



DEMOGRAPHIC RESEARCH

A peer-reviewed, open-access journal of population sciences

DEMOGRAPHIC RESEARCH

VOLUME 51, ARTICLE 30, PAGES 927–964

PUBLISHED 22 OCTOBER 2024

<https://www.demographic-research.org/Volumes/Vol51/30>

DOI: 10.4054/DemRes.2024.51.30

Research Article

The division of housework and childcare from a dyadic perspective: Discrepancies between partners' reports across the transition to parenthood

Tabea Naujoks

© 2024 *Tabea Naujoks*.

This open-access work is published under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 Germany (CC BY 3.0 DE), which permits use, reproduction, and distribution in any medium, provided the original author(s) and source are given credit.

See <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/de/legalcode>.

Contents

1	Introduction	928
2	Background	930
2.1	Factors contributing to a reporting gap	930
2.2	Previous research on reporting gaps in housework and childcare	933
2.2.1	Childcare	933
2.2.2	Housework	934
2.3	Germany	936
3	Data and methods	936
3.1	Data	936
3.1.1	Reporting gap	937
3.1.2	Independent variables	938
3.1.3	Sample	939
3.2	Analytical strategy	940
4	Results	941
4.1	Descriptive results	941
4.2	Multiple regression results	944
4.2.1	Housework reporting gap	944
4.2.2	Childcare reporting gap	946
4.2.3	Educational constellation	946
5	Discussion	948
6	Acknowledgements	951
	References	952
	Appendix	958

The division of housework and childcare from a dyadic perspective: Discrepancies between partners' reports across the transition to parenthood

Tabea Naujoks¹

Abstract

BACKGROUND

There is a large body of research on the gendered division of domestic labor, but differences between women's and men's reported contributions to childcare and housework remain a puzzle.

OBJECTIVE

This study examines the reporting gap in the division of housework and childcare to understand how this gap changes across the transition to parenthood and how it is influenced by the couples' constellations of educational and working hours.

METHODS

I use data from the German Family Panel (pairfam). The survey's multi-actor design allows including both partners' reports on the labor division. The sample consists of cohabiting different-sex couples who had their first child during the observation period, going from one year before the birth to two years after (n = 414). I employ logistic regressions to examine how the educational and working hours constellations are associated with reporting gaps.

RESULTS

This study reveals sizable reporting gaps in housework (45%) and childcare (38%) among couples during the transition to parenthood. Homogamous couples with tertiary education have the lowest predicted probability of reporting gaps. For the childcare reporting gap, I find that couples with a highly educated male partner and a medium or low-educated female partner exhibit the highest predicted probability of a reporting gap. The working hours constellation is unrelated to reporting gaps in either housework or childcare.

CONTRIBUTION

This study underscores that reporting gaps are systematically distributed, emphasizing the need for researchers to be aware of these patterns. Moreover, distinct results for housework and childcare emphasize the importance of analyzing them separately.

¹ Universität Rostock, Rostock, Germany. Email: tabea.naujoks@uni-rostock.de.

1. Introduction

Research has provided evidence that the division of labor changes dramatically across the transition to parenthood (Grunow, Schulz, and Blossfeld 2012; Kühhirt 2012). A consistent finding is that even couples with a relatively equal division of unpaid work before the birth of their first child divide childcare and housework unequally thereafter, with women doing more unpaid work than men (Büchau, Schober, and Becker 2023). While literature on the determinants of couples' division of unpaid work has proliferated in recent years, little attention has been paid to differences in the reporting of the division of housework and childcare in couples, hereafter referred to as the reporting gap. Discrepancies in reporting within couples can arise from diverse sources, encompassing underreporting and overreporting of own contributions to and partners' involvement in unpaid household work. A key question emerges: Are these reporting disparities inherently problematic? Some earlier scholarly work implies that these discrepancies follow a random distribution (Granbois and Willett 1970; Quarm 1981), which means that they may not present challenges. However, a potential issue emerges if these reporting gaps follow a systematic pattern (Kamo 2000; Mikelson 2008; Tao 2013). In such cases, reliance on only one partner's reports may introduce bias into researchers' results. Hence, this study adopts a dyadic approach, exploring if and how systematic associations exist between reporting gaps and the educational and working hours constellations within couples.

The transition to parenthood has been identified as a critical life course transition during which the division of labor often shifts towards more traditional patterns (Grunow, Schulz, and Blossfeld 2012; Kühhirt 2012). Several challenges uniquely characterize this period. One obvious challenge is the increased demand of caring for a newborn, which is accompanied by additional household labor responsibilities such as cleaning and washing (Kluwer 2010). Simultaneously, new parents suffer from fatigue and sleep deprivation (Parsons et al. 2023), experiencing a decrease in overall relationship quality (Doss et al. 2009; Mitnick, Heyman, and Smith Slep 2009; Trillingsgaard, Baucom, and Heyman 2014) and adopting new roles as mothers and fathers (Kluwer 2010; Kluwer and Johnson 2007). The combination of changes in daily life, role formation, and intense childcare needs means that this life course period is particularly sensitive to reporting gaps. However, it is also possible that these life changes foster increased agreement within couples as they engage in more discussions about the division of labor arrangements. Therefore, this study specifically focuses on investigating reporting gaps during the transition to parenthood and asks whether there is an increased risk of experiencing reporting gaps across this life course transition.

These role-formation processes are not isolated but intricately connected to social norms, which are subject to change. Over the last few decades, social norms regarding

gender roles have shifted towards greater gender egalitarianism, and the concept of “involved fatherhood” has become more prevalent (Hofmeister and Baur 2015). This shift is also notable in Germany, traditionally classified as a conservative and familialistic welfare state (Esping-Andersen 1990). Germany has witnessed significant family policy reforms, signaling a move towards greater gender equality (Fleckenstein 2011). The reforms include expanding public childcare, encouraging maternal employment (Zoch 2020), and modifying the parental leave benefits scheme to promote fathers’ active participation. Research indicates that fathers do indeed take advantage of the two months of parental leave (Bünning 2015), which has become the norm (Gangl and Ziefle 2015; Sievers 2023). However, the coexistence of these developments toward gender equality and enduring marital benefits that favor traditional roles introduces a unique duality in incentives that is particularly noticeable during the transition to parenthood (Daly 2011; Trappe, Pollmann-Schult, and Schmitt 2015). While family policies play a crucial role in shaping the gender culture within society (Pfau-Effinger 1998), it is important to recognize that these normative foundations of the gender culture may manifest differently across subgroups. The interplay between the prevailing gender culture within a society and the existence of reporting gaps is likely influenced by educational and employment characteristics. For example, research indicates that individuals with higher levels of education exhibit stronger support for maternal employment (Bauernschuster and Rainer 2012), endorse an equitable division of labor (Edlund and Öun 2016), and second the “active father role” ideal (Schneider, Diabaté, and Ruckdeschel 2015). In light of this, my investigation aims to explore the relationship between the educational and employment dynamics within couples and the disparities in reporting childcare and housework responsibilities.

This study specifically focuses on the transition to parenthood and examines the prevalence of mismatches in the childcare and housework reports of men and women in different-sex couples. It is essential to note that this study cannot determine the ‘true’ division of labor within couples but instead explores the extent to which factors such as the constellations of education and working hours are associated with divergent reporting. To address how these constellations within the couple are associated with reporting gaps, I utilize dyadic data obtained from all available 14 waves (2008–2022) of the Panel Analysis of Intimate Relationships and Family Dynamics (pairfam). Pooled logistic regression models are employed to analyze the data. The study considers couples who experience the birth of their first child during the observation period and report on the division of labor in the year before birth and at least once within the two years following the birth. The sample consists of 414 couples.

This study’s contribution to the research field is threefold: First, while the existing studies explore a range of variables, such as employment, education, and relationship quality, correlated with reporting gaps, they often lack robust theoretical explanations for

the relationship between these variables and the reporting gap (see, for example, Coley and Morris 2002). By contrast, this study seeks to address this gap by leveraging division of labor theories and adapting them to explain how sociodemographic variables, such as the educational and working hours constellations within a couple, influence reporting gaps. The aim of grounding the analysis in well-established theories is to provide a more comprehensive understanding of why and how certain variables contribute to discrepancies in reports. Second, this study goes beyond the scope of previous research, which typically concentrates on either housework or childcare. Here, both aspects are considered, enabling a more nuanced examination of reporting gaps within the same sample. Third, while initial studies on reporting gaps in couples predominantly rely on datasets from specialized samples, often representing minority low-income groups in urban areas within the United States (Charles et al. 2018; Coley and Morris 2002), this study complements this research by drawing on German data, thus broadening the scope of the investigation.

2. Background

2.1 Factors contributing to a reporting gap

Past research on reporting gaps has often neglected the theoretical component, providing, at best, speculative assumptions which are not integrated into the broader theoretical landscape. Coley and Morris (2002: 984) underscore this shortcoming, stating: “The literature that compares fathers’ and mothers’ reports of fathers’ involvement provides limited guidance for the development of hypotheses concerning determinants of congruence and discrepancy between parents.” Similarly, Mikelson (2008: 615) notes that hypotheses about “...which demographic and social factors predict discrepancy between fathers and mothers are premature, given the small amount of literature comparing father and mother reports of fathers’ involvement.” It becomes apparent that explaining the sources of these differences is nontrivial. Since the reporting gaps of interest are thematically centered around the division of labor within couples and thus demand a theoretical conceptualization that takes dynamics within couples into account, it seems logical to explore explanations rooted in division of labor theories. However, a direct one-to-one application of these theories to the reporting gaps appears unsuitable and necessitates some adjustments.

Theories related to the division of labor within couples can be categorized into three main strands. The first strand explains the household division of labor based on an economic rationale, considering factors like each partner’s resources, such as education or income (Blood Jr. and Wolfe 1960; Ott 2012). The second strand centers on the

partners' available time (Coverman 1985), while the third strand incorporates cultural and normative factors (Bielby and Bielby 1989; Greenstein 1996; West and Zimmerman 1987).

While the normative dimension is undoubtedly omnipresent, other theories offer intriguing insights, especially economic ones that focus on the distribution of resources within couples. One such aspect is the educational constellation within couples, which could be systematically linked to reporting gaps. The educational constellation within a couple could influence the disparities in their reports through two channels. First, variation in academic levels between partners could contribute to reporting gaps. According to relative resource (Blood Jr and Wolfe 1960) and bargaining theories (Brines 1993), the partner possessing the greater resources exerts greater bargaining power to negotiate themselves out of unpleasant domestic tasks (Coverman 1985). The comparative advantage in market work is often indicated by higher levels of education or income (Bianchi et al. 2000). In relationships where partners have different educational levels, the individual with lower educational attainment often has diminished bargaining power. According to the relative resource theory, this reduced bargaining power typically results in a higher share of housework for the less-educated partner. This imbalance can lead to feelings of inequity within the couple. One strategy to counteract this disparity is for the less-educated partner to overreport their contributions to unpaid work. They can foster a sense of balance within the relationship by emphasizing their efforts in managing household responsibilities.

Contrarily, couples with a similar educational background are presumed to have a more equitable distribution of bargaining power and thus more equity within the couple. As a result, their reports on the division of housework and childcare are expected to be more likely to match, leading to the following hypothesis:

H1: Homogamous couples are less prone to exhibit a reporting gap than heterogamous couples.

Second, the likelihood of reporting gaps may be linked to level of education. While the impact of education is not necessarily direct, it can be conceptualized as a mediator of social norms. It is plausible that individuals may engage in socially desirable behavior by reporting a more equitable division of labor than is truly the case, to align with the ideals of modern relationships. Individuals with a higher level of education may have a heightened awareness of socially desirable behavior (Press and Townsley 1998), resulting in increased agreement in reporting within couples, particularly when both partners have higher educational levels, in contrast to couples with lower educational backgrounds.

H2: Homogamous couples with a high level of education are less likely to provide divergent reports on the division of unpaid work than homogamous couples with a low level of education.

Another factor potentially linked to reporting gaps is attachment to the labor market. The relative distribution of time spent in paid employment could be crucial in understanding reporting gaps. Social norms may again come into play, as specific configurations of paid work could signal what kind of division of unpaid work is perceived as desirable or fair (Düval 2023). For instance, if both partners contribute equally to the total work hours, a division of unpaid work where only one partner exclusively handles household labor might be considered undesirable. On the other hand, relative resources (Blood Jr and Wolfe 1960) and bargaining (Brines 1993) theories may explain the relationship between engagement in paid work and reporting gaps. The time devoted to the labor market can be interpreted as an indicator of bargaining power, similar to education. Essentially, the partner spending more time in the labor market is likely to receive more income, thereby wielding increased bargaining power than the partner spending less time in the labor market (Coverman 1985). A more equitable distribution of working hours between partners suggests a more balanced bargaining power dynamic, increasing the likelihood of reporting a congruent division of labor.

H3: The more egalitarian the working hours constellation within the couple, the lower the probability of a reporting gap.

Norms regarding the division of labor within couples may play a key role in reporting gaps, especially during the transition to parenthood. Societal expectations can influence partners to either underreport or overreport their own or their partner's contributions, potentially making the division of unpaid work itself a factor in the probability of reporting gaps. The traditional narrative of one partner exclusively managing household work while the other contributes minimally is no longer socially desirable (Kamo 2000). Particularly in the context of housework, an egalitarian division is considered the norm (Grunow and Baur 2014), suggesting that deviations from this norm might prompt one partner to 'correct' in that direction, increasing the likelihood of a reporting gap (Kamo 2000). This leads to the following hypothesis:

H4a: If couples deviate from the equal sharing norm prevalent for housework, the likelihood of a reporting gap is elevated.

In the case of childcare, especially in the early phases, norms do not necessarily endorse a 50/50 model but instead view mothers as the primary caregivers for newborns,

with fathers being actively involved (Hofmeister and Baur 2015; Sievers 2023). A model where the mother is mostly responsible for childcare while fathers also contribute is considered the gold standard. Therefore, I hypothesize:

H4b: If couples deviate from the ideal of mothers mostly handling childcare, the likelihood of a reporting gap is elevated.

2.2 Previous research on reporting gaps in housework and childcare

Although early research detected diverging reports of mothers and fathers regarding the division of labor (for childcare, Steltzer and Brandreth 1994; for housework, Granbois and Willett 1970), studies on the reporting gap in couples only appeared in 2000, partially due to limited availability of household or dyadic data and the lack of suitable analytical strategies. While one strand of research deals with the problem of different outcomes depending on the measurement (Bonke 2005; Carrasco and Domínguez 2015; Kan 2008; Schulz and Grunow 2012), other studies look beyond possible measurement errors and explore other reasons for the divergent reports of the division of labor in couples. Studies examining the reporting gap focus on either housework or childcare. Therefore, the results of the studies on reporting gaps are presented first for childcare and then for housework.

2.2.1 Childcare

Some studies focus on the discrepancies between women's and men's reports on fathers' involvement in childcare in the United States. However, due to the lack of data on fathers and their behaviors in national surveys, these studies focus on specific samples of low-income families and minorities with young children (Coley and Morris 2002: 982). Although the generalization of the results has to be treated with caution, the surveys follow a dyadic structure. Studies examining reporting differences in fathers' involvement utilize multidimensional concepts to measure fathers' involvement in childcare. Examples include the frequency with which the father spends time with the child on recreation, leisure, education, and caregiving, how he contributes financially, and how the father is involved in decision-making within the couple (Charles et al. 2018; Coley and Morris 2002). Coley and Morris (2002) further differentiate between the frequency of only seeing the child and actively engaging in caregiving. Mikelson (2008) relies on a measure that quantifies the days per month devoted to specific activities such as playing, reading, expressing appreciation to the child, and more. These studies show

that the reports of mothers and fathers on fathers' involvement in childcare are similar, but mothers consistently report lower participation levels than fathers (Charles et al. 2018; Coley and Morris 2002).

Research examining discrepancies between fathers' and mothers' reports of fathers' involvement in childcare has delved into various sociodemographic variables, such as the role of the education level of both mothers and fathers (Coley and Morris 2002; Mikelson 2008) or only the fathers (Charles et al. 2018). Coley and Morris's (2002) findings suggest that as the mother's education level increases, so does the discrepancy within the father-mother pair. However, they do not find a statistically significant effect associated with the father's educational level. The studies conducted by Mikelson (2008) and Charles et al. (2018) do not show a clear association between education and reporting gaps. Although there is some indication that education is related to the reporting gap, it remains unclear how the educational constellation within the couple, precisely the dynamic of educational homogamy versus heterogamy, is associated with reporting gaps.

The role of employment as a potential factor contributing to the reporting gap in fathers' involvement in childcare is mixed. While Mikelson's (2008) model does not include employment as a variable, Charles et al. (2018) focus only on mothers' employment status and do not find any significant association with reporting discrepancies. However, Coley and Morris's (2002) findings suggest that maternal employment is correlated with higher levels of discrepancy within the father-mother pair. While there is only limited indication of a potential relationship between employment and reporting gaps, the role of the employment of both partners remains unclear, particularly in how it unfolds in a relative or dyadically constructed measure.

2.2.2 Housework

Research in the related area of housework draws mainly on time-based estimations derived from stylized questions, letting the respondents estimate the amount of time they and their partners spend on various household tasks. Kamo's (2000) influential work relies on NSFH data, which follows a dyadic structure and differentiates between women's time spent on housework estimated by herself, her housework estimated by her partner, and the same for men's time spent on household labor. The reporting gap is calculated by subtracting the spouse's estimate from the self-estimate (Kamo 2000: 465). Kamo (2000) finds that the interspousal discrepancy is more considerable for husbands' contribution than for wives' time spent on housework. The discrepancy for husbands' housework time is 2 hours and 40 minutes per week and 37 minutes per week for wives' housework time. Bryant et al.'s (2003) study is based on PSID data containing the wives' housework time reported by both spouses. The difference between wives' and husbands'

estimation of wives' housework time is 20 minutes per week, so even smaller than in Kamo's (2000) calculation. These results align with Winkler's (2002) analysis of Canadian data, demonstrating that the reporting gap between husbands and wives is less than 1 hour per week.

As in research on the childcare reporting gap, various studies on reporting gaps in housework include education as an explanatory variable. According to Kamo's (2000) findings, well-educated spouses tend to avoid overestimating their contributions, leading to reduced reporting discrepancies. By contrast, Bryant et al. (2003) present findings that diverge from the above results. Their study indicates that husbands, particularly those with wives holding at least a high school degree, tend to overestimate their wives' daily housework time by approximately 23 minutes compared to husbands with less-educated wives (Bryant et al. 2003). Like in the case of the childcare reporting gap, the female partner's education is primarily related to the reporting gap, although the direction is unclear as the results are mixed. However, the relation between each partner's educational level is neglected in the analyses and thus needs further investigation.

In examining the role of employment in reporting gaps regarding housework, the studies of Bryant et al. (2003) and Kamo (2000) suggest that employment status is not associated with reporting discrepancies. Bryant et al. (2003) only include the wife's employment status in their analysis, while Kamo (2000) includes both partners' working hours in the regression models. This finding is in contrast to the results obtained by Coley and Morris (2002) for the childcare reporting gap, where they identify a greater reporting gap among employed female partners. These contrasting findings could be attributed to the distinct effects of employment on reporting gaps in the contexts of childcare and housework.

Kamo (2000) suggests that as women are the primary providers of housework, they may be more efficient in performing it. Kamo (2000) hypothesizes that husbands overestimate their wives' contributions, finding supporting evidence in descriptive results, particularly in tasks like shopping and paying bills. However, Kamo's (2000) analysis lacks a variable for the wife's time spent on housework, thus preventing a thorough examination of the 'efficiency' hypothesis. Therefore, the link between the division of labor itself and the reporting gap still needs to be tested.

While the presented studies offer initial insights into sociodemographic factors associated with the reporting gap, their findings are largely confined to specific contexts and rely on data from specialized samples, often focusing on minority low-income groups. Additionally, most studies use U.S.-based data, with limited attention paid to Europe, presenting an intriguing yet overlooked case for examining other contexts.

2.3 Germany

Germany offers a compelling case for examination, not only due to the scarcity of studies on the reporting gap in the European context but also because of its distinctive features and recent policy changes. Traditionally, Germany has been classified as a conservative and familialistic welfare state with a prevailing male breadwinner norm (Esping-Andersen 1990). However, more recently Germany has undergone substantial family reforms aimed at promoting a “dual-earner-carer model” (Fleckenstein 2011). Despite the family policy reforms, the roots of the conservative welfare state regime persist in Germany’s income-splitting tax system and the public health insurance system, which co-insures the non-working spouse (Daly 2011; Trappe, Pollmann-Schult, and Schmitt 2015). Consequently, the incentives of the German welfare state are somewhat ambivalent, lacking a clear normative guideline for parents.

However, gendered care patterns have undergone a notable shift in recent years, with fathers nowadays taking on a more active childcare role than in previous decades. In 2017, men in couple households performed 30% of childcare tasks, a substantial increase on the 20% reported in the 1990s (Samtleben, Lott, and Müller 2020). It is crucial to acknowledge distinct East-West differences in family behaviors. Part-time employment rates have risen among women in West Germany, while mothers in the East are more likely to engage in full-time employment than their counterparts in the West (Trappe, Pollmann-Schult, and Schmitt 2015). For instance, in 2021, 48% of mothers with children under 18 in East Germany worked part-time, compared to 73% in West Germany (Pfahl, Unrau, and Wittmann 2023). Research on attitudes toward gendered labor division reveals further regional disparities, with Western Germans favoring the modernized male breadwinner model, while individuals in Eastern Germany prefer equally the one-and-a-half-earner and full-time dual-earner models (Edlund and Öun 2016). The German context is especially fascinating, given the combination of the ambivalent normative signals promoted by family policies and marital benefits and the different prevailing gender cultures in the East and West.

3. Data and methods

3.1 Data

This study uses data from the annual pairfam survey, a multi-actor study launched in 2008 (Brüderl et al. 2023; Huinink et al. 2011). The pairfam study follows a cohort design (1971–1973, 1981–1983, 1991–1993), with 12,000 respondents in the first wave. These main respondents were asked to provide consent for their partners to be interviewed. The

main respondents were surveyed via Computer-Assisted Personal Interviewing, while partners received a self-administered paper questionnaire (Schröder and Schmiedeberg 2023).² This difference in the survey modes for the main respondent and the partner is important as it can potentially impact the reporting gap. For instance, Schröder and Schmiedeberg's (2023) findings indicate that partner presence during the interview enhances data quality and reduces the likelihood of overstatement of contributions to housework.

Pairfam is an exceptional dataset due to its multi-actor and panel design. The dyadic structure of the pairfam data offers a unique opportunity to analyze whether female and male partners' reports of the division of housework and childcare match. The unit of analysis is couples that live together and experience the transition to parenthood during the observation period. The sample is restricted to couples whose partners provide valid information on the division of labor. I follow couples from the year before childbirth to two years after the first child is born. The couples are included in the sample if they provide valid information in at least two waves: first, 1–12 months before the birth, and then either 0–12 months, 13–24 months, or 25–36 months after the birth. The final sample consists of 414 couples, which results in 1,473 couple-years for housework and 1,036 couple-years for childbirth.

3.1.1 Reporting gap

The analysis draws on two dependent variables: the housework reporting gap and the childcare reporting gap. The reporting gaps are operationalized by the discrepancy between men's and women's reports of the division of childcare and housework in their relationship. The reporting gaps are measured with questions on whether childcare or housework is done (1) completely by the woman, (2) mostly by the woman, (3) shared equally, (4) mostly by the man, or (5) completely by the man.³ The male partners' reports were deducted from the female partners' reports and grouped into the following

² The survey administration for partners varied. In some instances, partners completed the questionnaire during the anchor interview, and the interviewer collected it upon leaving the main respondent's home (18% in wave 11). In other cases, partners completed the questionnaire independently and either sent it back to the survey institute (38% in wave 11) or had the interviewer collect it at a later point (44% in wave 11) (Brix, Wich, and Schneekloth 2020).

³ The question in the survey reads as follows "I would now like to ask you about how you and your partner organize your daily lives. To what extent do you and [name of current partner] share duties in the following domains? If you have a housemaid, nanny, or similar household help, then refer in your answers only to the portion of the work done by you and/or your partner."

categories: (0) respondents whose reports match, and (1) respondents whose reports do not match.⁴

In the descriptive analysis I refine the categorization of reporting gaps by distinguishing between two types: man>woman, where the male partner reports a higher contribution for his partner than she does (e.g., he states that she mostly does the housework, while she reports an equal sharing arrangement); and woman>man, which represents the reverse case where the woman reports a higher personal contribution of unpaid work than her partner.

3.1.2 Independent variables

The educational composition within each couple is determined using the CASMIN classification for both partners, taking the female partner as the reference point.⁵ I categorize couples into five groups: (a) homogamous couples in which both partners have a low or medium level of education, (b) homogamous couples in which both partners have a university degree and thus a high level of education, (c) hypergamous couples in which the female partner possesses a tertiary degree while the male partner has less than tertiary education, (d) hypogamous couples where the male partner holds a tertiary degree while the female partner does not, and (e) heterogamous couples where one partner has a medium educational level and the other one a low level of education.⁶

The working hours constellation within the couple is based on each partner's reported actual working hours, which are capped at 60 hours per week. The weekly working hours of respondents who indicated they were not working, on parental leave, a homemaker, or unemployed were recoded as 0. The working hours constellation is based on the female partner's share of the couple's total working hours. It differentiates between the following categories: (a) only the male partner is working, (b) the woman's share of the couple's total working hours is higher than 0 and less than 50%, and (c) the female partner's share is 50% or more. The absolute working hours of each partner are additionally reported in the sample statistics.

⁴ Technically, the binary indicator's design does not account for the magnitude of the reporting gap; however, only a minor fraction of the couples exhibits deviations exceeding one category, as evident in the cross-tabulations provided in the Tables A-1 to A-7 in the Appendix. In the context of housework, merely 6% of couples demonstrate discrepancies exceeding one category, while for childcare this reduces even further to just 3%.

⁵ Using the CASMIN 1999 classification, I categorize partners as having low education if they have completed lower secondary education, medium education if they have completed upper secondary or non-tertiary post-secondary education, and high education if they have obtained tertiary education.

⁶ Due to limited case numbers within the heterogamous group, I refrain from making further distinctions between hypergamous and hypogamous categories for individuals with low and medium education levels.

The reports of female and male partners are entered into the models separately and summarized in the following categories: (a) ‘mostly by the man’ and ‘completely by the man,’ (b) ‘shared equally,’ (c) ‘mostly by the woman,’ and (d) ‘completely by the woman.’ Further control variables are residence (East/West Germany), partnership status (cohabiting/married), and the duration of the relationship (in years). To assess the variation in the reporting gap during the transition to parenthood, I categorized the time around first childbirth into different time periods. This categorization was determined by calculating the time difference between the month-year date of the interview and the month-year date of the first childbirth. The identified time intervals around childbirth are 1–12 months before birth, 0–12 months after birth, 13–24 months after birth, and 25–36 months after birth.

3.1.3 Sample

As shown in Table 1, in around 36% of the couples, both partners have no tertiary degree. In 29% of the couples, both partners have a high educational level. In 13% of the couples, the male partner possesses a tertiary degree while the female partner does not, and in 14% the situation is the reverse. Around 8% of the couples are heterogamous, with one partner having a medium level of education and the other being low-educated.

For the female partners, the average weekly working hours across the transition to parenthood amount to 18 hours. By contrast, on average men work 42 hours, representing full-time employment. This pattern is further evident in the relative measure, revealing that in 44% of couples only the male partner is working, whereas in 37% of the couples the female partner’s share of the total work hours is higher than 0 but less than 50%, and in only 19% of the couples does the female partner contribute 50% or more to the couple’s total work volume.⁷ Twenty-seven percent of the couples reside in East Germany. Most of the sample (70%) are married, with an average relationship duration of 8.5 years.

⁷ Given the gendered labor market participation during the transition to parenthood, Table A–8 in the Appendix presents the working hours indicators at various time points (from 12 months before the birth of the first child to 36 months after). Men consistently maintain full-time employment, whereas women experience a decline in weekly working hours, from 33 hours pre-birth to 3 hours in the birth year. Two years after the birth, women work an average of 20 hours per week.

Table 1: Sample characteristics, column %

		%
Education		
	Homogamy: low and medium	35.8%
	Homogamy: high	28.6%
	Hypergamy: high	14.3%
	Hypogamy: high	13.0%
	Heterogamy: low and medium	8.3%
Working hours		
	Her weekly working hours, mean (sd)	18.4 (18.6)
	His weekly working hours, mean (sd)	42.2 (10.0)
Working hours constellation		
	Only male partner works	44.4%
	Woman contributes less than 50%	37.1%
	Woman contributes 50% or more	18.5%
Region		
	West	73.4%
	East	26.6%
Married		
	No	29.7%
	Yes	70.3%
Relationship duration in years, mean (sd)		8.5 (4.3)
N (couples)		414
N (couple-years) housework		1,473
N (couple-years) childcare		1,036

Source: pairfam, waves 1–14, unweighted own calculations.

3.2 Analytical strategy

First, I present descriptive findings on the division of labor and prevalence of reporting gaps across the transition to parenthood. Second, I offer estimates from pooled logistic regression models,⁸ separately addressing housework (M1A, M2A) and childcare (M1B, M2B) reporting gaps. Each model incorporates specific elements and follows a step-wise approach: The first model for housework and childcare (M1A for housework and M1B

⁸ This approach was selected because my primary interest is obtaining population-averaged coefficients rather than individual-specific coefficients. As a robustness check, I also ran Generalized Estimating Equations (GEE) models, which produced very similar results (see Table A–11 in the Appendix). For the sake of simplicity, I present the results from the more commonly used logistic regression models.

for childcare) includes the educational composition, working hours constellation, and control variables. The second model additionally includes the female partner's perspective on the division of unpaid work (M2A for and M2B). The results for the male partner's perspective on the division of unpaid work are presented in Table A–10 in the Appendix. In all models, cluster robust standard errors were applied to account for the correlation in error terms arising from the repeated observations per couple.

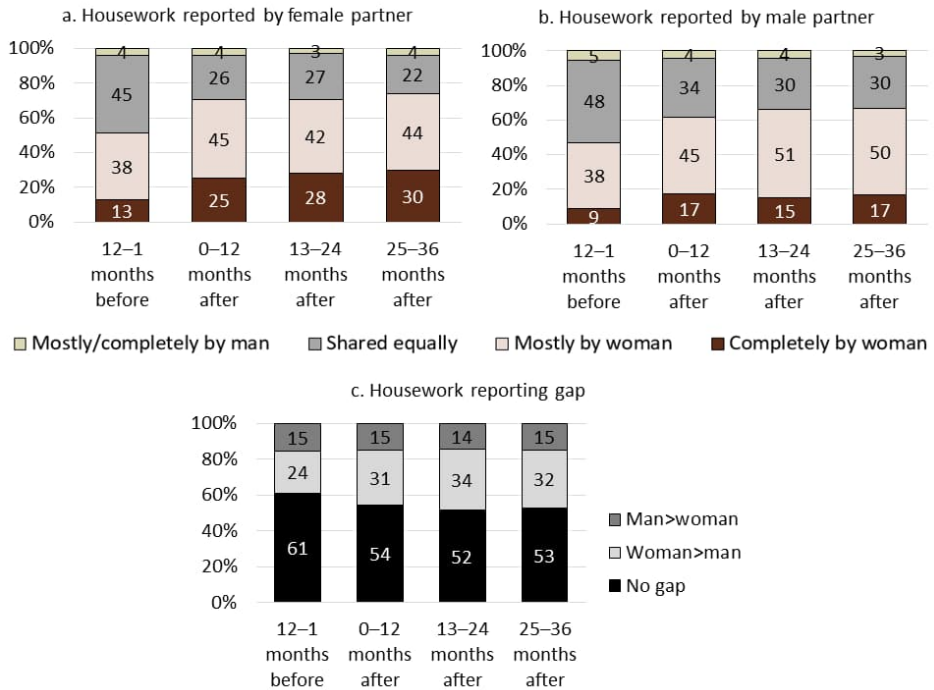
4. Results

4.1 Descriptive results

Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the distribution of housework and childcare and the associated reporting gap over the transition to parenthood. Figure 1 shows that despite women being the primary providers of household duties, most couples initially adopt a relatively equal distribution of housework chores in the year leading up to childbirth, with approximately 45% reporting an equitable split. This initial arrangement undergoes a substantial shift 0–12 months after the birth, as roughly 66% of couples indicate that the female partner becomes primarily responsible for household tasks.

Additionally, the proportion of couples reporting a housework gap fluctuates during the transition to parenthood. The highest consensus on the housework distribution is observed 1–12 months before the childbirth, with 61% of couples agreeing. However, this proportion drops by 7 percentage points in the year of childbirth. The rise in couples experiencing a reporting gap in household responsibilities is predominantly associated with cases where the female partner reports contributing more than the male counterpart acknowledges (woman>man). Additional cross-tabulations (Tables A–1 to A–4) in the Appendix reveal that the highest incidence of discrepancies in the year before the birth of the first child occurs when the female partner states that she mostly does the housework, while the male partner reports that they share housework tasks equally (10%). However, in the year of the birth and the two following years, the highest share of couples reporting gaps exhibit the pattern where she states that she does all the housework, while he reports that she mostly does the housework (14% in the year of childbirth, 18% in the year and two years after).

Figure 1: Division of housework and the housework reporting gap across the transition to parenthood

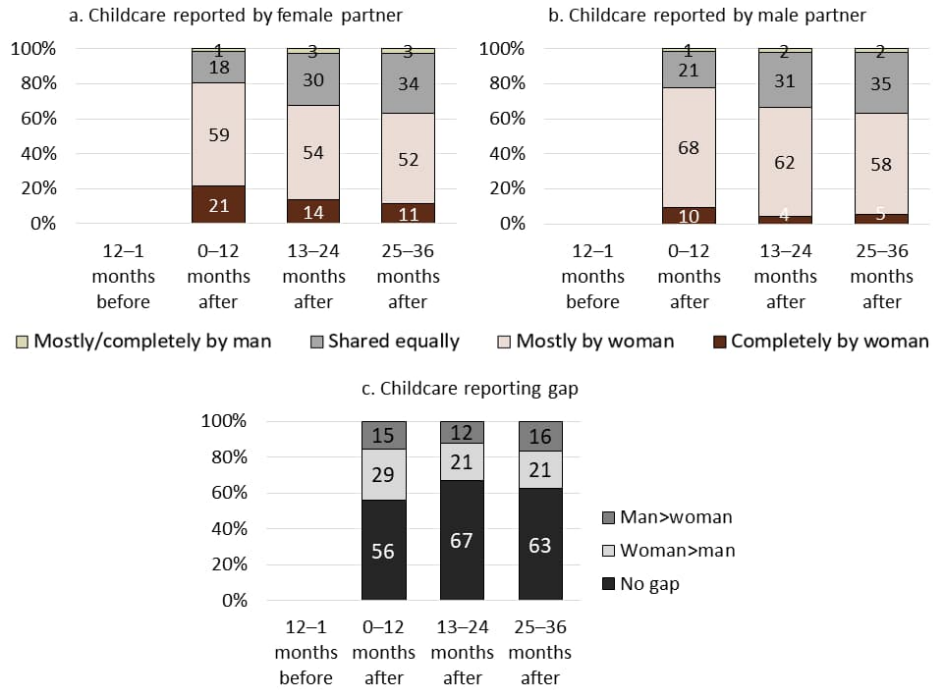


Source: pairfam, waves 1–14, unweighted own calculations.

Note: The categories 'mostly by man' and 'completely by men' were summarized into one category.

Figure 2 shows the division of childcare and the corresponding reporting gaps in childcare. Notably, 0–12 months after the childbirth, approximately 80% of couples report that the mother assumes a greater share of the childcare than the father. In contrast to the division of housework, where the proportion of couples sharing household duties equally diminishes two years after birth, the division of childcare exhibits a different trend. The percentage of couples sharing childcare responsibilities increases from 20% in the year of childbirth to 35% two years after the birth of their first child. Concurrently, the percentage of couples exhibiting a childcare reporting gap also decreases, transitioning from 44% 0–12 months after the child's birth to 37% 25–36 months afterwards.

Figure 2: Division of childcare and the childcare reporting gap across the transition to parenthood



Source: pairfam, waves 1–14, unweighted own calculations.
 Note: The categories ‘mostly by man’ and ‘completely by men’ were summarized into one category.

Tables A–5 to A–7 in the Appendix present cross-tabulations offering additional insights into the reports provided by female and male partners. Consistent with housework patterns, these tables reveal that the highest incidence of discrepancies emerges when the female partner reports responsibility for (almost) all childcare, while the male partner reports that she mostly handles childcare duties (17% 0–12 months after childbirth, 10% 13–24 months after childbirth). However, 25–36 months post-childbirth, the combination with the highest proportion of couples exhibiting a reporting gap is when she indicates that the couple shares childcare equally, and her male partner reports that she predominantly manages childcare duties (11%).

4.2 Multiple regression results

4.2.1 Housework reporting gap

The odds ratios for the housework and childcare reporting gaps are presented in Table 2. The findings regarding the housework reporting gap reveal a notable association with the educational composition within the couple. However, contrary to the initial first hypothesis that proposed that homogamous couples would be less likely to exhibit a reporting gap, the regression results show that hypergamous couples – characterized by the female partner holding a tertiary degree while the male partner does not – display lower odds ratios of experiencing a reporting gap than homogamous couples where both partners are low- or medium-educated.

The second hypothesis, proposing that homogamous couples with a higher educational level are less prone to reporting divergent accounts of unpaid work, aligns with the observed results. In contrast to couples where neither partner holds a tertiary degree, those with both partners possessing a high level of education exhibit substantially lower odds (0.6 in M1A and 0.7 in M2A) of reporting divergent housework arrangements.

The working hours constellation within the couple shows no clear relationship with the housework reporting gap, as the direction changes depending on whether the female partner's reports of the division of housework are included. For example, in Model M1A, when the female partner contributes to the couple's working hours by 50% or more, the odds ratios for a housework reporting gap are lower than for couples where only the male partner is working. However, when incorporating the female partner's perspective on the division of labor in Model M2A, higher odds for a reporting gap in housework are observed when the female partner's share of the total couple's working hours is higher than 0. Consequently, Hypothesis 3 finds no support in the results.

Model M2A incorporates reports on the division of housework from the female partner's perspective. This analysis reveals that when the female partner reports an arrangement where one partner contributes more than the other, the odds of encountering a reporting gap are higher than in situations where housework is equally shared. For example, if she reports being solely responsible for housework, the odds of discrepancies in the reports are almost five times higher compared to instances where housework is evenly distributed. Hypothesis 4a can be supported as the null hypothesis, indicating that no differences in the level of housework share can be rejected. Additional analysis in Table A-10 of the Appendix includes the male partners' views on the division of housework. Results show a similar pattern to when the female partners' reports are included; however, the null hypothesis can only be refuted when he states that his contribution is higher than hers.

Table 2: Logistic regression models for the housework and childcare reporting gaps, odds ratios, confidence intervals in brackets

	Housework reporting gap		Childcare reporting gap	
	M1A	M2A	M1B	M2B
Education				
Homogamy: low and medium	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.
Homogamy: high	0.63 [0.49,0.82]	0.71 [0.54,0.94]	0.81 [0.58,1.12]	0.68 [0.47,0.99]
Hypergamy: high	0.73 [0.52,1.01]	0.77 [0.54,1.09]	1.08 [0.73,1.61]	1.02 [0.65,1.58]
Hypogamy: high	0.81 [0.58,1.13]	0.75 [0.52,1.06]	1.64 [1.09,2.46]	1.42 [0.90,2.23]
Heterogamy: low and medium	0.95 [0.64,1.42]	0.85 [0.55,1.29]	1.17 [0.74,1.87]	0.94 [0.54,1.61]
Working hours constellation				
Only male partner works	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.
Woman contributes less than 50%	0.85 [0.65,1.13]	1.02 [0.76,1.37]	0.82 [0.59,1.15]	0.98 [0.67,1.43]
Woman contributes 50% or more	0.79 [0.57,1.10]	1.00 [0.70,1.43]	0.76 [0.47,1.22]	0.64 [0.35,1.17]
Female partners' reports				
Mostly/completely by man		7.02 [3.68,13.39]		3.18 [1.29,7.85]
50/50		Ref.		Ref.
Mostly by woman		1.55 [1.19,2.03]		0.51 [0.35,0.74]
Completely by woman		4.88 [3.52,6.75]		10.78 [6.16,18.87]
Time before/after childbirth				
1–12 months before childbirth	0.86 [0.62,1.20]	0.91 [0.64,1.28]		
0–12 months after childbirth	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.
13–24 months after childbirth	1.24 [0.90,1.71]	1.13 [0.81,1.59]	0.69 [0.49,0.97]	0.67 [0.46,0.97]
25–36 months after childbirth	1.24 [0.87,1.76]	1.03 [0.71,1.50]	0.88 [0.61,1.28]	0.93 [0.61,1.41]
<i>N</i>	1,473	1,473	1,036	1,036

Source: pairfam, waves 1–14, own estimations.

Note: Regression models further control for marital status, region (West vs. East Germany), and relationship duration. Full regression results are displayed in Table A–9 in the Appendix.

4.2.2 Childcare reporting gap

The models with childcare reporting gaps (M1B and M2B in Table 2) reveal a distinct association between the educational composition within couples and childcare responsibilities, compared to housework. Hypergamous and hypogamous couples exhibit higher odds of experiencing a reporting gap, albeit with wide confidence intervals that include the value 1. This observed pattern aligns with power and bargaining theories, suggesting that couples with divergent resource levels are more prone to report mismatching childcare responsibilities. Similar to housework reporting gaps, homogamous couples with both partners possessing tertiary degrees have lower odds of reporting childcare disparities than couples without a tertiary degree. The rejection of the null hypothesis occurs at a 0.05-alpha level in M2B.

The working hours constellation indicates that if the female partner's share of the couple's total working hours is higher than 0, equal to 50%, or higher than 50%, the odds of a reporting gap in childcare decrease. However, it is essential to note that the confidence intervals are wide and encompass the value 1. Consequently, the data does not substantiate Hypothesis 3, which is rejected.

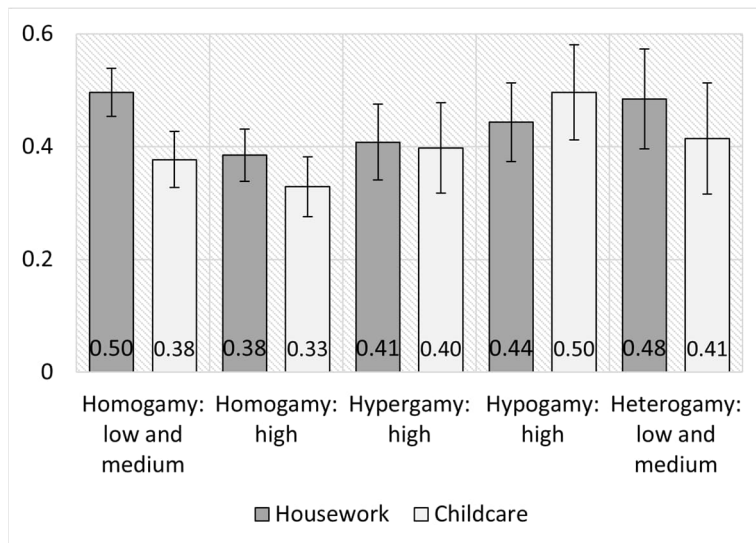
Model M2B adds the female partners' reports on the division of childcare. When the female partner indicates that she completely assumes childcare responsibilities, the odds of a reporting gap increase nearly tenfold compared to situations where childcare is shared equally. Higher odds ratios are also observed when the male partner assumes a larger role than an equal split. However, the odds are lower than the reference category when she states that she mostly manages childcare. This pattern persists when considering the father's reports, as detailed in Table A-10 in the Appendix. The null hypothesis is rejected at a 0.01 alpha level for the men's views and a 0.001 alpha level for the models, including the female partners' perspectives.

4.2.3 Educational constellation

To emphasize and discuss the variations in the likelihood of housework and childcare reporting gaps based on the educational constellation, Figure 3 visually presents the average predicted probabilities for these gaps. While differences in the predicted probabilities of housework and childcare reporting gaps were not anticipated, they do diverge based on the educational configuration within the couple. In the context of the housework reporting gap, homogamous couples with low or medium educational levels exhibit the highest probability at 50%. Contrarily, hypogamous couples where the man has a tertiary degree and the woman does not show a predicted probability of 44%, and 41% for hypergamous couples. Homogamous couples, where both partners hold tertiary

degrees, have an even lower predicted probability of 38% for a housework reporting gap. Thus, the first hypothesis has to be rejected for the housework reporting gap but finds some support for the childcare reporting gap. Heterogamous couples, particularly those where the man has a tertiary degree and the woman does not, have a higher predicted probability of 50% compared to homogamous couples (38% without a tertiary degree and 33% with a tertiary degree).

Figure 3: Average predicted probabilities from logit model for a reporting gap in housework and childcare



Source: pairfam, waves 1–14, own estimations.

Note: The predicted probabilities are derived from M1A and M1B. Further control variables are working hours constellation, marital status, region (West vs. East Germany), time around childbirth, and relationship duration. Confidence intervals at 95%.

The heightened predicted probability of a childcare reporting gap in hypogamous couples aligns well with the concept of social norms. In this context, highly educated fathers may be more influenced by the ‘involved father’ ideal, leading them to potentially report the division of childcare in accordance with these expectations.

The second hypothesis states that the level of education is linked to the reporting gap, suggesting that homogamous couples with an academic degree have a lower probability of experiencing a reporting gap. Indeed, couples without a tertiary degree have a predicted probability of 50% for a housework reporting gap, which decreases to 38% when both partners hold a tertiary degree. A similar trend is observed for the reporting gap in childcare: Homogamous couples without a tertiary degree have a

predicted probability of 38%, and those with a tertiary degree have a lower probability of 33%. This observation reinforces the notion of prevailing social norms or parenting ideals, which are particularly prominent among highly educated respondents.

5. Discussion

This study contributes to the understanding of discrepancies in partners' reports of childcare and housework during the transition to parenthood, employing a dyadic analysis to explore the associations with sociodemographic factors in the German context. The key finding of this analysis is the existence of substantial reporting gaps in housework (45%) and childcare (38%) during the transition to parenthood. It is crucial to emphasize that these variations are not randomly distributed, countering the assumption proposed by Quarm (1981) and Granbois and Willett (1970) that reporting gaps occur randomly. Instead, the findings align with previous studies identifying discernible patterns (Kamo 2000; Mikelson 2008; Tao 2013). The results of this study reveal that reporting gaps in childcare and housework are contingent upon the couple's educational composition and the female partner's reported contribution to unpaid work. Notably, the observed patterns of housework and childcare are different, underscoring the longstanding practice of analyzing these domains separately (Perry-Jenkins and Gerstel 2020).

This study specifically centered on the life course period of the transition to parenthood, marked by numerous changes in the daily lives of couples. A consistent trend emerges in both housework and childcare reporting gaps: Couples where both partners hold a tertiary degree exhibit the lowest likelihood of discrepancies in their reports. This finding supports the hypothesis that homogamous couples with a higher level of education tend to align more closely in their responses, reflecting an awareness of prevailing social norms. While existing research on education's impact on reporting gaps has yielded mixed results, this study indicates a correlation between higher educational levels and reduced reporting gaps, aligning with Kamo's results (2000). This study goes beyond prior research by considering the educational constellation within couples, revealing distinct patterns for childcare and housework. An intriguing pattern surfaces for childcare: When the father has a tertiary degree and the mother does not, the couple exhibits a predicted 50% probability of a reporting gap, the highest among all groups. Although this may suggest that differences in relative resources contribute to reporting gaps, this interpretation is challenged by the finding that when the mother has more education than the father the predicted probabilities are not higher than those for homogamous couples. An alternative explanation posits that highly educated fathers may be more attuned to the evolving roles of 'new involved fatherhood,' potentially influencing reporting gaps. By contrast, for housework reporting gaps, the predicted

probabilities are highest for homogamous couples without a tertiary degree, contradicting the notion that education-level imbalances within couples are compensated by overreporting or underreporting by one partner.

The outcomes revealed no substantial association between the working hours constellation within the couple and reporting gaps for either childcare or housework. This aligns with the broader body of research, which has also found no correlation between employment status and reporting gaps (Bryant et al. 2003; Charles et al. 2018; Kamo 2000). While Coley and Morris (2002) have suggested that employment is linked to a wider gap in childcare, the results of this study, coupled with previous null findings, emphasize that labor market participation alone does not elucidate reporting gaps in couples. Thus, the perspectives of relative resources or bargaining theories do not seem to offer substantial explanatory factors in this context.

Furthermore, I posited that the division of unpaid work itself is linked to the reporting gap, as social norms inform what is considered a socially desirable division. Regarding housework, the results reveal that if the female partner reports an uneven contribution where one partner surpasses the other, the couple exhibits higher odds ratios than in scenarios where the couple shares responsibilities equally, reflecting egalitarian housework norms. In the realm of childcare, I argued that a norm emphasizing mothers' primary responsibility with active father involvement is prevalent, which was also substantiated by the results. Overall, the findings align with the notion that deviations from normative standards elevate the odds of reporting gaps. It is crucial to highlight that childcare and housework operate differently, highlighting the importance of distinct exploration of and differentiation between reporting gaps in the two domains.

This study is subject to several limitations. First, the relatively small sample size constrains the ability to further differentiate the working hours constellation or level of education and imposes limitations on the inclusion of additional control variables in the regression analysis. While this study offers initial evidence suggesting an association between reporting gaps during the transition to parenthood and the educational composition of couples, these findings should be validated within a larger sample to enhance generalizability.

Another limitation is the measuring of the division of labor by categorizing it into five groups, which may restrict a more nuanced description of mismatches in comparison to time-use studies, and potentially lead to an underestimation of reporting gaps. The reporting gaps in childcare and housework were examined separately, acknowledging scholarly insights that distinct logics underlie how couples divide these responsibilities (Perry-Jenkins and Gerstel 2020). The results show that factors such as education and the level of division exhibit different patterns for childcare and housework. While this finding is meaningful, it calls for broader investigation to, first, explore the potential connections between reporting gaps in childcare and housework and, second, delve deeper into the

variations between the reporting gaps in housework and childcare to create a more nuanced understanding of the dynamics within couples regarding the reporting of these two crucial domains.

The analyzed sample may suffer from selectivity, as about half of the partners engage in the survey (Schröder et al. 2012), and participation during the transition to parenthood might pose challenges. Consequently, the couples that discontinue their involvement in the survey during this specific life course transition may be facing heightened challenges in the division of unpaid work, potentially grappling with new challenges and therefore opting out. Stated differently, the couples that participate in the survey during this transitional phase might be faring better, possibly contributing to underestimating the prevalence of couples exhibiting reporting gaps. Another factor potentially influencing the presence of reporting gaps is the drop-off logic of the partner interview. The variation in survey modes between anchor and partner interviews could be a source of reporting gaps. Therefore, caution is advisable when interpreting the results, recognizing the potential impact of survey dynamics on the observed reporting gaps.

While research on the reporting gap exists, prior studies have often lacked a solid theoretical foundation. In this paper, as an initial theoretical foundation I have introduced ideas and arguments grounded in theories of the division of labor. Hypotheses derived from relative resource or bargaining theories, despite initial expectations, do not find support in the data. However, social norms appear as a more promising theoretical framework, particularly in the phase of the transition to parenthood. A potential avenue for further exploration involves a more explicit focus on the normative dimension, investigating how norms and social desirability may shape reporting gaps. Another consideration entails exploring the notion of an “egocentric bias” (Ross and Sicoly 1979) in response behavior. Theorizing under which conditions couples might exhibit favoritism toward each other is another avenue for further research (see, for instance, Deutsch, Lozy, and Saxon 1993).

This paper specifically focuses on the transition to parenthood as a crucial life course stage when the division of labor changes drastically, accompanied by numerous other adjustments. However, there are other critical life course transitions where reporting gaps may also be found, presenting important implications for future research. Beyond changes in labor market participation, such as unemployment or shifts in working hours, other phases, such as children leaving the household (Schulz and Raab 2023) or transitioning to retirement (Leopold and Skopek 2015), could also be examined for reporting gaps in unpaid work.

In contrast to previous studies predominantly conducted in the United States and Canada, this research contributes a distinctive perspective by presenting evidence from the German context. The German setting is not only novel compared to prior literature

but is also intriguing due to the country's ambivalent family policies and the gendered labor market participation of new mothers and fathers. The complexities of the German context make it particularly relevant to understanding social desirability and norms, which potentially act as significant drivers of the reporting gap among couples. While unraveling the reporting gap in a cross-national comparative study holds promise, the challenge lies in the scarcity of the necessary dyadic data. Nevertheless, such an exploration could illuminate how reporting gaps are shaped by the interplay of cultural, policy, and individual factors.

6. Acknowledgements

I would like to sincerely thank Michaela Kreyenfeld and Heike Trappe for their thoughtful comments on earlier drafts of this paper and their support throughout the process. I am also grateful to my former colleagues at RTG DYNAMICS and my current colleagues at the University of Rostock for their helpful feedback and support. Special thanks to Stefania Molina and Annegret Gawron for reviewing the code.

This paper uses data from the German Family Panel pairfam, coordinated by Josef Brüderl, Sonja Drobnič, Karsten Hank, Johannes Huinink, Bernhard Nauck, Franz J. Neyer, and Sabine Walper. From 2004 to 2022 the German Research Foundation (DFG) funded pairfam as priority program and long-term project.

This research was funded by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation) [390285477/GRK 2458].

References

- Bauernschuster, S. and Rainer, H. (2012). Political regimes and the family: How sex-role attitudes continue to differ in reunified Germany. *Journal of Population Economics* 25(1): 5–27. doi:10.1007/s00148-011-0370-z.
- Bianchi, S.M., Milkie, M.A., Sayer, L.C., and Robinson, J.P. (2000). Is anyone doing the housework? Trends in the gender division of household labor. *Social Forces* 79(1): 191–228. doi:10.2307/2675569.
- Bielby, W.T. and Bielby, D.D. (1989). Family ties: Balancing commitments to work and family in dual earner households. *American Sociological Review* 54(5): 776–789. doi:10.2307/2117753.
- Blood Jr, R.O. and Wolfe, D.M. (1960). *Husbands and wives: The dynamics of family living*. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press.
- Bonke, J. (2005). Paid work and unpaid work: Diary information versus questionnaire information. *Social Indicators Research* 70(3): 349–368. doi:10.1007/s11205-004-1547-6.
- Brines, J. (1993). The exchange value of housework. *Rationality and Society* 5(3): 302–340. doi:10.1177/1043463193005003003.
- Brix, J., Wich, P., and Schneekloth, U. (2020). Beziehungen und Familienleben in Deutschland (pairfam). Methodenbericht. Welle 11 (2018 / 2019) – Teil 1: Panelbefragung. München: Kantar. https://www.pairfam.de/fileadmin/user_upload/redakteur/publis/Dokumentation/Methodenberichte/Methodenbericht%20C%20pairfam%20Welle%2011%202018-19%20Panel.pdf.
- Brüderl, J., Drobnič, S., Hank, K., Neyer, F.J., Walper, S., Wolf, C., Alt, P., Bauer, I., Böhm, S., Borschel, E., Bozoyan, C., Christmann, P., Edinger, R., Eigenbrodt, F., Garrett, M., Geissler, S., Gonzalez Avilés, T., Gröpler, N., Gummer, T., Hajek, K., Herzig, M., Lorenz, R., Lutz, K., Peter, T., Preetz, R., Reim, J., Sawatzki, B., Schmiedeberg, C., Schütze, P., Schumann, N., Thönnissen, C., Timmermann, K., and Wetzel, M. (2023). Beziehungs- und Familienpanel (pairfam). Cologne: GESIS. doi:10.4232/pairfam.5678.14.0.0.
- Bryant, W.K., Kang, H., Zick, C.D., and Chan, A.Y. (2003). His and hers: Evaluating husbands' reports of wives' housework. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal* 32(1): 8–26. doi:10.1177/1077727X03255898.

- Büchau, S., Schober, P.S., and Becker, D. (2023). Couples' communication behaviour and the gender division of family work across the transition to parenthood. *Journal of Family Issues* 44(4): 909–929. doi:10.1177/0192513X211055111.
- Bünning, M. (2015). What happens after the 'daddy months'? Fathers' involvement in paid work, childcare, and housework after taking parental leave in Germany. *European Sociological Review* 31(6): 738–748. doi:10.1093/esr/jcv072.
- Carrasco, C. and Domínguez, M. (2015). Measured time, perceived time: A gender bias. *Time and Society* 24(3): 326–347. doi:10.1177/0961463X14538917.
- Charles, P., Spielfogel, J., Gorman-Smith, D., Schoeny, M., Henry, D., and Tolan, P. (2018). Disagreement in parental reports of father involvement. *Journal of Family Issues* 39(2): 328–351. doi:10.1177/0192513X16644639.
- Coley, R.L. and Morris, J.E. (2002). Comparing father and mother reports of father involvement among low-income minority families. *Journal of Marriage and Family* 64(4): 982–997. doi:10.1111/j.1741-3737.2002.00982.x.
- Coverman, S. (1985). Explaining husbands' participation in domestic labor. *Sociological Quarterly* 26(1): 81–97. doi:10.1111/j.1533-8525.1985.tb00217.x.
- Daly, M. (2011). What adult worker model? A critical look at recent social policy reform in Europe from a gender and family perspective. *Social Politics* 18(1): 1–23. doi:10.1093/sp/jxr002.
- Deutsch, F.M., Lozy, J.L., and Saxon, S. (1993). Taking credit: Couples' reports of contributions to child care. *Journal of Family Issues* 14(3): 421–437. doi:10.1177/019251393014003005.
- Doss, B.D., Rhoades, G.K., Stanley, S.M., and Markman, H.J. (2009). The effect of the transition to parenthood on relationship quality: An 8-year prospective study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 96(3): 601–619. doi:10.1037/a0013969.
- Düval, S. (2023). Do men and women really have different gender role attitudes? Experimental insight on gender-specific attitudes toward paid and unpaid work in Germany. *Social Science Research* 112: 102804. doi:10.1016/j.ssresearch.2022.102804.
- Edlund, J. and Öun, I. (2016). Who should work and who should care? Attitudes towards the desirable division of labour between mothers and fathers in five European countries. *Acta Sociologica* 59(2): 151–169. doi:10.1177/0001699316631024.

- Esping-Andersen, G. (1990). *The three worlds of welfare capitalism*. Princeton, NJ.: Princeton University Press.
- Fleckenstein, T. (2011). The politics of ideas in welfare state transformation: Christian democracy and the reform of family policy in Germany. *Social Politics* 18(4): 543–571. doi:10.1093/sp/jxr022.
- Gangl, M. and Ziefle, A. (2015). The making of a good woman: Extended parental leave entitlements and mothers' work commitment in Germany. *American Journal of Sociology* 121(2): 511–563. doi:10.1086/682419.
- Granbois, D.H. and Willett, R.P. (1970). Equivalence of family role measures based on husband and wife data. *Journal of Marriage and Family* 32(1): 68–72. doi:10.2307/349973.
- Greenstein, T.N. (1996). Husbands' participation in domestic labor: Interactive effects of wives' and husbands' gender ideologies. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 58(3): 585–595. doi:10.2307/353719.
- Grunow, D. and Baur, N. (2014). The association between norms and actions the case of men's participation in housework. *Comparative Population Studies* 39(3): 521–558. doi:10.12765/CPoS-2014-10.
- Grunow, D., Schulz, F., and Blossfeld, H.-P. (2012). What determines change in the division of housework over the course of marriage? *International Sociology* 27(3): 289–307. doi:10.1177/0268580911423056.
- Hofmeister, H. and Baur, N. (2015). The idealization of the 'new father' and 'reversed roles father' in Germany. *Family Science* 6(1): 243–258. doi:10.1080/19424620.2015.1082801.
- Huinink, J., Brüderl, J., Nauck, B., Walper, S., Castiglioni, L., and Feldhaus, M. (2011). Panel analysis of intimate relationships and family dynamics (pairfam): Conceptual framework and design. *Zeitschrift für Familienforschung* 23(1): 77–101. doi:10.20377/jfr-235.
- Kamo, Y. (2000). 'He said, she said': Assessing discrepancies in husbands' and wives' reports on the division of household labor. *Social Science Research* 29(4): 459–476. doi:10.1006/ssre.2000.0674.
- Kan, M.Y. (2008). Measuring housework participation: The gap between 'stylised' questionnaire estimates and diary-based estimates. *Social Indicators Research* 86(3): 381–400. doi:10.1007/s11205-007-9184-5.

- Kluwer, E.S. (2010). From partnership to parenthood: A review of marital change across the transition to parenthood. *Journal of Family Theory and Review* 2(2): 105–125. doi:10.1111/j.1756-2589.2010.00045.x.
- Kluwer, E.S. and Johnson, M.D. (2007). Conflict frequency and relationship quality across the transition to parenthood. *Journal of Marriage and Family* 69(5): 1089–1106. doi:10.1111/j.1741-3737.2007.00434.x.
- Kühhirt, M. (2012). Childbirth and the long-term division of labour within couples: How do substitution, bargaining power, and norms affect parents' time allocation in West Germany? *European Sociological Review* 28(5): 565–582. doi:10.1093/esr/jcr026.
- Leopold, T. and Skopek, J. (2015). Convergence or continuity? The gender gap in household labor after retirement. *Journal of Marriage and Family* 77(4): 819–832. doi:10.1111/jomf.12199.
- Mikelson, K.S. (2008). He said, she said: Comparing mother and father reports of father involvement. *Journal of Marriage and Family* 70(3): 613–624. doi:10.1111/j.1741-3737.2008.00509.x.
- Mitnick, D.M., Heyman, R.E., and Smith Slep, A.M. (2009). Changes in relationship satisfaction across the transition to parenthood: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Family Psychology* 23(6): 848–852. doi:10.1037/a0017004.
- Ott, N. (2012). *Intrafamily bargaining and household decisions*. Berlin: Springer Science and Business Media.
- Parsons, L., Howes, A., Jones, C.A., and Surtees, A.D. (2023). Changes in parental sleep from pregnancy to postpartum: A meta-analytic review of actigraphy studies. *Sleep Medicine Reviews* 68: 101719. doi:10.1016/j.smrv.2022.101719.
- Perry-Jenkins, M. and Gerstel, N. (2020). Work and family in the second decade of the 21st century. *Journal of Marriage and Family* 82(1): 420–453. doi:10.1111/jomf.12636.
- Pfahl, S., Unrau, E., and Wittmann, M. (2023). Teilzeitquoten nach Elternschaft und Alter des jüngsten Kindes 2021. (WSI-GenderDatenPortal). Düsseldorf: WSI. https://www.wsi.de/data/wsi_gdp_ze-teilzeit-03.pdf.
- Pfau-Effinger, B. (1998). Gender cultures and the gender arrangement: A theoretical framework for cross-national gender research. *Innovation: The European Journal of Social Science Research* 11(2): 147–166. doi:10.1080/13511610.1998.9968559.

- Press, J.E. and Townsley, E. (1998). Wives' and husbands' housework reporting: gender, class, and social desirability. *Gender and Society* 12(2): 188–218. doi:10.1177/089124398012002005.
- Quarm, D. (1981). Random measurement error as a source of discrepancies between the reports of wives and husbands concerning marital power and task allocation. *Journal of Marriage and Family* 43(3): 521–535. doi:10.2307/351754.
- Ross, M. and Sicol, F. (1979). Egocentric biases in availability and attribution. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 37(3): 322–336. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.37.3.322.
- Samtleben, C., Lott, Y., and Müller, K.-U. (2020). Auswirkungen der Ort-Zeit-Flexibilisierung von Erwerbsarbeit auf informelle Sorgearbeit im Zuge der Digitalisierung. Expertise für den Dritten Gleichstellungsbericht der Bundesregierung. Berlin: DIW. <https://www.bmfsfj.de/resource/blob/227416/ce4f393b152069ebd345e6aeb4cc2edf/samtleben-claire-lott-yvonne-mueller-kaiuwe-auswirkungen-der-ort-zeit-flexibilisierung-von-erwerbsarbeit-auf-informelle-sorgearbeit-im-zuge-der-digitalisierung-data.pdf>.
- Schneider, N.F., Diabaté, S., and Ruckdeschel, K. (2015). *Familienleitbilder in Deutschland: Kulturelle Vorstellungen zu Partnerschaft, Elternschaft und Familienleben*. Leverkusen: Verlag Barbara Budrich. doi:10.3224/84740663.
- Schröder, J. and Schmiedeberg, C. (2023). Effects of partner presence during the interview on survey responses: The example of questions concerning the division of household labor. *Sociological Methods and Research* 52(2): 933–955. doi:10.1177/0049124120914938.
- Schröder, J., Castiglioni, L., Brüderl, J., and Krieger, U. (2012). The influence of relationship quality on the participation of secondary respondents: Results from the German Family Panel. *Comparative Population Studies* 37(3–4): 591–614. doi:10.12765/CPoS-2012-07.
- Schulz, F. and Grunow, D. (2012). Comparing diary and survey estimates on time use. *European Sociological Review* 28(5): 622–632. doi:10.1093/esr/jcr030.
- Schulz, F. and Raab, M. (2023). When the last child moves out: Continuity and convergence in spouses' housework time. *Journal of Marriage and Family* 85(1): 305–320. doi:10.1111/jomf.12873.
- Seltzer, J.A. and Brandreth, Y. (1994). What fathers say about involvement with children after separation. *Journal of Family Issues* 15(1): 49–77. doi:10.1177/019251394015001003.

- Sievers, T. (2023). Enabled but not transformed—narratives on parental involvement among first-time mothers and fathers in Germany in the context of parental leave policy design. *Community, Work and Family* 26(3): 356–372. doi:10.1080/13668803.2022.2099248.
- Tao, H.-L. (2013). Informational ambiguity and survey bias: Husbands' and wives' reports on their contribution to their families. *Social Indicators Research* 111(3): 713–724. doi:10.1007/s11205-012-0029-5.
- Trappe, H., Pollmann-Schult, M., and Schmitt, C. (2015). The rise and decline of the male breadwinner model: Institutional underpinnings and future expectations. *European Sociological Review* 31(2): 230–242. doi:10.1093/esr/jcv015.
- Trillingsgaard, T., Baucom, K.J.W., and Heyman, R.E. (2014). Predictors of change in relationship satisfaction during the transition to parenthood. *Family Relations* 63(5): 667–679. doi:10.1111/fare.12089.
- West, C. and Zimmerman, D.H. (1987). Doing gender. *Gender and Society* 1(2): 125–151. doi:10.1177/0891243287001002002.
- Winkler, A.E. (2002). Measuring time use in households with more than one person. *Monthly Labor Review* 125(2): 45–52. <https://www.bls.gov/opub/mlr/2002/02/art3full.pdf>.
- Zoch, G. (2020). Public childcare provision and employment participation of East and West German mothers with different educational backgrounds. *Journal of European Social Policy* 30(3): 370–385. doi:10.1177/0958928719892843.

Appendix

Table A-1: Cross-table of female and male partners' reports of the division of housework 1–12 months before the birth of the first child

		Male partner				
		Completely by woman	Mostly by woman	Shared equally	Mostly by man	Completely by man
Female partner	Completely by woman	3.38	7.66	1.58	0	0
	Mostly by woman	4.50	22.75	10.36	0.45	0.23
	Shared equally	0.68	6.98	33.56	3.15	0.23
	Mostly by man	0.23	0.23	1.58	1.35	0
	Completely by man	0	0.45	0.68	0	0

Source: pairfam, waves 1–14, own estimations.

Table A-2: Cross-table of female and male partners' reports of the division of housework 0–12 months after the birth of the first child

		Male partner				
		Completely by woman	Mostly by woman	Shared equally	Mostly by man	Completely by man
Female partner	Completely by woman	8.74	13.83	2.67	0.24	0
	Mostly by woman	7.28	26.21	10.92	0.49	0
	Shared equally	0.97	3.64	18.69	2.43	0
	Mostly by man	0	0.73	1.21	0.49	0.24
	Completely by man	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.24

Source: pairfam, waves 1–14, own estimations.

Table A-3: Cross-table of female and male partners reports of the division of housework 13–24 months after the birth of the first child

		Male partner				
		Completely by woman	Mostly by woman	Shared equally	Mostly by man	Completely by man
Female partner	Completely by woman	8.81	17.61	1.99	0	0
	Mostly by woman	5.11	25.85	10.80	0.28	0
	Shared equally	1.14	6.82	16.48	2.56	0
	Mostly by man	0.28	0	0.57	0.57	0.57
	Completely by man	0	0.28	0	0.28	0

Source: pairfam, waves 1–14, own estimations.

Table A-4: Cross-table of female and male partners reports of the division of housework 25–36 months after the birth of the first child

		Male partner				
		Completely by woman	Mostly by woman	Shared equally	Mostly by man	Completely by man
Female partner	Completely by woman	9.81	16.60	3.40	0	0
	Mostly by woman	6.04	27.17	10.94	0	0
	Shared equally	0.38	5.66	14.72	1.51	0
	Mostly by man	0	0.75	1.13	0.75	0
	Completely by man	0.38	0	0	0.38	0.38

Source: pairfam, waves 1–14, own estimations.

Table A-5: Cross-table of female and male partners reports of the division of childcare 0–12 months after the birth of the first child

		Male partner				
		Completely by woman	Mostly by woman	Shared equally	Mostly by man	Completely by man
Female partner	Completely by woman	3.13	17.11	1.20	0	0
	Mostly by woman	6.02	42.65	9.88	0.48	0
	Shared equally	0.48	7.71	9.64	0.24	0
	Mostly by man	0	0.24	0.24	0	0
	Completely by man	0	0.24	0	0.24	0.48

Source: pairfam, waves 1–14, own estimations.

Table A-6: Cross-table of female and male partners reports of the division of childcare 13–24 months after the birth the first child

		Male partner				
		Completely by woman	Mostly by woman	Shared equally	Mostly by man	Completely by man
Female partner	Completely by woman	1.41	10.17	1.98	0	0
	Mostly by woman	2.82	43.50	7.91	0	0
	Shared equally	0	8.19	20.90	0.56	0
	Mostly by man	0	0	0.56	1.41	0
	Completely by man	0	0.28	0	0.28	0

Source: pairfam, waves 1–14, own estimations.

Table A-7: Cross-table of female and male partners reports of the division of childcare 25–36 months after the birth of the first child

		Male partner				
		Completely by woman	Mostly by woman	Shared equally	Mostly by man	Completely by man
Female partner	Completely by woman	1.13	9.02	1.13	0	0
	Mostly by woman	3.76	37.59	9.40	1.13	0
	Shared equally	0.38	10.53	22.93	0.38	0
	Mostly by man	0	0	1.50	0.75	0
	Completely by man	0	0.38	0	0	0

Source: pairfam, waves 1–14, own estimations.

Table A-8: Employment indicators across the transition to parenthood

	1–12 months before birth	0–12 months after birth	13–24 months after birth	25–36 months after birth
Working hours	Mean (sd)	Mean (sd)	Mean (sd)	Mean (sd)
Her weekly working hours	33.1 (16.3)	2.9 (9.8)	16.9 (16.1)	19.6 (15.4)
His weekly working hours	42.8 (10.7)	42.2 (10.2)	41.7 (9.7)	41.7 (8.6)
Working hours constellation	%	%	%	%
Only male partner works	16.9	89.3	38.1	29.1
Woman contributes less than 50%	45.5	5.3	48.6	57.3
Woman contributes 50% or more	37.6	5.3	13.3	13.6
N	443	411	351	264

Source: pairfam, waves 1–4, own estimations.

Table A-9: Full logistic regression models for the housework and childcare reporting gaps, odds ratios, confidence intervals in brackets

	Housework reporting gap		Childcare reporting gap	
	M1A	M2A	M1B	M2B
Education				
Homogamy: low and medium	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.
Homogamy: high	0.63 [0.49,0.82]	0.71 [0.54,0.94]	0.81 [0.58,1.12]	0.68 [0.47,0.99]
Hypergamy: high	0.73 [0.52,1.01]	0.77 [0.54,1.09]	1.08 [0.73,1.61]	1.02 [0.65,1.58]
Hypogamy: high	0.81 [0.58,1.13]	0.75 [0.52,1.06]	1.64 [1.09,2.46]	1.42 [0.90,2.23]
Heterogamy: low and medium	0.95 [0.64,1.42]	0.85 [0.55,1.29]	1.17 [0.74,1.87]	0.94 [0.54,1.61]
Working hours constellation				
Only male partner works	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.
Woman contributes less than 50%	0.85 [0.65,1.13]	1.02 [0.76,1.37]	0.82 [0.59,1.15]	0.98 [0.67,1.43]
Woman contributes 50% or more	0.79 [0.57,1.10]	1.00 [0.70,1.43]	0.76 [0.47,1.22]	0.64 [0.35,1.17]
Female partners reports				
Mostly/completely by man		7.02 [3.68,13.39]		3.18 [1.29,7.85]
50/50		Ref.		Ref.
Mostly by woman		1.55 [1.19,2.03]		0.51 [0.35,0.74]
Completely by woman		4.88 [3.52,6.75]		10.78 [6.16,18.87]
Time before/after childbirth				
1–12 months before childbirth	0.86 [0.62,1.20]	0.91 [0.64,1.28]		
0–12 months after childbirth	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.
13–24 months after childbirth	1.24 [0.90,1.71]	1.13 [0.81,1.59]	0.69 [0.49,0.97]	0.67 [0.46,0.97]
25–36 months after childbirth	1.24 [0.87,1.76]	1.03 [0.71,1.50]	0.88 [0.61,1.28]	0.93 [0.61,1.41]
Cohabiting				
Married	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.
West Germany	0.84 [0.65,1.08]	0.80 [0.61,1.05]	0.93 [0.68,1.27]	0.90 [0.63,1.28]
East Germany	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.
Relationship duration in years	0.72 [0.56,0.93]	0.84 [0.65,1.10]	0.79 [0.58,1.08]	0.86 [0.60,1.22]
	1.00 [0.98,1.03]	1.00 [0.97,1.03]	1.00 [0.97,1.03]	1.00 [0.96,1.04]
<i>N</i>	1,473	1,473	1,036	1,036

Source: pairfam, waves 1–14, own estimations.

Table A-10: Logistic regression models including the male partners' perspective on the reporting gaps, odds ratios, confidence intervals in brackets

	Housework reporting gap	Childcare reporting gap
Education		
Homogamy: low and medium	Ref.	Ref.
Homogamy: high	0.65 [0.50,0.85]	0.84 [0.60,1.17]
Hypergamay: high	0.70 [0.50,0.97]	1.08 [0.72,1.61]
Hypogamy: high	0.80 [0.57,1.12]	1.71 [1.13,2.58]
Heterogamy: low and medium	0.98 [0.66,1.46]	1.14 [0.70,1.87]
Working hours constellation		
Only male partner works	Ref.	Ref.
Woman contributes less than 50%	0.85 [0.64,1.12]	0.81 [0.57,1.14]
Woman contributes 50% or more	0.67 [0.47,0.95]	0.58 [0.33,1.03]
Male partners' reports		
Man does more than woman	5.73 [3.08,10.64]	2.09 [0.85,5.11]
Shared equally	Ref.	Ref.
Mostly by woman	1.03 [0.81,1.31]	0.61 [0.44,0.86]
Completely by woman	1.09 [0.77,1.55]	2.46 [1.33,4.54]
Time before/after childbirth		
1–12 months before childbirth	0.90 [0.64,1.26]	
0–12 months after childbirth	Ref.	Ref.
13–24 months after childbirth	1.27 [0.92,1.75]	0.71 [0.51,1.00]
25–36 months after childbirth	1.28 [0.89,1.84]	0.89 [0.61,1.30]
Cohabiting		
Married	Ref. 0.86 [0.66,1.11]	Ref. 0.88 [0.64,1.21]
West Germany		
East Germany	Ref. 0.74 [0.57,0.96]	Ref. 0.76 [0.55,1.04]
Relationship duration in years	1.00 [0.97,1.03]	1.00 [0.97,1.03]
<i>N</i>	1,473	1036

Source: pairfam, waves 1–14, own estimations.

Table A-11: Comparison of logistic regression models and generalized estimation equation models for the housework and childcare reporting gaps, odds ratios, confidence intervals in brackets

	Housework reporting gap		Childcare reporting gap	
	Pooled logistic regression	Generalized estimating equations	Pooled logistic regression	Generalized estimating equations
Education				
Homogamy: low and medium	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.
Homogamy: high	0.71 [0.54,0.94]	0.71 [0.52,0.98]	0.68 [0.47,0.99]	0.68 [0.48,0.97]
Hypergamay: high	0.77 [0.54,1.09]	0.74 [0.51,1.09]	1.02 [0.65,1.58]	1.02 [0.66,1.56]
Hypogamy: high	0.75 [0.52,1.06]	0.72 [0.48,1.08]	1.42 [0.90,2.23]	1.42 [0.85,2.37]
Heterogamy: low and medium	0.85 [0.55,1.29]	0.85 [0.53,1.36]	0.94 [0.54,1.61]	0.94 [0.53,1.65]
Working hours constellation				
Only male partner works	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.
Woman contributes less than 50%	1.02 [0.76,1.37]	1.03 [0.76,1.39]	0.98 [0.67,1.43]	0.98 [0.66,1.45]
Woman contributes 50% or more	1.00 [0.70,1.43]	1.01 [0.70,1.45]	0.64 [0.35,1.17]	0.64 [0.34,1.19]
Female partners' reports				
Mostly/completely by man	7.02 [3.68,13.39]	7.37 [3.76,14.42]	3.18 [1.29,7.85]	3.18 [1.23,8.19]
50/50	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.
Mostly by woman	1.55 [1.19,2.03]	1.60 [1.16,2.22]	0.51 [0.35,0.74]	0.51 [0.34,0.76]
Completely by woman	4.88 [3.52,6.75]	4.76 [3.25,6.97]	10.78 [6.16,18.87]	10.78 [5.88,19.77]
Time before/after childbirth				
1–12 months before childbirth	0.91 [0.64,1.28]	0.90 [0.64,1.25]		
0–12 months after childbirth	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.
13–24 months after childbirth	1.13 [0.81,1.59]	1.13 [0.83,1.55]	0.67 [0.46,0.97]	0.67 [0.46,0.98]
25–36 months after childbirth	1.03 [0.71,1.50]	1.01 [0.70,1.47]	0.93 [0.61,1.41]	0.93 [0.61,1.42]
<i>N</i>	1,473	1,473	1,036	1036

Source: pairfam, waves 1–14, own estimations.

Note: Regression models further control for marital status, region (West vs. East Germany), and relationship duration.

