.

From these different perspectives, social exchange theory can be understood as an “economic analysis of noneconomic social situation” (Emerson, 1976; p. 336). Social exchange theory assumes a rational and interest-based exchange, usually within dyads, that results in rewards, costs, and benefits to players involved in the exchange (Lewis, 2005). Furthermore, social exchange theory assumes that all players try to maximize their benefits and minimize their costs in any given exchange (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1961). An important assumption of social exchange theory is that exchange is done reciprocally but not necessarily simultaneously. For example, when a stay-at-home mother decides to join the labor force and contribute to family income, she might exchange some of her family responsibilities with her husband who now will not be the sole provider of the family. This exchange can happen simultaneously, if, for example, the wife and the husband agree that now that the wife is working, the husband will increase his share of the care for sick children. The exchange, however, can also happen with some time lag, if, for example, the wife starts working and expects that caring for older parents, when needed, will be shared in the future.

Social exchange theory has been utilized in studying many aspects of family relations including interracial and interethnic marriages (Gunduz-Hosqor & Smits, 2002; Kalmijn, 1993; Murstein, 1973; Schoen & Wooldredge, 1989; Xuanning, 2008), mate selection (Berscheid & Walster, 1969; McCall, 1966; Murstein, 1973), marriage dissolution and stability (Bodenmann, Charvoz, Bradbury, Bertoni, Iafrate, Giuliani, Banse, & Behling, 2006; Esterberg, Moen, & Dempster-McCain, 1994; Levinger, 1979; Lewis & Spanier, 1982; McDonald, 1981; Thompson & Spanier, 1983), caregiving (Call,

Finch, Huck, & Kane, 1999), involuntary celibacy (Donnelly & Burgess, 2008), and in explanations of females exchanging sex in relationships (Baumeister & Vohs, 2004).

Surprisingly, no studies focused on family-income structure have used exchange theory. More specifically, although exchange theory is heavily based on economic principles, the actual economics of the household have not been examined using social exchange theory. In this study, I argued that as women's participation in the labor force increased and as women earned greater access to careers that were previously open only to men, some women began to earn significant amounts of money that allowed them to exchange family roles with job roles. In extreme cases, when women earned significantly more than their husbands and had far better career prospects, they became sole earners, with husbands who, in turn, exchanged their roles as breadwinners for those of homemakers/caregivers.

Social exchange theory cannot be the only perspective used when trying to understand what leads couples to become a stay-at-home father household. The normative gender role perceptions and expectations are still likely to operate within these nontraditional couples. For example, mothers might feel guilty because they believe they do not spend enough time with their children as expected by social norms. Fathers might feel shame because they do not work and do not provide any share of the household income as is generally expected from husbands. Normative gender role expectations are also likely to result in pressure within the couple's environment (friends, family, work places, institutions, etc.) to follow more closely traditional gender roles, and might lead wives of stay-at-home fathers to suffer from higher domestic demands than men in dual-

earning or stay-at-home mother households.

Gender Role Theory

Talcott Parsons is perhaps most commonly associated with families and gender role theory. Using structural-functionalism as an overarching paradigm, Parsons (1942) argued that the breadwinner-male / homemaker-female family was best suited to serve the functions needed in industrial societies. Parsons and Bales (1955) drew on small group studies to argue that families were small groups in which division of labor occurred, and men and women had different roles in which they specialized. In particular, men performed the “instrumental role” while women performed the “expressive role”.

Gender roles are attitudes and behaviors prescribed to males and females by the broader society (Bartley, Blanton, & Gilliard, 2005). Most importantly, gender roles are assigned solely on the basis of gender and hence are not related to any knowledge, skills, or abilities the individual might hold. Traditional gender roles prescribe division of “expertise” for women and men, whereas women have power at home and have greater responsibilities regarding housework, child care, and relationship maintenance and men have power outside home, most importantly as primary breadwinners who bear the majority of financial responsibility (Beavers, 1982). These traditional gender roles position men with more power than women in the dyadic family relationship because women tend to develop personal relationship-specific resources that are associated with limited alternatives and high degrees of relationship dependence (Bartley et al., 2005). Men, on the other hand, develop more valued resources including earning power, experience, and status that allow them exemption, or at least lower participation, in many

responsibilities outside paid work such as household maintenance, child care, and care for older parents (Scanzoni, 1982; Steil, 1997).

Gender role perceptions and attitudes have increasingly become more egalitarian (Bartley et al., 2005; Cherlin & Walters, 1981; Crompton, Brockmann, & Lyonette, 2005; Mason & Bumpass, 1975; Mason, Czajka, & Arber, 1976; Mason & Lu, 1988; Morgan & Walker, 1983; Thornton, 1989; Wilkie, 1993), and husbands and wives in dual-earner households have reported a growing equality between husbands and wives in decision-making (Coltrane, 1996; Hochschild, 1997; Pleck, 1997). Growing equality is evident by several changes in both men's and women's participation in work and family roles. Men have increased their participation in household chores and child care and decreased their labor force participation from 89.2% in 1960 to 77.5% in 1999 (Bartley et al., 2005); women have been steadily increasing their participation in the labor force from 37.7% in 1960 to 59.8% in 1999 (Fullerton, 1999); working mothers also increased their working hours with 48.7% of married mothers working full-time in 1997 as compared to only 23% in 1963. Yet, gender role perceptions are still relatively rigid for most couples, especially for mothers, who are expected to take the primary caregiver role, especially for young children, even if they work full-time (Coltrane, 2000). Previous studies have shown that, even among couples that hold non-traditional role perceptions, wives carry greater responsibility for housework and child care than their husbands (Rogers & Amato, 2000).

Based on the traditional gender role attitudes that dominated the period after WWII and the gradual change to more egalitarian gender role perception, attitudes, and behaviors over time, I expected men, especially in the earlier years of the study (late

1960's and early 1970's), to take on the role of breadwinner. I also expected women to take on the primary role of homemaker and caregiver, a role that included no paid employment or employment only as a secondary earner. Because gender role perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors were expected to shift over time to a more egalitarian mode, I expected more men, over time, to take on the primary role of homemaker and caregiver and more women to take on the primary role of breadwinner. However, because gender role perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors are still dominant, I expected to find that (a) few couples "switched" roles; and that (b) in stay-at-home father households, women were expected to contribute more to the maintenance of the household and caregiving than men in stay-at-home mother households.

A Feminist Perspective

Feminist scholars developed their understanding of the relationships between males and females by making the basic assumption that "females and males, femininity and masculinity, are equally valuable." (Wood, 1995, p. 104). By making this assumption, scholars who are using a feminist perspective, are interested in the structures and practices that hinder this equality (Wood, 1995). Gender is a basic organizing concept in feminist scholarship (Osmond & Thorne, 2003), and it is used to show how differences between men and women are socially constructed and exaggerated. Gender is also used to show how these socially constructed differences are later used to legitimize power relations between men and women (Osmond & Thorne, 2003). From a feminist perspective, gender relations are power relations in which women, compared to men, are subordinated in all aspects of life – socially, economically, politically and legally.

In the context of family relations, feminist theory has focused on studying how the level of egalitarian attitudes of husbands and wives influenced how work and family roles were distributed within the household. As expected, couples with egalitarian attitudes tended to have more equal division of both family and work roles, although even among the most egalitarian couples, wives still assumed greater responsibility for the family role while husbands took greater responsibility for the work role (Ball, Cowan, & Cowan, 1995; Fox & Murry, 2000; Thompson & Walker, 1989; Zvonkovic, Schmiede, & Hall, 1994). In addition, there was a large gap between the attitudes of couples regarding equality of household and paid work and their actual behavior (Bartley et al., 2005). For example, using attitudinal data from the National Survey of Families and Households, Gager (1998) indicated that 82% of husbands and 90% of wives strongly believed that household labor should be shared equally when both spouses worked outside of the home. Given that most households today consist of dual-earner couples, one would expect that in many of these households, husbands and wives are equally sharing the household work. However, estimates of husbands who equally shared household work with their wives were very low, ranging from less than 2% and up to 12% and some studies showed that when women contributed more than men to household income their share of the household might even increase (Deutsch, 2007; Ferree, 1991; Mannino & Deutsch 2007; Nyquist, Slivken, Spence, & Helmreich, 1985). Feminist theory suggests that power relations deeply rooted in social norms and expectations are at least partly responsible for this difference between attitudes regarding equality and actual equality.

Another explanation might be that, among most households, the husband's career is considered primary, while the wife's career is considered secondary (Bartley et al.,

2005). In other words, husbands have careers while wives have jobs. As such, husbands possess greater influence in all areas of family life because their work is considered as time spent for the family's well-being while wives' time at work is not considered in the same way, but rather as supplemental income (Bartley et al., 2005). In turn, husbands can avoid equal involvement with household labor while wives are expected to complement their "unequal" share in work by greater involvement in household labor. To put it differently, husbands are exempt from household labor because their career is more valued than their wives' career in the broader society and sometimes even in the family (Okin, 1989; Steil, 1997).

These differences in the importance allocated to the careers of men and women are evident when examining employment data. More than 60% of women worked outside the home, and even when the wives' occupational status was similar or better than that of their husbands, "his" career was mostly considered primary while "her" career was mostly considered secondary (Steil, 1997). This gender-based career stratification not only "limits wives' access to valued resources, but also assigns different weights to resources based on whether they are contributed to the family by husbands or wives" (Bartley et al., 2005, p. 73).

Since the 1950's, gender role perceptions have evolved to more egalitarian perceptions. Some studies have shown that households in which husbands and wives hold more egalitarian perceptions about gender roles have a more balanced, yet still unequal division of household labor (Blair & Lichter, 1991; Greenstein, 1996; Presser, 1994; Sanchez, 1994). These results indicate that true parity in the division of household labor has not been reached.

Theory Summary

Social exchange theory, gender role theory, and feminist theory provide us with different perspectives concerning the composition of households based on paid-work and care. Social exchange theory provides a rational model in which couples with limited resources make decisions that serve household and individual best interests. It follows that structural functionalism assumes that household composition in terms of paid-work and care serves functions at the individual, family, and even societal level. Gender role theory takes a broader perspective; one that emphasizes different social roles for men and women as prescribed by social values and norms. As such, gender role theory guides us to consider household composition in terms of paid-work and care as something that is influenced by expectations, sanctions, and incentives outside the family, such as peers and social institutions. Furthermore, gender role theory is rooted in structural-functionalism in that it assumes the division of roles within the household is serving the broader society.

As a critical perspective, feminist theory cannot easily compliment other theories. For example, feminist proponents observe social exchange and gender role theories as rooted in the social structure that define power relations, and hence criticize them as serving this power structure. In addition, feminist theory, by its nature, is a macro perspective. It guides us to observe beyond the family and the individuals who compose it, into social structures and social institutions. However, when taken down from the macro, critical level, into a perspective that observes the family, feminist theory guides us to observe the lack of choice most couples have, and in particular for women, regarding their household composition in terms of paid work and care. Power relations within the

family and power structures outside the family make it difficult for couples to choose non-traditional paid work and care arrangements.

Although each theory presents a different perspective, I considered them as complimentary rather than contradictory. Exchange theory guides us to explore the resources husbands and wives hold within each household and how they exchange these resources. As such, it is important to observe education and income as resources that can be exchanged for time spent in household work. Gender role theory guides us to observe beyond the resources husbands and wives hold to consider the socially constructed roles that society dictates. For example, gender based occupational choices (e.g., nurses vs. computer engineers) might be a result of different role expectations, as well as self-selection into occupations based on the flexibility they provide in juggling work and home demands. Finally, feminist theory guides us to employ a critical perspective; one that considers explanations that take into account power relations rather than a simple exchange between couples of house and paid work roles.

CHAPTER IV: RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESES

Based on literature review and the gaps identified in the review of stay-at-home fathers and their wives, the following three research questions and subsequent seven hypotheses were examined. The first research question stated: *Are wives of stay-at-home fathers different in family and work characteristics from non-working mothers and from fathers in stay-at-home mother households?* The two hypotheses that follow from this research question are listed below.

Hypothesis 1: Wives of stay-at-home fathers will have higher education than working mothers in dual-earner families.

Hypothesis 2: Wives of stay-at-home fathers will have higher education than stay-at-home mothers in traditional families.

Hypothesis 1 and 2 were formulated by combining exchange theory and gender roles theory. In particular, I argued that in order to reverse traditional division of labor, in which husbands were primary breadwinners and wives were primary care providers and responsible for household management, wives would need to have resources (education) that were above and beyond those of both mothers in dual-career households and stay-at-home mothers.

The second research question stated: *Are stay-at-home fathers different in their family and work characteristics from stay-at-home mothers and from working fathers?*

The hypotheses that followed from this research question are listed below.

Hypothesis 3a: Stay-at-home fathers will have, on average, lower education than their wives and working fathers in traditional families and dual-earner families

Hypothesis 3b: The average gap in education between stay-at-home fathers and their wives and working fathers in traditional families and dual-earner families will narrow over time.

Combining exchange theory and feminist theory suggested that the gap in earning potential needed to be significant to enable fathers to exchange roles with their wives.

However, because of the gradual change toward a more egalitarian division of labor, over time, the average difference between stay-at-home fathers' education and the education of their wives and other fathers in both traditional households and dual-earner households was expected to narrow.

The third research question stated: *Are stay-at-home father households different in their characteristics from stay-at-home mother and dual-earner households?* The four hypotheses that followed from this research question are listed below.

Hypothesis 4: Stay-at-home father households will have lower income than that of stay-at-home mother households.

Hypothesis 5: Stay-at-home father households in which the husband chooses to stay home to take care of the family/household will have higher income from the wife's work than that of all stay-at-home father households and that of stay-at-home mother households.

Hypothesis 6: Stay-at-home father households will have lower numbers of children compared to stay-at-home mother households.

Hypothesis 7: Children in stay-at-home father households will be older than children in stay-at-home mother households. Specifically, having children younger than 5 years of age residing in the household will decrease the probability of a household being a stay-at-home father household.

Hypothesis 4 was derived using feminist theory which postulates that women were discriminated against by all social institutions, including work places. Women were considered by employers as less committed to the labor force and, as such, were given fewer training opportunities and fewer promotions than comparable men. As a result, they enjoyed lower income. Hypothesis 5 assumed some interaction between household income structure and the decision of households to maintain a stay-at-home father household. Specifically, this hypothesis was based on exchange and role theory and tested whether men who chose to stay-at-home to take care of family (and not for other reasons such as inability to find work or disability) would exchange their role of primary provider only if their wives had income substantially higher than average and hence would “compensate” for this role exchange.

Hypotheses 6 was supported by previous research reporting more children in stay-at-home mother households than in dual-earner household (Ciscel et al., 2000). Although no data about the number of children in stay-at-home father households could be located, I assumed that having more children imposed higher burden on mothers’ careers, and hence, made them more likely to leave the labor force. When a mother gave birth to a child, she was likely to be out of paid employment for at least several weeks (Barrow, 1999). As such, having a stay-at-home father would mean no family income. Therefore, families that have more children were expected to be less likely categorized as stay-at-home father households. Hypothesis 7 also was supported by a rich literature (Cohany & Sok, 2007; Moen, 2003; Mosisa & Hipple, 2006) indicating that many women took a break from the labor force when they had preschool children and rejoined the labor force

only after their children entered the public education system. As such, it was expected that the numbers of stay-at-home father households would increase when children are older.

CHAPTER V: METHOD

Sample

The March Current Population Surveys (CPS) provided a unique opportunity to test the hypotheses raised in this study. The CPS is a monthly U.S. household survey conducted jointly by the U.S. Census Bureau and the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The CPS monthly survey included a battery of labor force and demographic questions, and the March Annual Demographic File and Income Supplement included additional variables advantageous for this study. In particular, the current study utilized the Integrated Public Use Microdata Series of the Current Population Surveys (IPUMS-CPS; King, Ruggles, Alexander, Leicach, & Sobek, 2004) with identical coded variables between 1962 and 2009. This integrated data allowed cross-time comparisons using the March CPS. The CPS provides information at the individual person and the household levels and as such is well suited for the current study, one that examined both individual level and household level factors related to couples' decisions to deviate from traditional household structure and form a stay-at-home father household.

For the current study, I used all available data from the CPS from 1968 to 2009. Data before 1968 were missing many of the study's variables of interest. In addition, because the CPS March Supplement battery of questions changed over time, some data were not available for certain years. In general, the CPS data between 1968 and 2009 can

be divided into three complete periods in which the same questions were asked. These periods were 1968-1975, 1976-1993, and 1994-2009. In addition, the Census Bureau reported that some data collected before 1990 (e.g. hourly wage) contained many errors and hence were not used in the current study. A complete description of the availability of each variable, by year, appears in the Measures section and in Appendix A. Finally, throughout the years of data collection, participants answered CPS questions about the previous year. Therefore, 2008 was the last year data were collected but is reported in the 2009 CPS survey, which is consistent across all years of data collection.

Inclusion criteria

This study was focused on working husbands and wives with children, who were part of dual-earner households, stay-at-home mother households, or stay-at-home father households. As such, only households with married couples were included. In addition, at least one spouse had to be working and at least one child 18 years of age or under had to reside in the household. More specifically, I began by including only married couple households with both spouses present. The marital status variable (MARST) was available for all years. Married couples with spouse present were coded as “1”. In order to exercise greater precaution, I also limited the sample to households with one family (NFAMS), one married couple in the household (NCOUPLES), and one mother and one father in the household (NMOTHERS and NFATHERS, respectively). These five variables were available from 1968 to 2009. I continued, including only couples who had at least one child under 18 residing in the household. I first included parents who reported that they had at least one child of their own in the household (i.e., adopted, step-child, or

biological; NCHILD) and then continued to include only households in which the youngest child was 18 years of age or under (YNGCH). Both these variables were available for the period between 1968 and 2009. In the next step, I included only households in which at least one spouse was working for pay. I did not use labor force status (LABFORCE) as an indicator because it was possible that some who were identified as in the labor force were not actually working (e.g. unemployed). Therefore, I used income from paid work (INCWAGE) combined with weeks worked last year (WKSWORK2) as an indicator of spouse working. I included in my sample only households in which the salary from paid work for at least one spouse was above \$1,000 (adjusted for the 2009 Consumer Price Index) and this individual worked at least 40 or more weeks last year (the second criterion made the \$1,000 criterion almost obsolete). These households were then further categorized as dual-earner households, stay-at-home mother households, and stay-at-home father households.

Measures

Because no clear way of currently defining stay-at-home father households existed, two different definitions were used. The first defined stay-at-home father households as those in which the wife earned 100% of the household income from work (strict definition) or more than the husband earned (less strict definition). The second definition defined stay-at-home father households as those in which the wife worked a full-time job while the husband did not work at all (strict definition) or as a household in which the wife worked more than the husband (less strict definition). The different definitions are detailed below.

Dependent Variables

Dependent variable definition 1: Stay-at-home fathers (income). Stay-at-home father households were identified using four different definitions. The most restrictive definition identified a stay-at-home father household as one in which the husband was not part of the labor force and had not received any income in the previous year, while his wife was working for pay. In order to identify such households, I defined stay-at-home father households as those in which the husband indicated that he was not in the labor force and the wife indicated she was in the labor force. I then divided the wife's income from salary and wages in the previous year by the total household income from salary and wages in the previous year. This created a variable in which a score of 1 indicated a stay-at-home father household and a score of zero indicated a stay-at-home mother household. Any score between 0 and 1 indicated a dual-earner household. For this analysis, I also excluded self-employed individuals because it was possible for them to have negative income. Based on the wife's income proportion measure, I defined three alternative types of stay-at-home father households. The first included households in which the wife earned 90% or more of the household income from salary and wages in the previous year, the second included households in which the wife earned 75% or more of the household income from salary and wages in the previous year, and the last one included households in which the wife earned more than 50% of the household income from salary and wages in the previous year.

Dependent variable definition 2: Stay-at-home fathers (hours). Another way used to define stay-at-home father households was based on the division of working hours between the husband and wife. Five different definitions of stay-at-home father

households were used. The first defined a stay-at-home father household as a household in which the wife was employed full-time (35 weekly hours or more; Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009), and the husband did not work at all (0 hours). A second, less restrictive category defined a stay-at-home father household as a household in which the wife was employed full-time and the husband was employed less than 20 hours per week. A third categorization defined a stay-at-home father household as a household in which the wife was employed full-time and the husband was employed part-time (1-34 weekly hours of work; Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009). A fourth categorization defined a stay-at-home father household as a household in which the wife was employed, regardless of the number of weekly hours she worked and the husband did not work. The final, or fifth, categorization used defined a stay-at-home father household as a household in which the wife was employed 20 hours or more and the husband did not work.

Stay-at-home mother and dual-earner households. All definitions used in identifying stay-at-home father households above were also used to identify stay-at-home mother households. For example, if a stay-at-home father household was defined as one in which the wife earned all the household income from wages and salary, stay-at-home mother households were mirror definitions of that, where the husband earned all the household income from wages and salary. Households that met the selection criteria and were neither stay-at-home father, nor stay-at-home mother, were coded as dual-earners.

Independent Variables

Parents' education. Parents' education was measured for the entire period as an ordinal variable (EDUCREC) and took the values of "1" for preschool or none, "2" for

first through fourth grade, “3” for fifth through eighth grade, “4” for ninth grade, “5” to tenth grade, “6” for eleventh grade, “7” for twelfth grade, “8” for 1-3 years of college, and “9” for 4+ years of college.

Income from wage and salary. Income from work was operationalized as the total pre-tax wage and salary income; that is, money received as an employee, for the previous calendar year. Income from work was adjusted for inflation using the 2009 Consumer Price Index and was available for the entire period.

Working hours. Working hours was measured by self-report. Individuals reported the usual number of hours they worked each week (UHRSWORK). This variable was measured only after 1976. Working hours was used to construct stay-at-home father, stay-at-home mother, and dual-earner households based on their working hours as explained above.

Reason for missing work last week. In addition to number of weeks worked last year, I utilized another variable, *reason for missing work*, elicited from working individuals (WHYABSENT). For the years 1968-1993, only limited numbers of reasons were given, and none of these reasons provided information concerning family obligations. However, between 1994 and 2009, subjects could specify “child care problems”, “other family/personal obligations”, and “maternity/paternity leave” as reasons for being absent from work the previous week. This measure was limited by using only the week preceding the survey and not the calendar year prior to the survey. Therefore, it was used in subsequent analyses to observe differences occurring by household type, in the reasons working parents gave for missing work days.

Disability status. The CPS provided information about disability with different measures. One question asked individuals why they did not work in the previous year (WHYNWLY). Possible answers were “1” - could not find work, “2” - ill or disabled, “3” - taking care of home/family, “4” - going to school, “5” - retired, “6” - in armed forces, and “7” - other. This variable was coded as a dummy variable with “ill or disabled” defined as the omitted category. This question was asked for the entire period between 1968 and 2009. Another question asked directly whether disability limited or prevented the individual from working (DISABWRK). This question was only asked between 1988 and 2007, and therefore was only used in subsequent analyses for the decades of 1990-1999 and 2000-2008.

Number of children. Number of children was measured directly by a variable that included any biological, adopted, or step-children who resided in the household. This measure was available for the entire period between 1968 and 2009.

Number of children under age 5 in the household. The CPS provided a direct measure of the number of children under age 5 living in the household (NCHLT5). As with the total number of children, this measure was available for the entire period between 1968 and 2009 and included all biological, adopted, or step-children.

Year. Data for this study spanned the period between 1968 and 2009, a period of 41 years. These years were divided to four periods, and each period was analyzed separately: 1968-1979, 1980-1989, 1990-1999, and 2000-2008 in order to examine whether any trends in the characteristics of stay-at-home father households and their members occurred.

Control Variables

Age. Controls for husband's and wife's age (AGE) as well as for the age of the youngest child (YNGCH) were used and were available for the entire period between 1968 and 2009.

Race. A dummy variable (RACE) distinguished between whites, blacks, and other and was available for all years. Data on Hispanic ethnicity were available only from 1971, and therefore, the race category was used without Hispanic coding between 1968 and 1970 and with Hispanic coding from 1971 to 2009. White was the omitted category with the other categories being black, Hispanic, and other.

Industry. Eleven industry dummies were used to control for any inter-industry wage differentials. Because the Census Bureau changed the industry coding over time, I used a variable that bridged industries across all years (IND1950). Manufacturing was the omitted category with the other categories being (a) agriculture, forestry, and fishing; (b) construction; (c) mining; (d) transportation, communication, and other utilities; (e) wholesale and retail trade; (f) finance, insurance, and real-estate; (g) business and repair services; and (h) personal services; (i) entertainment and recreation services; (j) professional and related services; and (k) public administration.

Rural. A dummy variable indicated whether respondents lived in a rural or metropolitan area (METRO). Metro area was the omitted category.

Region. Region was a dummy variable with 9 categories: New-England, Mid-Atlantic, East-North Central, West-North Central, South-Atlantic, East-South Central, West-South Central, Mountain, and Pacific. South-Atlantic was the omitted category.

Analyses Plan

In the first step, descriptive statistics of the characteristics of stay-at-home father households based on the strict definitions of stay-at-home father household (income based and work hours based) were examined. Tables with all other seven definitions appear in Appendices B-H and figures depicting these tables appear in Appendices I-O. The second series of analyses involved bivariate tests to examine differences between the three types of households (stay-at-home father, stay-at-home mother, and dual-earners) and between individuals within these households for all variables included in the study (Results presented in Appendix B - Appendix H). In the last series of analyses, logistic regression was used to test the stated hypotheses.

Empirical Strategy

The hypotheses in this study involved two levels of analysis, individual level and household level. When analyzing hypotheses 1 through 3b, analyses focused on the individual level and focused on six groups, including (a) wives of stay-at-home father households; (b) husbands of stay-at-home father households; (c) wives of stay-at-home mother households; (d) husbands of stay-at-home mother households; (e) wives of dual-earner households; and (f) husbands of dual-earner households. All hypotheses were tested using two methods. First, bivariate statistics were used to compare the raw means of education (individual level) and income, number of children, number of children five years of age and under, and age of youngest child (household level) between the different groups. Logistic regression was used to examine the dependent variable categories for

different types of stay-at-home father households in contrast to their counterparts. Specifically, I compared (a) the probability of a family becoming a stay-at-home father household (defined as one in which the mother worked a full-time job and the husband did not work and was not part of the labor force) compared to the probability of a family becoming a stay-at-home mother household (defined as one in which the father worked a full-time job and the wife did not work and was not part of the labor force); (b) the probability of a family becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice (defined as one in which the mother worked a full-time job and the husband did not work and was not part of the labor force because he took care of home and family) compared to the probability of a family becoming a stay-at-home mother household (defined as one in which the father worked a full-time job and the wife did not work and was not part of the labor force because she took care of home and family); and (c) the probability of a family becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice (defined as one in which the mother worked a full-time job and the husband did not work and was not part of the labor force because he took care of home and family) compared to the probability of a family becoming a stay-at-home father household not by choice (defined as one in which the mother worked a full-time job and the husband did not work and was not part of the labor force because reasons other than taking care of home and family, e.g., can't find work or disabled).

CHAPTER VI: RESULTS

The research questions were addressed in this study: (a) *Were wives of stay-at-home fathers different in family and work characteristics from non-working mothers and*

from fathers in stay-at-home mother households?; (b) Were stay-at-home fathers different in their family and work characteristics from stay-at-home mothers and from working fathers?; and (c) Were stay-at-home father households different in their characteristics from stay-at-home mother and dual-earner households?

Tables 1a-d (income based definition) and 2a-d (work hours based definition) present means and standard deviations of study variables based on restrictive definitions of stay-at-home father, stay-at-home mother, and dual-earner households. Appendices B-H present means and standard deviations of the study's variables based on less restrictive definitions of stay-at-home father, stay-at-home mother and dual-earners households. Appendices I-O present figures based on these tables. For the purpose of this study, I decided to focus on the most restrictive definitions of stay-at-home father households as these were most likely to represent households accurately identified not only by their income and working hours, but also in terms of actual time spent performing household work. The first restrictive definition included households in which the wife was the sole earner in stay-at-home father households and the husband was the sole earner in stay-at-home mother households (Tables 1a-d). The second restrictive definition was based on working hours and defined stay-at-home father households as those in which the wife worked full-time (35 hours or more) and the husband did not work (Tables 2a-d).

Table 1a: Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of study's variables, by income, 1968-1979

	1968-1979 – Wife is sole earner			
	Total	SAHF	SAHM	Dual-earners
<i>Household characteristics</i>				
Household work income (2009 base)***	62,340 (31,799)	21,143 (16,552)	58,333 (32,218)	67,013 (30,455)
Number of children in household***	2.33 (1.32)	2.23 (1.35)	2.46 (1.36)	2.21 (1.27)
Number of children age five and under***	.61 (.76)	.20 (.48)	.74 (.82)	.49 (.68)
Age of youngest child***	6.40 (5.28)	10.24 (5.25)	5.60 (5.08)	7.05 (5.34)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>				
Age father***	37.08 (9.58)	47.71 (12.85)	36.87 (9.38)	37.04 (9.53)
Age mother***	34.23 (8.87)	41.60 (9.85)	34.05 (8.88)	34.23 (8.77)
Education father***	6.66 (1.94)	5.31 (2.32)	6.70 (1.96)	6.65 (1.91)
Education mother***	6.58 (1.70)	5.96 (1.99)	6.46 (1.72)	6.71 (1.66)
N (percent)	164,335 (100%)	1,908 (1.2%)	78,393 (48%)	83,034 (50.9%)

- SAHF: Stay-at-home father. Defined as a household in which the wife is the sole earner
- SAHM: Stay-at-home mother. Defined as a household in which the husband is the sole earner
- Dual-earner household is defined as a household in which both the wife and the husband earn money from work
- Education coding: 5=Grade 10; 6=grade 11; 7=grade 12; 8=1-3 years of college

*** SAHF households are different from SAHM and dual-earner households at $p < .001$

Table 1b: Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of study's variables, by income, 1980-1989

	1980-1989 -- Wife is sole earner			
	Total	SAHF	SAHM	Dual-earners
<i>Household characteristics</i>				
Household work income (2009 base)***	62,565 (34,220)	21,922 (16,043)	53,320 (32,190)	68,484 (33,716)
Number of children in household***	2.11 (1.07)	2.12 (1.15)	2.29 (1.17)	2.01 (1.00)
Number of children age five and under***	.56 (.73)	.29 (.58)	.71 (.81)	.49 (.68)
Age of youngest child***	7.00 (5.60)	9.98 (5.74)	6.07 (5.44)	7.37 (5.60)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>				
Age father***	37.34 (9.01)	48.68 (12.22)	37.18 (9.28)	37.18 (8.64)
Age mother***	34.72 (8.25)	39.98 (9.85)	34.49 (8.72)	34.66 (7.89)
Education father***	7.11 (1.74)	6.00 (2.14)	6.94 (1.88)	7.22 (1.64)
Education mother***	7.01 (1.56)	6.57 (1.76)	6.67 (1.73)	7.19 (1.43)
N (percent)	138,064 (100%)	2,904 (2.1%)	44,972 (32.6%)	90,188 (65.3%)

- SAHF: Stay-at-home father. Defined as a household in which the wife is the sole earner
- SAHM: Stay-at-home mother. Defined as a household in which the husband is the sole earner
- Dual-earner household is defined as a household in which both the wife and the husband earn money from work
- Education coding: 5=Grade 10; 6=grade 11; 7=grade 12; 8=1-3 years of college
- *** SAHF households are different than SAHM and dual-earner households at $p < .001$

Table 1c: Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of study's variables, by income, 1990-1999

	1990-1999 – Wife is sole earner			
	Total	SAHF	SAHM	Dual-earners
<i>Household characteristics</i>				
Household work income (2009 base) ***	68,916 (47,358)	27,009 (24,739)	56,108 (50,591)	75,133 (45,030)
Number of children in household***	2.06 (.99)	2.02 (1.04)	2.28 (1.12)	1.98 (.92)
Number of children age five and under***	.54 (.72)	.34 (.61)	.74 (.81)	.48 (.67)
Age of youngest child***	6.99 (5.47)	9.26 (5.65)	5.66 (5.12)	7.37 (5.49)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>				
Age father***	38.23 (8.21)	43.69 (10.85)	37.54 (8.33)	38.26 (7.96)
Age mother***	35.89 (7.54)	39.09 (8.26)	35.05 (7.87)	36.07 (7.34)
Education father***	7.42 (1.59)	6.58 (1.96)	7.15 (1.89)	7.55 (1.42)
Education mother***	7.38 (1.51)	7.04 (1.65)	6.91 (1.83)	7.56 (1.32)
N (percent)	112,492 (100%)	3,168 (2.8%)	28,745 (25.6%)	80,579 (71.6%)

- SAHF: Stay-at-home father. Defined as a household in which the wife is the sole earner
- SAHM: Stay-at-home mother. Defined as a household in which the husband is the sole earner
- Dual-earner household is defined as a household in which both the wife and the husband earn money from work
- Education coding: 5=Grade 10; 6=grade 11; 7=grade 12; 8=1-3 years of college
- *** SAHF households are different than SAHM and dual-earner households at $p < .001$

Table 1d: Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of study's variables, by household type, 2000-2008

	2000-2008 – Wife is sole earner			
	Total	SAHF	SAHM	Dual-earners
<i>Household characteristics</i>				
Household work income (2009 base)***	85,459 (71,352)	39,014 (49,415)	73,392 (81,055)	92,101 (66,942)
Number of children in household**	2.07 (.98)	1.99 (1.03)	2.28 (1.11)	1.99 (.91)
Number of children age five and under***	.50 (.71)	.31 (.61)	.71 (.81)	.43 (.66)
Age of youngest child***	7.48 (5.56)	9.46 (5.52)	5.88 (5.16)	7.97 (5.58)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>				
Age father***	40.25 (8.57)	45.14 (11.02)	39.05 (8.57)	40.45 (7.96)
Age mother***	37.99 (8.04)	40.81 (8.47)	36.68 (8.30)	38.33 (7.86)
Education father***	7.64 (1.51)	7.14 (1.65)	7.44 (1.83)	7.74 (1.35)
Education mother***	7.69 (1.46)	7.54 (1.47)	7.28 (1.81)	7.85 (1.28)
N (percent)	162,180 (100%)	5,592 (3.5%)	41,709 (25.7%)	114,879 (70.8%)

- SAHF: Stay-at-home father. Defined as a household in which the wife is the sole earner
- SAHM: Stay-at-home mother. Defined as a household in which the husband is the sole earner
- Dual-earner household is defined as a household in which both the wife and the husband earn money from work
- Education coding: 5=Grade 10; 6=grade 11; 7=grade 12; 8=1-3 years of college
- *** SAHF households are different than SAHM and dual-earner households at $p < .001$
- ** SAHF households are different than SAHM at $p < .001$

Table 2a: Frequency, mean and standard deviation study's variables, by working hours, 1968-1979

	Total	Wife works 35 hours or more; husband does not work	Husband works 35 hours or more; wife does not work	Both work 35 hours or more	Wife works 35 hours or more; Husband works less than 35 hours	Husband works 35 hours or more; Wife works less than 35 hours	Both work less than 35 hours
<i>Household characteristics</i>							
Household work income (2009 base)***	62,456 (35,648)	42,577 (27,323)	58,440 (35,204)	69,818 (34,982)	41,381 (30,153)	61,720 (34,397)	29,984 (32,481)
Number of children in household***	2.30 (1.23)	2.12 (1.11)	2.43 (1.28)	2.14 (1.18)	2.06 (1.29)	2.36 (1.21)	2.28 (1.32)
Number of children age five and under***	.49 (.70)	.27 (.53)	.62 (.78)	.40 (.62)	.46 (.62)	.42 (.66)	.47 (.70)
Age of youngest child***	7.37 (5.50)	9.31 (5.46)	6.54 (5.43)	7.96 (5.59)	7.52 (5.71)	7.74 (5.26)	7.94 (5.81)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>							
Age father***	38.31 (9.50)	42.47 (12.46)	38.22 (9.51)	37.93 (9.43)	38.32 (11.72)	38.63 (9.04)	41.25 (13.33)
Age mother***	35.47 (8.86)	38.15 (9.85)	35.43 (9.10)	35.09 (8.66)	34.76 (10.03)	35.88 (8.46)	37.43 (11.14)
Education father***	6.92 (1.87)	6.20 (2.11)	6.93 (1.91)	6.82 (1.86)	6.51 (2.28)	7.19 (1.73)	6.35 (2.22)
Education mother***	6.81 (1.63)	6.67 (1.74)	6.63 (1.71)	6.87 (1.60)	6.74 (1.77)	7.07 (1.45)	6.28 (1.96)
N (percent)	61,416 (100%)	850 (1.4%)	23,832 (38.8%)	22,086 (36.0%)	468 (0.7%)	13,245 (21.6)	935 (1.5%)

*** SAHF households are different than SAHM and dual-earner households at $p < .001$

Table 2b: Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of study's variables, by working hours, 1980-1989

	Total	Wife works 35 hours or more; husband does not work	Husband works 35 hours or more; wife does not work	Both work 35 hours or more	Wife works 35 hours or more; Husband works less than 35 hours	Husband works 35 hours or more; Wife works less than 35 hours	Both work less than 35 hours
<i>Household characteristics</i>							
Household work income (2009 base)***	61,847 (37,369)	41,582 (28,431)	55,108 (36,083)	70,289 (37,493)	41,338 (28,305)	60,719 (35,684)	26,236 (28,872)
Number of children in household***	2.12 (1.07)	2.04 (1.06)	2.31 (1.16)	1.97 (.99)	1.96 (1.07)	2.17 (1.03)	2.17 (1.19)
Number of children age five and under***	.53 (.72)	.32 (.58)	.68 (.81)	.44 (.64)	.48 (.66)	.51 (.71)	.53 (.73)
Age of youngest child***	7.30 (5.64)	9.33 (5.66)	6.36 (5.51)	7.86 (5.71)	7.55 (5.81)	7.26 (5.47)	7.50 (5.75)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>							
Age father***	38.03 (8.84)	41.73 (11.86)	37.95 (9.06)	37.90 (8.56)	38.73 (10.56)	37.91 (8.37)	39.41 (11.66)
Age mother***	35.35 (8.11)	38.17 (9.31)	35.22 (8.57)	35.26 (7.78)	35.60 (8.72)	35.41 (7.77)	35.92 (9.89)
Education father***	7.23 (1.71)	6.64 (1.97)	7.10 (1.85)	7.22 (1.65)	6.92 (1.87)	7.50 (1.50)	6.60 (2.03)
Education mother***	7.13 (1.51)	6.98 (1.54)	6.82 (1.69)	7.24 (1.43)	7.09 (1.58)	7.36 (1.30)	6.59 (1.81)
N (percent)	153,939 (100%)	2,781 (1.8%)	44,388 (28.8%)	64,229 (41.7%)	2,099 (1.4%)	37,597 (23.3%)	2,845 (1.8%)

*** SAHF households are different than SAHM and dual-earner households at $p < .001$

Table 2c: Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of study's variables, by working hours, 1990-1999

	Total	Wife works 35 hours or more; husband does not work	Husband works 35 hours or more; wife does not work	Both work 35 hours or more	Wife works 35 hours or more; Husband works less than 35 hours	Husband works 35 hours or more; Wife works less than 35 hours	Both work less than 35 hours
<i>Household characteristics</i>							
Household work income (2009 base) ***	67,891 (51,680)	33,683 (28,493)	58,175 (55,740)	76,573 (49,559)	48,951 (44,709)	66,571 (49,751)	25,048 (37,228)
Number of children in household***	2.07 (.99)	1.99 (1.00)	2.30 (1.11)	1.94 (.90)	1.89 (.94)	2.15 (.97)	2.11 (1.16)
Number of children age five and under***	.52 (.71)	.32 (.58)	.72 (.80)	.44 (.64)	.47 (.65)	.53 (.72)	.55 (.75)
Age of youngest child***	7.15 (5.48)	9.44 (5.66)	5.83 (5.18)	7.77 (5.60)	7.42 (5.65)	6.96 (5.24)	7.30 (5.74)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>							
Age father***	38.74 (8.10)	44.12 (10.42)	38.09 (8.18)	38.78 (7.89)	39.24 (9.57)	38.72 (7.69)	40.37 (10.94)
Age mother***	36.36 (7.96)	39.69 (7.88)	35.58 (7.72)	36.53 (7.23)	36.07 (7.98)	36.51 (7.25)	36.78 (9.11)
Education father***	7.52 (1.52)	6.71 (1.93)	7.31 (1.81)	7.55 (1.41)	7.37 (1.62)	7.77 (1.28)	6.89 (1.99)
Education mother***	7.48 (1.44)	7.22 (1.57)	7.06 (1.76)	7.61 (1.31)	7.62 (1.37)	7.67 (1.20)	6.89 (1.86)
N (percent)	132,517 (100%)	2,265 (1.7%)	30,179 (22.8%)	63,728 (48.1%)	2,126 (1.6%)	31,879 (24.1%)	2,339 (1.8%)

*** SAHF households are different than SAHM and dual-earner households at $p < .001$

Table 2d: Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of study's variables, by working hours, 2000-2008

	Total	Wife works 35 hours or more; husband does not work	Husband works 35 hours or more; wife does not work	Both work 35 hours or more	Wife works 35 hours or more; Husband works less than 35 hours	Husband works 35 hours or more; Wife works less than 35 hours	Both work less than 35 hours
<i>Household characteristics</i>							
Household work income (2009 base) ***	84,712 (76,567)	45,069 (53,807)	75,145 (86,614)	93,165 (71,252)	68,236 (72,014)	84,789 (75,464)	39,539 (72,555)
Number of children in household***	2.08 (.99)	1.97 (1.01)	2.31 (1.12)	1.95 (.90)	1.94 (.95)	2.16 (.96)	2.12 (1.13)
Number of children age five and under***	.48 (.71)	.30 (.59)	.69 (.81)	.39 (.63)	.41 (.65)	.49 (.72)	.52 (.75)
Age of youngest child***	7.65 (5.56)	9.54 (5.49)	6.03 (5.20)	8.41 (5.64)	8.30 (5.71)	7.44 (5.33)	7.60 (5.67)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>							
Age father***	40.75 (8.49)	45.40 (10.84)	39.50 (8.49)	41.00 (8.28)	42.32 (10.07)	40.83 (8.05)	42.09 (11.12)
Age mother***	38.45 (7.96)	41.03 (8.17)	37.10 (8.24)	38.83 (7.75)	39.52 (8.52)	38.67 (7.72)	38.74 (9.50)
Education father***	7.70 (1.46)	7.21 (1.62)	7.52 (1.78)	7.71 (1.33)	7.70 (1.42)	7.95 (1.23)	7.29 (1.82)
Education mother***	7.76 (1.40)	7.64 (1.43)	7.36 (1.76)	7.87 (1.26)	7.99 (1.27)	7.94 (1.15)	7.34 (1.74)
N (percent)	194,051 (100%)	4,489 (2.3%)	45,201 (23.3%)	95,462 (49.2%)	3,257 (1.7%)	42,406 (21.9%)	3,236 (1.7%)

*** SAHF households are different than SAHM and dual-earner households at $p < .001$

Definition 1:

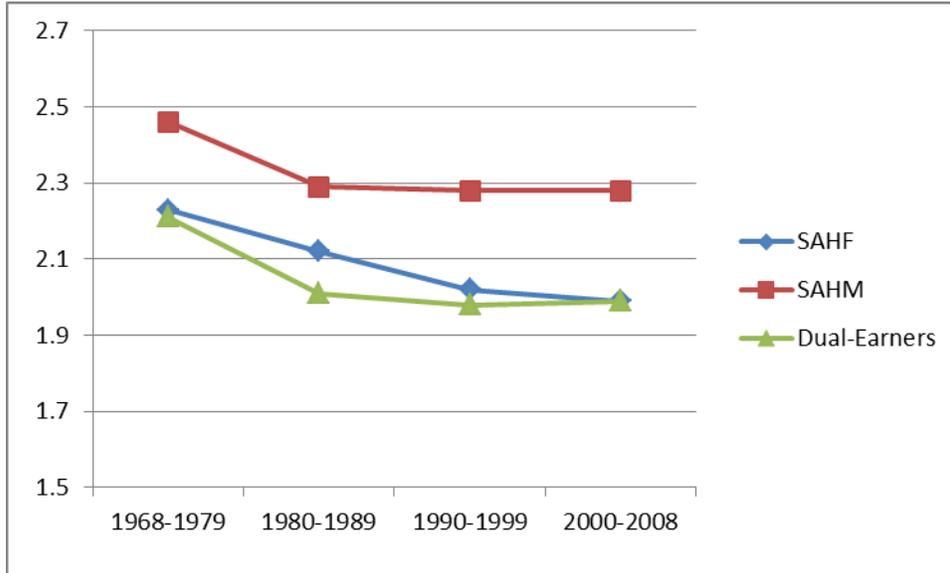
Descriptive Statistics Relevant to Stay-at-Home Father Households based on Income Distribution

In Tables 1a-d, the distribution of stay-at-home father, stay-at-home mother, and dual-earners households based on the most restrictive household income distribution is presented. Stay-at-home father households were defined as those in which the wife earned 100% of the household income. Stay-at-home mother households were defined as those in which the husband earned 100% of the household income. Dual-earner households were defined as those in which both the wife and the husband earned part of the household income. As can be seen, the percent of stay-at-home father households almost tripled, from 1.2% in 1968-1979 to 3.5% in 2000-2008. Also notable was the increase in dual-earner households, from approximately 50% in 1968-1979 to more than 70% in 2000-2008.

Based on this restrictive definition, several characteristics of stay-at-home father households were evident. First, stay-at-home father household incomes were much lower than that of both stay-at-home mother ($t=-93.91$ for 1968-1979; $t=-93.96$ for 1980-1989; $t=-54.78$ for 1990-1999; $t=-44.60$ for 2000-2008; $p<.001$ for all years) and dual-earner households ($t=-116.65$ for 1978-1979; $t=-146.34$ for 1980-1989; $t=-102.99$ for 1990-1999; $t=-76.97$ for 2000-2008; $p<.001$ for all decades). As can be seen in Figure 1, stay-at-home father household income was approximately a third of that of stay-at-home mother households and less than a third of that for dual-earner households in 1968-1979. The wage gap diminished over time, and in 2000-2008, stay-at-home father household income was 53% of that for stay-at-home mother households. However, taken

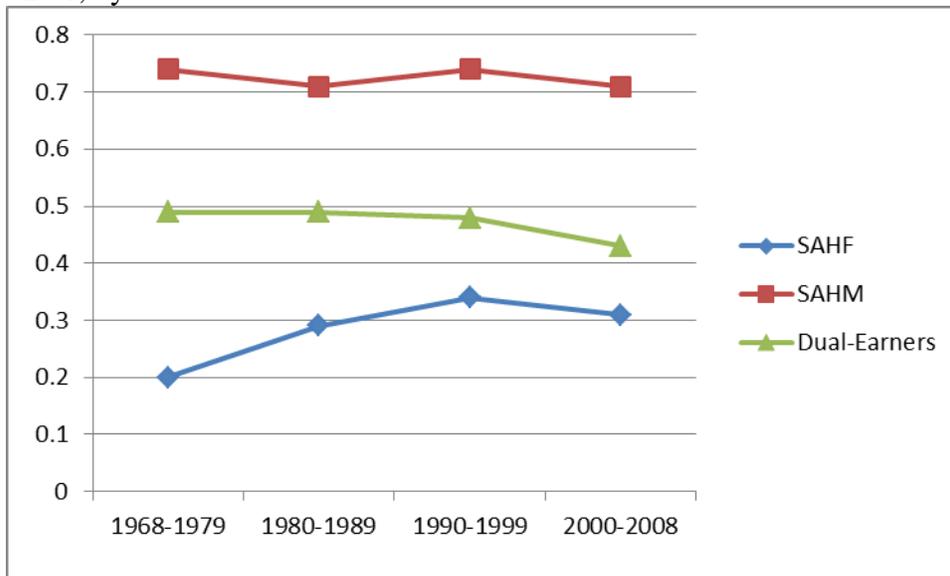
in terms of dollar difference, the gap between stay-at-home father and stay-at-home mother households only slightly decreased from \$37,190 to \$34,378 (all income were adjusted by 2009 CPI). Turning to the mean number of children in the household, clear differences arose, especially between stay-at-home father and stay-at-home mother households. The mean number of children in stay-at-home father households in 1968-1979 was 2.23 compared to 2.46 children in stay-at-home mother households. By 2000-2008, the mean number of children in stay-at-home father households was 1.99, compared with 2.28 children in stay-at-home mother households (Figure 2). In addition, differences between stay-at-home father and stay-at-home mother households in children's characteristics revealed more significant differences. The number of children under age 5 in stay-at-home father households was .20 in 1968-1979 and .31 in 2000-2008 compared with .74 in stay-at-home mother households in 1968-1979 and .71 in 2000-2008. In addition, the age of youngest child in the household was different when comparing stay-at-home father and stay-at-home mother households. In 1968-1979, the mean age of the youngest child was 10.24 in stay-at-home father households and 5.60 in stay-at-home mother households. This age difference decreased only slightly by 2000-2008, to 9.46 in stay-at-home father households and 5.88 in stay-at-home mother households (Figure 2-4).

Figure 2: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households number of children, by decade



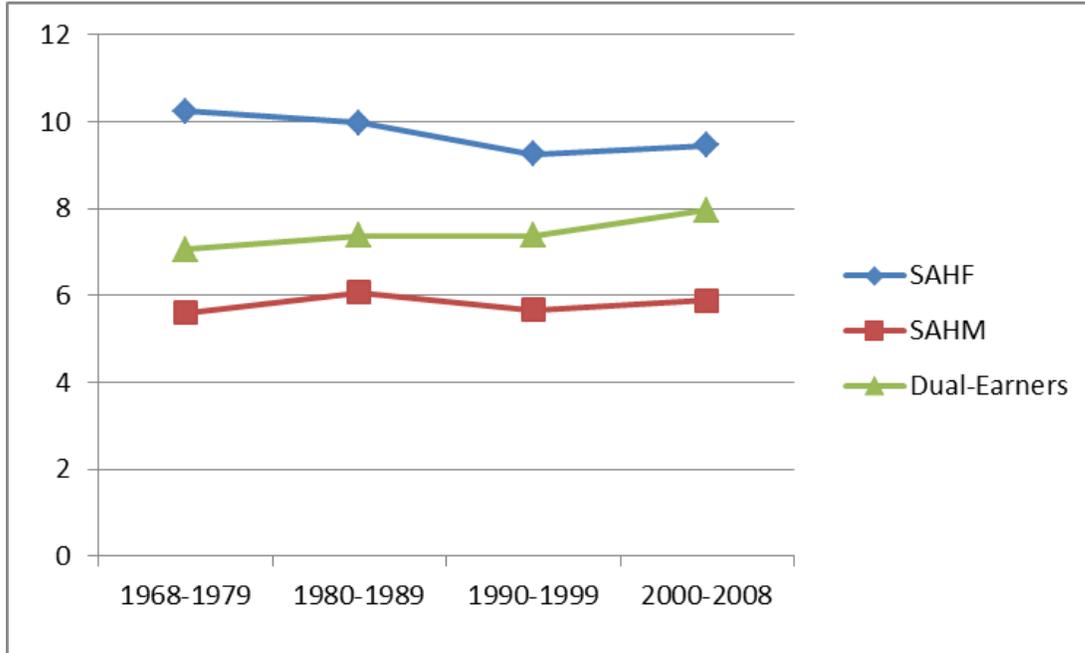
- SAHF: wife is sole earner; SAHM: husband is sole earner; Dual-earners: both spouses have income from work.
- Based on Table 1a-d

Figure 3: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households number of children age 5 and under, by decade



- SAHF: wife is sole earner; SAHM: husband is sole earner; Dual-earners: both spouses have income from work.
- Based on Table 1a-d

Figure 4: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households age of youngest child, by decade



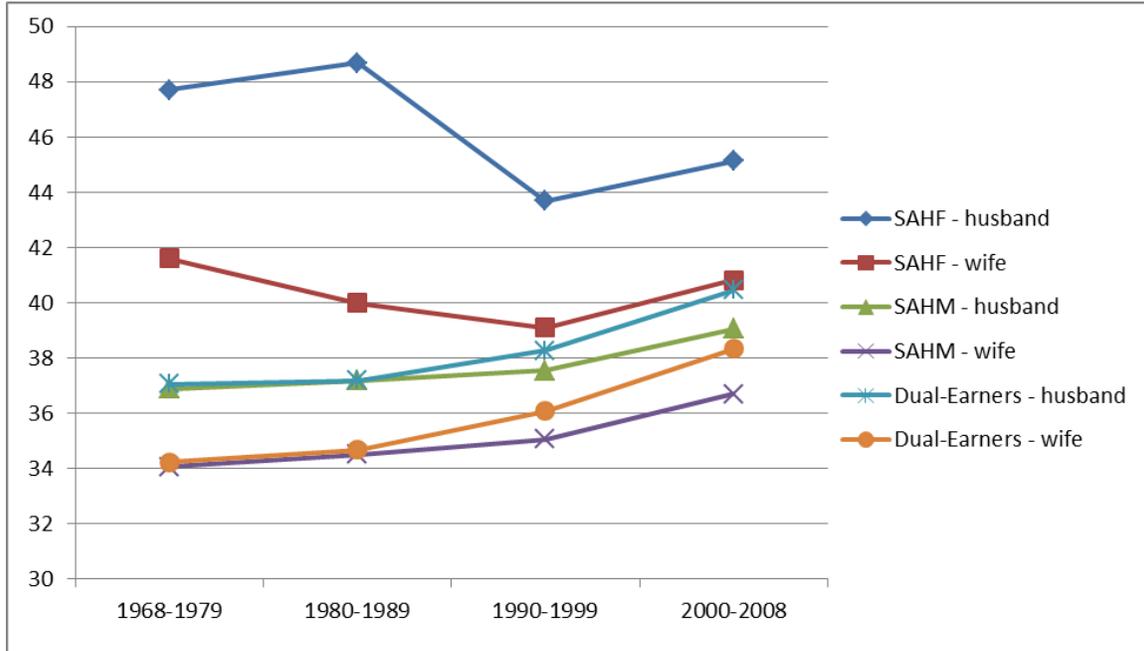
- SAHF: wife is sole earner; SAHM: husband is sole earner; Dual-earners: both spouses have income from work.
- Based on Table 1a-d

The differences between stay-at-home father, stay-at-home mother, and dual-earner households in age were significant. First, fathers and mothers in stay-at-home father households were older than fathers and mothers in stay-at-home mother households ($t=36.62$ for fathers and $t=33.16$ for mothers, 1968-1979; $t=33.11$ for father and $t=29.22$ for mothers, 1980-1989; $t=30.84$ for fathers and $t=26.17$ for mothers, 1990-1999; $t=39.78$ for fathers and $t=34.20$ for mothers, 2000-2008; $p<.001$ for all years) and dual-earner households ($t=36.06$ for fathers and $t=32.39$ for mothers, 1968-1979; $t=33.43$ for fathers and $t=28.74$ for mothers, 1980-1989; $t=27.83$ for fathers and $t=20.25$ for mothers, 1990-1999; $t=31.46$ for fathers and $t=21.40$ for mothers, 2000-2008; $p<.001$ for all decades). Between 1968 and 1979, fathers in stay-at-home father households were almost 11 years older than fathers in stay-at-home mother and dual-earner households. Over time, the age gap decreased substantially but still remained large. Between 2000

and 2008, fathers in stay-at-home father households were about 6 years older than fathers in stay-at-home mother households and about four and a half years older than fathers in dual-earner households. Two characteristics of mothers in stay-at-home father households also were evident. First, they were much younger than their husbands. The age gap between husbands and wives in stay-at-home mother and dual-earner households remained stable over time, between two and three years throughout the 40 year period. However, the age difference between husbands and wives in stay-at-home father households was much larger and fluctuated more. Between 1968 and 1979, the age gap between husbands and wives in stay-at-home father households was six years. Between 1980 and 1989, this age gap increased to more than eight and a half years, and then declined to four and a half years between 1990 and 1999. By 2000 to 2008, the gap decreased to a little more than four years.

A second characteristic of mothers in stay-at-home father households was their older age compared to mothers in stay-at-home mother and dual-earner households. Between 1968 and 1979, stay-at-home father mothers were more than 7 years older than mothers in stay-at-home mother and dual-earner households. By the period between 2000 and 2008, this gap decreased to four years compared to mothers in stay-at-home mother households and two and a half years compared to mothers in dual-earner households (Figure 5).

Figure 5: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households age of husband and wife, by decade

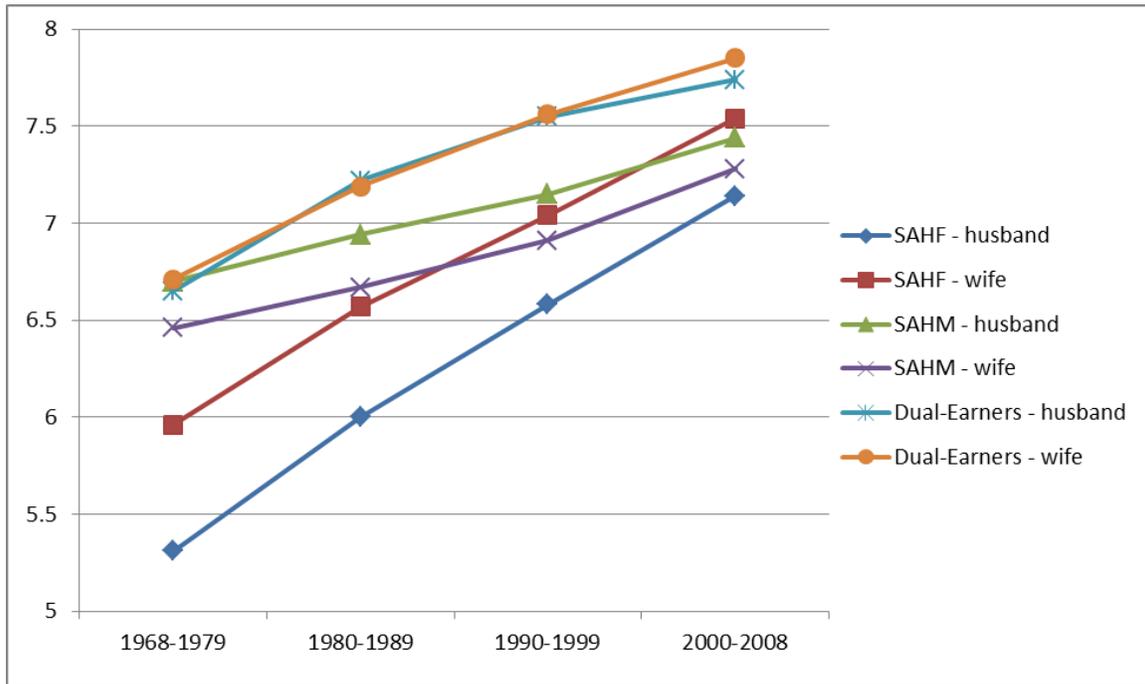


- SAHF: wife is sole earner; SAHM: husband is sole earner; Dual-earners: both spouses have income from work.
- Based on Table 1a-d

Moving to educational differences (income based definition), it can be seen that the steepest increase in education among all types of households occurred among the wives and husbands in stay-at-home father households (Tables 1a-d and Figure 6). It is also interesting to note that education was a major determinant of who was working in the household. Working wives in stay-at-home father households had, on average, higher education than their non-working husbands ($t=5.44$ for 1968-1979; $t=8.94$ for 1980-1989; $t=12.71$ for 1990-1999; $t=21.61$ for 2000-2008; $p<.001$ for all decades). Working husbands in stay-at-home mother households had, on average, higher education than their non-working wives ($t=-86.69$ for 1968-1979; $t=-64.04$ for 1980-1989; $t=-43.31$ for 1990-1999; $t=-33.12$ for 2000-2008; $p<.001$ for all decades) and no substantial or consistent differences in the education of husbands and wives in dual-earner households were

found. Both husbands and wives in stay-at-home father households had low education compared to both husbands and wives in stay-at-home mother ($t=-24.15$ and $t=-8.12$ respectively; $p<.001$) and dual-earner households ($t=-21.66$ and $t=-13.66$ respectively; $p<.001$) between 1968 and 1979. Husbands had a little more than 10 years of education and wives had, on average, 11 years of education. As time passed, both husbands and wives of stay-at-home father households closed the gap with their stay-at-home mother and dual-earner counterparts. Between 2000 and 2008, the mean education of a working wife in stay-at-home father household was between 12 years and 1-3 years of college, only slightly lower than the education of dual-earners and higher than that of a working husband in stay-at-home mother household. Non-working husbands in stay-at-home father households also closed the gap; they had, on average, more than 12 years of education and almost the same amount of education as non-working mothers in stay-at-home mother households.

Figure 6: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households education of husband and wife, by decade



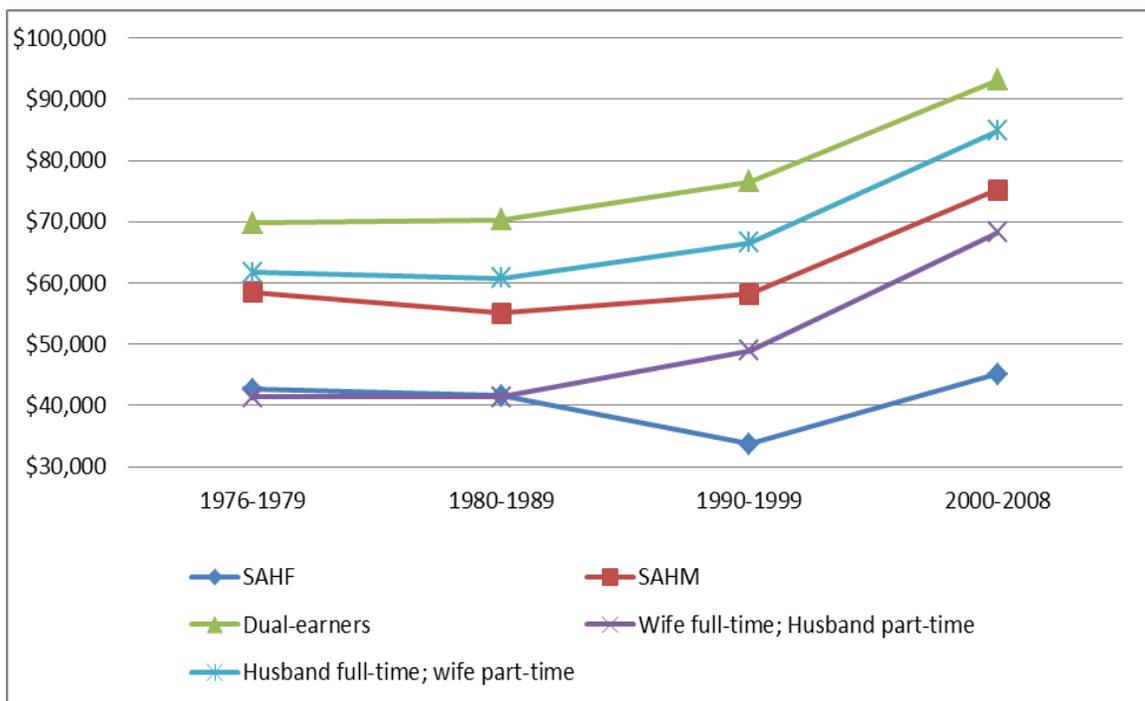
- SAHF: wife is sole earner; SAHM: husband is sole earner; Dual-earners: both spouses have income from work.
 - Based on Table 1a-d
 - Education coding: 5=Grade 10; 6=grade 11; 7=grade 12; 8=1-3 years of college
- Descriptive Statistics Relevant to Hypotheses 1-5:*

Stay-at-Home Father Households based on Weekly Working Hours Distribution

Tables 2a-d (work hours based definition) and Figures 7-12 present a comparison of stay-at-home father, stay-at-home mother, and dual-earner households, based on a weekly working hours definition of type of household. Stay-at-home father households were defined as households in which the wife worked full-time (35 hours or more) and the husband did not work at all. Stay-at-home mother households were defined as households in which the husband worked full-time (35 hours or more) and the wife did not work. Dual-earners were defined as households in which both the wife and the husband worked full-time. To include all households, three more household types were

presented: 1) households in which the wife worked a full-time job (35 hours or more) and the husband worked a part-time job (1-34 hours); 2) households in which the husband worked a full-time job (35 hours or more) and the wife worked a part-time job (1-34 hours); and, 3) households in which both spouses worked part-time jobs (1-34 hours). This categorization allowed for the comparison of households that qualified as strict stay-at-home father households (wife works full-time, husband does not work) to households that can be considered as stay-at-home father households in which the wife worked a full-time job and the husband worked part-time.

Figure 7: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households income from work, by decade



- SAHF: Wife works 35 hours per week or more, husband does not work; SAHM: Husband works 35 hours per week or more, wife does not work; Dual-earners: Both wife and husband work 35 hours per week or more
- Based on Tables 2a-d

As can be seen in Tables 2a-d (work hours based definition), the differences in wages between stay-at-home father and stay-at-home mother households were smaller

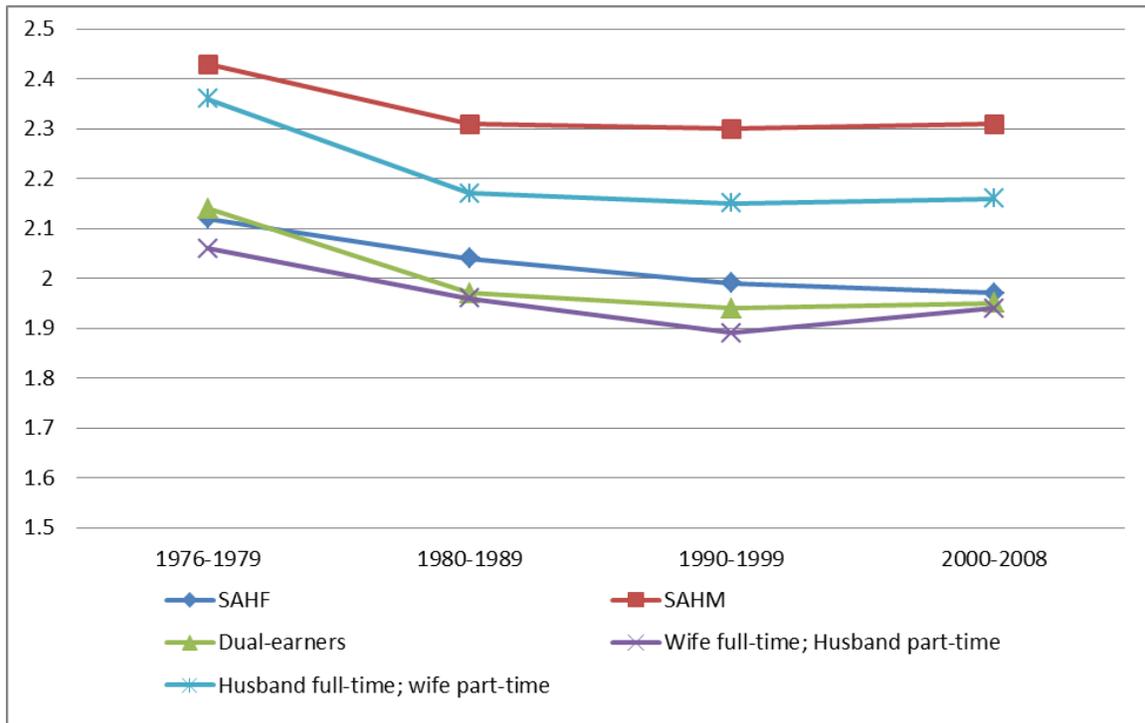
than those found when using the income based definition, but remained substantial and statistically significant ($t=-6.44$ for 1968-1979; $t=-23.90$ for 1980-1989; $t=-36.06$ for 1990-1999; $t=-33.40$ for 2000-2008; $p<.001$ for all decades) . Between 1968 and 1979, stay-at-home mother households had an income that was \$15,863 greater than that of stay-at-home father households. As expected, dual-earner households had the highest income, \$11,378 greater than stay-at-home mother households and \$27,241 greater than that of stay-at-home father households. Interestingly, households in which the wife worked a full-time job and the husband worked part-time job earned \$1,197 less than households in which the wife worked full-time and the husband did not work. The income gap between stay-at-home father and stay-at-home mother households increased substantially over time to \$30,076 on average between 2000 and 2008. The gap, in terms of percentage, also increased substantially. Stay-at-home father household income was 72.9% of stay-at-home mother household income between 1968 and 1979 and 60.0% between 2000 and 2008. Dual-earners household income increased the most over time. Between 2000 and 2008 the mean income of dual-earners was \$93,165. The gap in income between dual-earners and stay-at-home father households also increased over time. In 1968-1979, stay-at-home father households income was 61.0% of dual-earner households and in 2000-2008, stay-at-home father households income was 48.4% of dual-earner households.

Turning to characteristics of children, similar patterns in the trends were found using the working hours based definition. Stay-at-home mother households had significantly more children throughout the years ($t=-7.84$ in 1968-1979; $t=-13.01$ in 1980-1989; $t=-14.22$ in 1990-1999; $t=-21.41$ in 2000-2008; $p<.001$ for all decades), with stay-

at-home father and dual earner households having almost the same number of children. In households in which the wife worked full time and the husband worked part-time, the number of children was the fewest in 1990-1999 and 2000-2008 (1.89 and 1.94 respectively), although very similar to that in stay-at-home father (1.99 and 1.97 respectively) and dual-earner households (1.94 and 1.95 respectively). Findings regarding the number of children five years of age and younger were not the same for the income and working hours based definitions. Similar trends were found for all types of households, with number of children five years of age and younger increasing between the first and the second decade, stabilizing between the second and third decades, and dropping between the third and the fourth decades. As with the income based definition, stay-at-home mother households had significantly more children five years of age and younger in the household than dual-earners ($t=-32.92$ in 1968-1979; $t=-52.58$ in 1980-1989; $t=-52.75$ in 1990-1999; $t=-69.74$ in 2000-2008; $p<.001$ for all decades) and stay-at-home father households ($t=-18.68$ in 1968-1979; $t=-30.57$ in 1980-1989; $t=-30.51$ in 1990-1999; $t=-40.63$ in 2000-2008; $p<.001$ for all decades), while stay-at-home father households had slightly less children five years of age and younger than dual-earner households ($t=-7.27$ in 1968-1979; $t=-10.25$ in 1980-1989; $t=-9.64$ in 1990-1999; $t=-9.88$ in 2000-2008; $p<.001$ for all decades). Finally, the age of youngest child in the household was smaller for stay-at-home mother households than it was for dual-earner households (6.54 compared with 9.31 in 1968-1979; 6.36 compared with 9.33 in 1980-1989; 5.83 compared with 9.44 in 1990-1999; 6.03 compared with 9.54 in 2000-2008), and smaller for dual-earner households than it was for stay-at-home father households (7.96 compared with 9.31 in 1968-1979; 7.86 compared with 9.33 in 1980-1989; 7.77

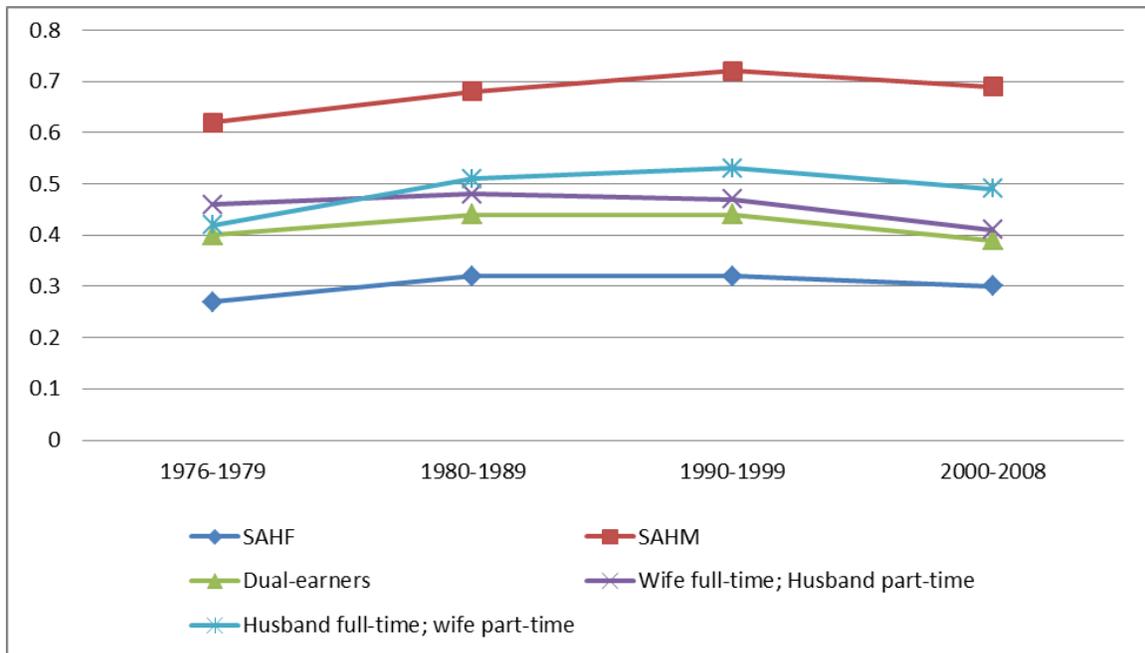
compared with 9.44 in 1990-1999; 8.41 compared with 9.54 in 2000-2008), but all followed similar trends over time: the age of the youngest child slightly decreased between 1968 and 1999, and then increased between 2000 and 2008 (Figures 8-10).

Figure 8: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households number of children, by decade



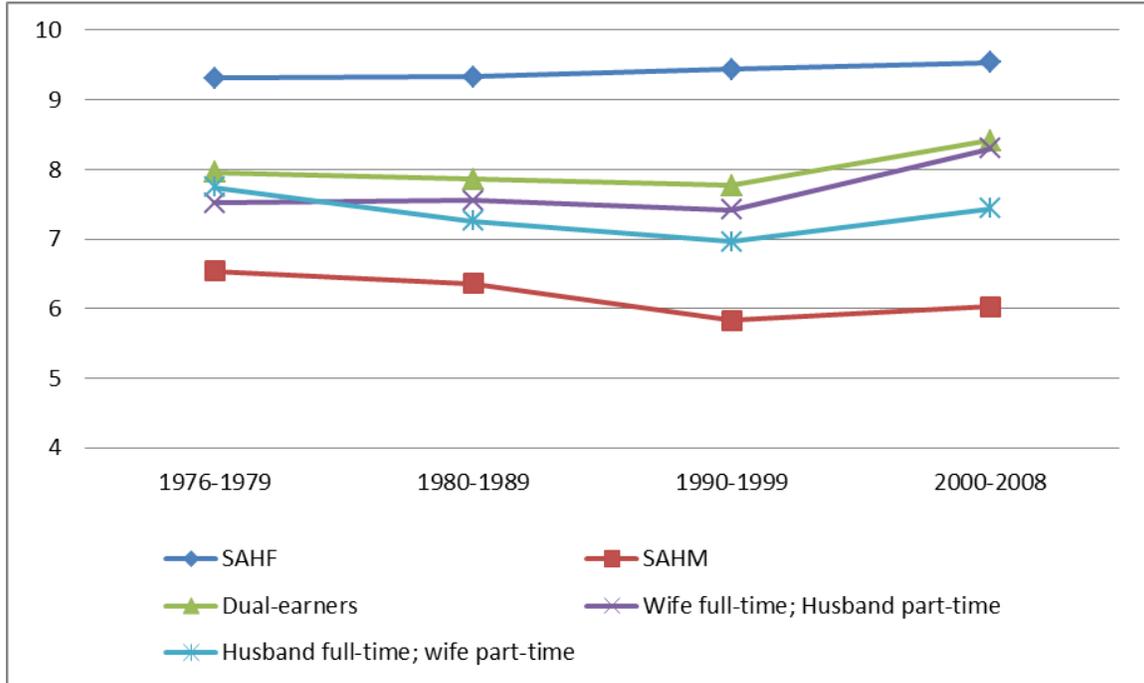
- SAHF: Wife works 35 hours per week or more, husband does not work; SAHM: Husband works 35 hours per week or more, wife does not work; Dual-earners: Both wife and husband work 35 hours per week or more
- Based on Tables 2a-d

Figure 9: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households number of children age five and under, by decade



- SAHF: Wife works 35 hours per week or more, husband does not work; SAHM: Husband works 35 hours per week or more, wife does not work; Dual-earners: Both wife and husband work 35 hours per week or more
- Based on Tables 2a-d

Figure 10: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households age of youngest child, by decade

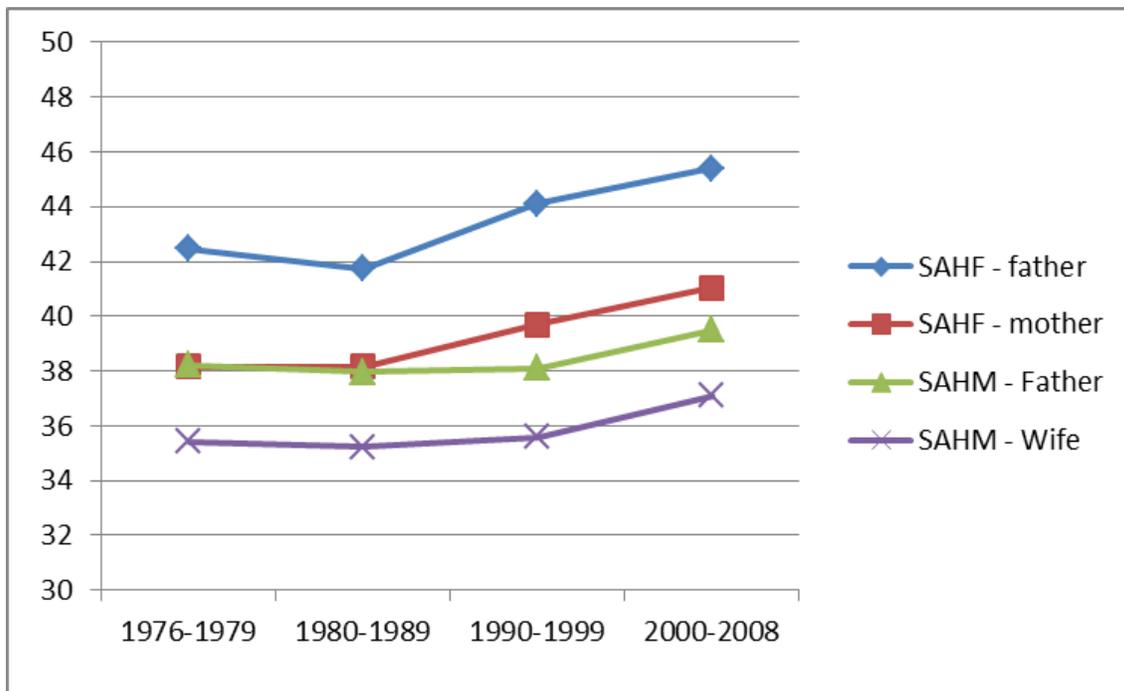


- SAHF: Wife works 35 hours per week or more, husband does not work; SAHM: Husband works 35 hours per week or more, wife does not work; Dual-earners: Both wife and husband work 35 hours per week or more
- Based on Tables 2a-d

Using hours worked and observing the individual level variables, fathers and mothers in stay-at-home father households were older, on average, than fathers and mothers in stay-at-home mother households (4.54 and 3.06 years older respectively in 1968-1979, $t=9.83$ and $t=7.94$ respectively; 3.83 and 2.91 years older respectively in 1980-1989, $t=16.50$ and $t=16.32$ respectively; 5.34 and 3.16 years older respectively in 1990-1999, $t=26.72$ and $t=24.44$ respectively; 4.40 and 2.20 years older respectively in 2000-2008, $t=35.25$ and $t=30.46$ respectively; $p<.001$ for all decades) and dual-earner households (4.25 and 2.72 years older respectively in 1968-1979, $t=10.51$ and $t=8.95$ respectively; 3.78 and 2.95 years older respectively in 1980-1989, $t=16.83$ and $t=16.27$ respectively; 6.03 and 4.11 years older respectively in 1990-1999, $t=23.94$ and $t=18.79$

respectively; 5.90 and 3.93 years older respectively in 2000-2008, $t=26.73$ and $t=17.60$ respectively; $p<.001$ for all decades). An interesting pattern was observed concerning how age differences changed over time. In the period between 1968 and 1979, the age of wives in stay-at-home father households, although older than wives in stay-at-home mother and dual-earner households, was younger than that of husbands in stay-at-home mother and dual-earner households. By the period between 2000 and 2008, wives in stay-at-home father households were older than husbands in stay-at-home mother households, and only slightly younger than husbands in dual-earner households (Figure 11).

Figure 11: SAHF and SAHM households age of husband and wife, by decade



- SAHF: Wife works 35 hours per week or more, husband does not work; SAHM: Husband works 35 hours per week or more, wife does not work.
- Based on Tables 2a-d

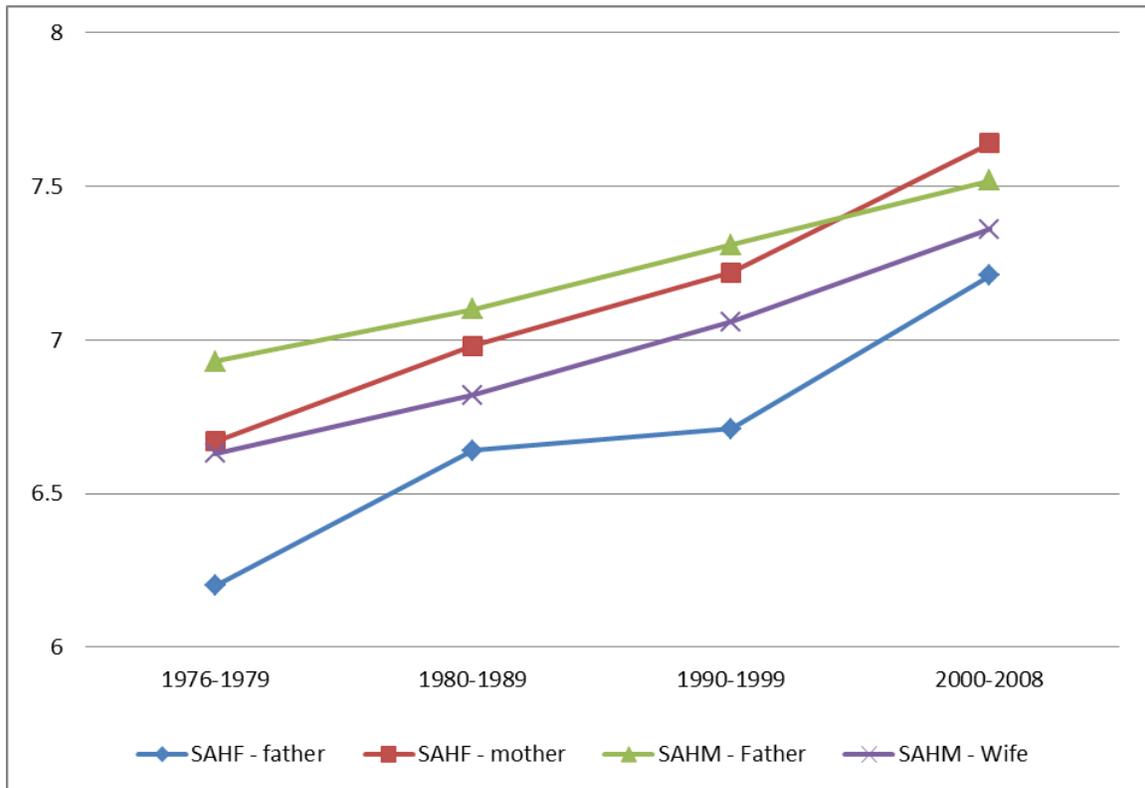
As with the definition of households based on income, analyses using the working hours definition showed the most remarkable change over time in the education of wives in stay-at-home father households. Between 1968 and 1979, wives in stay-at-home father

households had an average of about 11.5 years of education, similar to that of wives in stay-at-home mother households and a little lower than husbands in stay-at-home mother who had about 12 years of education. In dual-earner households both wives and husbands had a little less than 12 years of education. Over time, wives in stay-at-home father households increased their education substantially. Between 2000 and 2008, wives in stay-at-home father households had, on average, a little less than a 1-3 years of college education, very similar to wives and husbands in dual-earner households and higher than that of mothers in stay-at-home mother households ($t=12.07, p<.001$). Husbands in stay-at-home father households had the lowest educational level throughout the four decades, ranging from about 11 years of education in 1968-1979 to a little more than 12 years of education in 2000-2008. However, fathers in stay-at-home father households were closing the education gap existing between them and husbands in stay-at-home mother and dual-earner households over time (Figure 12).

In sum, support was not found for Hypothesis 1, stating that wives of stay-at-home fathers would have higher education than working mothers in dual-earner families. Wives of stay-at-home fathers did not have higher education than working mothers in dual-earner families. However, wives in stay-at-home father households closed the gap in education between themselves and dual-earner mothers over time. Between 1968 and 1979, mothers in stay-at-home father households were, most frequently, high school dropouts with an average education of a little less than 11 years. Dual-earner mothers, on the other hand, were most frequently high school graduates. By the 2000-2008 period, mothers in both stay-at-home father and dual-earner households were, on average, closer

to having a 1-3 years college educational level, although dual-earner mothers still had, on average, slightly higher education.

Figure 12: SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earner households education of husband and wife, by decade



- SAHF: Wife works 35 hours per week or more, husband does not work; SAHM: Husband works 35 hours per week or more, wife does not work; Dual-earners: Both wife and husband work 35 hours per week or more
- Based on Tables 5a-d
- Education coding: 5=Grade 10; 6=grade 11; 7=grade 12; 8=1-3 years of college

Hypothesis 2, stating that wives of stay-at-home fathers would have higher education than stay-at-home mothers in traditional families, was supported. Wives of stay-at-home fathers had significantly higher education than stay-at-home mothers in traditional families between 1980 and 2008 ($t=5.25$ for 1980-1989; $t=4.43$ for 1990-1999;

$t=12.07$ for 2000-2008; $p<.001$ for all three decades), although they did not have different education than stay-at-home mothers in 1968-1979 ($t=.50, p>.05$). Although all mothers increased their average educational level over time, mothers in stay-at-home father households advanced at a greater rate than any other group. Between 1968 and 1979, mothers in stay-at-home father households had similar education to that of non-working wives in stay-at-home mother households. Between 1980 and 1989, mothers in stay-at-home father households surpassed mothers in stay-at-home mother households by .16 units with both having, on average, 12 years of education. Between 2000 and 2008, mothers in stay-at-home father households increased the educational gap between themselves and mothers in stay-at-home mother households to .26 units. This trend in education was supported regardless of the type of definition used to identify stay-at-home father households.

Hypothesis 3a was focused on the inter-household exchange of roles when wives in stay-at-home father households had far greater earning potential than their husbands due to their greater educational level. Specifically, this hypothesis stated that stay-at-home fathers would have lower education than their wives and working fathers in traditional families and dual-earner families. The hypothesis was supported. As can be seen in Tables 1a-d (income based definition) and Tables 2a-d (work hours based definition), fathers' level of education was lower than both their wives and that of fathers in dual-earner and stay-at-home mother households. Figure 6 and Figure 12 provide illustrations of this difference in education. As can be seen, the biggest difference in education is between wives and husbands in stay-at-home father households (.65 and .47 units in the income and working hours based definitions in 1968-1979; .57 and .34

respectively in 1980-1989; .46 and .51 respectively in 1990-2000; .40 and .43 respectively in 2000-2008) compared with higher education for husbands in stay-at-home mother households and a similar education for husband and wives in dual-earner households.

Hypothesis 3b stated that the gap in educational level between stay-at-home fathers and their wives and working fathers in traditional families and dual-earner families would narrow over time. Specifically, it was expected that as more households chose to become stay-at-home father households and were not forced by a specific situation (such as disability or inability to find work), the level of education of fathers in such households would be higher. As can be seen in Tables 1a-d (income based definition) and Tables 2a-d (work hours based definition) and in Figures 6 and 12, in more recent decades stay-at-home fathers were closing the educational level gap compared to fathers in dual-earner and stay-at-home mother households. There was no change in the educational level gap between husbands and wives in stay-at-home father households, however. Thus, Hypotheses 3b was only partially supported.

In Hypothesis 4, it was posited that stay-at-home father households would have lower income than that of stay-at-home mother households. As can be seen in Tables 1a-d (income based definition) and Tables 2a-d (work hours based definition), this hypothesis was supported. In 1968-1979, stay-at-home father households earned \$37,190 less (Table 1a; adjusted by 2009 CPI) when using the income based definition. Controlling for working hours by including only households in which the working spouse was employed full-time narrowed the income gap to \$15, 863 (see Table 2a). Over time, the income gap increased. By 2000-2008, the difference in income between stay-at-home

father and stay-at-home mother households increased to \$30,076 when using only households in which the working spouse had a full-time job. For all decades the difference in income between stay-at-home father and stay-at-home mother households was significant at the .001 level.

In Hypothesis 5, it was posited that stay-at-home father households in which the husband indicated he stayed at home to take care of the family/household would have higher income from the wife's work than that of stay-at-home mother households and that of all stay-at-home father households. This hypothesis was partially supported. Although stay-at-home father households in which the father indicated he stayed home because he took care of home/family had higher income than all stay-at-home father households in 1990-2008, their household income remained lower than that of comparable stay-at-home mother households. Stay-at-home father households with husbands who indicated they took care of family and home and had wives who worked full-time had an yearly income that was \$14,951 less than that of stay-at-home mother households in 1980-1989 and \$10,866 less in 2000-2008. Stay-at-home father households with a father, who indicated that he did not work so he could take care of home and family, had an income that was \$6,474 higher than that of all stay-at-home father households in 1990-1999 and \$19,210 higher in 2000-2008. For the period between 1968 and 1979 there were only eight fathers who indicated they stayed at home to take care of home/family and hence any comparison is not likely to provide reliable results. Table 3 (income based definition) and Table 4 (work hours based definition) present the characteristics of households in which the husband indicated he did not work because he

took care of home/family, while his wife worked (Table 3) or worked a full-time job (Table 4).

Table 3: Descriptive statistics of study's variables, income based definition, for SAHF households in which fathers indicated they do not work because they take care of the home/family

	1968-1979	1980-1989	1990-1999	2000-2008
<i>Household characteristics</i>				
Household work income (2009 base)	30,313 (20,218)	30,628 (22,671)	39,167 (31,276)	60,006 (69,199)
Number of children in household	1.42 (.82)	2.20 (1.38)	2.24 (1.23)	2.04 (1.01)
Number of children age five and under	.41 (.49)	.78 (.82)	.78 (.76)	.63 (.75)
Age of youngest child	8.31 (6.62)	6.17 (5.69)	4.94 (4.66)	6.07 (4.83)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>				
Age father	39.19 (11.86)	38.50 (9.49)	37.42 (7.84)	40.21 (9.14)
Age mother	35.08 (9.52)	35.57 (8.81)	35.30 (7.13)	37.44 (8.02)
<i>Father's Education</i>				
Less than high school	31.8%	34.5%	20.9%	12.8%
High school	19.4%	34.0%	34.5%	34.5%
1-4 years of college	47.5%	25.1%	41.8%	45.5%
5+ years of college	1.2%	6.4%	2.7%	7.3%
<i>Mother's Education</i>				
Less than high school	37.7%	27.9%	14.6%	7.2%
High school	47.2%	39.4%	32.9%	26.1%
1-4 years of college	13.9%	31.0%	41.8%	48.0%
5+ years of college	1.2%	1.6%	10.7%	18.7%
N (not-weighted)	11	113	344	1,078

SAHF - Stay-at-home father households are those in which the wife earns 100% of household income and the husband indicated he is not working because he takes care of home and family.

Note: All data weighted.

Table 4: Descriptive statistics of study's variables, working hours based definition, for SAHF households in which fathers indicated they do not work because they take care of the home/family

	1976-1979	1980-1989	1990-1999	2000-2008
<i>Household characteristics</i>				
Household work income (2009 base)	39,180 (16,605)	40,157 (26,955)	47,685 (42,039)	64,279 (70,840)
Number of children in household	1.50 (.92)	1.93 (1.09)	2.20 (1.06)	2.01 (1.00)
Number of children age five and under	.39 (.49)	.66 (.73)	.75 (.75)	.60 (.73)
Age of youngest child	7.46 (6.26)	6.29 (5.27)	5.16 (4.79)	6.25 (4.89)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>				
Age father	37.17 (10.88)	37.63 (9.24)	37.87 (7.63)	40.62 (9.01)
Age mother	34.33 (8.91)	35.45 (8.38)	36.26 (6.88)	37.85 (7.89)
<i>Father's Education</i>				
Less than high school	23.3%	29.4%	16.6%	11.1%
High school	27.3%	32.9%	33.9%	34.8%
1-4 years of college	47.7%	28.9%	45.1%	46.4%
5+ years of college	1.7%	8.8%	4.3%	7.6%
<i>Mother's Education</i>				
Less than high school	31.5%	20.5%	11.5%	6.1%
High school	47.2%	40.7%	30.4%	24.9%
1-4 years of college	19.6%	35.9%	46.2%	49.5%
5+ years of college	1.7%	2.9%	12.0%	19.5%
N (not weighted)	8	84	298	985

SAHF - Stay-at-home father households are those in which the wife works 35 weekly hours or more and the husband indicated he is not working because he takes care of home and family.

Note: All data weighted.

In Hypothesis 6, it was posited that stay-at-home father households would have lower numbers of children compared to stay-at-home mother households. This hypothesis was supported. Across all decades, stay-at-home father households had lower numbers of children than stay-at-home mother households ($t=-7.34$ and $t=-7.84$ for income and work hours based definition, 1968-1979; $t=-7.87$ and $t=-13.01$ for income and work hours

based definition, 1980-1989; $t=-13.41$ and $t=-14.22$ for income and work hours based definition, 1990-1999; $t=-19.81$ and $t=-21.41$ for income and work hours based definition, 2000-2008; $p<.001$ for all decades). As can be seen in Tables 1a-d (income based definition) and Tables 2a-d (work hours based definition), the average number of children was 0.2 lower for stay-at-home father households than for stay-at-home mother households for the 1960's and 1970's with the gap increasing to about 0.3 children less in 2000-2008.

Finally, Hypothesis 7 posited that children in stay-at-home father households would be older than children in stay-at-home mother households. Hypothesis 7 was supported. Across all decades, stay-at-home father households had fewer children 5 years of age and under than stay-at-home mother households ($t=-47.34$ and $t=-18.68$ for income and work hours based definition, 1968-1979; $t=-36.77$ and $t=-30.57$ for income and work hours based definition, 1980-1989; $t=-33.47$ and $t=-30.50$ for income and work hours based definition, 1990-1999; $t=-43.94$ and $t=-40.63$ for income and work hours based definition, 2000-2008; $p<.001$ for all decades). Furthermore, across all decades, the youngest child in the household was much older in stay-at-home father households than in stay-at-home mother households ($t=-38.21$ and $t=-14.61$ for income and work hours based definition, 1968-1979; $t=-35.66.87$ and $t=-26.88$ for income and work hours based definition, 1980-1989; $t=-34.34$ and $t=-29.49$ for income and work hours based definition, 1990-1999; $t=-45.92$ and $t=-41.05$ for income and work hours based definition, 2000-2008; $p<.001$ for all decades).

Logistic Regression

In the final series of analyses, logistic regression was used to examine which variables were significantly associated with increased probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household. I used the stay-at-home father household definition that was based on working hours (wife worked full-time; husband did not work) with a dependent variable (household structure) consisting of two categories: stay-at-home father household (1) and stay-at-home mother household (0). I tested a model that predicted the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household in which the husband specified he did not work so he could take care of home and family (1) as compared to a stay-at-home mother household in which the mother specified she did not work so she can take care of home and family (0). I concluded the analyses with a logistic regression in which I estimated the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household in which the husband specified he did not work so he can take care of home and family (1) as compared to a stay-at-home father household in which the father did not work for reasons other than taking care of home and family (0). The results of these logistic regressions are presented in Tables 5a-c.

Table 5a compared the probability of a family becoming a stay-at-home father household in contrast to a stay-at-home mother household. Results showed that income was negatively related to the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household. Across time, the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household decreased by 2.8 to 4.0 % for each additional \$1,000 of household income (Table 5a, columns 3 and 4, first row; odds ratios in parentheses). Also consistent across time was the negative effect of number of children in the household on the probability of

a family becoming a stay-at-home father household. For each additional child, the odds of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household decreased by 13.8 to 18.3% (Table 5a, columns 1-4, second row; odds ratios in parentheses). Interestingly, the number of children 5 years of age and under, although having a negative effect on the probability of a family becoming a stay-at-home father household, diminished in effect over time. As can be seen in Table 5a, for each additional child 5 years of age and under in 1976-1979, the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household decreased by 64.7% (column 1, row 3; odds ratios in parentheses). By 2000-2008, the negative effect of each additional child 5 and under on the probability of a family becoming a stay-at-home father household decreased by almost half to 36.6% (column 4, row 3; odds ratios in parentheses).

Moving to the effect of individual characteristics, father's age and education and mother's education, but not age, had significant effects on the probability of a family becoming a stay-at-home father household. Families with older fathers were more likely to become stay-at-home father households. Specifically, an increase of one year of age was associated with a 3 to 6.7% higher probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household (Table 5a, column 1-4 row 4; odds ratios in parentheses). Of note, in 1980-1989, father's age was not significantly associated with the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household. Mother's age was negatively associated with the probability of becoming a stay-at-home father household in 1976-1979. Mother's age had a small positive effect on the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household in 1980-1989. Mother's age did not

significantly affect the likelihood of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household in 1990-1999 or 2000-2008.

Perhaps the most important and interesting relationship found in this series of analyses was that of education and the probability of a household being a stay-at-home father. Father's education was negatively and consistently related to the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household. Each increase in the father's educational level was associated with a 13.5 to 8.6% decrease in the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household (Table 5a, row 6; odds ratios in parentheses). Mother's education was even more profoundly related to the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father. In 1976-1979, there was a negative relationship between a mother's educational level and the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household; specifically, each unit increase in the mother's educational level reduced the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by 3.6% (Table 5a, row 7, column 1; odds ratios in parentheses). Across the next three decades, the effect of a mother's educational level on the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household changed from a negative effect to a strong positive effect. In 1980-1989, each unit increase in a mother's educational level was associated with a 39.9% increase in the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household (Table 5a, row 7, column 2; odds ratios in parentheses). In 1990-1999 and 2000-2008, the effect of mother's educational level became even stronger, with each unit increase in a mother's educational level being associated with a 57.3 (1990-1999) and 54.3 (2000-2008)% increase in the probability of

a household becoming a stay-at-home father household (Table 5a, row 7, columns 3-4; odds ratios in parentheses).

Table 5a: Logistic regression for estimating the probability of a family being a SAFH household compared to SAHM

	1976-1979	1980-1989	1990-1999	2000-2008
Income (in thousands)	-.036** (.964)	-.028** (.973)	-.041** (.960)	-.028** (.972)
Number of children in household	-.173** (.841)	-.148** (.862)	-.187** (.829)	-.202** (.817)
Number of children age five and under	-1.042** (.353)	-.778** (.459)	-.469** (.626)	-.455** (.634)
Age father	.030** (1.030)	-.002 (.998)	.065** (1.067)	.059** (1.061)
Age mother	-.030** (.971)	.011* (1.011)	.001 (1.001)	.001 (1.001)
Education father	-.128** (.880)	-.090** (.914)	-.168** (.845)	-.145** (.865)
Education mother	-.036** (.964)	.335** (1.399)	.453** (1.573)	.434** (1.543)
Pseudo R Square (Nagelkerke)	.141	.117	.228	.199
N (SAHF)	769	2,508	1,932	3,783
N (SAHM)	21,732	40,416	27,268	39,207

- Odds ratios are in parentheses.
- SAHF: Wife works 35 hours or more, husband does not work.
- SAHM: Husband works 35 hours or more, wife does not work.

Table 5b provides results that compare stay-at-home father households by choice to stay-at-home father by force. Specifically, using logistic regression, I estimated the

probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice, as indicated by the father's response that he stayed at home to take care of home and family as compared to the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by force, as indicated by the father's response that he stayed at home for reasons other than taking care of home and family (e.g., disability, inability to find work). As can be seen in Table 5b, no variable in the years 1976-1979 was significantly associated with the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice. These results were likely an artifact relating to the low number of households in which fathers indicated they were not working so they could take care of home and family. Only seven such households existed in 1976-1979 (with complete information on the other variables). Beginning in 1980-1989, income was positively associated with the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice. For each additional \$1,000 of household income (earned by the wife), the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice increased by 1.9 - 3.1% (Table 5b, row 1, columns 2-4; odds ratios in parentheses). Numbers of children was positively associated with the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice only during the 1990s. Each additional child increased the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice by 22.7% (Table 5b, row 2, column 3; odds ratios in parentheses). The choice of these fathers can be deduced by the positive association between number of children 5 years of age and under and the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father by household choice. Each additional child 5 and under increased the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice by 69.0 to 97.9% (Table 5b, row 3, columns 2-4; odds

ratios in parentheses). This strong effect indicated that fathers who stayed home by choice were willing to invest more effort (i.e., in child rearing) than fathers who were forced to stay-at-home.

Moving to the effect of individual characteristics, only father's age was consistently related to the probability of a household becoming stay-at-home father household by choice, while father's educational level and mother's age and educational level were not consistently related to the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice. Specifically, an increase of one year in father's age was associated with a decrease of 2.7 – 6.7% in the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice (Table 5b, row 4, columns 2-4; odds ratios in parentheses).

Finally, I estimated the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice compared to the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home mother household by choice, with choice indicated by the report of the non-working spouse that s/he did not work so s/he could take care of home and family. The results of this analysis appear in Table 5c. As can be seen, stay-at-home father households by choice have lower income as indicated by the negative effect of income on the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household throughout the years. However, the effect of income steadily and consistently decreased. During 1976-1979, the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice decreased by 5.8% with each additional \$1,000 of household income (Table 5c, row 1, column 1; odds ratios in parentheses). By 2000-2008, the effect of each additional \$1,000 on the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice

was 1.2%, i.e., the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice decreased by 1.2% with each additional \$1,000 (Table 5c, row 1, column 4; odds ratios in parentheses). This finding supports those in Table 2d that demonstrated a dramatic decrease in the earning gap between stay-at-home father and stay-at-home mother households.

Table 5b: Logistic regression for estimating the probability of a family being a SAFH by choice compared to force

	1976-1979	1980-1989	1990-1999	2000-2008
Income (in thousands)	.020 (1.021)	.030** (1.031)	.019** (1.019)	.019** (1.019)
Number of children in household	-.404 (.667)	-.141 (.868)	.204** (1.227)	.038 (1.039)
Number of children age five and under	-.162 (.850)	.652** (1.920)	.683** (1.979)	.525** (1.690)
Age father	-.027 (.973)	-.043 [†] (.958)	-.069** (.933)	-.027** (.973)
Age mother	-.022 (.978)	.008 (1.008)	.025 (1.026)	-.021* (.980)
Education father	.219 (1.244)	.028 (1.028)	.090 [†] (1.094)	-.035 (.966)
Education mother	-.378 (.685)	-.059 (.943)	-.049 (.952)	.101* (1.106)
Pseudo R Square (Nagelkerke)	.081	.128	.194	.179
N (Choice)	7	82	252	746
N (Force)	490	1,516	1,708	2,888

- Odds ratios are in parentheses.

- Choice: Wife works 35 hours or more, husband does not work because he takes care of home and family
- Force: Wife works 35 hours or more, husband does not work because reasons other than taking care of home and family.

With regard to number of children, it appears that stay-at-home father households by choice, while having more children than stay-at-home father households by force, still have fewer children than stay-at-home mother household. In 1980-1989, each additional child at home decreased the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by 27.4% (Table 5c, row 3, column 2; odds ratios in parentheses) and in 2000-2008 each additional child decreased the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by 19.6% (Table 5c, row 3, column 4; odds ratios in parentheses). In 1976-1979, the large effect size found in later decades was not significant, again, due to the small number of stay-at-home father households by choice during those years. In 1990-1999, the effect, although still negative, was not significant.

Number of children 5 years of age and under had a negative effect on the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice as compared to stay-at-home mother households, but only during the 2000-2008 decade. Specifically, each additional child 5 years of age and under decreased the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by 12.5% (Table 5c, row 3, column 4; odds ratios in parentheses).

Moving to the effect of the individual variables, age and educational level, on the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice as compared to the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home mother household

by choice, results showed that age of both mother and father had small and inconsistent effects, while educational level had consistent and strong effects on the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice as compared to the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home mother household by choice.

Furthermore, the effect of educational level increased over time. As noted earlier, since there were only eight stay-at-home fathers by choice in 1968-1979 the coefficient for these years was not statistically significant. For fathers, educational level was negatively related to the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice. In 1980-1989, an increase of one unit in father's educational level was associated with a 13.1% decrease in the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice (Table 5c, row 6, column 2; odds ratios in parentheses). In 1990-1999, an increase of one unit in father's educational level was associated with a 16.7% decrease in the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice (Table 5c, row 6, column 3; odds ratios in parentheses). In 2000-2008, the effect of father's educational level increased and was now associated with a 21.5% decrease in the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice as compared to the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home mother household by choice (Table 5c, row 6, column 4; odds ratios in parentheses). For mothers, educational level results showed opposite effects. In 1980-1989, an increase of one unit in mother's educational level was associated with a 53.3% increase in the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice (Table 5c, row 7, column 2; odds ratios in parentheses). In 1990-1999, an increase of one unit in mother's educational level was associated with a 57.7% increase in the probability of a household

becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice (Table 5c, row 7, column 3; odds ratios in parentheses). In 2000-2008, the effect of mother's educational level increased substantially and was now associated with a 84.1% increase in the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice as compared to the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home mother household by choice (Table 5c, row 7, column 4; odds ratios in parentheses).

Table 5c: Logistic regression for estimating the probability of a family being a SAFH by choice compared SAHM by choice

	1976-1979	1980-1989	1990-1999	2000-2008
Income (in thousands)	-.060** (.942)	-.033** (.967)	-.018** (.982)	-.012** (.988)
Number of children in household	-.598 (.550)	-.320** (.726)	-.065 (.937)	-.218** (.804)
Number of children age five and under	-1.331 (.264)	.035 (1.036)	.100 (1.105)	-.133* (.875)
Age father	.043 (1.044)	-.016 (.984)	-.026 [†] (.975)	.036** (1.037)
Age mother	-.055 (.947)	.043 (1.044)	.061** (1.063)	-.006 (.994)
Education father	.083 (1.087)	-.141* (.869)	-.182** (.833)	-.242** (.785)
Education mother	.022 (1.022)	.427** (1.533)	.455** (1.577)	.610** (1.841)
Pseudo R Square (Nagelkerke)	.119	.063	.048	.070
N (Choice)	7	84	284	913
N (Force)	20,577	37,717	24,737	35,214

- Odds ratios are in parentheses.

- SAHF Choice: Wife works 35 hours or more, husband does not work because he takes care of home and family.
- SAHM Choice: Husband works 35 hours or more, wife does not work because she takes care of home and family.

CHAPTER VII: DISCUSSION

This study has provided needed information on an infrequent, yet, growing household paid-work arrangement. American families have experienced significant changes in the way couples arrange paid and unpaid work in the last 60 years. After the Second World War, American families had been predominantly organized around a full-time working husband and a full-time homemaker wife (Waite & Nielsen, 2001). The 1960s were marked with a change in the way paid work was organized by families. The growing participation of women in the labor force, the increase in divorce rates and out of wedlock births, and the declining wages of males led many families to have two earners, with the most dominant family being a primary male earner and a secondary female earner and single-parent families (Marshall, 1998; Waite & Nielsen, 2001). The 1980s and 1990s saw an increase in dual-career couples where no primary earner could be identified clearly (Waite & Nielsen, 2001). The current study focused on the changes in another form of household paid-work structure -- stay-at-home father households in which the husband did not work and the wife was the sole earner.

Stay-at-home father households experienced tremendous change in the last 41 years. This change was threefold. First, stay-at-home father households almost tripled in their frequency within the U.S. population. In the late 1960s and 1970s, only one of one hundred of every two-parent households with at least one working spouse was a stay-at-

home father household. By 2000-2008, more than three households of one hundred were stay-at-home father households. Although these households remain a small proportion of all two-parent working families, stay-at-home father households consistently increased over the 40 years of this study. Second, stay-at-home father households shifted from being low-income, low-education and old parental-age households that were forced into such a household paid-work structure because of inability of the father to work or find work, to households that, in greater numbers, were *choosing* to become stay-at-home father households. The third and related shift was a change in the characteristics of stay-at-home father households. Stay-at-home father households, and especially those who chose to become such households, became more similar in all characteristics (income, number of children, age of children, number of children 5 years of age and under, age of spouses and education of spouses) to dual-earner households and especially to stay-at-home mother households. In the paragraphs below, I first discuss the changes experienced by stay-at-home father households in light of social exchange theory, gender role theory and a feminist perspective. Second, I suggest that defining stay-at-home father households based on working hours more validly defines stay-at-home father households. Third, I discuss in detail the support for the study hypotheses based on the findings from the results section. I conclude with the limitations of this study and future directions for research.

Social exchange theory, gender role theory and feminist perspective all suggest different ways to frame the changes experienced by stay-at-home father households in the last 40 years. Social exchange theory assumes a rational and interest-based exchange, usually within dyads, that results in rewards, costs, and benefits to players involved in the

exchange (Lewis, 2005). The findings of this study support such exchange, especially in the last two decades. Over time, the gap in earning potential of spouses, as manifested by differences in the average level of education between wives and husbands, increased qualitatively from being a difference between 11 (husband) and 12 (wife) years of education to being a difference between 12 years of education (husband) and 1-3 years of college (wife). The exchange is even more pronounced when examining households in which the husband did not work because he took care of home/family. Wives in those households were three times more likely to have a college degree or an advanced degree than their husbands. Social exchange theory and gender role theory were also supported when looking at the characteristics of stay-at-home mother households and contrasting them with the characteristics of stay-at-home father households. If no gender role and exchange were present, stay-at-home father and stay-at-home mother households would be identical; both would have one working spouse and one stay-at-home spouse and no gender role perceptions or exchange would be involved, the two households would have similar family characteristics like age of parents, number of children, and age of children. However, the findings of this study show that fathers were not ready to exchange gender roles completely. Stay-at-home father households had fewer children than stay-at-home mother households, older children that required less care and less pre-school children who required constant care. These differences were smaller for stay-at-home father households in which the father indicated he stayed at home to take care of home/family, but remained significant. In sum, results suggest that fathers agreed to exchange some gender role expectations only when there was less effort and perhaps lower stigma

associated with such gender role exchange. Specifically, fathers agreed to stay-at-home when they were required to invest less effort in taking care of their children.

Findings also supported a feminist perspective in that, although “females and males, femininity and masculinity are (supposed to be) equally valuable” (Wood, 1995, p. 104), power relations based on gender prevail even in families that change socially constructed gender roles such as breadwinner and homemaker. Specifically, wives in stay-at-home father households who met the “ideal worker” image of a full-time worker who had a supporting spouse at home (Manchester, Leslie, & Kramer, 2010) were still getting lower pay than comparable husbands in stay-at-home father households, who even had lower education. In addition, and as mentioned earlier, wives in stay-at-home father households were likely to be able to negotiate an exchange in gender roles in older age that prevented them from investing full effort in their career success when they first entered the labor force. The gender-based power relations as described by feminist theory (Osmond & Thorne, 2003) are evident when examining the terms under which fathers were willing to stay-at-home while their wives were working. Fathers were more likely to stay at home when they had fewer and older children compared to stay-at-home mother households. As feminist perspective suggests, this is another example of the power men hold over women in that they subordinate women into relationships in which men have favorable conditions compared to women. It is interesting, however, to note that stay-at-home fathers by choice did not seem to hold this power over their wives. The similarity between stay-at-home fathers by choice and stay-at-home mothers in number and age of children might indicate that in these families egalitarian perceptions of household roles are more accepted.

Two definitions for defining household were examined in this paper. The first defined stay-at-home father households as those in which the wife earned 100 percent of the household income from work. Such a definition was judged less desirable in that it included households in which the wife might be the only working spouse but was also the main care provider for children and the primary person who took care of household chores, including those relating to child care. For example, by this definition, households in which the wife worked part-time (less than 35 hours a week) or even less than part-time job (e.g., 10 hours a week) were considered as stay-at-home father households, although it was possible that wives were both sole earners and sole caregivers. The second definition of stay-at-home father households used weekly working hours and defined stay-at-home father households as households in which the wife worked a full-time job (35 hours a week or more) and the husband did not work for income at all. These households represented a subset of households used in the first definition. However, the working hours based definition better captured valid stay-at-home father households – those in which the father performed a greater share of the household chores and caregiving for children, because wives in such households had far less available time to take care of home and family and also because wives in such households had greater power as substantial sole providers (earning a wage from a full-time job and not part-time job).

Study hypotheses were largely concerned with differences in the characteristics of stay-at-home father households as compared to stay-at-home mother and dual-earner households, the changing characteristics of stay-at-home father households over time, and the difference between stay-at-home father households that chose to become such

households and those forced to become such households because the father was unable to find work or was ill or disabled. Wives of stay-at-home fathers had higher education than stay-at-home mothers in traditional families (supporting Hypothesis 2); stay-at-home fathers had lower education than their wives and working fathers in traditional families and dual-earner families (supporting Hypothesis 3a); the gap in education between stay-at-home fathers and their wives and working fathers in traditional families and dual-earner families narrowed over time (supporting Hypothesis 3b); stay-at-home father households had lower income than that of stay-at-home mother households (supporting hypotheses 4); stay-at-home father households had lower numbers of children compared to stay-at-home mother households (supporting Hypothesis 6); and children in stay-at-home father households were older than children in stay-at-home mother households. These results were supported by both descriptive statistics and analyses using logistic regression. Over all, these results confirm the two main propositions made in this study: 1) stay-at-home father households were expected to change over the last four decades and to become more similar, especially to stay-at-home mother households, but also to dual-earner households; and 2) families that chose a stay-at-home father household income structure would do so because the characteristics of the wife as a higher potential earner made such a decision more economically lucrative.

Higher income was a significantly stronger predictor of the probability of being a stay-at-home mother household when compared to being a stay-at-home father household than it was a predictor of the probability of being a stay-at-home mother household compared to being a stay-at-home father household by choice. This result indicated that the income gap between stay-at-home mother households and stay-at-home father

households by choice was smaller than that between stay-at-home mother households and stay-at-home father households by force. This finding was further supported by the significant effect for income on the probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice as compared to force. The effect size was larger than that differentiating stay-at-home father and stay-at-home mother households. Although number of children was not a significant predictor of the probability of becoming a stay-at-home father household by choice as compared to force, number of children 5 years of age and under was a significant predictor. These results indicated, again, that stay-at-home father households by choice were very similar to stay-at-home mother households but not similar to stay-at-home father households by force.

The differences in age of spouses among stay-at-home father households suggested a shift of stay-at-home father households from being forced into stay-at-home father household structure to choosing stay-at-home household structure. One indication of this was the greater similarity between stay-at-home father households by choice on the one hand, and stay-at-home mother and dual-earner households on the other hand. In addition, the decline in father and mother's age in stay-at-home father households occurred while an opposite trend of increased age was observed among stay-at-home mother and dual-earner household. Between 1968 and 1989, the older age of the father might be related to loss of ability to work which, in turn, forced the mother to be the sole earner of the family. It is possible that decline in father and mother's age over time indicates that, at least in some instances, spouses were choosing a stay-at-home father household type and were not forced into that this structure, and were doing it a younger age.

The educational differences between stay-at-home father and stay-at-home mother households and dual-earner mothers and fathers also seemed to support a shift, over time, from households being forced to a stay-at-home father household structure to households choosing to be a stay-at-home father household. The change in education over time provided further support to a story of greater choice for couples who selected to become a stay-at-home father household because the wife had greater earning potential, based on her education. Results indicated that stay-at-home father households transformed from very low education households, to households that were very similar, in terms of their education, to stay-at-home mother households. In particular, logistic regression results showed that higher mother's education was associated with greater probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household as compared to stay-at-home mother household and that the effect size was getting stronger over time. Lower father's education, on the other hand, was associated with greater probability of a household becoming a stay-at-home father household as compared to stay-at-home mother household and the effect size was also getting stronger over time.

Taken together, these results indicated that in the earliest decade, stay-at-home father households were very poor households that were forced to become a stay-at-home father household because of the inability of a father to work, either due to inability to work or very low earning potential. In the three decades that followed, the picture shifted. The effect of mothers' educational level became positive and strong indicating that families in which the mothers had large earning potential (as indicated by the positive effect of educational level) and fathers had low earning potential (as indicated by the

negative effect of educational level) were more likely to be *choosing* to become stay-at-home father households.

Policy Implications, Limitations and Future Directions

Stay-at-home father families do not represent a significant part of the population in the United States. Yet, stay-at-home father families represent the extreme end of an important shift in the role of fathers in child rearing. Stay-at-home fathers are part of the growing involvement of fathers in raising their children (Hofferth, Pleck, Stueve, Binachi, & Sayer, 2002; Pleck & Masciadrelli, 2004). Father involvement is important because it is related to a variety of positive outcomes for children such as higher well-being among infants, children, and adolescents (e.g., Amato, 1994; Fagan & Iglesias, 1999; Flouri & Buchanan, 2003a,b) and better academic achievement throughout life (e.g., Fagan & Iglesias, 1999; Flouri & Buchanan, 2004). There are many policies that address fathers such as welfare reform, child support, work place policies, responsible fatherhood programs, and other fatherhood interventions (Cabrera & Peters, 2000), yet research had yet to examine the effect of such policies on decisions of families to choose a stay-at-home father household type.

A limitation of the current study was the inability to estimate whether fathers who did not work were *actually* taking care of home and family. Specifically, although it is very probable that fathers who reported that they do not work so they can take care of home/family are more involved than fathers who stayed at home because they were unable to work and fathers who were working for pay, it is not as clear whether these fathers performed the lion share of child and home care and whether these fathers

invested similar amount of time in unpaid housework and child care as stay-at-home mothers. This problem is not addressed in studies on stay-at-home mother households because it is assumed that stay-at-home mothers are taking care of home and family and are performing household and child care roles at far greater rates than their working husbands. Future studies should further explore what exactly non-working parents are doing at home and whether stay-at-home fathers with full-time working wives are similar in their behavior at home to non-working mothers with full-time working husbands. Time diaries can potentially be used to track the behaviors of stay-at-home parents and their working spouses. The current study was also limited by the limited amount of variables that are available in the CPS. Future studies should also explore variables that are were unavailable in this study, such as gender role perceptions, length of time the non-working spouse plans to stay at home, marital satisfaction and more. Incorporating these and other variables will shed more light not only on the characteristics of stay-at-home father households but also on the outcomes of choosing, or being forced, into a non-traditional household structure as compared to the more traditional household income structures of stay-at-home mother and dual-earner households. Finally, a limitation of this study is that while it followed the development of stay-at-home father households over time, it did that using “snapshots” of *different* stay-at-home father households. There is much to benefit from exploring the process that leads families into choosing or being pushed toward a stay-at-home father household income structure. Such future studies will also be able to observe if and when stay-at-home father households cease such arrangements and return to the more traditional dual-earner or stay-at-home mother household. Future studies might also examine whether stay-at-home father households are different in their racial

and ethnic composition than other types of households. For example, it is possible that minorities who experience, on average, higher unemployment rate, might be represented more in the stay-at-home father by force group.

The findings of this study, the growing fathering movement, the increased gap in educational outcomes by gender and the narrowing gender income gap all point to a major transformation in U.S. society. Fathers are projected to increase their role in child rearing both as secondary providers and primary providers. This study sheds first light on the characteristics of households who have fathers as primary caregivers using a representative sample and stresses the importance of better understanding the mechanisms that make families choose or being forced into such untraditional family structure.

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Appendix A

Availability of study's variables, by year

Variable Name	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88
Marital status	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Number of families in HH	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Number of couples in HH	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Number of mothers in HH	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Number of fathers in HH	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Number of children in HH	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Age of Youngest child in HH	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Number of children under age 5 in HH	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Labor force participation	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Income from wage	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Weeks worked last year	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Reason not working last year	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Education	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Weekly working hours									X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Age	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Gender	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Race	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Race (including Hispanic)				X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Race (including Asian)																					X
Rural	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

Continue.

Variable Name	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	00	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09
Marital status	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Number of families in HH	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Number of couples in HH	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Number of mothers in HH	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Number of fathers in HH	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Number of children in HH	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Age of Youngest child in HH	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Number of children under age 5 in HH	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Labor force participation	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Income from wage	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Weeks worked last year	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Reason not working last year	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Education	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Weekly working hours	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Age	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Gender	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Race	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Race (including Hispanic)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Race (including Asian)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Rural	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

Appendix B

Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by household type, 1968-1979

1968-1979 – Wife earns 90% or more of household income				
	Total	SAHF	SAHM	Dual-earners
<i>Household characteristics</i>				
Household work income (2009 base)**	62,340 (31,799)	22,757 (17,224)	59,061 (31,821)	68,979 (30,288)
Number of children in household**	2.33 (1.32)	2.20 (1.34)	2.44 (1.35)	2.16 (1.25)
Number of children age five and under**	.61 (.76)	.24 (.51)	.72 (.81)	.45 (.65)
Age of youngest child**	6.40 (5.28)	9.85 (5.39)	5.68 (5.07)	7.41 (5.41)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>				
Age father	37.08 (9.58)	46.54 (13.18)	36.65 (9.31)	37.43 (9.65)
Age mother	34.23 (8.87)	40.77 (10.16)	33.84 (8.82)	34.61 (8.80)
Education father	6.66 (1.94)	5.43 (2.32)	6.74 (1.93)	6.57 (1.92)
Education mother	6.58 (1.70)	6.05 (1.99)	6.51 (1.73)	6.71 (1.63)
N (percent)	164,335 (100%)	2,218 (1.4%)	99,669 (60.7%)	62,448 (38.0%)

Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by household type, 1980-1989

1980-1989 -- Wife earns 90% or more of household income				
	Total	SAHF	SAHM	Dual-earners
<i>Household characteristics</i>				
Household work income (2009 base)**	62,565 (34,220)	24,067 (18,446)	56,186 (32,528)	70,116 (33,736)
Number of children in household**	2.11 (1.07)	2.10 (1.13)	2.27 (1.14)	1.97 (.99)
Number of children age five and under**	.56 (.73)	.32 (.60)	.68 (.80)	.47 (.66)
Age of youngest child**	7.00 (5.60)	9.57 (5.78)	6.21 (5.42)	7.56 (5.65)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>				
Age father	37.34 (9.01)	43.65 (12.22)	37.00 (9.08)	37.33 (8.64)
Age mother	34.72 (8.25)	39.13 (9.81)	34.36 (8.55)	34.81 (7.83)
Education father	7.11 (1.74)	6.14 (2.09)	7.06 (1.81)	7.19 (1.65)
Education mother	7.01 (1.56)	6.66 (1.73)	6.80 (1.66)	7.21 (1.44)
N (percent)	138,064 (100%)	3,528 (2.6%)	61,885 (44.8%)	72,651 (52.6%)

Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by household type, 1990-1999

1990-1999 – Wife earns 90% or more of household income				
	Total	SAHF	SAHM	Dual-earners
<i>Household characteristics</i>				
Household work income (2009 base)**	68,916 (47,358)	32,622 (46,156)	59,928 (50,345)	75,854 (42,042)
Number of children in household**	2.06 (.99)	2.01 (1.03)	2.26 (1.09)	1.95 (.91)
Number of children age five and under**	.54 (.72)	.35 (.61)	.68 (.79)	.47 (.66)
Age of youngest child**	6.99 (5.47)	9.02 (5.65)	5.97 (5.17)	7.48 (5.53)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>				
Age father	38.23 (8.21)	43.05 (10.62)	37.65 (8.26)	38.30 (7.93)
Age mother	35.89 (7.54)	38.84 (8.16)	35.20 (7.82)	36.12 (7.28)
Education father	7.42 (1.59)	6.69 (1.94)	7.30 (1.78)	7.53 (1.42)
Education mother	7.38 (1.51)	7.13 (1.63)	7.07 (1.72)	7.57 (1.33)
N (percent)	112,492 (100%)	3,785 (3.4%)	39,641 (35.2%)	69,066 (61.4%)

Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by household type, 2000-2008

2000-2008 – Wife earns 90% or more of household income				
	Total	SAHF	SAHM	Dual-earners
<i>Household characteristics</i>				
Household work income (2009 base)**	85,459 (71,352)	45,355 (65,565)	79,927 (86,764)	90,458 (59,860)
Number of children in household**	2.07 (.98)	1.99 (1.02)	2.26 (1.09)	1.97 (.90)
Number of children age five and under**	.50 (.71)	.33 (.61)	.66 (.80)	.42 (.65)
Age of youngest child**	7.48 (5.56)	9.29 (5.55)	6.25 (5.26)	8.07 (5.61)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>				
Age father	40.25 (8.57)	44.74 (10.91)	39.32 (8.54)	40.47 (8.30)
Age mother	37.99 (8.04)	40.68 (8.48)	36.98 (8.27)	38.36 (7.82)
Education father	7.64 (1.51)	7.21 (1.63)	7.56 (1.74)	7.71 (1.36)
Education mother	7.69 (1.46)	7.61 (1.44)	7.41 (1.71)	7.84 (1.28)
N (percent)	162,180 (100%)	6,396 (3.9%)	54,124 (33.4%)	101,660 (62.7%)

** Differences between SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earners households are significant at the .01 level. SAHF: Stay-at-home fathers; SAHM: Stay-at-home mothers.

Education coding: 5=Grade 10; 6=grade 11; 7=grade 12; 8=1-3 years of college

Appendix C

Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by household type, 1968-1979

1968-1979 – Wife earns 75% or more of household income				
	Total	SAHF	SAHM	Dual-earners
<i>Household characteristics</i>				
Household work income (2009 base)**	62,340 (31,799)	27,700 (24,344)	60,328 (31,707)	71,254 (29,612)
Number of children in household**	2.33 (1.32)	2.15 (1.32)	2.41 (1.34)	2.09 (1.22)
Number of children age five and under**	.61 (.76)	.31 (.56)	.68 (.80)	.42 (.63)
Age of youngest child**	6.40 (5.28)	9.16 (5.55)	5.93 (5.15)	7.62 (5.42)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>				
Age father	37.08 (9.58)	44.22 (13.51)	36.73 (9.33)	37.62 (9.71)
Age mother	34.23 (8.87)	39.11 (10.44)	33.91 (8.81)	34.83 (8.79)
Education father	6.66 (1.94)	5.68 (2.32)	6.73 (1.92)	6.51 (1.95)
Education mother	6.58 (1.70)	6.25 (1.96)	6.53 (1.70)	6.75 (1.65)
N (percent)	164,335 (100%)	3,030 (1.8%)	122,001 (74.2%)	39,304 (23.9%)

Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by household type 1980-1989

1980-1989 -- Wife earns 75% or more of household income				
	Total	SAHF	SAHM	Dual-earners
<i>Household characteristics</i>				
Household work income (2009 base)**	62,565 (34,220)	29,154 (24,347)	59,164 (33,206)	71,715 (33,620)
Number of children in household**	2.11 (1.07)	2.05 (1.09)	2.21 (1.11)	1.93 (.97)
Number of children age five and under**	.56 (.73)	.37 (.63)	.62 (.77)	.47 (.65)
Age of youngest child**	7.00 (5.60)	8.93 (5.82)	6.59 (5.51)	7.51 (5.66)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>				
Age father	37.34 (9.01)	41.78 (11.95)	37.14 (8.99)	37.22 (8.58)
Age mother	34.72 (8.25)	37.82 (9.60)	34.51 (8.44)	34.77 (7.70)
Education father	7.11 (1.74)	6.31 (2.04)	7.12 (1.75)	7.16 (1.68)
Education mother	7.01 (1.56)	6.79 (1.70)	6.88 (1.60)	7.25 (1.46)
N (percent)	138,064 (100%)	4,927 (3.6%)	83,944 (60.8%)	49,193 (35.6%)

Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by household type, 1990-1999

1990-1999 – Wife earns 75% or more of household income				
	Total	SAHF	SAHM	Dual-earners
<i>Household characteristics</i>				
Household work income (2009 base)**	68,916 (47,358)	40,606 (53,140)	64,047 (50,808)	77,349 (40,258)
Number of children in household**	2.06 (.99)	1.99 (1.01)	2.20 (1.05)	1.92 (.89)
Number of children age five and under**	.54 (.72)	.39 (.63)	.62 (.77)	.46 (.65)
Age of youngest child**	6.99 (5.47)	8.54 (5.65)	6.42 (5.32)	7.45 (5.54)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>				
Age father	38.23 (8.21)	41.77 (10.42)	37.90 (8.19)	38.21 (7.88)
Age mother	35.89 (7.54)	38.11 (8.06)	35.48 (7.76)	36.11 (7.17)
Education father	7.42 (1.59)	6.87 (1.85)	7.39 (1.67)	7.51 (1.43)
Education mother	7.38 (1.51)	7.29 (1.56)	7.18 (1.61)	7.61 (1.34)
N (percent)	112,492 (100%)	5,350 (4.8%)	56,537 (50.3%)	50,605 (45.0%)

Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by household type, 2000-2008

2000-2008 – Wife earns 75% or more of household income				
	Total	SAHF	SAHM	Dual-earners
<i>Household characteristics</i>				
Household work income (2009 base)**	85,459 (71,352)	61,364 (86,719)	83,931 (83,900)	89,747 (53, 141)
Number of children in household**	2.07 (.98)	1.99 (1.00)	2.21 (1.05)	1.94 (.89)
Number of children age five and under**	.50 (.71)	.36 (.62)	.60 (.77)	.43 (.65)
Age of youngest child**	7.48 (5.56)	8.95 (5.60)	6.75 (5.40)	8.03 (5.62)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>				
Age father	40.25 (8.57)	43.75 (10.54)	39.72 (8.49)	40.37 (8.30)
Age mother	37.99 (8.04)	40.25 (8.37)	37.41 (8.23)	38.29 (7.75)
Education father	7.64 (1.51)	7.34 (1.57)	7.64 (1.63)	7.68 (1.36)
Education mother	7.69 (1.46)	7.76 (1.38)	7.50 (1.60)	7.87 (1.29)
N (percent)	162,180 (100%)	9,019 (5.6%)	75,560 (46.6%)	77,601 (47.9%)

** Differences between SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earners households are significant at the .01 level. SAHF: Stay-at-home fathers; SAHM: Stay-at-home mothers.

Education coding: 5=Grade 10; 6=grade 11; 7=grade 12; 8=1-3 years of college

Appendix D

Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by household type, 1968-1979

1968-1979 – Wife/husband earns more than 50% of household income			
	Total	Wife earns more than 50%	Husband earns more than 50%
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	62,340 (31,799)	49,932 (33,772)	63,014 (31,548)
Number of children in household**	2.33 (1.32)	2.10 (1.28)	2.34 (1.32)
Number of children age five and under**	.61 (.76)	.46 (.61)	.62 (.77)
Age of youngest child**	6.40 (5.28)	8.04 (5.53)	6.31 (5.26)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	37.08 (9.58)	40.08 (12.04)	36.92 (9.40)
Age mother	34.23 (8.87)	36.42 (9.79)	34.11 (8.80)
Education father	6.66 (1.94)	6.08 (2.18)	6.69 (1.92)
Education mother	6.58 (1.70)	6.63 (1.87)	6.58 (1.69)
N (percent)	164,335 (100%)	8,478 (5.2%)	155,857 (94.8%)

Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by household type, 1980-1989

	1980-1989 -- Wife/husband earns more than 50% of household income		
	Total	Wife earns more than 50%	Husband earns more than 50%
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	62,565 (34,220)	52,041 (35,453)	63,780 (33,864)
Number of children in household**	2.11 (1.07)	1.95 (1.01)	2.13 (1.08)
Number of children age five and under**	.56 (.73)	.46 (.65)	.57 (.74)
Age of youngest child**	7.00 (5.60)	7.83 (5.74)	6.90 (5.58)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	37.34 (9.01)	38.62 (10.29)	37.20 (8.84)
Age mother	34.72 (8.25)	35.73 (8.49)	34.60 (8.21)
Education father	7.11 (1.74)	6.76 (1.88)	7.15 (1.72)
Education mother	7.01 (1.56)	7.14 (1.59)	6.70 (1.56)
N (percent)	138,064 (100%)	14,287 (10.3%)	123,777 (89.7%)

Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by household type, 1990-1999

1990-1999 – Wife/husband earns more than 50% of household income			
	Total	Wife earns more than 50%	Husband earns more than 50%
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	68,916 (47,358)	64,734 (49,144)	69,690 (46,979)
Number of children in household**	2.06 (.99)	1.92 (.92)	2.09 (1.00)
Number of children age five and under**	.54 (.72)	.46 (.65)	.56 (.73)
Age of youngest child**	6.99 (5.47)	7.63 (5.60)	6.87 (5.44)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	38.23 (8.21)	39.30 (9.03)	38.03 (8.03)
Age mother	35.89 (7.54)	36.85 (7.46)	35.71 (7.54)
Education father	7.42 (1.59)	7.28 (1.61)	7.44 (1.58)
Education mother	7.38 (1.51)	7.63 (1.41)	7.32 (1.52)
N (percent)	112,492 (100%)	17,561 (15.6%)	94,931 (84.4%)

Frequencies, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by household type, 2000-2008

2000-2008 – Wife/husband earns more than 50% of household income			
	Total	Wife earns more than 50%	Husband earns more than 50%
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	85,459 (71,352)	82,917 (69,582)	86,038 (71,737)
Number of children in household**	2.07 (.98)	1.93 (.92)	2.10 (.99)
Number of children age five and under**	.50 (.71)	.41 (.64)	.52 (.73)
Age of youngest child**	7.48 (5.56)	8.25 (5.62)	7.31 (5.54)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	40.25 (8.57)	41.55 (9.25)	39.96 (8.37)
Age mother	37.99 (8.04)	39.12 (7.96)	37.73 (8.04)
Education father	7.64 (1.51)	7.57 (1.41)	7.65 (1.53)
Education mother	7.69 (1.46)	7.98 (1.25)	7.62 (1.49)
N (percent)	162,180 (100%)	30,089 (18.5%)	132,091 (81.5%)

** Differences between SAHF, SAHM, and dual-earners households are significant at the .01 level. SAHF: Stay-at-home fathers; SAHM: Stay-at-home mothers.

Education coding: 5=Grade 10; 6=grade 11; 7=grade 12; 8=1-3 years of college

Appendix E

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 1976-1979

	Total	Wife works 35 hours or more; husband works 20 or less	Husband works 35 hours or more; wife works 20 or less
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	58,580 (35,459)	41,826 (27,804)	59,114 (35,546)
Number of children in household**	2.41 (1.26)	2.11 (1.15)	2.42 (1.26)
Number of children age five and under**	.57 (.75)	.31 (.55)	.58 (.76)
Age of youngest child**	6.84 (5.41)	9.02 (5.75)	6.77 (5.39)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	38.42 (9.44)	42.14 (12.64)	38.30 (9.34)
Age mother	35.61 (8.93)	37.89 (10.04)	35.54 (8.89)
Education father	7.01 (1.87)	6.30 (2.15)	7.03 (1.86)
Education mother	6.78 (1.66)	6.72 (1.77)	6.78 (1.66)
N (percent)	32,844 (100%)	1,016 (3.1%)	31,828 (96.9%)

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 1980-1989

	Total	Wife works 35 hours or more; husband works 20 or less	Husband works 35 hours or more; wife works 20 or less
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	55,851 (36,213)	40,868 (28,626)	56,674 (36,412)
Number of children in household**	2.26 (1.12)	2.01 (1.05)	2.28 (1.12)
Number of children age five and under**	.63 (.78)	.35 (.59)	.64 (.79)
Age of youngest child**	6.67 (5.51)	8.98 (5.75)	6.54 (5.47)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	38.11 (8.97)	41.19 (11.82)	37.94 (8.81)
Age mother	35.41 (8.34)	37.69 (9.32)	35.29 (8.29)
Education father	7.23 (1.76)	6.74 (1.95)	7.26 (1.75)
Education mother	7.03 (1.59)	7.05 (1.54)	7.03 (1.59)
N (percent)	69,514 (100%)	3,586 (5.2%)	65,928 (94.8%)

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 1990-1999

	Total	Wife works 35 hours or more; husband works 20 or less	Husband works 35 hours or more; wife works 20 or less
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	59,635 (53,753)	36,805 (33,580)	61,082 (54,423)
Number of children in household**	2.25 (1.07)	1.94 (.96)	2.27 (1.07)
Number of children age five and under**	.64 (.75)	.33 (.59)	.66 (.79)
Age of youngest child**	6.28 (5.24)	9.17 (5.71)	6.10 (5.16)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	38.64 (8.14)	43.09 (10.50)	38.35 (7.99)
Age mother	36.14 (7.58)	39.12 (7.97)	35.94 (7.55)
Education father	7.47 (1.68)	6.93 (1.90)	7.51 (1.66)
Education mother	7.31 (1.61)	7.37 (1.53)	7.31 (1.61)
N (percent)	50,407 (100%)	3,101 (6.2%)	47,306 (93.8%)

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 2000-2008

	Total	Wife works 35 hours or more; husband works 20 or less	Husband works 35 hours or more; wife works 20 or less
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	76,306 (83,178)	52,276 (61,546)	78,552 (84,552)
Number of children in household**	2.26 (1.08)	1.93 (.97)	2.28 (1.08)
Number of children age five and under**	.62 (.79)	.32 (.60)	.64 (.79)
Age of youngest child**	6.59 (5.31)	9.49 (5.56)	6.35 (5.22)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	40.32 (8.54)	44.96 (10.80)	39.92 (8.34)
Age mother	37.85 (8.09)	40.90 (8.30)	37.59 (8.07)
Education father	7.67 (1.63)	7.37 (1.58)	7.70 (1.63)
Education mother	7.59 (1.59)	7.75 (1.40)	7.58 (1.61)
N (percent)	73,250 (100%)	5,830 (8.0%)	67,420 (92%)

Appendix F

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 1976-1979

	Total	Wife full-time (≥ 35 hours)	Husband full-time (≥ 35 hours)
		Husband part-time (1-34 hours)	Wife part-time (1-34 hours)
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	61,026 (34,459)	41,381 (30,153)	61,720 (34,397)
Number of children in household**	2.35 (1.21)	2.06 (1.29)	2.36 (1.21)
Number of children age five and under**	.42 (.66)	.46 (.62)	.42 (.66)
Age of youngest child**	7.73 (5.27)	7.52 (5.71)	7.74 (5.26)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	38.62 (9.13)	38.32 (11.72)	38.63 (9.04)
Age mother	35.84 (8.51)	34.76 (10.03)	35.88 (8.46)
Education father	7.17 (1.75)	6.51 (2.28)	7.19 (1.73)
Education mother	7.06 (1.47)	6.74 (1.77)	7.07 (1.46)
N (percent)	13,713 (100%)	468 (3.4%)	13,245 (96.6%)

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 1980-1989

	Total	Wife full-time (≥ 35 hours)	Husband full-time (≥ 35 hours)
		Husband part-time (1-34 hours)	Wife part-time (1-34 hours)
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	59,694 (35,598)	41,338 (28,305)	60,746 (35,553)
Number of children in household**	2.16 (1.03)	1.96 (1.07)	2.17 (1.03)
Number of children age five and under**	.51 (.71)	.48 (.66)	.51 (.72)
Age of youngest child**	7.28 (5.49)	7.55 (5.81)	7.26 (5.47)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	37.96 (8.49)	38.73 (10.56)	37.91 (8.37)
Age mother	35.42 (7.82)	35.60 (8.72)	35.41 (7.77)
Education father	7.47 (1.52)	6.92 (1.87)	7.50 (1.50)
Education mother	7.35 (1.32)	7.09 (1.58)	7.36 (1.30)
N (percent)	37,696 (100%)	2,099 (5.6%)	35,597 (94.4%)

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 1990-1999

	Total	Wife full-time (≥ 35 hours)	Husband full-time (≥ 35 hours)
		Husband part-time (1-34 hours)	Wife part-time (1-34 hours)
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	65,469 (49,634)	48,951 (44,709)	65,970 (47,622)
Number of children in household**	2.14 (.97)	1.89 (.94)	2.16 (.97)
Number of children age five and under**	.52 (.72)	.47 (.65)	.52 (.72)
Age of youngest child**	6.99 (5.26)	7.42 (5.65)	6.96 (5.24)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	38.75 (7.81)	39.24 (9.57)	38.72 (7.69)
Age mother	36.51 (7.29)	36.61 (7.84)	36.50 (7.25)
Education father	7.75 (1.30)	7.37 (1.62)	7.77 (1.28)
Education mother	7.67 (1.21)	7.63 (1.37)	7.67 (1.20)
N (percent)	34,005 (100%)	2,126 (6.3%)	31,879 (93.7%)

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 2000-2008

	Total	Wife full-time (≥35 hours)	Husband full-time (≥35 hours)
		Husband part-time (1-34 hours)	Wife part-time (1-34 hours)
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	83,609 (75,343)	68,236 (72,015)	83,836 (73,646)
Number of children in household**	2.14 (.96)	1.94 (.95)	2.16 (.95)
Number of children age five and under**	.48 (.71)	.41 (.65)	.48 (.71)
Age of youngest child**	7.50 (5.36)	8.30 (5.71)	7.44 (5.33)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	40.94 (8.19)	42.32 (10.07)	40.83 (8.05)
Age mother	38.73 (7.78)	39.52 (8.52)	38.67 (7.72)
Education father	7.93 (1.24)	7.70 (1.42)	7.95 (1.23)
Education mother	7.94 (1.16)	7.99 (1.27)	7.94 (1.15)
N (percent)	45,663 (100%)	3,257 (7.1%)	42,406 (92.9%)

Appendix G

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 1976-1979

	Total	Wife worked >1 hour; Husband did not work	Husband worked >1 hour; Wife did not work
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	57,151 (35,660)	39,276 (27,762)	57,954 (35,765)
Number of children in household**	2.42 (1.28)	2.16 (1.14)	2.43 (1.28)
Number of children age five and under**	.60 (.77)	.27 (.54)	.62 (.78)
Age of youngest child**	6.67 (5.47)	9.39 (5.45)	6.55 (5.44)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	38.45 (9.71)	42.85 (12.77)	38.25 (9.57)
Age mother	35.58 (9.18)	38.49 (9.96)	35.45 (9.14)
Education father	6.89 (1.93)	6.20 (2.11)	6.92 (1.92)
Education mother	6.62 (1.71)	6.59 (1.56)	6.62 (1.72)
N (percent)	25,327 (100%)	1,088 (4.3%)	24,239 (95.7%)

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 1980-1989

	Total	Wife worked >1 hour; Husband did not work	Husband worked >1 hour; Wife did not work
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	53,252 (36,131)	38,868 (28,344)	54,375 (35,431)
Number of children in household**	2.29 (1.16)	2.05 (1.06)	2.31 (1.16)
Number of children age five and under**	.65 (.80)	.32 (.59)	.68 (.81)
Age of youngest child**	6.58 (5.58)	9.28 (5.67)	6.37 (5.51)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	38.24 (9.34)	41.63 (11.92)	37.98 (9.14)
Age mother	35.43 (8.66)	38.12 (9.46)	35.22 (8.60)
Education father	7.05 (1.87)	6.64 (1.96)	7.08 (1.86)
Education mother	6.82 (1.69)	6.93 (1.56)	6.81 (1.70)
N (percent)	48,950 (100%)	3,543 (7.2%)	45,407 (92.8%)

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 1990-1999

	Total	Wife worked >1 hour; Husband did not work	Husband worked >1 hour; Wife did not work
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	55,034 (54,429)	30,148 (27,625)	57,243 (55,659)
Number of children in household**	2.27 (1.11)	2.01 (1.02)	2.30 (1.12)
Number of children age five and under**	.68 (.80)	.32 (.58)	.72 (.80)
Age of youngest child**	6.13 (5.32)	9.55 (5.59)	5.83 (5.18)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	38.61 (8.44)	44.30 (10.54)	38.10 (8.25)
Age mother	35.91 (7.78)	39.77 (7.92)	35.57 (7.77)
Education father	7.24 (1.84)	6.66 (1.95)	7.29 (1.83)
Education mother	7.05 (1.76)	7.14 (1.61)	7.04 (1.77)
N (percent)	33,718 (100%)	2,749 (8.2%)	30,969 (91.8%)

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 2000-2008

	Total	Wife worked >1 hour; Husband did not work	Husband worked >1 hour; Wife did not work
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	70,880 (84,193)	41,059 (51,180)	74,270 (86,510)
Number of children in household**	2.28 (1.12)	1.97 (1.01)	2.31 (1.13)
Number of children age five and under**	.65 (.80)	.30 (.59)	.70 (.81)
Age of youngest child**	6.39 (5.34)	9.58 (5.48)	6.03 (5.20)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	40.12 (8.80)	45.48 (10.91)	39.51 (8.56)
Age mother	37.51 (8.28)	41.09 (8.29)	37.10 (8.28)
Education father	7.48 (1.77)	7.19 (1.63)	7.51 (1.79)
Education mother	7.38 (1.74)	7.60 (1.43)	7.35 (1.77)
N (percent)	51,458 (100%)	5,252 (10.2%)	46,206 (89.8%)

Appendix H

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 1976-1979

	Total	Wife worked >20 hour; Husband did not work	Husband worked >20 hour; Wife did not work
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	57,474 (35,557)	41,003 (27,438)	58,143 (35,688)
Number of children in household**	2.42 (1.28)	2.15 (1.12)	2.43 (1.28)
Number of children age five and under**	.61 (.77)	.27 (.53)	.62 (.78)
Age of youngest child**	6.65 (5.46)	9.38 (5.44)	6.54 (5.43)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	38.39 (9.65)	42.51 (12.56)	38.22 (9.53)
Age mother	35.53 (9.15)	38.23 (9.86)	35.42 (9.12)
Education father	6.90 (1.92)	6.21 (2.09)	6.93 (1.91)
Education mother	6.63 (1.72)	6.63 (1.75)	6.63 (1.72)
N (percent)	25,077 (100%)	979 (3.9%)	24,098 (96.1%)

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 1980-1989

	Total	Wife worked >20 hour; Husband did not work	Husband worked >20 hour; Wife did not work
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	53,653 (36,037)	40,295 (28,310)	54,605 (36,338)
Number of children in household**	2.29 (1.16)	2.04 (1.06)	2.31 (1.16)
Number of children age five and under**	.66 (.80)	.32 (.58)	.68 (.81)
Age of youngest child**	6.56 (5.56)	9.31 (5.66)	6.36 (5.51)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	38.20 (9.28)	41.58 (11.87)	37.96 (9.10)
Age mother	35.40 (8.63)	38.08 (9.37)	35.21 (8.58)
Education father	7.05 (1.87)	6.65 (1.96)	7.08 (1.86)
Education mother	6.82 (1.69)	6.97 (1.55)	6.81 (1.70)
N (percent)	48,341 (100%)	3,216 (6.7%)	45,125 (93.3%)

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 1990-1999

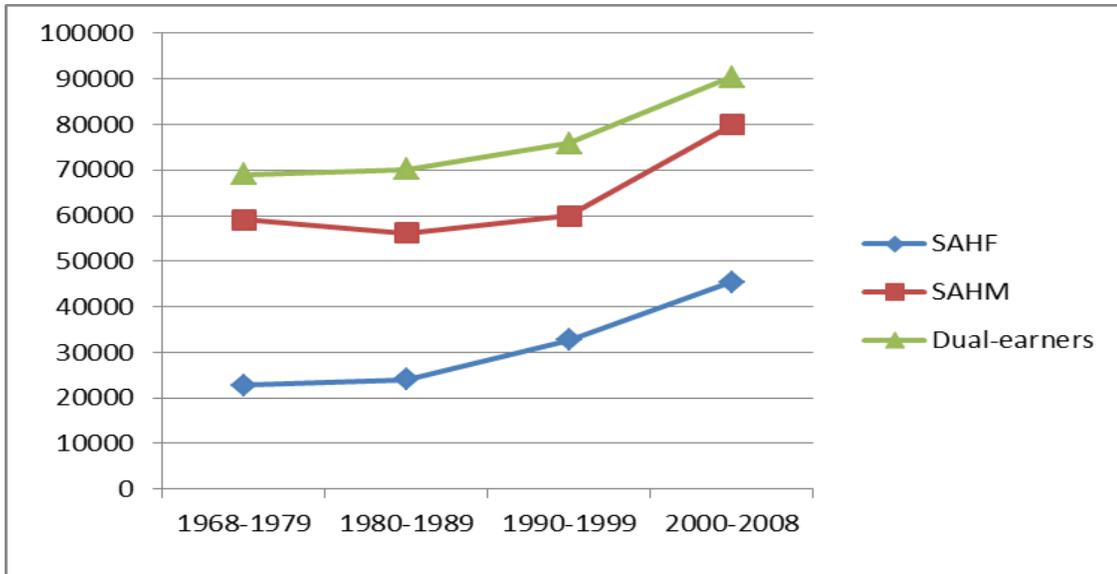
	Total	Wife worked >20 hour; Husband did not work	Husband worked >20 hour; Wife did not work
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	55,572 (54,493)	31,756 (27,837)	57,556 (55,688)
Number of children in household**	2.27 (1.11)	1.98 (1.00)	2.30 (1.11)
Number of children age five and under**	.69 (.80)	.31 (.58)	.72 (.80)
Age of youngest child**	6.11 (5.31)	9.57 (5.62)	5.82 (5.18)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	38.56 (8.38)	44.26 (10.47)	38.08 (8.21)
Age mother	35.88 (7.75)	39.78 (7.86)	35.56 (7.74)
Education father	7.25 (1.83)	6.67 (1.95)	7.30 (1.82)
Education mother	7.06 (1.76)	7.17 (1.60)	7.05 (1.77)
N (percent)	33,277 (100%)	2,560 (7.7%)	30,717 (92.3%)

Frequency, mean, and standard deviation of household level variables, by working hours, 2000-2008

	Total	Wife worked >20 hour; Husband did not work	Husband worked >20 hour; Wife did not work
<i>Household characteristics</i>			
Household work income (2009 base)**	71,480 (84,352)	42,708 (52,062)	74,594 (86,561)
Number of children in household**	2.28 (1.12)	1.97 (1.01)	2.31 (1.12)
Number of children age five and under**	.66 (.80)	.30 (.59)	.70 (.81)
Age of youngest child**	6.37 (5.33)	9.57 (5.48)	6.02 (5.20)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>			
Age father	40.08 (8.75)	45.40 (10.82)	39.50 (8.53)
Age mother	37.48 (8.26)	41.06 (8.22)	37.09 (8.26)
Education father	7.48 (1.77)	7.19 (1.63)	7.51 (1.78)
Education mother	7.38 (1.73)	7.62 (1.43)	7.35 (1.76)
N (percent)	50,850 (100%)	4,966 (9.8%)	45,884 (90.2%)

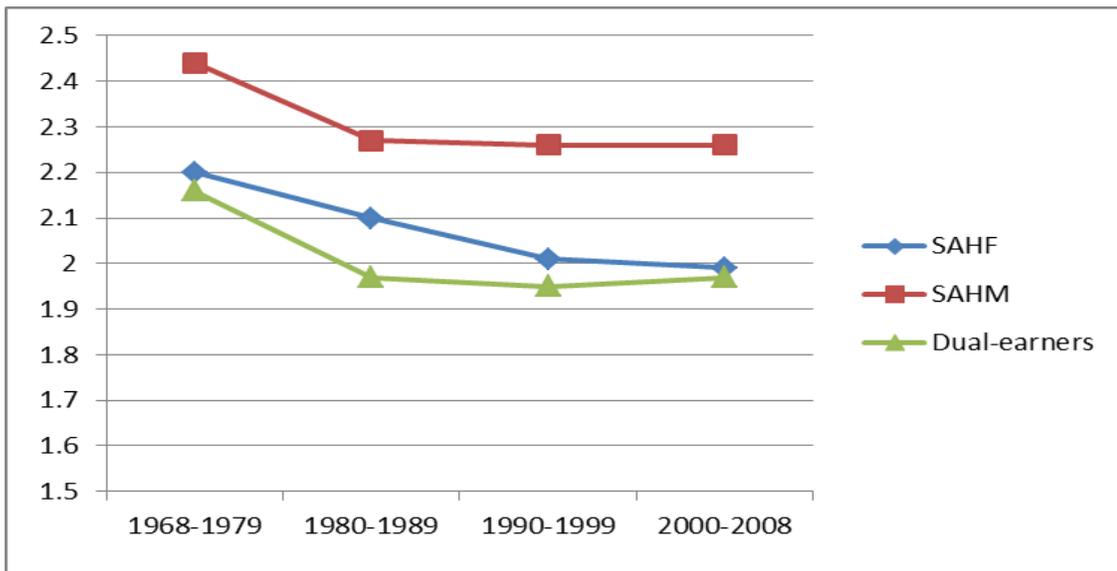
Appendix I

SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households income, by decade



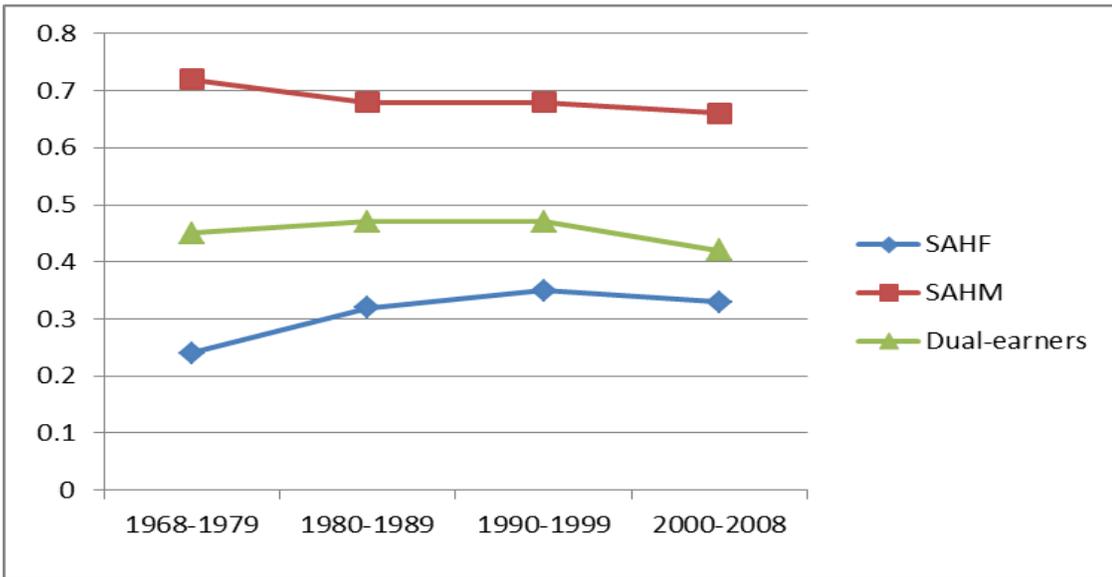
- SAHF: wife earns 90% or more of households income; SAHM: husband earns 90% or more of household income; Dual-earners: wife and husband each earns above 10% of household income

SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households number of children, by decade



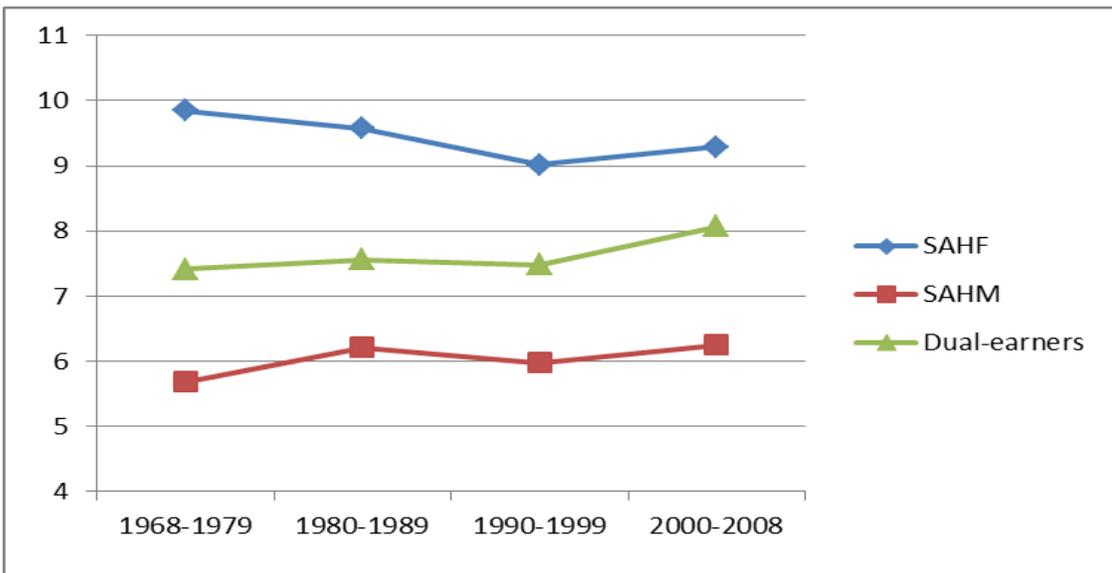
- SAHF: wife earns 90% or more of households income; SAHM: husband earns 90% or more of household income; Dual-earners: wife and husband each earns above 10% of household income

SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households number of children under 5, by decade



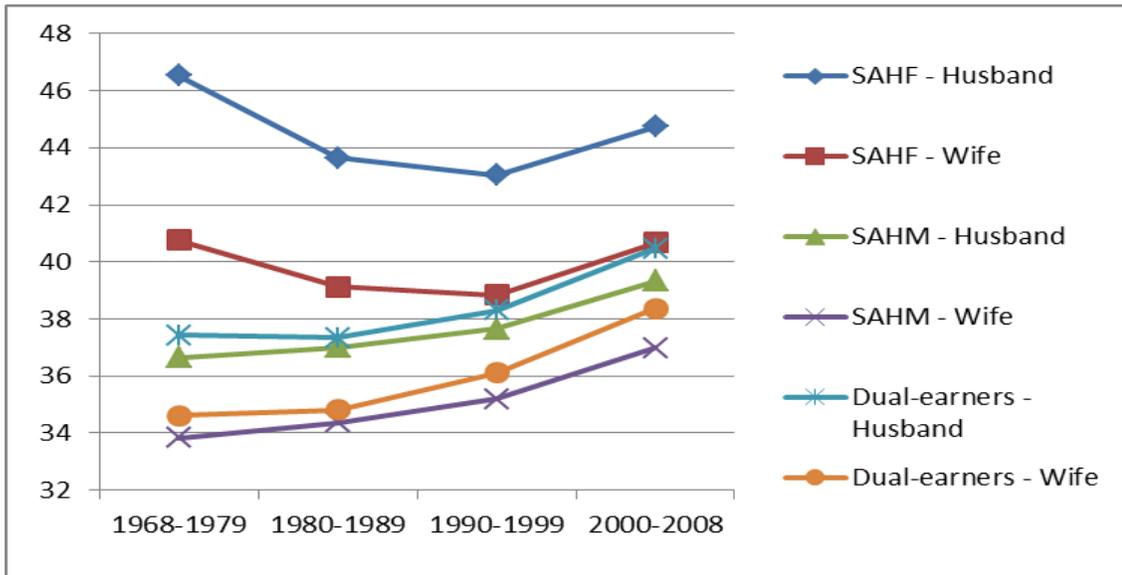
- SAHF: wife earns 90% or more of households income; SAHM: husband earns 90% or more of household income; Dual-earners: wife and husband each earns above 10% of household income

SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households age of youngest child, by decade



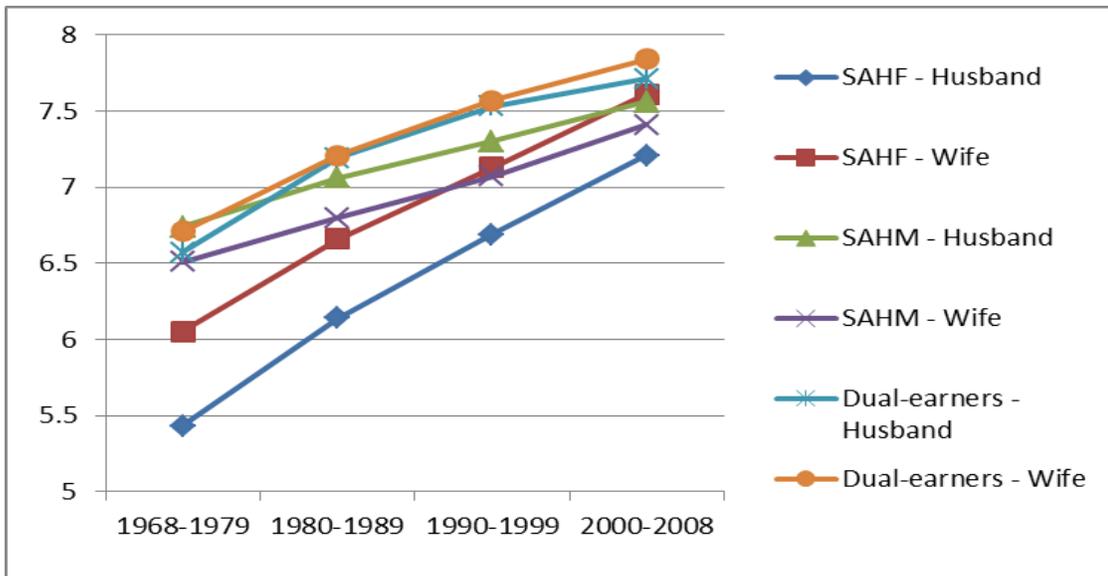
- SAHF: wife earns 90% or more of households income; SAHM: husband earns 90% or more of household income; Dual-earners: wife and husband each earns above 10% of household income

SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households wife and husband age, by decade



- SAHF: wife earns 90% or more of households income; SAHM: husband earns 90% or more of household income; Dual-earners: wife and husband each earns above 10% of household income

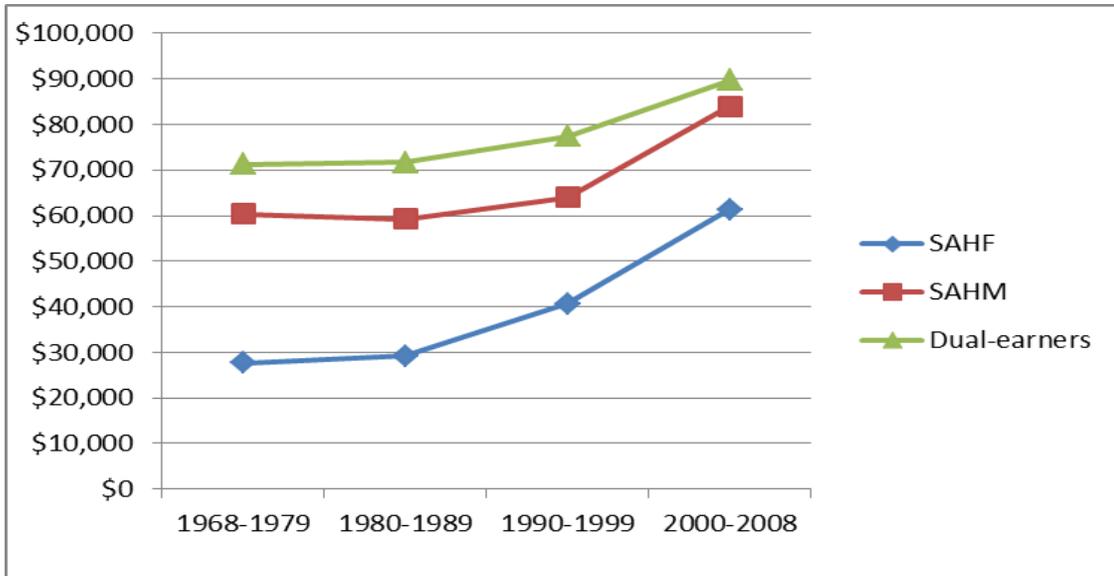
SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households wife and husband education, by decade



- SAHF: wife earns 90% or more of households income; SAHM: husband earns 90% or more of household income; Dual-earners: wife and husband each earns above 10% of household income

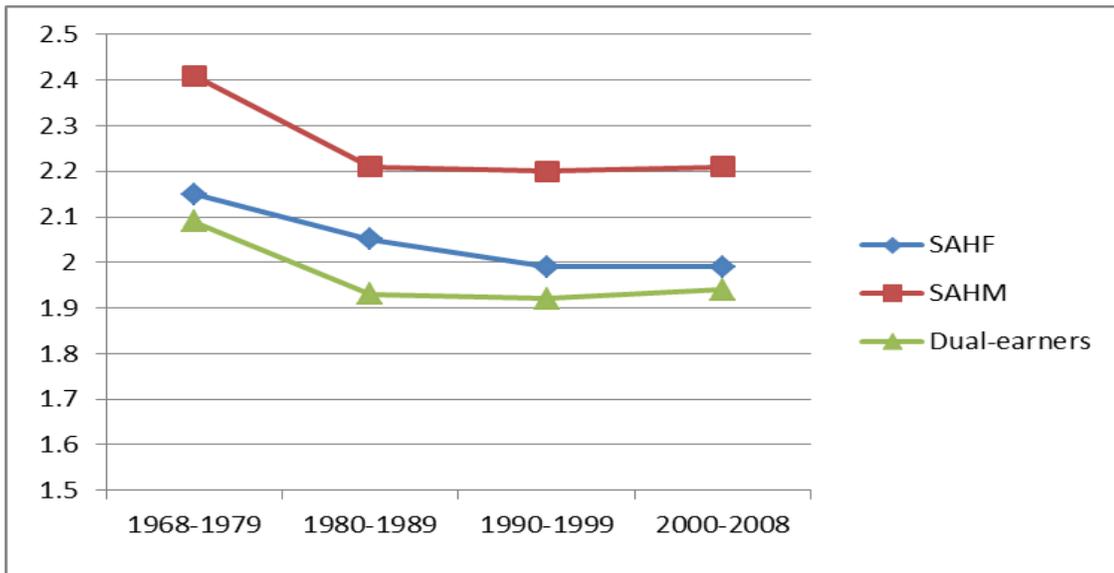
Appendix J

SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households income, by decade



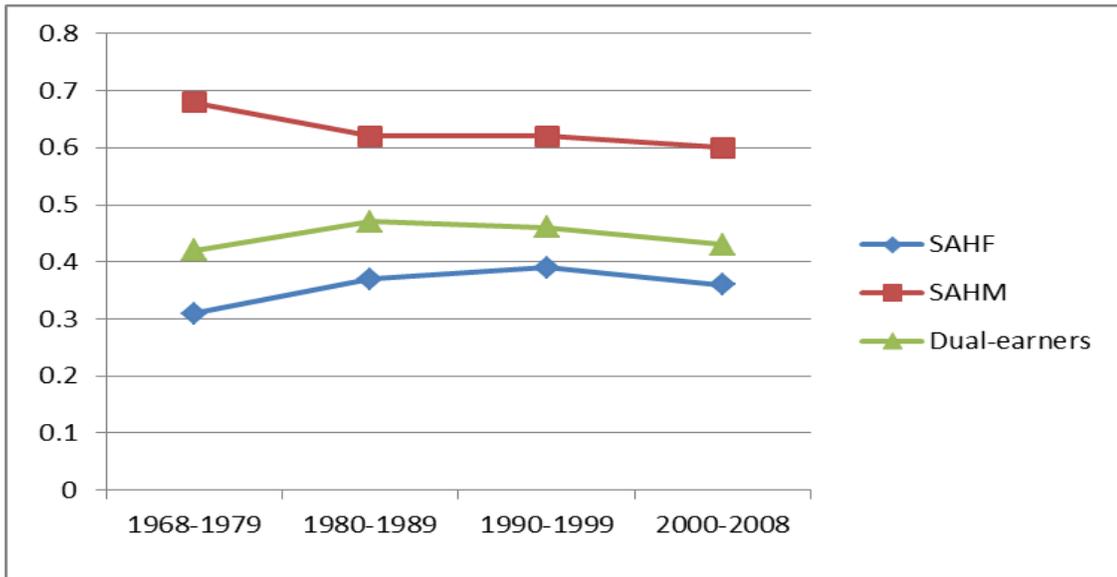
- SAHF: wife earns 75% or more of households income; SAHM: husband earns 75% or more of household income; Dual-earners: wife and husband each earns above 25% of household income

SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households number of children, by decade



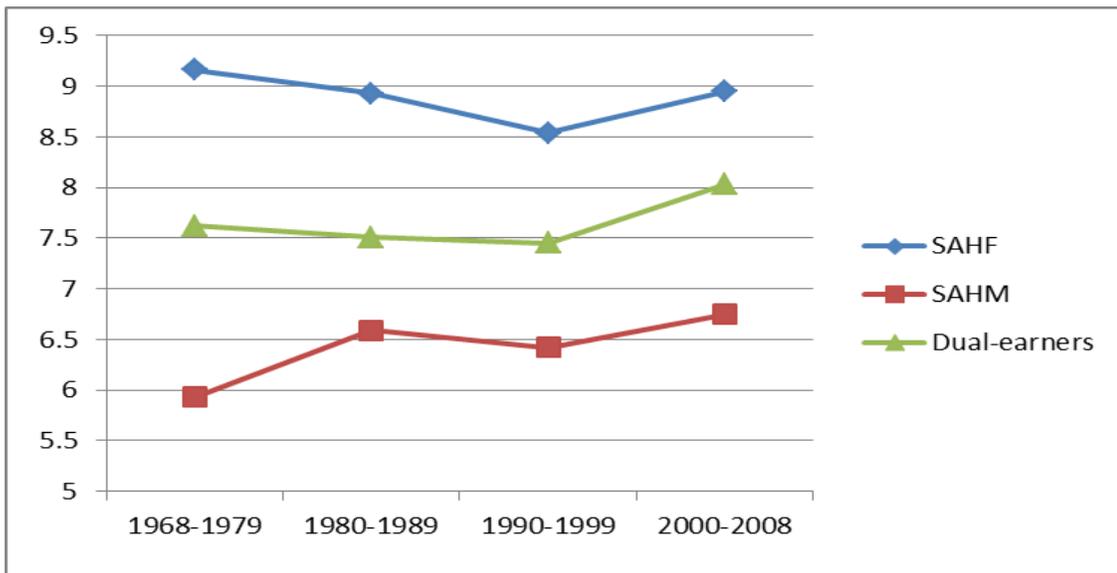
- SAHF: wife earns 75% or more of households income; SAHM: husband earns 75% or more of household income; Dual-earners: wife and husband each earns above 25% of household income

SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households number of children under age 5, by decade



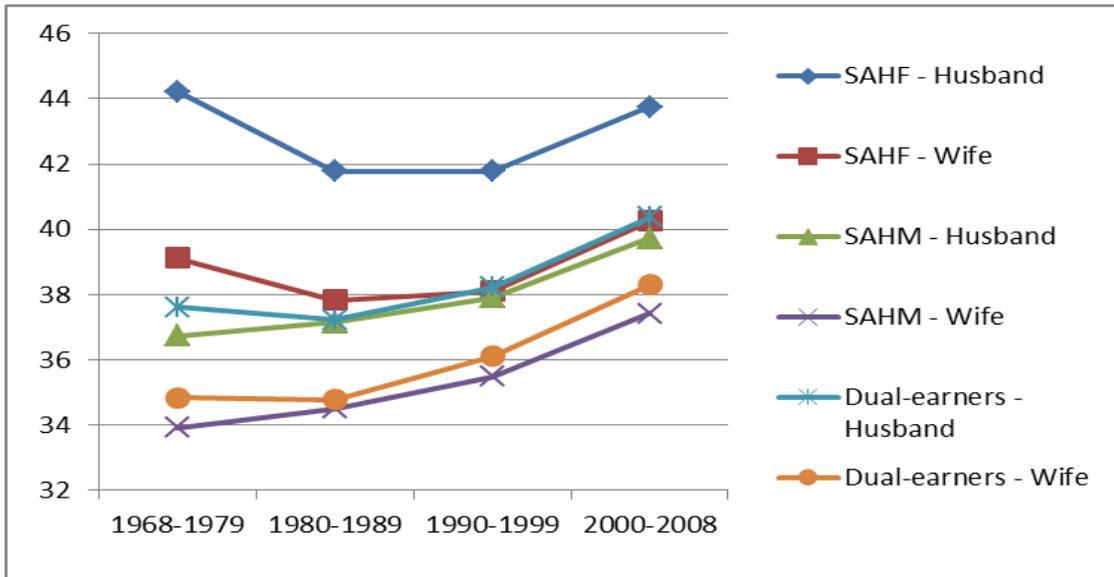
- SAHF: wife earns 75% or more of households income; SAHM: husband earns 75% or more of household income; Dual-earners: wife and husband each earns above 25% of household income

SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households age of youngest child, by decade



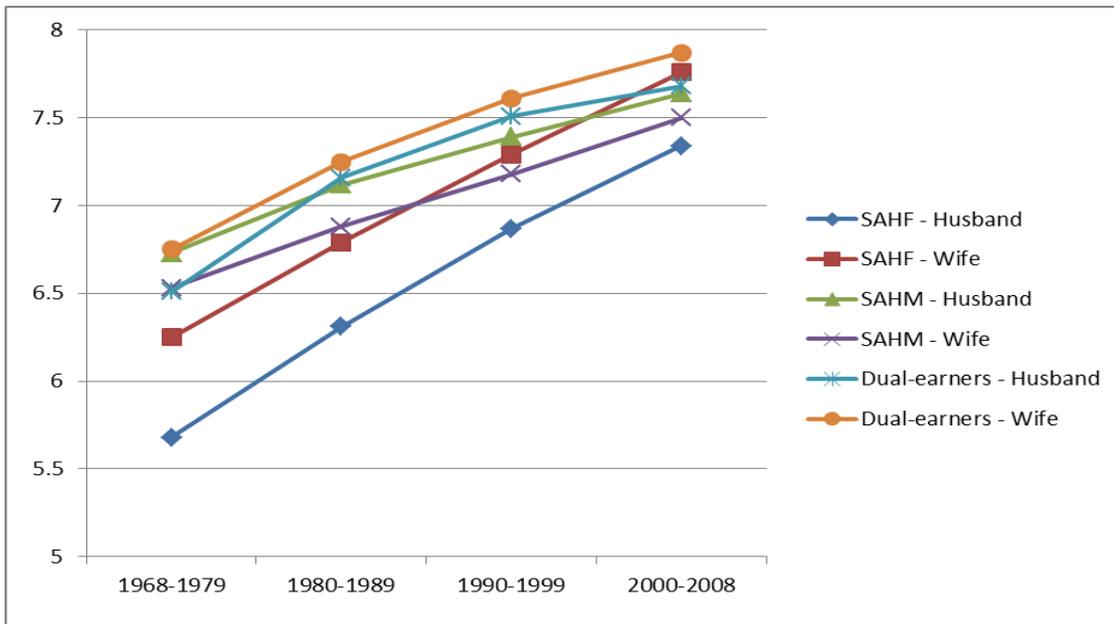
- SAHF: wife earns 75% or more of households income; SAHM: husband earns 75% or more of household income; Dual-earners: wife and husband each earns above 25% of household income

SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households wife and husband age, by decade



- SAHF: wife earns 75% or more of households income; SAHM: husband earns 75% or more of household income; Dual-earners: wife and husband each earns above 25% of household income

SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households wife and husband education, by decade

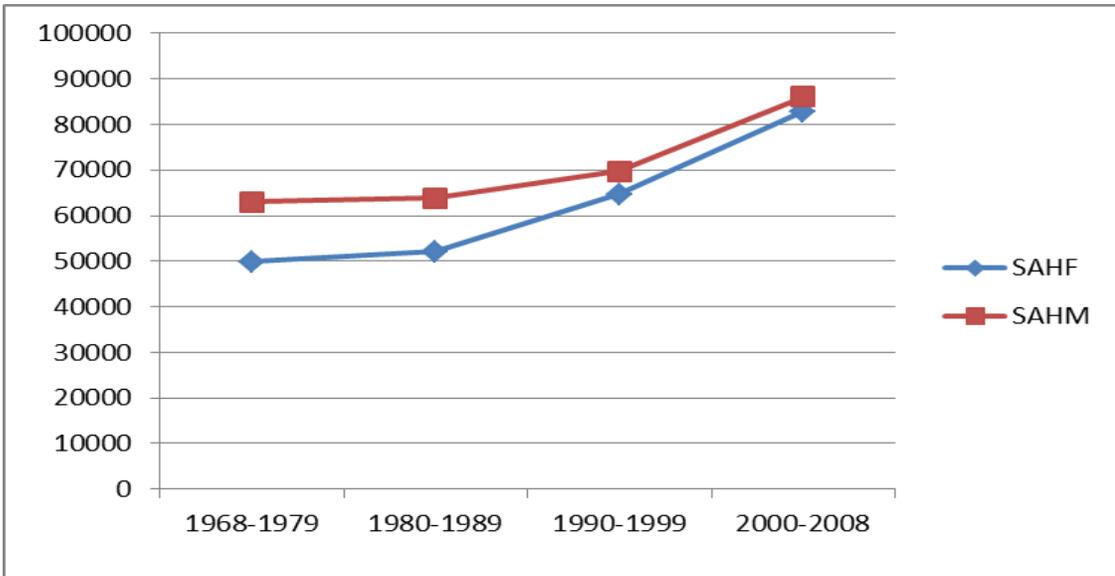


- SAHF: wife earns 75% or more of households income; SAHM: husband earns 75% or more of household income; Dual-earners: wife and husband each earns above 25% of household income

- Education coding: 5=Grade 10; 6=grade 11; 7=grade 12; 8=1-3 years of college

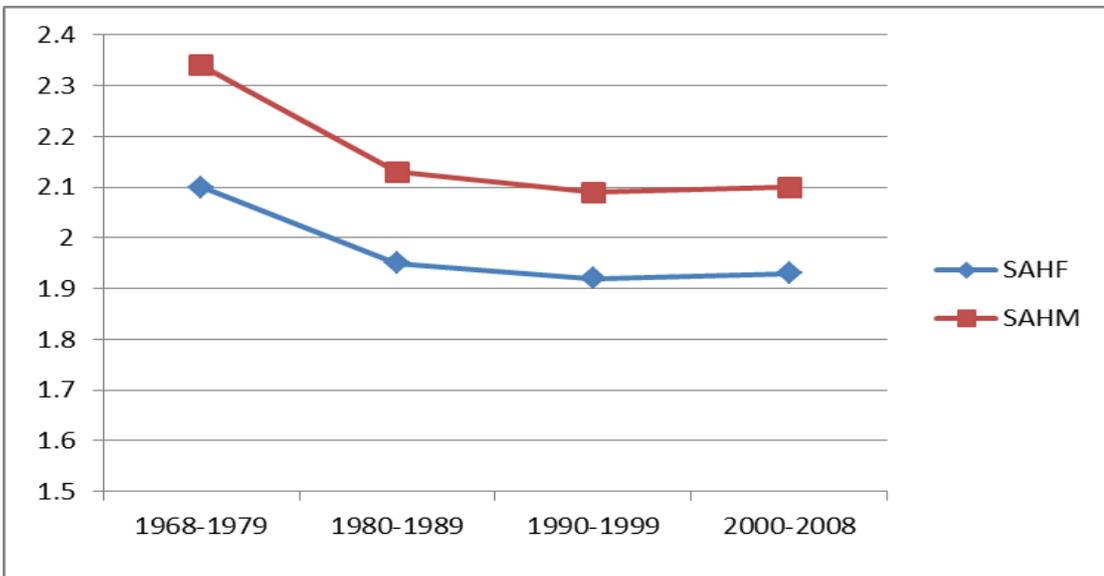
Appendix K

SAHF and SAHM households income, by decade



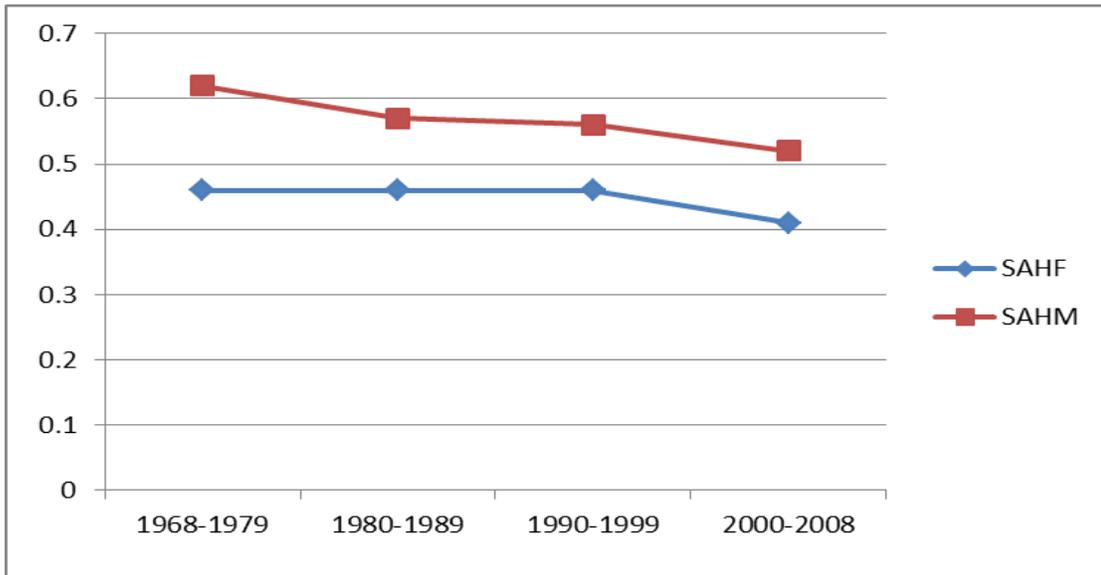
- SAHF: wife earns more than husband; SAHM: husband earns more than wife.

SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households number of children, by decade



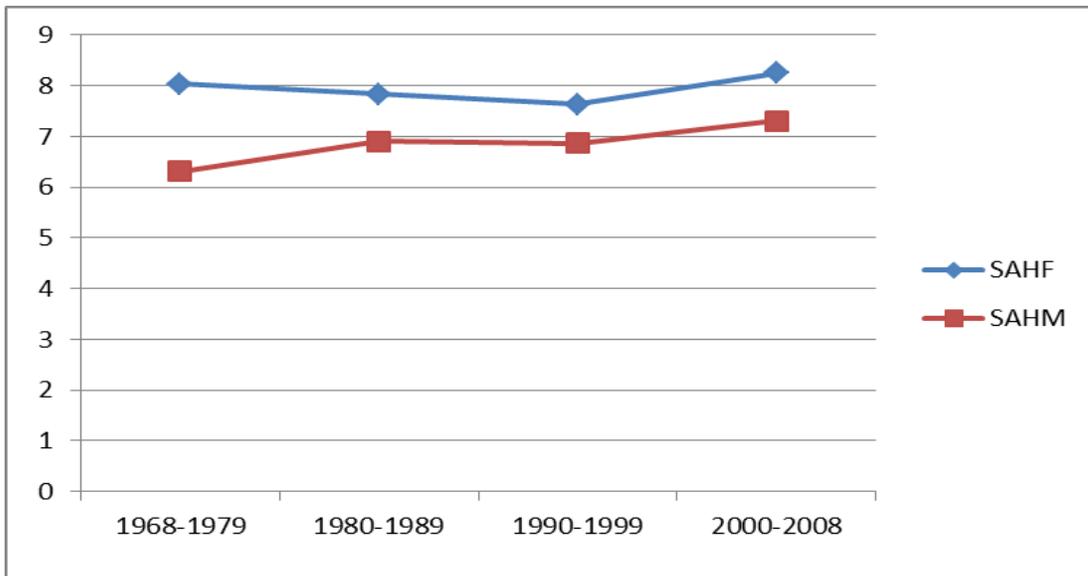
- SAHF: wife earns more than husband; SAHM: husband earns more than wife.

SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households number of children under 5, by decade



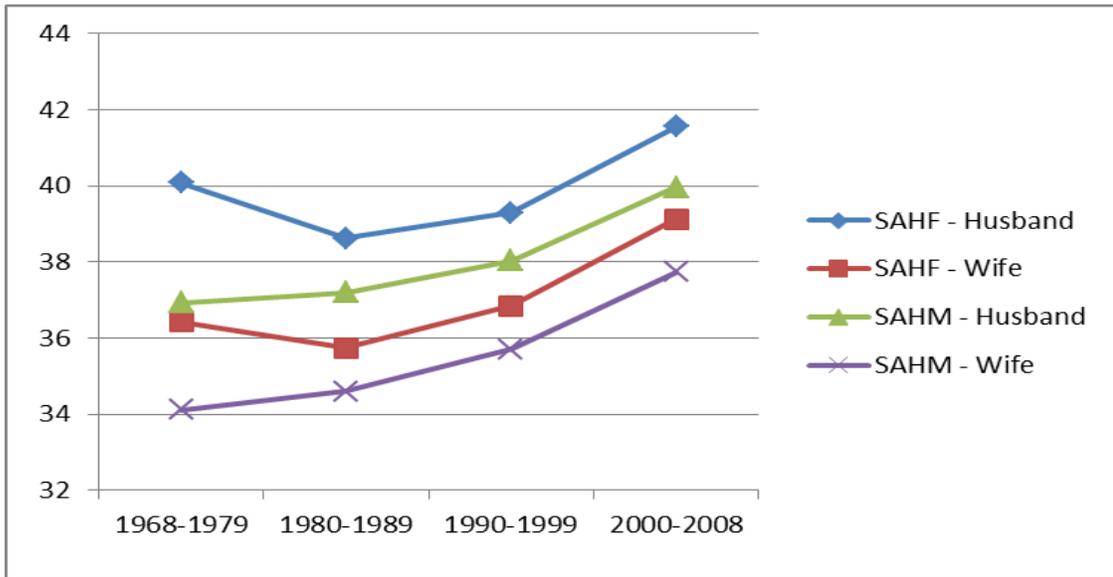
- SAHF: wife earns more than husband; SAHM: husband earns more than wife.

SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households age of youngest child, by decade



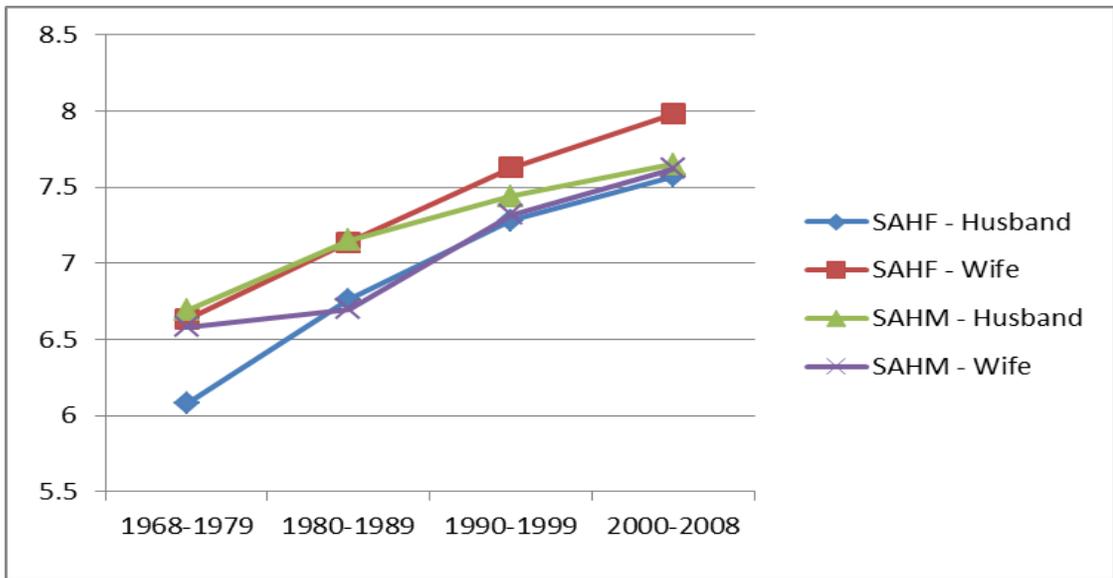
- SAHF: wife earns more than husband; SAHM: husband earns more than wife.

SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households wife and husband age, by decade



- SAHF: wife earns more than husband; SAHM: husband earns more than wife.

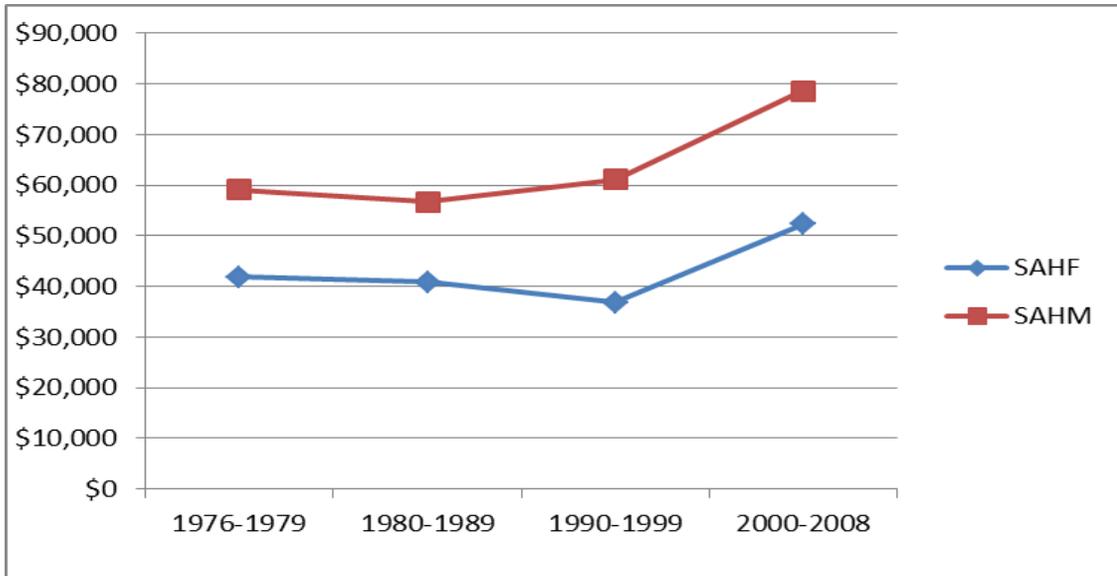
SAHF, SAHM and dual-earner households wife and husband education, by decade



- SAHF: wife earns more than husband; SAHM: husband earns more than wife.

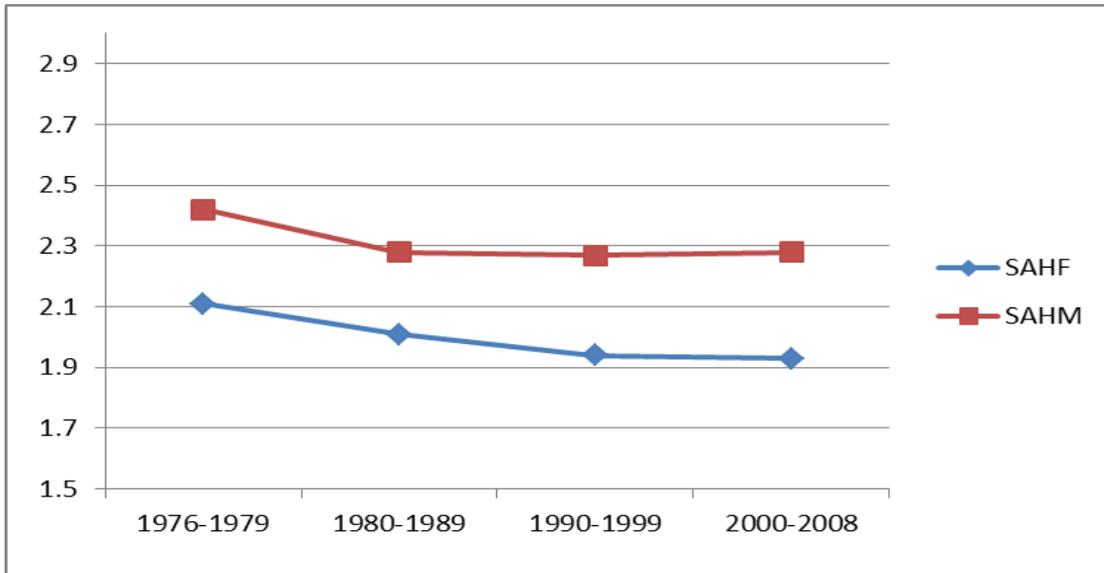
Appendix L

SAHF and SAHM households income, by decade



- SAHF: wife works 35 hours or more, husband works 20 hours or less; SAHM: husband works 35 hours or more, wife works 20 hours or less.
- Based on Tables 6a-d

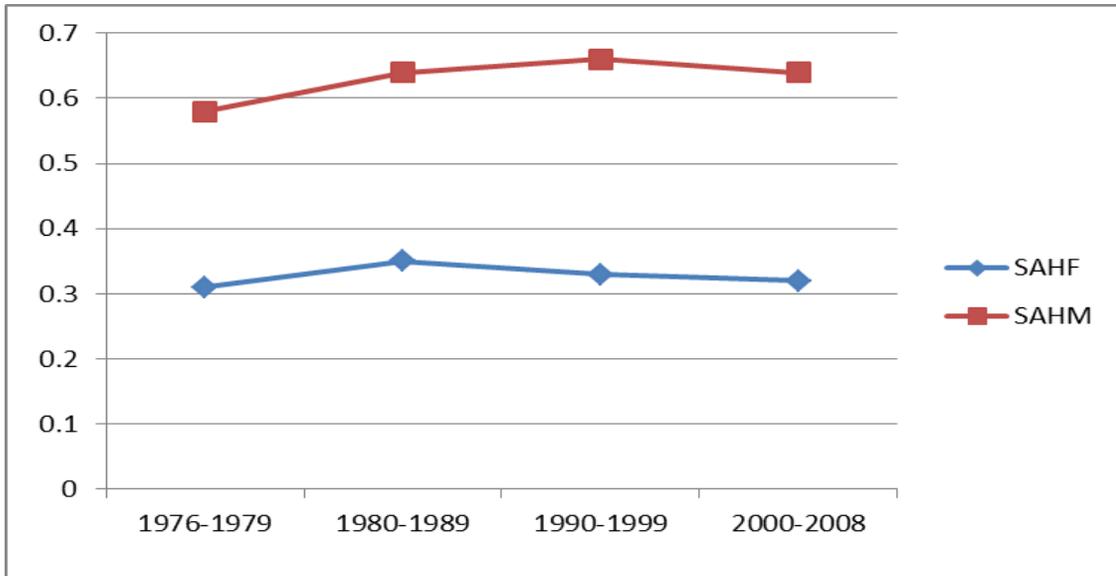
SAHF and SAHM households number of children, by decade



- SAHF: wife works 35 hours or more, husband works 20 hours or less; SAHM: husband works 35 hours or more, wife works 20 hours or less.

- Based on Tables 6a-d

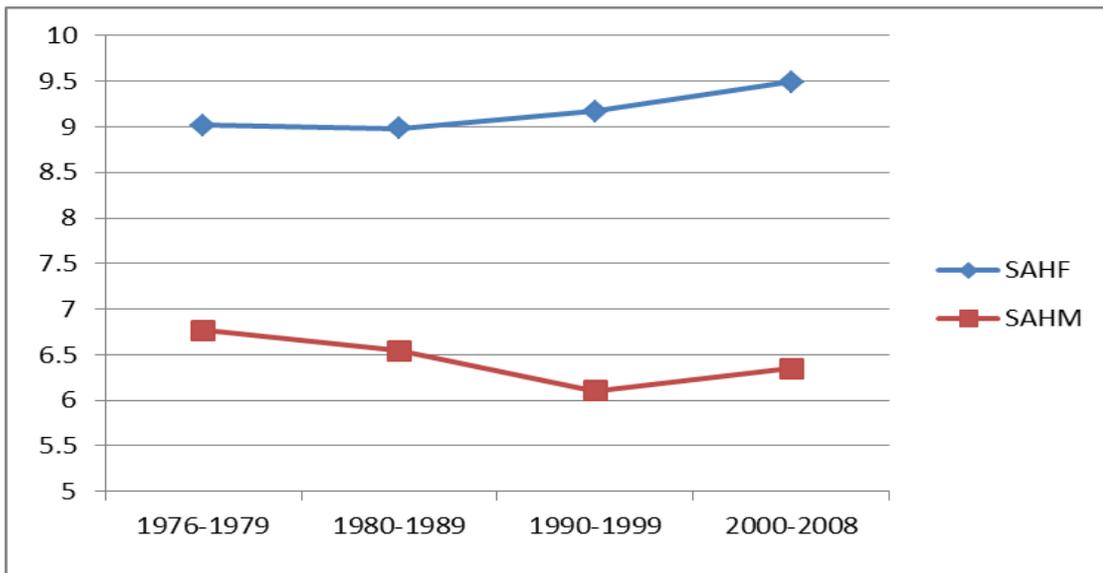
SAHF and SAHM households number of children 5 and under, by decade



- SAHF: wife works 35 hours or more, husband works 20 hours or less; SAHM: husband works 35 hours or more, wife works 20 hours or less.

- Based on Tables 6a-d

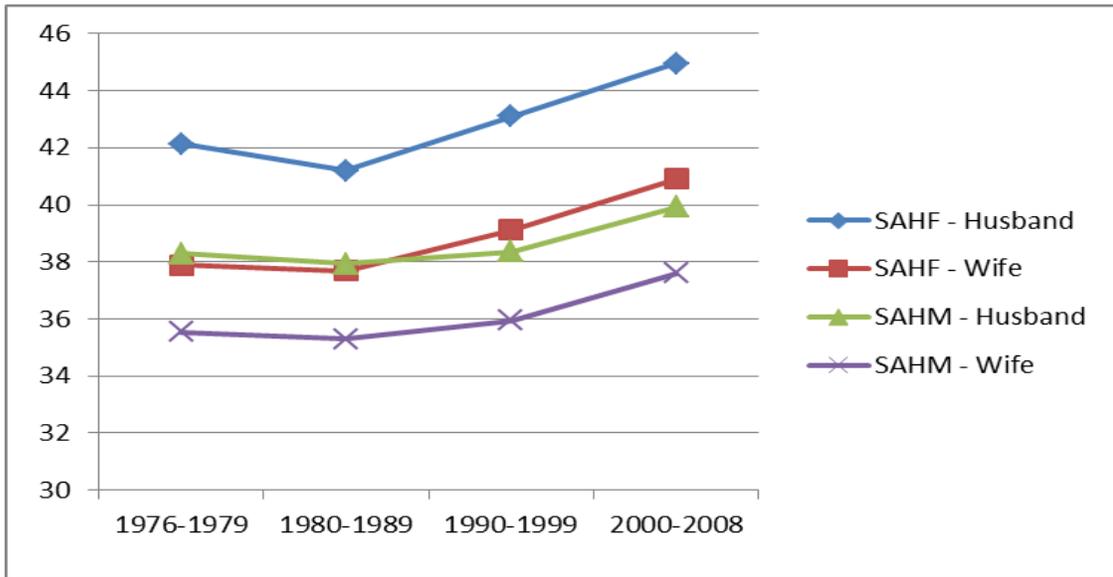
SAHF and SAHM households age of youngest child, by decade



- SAHF: wife works 35 hours or more, husband works 20 hours or less; SAHM: husband works 35 hours or more, wife works 20 hours or less.

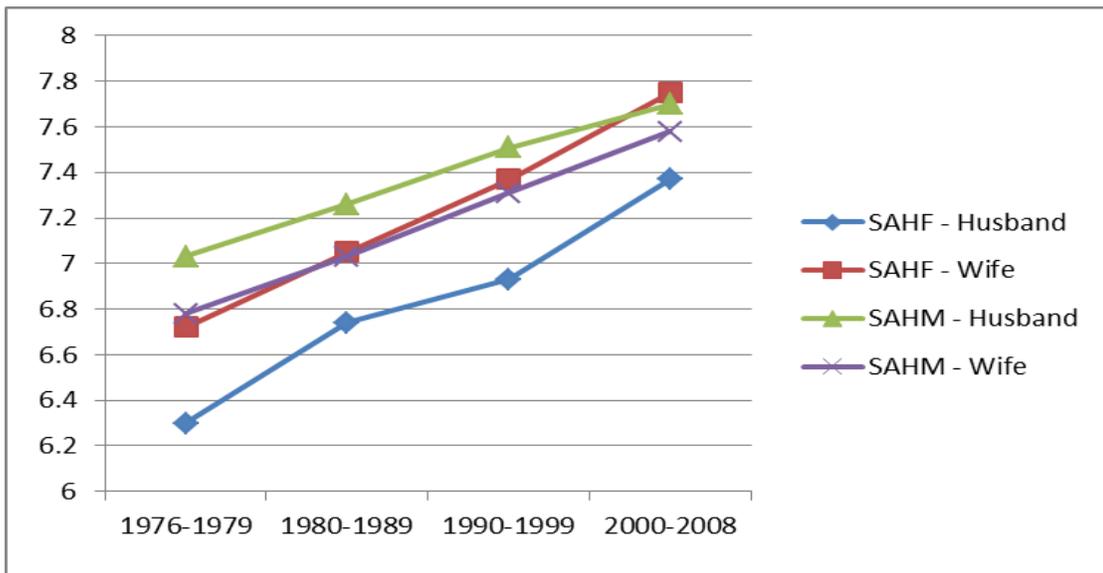
- Based on Tables 6a-d

SAHF and SAHM households age of wife and husband, by decade



- SAHF: wife works 35 hours or more, husband works 20 hours or less; SAHM: husband works 35 hours or more, wife works 20 hours or less.
- Based on Tables 6a-d

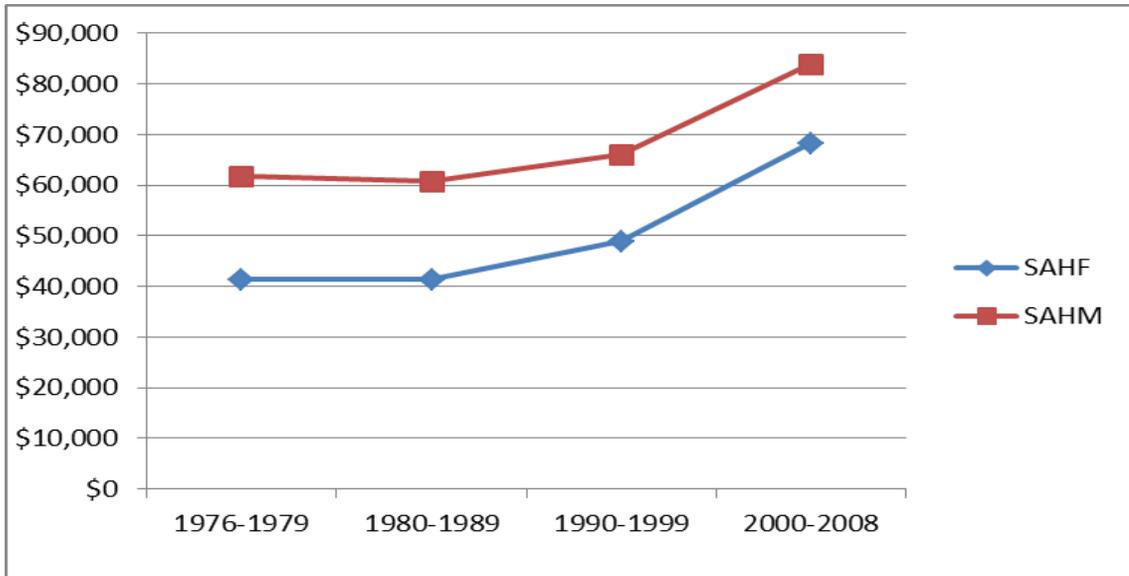
SAHF and SAHM households education of wife and husband, by decade



- SAHF: wife works 35 hours or more, husband works 20 hours or less; SAHM: husband works 35 hours or more, wife works 20 hours or less.
- Based on Tables 6a-d

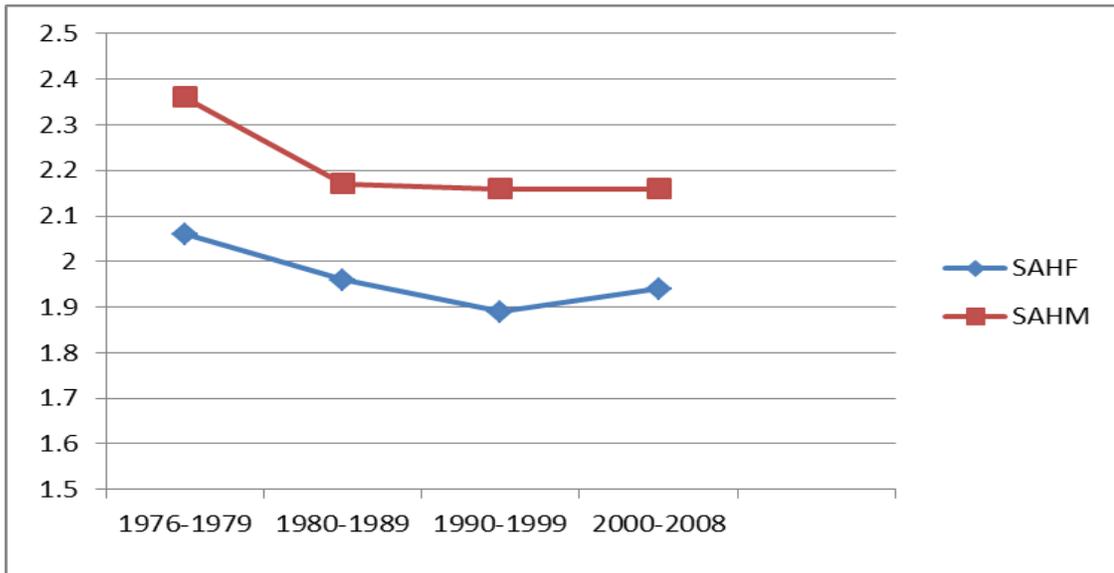
Appendix M

SAHF and SAHM households income, by decade



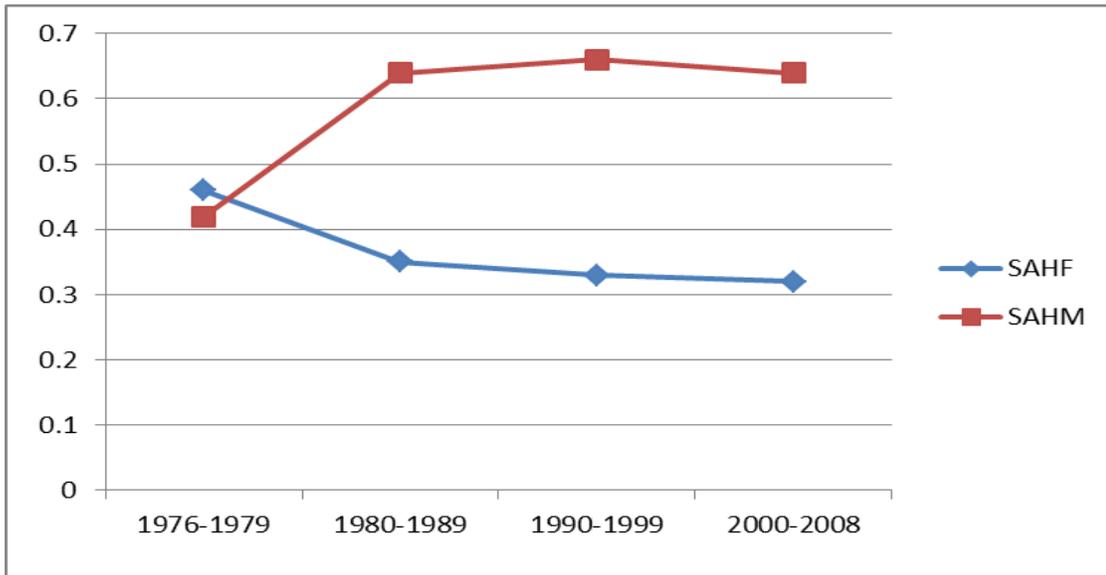
- SAHF: wife works 35 hours or more, husband works 1-34 hours; SAHM: husband works 35 hours or more, wife works 1-34 hours.
- Based on Tables 7a-d

SAHF and SAHM households number of children, by decade



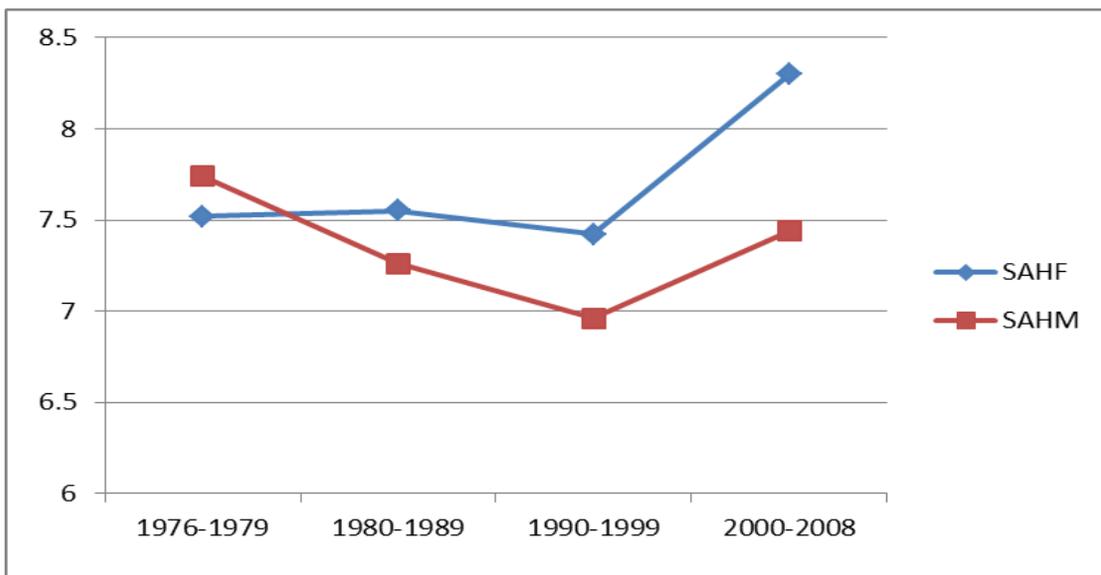
- SAHF: wife works 35 hours or more, husband works 1-34 hours; SAHM: husband works 35 hours or more, wife works 1-34 hours.
- Based on Tables 7a-d

SAHF and SAHM households number of children 5 and under, by decade



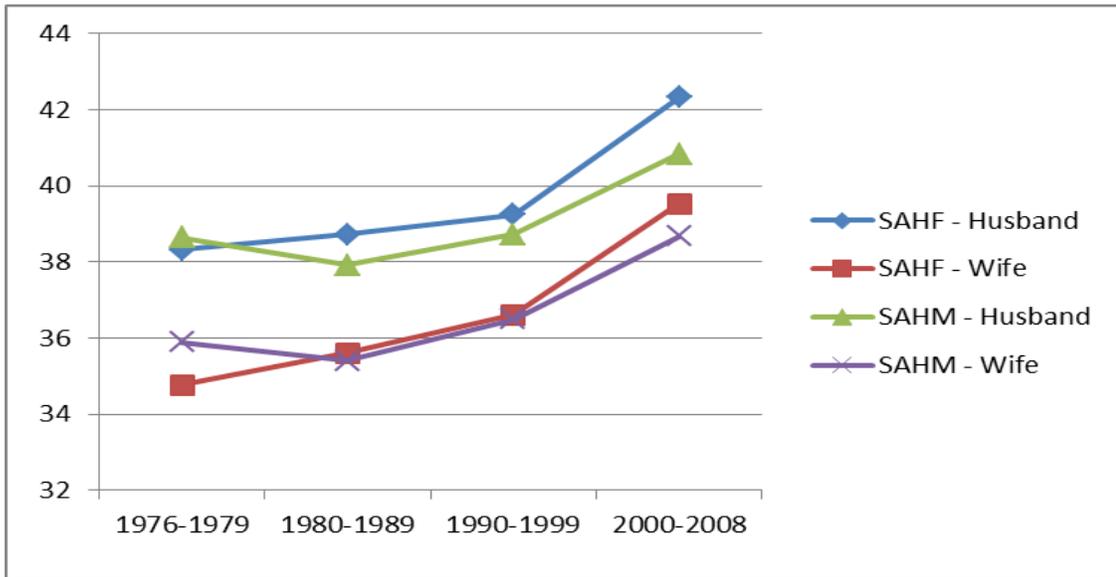
- SAHF: wife works 35 hours or more, husband works 1-34 hours; SAHM: husband works 35 hours or more, wife works 1-34 hours.
- Based on Tables 7a-d

SAHF and SAHM households age of youngest child, by decade



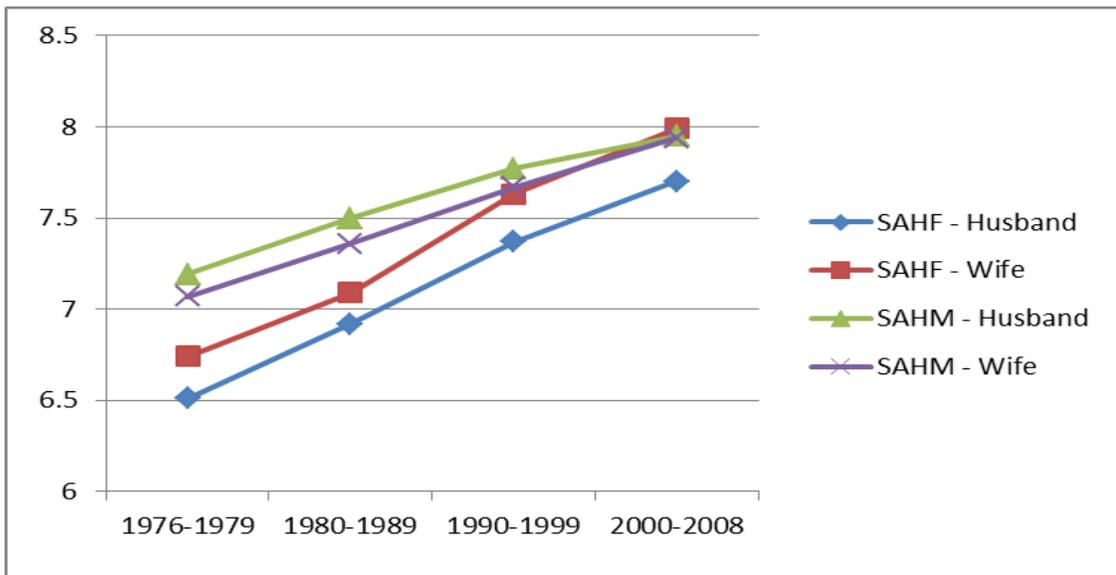
- SAHF: wife works 35 hours or more, husband works 1-34 hours; SAHM: husband works 35 hours or more, wife works 1-34 hours.
- Based on Tables 7a-d

SAHF and SAHM households age of wife and husband, by decade



- SAHF: wife works 35 hours or more, husband works 1-34 hours; SAHM: husband works 35 hours or more, wife works 1-34 hours.
- Based on Tables 7a-d

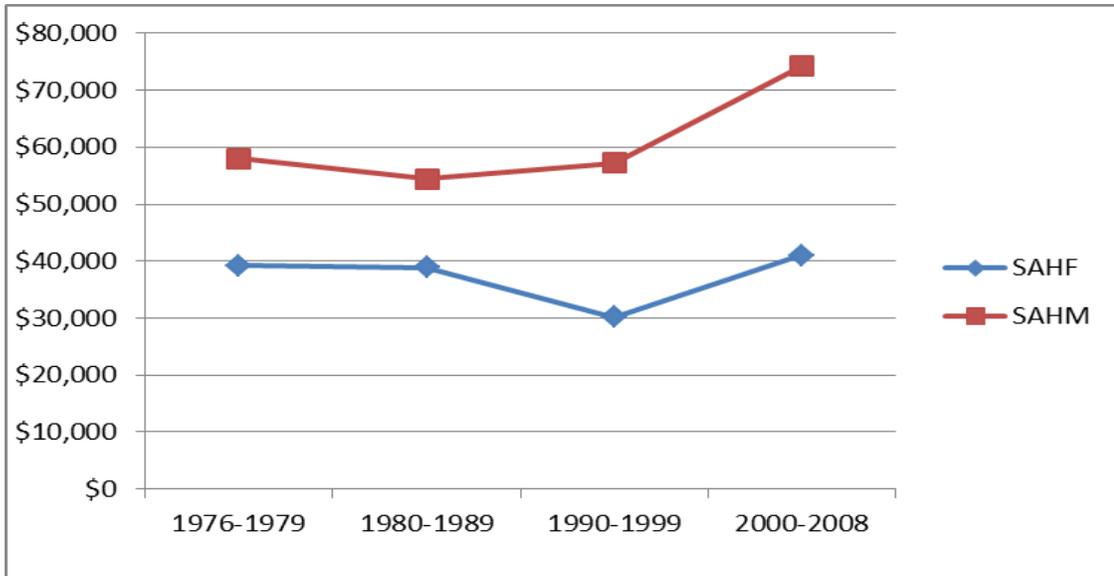
SAHF and SAHM households education of wife and husband, by decade



- SAHF: wife works 35 hours or more, husband works 1-34 hours; SAHM: husband works 35 hours or more, wife works 1-34 hours.
- Based on Tables 7a-d

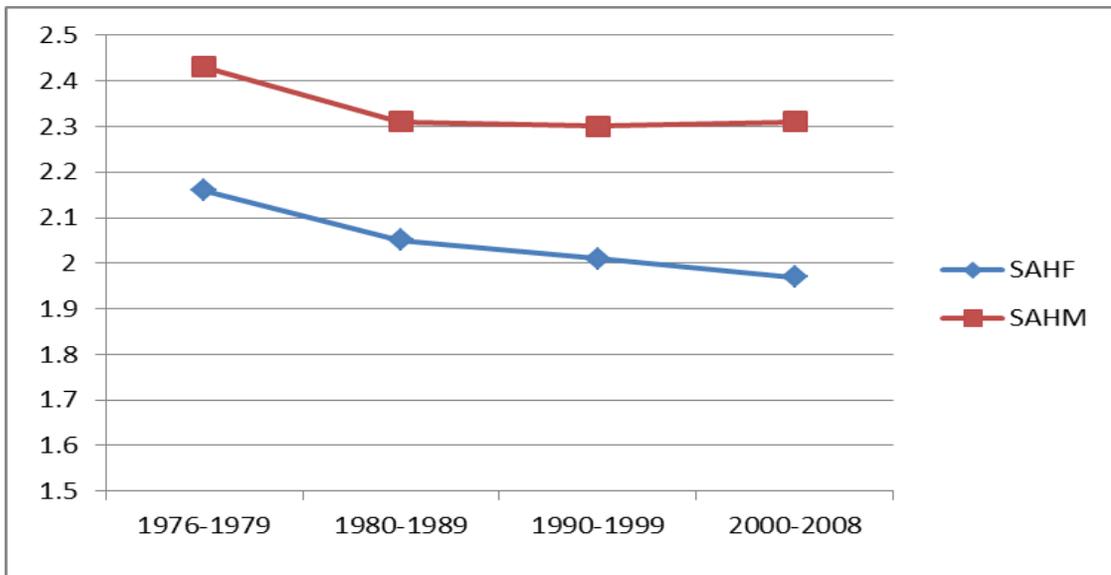
Appendix N

SAHF and SAHM households income, by decade



- SAHF: wife worked 1 hour or more, husband did not work; SAHM: husband worked 1 hour or more, wife did not work.
- Based on Tables 8a-d

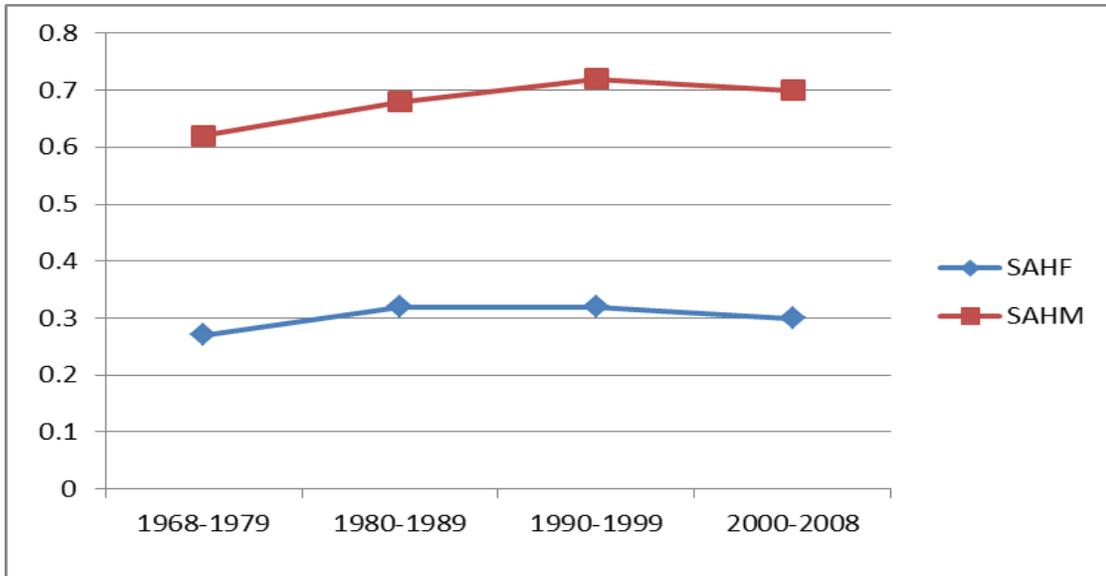
SAHF and SAHM households number of children, by decade



- SAHF: wife worked 1 hour or more, husband did not work; SAHM: husband worked 1 hour or more, wife did not work.

- Based on Tables 8a-d

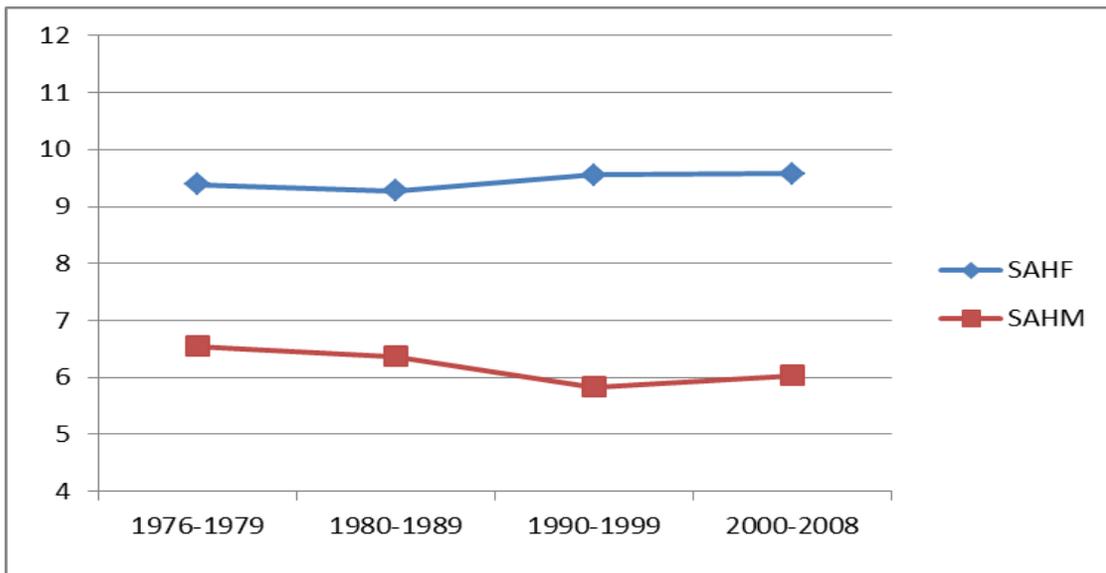
SAHF and SAHM households number of children 5 and under, by decade



- SAHF: wife worked 1 hour or more, husband did not work; SAHM: husband worked 1 hour or more, wife did not work.

- Based on Tables 8a-d

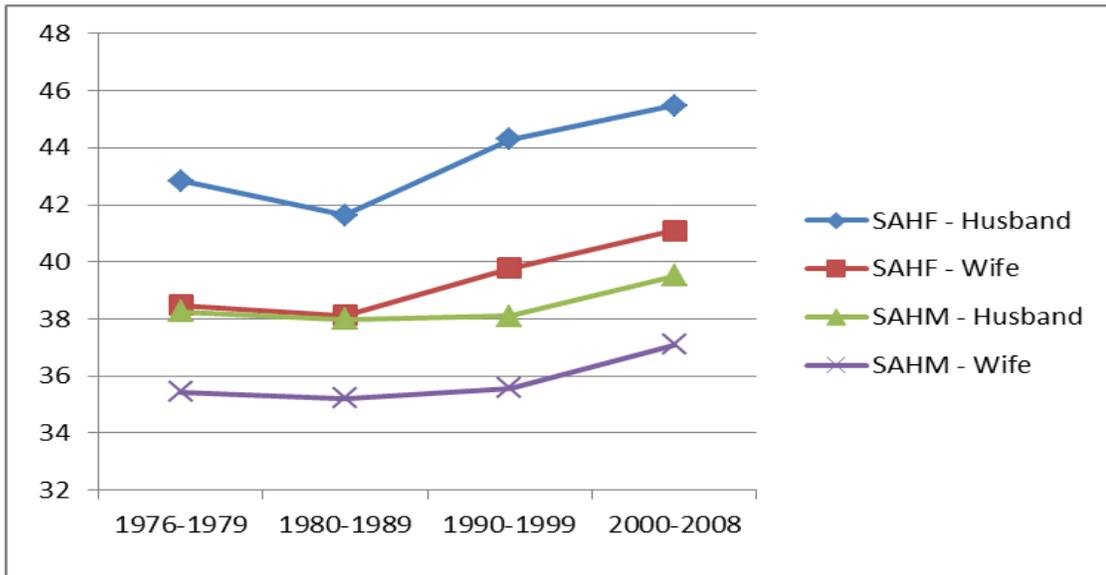
SAHF and SAHM households age of youngest child, by decade



- SAHF: wife worked 1 hour or more, husband did not work; SAHM: husband worked 1 hour or more, wife did not work.

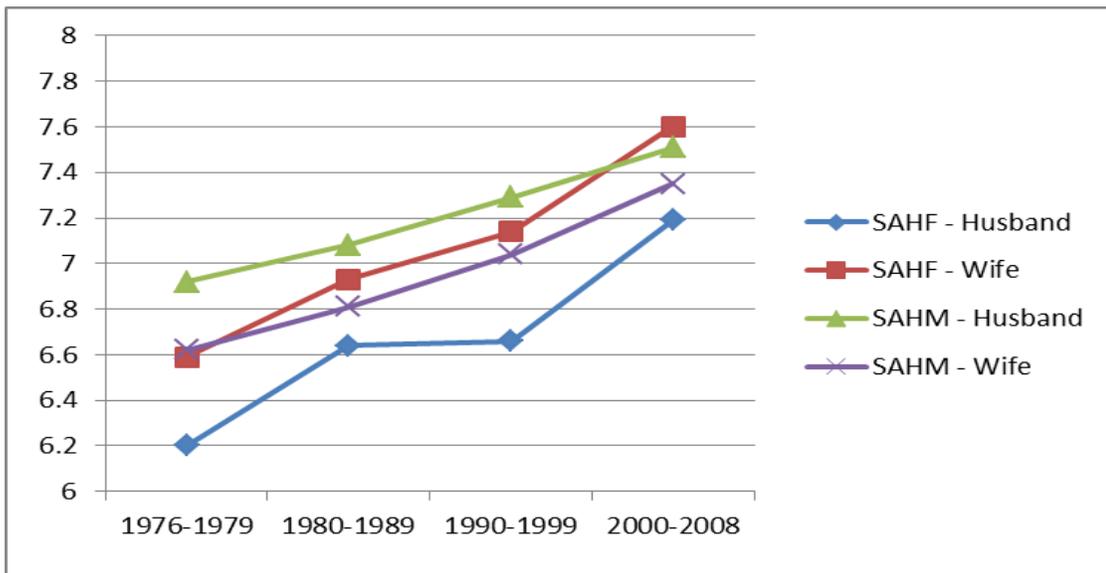
- Based on Tables 8a-d

SAHF and SAHM households age of wife and husband, by decade



- SAHF: wife worked 1 hour or more, husband did not work; SAHM: husband worked 1 hour or more, wife did not work.
- Based on Tables 8a-d

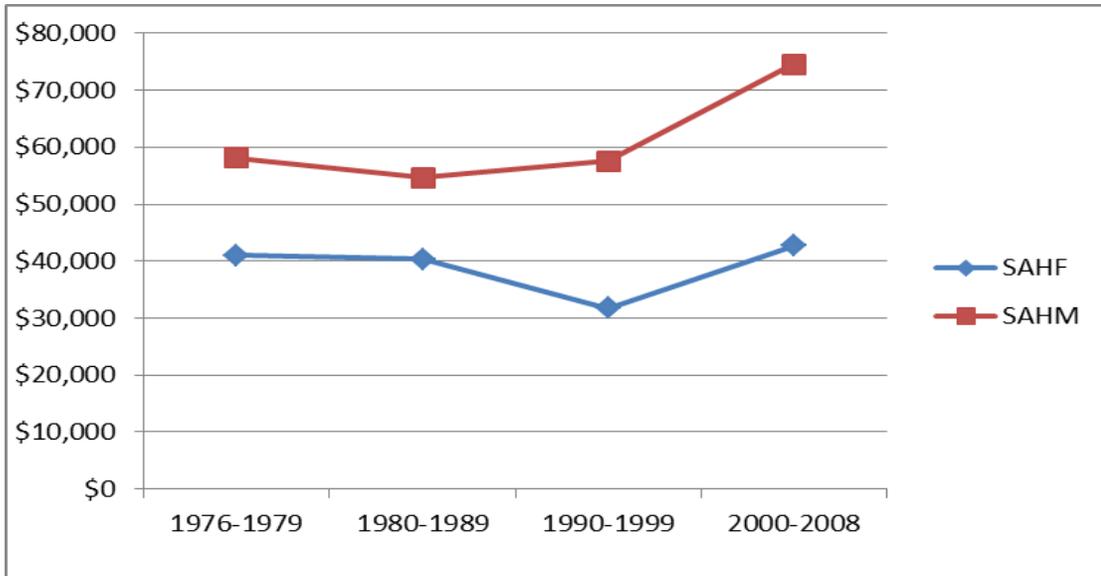
SAHF and SAHM households education of wife and husband, by decade



- SAHF: wife worked 1 hour or more, husband did not work; SAHM: husband worked 1 hour or more, wife did not work.
- Based on Tables 8a-d

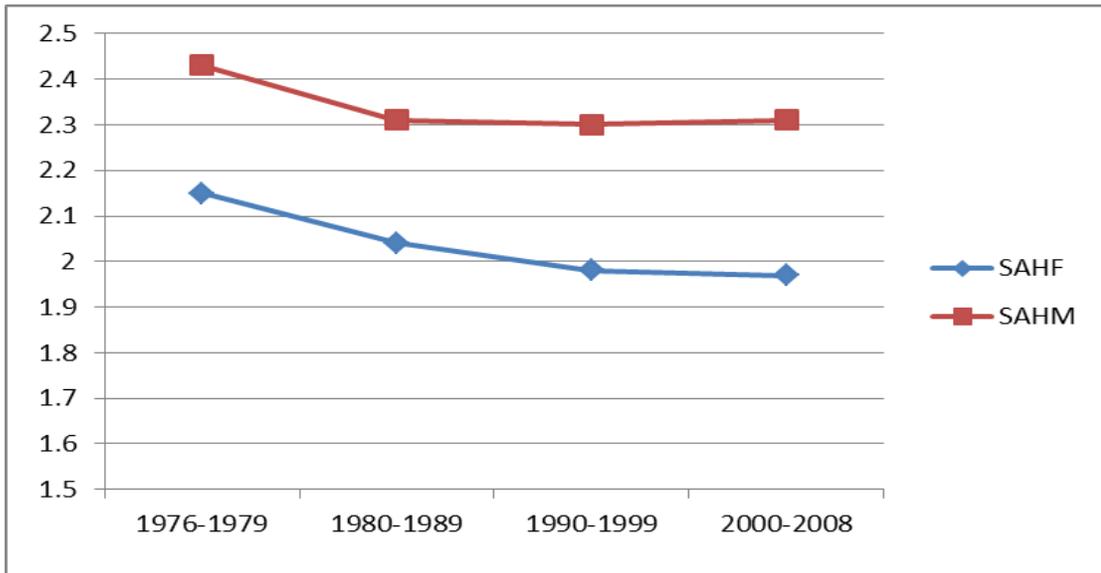
Appendix O

SAHF and SAHM households income, by decade



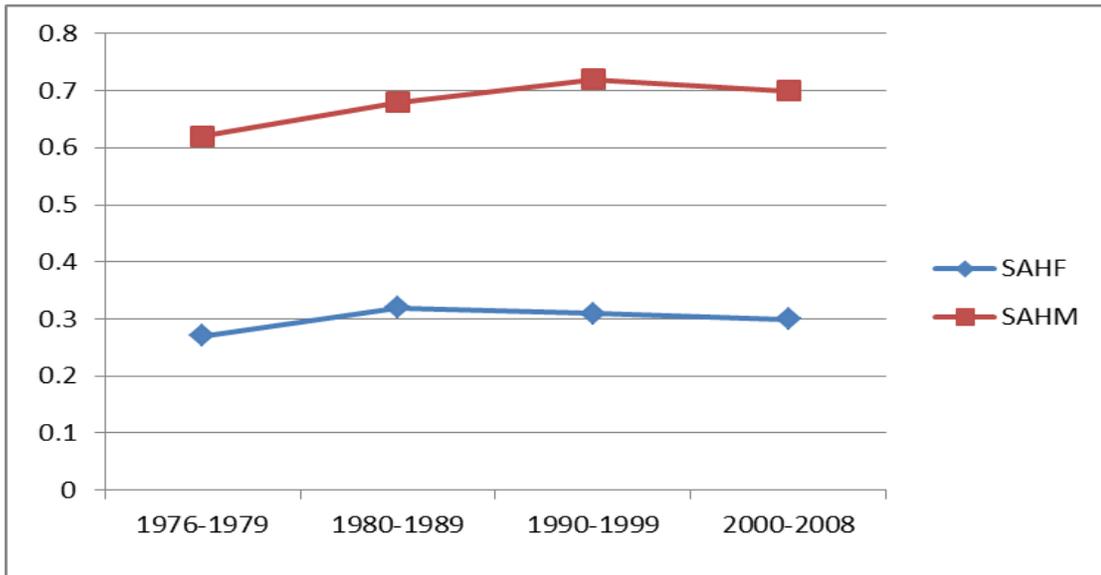
- SAHF: wife worked 21 hours or more, husband did not work; SAHM: husband worked 21 hours or more, wife did not work.
- Based on Tables 9a-d

SAHF and SAHM households number of children, by decade



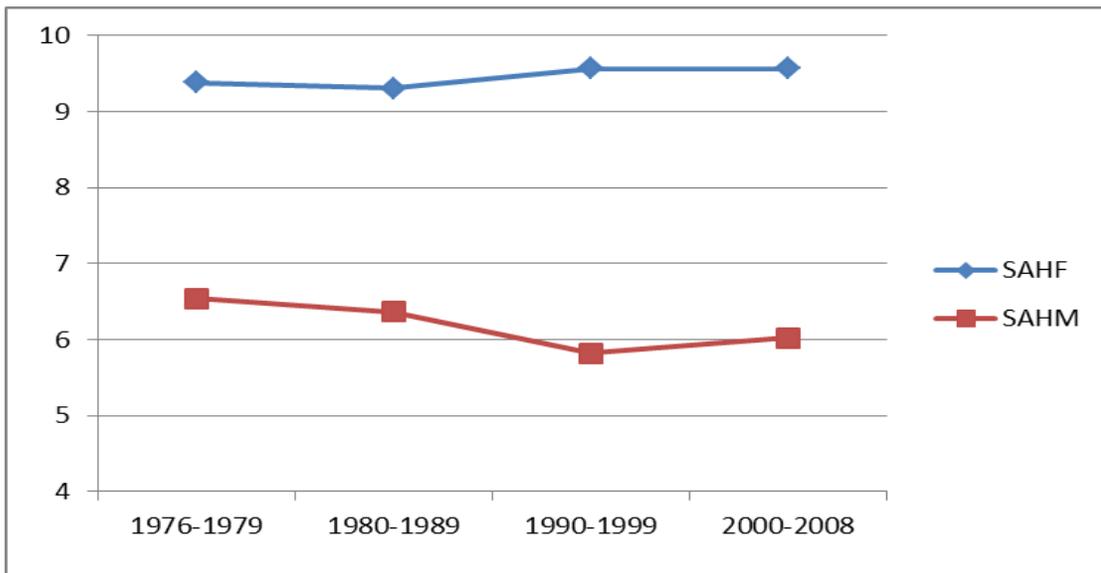
- SAHF: wife worked 21 hours or more, husband did not work; SAHM: husband worked 21 hours or more, wife did not work.
- Based on Tables 9a-d

SAHF and SAHM households number of children 5 and under, by decade



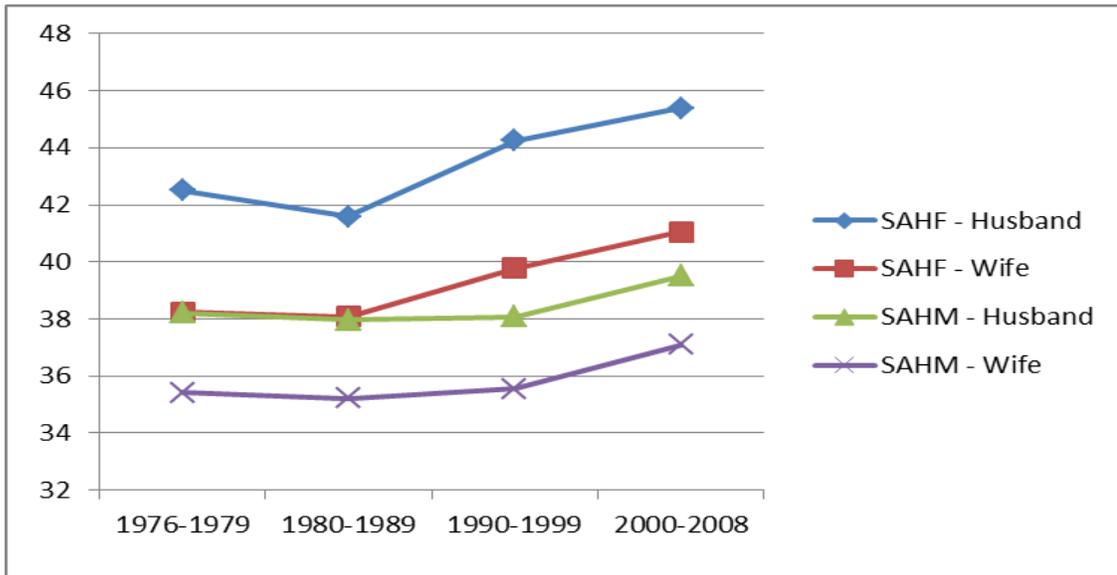
- SAHF: wife worked 21 hours or more, husband did not work; SAHM: husband worked 21 hours or more, wife did not work.
- Based on Tables 9a-d

SAHF and SAHM households age of youngest child, by decade



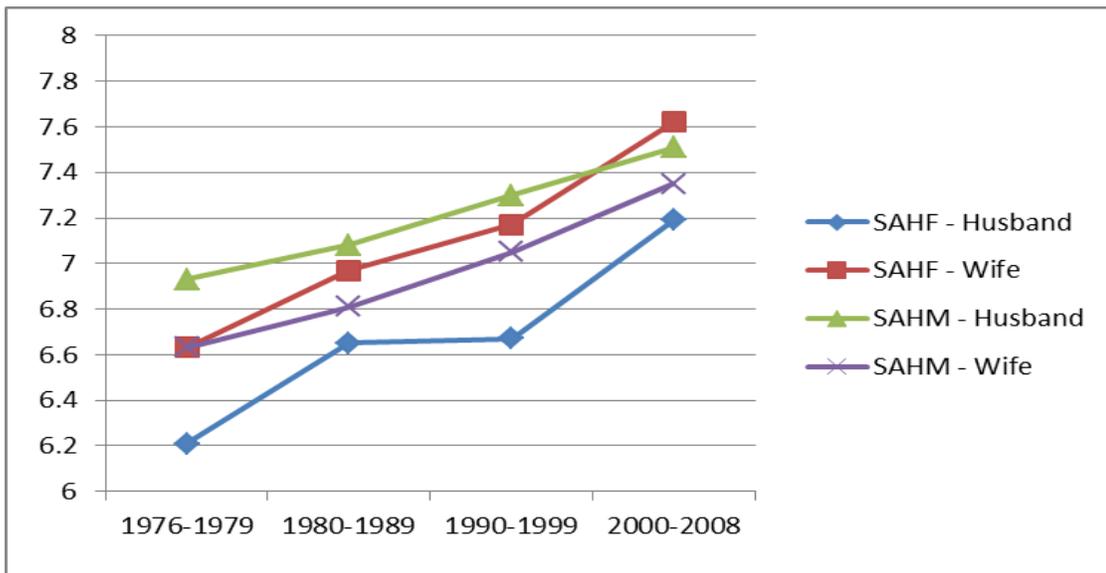
- SAHF: wife worked 21 hours or more, husband did not work; SAHM: husband worked 21 hours or more, wife did not work.
- Based on Tables 9a-d

SAHF and SAHM households age of wife and husband, by decade



- SAHF: wife worked 21 hours or more, husband did not work; SAHM: husband worked 21 hours or more, wife did not work.
- Based on Tables 9a-d

SAHF and SAHM households education of wife and husband, by decade



- SAHF: wife worked 21 hours or more, husband did not work; SAHM: husband worked 21 hours or more, wife did not work.
- Based on Tables 9a-d