REVISITING 'MOTHERS AND SONS'

Preference Formation and the Female Labor Force in Switzerland

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Abstract

This paper analyzes the interrelation between men's gender role attitudes and female labor supply decision. Following Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004), I argue that the recent increases in the female labor market participation rate are driven by the growing proportion of men who were brought up in a family with a working mother. First, the paper reexamines the results of the cross-section analysis of Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004) using the Swiss Household Panel 2005 to illustrate that married women whose mothers-in-law were working are themselves significantly more likely to be in the labor force. In a second step, the paper attempts to test one of their model's crucial mechanisms and show that the effect of a wife's labor market integration on her husband's well-being diverges depending on the former labor market status of his mother. Taken together, this evidence can be interpreted as varying preferences for women with high labor market integration due to exposure to certain sexual stereotypes early in life.

JEL Codes: J22, I31, J12

Keywords: female labor supply; well-being; preferences; marriage; family.

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1 Introduction

The situation of women in the Swiss labor market has changed profoundly in recent decades. At the beginning of the 20th century, female labor force participation rates were very low and women tended to leave the labor market briefly after marriage. Whereas in 1900 less than 30% of the women living in Switzerland were employed (see FSO, 1940), the female labor force participation rate was 74% in 2005 (see FSO, 2005). Moreover, the rate of women combining a career and young children has increased from 48% to 67% in the last 20 years (see FSO, 2005).

What are the reasons behind this change and the increased presence of women in the labor market? Smith and Ward (1985) study longer-term trends since 1900 for the US labor market and find that rises in real wages increased the attractiveness of working in the labor market relative to housekeeping. In their model, this rise in real wages explains 60% of the total increase in the number of employed women. Goldin (1992) argues that men are employed mainly in the industry sector, which was restructured significantly during the last century due to technological changes, whereas women are employed primarily in the service sector. The service sector is not only growing rapidly, it is also better protected from international competition and the relocation of production. Greenwood, Seshadri, and Yorukoglu (2005) focus their discussion on married or cohabiting women. They argue that new consumable durables such as washing machines and vacuum cleaners reduced the workload of running a household significantly. The newly invented machines reduced the time spent on housework and allowed the homemaker to participate in the labor market. As suggested by Goldin and Katz (2002), oral contraceptives made a woman's investment in an occupational career more worthwhile. Women could control their fertility using birth control pills and determine whether to focus on a professional life or a family.

In this paper, I follow Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004) and argue that changes in men's preferences and gender role attitudes are a significant factor in the increase in female labor market participation rates over time. As gender role preferences are established early in life (see, e.g., Thornton, Alwin, and Camburn, 1983) while children are exposed mainly to their parents as role models, the mother's labor market status may affect the acceptance of working women in the next generation. Hence, the argument suggests that the labor market status of a mother serves as a determinant of a man's attitude toward an employed wife. Consequently, the increasing number of men who were raised by working mothers who combine children and a career, makes investments in education and professional skills for women in the following generation more worthwhile and augments female labor supply. This argument is related to the theory of intergenerational transmission of traits as well as the analysis of the relation between working mothers

and the gender role attitudes of their offspring: as formulated by Bisin and Verdier (2001), parents socialize their children by transmitting their own preferences. Therefore, a child's position toward women is mainly modeled by his or her own experiences with the role of his or her mother. On the other hand, Powell and Steelman (1982) find that the association between maternal status characteristics and gender role attitudes of adult men is stronger than for adult women. Thus, working mothers set an example for their sons and determine their sons' preferences for a working wife. Kawaguchi and Miyazaki (2009) replicate some of the results of Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004) using Japanese data from 2000 to 2003. They find no statistically significant evidence that men raised by full-time working mothers are more likely to have full-time working wives. However, their results show that men raised by full-time working mothers are more likely to respond negatively to traditional gender stereotypes.

In their theoretical model, Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004) outline possible reasons why the labor market status of a married woman might be affected, ceteris paribus, by the former labor market status of her mother-in-law: based on the argument outlined above, being raised by a working mother might influence a boy's attitudes toward gender roles and in particular toward female labor force participation. It is therefore assumed that all men have the same set of household skills, but differ in preferences toward being married to an employed woman. To distinguish between the preferences of the two types of men, Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004) introduce a new term in married men's utility function—the disutility of having a working wife. This disutility of having a working wife differs systematically between the two types of men: whereas women's labor market activities have a direct negative effect on the utility function of men who grew up with a mother working solely at home, the disutility of having a working wife is zero for men who were raised by mothers participating in the labor market. Hence, an increase in the presence of the new type of men, ones who were raised by a working mother, enhances the marriage probability for skilled women and therefore leads to higher investments in professional skills and greater female participation in the labor market over time.

Besides influencing a man's preferences for a working wife, Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004) state that being raised by a working mother might also make a son a better partner for a woman participating in the labor market. Thus, working mothers might affect their sons' set of household skills and their ability to cooperate in the household. Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004) do not attempt to investigate whether the preference channel outlined above or the endowment channel is the reason why men differ according to the work status of their mothers, but rather attempt to find empirical evidence that they do. In this paper, the endowment channel is not considered and only

the mechanism of the preference channel is analyzed.

As noted above, the preference channel mechanism relies on the assumption that the utility functions of men who were raised by a working mother are different from the utility functions of men who were raised by a mother attributing time only to household production. To test this assumption, I therefore introduce a satisfaction estimation similar to Bonke and Browning (2009). They examine the distribution of financial satisfaction within a household empirically and find that the wife's contribution to household income has a negative effect on her husband's material well-being. I suggest that this negative influence on the husband's well-being is dependent on gender role attitudes and thereby also on the labor market status of the husband's mother, and analyze this by estimating a series of discrete response modes.

The contribution of this paper is to examine how the effect of women's contribution to household income on men's satisfaction differs depending on the former labor market status of their mothers. First, I reexamine the results of Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004) that married women whose mothers-in-law were working are themselves significantly more likely to be in the labor force using Swiss data. Using a similar set of control variables as Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004), the results are similar qualitatively and indicate that the probability that a man's wife is employed is correlated positively with whether the man's mother worked during his childhood. Second, I attempt to test the validity of one of the model's crucial mechanisms. I use the same database to examine married men's degree of satisfaction depending on their mothers' former employment status and show that the wife's contribution to household income affects her husband's satisfaction negatively when he was raised by a mother who worked exclusively at home. The share the wife contributes to household income has, however, no significant impact on the well-being of men who were raised by working mothers. Taken together, the results indicate that a mother's work experience affects her son's gender role attitudes and the labor force participation rate of married women in the next generation. Moreover, this result can also be interpreted as evidence for the preference channel interpretation as the relevant dynamic mechanism behind the increase in the female labor market participation.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. The next section provides a brief overview of the data used in this paper. The differences in the labor participation decision of women depending on the employment status of their mothers-in-law are discussed in Section 3. Using ordered probit models, I analyze in Section 4 the effect of the wife's contribution to household income on her husband's satisfaction. Section 5 concludes.

2 Data

The data used in this study are taken from the Swiss Household Panel (SHP hereafter) conducted in 2005. This panel survey is representative of the Swiss residential population and covers a broad range of social fields. The survey collects both objective and subjective data and therefore provides information about financial resources, labor market status as well as attitudes and satisfaction with various life domains of all individuals within a household. Furthermore, the survey collects information regarding the respondent's life at age 15. These questions include the labor market status of both parents and parents' educational background. I focus on married couples exclusively.[1] As Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti's (2004) model assumes that all husbands are working, I exclude all couples with husbands who are not in the labor force or unemployed. To ensure the comparability of the income variable, self-employed respondents are excluded. Furthermore, to ensure that most individuals in the dataset might still be in the labor force, I only select couples where the husband is below 50 years of age. This leaves a sample of 682 households.

The dependent variables in the two models are (i) women's labor force status and (ii) men's satisfaction with life as well as men's satisfaction with their financial situation. Women are reported to be in the labor force if they were paid for working for a minimum of one hour as an employee during the week prior to the interview. The SHP includes several questions on different aspects of subjective well-being. The satisfaction measure is obtained from the following two questions about the individual's general and financial satisfaction:

"In general, how satisfied are you with your life?"

"How satisfied are you with your financial situation?"

The possible responses range from 0 (not satisfied at all) to 10 (fully satisfied). I assume that the degree of satisfaction is comparable across respondents. As different individuals may have different interpretations of the scale, this assumption is crucial. However, satisfaction questions have been validated repeatedly by psychologists (see, e.g., Kahne-

[1]Conditioning on marital status raises the question of whether men growing up in traditionally structured households with a mother working solely at home might be significantly more or less likely to get married or divorced than the new type of men who grew up with a working mother. Using the same survey data, however, I find no empirical evidence that men who grew up with a mother working solely at home are more likely to get married or divorced. This result also holds when controlling for a list of personal characteristics and parental background variables.

man, Diener, and Schwarz, 1999) and also discussed in the economic literature (see, e.g., Van Praag and Frijters, 1999, for a survey).[2]

The models consist of the following control variables: wife's and husband's age in the survey year, education measured in three categories corresponding to tertiary, secondary, and primary education, yearly total personal net income in the census year, household income, number of children and language region. To control for the socioeconomic status of an individual, I use fathers' and mothers' education.

As outlined above, the mother's former labor market status serves as a proxy for the husband's gender role attitudes and is included in the estimation of women's labor supply decision. In contrast with Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004), who classify a mother as working if she has worked for at least one year before the son turned 14 years old, the SHP only provides information on whether a mother worked when the son was 15 years old. More precisely, individuals were asked whether their mother was actively occupied when they were 15 years old; based on this question, I construct the former work status of an individual's mother. As a mother may want to stop working during her son's early childhood and go back to work when he is in school, it is feasible that some mothers are classified as working even though they were not working when their sons were small children. Hence, the definition of the labor market status of the wife is an important difference to the data used by Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004). In the satisfaction estimation, I include the wife's contribution to household income, i.e., the fraction of household income that is contributed by the female household member, as a measure of the wife's labor market integration.

Table 1 reports descriptive statistics of the person- and household-specific characteristics included in the empirical analysis. The current female labor market participation rate in the sample is 75%. Considering that older individuals were excluded, this number corresponds to today's labor market participation rate in Switzerland. The participation rate of the husbands' mothers was only 48%. The mean of wife's household income contribution is 19.6% and the median is 17.8%. Figure 1 and Figure 2 present histograms of the men's financial satisfaction and satisfaction with life according to their mother's former work status. For both satisfaction measures, the median lies at a satisfaction level of 8. Whereas 25% of the male individuals report a financial satisfaction of 6 or below, only less than 10% of the male individuals report a life satisfaction of 6 or below.

[2]See also Section 4 for a more detailed discussion

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

	Means and (standard deviations)		
	Women	Men	
Variables		Mother not in labor force	Mother in labor force
In labor force	0.738		
Net personal income	35272.8	95552.9	92716.3
	(28500.9)	(61896.5)	(77856.1)
Age	39.1	39.7	38.5
	(6.1)	(6.1)	(6.0)
Primary education	0.109	0.125	0.094
Secondary education	0.661	0.648	0.673
Tertiary education	0.230	0.227	0.233
German speaking	0.686	0.713	0.662
French speaking	0.264	0.224	0.299
Italian speaking	0.050	0.062	0.039
Mother in labor force	0.529		
Mother-in-law in labor force	0.487		
Primary education father	0.226	0.221	0.230
Secondary education father	0.515	0.533	0.499
Tertiary education father	0.260	0.246	0.271
Primary education mother	0.459	0.542	0.385
Secondary education mother	0.481	0.417	0.537
Tertiary education mother	0.060	0.040	0.078
Number of children	1.683	1.688	1.679
	(1.1)	(1.1)	(1.1)
Female income contribution		21.1	23.2
		(26.8)	(26.0)
Number of households	682	350	332

Notes: Married women are reported to be in the labor force if they were paid for working for a minimum of one hour as an employee during the week prior to the interview. Mothers are classified as working if they were in the labor force when their children were 15 years old. The wife's income contribution measures the ratio of the total household income contributed by the wife.

Figure 1: Husband's Satisfaction with Financial Situation

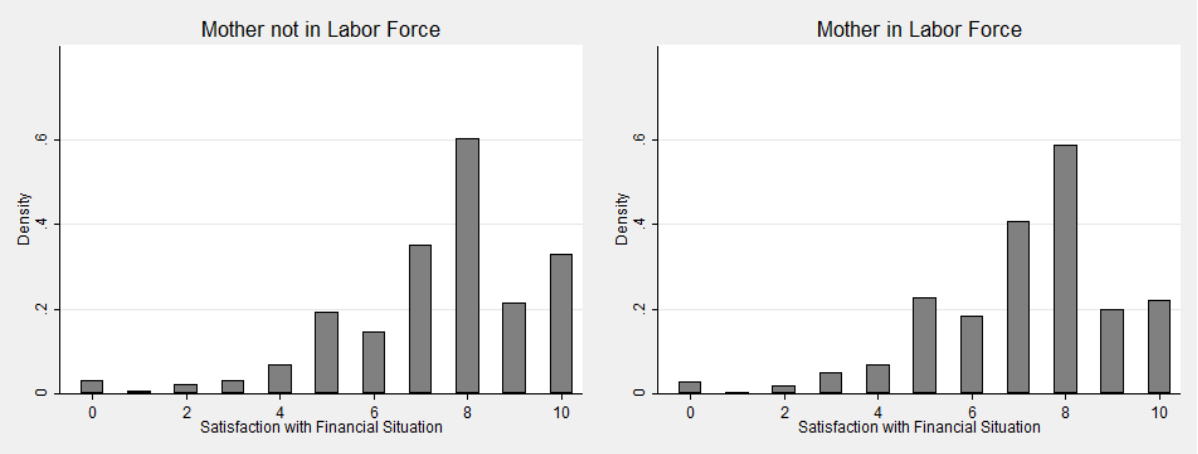
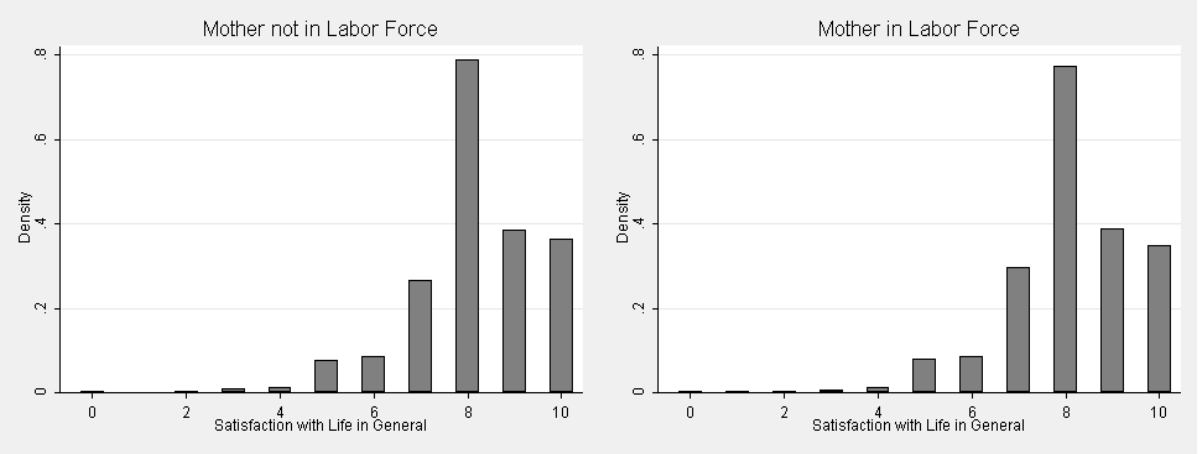


Figure 2: Husband's Satisfaction with Life



3 Labor Force Participation Decision

The objective of this section is to analyze a married woman's labor force participation decision depending on the work status of her mother-in-law. In particular, I show that controlling for several labor market characteristics and socioeconomic background, the former work status of a married man's mother affects the likelihood that his wife works positively.

Based on the literature (see Becker, 2005), the labor force participation of married women is modeled as a function of age, education, husband's income and the number of children. To measure the influence of the husband's gender role preferences on the female work decision, I use the husband's mother's work status as a proxy for his attitudes. To exclude the possibility that the correlation of interest is only driven by a variety of background factors, the husband's education and age as well as the former labor market status of the wife's mother are included in the estimations. Furthermore, a mother's intention to work as well as her attitudes toward market and household production might be correlated with a family's socioeconomic background. I therefore control for socioeconomic background by including the education of the parents into the regression equation. Moreover, Switzerland has four official languages that are spoken in different areas. The cultural gap between the two main language groups German and French is also reflected in a higher female labor force participation rate and smaller female wage gap in the French-speaking region. For example, if a man who grew up in the French-speaking region where women are more likely to work marries a French-speaking woman, this might create a positive effect for the variable of interest. Hence, dummy variables for the language regions within Switzerland are included.

I estimate the following discrete response model:

$$P^w = \mathbf{x}_1\beta + P^{hm}\delta + e, \qquad e \sim N(0,1).$$

The dependent latent variable P^w indicates the labor market participation decision of the wife. The dummy variable P^{hm} equals 1 if the husband's mother worked when her son was 15 years old and $\mathbf{x}_1$ represents a vector of control variables.

The estimated OLS coefficients and marginal effects[3] after probit are given in Table 2. Models (i) and (ii) are estimated using OLS. Whereas, regression (i) measures the unconditional effect of the labor force status of the husband's mother on the labor force participation decision of his wife, regression (ii) controls for further covariates. Regression (iii) is a standard labor force participation estimation. Regressions (iv) and (v) are extensions of the basic model including the labor market status of the husband's and the wife's mother and a variety of other control variables. Regressions (vi), (vii) and (viii) are robustness tests.

I find that a married woman's labor market participation decision is positively and significantly related to whether her mother-in-law had worked. Thus, having a mother-in-law who was working raises the chances that a wife with mean characteristics is participating in the labor market by seven to eight percentage points. Even when controlling for a variety of background variables, the marginal effect of the indicator variable indicating whether the husband's mother had worked remains significant. Compared with the results of Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004), the effects presented in this paper seem rather small.[4] Possible reasons for these differences are the differences in the definition of the mother's labor market status, country-specific differences or cohort differences, as the individuals examined in this paper are substantially younger than the sample analyzed by Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004). The findings, however, are qualitatively the same and indicate that the former labor market status of a husband's mother is an important factor determining the working decision of his wife.

Apart from the labor market status of the mother-in-law, the participation decision is also determined significantly by education, the number of children and some proxy variables for the socioeconomic background of the husband's or the wife's family. As the first child might not have the same impact on the labor force participation decision as the second or third child, the regression includes dummy variables for the number of children.

[3]All marginal effects are computed at the means of the independent variables. For presentational reasons, no probit coefficients are reported.

[4]The values for the pseudo R^2 are comparable to most values reported by Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004), but not to the models using broader specifications including regions of residence or income of a husband's family at age 16.

Table 2: Female Labor Market Participation

	OLS		Probit					
Independent variables	(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)	(v)	(vi)	(vii)	(viii)
Husband's mother in labor force	0.071*	0.075*		0.082*	0.083**	0.074*	0.072*	0.073*
	(0.034)	(0.034)		(0.034)	(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.035)	(0.033)
Wife's age		0.019	0.014	0.013	0.019	0.012	0.088*	0.003
		(0.032)	(0.030)	(0.031)	(0.039)	(0.036)	(0.039)	(0.024)
Wife's age squared		-0.0002	-0.0001	-0.0001	-0.0004	-0.0001	-0.0009*	-0.0004
		(0.0003)	(0.0004)	(0.0004)	(0.0005)	(0.0005)	(0.0005)	(0.0003)
Primary education wife		0.031	0.027	0.029	0.034	0.032	-0.028	0.019
		(0.056)	(0.052)	(0.052)	(0.052)	(0.054)	(0.057)	(0.042)
Tertiary education wife		0.011*	0.098**	0.075	0.071	0.092	0.175*	0.018
		(0.041)	(0.038)	(0.040)	(0.040)	(0.039)	(0.047)	(0.030)
Wife's mother in labor force		-0.002		-0.011	-0.009	-0.002	-0.013	-0.005
		(0.033)		(0.034)	(0.033)	(0.034)	(0.035)	(0.032)
Husband's income		-0.0002	-0.0002	-0.0002	-0.0003	-0.0003	-0.0013**	-0.0005
		(0.0002)	(0.0002)	(0.0002)	(0.0002)	(0.0002)	(0.0004)	(0.0003)
Husband's age					-0.032	-0.044	-0.024	0.024
					(0.046)	(0.047)	(0.046)	(0.031)
Husband's age squared					0.0005	0.0007	0.0010	0.0003
					(0.0006)	(0.0006)	(0.0006)	(0.0004)
Primary education husband					0.113	0.120	-0.073	0.031
					(0.082)	(0.081)	(0.101)	(0.075)
Tertiary education husband					-0.013	-0.008	-0.025	-0.038
					(0.036)	(0.037)	(0.039)	(0.026)
One child		-0.150**	-0.181**	-0.198**	-0.189**		0.031	-0.157**
		(0.054)	(0.063)	(0.062)	(0.062)		(0.055)	(0.022)
Two children		-0.160**	-0.185**	-0.198**	-0.191**		-0.118*	-0.191**
		(0.051)	(0.055)	(0.063)	(0.054)		(0.049)	(0.030)
Three children		-0.226**	-0.268**	-0.285**	-0.283**		-0.080	-0.141**
		(0.061)	(0.072)	(0.071)	(0.070)		(0.057)	(0.020)
Four or more children		-0.169	-0.225*	-0.223*	-0.245*		-0.101	-0.121
		(0.096)	(0.114)	(0.113)	(0.111)		(0.082)	(0.098)
Primary education wife's father		0.013		0.009	0.010	0.028	0.090	0.008
		(0.039)		(0.045)	(0.044)	(0.044)	(0.050)	(0.030)
Tertiary education wife's father		0.061		0.056	0.047	0.044	0.060	0.003
		(0.054)		(0.042)	(0.042)	(0.043)	(0.046)	(0.030)
Primary education wife's mother		0.017		0.023	0.033	0.026	-0.050	0.025
		(0.044)		(0.039)	(0.038)	(0.038)	(0.040)	(0.027)
Tertiary education wife's mother		0.124**		0.158**	0.165**	0.156**	0.103	0.0226**
		(0.045)		(0.057)	(0.055)	(0.058)	(0.082)	(0.055)
Primary education husband's father					-0.114*	-0.119*	-0.037	-0.025
					(0.047)	(0.047)	(0.044)	(0.028)
Tertiary education husband's father					0.019	0.019	-0.006	0.039
					(0.042)	(0.042)	(0.016)	(0.031)
Primary education husband's mother					-0.044	-0.041	-0.016	0.012
					(0.037)	(0.038)	(0.039)	(0.025)
Tertiary education husband's mother					-0.178	-0.158	-0.024	-0.023
					(0.092)	(0.093)	(0.081)	(0.043)
Constant	0.703**	0.312						
	(0.023)	(0.590)						
Number of households	682	682	682	682	682	682	682	682
Log likelihood			-381.73	-375.14	-365.04	-375.02	-387.33	-187.99
R^2 / Pseudo R^2	0.007	0.0375	0.028	0.044	0.070	0.069	0.082	0.182

Notes: Marginal effects are calculated at the means of the independent variables. The dependent variable is a binary variable indicating whether a married woman is in the labor force. Married women are reported to be in the labor force if they were paid for working a minimum of one hour as an employee during the week prior to the interview. In column (vii) and (viii), married women are reported to be in the labor force if they work at least 50% or full-time, respectively. Mothers are classified as working if they were in the labor force when their children were 15 years old. Robust standard errors are reported in parentheses. */** Statistically significant at the 5-/1-percent level.

Having one or two children reduces the probability for labor market participation by approximately 20 percentage points compared with women without children; having three children lowers the probability of being in the labor force by approximately 30 percentage points. Moreover, a married woman's probability of participating in the labor market is significantly higher for women with tertiary education compared with women with secondary education. Interestingly, the former labor market status of a wife's mother does not influence a married woman's labor market participation decision. The education of a wife's mother, however, can be a crucial determinant.

As the number of children is an endogenous variable, regression (vi) excludes the number of children. The main result that married women's labor market participation is positively and significantly affected by the labor market status of her mother-in-law remains. Moreover, the result might be sensitive to the definition of a woman being in the labor force. As noted above, women are reported to be in the labor force if they work for a minimum of one hour during the week prior to the interview. Therefore, other definitions of being in the labor force are used in regressions (vii) and (viii). In regression (vii), women are reported to be in the labor force if they work 50% or more. In regression (viii), women are reported to be in the labor force if they work full-time. The effect of former labor market status of the mother-in-law on the probability of whether a married woman is working is slightly smaller when using the two alternative definitions, but the effect is still significantly positive and the main result remains.

4 Satisfaction with Life and Financial Situation

As noted above, the mechanism of the preference channel relies on the assumption that compared with the new type of men who grew up with a working mother, the traditional type of men who were raised by mothers working only in the household has a disutility of having a working wife. In this section, I show that a man's well-being is affected negatively by the wife's income contribution and thereby also by the wife's labor market participation. I further present evidence that this negative correlation is only true for men who grew up in a traditionally structured household.

The analysis of satisfaction follows the conventional satisfaction literature (see, e.g., Frey and Stutzer, 2002, for a survey). In a subjective view of utility, individuals' happiness can be captured by asking individuals about their well-being. It is therefore possible to get indications of individuals' valuation of their life satisfaction with the help of a single question. The basic assumption that utility can be measured by subjective well-being can be criticized on several grounds. First, utility is an ordinal concept and cannot be measured on a cardinal scale and second, utility can be measured but interpersonal com-

parisons are not valid. The first issue can be addressed by the fact that such satisfaction measures have been validated repeatedly by psychologists to be a reasonable proxy for utility or well-being (see, e.g., Kahneman, Diener, and Schwarz, 1999). In the economic literature, Easterlin (1974) claims that answers to subjective satisfaction questions provide valid proxies for happiness or utility (see also Frey and Stutzer, 2002, for a recent overview). Moreover, Van Praag claims that subjective income evaluation questions can be used to estimate utility functions, i.e., the answers to these questions are valid proxies of utility and produce credible evidence for the usefulness of the satisfaction measures for empirical welfare analysis (see Van Praag and Frijters, 1999, for a survey). With respect to the second criticism, it can be argued that individuals are given a well-defined scale for their evaluation including verbal descriptions. Therefore, it is plausible that they reply in a comparable manner. At least, this approach seems to work well in a variety of settings (see, e.g., Diener and Suh, 1997).[5]

McBride (2001) and Clark and Oswald (1996) introduce relative income measurements and income comparison levels in the satisfaction estimation. Bonke and Browning (2009) focus on the financial situation of married couples and include the wife's contribution to household income in their estimation model. Based on their finding that the wife's contribution to household income is correlated negatively with men's satisfaction level, I estimate an ordered probit model based on the following specification:

$$S^h = \mathbf{x}_2\beta + r\gamma + I(t)\delta + r \times I(t)\eta + e, \qquad e|\mathbf{x}_2 \sim N(0,1).$$

The husband's latent satisfaction level is given by S^h, $\mathbf{x}_2$ represents a vector of husband- and household-specific control variables, r measures the wife's contribution to household income and $I(t)$ is an indicator variable stating whether the men are of the traditional type growing up with a mother who was not in the labor force. The main coefficients of interest are γ, which measures the effect of the wife's income contribution on her husband's satisfaction and η the coefficient of the interaction term, which indicates whether there are differences in the effect of the wife's income contribution depending on work status of the husband's mother.

The results of the ordered probit estimation for men are given in Table 3.[6] Controlling for various personal characteristics, I find that a man's satisfaction with his financial

[5]As mentioned above, Switzerland has different language regions. As individuals can choose to be interviewed in either German, French or Italian, the verbally defined scale might be understood differently in the different language regions. Therefore, I also control for the language regions in the satisfaction estimation.

[6]Columns (ii) to (iv) and (vi) to (vii) report the estimated coefficients from the ordered probit regressions.

Table 3: Men's Satisfaction with Life and Financial Situation

	Financial Satisfaction				General Satisfaction			
	OLS	Ordered Probit			OLS	Ordered Probit		
Independent variables	(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)	(v)	(vi)	(vii)	(viii)
Wife's income contribution (i)	-0.011	-0.009	-0.010		-0.007	-0.005	-0.004	
	(0.009)	(0.008)	(0.007)		(0.009)	(0.005)	(0.007)	
Mother not in labor force (ii)	-0.034	-0.021	-0.020	-0.023	0.018	0.005	0.011	0.009
	(0.019)	(0.014)	(0.013)	(0.013)	(0.131)	(0.120)	(0.120)	(0.121)
Interaction term ($i \times ii$)	-0.026**	-0.021**	-0.023**		-0.022**	-0.021**	-0.021**	
	(0.006)	(0.008)	(0.007)		(0.007)	(0.008)	(0.007)	
Log(household income)	0.749**	0.649**	0.644**	0.671**	0.334**	0.278**	0.229**	0.264**
	(0.088)	(0.088)	(0.094)	(0.097)	(0.094)	(0.087)	(0.093)	(0.089)
Husband's age	-0.012	-0.008	-0.011	-0.010	0.004	0.017	0.044	0.044
	(0.141)	(0.092)	(0.092)	(0.087)	(0.103)	(0.094)	(0.097)	(0.099)
Husband's age squared	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	-0.0002	-0.0003	-0.0006	-0.0004
	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.001)
Primary education husband			0.281				0.064	
			(0.252)				(0.258)	
Tertiary education husband			0.037				0.131	
			(0.086)				(0.088)	
French-speaking husband	-0.518**	-0.349**	-0.358**	-0.352**	-0.121	-0.112	-0.110	-0.114
	(0.139)	(0.091)	(0.092)	(0.088)	(0.101)	(0.093)	(0.093)	(0.086)
Italian-speaking husband	0.051	-0.049	0.030	-0.048	0.346	-0.321	-0.315	-0.314
	(0.281)	(0.184)	(0.185)	(0.182)	(0.201)	(0.188)	(0.189)	(0.179)
Log(number of children)			-0.176				-0.103	
			(0.129)				(0.091)	
Constant	-1.321				4.500*			
	(0.939)				(2.22)			
Number of households	682	682	682	682	682	682	682	682
Log likelihood		-1201.3	-1199.4	-1271.6		-1005.2	-1003.5	-1006.5
R^2 / Pseudo R^2	0.126	0.065	0.077	0.059	0.113	0.079	0.096	0.077

Notes: Satisfaction with financial situation and satisfaction with life are the dependent variables. The responses for these subjective satisfaction measures range from 0 (not satisfied at all) to 10 (fully satisfied). The wife's income contribution measures the ratio of total household income contributed by the wife and is scaled between 0 and 100. Husband's mothers are classified as not working if they were not in the labor force when their sons were 15 years old. The interaction term is constructed by interacting the wife's income contribution and the binary variable indicating whether or not the mother was working when her son was 15 years old. Standard errors are reported in parentheses. */** Statistically significant at the 5-/1-percent level.

situation as well as his satisfaction with his life in general increases significantly with personal income in all of the various model specifications. In addition, French-speaking men report significantly lower financial satisfaction than German-speaking men. The main focus of the analysis is on the wife's contribution to household income and in particular whether the effect differs for the two types of men: the wife's income contribution affects the well-being of men negatively but the effect is not significant. The most important finding is, however, that the coefficient of the interaction term of the wife's income contribution and the indicator variables as to whether the mother was in the labor force or not is significantly negative for both outcome variables.[7] This indicates that the negative impact is only significant for the group without working mothers independent of model specifications. For all men who grew up with an employed mother, the percentage of income the wife contributes to household income has no significant effect on the degree of satisfaction. Thus, men's self-reported well-being decreases as a function of the wife's contribution to household income only for those men whose mother did not work outside the home. Moreover, growing up in a traditionally structured household does not affect the level of general or financial satisfaction significantly. These findings hold even when the wife's contribution to household income and the interaction term are excluded (see columns (iv) and (viii)). The fact that there are no significant differences in general or financial satisfaction according to the mother's work status might infer similar expectations about financial situation and general well-being among both types of men. Thus, men growing up with mothers who are not participating in the labor market do not seem to be generally less happy individuals but their well-being is affected differently by their wives' contribution to household income.[8]

Assuming that the wife's contribution to household income is a valid proxy for the time a woman attributes to labor market activity, the results can be interpreted as evidence for a systematic difference in men's utility functions. These findings support the crucial assumption that men's preferences toward women who are integrated in the labor market diverge depending on the former labor market status of their mothers. Hence, the presented results can be interpreted as evidence for the preference channel interpretation as the relevant dynamic mechanism behind the increase in the female

[7]Although the effect of the interaction term on men's satisfaction is statistically significant, the size of the effect is rather small. If a wife's contribution to household income is increased by 10 percentage points, the probability that a man who grew up with a mother working solely in the household provides a satisfaction value of 8, 9 or 10 is reduced by 2.5, 2.6 or 5.9 percentage points, respectively. The probability of answering 7 or lower is increased if the wife's contribution is increased.

[8]The main result does not depend on the estimation method. Qualitatively, the same effects are found using OLS estimation (as reported in Table 5), POLS estimation, generalized ordered probit and semi-nonparametric ordered probit.

labor market participation rate over time and support the inclusion of the labor market participation of the mother-in-law into the female labor market participation decision.

4.1 Robustness Analysis

Five different tests are conducted in the robustness analysis. The main results are sustained in each of the tests. First, I analyze whether the main results are robust to a binary classification of the satisfaction variable. Second, an alternative satisfaction measure, the satisfaction with the way housework is shared, is used to analyze if the results are robust to a third measure of subjective well-being. As a third robustness test, I use a different measure of the wife's labor market integration by replacing the wife's income contribution by a binary variable for a different definition of having a working wife. Fourth, the satisfaction analysis is also repeated for women and finaly, I repeat the satisfaction estimation for cohabiting couples because conditioning on marital status raises the possibility that selection bias affects estimates in the selected sample.

4.1.1 Binary Classification of Satisfaction

As a response to the satisfaction question, a score of 8 might not be meaningfully different from a response of 7; I analyze whether the main results are robust to a classification where satisfaction is measured as a binary indicator. Thus, individuals with a subjective satisfaction level of 6 or higher are classified as 'satisfied,' whereas individuals who report a lower satisfaction are classified as 'not satisfied.' The marginal effects after probit are given in Table 4. For both satisfaction measures, the results are qualitatively in line with the main results discussed above: the wife's contribution to household income has a negative effect on the probability that men are generally satisfied or satisfied with their financial situation. However, the negative effect is only significant for men who grew up in a traditionally structured household.

4.1.2 Satisfaction with Why Housework is Shared

The Swiss Household Panel provides further measures of satisfaction. To analyze whether the results are robust to a third measure of well-being, I use the answer to the question 'To what extent are you satisfied with the way the housework is shared (washing, cooking, cleaning) within your household?'. The results of the ordered probit estimation are given in Table 5. Similar to financial and general satisfaction, men's satisfaction with how the housework is shared is affected negatively by the wives' share of household income and again the effect is only significant for men who grew up in a traditional household with

Table 4: Binary Classification

	Financial Satisfaction		General Satisfaction	
Independent variables	(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)
Wife's income contribution (i)	-0.009	-0.008	-0.007	-0.009
	(0.005)	(0.008)	(0.007)	(0.007)
Mother not in labor force (ii)	0.056	0.052	-0.011	-0.012
	(0.043)	(0.051)	(0.008)	(0.009)
Interaction term ($i \times ii$)	-0.012**	-0.015**	-0.009**	-0.012**
	(0.004)	(0.005)	(0.003)	(0.003)
Log(household income)	0.252**	0.229**	0.062**	0.054**
	(0.040)	(0.039)	(0.013)	(0.018)
Husband's age	0.002	0.002	-0.012	-0.010
	(0.022)	(0.037)	(0.013)	(0.020)
Husband's age squared	-0.0002	-0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
	(0.0003)	(0.0004)	(0.0003)	(0.0002)
Primary education husband		0.113		-0.009
		(0.078)		(0.053)
Tertiary education husband		0.076*		0.021
		(0.036)		(0.019)
French-speaking husband	-0.132**	-0.129**	-0.005	-0.002
	(0.044)	(0.041)	(0.003)	(0.021)
Italian-speaking husband	-0.032	-0.041	-0.021	-0.009
	(0.034)	(0.084)	(0.013)	(0.043)
Log(number of children)		-0.033		0.012
		(0.039)		(0.020)
Number of households	682	682	682	682
Log likelihood	-370.7	-368.0	-163.4	-162.6
R^2 / Pseudo R^2	0.067	0.072	0.046	0.049

Notes: Satisfaction with financial situation and satisfaction with life are the dependent variables. Individuals with a subjective satisfaction level of 6 or higher are classified as 'satisfied,' whereas individuals who report a lower satisfaction are classified as 'not satisfied.' Marginal effects are calculated at the means of the independent variables. The wife's income contribution measures the ratio of total household income contributed by the wife and is scaled between 0 and 100. Husband's mothers are classified as not working if they were not in the labor force when their sons were 15 years old. The interaction term is constructed by interacting the wife's income contribution and the binary variable indicating whether or not the mother was working when the son was 15 years old. Standard errors are reported in parentheses. */** Statistically significant at the 5-/1-percent level.

a mother working solely at home. These results again indicate that there is a systematic difference in men's well-being based on their mother's work status.

Table 5: Satisfaction with Housework

	OLS	Ordered Probit	
Independent variables	(i)	(ii)	(iii)
Wife's income contribution (i)	-0.003	-0.014	-0.011
	(0.004)	(0.013)	(0.009)
Mother not in labor force (ii)	0.106	0.027	0.074
	(0.167)	(0.118)	(0.123)
Interaction term ($i \times ii$)	-0.014**	-0.021**	-0.039**
	(0.006)	(0.004)	(0.007)
Log(household income)	-0.104	-0.058	0.060
	(0.121)	(0.090)	(0.096)
Husband's age	-0.071	-0.036	0.034
	(0.132)	(0.097)	(0.101)
Husband's age squared	0.0008	0.0004	-0.0005
	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Primary education husband			0.091
			(0.270)
Tertiary education husband			-0.316
			(0.091)
French-speaking husband	-0.219	-0.159	-0.176
	(0.130)	(0.095)	(0.095)
Italian-speaking husband	0.191	0.249	0.274
	(0.263)	(0.203)	(0.204)
Log(number of children)			-0.287**
			(0.095)
Number of households	682	682	682
Log likelihood		-1042.3	-1031.5
R^2 / Pseudo R^2	0.027	0.043	0.138

Notes: Results for ordered probit estimations. Satisfaction with how housework is shared is the dependent variable. The responses for these subjective satisfaction measures range from 0 (not satisfied at all) to 10 (fully satisfied). The wife's income contribution measures the ratio of total household income contributed by the wife and is scaled between 0 and 100. Husband's mothers are classified as not working if they were not in the labor force when their sons were 15 years old. The interaction term is constructed by interacting the wife's income contribution and the binary variable indicating whether or not the mother was working when her son was 15 years old. Standard errors are reported in parentheses. */** Statistically significant at the 5-/1-percent level.

4.1.3 Wife's Work Status

To analyze whether the size of the wife's income contribution and thereby the degree of the wife's labor market integration matters, I replace the wife's income contribution with a binary variable indicating whether the wife is working as a further robustness test. I use the same definitions of being in the labor force as in Section 3. Thus, the first definition classifies women as in the labor force if they work for a minimum of one

hour during the week prior to the interview, the second definition reports women as in the labor force if they work 50% or more and the third definition reports women as in the labor force if they work full-time.

The results are presented in Table 6. Using the first definition of being in the labor force, I find no significant effect of having a working wife on husband's well-being. Moreover, the effect is also not significantly different for the two types of men. This indicates that there is no negative impact of the wife's work status on men's satisfaction if women are defined as working even with a very low level of labor market integration. However, using the second and third definitions of being in the labor force and only considering women as working who spend a substantial number of hours in the labor market (i.e., more than 50% or full-time), the results are qualitatively in line with the results using the wife's contribution to household income as a measure of her labor market integration. Hence, the wife's work status negatively affects the well-being of men but the negative effect is only significant for the group without working mothers. For all men who grew up with an employed mother, the indicator variable as to whether the wife is in the labor force has no significant effect on the degree of financial satisfaction or satisfaction with life in general. These results indicate that men's preferences toward employed wives diverge depending on the former labor status of their mothers.

4.1.4 Women's Satisfaction with Life and Financial Situation

The satisfaction analysis is also repeated for women because the share one partner contributes to household income might simply reflect their bargaining power within the household (see, e.g., Browning, Bourguignon, Chiappori, and Lechene, 1994; Lundberg, Pollak, and Wales, 1996). The results are reported in Table 7. Comparing the estimates for men and women, there are some commonalities but also some marked differences. The main common feature is that both general and financial satisfaction strongly increase with household income, albeit slightly more strongly for women. The negative effect of belonging to the French-speaking minority on financial well-being is larger for men. However, French-speaking women are also significantly less satisfied with their life in general, while general satisfaction does not differ significantly between German- and French-speaking men. In contrast with men, women's satisfaction with life and their financial situation is not affected significantly by their contribution to household income.[9] The effect is not significant for the combined sample or any of the two groups—women who married a traditional type of man or a new type of man. Thus, there is no empirical evidence that the satisfaction of married women is affected by their contribution to

[9]This reflects the results of Bonke and Browning (2009), who find that the wife's share has a significantly negative, linear impact on the husband's satisfaction but no linear effect on the wife's satisfaction.

Table 6: Wife's Work Status

	One Hour for Pay		50% or More		Full-time	
	Financial Satisfaction	General Satisfaction	Financial Satisfaction	General Satisfaction	Financial Satisfaction	General Satisfaction
Independent variables	(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)	(v)	(vi)
Wife in labor force (i)	-0.200	-0.098	-0.016	-0.194	-0.075	-0.166
	(0.110)	(0.074)	(0.092)	(0.125)	(0.085)	(0.237)
Mother not in labor force (ii)	0.254	-0.088	0.167	-0.058	0.124	-0.038
	(0.137)	(0.060)	(0.095)	(0.098)	(0.082)	(0.084)
Interaction term ($i \times ii$)	-0.217	-0.061	-0.183**	-0.049**	-0.167**	-0.039**
	(0.121)	(0.046)	(0.072)	(0.018)	(0.064)	(0.013)
Log(household income)	0.655**	0.233**	0.575**	0.239**	0.559**	0.222**
	(0.096)	(0.095)	(0.092)	(0.092)	(0.091)	(0.091)
Husband's age	0.028	0.041	0.029	0.031	0.033	0.040
	(0.095)	(0.097)	(0.095)	(0.097)	(0.095)	(0.097)
Husband's age squared	-0.0003	-0.0006	-0.0003	-0.0005	-0.0003	-0.0006
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Primary education husband	0.222	0.052	0.157	0.024	0.175	0.053
	(0.251)	(0.258)	(0.251)	(0.258)	(0.251)	(0.258)
Tertiary education husband	0.039	0.130	0.059	0.136	0.058	0.134
	(0.086)	(0.088)	(0.086)	(0.088)	(0.086)	(0.088)
French-speaking husband	-0.380**	-0.115	-0.353**	-0.082	-0.367**	-0.108
	(0.092)	(0.093)	(0.093)	(0.095)	(0.092)	(0.094)
Italian-speaking husband	0.008	-0.323	0.069	-0.288	0.046	-0.322
	(0.186)	(0.190)	(0.186)	(0.190)	(0.186)	(0.190)
Log(number of children)	-0.111	-0.090	-0.099	0.097	-0.082	-0.093
	(0.087)	(0.089)	(0.087)	(0.089)	(0.087)	(0.089)
Number of households	682	682	682	682	682	682
Log likelihood	-1007.7	-1003.1	-1008.8	-1002.2	-1009.9	-1003.5
R^2 / Pseudo R^2	0.067	0.072	0.046	0.049	0.043	0.138

Notes: Results for ordered probit estimations. Satisfaction with financial situation and satisfaction with life are the dependent variables. The responses for these subjective satisfaction measures range from 0 (not satisfied at all) to 10 (fully satisfied). A husband's wife is defined as working if she got paid for working for a minimum of one hour as an employee during the week prior to the interview (columns (i) and (ii)), if she works at least 50% (columns (iii) and (iv)) or full-time (columns (v) and (vi)), respectively. Husband's mothers are classified as not working if they were not in the labor force when their sons were 15 years old. The interaction term is constructed by interacting the binary variable indicating the labor force status of the wife and the binary variable indicating whether or not the mother was working when her son was 15 years old. Standard errors are reported in parentheses. */** Statistically significant at the 5-/1-percent level.

household income nor that this effect differs systematically according to the work status of their mother-in-law.

Table 7: Women's Satisfaction with Life and Financial Situation

	Financial Satisfaction			General Satisfaction		
Independent variables	(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)	(v)	(vi)
Interaction term		-0.002	-0.003		-0.001	0.001
		(0.003)	(0.004)		(0.004)	(0.004)
Wife's income contribution	-0.006	0.007	-0.005	-0.002	-0.003	-0.003
	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.003)	(0.002)	(0.003)	(0.003)
Husband's mother		0.003	-0.089		0.003	0.007
not in labor force		(0.011)	(0.118)		(0.119)	(0.119)
Log(household income)	0.678**	0.689**	0.649**	0.319**	0.320**	0.326**
	(0.088)	(0.088)	(0.013)	(0.087)	(0.087)	(0.089)
Wife's age	0.039	0.039	0.058	-0.152*	-0.154*	-0.112
	(0.070)	(0.070)	(0.075)	(0.072)	(0.072)	(0.077)
Wife's age squared	-0.0005	-0.0005	-0.0007	0.002*	0.002*	0.001
	(0.0009)	(0.0009)	(0.0009)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Primary education wife			-0.151			-0.059
			(0.131)			(0.132)
Tertiary education wife			0.087			-0.066
			(0.101)			(0.102)
French-speaking wife	-0.301**	-0.297**	-0.292**	-0.230*	-0.229*	-0.226*
	(0.091)	(0.092)	(0.092)	(0.093)	(0.093)	(0.094)
Italian-speaking wife	-0.453*	-0.454*	-0.440*	-0.326	-0.329	-0.313
	(0.185)	(0.186)	(0.187)	(0.187)	(0.203)	(0.188)
Log(number of children)			-0.060			0.054
			(0.093)			(0.044)
Number of households	682	682	682	682	682	682
Log likelihood	-1258.9	-1258.5	-1257.0	-1072.3	-1072.1	-1070.6
R^2 / Pseudo R^2	0.032	0.034	0.036	0.024	0.025	0.027

Notes: Results for ordered probit estimations. Satisfaction with financial situation and satisfaction with life are the dependent variables. The responses for these subjective satisfaction measures range from 0 (not satisfied at all) to 10 (fully satisfied). The wife's income contribution measures the ratio of total household income contributed by the wife and is scaled between 0 and 100. Husband's mothers are classified as not working if they were not in the labor force when their sons were 15 years old. The interaction term is constructed by interacting the wife's income contribution and the binary variable indicating whether or not the mother was working when her son was 15 years old. Standard errors are reported in parentheses. */** Statistically significant at the 5-/1-percent level.

4.1.5 Marital Status

As discussed in Section 2, there is no empirical evidence that men who grew up with a mother working solely at home have a different likelihood to getting married or divorced than men who were raised by a working mother. However, conditioning on marital status raises the possibility that selection bias affects estimates in the selected sample as happier singles are more likely to marry (see Stutzer and Frey, 2006). As a robustness check, I therefore repeat the satisfaction estimation for the cohabiting couples. The effects presented in Table 8 are smaller for cohabiting men but the general result does

not change qualitatively and leads to the same conclusion: A man's well-being is affected negatively by the size of his wife's contribution to household income if he was raised in a traditionally structured household.

Table 8: Cohabiting Men's Satisfaction with Life

	Financial Satisfaction				General Satisfaction			
	OLS	Ordered Probit			OLS	Ordered Probit		
Independent variables	(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)	(v)	(vi)	(vii)	(viii)
Wife's income contribution (i)	-0.011	-0.009	-0.010		-0.004	-0.004	-0.006	
	(0.009)	(0.008)	(0.007)		(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.007)	
Mother not in labor force (ii)	-0.011	-0.008	-0.007	-0.010	0.011	0.009	0.011	0.006
	(0.019)	(0.014)	(0.013)	(0.013)	(0.145)	(0.147)	(0.138)	(0.140)
Interaction term ($i \times ii$)	-0.016**	-0.015**	-0.015**		-0.012*	-0.009*	-0.013**	
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.007)		(0.006)	(0.004)	(0.004)	
Log(household income)	0.358**	0.322**	0.209**	0.312**	0.231**	0.211**	0.203**	0.221**
	(0.043)	(0.041)	(0.046)	(0.045)	(0.099)	(0.104)	(0.102)	(0.100)
Husband's age	-0.003	0.002	-0.001	-0.002	0.001	0.002	-0.002	0.002
	(0.141)	(0.143)	(0.141)	(0.141)	(0.112)	(0.102)	(0.104)	(0.110)
Husband's age squared	0.0002	-0.0002	0.0001	0.0001	-0.0001	-0.0001	0.0002	-0.0001
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.001)
Primary education husband			0.332				0.343	
			(0.321)				(0.238)	
Tertiary education husband			0.143				0.148	
			(0.130)				(0.098)	
French-speaking husband	-0.288**	-0.273**	-0.281**	-0.282**	-0.121	-0.112	-0.110	-0.114
	(0.139)	(0.131)	(0.134)	(0.131)	(0.101)	(0.103)	(0.093)	(0.106)
Italian-speaking husband	-0.362	-0.329	-0.332	-0.348	-0.346	-0.311	-0.332	-0.312
	(0.281)	(0.282)	(0.285)	(0.282)	(0.201)	(0.203)	(0.199)	(0.209)
Log(number of children)			-0.202				-0.093	
			(0.129)				(0.089)	
Constant	-1.321				3.467			
	(0.939)				(2.82)			
Number of households	108	108	108	108	108	108	108	108
Log likelihood		-1201.3	-1199.4	-1271.6		-1005.2	-1003.5	-1006.5
R^2 / Pseudo R^2	0.092	0.059	0.099	0.061	0.116	0.074	0.101	0.072

Notes: Satisfaction with financial situation and satisfaction with life are the dependent variables. The responses for these subjective satisfaction measures range from 0 (not satisfied at all) to 10 (fully satisfied). The female partner's income contribution measures the ratio of total household income contributed by the female partner and is scaled between 0 and 100. Men's mothers are classified as not working if they were not in the labor force when their sons were 15 years old. The interaction term is constructed by interacting the female partner's income contribution and the binary variable indicating whether or not the mother was working when her son was 15 years old. Standard errors are reported in parentheses. */** Statistically significant at the 5-/1-percent level.

5 Conclusion

This paper reexamined Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti's (2004) idea that the increasing proportion of men who were raised in a family with a working mother caused a significant increase in the female labor force participation rate using the Swiss Household Panel 2005. My results indicated that the working decision of a man's mother determines his

attitude toward having a working wife. Men who grew up in a traditionally structured household tend to dislike working wives and their disutility of having a working wife makes it less likely that they marry a woman that is more likely to participate in the labor market. The well-being of men who were brought up by a working mother is, however, not significantly affected by the labor force participation of their wives.

More precisely, I showed that the life satisfaction and the financial satisfaction of a married man are affected negatively by his wife's contribution to household income. However, this effect is not significant for men who grew up in a family with a working mother. These crucial differences in satisfaction levels are interpreted as an indication of varying preferences because of exposure to certain sexual stereotypes early in life. Moreover, it provides a reason for including the former labor market status of a husband's mother as a proxy variable for his gender role attitudes in the estimation of the working decision of his wife. I also presented evidence that Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti's (2004) cross-section results can also be found in Swiss data and that the probability of whether a man's wife is working is affected positively by the former labor market status of his mother. The effect remains significantly positive even when controlling for a variety of characteristics, socioeconomic background and whether the wife's mother worked. Depending on the specification, a married woman's probability of working is approximately 7 to 8 percentage points higher when her mother-in-law worked.

This paper is a further contribution to the literature analyzing the interaction between the economy, attitudes and social norms. Besides showing that there is a substantial link between the proportion of men who were brought up by a working mother and the female labor market participation rate, I presented evidence that gender role attitudes differ crucially according to the role model men were confronted with early in life. The results discussed above also support the preference channel as the relevant dynamic mechanism behind the increase in the female labor market participation described in Fernández, Fogli, and Olivetti (2004) by directly establishing a link between the wife's labor market integration and the husband's satisfaction depending on their mothers' former labor force status.

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