



Gender Gaps in Subjective Wellbeing

Research Report
Prepared by Claudia Senik

This report was financed by, and prepared for the use of the European Commission, Directorate-General for Justice and Consumers, Unit D2 "Equality between men and women", in the framework of a contract managed by Fondazione Giacomo Brodolini (FGB) in partnership with Istituto per la Ricerca Sociale (IRS).

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Executive summary

In all countries of the world, especially in high-income countries, women declare a higher level of life satisfaction than men when they experience similar conditions (for example, pay and working conditions), but score lower on measures that capture short-term positive and negative emotions, and suffer from higher levels of depression. It is true that the advantage of women in terms of happiness and life satisfaction is not uniform along the life cycle: women are less happy than men before the age of 18, happier than men afterwards and until their fifties, and less happy again thereafter.

The positive gap in life satisfaction is not explained by women's situation on the labour market, their income, education, personality traits or other personal features or living conditions. On the contrary, women would have obvious reasons to be less satisfied with their life and their professional situation than men: they perform longer hours of unpaid work, receive lower wages and are still predominantly clustered into less prestigious occupations. We propose two main explanations for this contrasted picture. The first one is that men and women make different use of their time, especially when they live together. The second one is that they have different expectations.

Our first explanation points to the greater diversity of women's life dimensions. Women are engaged in paid and non-paid work, as well as in a greater array of social relations. If there is something like a taste for diversity, then a wider scope of domains of interest is a source of potentially higher wellbeing. Hence, women's higher life satisfaction may be the outcome of the greater diversification of their time-use. The fact that among the number of activities pursued by women, a large share is pro-social, i.e. other-oriented rather than self-oriented, can also be a relevant element.

However, this larger set of tasks sometimes comes with time-stress and overload, often accompanied with painful multitasking, which explains women's lower level of emotional wellbeing. This is particularly the case when children are in the household. On the contrary, a more equal sharing of housework among spouses attenuates this stress.

The time-stress of women is sometimes due to the compliance to a gender norm in the division of household tasks, what sociologists call "doing gender". As a matter of fact, the number of housework hours performed by men classically declines as their share in the total household income rises, but this is not the case for women. When their contribution to household income rises, women decrease their number of housework hours, but this is only true up to a certain point: as long as they earn less than their partner. Once they reach this point of equal earnings, women's number of housework hours stops falling or increases again! This suggests that in order to comply with gender roles, women who earn as much or more than their husband have to overlay their domestic involvement.

We show, however, that institutions play a role in shaping gender roles. To illustrate this idea, we examine the differences within couples' relationships in East versus

West Germany. During the socialist period, the institutions of East Germany were much more supportive of female participation in the labour market, and this was accompanied by more egalitarian views about gender roles. It appears that even to date, the preferences and attitudes of men and women who live in the former GDR are much more favourable to gender equality than those of couples in the former FRG. In particular, the “doing gender” conjecture is verified in West Germany but not in the East!

Finally, we looked at the modalities of household interactions, and in particular the way they react to disagreements about daily decisions. It appears that when spouses disagree, women experience a greater degree of violence than men. Spouses are more depressed, less satisfied with their relationship, and more likely to break up the more often they disagree about daily decisions and the more aggressively they react to these disagreements, but the negative impact of disagreements is generally more pronounced for women.

The second type of explanation is totally different. It points to the role of expectations. Expectations are the benchmark that people use to evaluate their living conditions. In this framework, if women have lower expectations, partly because of what they learned from their “role models”, then in a given situation, they will be happier and more satisfied with their life than men. We show that there is some truth to this explanation, especially as concerns job satisfaction, where women’s expectations are still lower than men’s, although this gap is somewhat decreasing among the new generations.

The two types of explanations that we propose bear totally different, but compatible, policy implications. The first one suggests that education should try to spread more evenly the type of diversified tastes that are typical of women, because they are obviously more conducive to happiness. Institutions that encourage more equal sharing of household tasks could also alleviate the stress that is sometimes created by this large number of objectives. We have shown that institutions shape people’s preferences and expectations regarding gender roles. This opens an avenue for gender-equality policy, not only aimed at favouring women’s involvement in the labour market, but also at encouraging both men and women to diversify their activities.

The other explanation based on expectations implies that in order to measure gender wellbeing, it is necessary to measure both life satisfaction and emotional wellbeing, the latter being less subject to framing effects and less sensitive to expectations. Collecting both types of subjective measures should help develop and monitor gender equality policies. In addition, measuring at the same time the objective and subjective working and living conditions of men and women will allow understanding possible gender differences in the way men and women experience their living conditions.

Introduction

Objective gender gaps are not generally found to be in the favour of women. On the labour market, although there has been some convergence over the last decades, women participate less, more often in part-time jobs, for lower wages and in less prestigious occupations. In the household, women still do the lion's share of housework. As a result, when the time spent in unpaid care work is taken into account, women have longer working weeks with more multi-tasking than men (Eurofound, 2013). More generally, there are large and persistent gender gaps in many dimensions of wellbeing across the world, such as control over economic resources, education, mortality, access to employment, and power in the public and the private sphere (see Klasen (2004) for a detailed discussion).

One would thus expect this unfavourable situation to lower women's subjective wellbeing. Yet, women appear to be happier and more satisfied with their lives than men are. They also declare a higher level of job satisfaction than men who are working in similar occupations for similar wage levels.

It is true that women fare worse than men in terms of emotional wellbeing; in particular, they are more subject to depression symptoms. To complete the picture, one must mention the "paradox of declining female happiness" (Stevenson and Wolfers, 2009): the traditional gender gap in happiness (in favour of women) tends to shrink since the 1970s, in spite of the type of technological progress, civil liberties and gender-conscious policies that characterize our modern European (and American) societies.

How can one make sense of these paradoxical stylized facts? Is subjective wellbeing a reliable measure or is the positive gender gap in satisfaction just reflecting the lower expectations of women?

This report essentially focuses on the work-family nexus in order to make sense of the paradoxical gender gaps in subjective wellbeing. It considers many possible explanations; among them two are consistent with the available empirical evidence. The first conjecture that this report considers and documents is that women have more diversified preferences. This leads them to a higher level of satisfaction, but also to a higher level of time stress and the ensuing negative emotions. The second one is that women's expectations are lower, which leads them both to a higher level of satisfaction and a greater exposure to depression.

The report focuses on happiness gaps within European countries. However, in some parts, in order to exploit wider institutional variations, it also encompasses broader international evidence.

The plan of the report is as follows. Part I introduces the concepts and data and presents a general picture of gender gaps in subjective wellbeing in Europe, and more generally across the world. Part II examines the potential determinants of the gender gaps in wellbeing. It starts with "unsuccessful" candidates such as education, job characteristics or personality traits. It then focuses on the paid work-housework nexus, i.e. issues related to the division of tasks within the household. It also exami-

nes the role of domestic violence, expectations, and macro determinants related to the institutional environment.

This report is not a survey of the literature. Rather, we produce our own analysis based on the most relevant datasets that cover European countries, such as the *European Social Survey* (ESS) and the *World Values Survey* (WVS), as well as the *Gender and Generation Panel Survey* (GGP) which is dedicated to family relationships. In addition, we refer to the *British Household Panel Survey* (BHPS) and the *German Socio-Economic Panel* (GSOEP).

Part I. Gender gaps in subjective wellbeing: the broad picture

This section documents the gender gap around the world, as of today. It starts with a presentation of the concepts and data sources, and presents the picture of the gender gap in wellbeing.

I.1. Concepts

By definition, subjective wellbeing is individual and unobservable. However, for the last two decades, economists, psychologists and sociologists have endeavoured to measure it by including subjective questions in surveys of the population, whereby people are asked to rate their own happiness, satisfaction or affects. The general view of social scientists about these self-reported measures is that they provide a summary judgment, a sort of shortcut from people's experience to their synthetic feeling of wellbeing.

Of course, one can wonder about the inevitable mood effect of respondents, the likely influence of their personal answering style, as well as desirability biases of various types that will blur the information contained in the answers. However, there is by now a large body of evidence suggesting that subjective wellbeing measures do contain valid information. First, their structure has proven to be very stable across countries and time, which rules out the suspicion that they capture nothing but noise. Variables reflecting marriage, divorce, unemployment, etc. are typically correlated with individuals' subjective wellbeing in the expected direction (Di Tella et al., 2003). If the answers to wellbeing questions were truly random, then no such relationship would be found. Second, Cross-Rater Validity tests have shown that the level of happiness declared by a person is highly correlated with what her friends and family say about her. Another approach to validation consists in relating wellbeing scores to various physiological and neurological measures. It has been shown that answers to wellbeing questions are correlated with facial expressions, such as smiling and frowning, heart rate and blood pressure, as well as digestive disorders and headaches, coronary heart disease and strokes. Research has also looked at physical measures of brain activity using electrodes on the scalp or scanners (see Fließbach et al. (2007) for example). Finally, panel data, where the same individuals are followed over a long period of time, show that those who say that they are dissatisfied with a certain situation at a certain point of time are more likely to take observable action to leave it in the future. This applies to job satisfaction and job quits (Clark et al., 1998), or to marital satisfaction and divorce (Gardner and Oswald, 2006, Guven et al., 2012).

Measures of subjective wellbeing can be divided into three broad classes.

I.1.1. Global cognitive evaluations

The most widespread question is labelled in terms of **life satisfaction**. The European Social Survey and the World Values Survey, for instance, ask: *All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days?: 1 (dissatisfied) ... 10 (very satisfied)*. This question is taken to capture the judgment that persons bear on their lives, hence their past choices. For this reason, it is close to the economic notion of “utility”. But by asking about the quantity of experienced satisfaction, it also contains a more hedonic dimension. A second formulation of the question asks about **happiness**. In the World Values Surveys, the wording is: *If you were to consider your life in general these days, how happy or unhappy would you say you are, on the whole?: 1. Not at all happy; 2. Not very happy; 3. Fairly happy; 4. Very happy*. In the European Social Survey, the happiness question asks respondents to rate their happiness on a 0-10 scale. This formulation is usually considered as capturing a very close concept to life satisfaction, although slightly more emotional and less cognitive. When both questions are asked in the same survey, it turns out that the answers are highly correlated and follow very similar patterns (see Clark and Senik (2011)). The question also sometimes evokes “the ladder of life”, as representing the scope of minimum to maximum possible happiness.

In addition, surveys often also include more precise satisfaction questions pertaining to the different domains of life, such as job satisfaction, financial satisfaction or family satisfaction, often called “**domain satisfaction**”.

I.1.2. Mental health scores

The most widespread measure of mental health is constructed on the basis of the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ), which contains 12 questions (administered via a self-completion questionnaire) covering feelings of strain, depression, inability to cope, anxiety- based insomnia, and lack of confidence, among others. The GHQ is widely used in medical, psychological and sociological research, and is considered to be a robust indicator of the individual’s psychological state. It is part of the BHPS survey. The questions are the following:

Here are some questions regarding the way you have been feeling over the last few weeks. For each question please circle the letter next to the answer that best suits the way you have felt. Have you recently...

- a) *been able to concentrate on whatever you’re doing?*
- b) *lost much sleep over worry?*
- c) *felt constantly under strain?*
- d) *felt you couldn’t overcome your difficulties?*
- e) *been feeling unhappy or depressed?*
- f) *been losing confidence in yourself?*
- g) *been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?*
- h) *felt that you were playing a useful part in things?*
- i) *felt capable of making decisions about things?*

- j) *been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities?*
- k) *been able to face up to problems?*
- l) *been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered?*

Responses are made on a four-point scale of frequency of a feeling in relation to a person's usual state: *Not at all / No more than usual / Rather more than usual / Much more than usual.*

Another close measure of mental health is the **depression** index that is constructed using the eight items from the CES-D (Radloff 1977). The question asks how often in the previous twelve months, or the previous weeks, respondents experienced the following items:

- I could not shake off the blues
- I had trouble keeping my mind on what I was doing
- Everything I did was an effort
- I felt lonely
- I felt sad
- I felt happy
- I slept restlessly
- I could not get going.

Other items are also included, such as:

- I thought my life had been a failure
- I felt fearful
- I felt lonely
- I had crying spells.

Responses are labelled as: *Seldom or never = 1 / Sometimes = 2 / Often = 3 / Most of the time = 4.*

Both scales are considered to have good reliability according to Cronbach (1951) statistics.

As can be seen, these questions ask about the experience of respondents in the past weeks. This is in contrast with the life satisfaction or happiness questions that ask about the general state of the respondent, without any notion of time limitation. The next section presents a third category of questions that is targeted towards even shorter-lived emotions.

1.1.3. Short-run emotional affects

In order to capture the short-run emotional experience of people in their daily activities, social scientists have recourse to the experience sampling method and the day reconstruction method (see Kahneman and Krueger (2006) for a presentation and discussion). These measures are naturally associated with time-use information.

- The *Experience Sampling Method* was developed to collect information on people's reported feelings in real time during selected moments of the day. The objective is to avoid any recollection, memory or other bias. Concretely, participants in experience sampling studies carry a handheld computer that prompts them several times during the course of the day to answer a set of questions immediately. Participants are shown several menus, on which they indicate their physical location, the activities in which they were engaged just before they were prompted, and the people with whom they were interacting. They also report their current subjective experience by indicating the extent to which they feel the presence or absence of various feelings, such as feeling angry, happy, tired and impatient.
- The *Day Reconstruction Method* (DRM) asks respondents to evaluate the emotional quality of different moments of past days. It is also designed in order to facilitate accurate emotional recall. Respondents are first asked to fill out a diary summarizing episodes that occurred in the preceding day. Next they describe each episode by indicating: when the episode began and ended; what they were doing (by selecting activities from a provided list); where they were; and with whom they were interacting. For each episode, respondents are asked to report the intensity of their feelings on a scale from 0 ("Not at all") to 6 ("Very much"). The affective categories are specified by descriptors, mostly adjectives, such as happy, calm, enjoying myself, or worried, sad and angry. See Kahneman et al. (2006) for an illustration.

Box 1. Data and Method

Our analyses are produced on the basis of individual databases. The WVS, the ESS, the BHPS and the GSOEP are among the most widely used datasets in the domain of subjective wellbeing. We also use the GGP, which is focused on the intra-family relationships that we believe are at the centre of the gender gap in subjective wellbeing. The advantage of the BHPS and the GSOEP is that they survey both members of couples. This allows for analysing the interactions between them and the impact on subjective wellbeing. All surveys are described in Appendix A. The descriptive statistics of the main variables of interest are included in Appendix B.

We run estimates of life satisfaction, depression, or other emotional measures using OLS models that treat the aforementioned indicators as continuous (see Ferrer-i-Carbonell and Frijters (2004)).

In almost all of our estimates of subjective wellbeing we control for a set of socio-economic indicators such as age, age squared, education, marital status, employment status, household income, and year and country-fixed effects when relevant. In all of our estimates, we cluster our standard errors at the individual level (for panel data) or at the country level (international data).

For comparability, we have standardized all of the subjective wellbeing measures, subtracting their average value and dividing by their standard deviation, as calculated in the entire regression sample. (This excepts some dummy variables, such as “Intention to break up”, “Wish better job”, “Expect better job”, and “Promotion opportunities”.) Hence, in estimates of SWB measures, all the coefficients must be interpreted in terms of percentage of standard deviation in life satisfaction or other SWB measures.

The gender gap is measured by the coefficient on a gender dummy variable coding 1 for women and 0 for men. We then introduce measures of potential factors contributing to this gender gap. The question is whether this reduces or closes the initial gap, i.e. whether it reduces the magnitude of the aforementioned coefficient, or sets it to zero (or even reverses its sign). If it is the case, this is suggestive that the factor is indeed a good candidate for explaining the gender gap in SWB.

In other specifications, we interact the gender dummy variable with the factor of interest in order to verify whether it affects women more than men. We also sometimes run separate estimates on sub-samples of men and women, when multiple interactions become too difficult to interpret.

I.2. General Findings about the Gender Gap

This section presents the basic facts about the gender gaps in subjective wellbeing, using the different concepts and measures discussed above. The general picture is the following: women declare a higher level of life satisfaction than men. But they score lower on emotional measures. In particular, they suffer from higher levels of depression. This is the case in all countries of the world, especially in high-income countries. However, this gap varies along the life-cycle. We also document a slight decrease in the positive gender gap in life satisfaction during the course of the years 2000s in Europe.

I.2.1. Women are happier and more satisfied with their life

We start with international datasets, i.e. the WVS and the ESS. The general picture that emerges is that women are more satisfied with their lives when they are placed in similar circumstances as men.

Table 1 in Appendix C displays estimates of life satisfaction that include socio-demographic controls; the first column is based on the WVS and the second column is based on the ESS. The coefficient on the “female” dummy variable is positive and statistically significant, which means that women are more satisfied with their life *ceteris paribus* (“everything else equal”). Without controls, the difference is not apparent. For instance, the proportions of men and women who declare a high level of life satisfaction (above 7 on a 0-10 scale) are sensibly similar (about 47% in Europe, as shown by Table ESS.10 in Appendix B).

Hence, women generally live in worse conditions than men, but they are happier when they are placed in the same conditions.

This finding echoes the existing evidence produced by several social scientists using large data sets for the United States, the United Kingdom, and a number of continental European nations. These include *inter alia* Fujita et al. (1991), Oswald (1997), Blanchflower and Oswald (2001), DiTella, MacCulloch, and Oswald (2001), Easterlin (2003), Macelli, Kapteyn et al. (2009), Kahneman and Kruger (2006), Alesina, Di Tella, and MacCulloch (2004), Kapteyn et al. (2009), Boarini et al. (2012). See also the meta-analysis of studies into the gender gap in subjective wellbeing by Wood and Whelan (1989).

I.2.2. But women are more exposed to depression than men

In spite of their higher level of self-declared happiness and life satisfaction, women are more exposed to depression and have lower scores of emotional wellbeing. In Europe, the share of depressive women is 14%, compared to 8% for men (see Table ESS10 in Appendix B). (Depression is defined by a score above 3 on a modified version of the CES-D8 depression scale. The score counts the number of times a respondent chooses the two lower categories when answering the CES-D8 questions.)

Tables 2.A to 2.D, based on the ESS, show the gender bias in depression and other short-term feelings, such as anxiety, calmness and happiness. Estimates displayed in the different columns introduce progressively country-fixed effects, year-fixed effects, basic demographic controls and full demographic controls. The magnitude of the coefficient on the “women” dummy variable remains unchanged.

Tables 2.E and 2.F document the gender gap in SWB by displaying the same estimates of Life satisfaction and Depression within each country of the ESS.

Identically, Table 2.G, based on the BHPS, shows that, with the full set of controls, women have lower mental health scores (based on the GHQ) than men, although they are more satisfied with their life and their job.

In the GGP survey, it also appears that women have a higher score of depression than men (controlling for the same socio-demographic variables).

This negative emotional gap has often been documented (e.g. by Nolen-Hoeksema (1987), Clark and Oswald (1994), Nolen-Hoeksema and Rusting (1999), Costa et al. (2001), Tesch-Römer et al. (2008)). Women also rate their subjective health lower than men (Daalen et al., 2005, UN World Happiness Report, 2013). A similar observation was made by Kahneman and Deaton (2010), based on a daily survey of 1,000 US residents conducted by the Gallup Organization. They found that females report slightly higher positive affect and life evaluation, but also more blue affect and much more stress. Emotional wellbeing was assessed by questions about the various emotions felt “yesterday”, e.g., enjoyment, happiness, anger, sadness, stress, worry. Life evaluation was measured using Cantril’s Self-Anchoring Scale. Using the Gallup World Poll, Boarini et al. (2012) also documented the higher happiness and lower affect balance of women.

These multi-faceted differences in wellbeing, with women scoring higher in terms of longevity and life satisfaction but lower in terms of morbidity and mental health, have been ironically summarized by Amartya Sen (1996) as: “women get sick and men die”. This constitutes the main puzzle that this report tries to explain.

1.2.3. The happiness gap changes over the life cycle

It is true that the advantage of women in terms of happiness and life satisfaction is not uniform along the life cycle. The general picture is thus that women are less happy than men before the age of 18, happier than men afterwards and until their fifties, and less happy again thereafter.

This is illustrated by Tables 3.A to 3.D in Appendix C, built respectively with the WVS and the ESS. The analysis by age groups reveals a gender gap in life satisfaction that starts at the age of 18 and decreases after 50 (Tables 3.A and 3.C). As there are not usually many respondents under 18 years old in surveys such as the ESS or the WVS, we have verified that girls under 18 are indeed less satisfied with their life and more depressed as compared to young boys, using the *Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children* (ALSPAC)¹. We did uncover a similar pattern.

This life-cycle effect is consistent with earlier findings, e.g. by Shmotkin (1990), Inglehart (2002), Easterlin (2003), Macelli and Easterlin (2005), Plagnol and Easterlin (2008). However, the effect loses its statistical significance once all socio-demographic characteristics are controlled for, as suggested by Tables 3.B and 3.D. The relative unhappiness of women in their childhood, teenage, and older years is thus due to the particular circumstances of their life in these periods.

Concerning emotional wellbeing, Table 3.E shows that women are more depressed at all ages, especially before the age of 18. Table 3.F reproduces a figure from Eurofound (2013b), based on the *5th European Working Condition Survey*, which displays the WHO index of depression by gender over different stages of their life cycle. Women are constantly more depressed than men, except for single women under 45 or without children. Men are in a better emotional state in young couples,

1 <http://www.bristol.ac.uk/alspac/>

when they have young children and onwards, and the gap further widens when the children have left home.

1.2.4. A time trend?

Stevenson and Wolfer (2009) have documented the decline in the initially positive gender gap in happiness. Although in the 1970s women reported a higher level of subjective happiness, this advantage has tended to vanish over the following 35 years. Women's happiness has declined both in level and relative to men. This decline in relative wellbeing is found across various datasets, demographic groups, and industrialized countries. A similar observation was made by Blanchflower and Oswald in the case of the United States (2004), or by Herbst (2010) and Graham (2013).

We tried to replicate this observation using the WVS, keeping countries that are present in the sample at all waves, for comparability, but we were unable to observe a clear (and statistically significant) time trend in the gender gap in subjective wellbeing. However, we did observe one in European countries, using the ESS, as illustrated by Table 4.A in Appendix C (row 2). This declining trend, however, is only statistically significant as concerns life satisfaction, but not the other measures of emotional wellbeing, as illustrated by Table 4.B (row 2).

Notice that the current subprime crisis that unfolded in 2008 has exerted a larger negative effect on women's life satisfaction, as shown by the second column of Table 4.A (the coefficient on the interaction term between women and post-2008 period dummies, in row 3).

1.2.5. Cross-country differences

Are these gender gaps in subjective wellbeing the same across countries and continents?

In order to detect potential international differences, we tried several classifications of countries, depending on geography, the political system or their level of economic development.

Based on the last wave of the WVS (that started in 2000), the only heterogeneity that we uncovered is the greater happiness gap in high-income countries (following the classification of the World Bank²), as illustrated by Table 5.A in Appendix C (row 9): in rich countries, women are happier than men.

Within Europe (ESS), no clear geographical difference in the gender gap appeared, except for the lower rate of depression in the UK and in Northern Europe (see Table 5.B, row 7).

To conclude this section, let us mention the similar findings by Graham and Chattopadhyay (2010), based on the Gallup World Poll, which we do not use in this report. Exploring gender differences in reported wellbeing around the world, they found that women have higher levels of wellbeing than men, with a few exceptions in low-income countries, such as Sub-Saharan Africa. More generally, the wellbeing gap between men and women is greater in countries with higher levels of development. The gap between men and women's wellbeing is also greater in older cohorts, in urban areas, and among educated cohorts (those who completed high school and beyond).

² <http://data.worldbank.org/about/country-and-lending-groups>

Part II will try to make sense of the two main contradictory findings uncovered in this descriptive section, namely: the positive gender gap in life satisfaction, and the negative gap in terms of emotional wellbeing.

Part II. Tentative explanations for the gender gap in subjective wellbeing

This section focuses on the potential determinants of the gender gaps in wellbeing. Most relate to the notion of capacities, as developed by Amartya Sen, and in particular to the division of tasks within the household, as well as gender-based violence. We look at gender roles, their relation with subjective wellbeing, and whether they explain at least part of the subjective wellbeing gap between men and women. We also consider the potential influence of macro and institutional features that are related with the aforementioned factors.

Based on these observations, we identify two main types of potential explanations: the role of preferences and the role of expectations. We provide empirical evidence suggesting that women have more diversified preferences than men. They invest their time in a larger set of activities, whereas men are more focused on paid work. This wider scope of activities is more conducive to happiness³. But the data also show that women's expectations are lower, in particular in the job market, and this constitutes an ambiguous (to say the least) factor of higher happiness.

Clearly, the two explanations lead to opposite normative conclusions. In the first case, women's preferences may be deemed "better" and the ensuing policy conclusion would be to favour this greater diversity of tastes, in particular via the education of both male and female children. However, if the correct explanation is that the positive happiness gap of women is simply due to their expectations, this finding calls for a correction of subjective measures of wellbeing as well as a reinforcement of gender-equality policy.

We also uncover a negative emotional wellbeing gap, whereby women are more stressed and depressed than men. This negative gap seems to be related to the division of tasks within the household, the "second shift" that leads to a higher total number of working hours for women once paid work and housework are taken into account. Although women enjoy care activities, they may suffer from the time-stress that it generates, in particular when it involves multi-tasking. Again, cultivating more diverse preferences in order to create greater symmetry between genders would alleviate this burden and help improve the emotional wellbeing of women.

³ In technical terms, economists would say: if preferences are convex, i.e. if the marginal utility of each type of activity is decreasing, this greater diversity is conducive to higher utility.

II.1. Education, wage, job characteristics, personality traits: unsuccessful candidates

We test for a series of factors that potentially influence the positive gender gap in life satisfaction.

As explained in Box 1, the general method is the following: we first run an estimate of subjective wellbeing including the usual controls and a dummy variable coding for women. If the coefficient on the latter is statistically significant, say positive, this means that women reach a higher level of wellbeing than men when they experience the same living conditions. We then add a measure of the considered factor in the estimate. If this reduces the coefficient on “women” by a large magnitude, or renders it statistically insignificant, this means that the gender gap can be at least partly explained by this factor.

II.1.1. Education

Concerning education, we first ran the aforementioned exercise using the WVS: here we did not detect any role for education in explaining the gender gap. Restricting the set of countries to Europe, and using the ESS, it appears that having received at least some education increases the positive gender gap in life satisfaction (Table 6, column 2 in Appendix C) and preserves women from depression (Table 6, column 4). Higher levels of education (advanced vocational and tertiary) appear to be particularly useful as a protection against depression. (The coefficient on the “women” dummy, in the first row and second column, shows that uneducated women experience lower subjective wellbeing than uneducated men.) However, education improves subjective wellbeing but does not explain away the gender gap in SWB (as shown by the coefficient on the “women” dummy in the first column, where education is controlled for).

II.1.2. Job characteristics

As Clark (1997) had already shown, British women are more satisfied with their jobs than men. This observation actually extends to a large set of countries (Bender et al., 2005).

Some studies have suggested that women and men are not sensitive to the same aspects of their jobs, such as the wage level, the number of worked hours or flexible working arrangements (Bender et al., 2005; Scandura and Lankau, 1997), locus of control (Mulhonen and Torkelson, 2004), social relations at work, etc. (See also Godechot and Gurgand (2000), Konrad et al. (2000), Conti and Pudney (2011), Davoine and Meda (2008).)

Here, to enquire, we first produce evidence of the gender gap in job satisfaction. Estimates run on the sample of people holding jobs (based on the BHPS) show that working conditions do not explain the gender gap in subjective wellbeing in terms of life satisfaction (Table 7.A in Appendix C), mental health (Table 7.B) or job satisfaction (Table 7.C). However, it appears that women are generally less sensitive than men to labour income (row 2), promotion opportunities (row 4) or temporary contracts (row 5), and more sensitive to the negative effect of working longer hours (row 3). In spite of these differences, including these effects in the statistical analysis does not suffice to explain the gender gap in subjective wellbeing.

The GGP survey provides some additional information. It first shows that *de facto*, women more often work in part time jobs for a smaller number of hours (Table 7.D). It then confirms that taking these job characteristics into account does not close the depression gender gap.

To be sure, labour market conditions are far from being equalized for men and women, even in Europe. Illustrations of the gender gap in labour wages and career prospects abound, and adding to this evidence is not the object of this report. Gender segregation in the labour market, for instance, is described by Eurofound's latest report *Women, men and working conditions in Europe* (Eurofound, 2013b), based on findings from the fifth *European Working Conditions Survey* (EWCS), conducted in 2010 (see the description of the EWCS in Appendix A). This survey of 44,000 workers across 34 European countries unveils a wide array of indicators of gender inequality in the labour market in terms of occupation, wage and satisfaction. For instance, it shows that only 5 of the 20 occupational groups (ISCO) employing the highest number of workers can be considered to have a balanced gender mix (food, wood and garment workers, numerical clerks, legal, social and cultural professionals, business professionals, and personal service workers). Even when women and men are employed in mixed occupations, they are often working in same-sex workplaces. Eurofound (2013b) also documents the gender wage gaps. Men's monthly earnings are higher in every occupation, especially in white-collar male-dominated occupations. However, women tend to report higher satisfaction in terms of job quality than men.

In summary, women's higher level of job satisfaction cannot be explained by the characteristics of their jobs.

II.1.3. Personality traits

Could the gender gap in subjective wellbeing be due to the distribution of personality traits between genders? Psychologists have established a widely used classification of the so-called "big-5" personality traits, i.e. openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism. The link between personality traits and subjective wellbeing is well documented (see for instance Proto and Rustichini (2015)). To enquire, we use the last wave of the WVS that contains measures of the big-5 personality traits (see the descriptive statistics in Appendix B).

It is true that personality traits are not distributed perfectly evenly between genders. Mean difference tests show that men are more often extroverted and women more agreeable and neurotic; the dispersion of traits is also different, as conscientiousness is more dispersed among men, whereas extroversion is more unevenly distributed among women. However, as shown in Table 8 in Appendix C (columns 1-3), personality traits do not explain the gender gap in life satisfaction (the coefficient on "women" dummy is not altered by the inclusion of these measures in the estimates). Relationships between personality traits and life satisfaction are the same across gender, i.e. conscientious people are happier and neurotic ones are less happy. (The coefficients are the same in the estimates that are run separately in the sub-samples of men and women (columns 4 and 5), and the interaction terms between gender and personality traits are not statistically significant, see column 3.)

Hence, differences in personality traits do not explain the gender gaps in subjective wellbeing.

II.2. The paid work-housework nexus

Women are more satisfied with their lives and their jobs, in spite of the less favourable conditions that they experience in the job market. To elucidate this paradox, we now turn to the paid work-housework nexus. There is no doubt that the main reason for the lower involvement of women in paid work is the greater allocation of their time in the household (housework and childcare). More generally, most gender gaps (in education, wages, etc.) originate in the organization of the household. The source of gender gaps in wellbeing is thus likely to be found within family relationships, i.e. in the division of tasks within the household, in particular the distribution of paid work versus housework between spouses.

After documenting briefly the asymmetry between men and women in terms of hours of housework and paid work, we will show how this asymmetry is related to subjective wellbeing.

II.2.1. Facts about the division of tasks within the household

Paid work

An undisputed fact is that, on average, women participate less in the labour market than men do. Cooke (2006), for instance, reports that, in industrialized countries, only two thirds of women aged 15 to 64 are in the labour force, although this rate varies from a low of less than 50% in southern European countries to a high of over 75% in Scandinavian countries. The participation rate of married women is even more varied.

Beyond participation, time-use surveys contain information about the number of paid work hours of men and women. It appears that women still spend less time in paid work than men. The latest report by Eurofound (2013b) shows that the gender disparities in time spent at work are particularly marked, with employed men working an average of 40.6 hours per week compared with 34 hours for women. This gap widens among the self-employed, with men working five to six hours longer than women (for those with employees, 45.6 hours for self-employed men versus 39.5 hours for self-employed women, and 49 hours versus 45 hours, respectively, for those with employees).

These gender gaps in working time are found in countries with high levels of part-time work, such as Austria, Belgium, Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands, Norway and the UK, as well as in countries with lower rates of part-time working, such as Italy and Malta, where relatively low proportions of women are employed. Around 10% of women in the EU27 work short part-time hours (less than 20 hours a week) and a further 25% work long part-time hours (between 20 and 34 hours), compared with just 5% and 8% respectively for men. Finally, 20% of men and 10% of women work more than 48 hours per week.

Unsurprisingly, women's working time is strongly influenced by their life stage: their working time decreases during parenthood, so that the gender gap in working time increases significantly.

Housework

Concerning housework hours, a literature review by Lachance-Grzela and Bouchard (2010) shows that women continue to do the best part of housework, in spite of their increasing participation in the labour market. North American women continue to be responsible for about two thirds of routine household tasks, with cooking and cleaning being the two most time-consuming ones. In addition to doing most of the housework, women are also in charge of managing, planning, and organizing these tasks. The authors quote a study showing that American women report performing an average of 13.2 hours of household labour per week, compared to 6.6 hours per week for their husbands.

Concerning European women, Eurofound (2012) shows that in each stage of their lives, employed women spend on average more hours on non-paid domestic or care activities than employed men. (There are, of course, international differences, with the smallest gender gap found in the northern cluster and the largest in continental and southern European countries.) The gender gap is lowest at the two ends of the life cycle, and increases dramatically during the parenting phase, with employed women spending twice as many hours on care and household activities as employed men. More precisely, on average, when entering the parenting phase, employed European women reduce their paid work and increase their unpaid work, whereas men just increase their paid work time.

The GGP survey also clearly shows that (even after controlling for the usual socio-demographic characteristics) women report a higher participation in housework and household decisions. Table 9.A in Appendix C shows that, when asked about who is in charge of household tasks, women predominantly declare that they are (always or mostly) in charge, rather than their partners (column 1). This is also true of decision-making concerning the aforementioned tasks (column 2). Table 9.B details the tasks: women assume the main responsibility for all tasks (cooking, dishes, grocery shopping, vacuum-cleaning, bills and social activities), except small repairs.

Total work

In these circumstances, it is surprising that the empirical evidence concerning the number of total work hours is controversial.

First, spouses' allocation of time has changed. Aguiar and Hurst (2007), for instance, document relatively equal declines in total work hours since 1965 for American men and women, with the increase in hours of market work by women offset by large declines in their nonmarket work. Blau (1998) points to the increased time spent by American married men on housework, and the decreased total hours worked (in the market and in the home) by married women relative to married men. See also Champagne et al. (2015) for a study in the evolution of time-use in the French case since 1985, where the authors show that women have spent more time on parenting, and less on housekeeping, whereas men's participation in children's education has increased too, but not their contribution to other household tasks.

Second, some social scientists such as Hochschild and Machung (1989) have argued that women's movement into the paid labour force has not been compensated by a disengagement from household production, so that they are now working a "second shift". This was also evoked by Stevenson and Wolfers (2009) as a possible

explanation for the decline in female happiness over time. This is also the conclusion reached by Eurofound (2013b) on the basis of the EWCS that collects data on unpaid activities, such as volunteering, studying and caring for adults and young children. Both 2007 and 2010 surveys showed that, when all of the paid and unpaid working hours are totalled, women work longer hours than men. In 2010 for instance, when paid working hours, hours spent in commuting to and from work and unpaid work time are combined together, women worked on average 64 hours a week, compared to the 53 hours worked by men. This can be explained by the fact that women spend 26 hours, on average, on caring activities, compared with the 9 hours spent by men, even though men devote more time to paid work (41 hours, compared with 34 hours spent by women)⁴.

Third, by contrast, Burda, Hamermesh, and Weil (2013) claim to find evidence of an “iso-work” phenomenon, whereby most spouses within a country work about the same number of total hours, whether for paid or unpaid work. This total number then varies across countries. They suggest that this might correspond to country specific social norms for leisure that serves as a focal point. They also uncover a trend in the reduction of total working hours along the path of development, i.e. a fall in the total number of hours with income per capita. Hence, men and women would spend approximately the same total number of hours working, with varying shares of paid and unpaid work, depending on national cultures: *“If one examines the sex ratios of time spent on market work, home work and childcare, Sweden has the greatest degree of equality in all three categories. Swedish women’s time use is more like that of men than is true of women elsewhere [...] Also striking is the consistently lower consumption of leisure by Americans, both married men and married women. The data make it clear that Americans’ relatively long market workweeks are not fully offset by reductions in homework, personal care or childcare. That Germans consume even less leisure is due to their relatively high reported time spent in home work.”* Other recent research tends to support the idea that gender differences in total work hours are rather small (Bianchi, Robinson, and Milkie 2006; Bittman and Wajcman 2000). According to recent estimates, employed fathers and mothers in dual-earner families spend, on average, approximately 64 hours per week on paid and unpaid work combined (Bianchi et al. 2006).

However, there is no consensus about this iso-work hypothesis. For instance, the lessons of the EWCS are that the gender gap is smaller in some countries than in others, but in the European Union, on average, women work 64 hours a week, as compared with 53 hours worked by men (Eurofound, 2013). Burda, Hamermesh, and Weil (2013) themselves report an average gap of 25 minutes per day – which is not negligible, especially because their sample is not restricted to dual-earners couples. Identically, Bittman and Wajcman (2000) also found a gap in a number of European countries. The iso-work hypothesis is thus still a fragile conjecture.

In summary, women work fewer hours than men in the labour market and more in the domestic sphere, with an ambiguous result in terms of total work hours.

⁴ These numbers differ depending on the source, due to the definition of the tasks that are counted as housework.

Multi-tasking

In addition to the number of working hours, studies suggest that women are much more often likely to be involved in multi-tasking, i.e. the simultaneous performance of several tasks or the rapid alternation between them (Spink, Cole, and Waller, 2008).

Survey data shows that in dual-earner families, mothers simultaneously combine housework and childcare with other activities more frequently than do fathers (Milkie et al. 2004). Offer and Schneider (2011) show that, in the United States, multitasking constitutes an important source of gender inequality, which can help explain why mothers feel more burdened and stressed than fathers, even when they have relatively similar workloads. Using data from the *500 Family Study*, including surveys and the Experience Sampling Method, their study examines activities parents simultaneously engage in and how they feel when multi-tasking. They find that parents frequently multi-task: on average, mothers spend 48 hours and fathers 39 hours per week on the performance of two concurrent activities that are mainly related to family care and housework. Moreover, mothers tend to be more involved than fathers in routine, labour-intensive, and rigidly scheduled chores such as cooking and cleaning, and they spend more time doing mental labour, including planning, scheduling, coordinating, and managing events and activities for their families. In the *2000 National Survey of Parents*, 67% of married mothers, but only 42% of married fathers, indicate that they multi-task “most of the time” (Bianchi et al., 2006). Percentages are substantially higher among dual-earner couples where both parents work 50 hours a week or more: 86% of women and 59% of men report frequently multi-tasking (Bianchi and Wight, 2010).

In summary, although the picture concerning the total number of paid and unpaid work hours is not completely clear, the burden of women appears to be heavier than that of men, due in particular to multi-tasking.

II.2.2. A preference for diversity?

Women’s weaker involvement in paid work is the counterpart of their stronger participation in the domestic sphere. Do these differences come at a cost or a benefit in terms of subjective wellbeing?

In this section, we consider the possibility that women have a preference not for housework tasks as such, but rather a preference for diversity, i.e. a wider scope of domains of interest (an economist would say a larger number of arguments in their “utility function”). We consider the time women spend on housework as an indicator (“a proxy” measure) of the time devoted to non-paid work activities. Women’s greater diversity of tastes leads them to spend less time in the labour market and more time in other activities, in particular social and family interactions. Under the classic economic assumptions (convex preferences), this choice leads them to a higher level of happiness. However, as documented by the next section, this multiplicity of tasks also puts a lot of pressure on them, in particular time-stress, not always due to longer hours but also to the mental strain of multi-tasking.

To test this conjecture, we make use of panel surveys that interview both members of couples in households, such as the BHPS, the GSOEP, the ESS and the GGP.

Previous findings on the division of tasks and satisfaction within the household

The relationship between the division of tasks within the household and subjective wellbeing has been the subject of a certain number of studies (Offer and Schneider, 2011, Coltrane, 2000, Roxburgh, 2004, Galinsky, 2005). Most focus on work-life balance; some consider the impact of child and elderly care facilities and flexible working arrangements inside firms. Unsurprisingly, when they are asked about this issue in surveys, men and women seem to agree with this asymmetry in job arrangements.

In fact, a series of studies provides evidence of the greater taste for diversity of women.

The latest Eurofound report (2013b), for instance, shows that men in full-time work have longer hours than women, and declare a preference for a 38-hour week, against a 33-hour week for women. Eurofound (2012, 2013b) finds that male employees would most prefer to cut their hours during two life stages: when part of a couple, either with children younger than seven or with children aged 13–18 years. They suggest that women may have already made a decision to work fewer hours before, so that their desire for fewer working hours appears at other stages. The survey analysed by Eurofound also contains indices of job quality. In fact, men often experience poor working conditions in terms of working time and intrinsic job quality, but enjoy higher pay and better career prospects. These pieces of evidence are suggestive of the fact that women and men make different choices concerning the trade-off between paid work and other dimensions of life, which may reflect the fact that they have different views over these dimensions.

More explicitly, Stevenson and Wolfers (2009) showed that American teenage girls attach importance to a greater number of domains relative to boys. Concerning a later life-stage, Roxburgh (2004) documents the fact that women with multiple roles are comparatively less depressed than women with very few social roles. Maybe the most impressive piece of evidence is provided by Gronau and Hamermesh (2001). The authors use time-budget surveys from Australia, Israel, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United States and West Germany for the years 1985 to 1994, and uncover substantial differences in the extent of variety in the non-work activities that people practice. More educated individuals experience more variety, engaging in both additional activities and the same ones as the less educated, with most of the effect of education on the variety of non-routine activities. The important finding, from the point of view of this report, is that women engage in a greater number of activities than men – and even more so when they have young children.

This finding about the greater “taste for diversity” of women and educated people echoes the studies by Oreopoulos et al. (2009), who showed that education generates non-monetary gains, such as the possibility of making better choices and a better use of one’s time, and leads to higher objective and subjective wellbeing. The work by Oreopoulos and his colleagues suggests that there is a positive causal link relating education, the taste for diversity and higher subjective wellbeing. This could explain why women, who have a greater taste for diversity, reach higher levels of life satisfaction.

To enquire, the next section analyses the statistical association between the diversity of tasks performed by spouses and their subjective wellbeing.

The division of tasks explains the gender gap

We follow the method laid out in Box 1. We start by running estimates of subjective wellbeing and controlling for the distribution of household tasks. It turns out that this indeed closes the gender gap in life satisfaction and increases the negative gap in mental health. In other words, the gender gap in subjective wellbeing seems to be largely due to the way spouses spend their time in paid and unpaid work.

This is illustrated by Tables 10.A and 10.B in Appendix C, based on the BHPS: introducing a measure for the self-declared balance in the division of household tasks suppresses women's advantage in life satisfaction (row 1 of Table 10.A) and increases their disadvantage in emotional wellbeing, as measured by the GHQ (column 1 in table 10.B). Columns 2 and 3 of these tables show that women's wellbeing is lower when their partner assumes the main burden of household chores (grocery shopping, cooking, washing and ironing, childcare), a sign that some tasks are still gender specific.

Table 11.A based on the GSOEP shows similar results: the positive gender gap in life satisfaction is closed, or even reverted, when housework is taken into account. It is important to notice that in Table 11.A the number of housework hours is negatively associated with life satisfaction (although more for men than for women (row 2 and 6)). What is positively associated with life satisfaction (especially for women) is participating in household tasks (rows 4 and 8). On the contrary, not working at all in the labour market is more detrimental to men's life satisfaction than to women (last row). Hence, a woman who participates in different activities (as proxied by housework) is on average happier than a woman who does not, but longer hours of housework will make her less happy. What matters is to participate in different tasks, not the number of hours that she spends on them.

Table 11.B displays the exact same estimates using the BHPS. The results are identical: participating in housework is a positive argument of life satisfaction, especially for women (rows 4 and 8), but the amount of housework is not (rows 2 and 6). Table 11.C looks at the association between mental health (GHQ) and housework. Here again, participating in housework has a positive impact (row 4), especially for women (row 8).

In more technical terms, the dummy variable that measures the fact of doing any housework activity can be considered as an indicator of the diversity of a person's activities (hence of the convexity of her preferences). As the introduction of this variable closes the positive gender gap in subjective wellbeing, this suggests that women are happier than men because, on average, they have more convex preferences.

Let us underline that the estimates do not suggest that housework tasks "make" women happy. On the contrary, because it is clear that women self-select into paid work and housework in a more or less conscious way, reflecting their "preferences", we interpret the results as showing that people who have this type of more diversified preferences can reach a higher level of life satisfaction. In this interpretation, controlling for the distribution of housework is a way to control for each spouse's (revealed) preferences. The different coefficients in columns 4 (sample of men) and 5 (sample of women) of the tables show that men and women's revealed preferences are different.

Satisfaction with work-life balance

This difference in preferences can be illustrated using some information contained by the ESS. Table 12.A shows that women express more satisfaction about their work-life balance than men (column 1) and feel fewer constraints on family life imposed by their jobs (column 2). Table 12.B shows that they desire a smaller number of paid work hours than men (column 1), and that there is consensus between spouses about this issue (column 2). This is consistent with the idea that the division of tasks between spouses is the outcome of their (revealed) preferences.

Social capital

We do not intend to claim that women are happier because they have a preference for housework or the domestic sphere. All of the estimates that we ran so far, using different sources, showed that wellbeing measures of all kinds decrease with the total number of housework hours done. What is conducive to happiness is the fact of participating (the “extensive margin”) rather than the number of hours spent on housework (the “intensive margin”). The feeling of being responsible for the tasks, and to do the best part of it (rather than one’s spouse) is also a factor of higher happiness. We thus interpret the available measures of housework as “proxy” indicators for a more general notion of involvement in social activities that are not comprised in paid work.

Among the greater number of activities pursued by women, a large share is pro-social, i.e. other-oriented rather than self-oriented. In particular, family-related tasks consist in producing and taking care of common “goods”, such as children, but also the preparation of meals, the related errands, etc. Women invest more in “social capital”. The return on this social involvement is important, as illustrated by van Daalen, Sanders, and Willemsen (2005), who studied a sample of men and women from dual-earner families, and observed that women receive more social support from colleagues as well as from relatives and friends than men.

This remark is important, as social capital and social support plays an important role in promoting health and wellbeing. This association is well documented (see for instance Helliwell (2003), Helliwell and Putnam (2004), Pichler (2006), Dolan (2006), or the United Nations’ World Happiness Report (2012)). Bauer (2009), based on the *Gender and Generations Survey*, also showed that scores of solitude and depression are higher for those who do not have some close friends with whom to talk about their private life. An article by Kahneman et al. (2004) showed that women experience the most positive emotional wellbeing when they participate in social activities, such as intimate relationships, socializing after work, relaxing, dinner, lunch, etc. Housework and children came last in the ranking of their daily activities, in terms of wellbeing scores.

We looked at social capital and subjective wellbeing using the ESS data. Table 13.A illustrates the relationship between social capital and life satisfaction. It distinguishes “thick” social capital, which measures the intensity of close relationships, from “thin” social capital, which corresponds to looser ties and general trust. Men and women appear to be more satisfied with their lives the higher their thick and thin social capital, with a larger effect from the former, and the more actively they are involved in social activities. However, the effect of thick social capital is particularly important for women (row 5).

Table 13.B runs estimates of depression with the same specification. Women are more depressed than men, but this is greatly reduced by the extent of thick (row 5) and thin (row 6) social capital, with a greater impact of the former.

Note that paid work is also a source of social interaction and therefore social capital. The fact that housewives are less happy on average is also a signal that both men and women need to invest in a variety of social capital (through unpaid and paid work) to be happy.

This series of evidence supports our conjecture that housework is not the foundation of women's higher life satisfaction, but the symptom of their more pro-social orientation.

However, as will be discussed in the next section, this diversity also comes at a cost, in particular in terms of time-stress.

II.2.3. Time stress: multi-tasking, routine tasks, stress and overload

Existing studies concur in finding a more frequent occurrence of negative emotions and depression among women. Many point to the greater time-stress felt by women, notably related to multi-tasking (see Section II.2.1). It is likely that the latter contributes to the former. This implies that having more varied tastes may have both positive and negative sides.

This idea was illustrated by Glass and Fujimoto (1994), who used the notion of multiple roles and identities. On the one hand, multiple roles open up multiple potential avenues for achievement and intrinsically satisfying labour. Thus, those in multiple roles can temper setbacks in one domain with achievements in another, alleviating distress. This multiplicity of objectives is a manner of risk diversification. But role conflict or overload may also increase stress and anxiety. The authors provide evidence of the greater prevalence among women of multiple role identities, role conflict, and role overload. Surveys show that these concepts are explicitly mentioned by married women as factors of depression. Married women generally benefit from employment because it adds a culturally valued, salient identity to their role repertoire, but mothers of young children are overburdened by the demands of childcare. The authors then document the fact that more equal distribution of household tasks reduces women's risk of depression. They insist that it is role overload, rather than fairness considerations, that explains the occurrence of depressive symptoms.

Other authors have provided evidence of time stress among women. Roxburgh (2004) concluded from a telephone survey of 790 respondents that time pressure is a general cause of distress for men and women, but is more prevalent among women than among men. A frequent conjecture is that the lower emotional wellbeing of women may be due partly to the stress from children. Buddelmeyer et al. (2015) show that births increase time stress, especially among mothers. Milkie et al. (2004) document the widespread feeling among American parents of not having enough time to spend with children, especially for those who work long hours. Mattingly et al. (2006) relate this feeling with the mounting tendency to invest in child care: "[...] *the emerging ideology of intensive mothering has altered how women spend their free time. In 1998, about 50% of child-care activities were combined with free-time activities, double the proportion in 1975, and many parents have replaced adult-oriented leisure with child-centered leisure activities, such as organizing, attending, and supervising children's activities. One study indicates that poor and middle-class mothers adopt time-intensive strategies to watch over teenage children's activities and whereabouts, including supervising adolescent gatherings in their home and*

enrolling children in multiple extracurricular activities. Hence, among mothers, free time may be too deeply entangled with caregiving to be the 'pause that refreshes'. In sum, persistent inequality in gendered time-use patterns is paralleled by gendered experiences of time pressure."

More detailed analyses of time-use surveys also suggest that women's typical housework hours are not dedicated to the same activities as men's (Haas, 1999). Men typically perform tasks such as cutting the grass and taking out the garbage, whereas women's tasks have to be repeated daily, tend to be of short duration, with no clear starting or ending point, and without discretion as to when to complete the task. Hence, the relationship between housework and depression is not due to the number of housework hours, but also to the nature of these hours. Men's housework may provide a sense of accomplishment, whereas women's housework does not and creates a sense of time pressure that, in turn, increases depression.

As we already discussed, the hypothesis of time stress is supported by the negative impact of the number of hours of housework on life satisfaction (conditional on participating). This was illustrated by Tables 11A to 11C. Tables 14.A and 14.B (in Appendix C) are based on the GGP survey, which asked spouses about the distribution of decision-making concerning several household tasks. Table 14.A shows that women are more depressed, are less satisfied with their relationships, and have more desire to break up their marriages than men (controlling for the usual socio-demographic controls). However, this dissatisfaction is reduced when their partners take a larger share in decision-making for routine purchases, social activities, and expensive purchases. Table 14.B displays the estimates by gender. Both genders are better off when decision-making is balanced, but the effect is always stronger for women. More precisely, Table 15 (based on the GGP survey) shows the association between satisfaction measures (depression, satisfaction with the division of tasks, satisfaction with the relationship and intention to break up) on the one hand, and the division of tasks on the other. It displays these estimates on the sample of women and men separately. Both spouses generally declare a higher level of wellbeing and satisfaction when the tasks are evenly distributed or the partner does more. It is true that some chores seem to be more gender-specific than others, such as cooking and small repair work. But generally, women (just like men) enjoy sharing the burden of the tasks. A plausible interpretation is that this reduces time-stress.

As discussed in section II.2.1, an important source of gender difference is multi-tasking. It turns out that for women, multi-tasking is particularly deleterious to subjective wellbeing. Bianchi and Wight (2010), for instance, showed that for mothers, multi-tasking activities at home and in public are associated with an increase in negative emotions, stress, psychological distress, and work-family conflict. By contrast, fathers' multi-tasking at home involves less housework and childcare and is not a negative experience. Galinsky (2005) reported similar results, noting that gender differences in multi-tasking account for women's higher rates of feeling overworked compared to men.

II.2.4. "Doing gender"

Work overload and multi-tasking are thus very credible candidates to explain the low emotional wellbeing of women. Are women constrained to accept this situation, and if so, why?

The sociological literature stresses the importance of internalized gender roles, ac-

ting both as constraints and objectives. They coin these under the term of “doing gender”. Doing gender does not only mean adopting certain behaviour that has been ingrained during people’s education and socialization stages. It also implies following a certain script when members of a couple interact together. The asymmetric distribution of resources and tasks within the couple is part of this notion. It could be that “doing gender” is costly for women in terms of wellbeing.

This hypothesis is supported by a paradoxical observation made by several studies. *A priori*, the classic economic models of the household predict that the higher the share of the income earned by the wife in the total household income, the lower her share should be in total housework. In the Beckerian view, this is because spouses are supposed to specialize according to their comparative advantage. Hence, a higher share of income earned by the wife is a sign of her greater comparative advantage in paid work, which should lead her to spend less time in housework, leaving it to her husband. In the framework of the collective models à la Chiappori or Weiss, spouses specialize, produce income and other public goods, and then share them depending on their bargaining power, i.e. the outside opportunities that constitute their threat points. The division of housework can also be a matter of negotiation. As labour income is a source of bargaining power, one should expect that women who earn more on the labour market do less work at home. However, this is not exactly what one observes in the data based on time-use surveys or other surveys.

What several empirical studies have shown is that although the division of housework tends to become more equitable as a wife’s contribution to household earnings increases from none to about half, it then reverts to a more traditional division when she becomes the primary breadwinner.

Bittman et al. (2003), for instance, made this observation on the basis of American and Australian data. Women decrease their housework as their earnings increase, up to the point where both spouses contribute equally to income. Then, as stated by the authors, “gender trumps money”. In the small proportion of couples where the wife earns at least 50% of the household income, the change in housework is the opposite of what bargaining-exchange theory would predict: women do more housework. Hence, the authors conclude that: *“couples that deviate from the normative standard (men make more money than women) seem to compensate with a more traditional division of household work.”* That paper contains many references documenting the unequal sharing of housework, even when spouses earn similar wages, and work a similar number of hours in the labour market, and quotes many studies showing that women do more housework when they earn more than their husbands. Similar facts are exposed in Bittman (2015) in the case of France.

A recent paper by Bertrand et al. (2015) confirms this finding. The authors first show that in the United States, the situation where the wife earns more than her husband is the exception, and one that is deleterious to marital stability. They attribute this pattern to gender identity norms. They then show that in couples where the wife earns more than the husband, she spends more time on household chores. Hence, couples who violate the social norm that “a man should earn more than his wife” seem to “repair” this transgression by a heavier load of female housework, i.e. a more typically feminine behaviour.

In the same vein, Brines (1994) finds that as US wives’ relative earnings increase, they decrease their hours of domestic tasks in a linear fashion, but their husbands decrease their own as well. She interprets this as man’s need for “gender display,” whereby men try to preserve their “manhood status” that is put under threat by the economic power of their wives (because economic power is traditionally an attribute

of the male role).

As put by Cooke (2006), the “doing gender” hypothesis means that “*The division of housework in particular reflects the ‘material embodiment of wifely and husbandly roles, and derivatively, of womanly and manly conduct’ [...]. Consequently, housework produces both a material and symbolic product of marriage so that what would seem the fairest division under the rules of exchange does not necessarily occur within the home*”. In economic terms, spouses have direct preferences for a certain type of division of tasks, a certain sharing of housework, and not only for the final outcome of these tasks in terms of consumption. “Doing gender” generates some “procedural utility” via the production of identity.

We also produce original evidence of such “doing gender” norms with the data at hand. Tables 16.A and 16.B, based on ESS, show the association between life satisfaction and the proportion of household income that is contributed by each spouse. Table 16.A shows that both women and men agree on their ideal contribution to household income. Clearly, the norm is that the man should contribute more. Women are less satisfied than men when their share in household income increases (rows 3 and 5). Table 16.B shows that men are more satisfied with their lives when they contribute more than half of the household income. Amongst women, the effect is not statistically significant.

“Gender trumps money” in Great Britain

We also ran an exercise similar to that of Bittman et al. (2003) or Bertrand et al. (2015), using the BHPS data, taking advantage of the fact that it surveys both spouses within households.

Information about housework and paid work hours is available from 1992 to 2008. We keep full-time dual-earner couples aged 20-60 years old (19,774 observations). Weekly housework time is measured by the answer to the question “*About how many hours do you spend on housework in an average week, such as time spent cooking, cleaning and doing the laundry?*”. For full-time dual-earner couples, the total number of work hours is longer for women: 49.8 against 45.5 for men (split into 37.9 paid work + 11.9 housework for women versus 39.9 + 5.6 for men).

Pooling all waves and considering full-time dual-earner couples, the data contains 2,788 couples where the income of the female partner is higher than that of her male partner, which accounts for 30.7% of this sample. If one considers the entire group of dual-earner couples (with no restriction on work hours), there are 3,905 couples where the female relative income is higher than the male’s, which makes up for 19.76% of the sample

We separately estimate the number of housework hours of the female partner (resp. the male partner) depending on her relative income, i.e. the share of her contribution to the household earnings (earnings of male - earnings of female / total earnings of couple) and the same term squared, controlling for the education, the number of paid work hours, the individual earnings of each spouse, the presence of a child in the household, the recourse to a domestic employee, and wave fixed effects. The variable of interest is the measure of relative income, scaled on the interval [-1;1], where -1 is the situation where the wife earns all the income, 0 the point of equal financial contributions and 1 the situation where the husband earns all the income. We draw two figures out of these estimates.

Figure 1 represents the average number of weekly housework hours for each person depending on the relative income earned by the male partner. Each dot on the graph represents an average number of housework hours on an interval of relative income share (e.g. the average housework time for individuals whose relative income is comprised between 0 and 0.07). There are as many points as intervals (15 dots on each side of the red dotted line).

The left panel represents the relationship for men: it is obviously linear on the entire sample. Thus, the more a man earns relative to his spouse, the fewer the number of housework hours he performs. But the right panel shows that the relationship is different for women. It is slightly downward sloping on the left-hand side and upward sloping on the right-hand side. Hence, women reduce their working hours when their relative contribution to the household income increases, down to the point where equality in incomes is reached. Then, as their income rises above that of their husband, women continue doing as much housework as before or do more.

Technically, the non-linearity in the reaction of female housework hours to her relative income is attested by the fact that her number of housework hours is a convex function of her relative wage, with a statistically significant negative coefficient on her relative wage and a positive (and statistically significant) coefficient on the squared term. By contrast, the relationship between the male's housework hours and his relative wage is linear⁵.

Figure 2 illustrates the same idea. It plots the typical number of housework hours (predictive margins), based on the aforementioned estimates, setting all of the other variables at their mean value. It shows that whatever their relative income, women always perform more housework than men. Moreover, when women earn more than men, the relationship between their relative income and housework time is stagnant, whereas this relationship remains linear for men.

In sum, although Great Britain would be classified as a more liberal model in terms of gender norms by Korpi (see below), it appears that there is a cultural limit to the substitution of paid work to housework for partnered women.

II.2.5. The impact of institutions on gender equality (“Institutions trump gender”)

Clearly, preferences are shaped by people's experience at school and in their families. But they are also influenced and sustained by institutions. This applies to gender preferences concerning the division of tasks within the household. For instance, Lewis (1992) suggested classifying countries as ranging from “strong” to “weak” male breadwinner states depending on the extent to which public policy reinforces men's preferential access to employment and women's responsibility for the unpaid care work in the private sphere. Korpi (2000) proposed a typology of welfare states with three family models: dual-earner, traditional, and market-oriented. Dual-earner models have Scandinavian-type policies: strong support for female labour force participation as well as male participation in unpaid reproduction work in the family, but weaker support for women as homemakers. The traditional family models (found in France, Germany and the Netherlands) have high levels of traditional family support and low levels of dual-earner support. The market-oriented family model is typical of the UK where the choice of how to combine family and employment are seen mainly as a private concern. The US system could also be

⁵ Regression results are available upon request.

included in this last category.

The general idea is thus that institutions, such as the tax system, the provision of early childhood care, and the organization of schooling for small children influence women's participation in the labour market.

An illustration of this idea is given by Cooke (2006). The author analyses household divisions of paid and unpaid labour in the former West Germany and in the United States. In Germany, public policy reinforced male breadwinner families, whereas this is not the case in the United States. The results highlight the fact that *“policy shapes how gender gets done in the intimate sphere”*. In Germany, male breadwinner couples are the most stable, and any movement away from this in terms of wives' relative earnings or husbands' relative housework increases the risk of divorce. This is not the case in the United States; however, at the extremes, both US male and female breadwinner couples are at greater risk of divorce. But even in this extreme, the stylized fact is again that *“[...]female breadwinner couples neutralizing gender deviance by having wives perform an equal share of domestic tasks are more stable [...]”*.

In the same vein, Bittman et al. (2003) uncovered a difference between Australian and American couples. Both “do gender” in the sense that women's housework share increases when their earnings exceed their husbands', but this happens via a reduction in the number of housework hours by men in the United States, whereas in Australia, it happens via an increase in women's domestic hours. The authors' interpretation is that Australian women's corrective response is larger because institutional differences make women's primary breadwinning more anomalous in Australia than in the United States.

Gender trumps money, but institutions trump gender

In order to dig deeper into the idea that institutions can shape gender identities, we use the 41-year division of Germany as a natural experiment and look at differences in gender preferences and gender behaviour after the reunification in 1990.

The idea is that after the division in 1949, East Germany rapidly designed institutions that were much more gender equalizing than their counterpart in West Germany. Cooke (2006) evokes the difference between East and West Germany's institutions and their impact on the labour market participation of women and on the division of household tasks within couples: *“After World War II, East Germany adopted a Stalinist constitution that enforced women's obligation to work. To support maternal employment, East Germany passed the 1950 Mother and Child Care and Women's Rights Acts, establishing a network of public child care centers, kindergartens, and facilities for free school meals, and maternity leave and days off to tend sick children. The state also mandated developing women's skill credentials through education and vocational training, and a larger proportion of East German women attended professional colleges and university than in West Germany.”*

The question is thus whether these institutions have created a gender culture that persisted even after they disappeared (upon the reunification of Germany in 1990). Cooke suggests that the answer is positive: *“Recent evidence indicates that even after economic reunification, the division of housework is significantly more egalitarian in the former East than in West Germany and is similar to the division reported here for U.S. couples.”*

If this is true, this suggests that gender norms are based on institutions rather than nature, and that it is possible to influence them by designing institutions properly.

In order to provide additional evidence about this idea, we used the German SOEP. We dropped Berlin from the dataset, because it does not allow distinguishing East Berlin from West Berlin. The dataset is described by Tables GSOEP.10 and GSOEP.11 in Appendix B (Descriptive Statistics). Tables 17.A to 17.C show the results of the exercise.

Table 17.A shows that women are happier in general, and West Germans are also more satisfied with their lives than East Germans. Both spouses are more satisfied when they participate in housework (i.e. when having a positive amount of housework per week), but this effect is much larger for women than for men (row 5) and it is much larger, for both men and women, in the East than in the West (row 9). Then, as usual, men and women's life satisfaction falls with the number of housework hours per week (row 3), especially in the East (row 7). These gendered differences between East and West Germany are consistent with the hypothesis that a more balanced gender norm was created during the socialist period.

The following Tables 17.B and 17.C show estimates run on a sub-sample restricted to couples, in order to calculate the share of housework done by each partner. (This is made possible by the fact that the GSOEP surveys all members of households, so that the information on the time use of both spouses is available.) Table 17.B displays estimates of the actual housework of women. It shows that East German women perform a smaller number of housework hours than women in the West. Table 17.C displays estimates of life satisfaction of men and women, living in East or West Germany, depending on the distribution of housework within the couple. The usual findings hold, i.e. satisfaction falls with the number of (paid and unpaid) work hours and is higher for those who participate in both types of activities. But the last row of the table (row 5) shows that whereas men in East Germany are indifferent to the share of housework they accomplish (once the number of hours is given), men in West Germany are less happy the greater their share in housework.

These results suggest that preferences of men and women are more similar to each other in the former GDR German sample than in the West. This could explain why the gender gap in life satisfaction is smaller in the East.

In a recent study "Georgieff et al. (2016)", we provide an additional piece of evidence that institutions shape gender identities. First, we show that, even in recent years, West Germans have a much more traditional view about gender roles than East Germans. Second, we reproduce the aforementioned test of "doing gender", i.e. we look at the relationship between the division of housework among spouses and their relative income. We find that in West Germany, women do increase the time they spend on housework when they earn more than their husband. But this is not the case in East Germany! There, women keep decreasing the time spent on housework the more they contribute to the household income. This result holds for dual-earner couples, whether they work full-time or not. Hence, if the general finding is that "gender trumps money", the case of the former GDR shows that institutions can trump gender. More generally, institutions can shape gender-related attitudes.

II.3. Disagreement and violence in the household

We now turn to a different aspect of interactions within couples: disagreements and the way couples manage them. We use the GGP survey that contains questions about the disagreement between spouses when they make daily decisions, and the way they react to these disagreements.

The questions about disagreement are labelled as:

Within the last 12 months, how often did you and your partner/spouse have disagreement about: household chores / money / leisure / friends / parents / alcohol / sex?

Respondents could choose one response among: “Never” = 1 / “Seldom” = 2 / “Sometimes” = 3 / “Frequently” = 4 / “Very frequently” = 5.

The following question was:

When you have a serious disagreement with your partner/spouse, how often do you: keep your opinion to yourself / discuss calmly / argue heatedly or shout / end up becoming violent?

The same set of responses was proposed.

We treated the response scale as a cardinal measure of frequency (instead of a qualitative measure).

Table 18 shows that women less often feel that they discuss calmly and more often say that they argue heatedly or shout. Hence, when spouses disagree, women experience a greater degree of violence than men.

Tables 19.A and 19.B show that spouses are more depressed, less satisfied with their relationship and more likely to break up the more often they disagree on the various mentioned items, and the more aggressively they react to this disagreement. Including these measures of disagreement and reactions reduces the gender gap by about two standard deviations for depression.

But Table 19.C displays the same estimates separately on men and women and shows that the impact of disagreements is generally more pronounced for women. Again, aggressive behaviour during disagreement deters mental wellbeing and marital satisfaction, but it is generally more deleterious for women (row 1).

The finding that aggressive behaviour during disagreement affects women more than men echoes an academic and statistical debate about the interpretation of questions on violence. A number of authors argued that, although men can also be victims of intimate partner violence, the degree of severity and the consequences of violence tend to be different for men and women (see Cavallin, 2013). In particular, although we do not have the necessary data to pursue this exercise, it would be useful to complement the results on violence with indicators on the consequences of violence on women’s and men’s health. Concerning mental health for instance, the World Health Organization estimates that women are more likely to be diagnosed with depression than men with the same symptoms, and, accordingly, more likely to be prescribed mood-altering psychotropic drugs. The report stresses the possible relationship between the high proportion of women who suffer violence during their lifetime and the prevalence of depression among women (see http://www.who.int/mental_health/prevention/genderwomen/en/).

It is likely that institutions can play a role in deterring marital violence (see Aizer and dal Bo, 2009) and that this is related to subjective wellbeing. In order to confirm

these findings, we tried to make use of the information about whether each of the European countries surveyed in the ESS had ratified a convention against violence or not, but the results were inconclusive. More precisely, living in a country that had ratified such a convention was associated with a higher level of life satisfaction, but not particularly so for women.

More generally, in spite of the important role of violence in gender-wise depression and emotional wellbeing, it is difficult to provide evidence of the impact of violence at the aggregate level because of the low variance of aggregate indicators, at least in European countries.

II.4. The role of expectations

An alternative and totally different explanation of the gender gaps in wellbeing points to the lower expectations of women. The idea is that if a person's happiness depends on the gap between her situation and her aspirations, or expectations, then the lower the latter, the happier she will be (in a given situation). This idea is close to Kahneman and Tversky's (1979) "Prospect Theory". In spite of a higher life satisfaction due to low expectations, the lower emotional wellbeing declared by women would then reflect their less favourable actual situation. This is because short-run emotional wellbeing experienced in very precise periods of time ("yesterday" or "last week") is less sensitive to anchoring and context effects than more cognitive categories such as life satisfaction or general happiness. In this interpretation, the higher life satisfaction of women would be an artefact and it would be more reliable to use emotional wellbeing measures.

The role of expectations can be explored in the context of the labour market. The idea that the positive gender gap in job satisfaction could be due to the difference in expectations across genders is not new, and has already been suggested, e.g. by Stevenson and Wolfer (2009), Herbst (2010), Lalive and Stutzer (2010) and Graham (2013). As put by Stevenson and Wolfers, if women's happiness is assessed relative to a benchmark constituted by some reference group, then greater equality may have led more women to compare their outcomes to those of the men around them. In turn, women might find their relative position lower than when their reference group included only women. A similar idea is that the women's movement might have raised women's expectations faster than society was able to meet them, creating more space for disappointment. In fact, Stevenson and Wolfers (2009) document the growing expectations of teenage girls, both over time and compared to boys, using a survey of American high school students (*Monitoring the Future*).

II.4.1. Expectations and job satisfaction

Here, to investigate this hypothesis, we use the BHPS and look at the relationship between expectations and satisfaction in the labour domain, for which measures of such concepts are available.

Table 20.A shows that women's job satisfaction is higher than men's, but their financial expectations as well as their aspirations and expectations for a better job are lower; women are less satisfied with their promotion opportunities but also expect less of them, and are more satisfied with the relations with their boss. These estimates control for the usual socio-demographic characteristics that include age, age squared, professional status, education and household income.

Table 20.B runs the same estimates plus the inclusion of a time trend. It shows that the picture has been slowly changing over time (from 1996 to 2008), with the gender gap in aspirations slightly rising and the gap in satisfaction falling.

Table 20.C pursues this idea and distinguishes two cohorts: those born before 1955 and those born after. The gender gap is smaller for the cohort born after 1955 (row 3) for job satisfaction, financial satisfaction and satisfaction with their boss.. Tables 20.D and 20.E respectively display the same estimates run on the sub-samples of people who were born before 1955 and after 1955. The coefficient on the “women” dummy shows that job satisfaction and satisfaction with their boss is lower in the younger generation of women.

In sum, it seems that the positive gap in job satisfaction (in favour of women) decreases as the aspirations and promotion opportunities of men and women become more similar over time.

II.4.2. Expectations and household work

We have documented the influence of gendered aspirations on the job market because this is the domain for which we have relevant measures. To complete the picture, it would be useful to have similar information about the expectations of spouses regarding the division of tasks within the household. The data that we use do not include such information, but we refer to some existing studies on the subject.

Himsel and Goldberg (2003) found that women reported higher levels of satisfaction when they did less housework than their female friends; they expressed greater satisfaction and less role strain when their husbands did more than their friends' husbands. Women were also more satisfied with the division of housework when their husbands compared favourably with their father. In contrast, men were more satisfied when their wives did more housework than their own mothers did. Couples may thus assess their own housework arrangements by comparing their division of labour to that of relevant others.

In the same vein, Hochschild's (1989) seminal work on the “second shift” showed that wives make comparisons to establish a “going rate” for husband participation against which to compare their own husbands. These comparison benchmarks influence spouses' perception of fairness in the division of labour.

Finally, as discussed by Pina and Bengston (1993), empirical evidence shows that there is a lot of heterogeneity across couples in terms of being more or less satisfied with different types of task sharing. The authors find that the way the division of household labour affects marital wellbeing, happiness and emotional wellbeing of wives depends on the latter's views about marriage (more or less traditional) and their type of expectations concerning the division of tasks between spouses.

It is thus difficult to reject totally the hypothesis that different expectations shape the gender gap in wellbeing.

II.5. Macro-Foundations and Institutions

Section II.2.5 showed that institutions can shape gender attitudes and behaviour. In this section, we try to look at the impact of more aggregate institutional features on the gender gap in wellbeing. We address the potential impact of governance, fundamental liberties and gender rights equality.

II.5.1. Indicators of gender equality

We first use the latest Commission's report on equality between women and men that provides a set of indicators used to monitor gender equality⁶. Matching these indicators with the ESS data, we look at their association with subjective wellbeing by gender. Table 21.A shows the impact of the occupational segregation by gender, Table 21.B the impact of the representation of women in national parliaments, and Table 21.C the impact of the proportion of women on boards.

It turns out that among these indicators, the proportion of women in national parliament is positively correlated with subjective wellbeing for both genders. The index of occupational segregation is not associated with subjective wellbeing. As to the proportion of women on boards of directors, it exerts a different impact on men and women: it is associated with a higher life satisfaction for women and lower one for men. (See also Sironi and Mencarini (2010).)

Bjørnskov et al. (2007) used a measure of gender equality taken from the CIRI database (Granelli-Richards (CIRI) Human Rights Data Set) and looked at the impact of past levels as well as changes in discriminatory practices over the last 20 years. They show that overall both men and women are more satisfied with their lives when access to political participation becomes more equal. For men, the effect is driven by middle and high income and left-wing people. For women, the effect is general, without distinction of income or political ideology. Women are also more satisfied with their lives in countries where discrimination was lower 20 years back in time. See also Tesch-Römer et al. (2008) for an indication that such policy measures matter.

II.5.2. Freedom and fundamental rights

We tried to detect an association between the extent of civil and human rights and liberties and the gender gap in wellbeing. Using the Freedom House indicators, we found that indeed, the degree of freedom in society increases life satisfaction, but not particularly so for women. Moreover, once country-fixed effects were included, there was not enough variability in the data to identify a statistically significant effect, so we do not report these results.

Graham and Chattopadhyay (2010) also found that the presence of legal provisions aimed at gender equality, in those targeted to married women, was positive for the wellbeing of women in low-income countries, but insignificant for the wellbeing of women in high income countries. Their interpretation is that such legal "guarantees" reflect a public commitment to gender equality, a public commitment that may matter more in low-income countries where there is greater variance in gender rights and such commitments are less likely to be the norm. In higher-income countries, where equal gender rights have been (for the most part) established for some time,

6 http://ec.europa.eu/justice/genderequality/files/annual_reports/150304_annual_report_2014_web_en.pdf

there is likely much less variance in the legal and regulatory regimes pertaining to gender.

II.5.3. The type of social protection system

Eventually, we looked at the potential role of public policies and welfare states in shaping opportunities and promoting the wellbeing of men and women, following Lalive and Stutzer, (2010), Graham (2013) or Boye (2011).

We looked at the variation in the proportion of children under three years old in formal care, but failed to detect a statistically significant association with life satisfaction (using ESS data). We were also unable to detect any statistical association between the duration of maternity leave and gender gap in SWB.

To enquire in a more systematic way, we used the classification of European countries proposed by Stovicek and Turrini (2012), according to their flexicurity model. We thus considered the following five groups of countries:

- Nordic countries: Denmark, Finland, the Netherlands, Sweden;
- Continental European countries: Austria, Belgium, Germany, France, Luxembourg;
- Anglo-Saxon countries: Ireland, the UK, Cyprus;
- Southern Europe: Spain, Italy, Portugal;
- Central and Eastern Europe: Greece, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, Romania, Latvia.

It turns out (Table 21.D) that in Southern European countries (the reference category in the estimate), the gender gap in life satisfaction and emotional wellbeing is not as favourable to women as in other European countries. The gender gap in life satisfaction is even reversed in this group of countries, in favour of men. Using a similar classification of countries, Boye (2011) showed that among European countries, those whose institutions encourage the dual-earner model of the household are those where women and men report the highest level of subjective wellbeing.

More generally, cross-country analysis based on aggregate indicators is less conclusive than individual-level analysis, both because of weaker statistical power due to smaller variability and because of the higher likelihood of potential omitted variables and spurious correlations.

It is thus difficult to provide evidence of the impact of institutions at the aggregate level, although, as shown by section II.2.5, when adequate micro data is available, it appears that they do.

Conclusions

1. Wrapping up the findings

This report showed that women report a higher level of life satisfaction than men, even when their situation is comparable. This positive gap is not explained by their situation in the labour market, their income, education, personality traits or other living conditions. By contrast, women appear to be more depressed and more exposed to poor mental health than men.

We propose two main explanations for this contrasted picture. The first one points to intra-household interactions and specialization. The second one rests on expectations.

1. Intra-household differentiation

The advantage of liking variety

Our first explanation points to the greater diversity of women's domains of investment. Women are engaged in paid and non-paid work, as well as in a greater array of social relations than men. If there is something like a taste for diversity (i.e., in technical terms, if preferences are convex), then a wider scope of domains of interest is a source of potentially higher wellbeing. Hence, we interpret women's higher life satisfaction as the outcome of the greater variety of their time-use.

Of course, we do not claim that women are happier because they have a preference for housework or for the domestic sphere. All of the estimates that we ran so far, using different sources and wellbeing measures of all kinds, show that longer hours of housework are a factor of lower happiness. What is conducive to happiness is the fact of participating rather than the number of hours spent on these tasks. We thus interpret the available measures of housework as ("proxy") indicators of a more general notion of involvement in social activities that are not comprised in paid work. An important element of such activities is related to social capital and caring activities, which have been shown to be an important source of happiness.

Time stress

However, this larger set of tasks sometimes comes with time-stress and overload, often accompanied with painful multi-tasking. This explains why, in terms of emotional wellbeing, women fare worse than men. This is particularly the case when children are in the household. A more equal sharing of housework among spouses attenuates this stress.

The time-stress felt by women is sometimes due to the compliance to a gender norm in the division of household tasks, what sociologists call "doing gender". We

replicate, with the British data, a surprising fact that was uncovered before in the case of the United States: the number of housework hours performed by men classically declines as their contribution to the household income rises, but this is not the case for women. When their contribution to the family income rises, women decrease their number of housework hours, but only as long as they earn less than their partner. Once they reach the point of equality in earnings, their number of housework hours stops falling or increases again! This suggests that in order to comply with gender roles, women have to compensate their financial predominance by overplaying their domestic involvement.

Institutions and gender norms

Do these gender norms come from nature or culture? We show that institutions play a role in shaping gender roles. To illustrate this idea, we examine the difference in couples' relationships in East versus West Germany. It appears that the conception of gender roles of men and women who live in the former FRG are much more traditional than those of couples living in the former GDR. Moreover, the surprising association between women's financial contribution to household income and their number of housework hours (the "doing gender" conjecture) can be observed in West Germany, but not in East Germany. Hence, the institutions of East Germany have created a culture of more egalitarian gender roles that has persisted even 15 years after their dissolution into West German institutions: gender can trump money, but institutions can trump gender.

We tried to generalize this idea by looking at the link between international differences in institutions across countries and the gender gap in subjective wellbeing. We considered indicators of gender equality in terms of political rights, freedom, and fundamental rights and social protection. However, we were unable to detect any statistically significant relationship. The reason is that this type of analysis, based on aggregate indicators, is less conclusive than individual-level analysis, because of its weaker statistical power due to the smaller variability of aggregate magnitudes.

Domestic disagreement and violence

Finally, we looked at the modalities of household interactions, and in particular the way couples react to disagreements about daily decisions. It appears that when spouses disagree, women experience a greater degree of violence than men. Spouses are more depressed, less satisfied with their relationship, and more likely to break up the more often they disagree about daily decisions and the more aggressively they react to these disagreements, but the negative impact of disagreements is generally more pronounced for women.

It is likely that, here again, institutions can play a role in deterring marital violence and that this is related to subjective wellbeing. We have tried to verify this idea using aggregate indicators of violence across countries, but failed to detect statistically significant associations. This is probably due to the small variance in indicators of violence across European countries and over time in the years 2000.

2. The role of expectations

The second type of explanation of the gender gap in subjective wellbeing is totally different. It points to expectations as the benchmark used by people to evaluate their living conditions. In this framework, if women have lower expectations, because of what they learn from their role models, they will be happier and more satisfied with their lives than men. We show that there is some truth to this explanation, especially as concerns job satisfaction, where women's expectations are still lower than men's, although this gap is somewhat withering away in the new generations.

2. Policy conclusions

The two types of mechanisms that are evoked bear totally different, but compatible, policy implications. The first one suggests that education should try to spread more evenly the type of diversified tastes that are typical of women and are obviously more conducive to happiness. Institutions that encourage more equal sharing of household tasks could also alleviate the stress that is sometimes created by this large number of objectives. We have shown that institutions shape people's views regarding gender roles. This opens an avenue for policy, not only aimed at favouring women's involvement in the labour market, but also at encouraging both men and women to widen the scope of their domains of investment.

The other explanation, based on expectations, implies that in order to measure gender wellbeing, it is necessary to use measures of emotional wellbeing, which are less subject to framing effects and less sensitive to expectations, and not only life-satisfaction and happiness. This will allow dealing with the issue of adaptation and resignation underlined by Amartya Sen. Hence, it is advisable to include both types of subjective indicators, i.e. life satisfaction and short-run affects, in the Commission's regular monitoring on gender equality.

Time-use surveys and experience sampling should also be used for this purpose. Collecting these different types of subjective measures should help develop and monitor gender equality policies. In addition, measuring at the same time the objective and subjective working and living conditions of men and women will allow understanding how objective circumstances are experienced by people, and the possible gender differences in this experience.

In order to capture the elements of explanation that have been uncovered by the report, we propose a small set of indicators. The idea is to measure the particular circumstances that contribute most to gender inequality. Ideally, these measures should be made, whenever possible, in the framework of surveys that include both members of couples or all members of households. This will help shed light on the interactions that take place within households, and which are certainly at the origin of gender inequality.

As Eurostat is in the process of modernising social statistics that are developed and implemented within the European Statistical System (including EU-SILC, EU Harmonised Time Use Survey, etc.), this creates the opportunity to improve existing data on subjective wellbeing, in order to better reflect gender equality issues.

The needed indicators would comprise, for each spouse:

- measures of labour market participation, occupation, wage and career evolution;

- indicators of the division of household tasks, including childcare;
- indicators of gender differences in the life-cycle: age difference between spouses, age at first child, age when last diploma obtained, age at marriage, etc.;
- social relations and social capital of each partner;
- time spent in non-paid activities (social, cultural, religious, sports, etc.);
- indicators of domestic violence;
- expectations and aspirations regarding career, wage and other qualitative dimensions of paid work;
- self-declared life satisfaction and emotional wellbeing.

Because one of the main hypotheses of this report is the role of diversity in tastes and activities, it is also important to measure self-declared “domain-satisfaction” of men and women. This includes:

- satisfaction with one’s job;
- satisfaction with one’s financial situation;
- satisfaction with one’s marital relations;
- satisfaction with one’s work-life balance;
- satisfaction with one’s social relations, child care, leisure, sports, cultural life, etc.

This will allow monitoring the evolution of the difference between genders with respect to this variety of domains in which they invest their time and effort.

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Acknowledgements

This report has benefitted from invaluable research assistance by Alexandre Georgieff and Quentin Lippmann (PSE). Figures 2 and 3 are extracted from Quentin Lippmann's Master thesis.

APPENDIX A. Description of the Surveys

1. The World Values Survey (WVS)

We use the World Values Survey, which consists of nationally representative surveys conducted in almost 100 countries that contain almost 90 percent of the world's population, using a common questionnaire⁷. We focus particularly on the last wave that was run between 2011 and 2015, among 79,399 persons living in 55 countries. Here, the question of interest asks about life satisfaction: *All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days?*, with responses on a 1 to 10 scale. In addition, the last wave of the WVS contains measures of the big-5 personality traits of respondents (agreeableness, openness to experience, neuroticism, conscientiousness, extroversion).

2. The European Social Survey (ESS)

We also use the European Social Survey⁸, waves 1 to 6 (years 2002 to 2013). Our sample includes 161,377 observations collected in 36 countries (observations for which the usual socio-demographic variables were not missing).

The ESS contains a lot of useful questions⁹, such as **Life satisfaction** (*All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole nowadays?*, with responses on a 0 to 10 scale), but also a series of questions that are part of the CES-D scale, and are used to build a **depression** index:

- *Please tell me how much of the time during the past week:*
 - *you felt depressed?*
 - *you felt everything you did was an effort?*
 - *your sleep was restless?*
 - *you were happy?*
 - *you felt lonely?*
 - *you enjoyed life?*
 - *you felt sad?*
 - *you could not get going?*

7 <http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/WVSContents.jsp>

8 <http://www.europeansocialsurvey.org>

9 For more details, see http://www.europeansocialsurvey.org/docs/round6/questionnaire/ESS6_final_personal_and_social_well_being_module_template.pdf

with responses labelled: *None or almost none of the time* = 1 / *Some of the time* = 2 / *Most of the time* = 3 / *All or almost all of the time* = 4.

The ESS also asks the following questions:

- *Please tell me how much of the time during the past week you felt anxious?*
- *Please tell me how much of the time during the past week you felt calm and peaceful?*

with the same response scale.

It also contains a series of questions that we use in order to build an index of social capital, distinguishing the notion of “thick relationships”, i.e. close ties, from “thin relationships”, which refer to looser ties or general trust.

The “**Thick relationships**” indicator is built by summing responses to the following questions:

- *How many people, if any, are there with whom you can discuss intimate and personal matters?* Answers are coded as follows: None = 0 / “1” = 1 / “2” = 2 / “3” = 3 / “4-6” = 4 / “7-9” = 5 / “10 or more” = 6;
- *To what extent do you feel appreciated by the people you are close to?* Answers are on scale from 0 (“Not at all”) to 10 (“Completely”);
- *Please tell me how much of the time during the past week you felt lonely?* Answers are coded as follows: “None or almost none of the time” = 1 / “Some of the time” = 2 / “Most of the time” = 3 / “All or almost all the time” = 4;
- *To what extent do you receive help and support from people you are close to when you need it?* Answers range from 0 (“Not at all”) to 6 (“Completely”);
- and *To what extent do you provide help and support to people you are close to when they need it?* Answers from 0 (“Not at all”) to 6 (“Completely”).

The “**Thin relationships**” (general trust) indicator is built by summing responses to the questions:

- *Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted, or that you can't be too careful in dealing with people?* Responses are on a 0-10 point scale with ends labelled “You can't be too careful” and “Most people can be trusted”;
- *Do you think that most people would try to take advantage of you if they got the chance, or would they try to be fair?* Responses are on a 0-10 point scale with ends labelled “Most people would try to take advantage of me” and “Most people would try to be fair”;
- *Would you say that most of the time people try to be helpful or that they are mostly looking out for themselves?* Responses are on an 11-point scale with ends labelled “People mostly look out for themselves” and “People mostly try to be helpful”;
- *Please tell me to what extent you feel that people treat you with respect?* Answers are on a 0 (“Not at all”) to 6 (“A great deal”) scale;

- *How often do you meet socially with friends, relatives or work colleagues?* Response scale: “Never”, “Less than once a month”, “Once a month”, “Several times a month”, “Once a week”, “Several times a week”, “Every day”;
- *Compared to other people of your age, how often would you say you take part in social activities?* Response scale: “Much less than most”, “Less than most”, “About the same”, “More than most”, “Much more than most”;
- *Please say to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statement: I feel close to the people in my local area.* Response is labelled as follows: “Agree strongly” = 1 / “Agree” = 2 / “Neither agree nor disagree” = 3 / “Disagree” = 4 / “Disagree strongly” = 5;
- *Please tell me to what extent you feel that people in your local area help one another?* Answers go from 0 (“Not at all”) to 6 (“A great deal”).

Finally, an “**Active involvement**” indicator is built from the following question:

- *In the past 12 months, how often did you get involved in work for voluntary or charitable organizations?*

Responses are labelled as follows: “At least once a week” = 1 / “At least once a month” = 2 / “At least once every three months” = 3 / “At least once every six months” = 4 / “Less often” = 5 / “Never” = 6.

3. The Generations and Gender Programme Survey (GGP)

The *Generations and Gender Programme Survey*¹⁰ is a longitudinal survey of 18–79 year-old people, run in 19 countries (Europe and Australia), that focuses on the relationships between parents and children (generations) and between partners (gender). The survey covers a broad array of topics including fertility, partnership, transition to adulthood, economic activity, care duties and attitudes. The accompanying contextual database (CDB) includes data on legal norms and regulations, social norms, measures of welfare state policies and institutions, as well as general economic and cultural indicators. We use the first wave collected in 2005 in 17 countries among 179,524 persons.

The questions of interest for this report are the following:

- A **Depression** index based on the CES-D scale: *Please tell me how frequently did you experience the next items during the previous week:*
 - *I felt that I could not shake off the blues even with help from my family or friends;*
 - *I felt depressed;*
 - *I thought my life had been a failure;*
 - *I felt fearful;*
 - *I felt lonely;*
 - *I had crying spells;*
 - *I felt sad.*

¹⁰ <http://www.ggp-i.org/data/data-access.html>

Responses are labelled: “Seldom or never” = 1 / “Sometimes” = 2 / “Often” = 3 / “Most of the time” = 4.

- **Intention to break up:** *Over the past 12 months, have you thought about breaking up your relationship?* Respondent answers: “yes” or “no”.
- **Satisfaction with the division of household tasks:** *How satisfied are you with the division of household tasks between you and your partner/spouse?* Responses are on a 0-10 scale.
- **Satisfaction with relationship:** *How satisfied are you with your relationship with your partner/spouse?* Responses are on a 0-10 scale.
- **Division of household tasks:** *Please tell me who does the following tasks in your household.*

Responses are labelled “Always respondent” = 1 / “Usually respondent” = 2 / “Respondent and partner equally” = 3 / “Usually partner” = 4 / “Always partner” = 5. The tasks include cooking, dishes, shopping, vacuum-cleaning, grocery shopping, small repairs, bills and social activities.

- **Decision-making:** *Who makes decisions about the following issues in your household?*

Responses are labelled “Always respondent” = 1 / “Usually respondent” = 2 / “Respondent and partner equally” = 3 / “Usually partner” = 4 / “Always partner” = 5. The list of issues is the same as that of tasks (see above).

- **Paid-work:**
 - *Thinking about your (main) job, how many hours, excluding overtime and meal breaks, are you expected to work in a normal week?*
 - *or: How many hours per week do you normally work in your job or business including overtime?*
- **Disagreement:** *Within the last 12 months, how often did you and your partner/spouse have disagreement about:*
 - *household chores;*
 - *money;*
 - *leisure;*
 - *friends;*
 - *parents;*
 - *alcohol;*
 - *sex.*

Responses labelled : “Never” = 1; “Seldom” = 2; “Sometimes” = 3; “Frequently” = 4; “Very frequently” = 5.

- **Reaction to disagreement:** *When you have a serious disagreement with your partner/spouse, how often do you:*
 - *keep your opinion to yourself;*
 - *discuss calmly;*
 - *argue heatedly or shout;*
 - *end up becoming violent.*

Responses: “Never” = 1 / “Seldom” = 2 / “Sometimes” = 3 / “Frequently” = 4 / “Very frequently” = 5.

Except for the yes/no questions, we sometimes (under certain circumstances) use the proposed scales as cardinal ones and sometimes construct categorical indices based on these measures.

4. The British Household Panel Survey

The BHPS¹¹ is a longitudinal survey run by the Institute for Social and Economic Research of the University of Essex. It was run annually from 1991 to 2008, with the life satisfaction question being asked starting in 1996. Our sample includes 30,954 individuals, for a total number of 224,237 observations. Two main questions are of interest to us:

- the **life satisfaction** question: “How dissatisfied or satisfied are you with your life overall?”, with responses on a 0 to 10 scale;
- the **mental health score** built on the basis of the General Health Questionnaire (**GHQ**) that asks the 12 questions mentioned above. The GHQ indicator is the Caseness GHQ score, which counts the number of questions for which the response is in one of the two “low wellbeing” categories. This count is then reversed so that higher scores indicate higher levels of wellbeing, running from 0 (all twelve responses indicating poor psychological health) to 12 (no responses indicating poor psychological health);
- the BHPS includes a **job satisfaction** question that asks: “*All things considered, how satisfied or dissatisfied are you with your present job overall?*”, using the same 1-7 scale.

In addition, the survey also asks direct questions to both members of couples about the **division of household tasks**:

- *Could you please say who mostly does these household jobs here?*
 - *grocery shopping*
 - *cooking*
 - *washing*
 - *ironing*

¹¹ <https://www.iser.essex.ac.uk/bhps>

- *cleaning*
- *childcare*

Responses labelled “*Mostly self*” / “*Mostly partner*” / “*Shared*” / “*Other*”.

- *Thinking about your (main) job, how many hours, excluding overtime and meal breaks, are you expected to work in a normal week?*
- *About how many hours do you spend on housework in an average week, such as time spent cooking, cleaning and doing the laundry?*

Finally, the BHPS includes questions about social capital that allow building several indices.

First, the index of “**Social support**”. The latter is built by summing the answers to the following questions:

- *Is there someone who will listen?*
- *Is there someone to help in a crisis?*
- *Is there someone you can relax with?*
- *Is there anyone who really appreciates you?*
- *Is there anyone you can count on to offer comfort?*

For each question, answers are coded as follows: *No one* = 0 / *Yes, one person* = 1 / *Yes, more than one person* = 2.

We also build another index of social capital, a “**Contacts with friends**” indicator, which is built by summing answers to the following questions:

- *How often do you see or get in touch with your 1st/2nd/3rd closest friend either by visiting, writing or by telephone?*

Answers are coded as follows: “*Less often*” = 1 / “*At least once a month*” = 2 / “*At least once a week*” = 3 / “*Most days*” = 4.

The “**Thin relationships**” indicator is built by summing answers to the two following questions:

- *How often do you talk to any of your neighbours?*
- *How often do you meet friends or relatives who are not living with you?*

Answers are coded as follows: “*Never*” = 1 / “*Less than once a month*” = 2 / “*Once or twice a month*” = 3 / “*Once or twice a week*” = 4 / “*On most days*” = 5.

The “**Active involvement**” indicator counts the number of organizations the respondent claims to be active in among the following: political party, trade union, environmental group, parents association, tenants group, religious group, voluntary group, other community group, social group, sports club, women’s institute, women’s group, other organization.

5. The German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP)

We use waves 1991 to 2012 of the *German Socio-Economic Panel*¹², a longitudinal survey run by the German Institute for Economic Research (DIW, Berlin) that includes 49,253 individuals, for a total number of observations of 352,669. The question of interest to us is essentially the life satisfaction question: *We would like to ask you about your satisfaction with your life in general*. Responses are on a 0 (“completely dissatisfied”) to 10 (“completely satisfied”) scale.

In addition, questions were asked to both members of couples concerning their **time-use**. The questions are:

- How many hours do your actual working-hours consist of, including possible over-time?
- What does a typical weekday look like for you?
- How many hours per day do you spend on housework (washing, cooking, cleaning)?

6. The European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS)

We often refer to the European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) operated by Eurofound (see Eurofound 2013a). The EWCS explores quality of work issues and provides information on exposure to physical and psychosocial risks, working time duration and organization, employment status and contract, place of work, work organization, work life balance, spillover between work and life outside work, training and learning at work, voice at the workplace, health and wellbeing, and earnings.

To date, Eurofound has carried out five European working conditions surveys (1991, 1995, 2000/2001, 2005 and 2010). The evolution of the EWCS follows the changes in the composition of the EU itself over the last 25 years. In 1991, the survey covered just 12 countries; survey countries grew to 15 in 1995 and 16 in 2000 (EU15 and Norway). The 2000 survey was extended in 2001 to cover the 10 EU membership candidate countries. The fourth survey, carried out in 2005, covered all 27 EU Member States plus Croatia, Turkey, Switzerland and Norway; the fifth survey covered the same countries apart from Switzerland, but with the addition of Albania, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Kosovo, and Bosnia and Herzegovina – a total of 34 countries. Eurofound will carry out its sixth EWCS in 2015. In cooperation with Ipsos, it will interview more than 43,000 workers in 35 different European countries for the sixth edition of the survey. The sixth survey shall include the 28 EU Member States, the five EU candidate countries (Albania, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro, Serbia, and Turkey), as well as Switzerland and Norway – a total of 35 countries – making this wave the most comprehensive one so far in terms of numbers of countries covered. The first results of the sixth European Working Conditions Survey will be made available before the end of 2015.

¹² http://www.diw.de/en/diw_02.c.221178.en/about_soep.html

APPENDIX B. Descriptive Statistics

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1. World Values Survey (Last wave: 2010-2014)

Table WVS.1

	(1)	(2)
Region	Freq	Percent
Asia	31,734	40
Africa	17,809	22.4
Europe	15,921	20.1
America	12,215	15.4
Oceania	1,720	2.2
Total	79,399	

Table WVS.2

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	mean	sd	min	max
Life satisfaction	6.85	2.27	1	10
Age	41.82	16.40	16	99
Household income decile	4.91	2.11	1	10
Openness-to-experience	6.28	1.64	2	10
Conscientiousness	7.13	2.01	2	10
Extroversion	6.28	1.62	2	10
Agreeableness	6.54	1.81	2	10
Neuroticism	5.68	1.77	2	10
Observations	79,399			

Table WVS.3

	(1)	(2)
	Men	Women
	mean	mean
Life satisfaction	6.83	6.87
Age	41.52	42.09
Household income decile	4.98	4.84
Openness-to-experience	6.29	6.28
Conscientiousness	7.12	7.14
Extroversion	6.33	6.23
Agreeableness	6.50	6.59
Neuroticism	5.60	5.76
Observations	38026	41373

Table WVS.4

	(1)	(2)
Education	Freq	Percent
No formal Education	4,249	5.35
Incomplete primary	4,520	5.69
Complete primary	8,752	11.02
Incomplete secondary technical	5,740	7.23
Complete secondary technical	15,114	19.04
Incomplete secondary	6,420	8.09
Complete secondary	13,979	17.61
University without degree	6,418	8.08
University with degree	14,207	17.89
Total	79399	

Table WVS.5

Education	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Men		Women	
	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
No formal Education	1,517	3.99	2,732	6.60
Incomplete primary	1,997	5.25	2,523	6.10
Complete primary	4,060	10.68	4,692	11.34
Incomplete secondary technical	2,878	7.57	2,862	6.92
Complete secondary technical	7,261	19.09	7,853	18.98
Incomplete secondary	3,176	8.35	3,244	7.84
Complete secondary	6,761	17.78	7,218	17.45
University without degree	3,309	8.70	3,109	7.51
University with degree	7,067	18.58	7,140	17.26
Total	38026		41373	

Table WVS.6

Employment status	(1)	(2)
	Freq	Percent
Full-time	26,235	33.04
Part-time	7,709	9.71
Self-employed	9,543	12.02
Retired	9,531	12
Housewife	12,174	15.33
Students	5,979	7.53
Unemployed	7,167	9.03
Other	1,061	1.34
Total	79399	

Table WVS.7

	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)	
	Men		Women					
Employment status	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
Full-time	15,570	40.95	10,665	25.78				
Part-time	3,599	9.46	4,110	9.93				
Self-employed	6,020	15.83	3,523	8.52				
Retired	4,865	12.79	4,666	11.28				
Housewife	481	1.26	11,693	28.26				
Students	3,146	8.27	2,833	6.85				
Unemployed	3,811	10.02	3,356	8.11				
Other	534	1.40	527	1.27				
Total	38026		41373					

Table WVS.8

	(1)		(2)	
	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
Married	44,510	56.06		
Living together as married	5,314	6.69		
Divorced	3,203	4.03		
Separated	1,449	1.82		
Widowed	4,824	6.08		
Single	20,099	25.31		
Total	79399			

Table WVS.9

	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)	
	Men		Women					
Marital status	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
Married	21,664	56.97	22,846	55.22				
Living together as married	2,467	6.49	2,847	6.88				
Divorced	1,138	2.99	2,065	4.99				
Separated	590	1.55	859	2.08				
Widowed	1,009	2.65	3,815	9.22				
Single	11,158	29.34	8,941	21.61				
Total	38026		41373					

2. European Social Survey (All waves: 2002-2013)

Table ESS.1

	(1)	(2)
Region	Freq	Percent
Western Europe	50121	31.1
Central and Eastern Europe	30903	19.2
Northern Europe	30311	18.8
Southern Europe	23073	14.3
CEI	13049	8.1
GB and Ireland	7201	4.5
Western Asia	6655	4.1
Total	161,313	

Table ESS.2

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	mean	sd	min	max
Age	48.42	17.96	14	110
Household income decile	5.12	2.61	0.83	10
Life satisfaction	6.78	2.37	0	10
Depression	11.90	4.22	6	30
Anxiety	1.65	0.75	1	4
Calmness	2.75	0.83	1	4
Happiness overall	7.13	2.06	0	10
Work life balance satisfaction	6.58	2.18	0	10
Deisired weekly working hours	34.36	14.69	0	144
Work to family conflict	10.46	3.13	4	20
Family to work conflict	3.58	1.55	2	10
Proportion of HH income provided (subjective assessment)	4.51	2.01	1	7
Thick relationships	24.21	4.15	1	32
Thin relationships	34.74	8.02	3	59
Active involvement in volunteering and helping activities	1.99	1.60	1	6
Observations	161,313			

Table ESS.3

	(1)	(2)
	Men	Women
	mean	mean
Age	47.67	49.07
Household income decile	5.40	4.88
Life satisfaction	6.85	6.72
Depression	11.32	12.40
Anxiety	1.55	1.73
Calmness	2.84	2.68
Happiness overall	7.18	7.09
Work life balance satisfaction	6.57	6.59
Desired weekly working hours	37.85	31.19
Work to family conflict	10.51	10.41
Family to work conflict	3.55	3.61
Proportion of HH income provided (subjective assessment)	4.91	4.16
Thick relationships	24.12	24.29
Thin relationships	34.72	34.76
Active involvement in volunteering and helping activities	2.02	1.96
Observations	75225	86088

Table ESS.4

	(1)	(2)
Education	Freq	Percent
Less than lower secondary	15,594	9.67
Lower secondary	28,729	17.81
Lower tier upper secondary	32,691	20.27
Upper tier upper secondary	32,821	20.35
Advanced vocational	17,969	11.14
Lower tertiary education	15,643	9.70
Higher tertiary education	17,866	11.08
Total	161313	

Table ESS.5

Education	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Freq	Men Percent	Freq	Women Percent
Less than lower secondary	6,322	8.40	9,272	10.77
Lower secondary	12,524	16.65	16,205	18.82
Lower tier upper secondary	17,358	23.07	15,333	17.81
Upper tier upper secondary	15,148	20.14	17,673	20.53
Advanced vocational	8,515	11.32	9,454	10.98
Lower tertiary education	6,763	8.99	8,880	10.32
Higher tertiary education	8,595	11.43	9,271	10.77
Total	75225		86088	

Table ESS.6

Employment status	(1)	(2)
	Freq	Percent
In paid work	80,501	49.90
In education	10,627	6.59
Unemployed active seeker	6,868	4.26
Unemployed no active seeker	2,775	1.72
Sick or disabled	4,044	2.51
Retired	39,680	24.60
Community or military service	233	0.14
Housewife	14,932	9.26
Other	1,653	1.02
Total	161313	

Table ESS.7

Employment status	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)	
	Men		Women		Men		Women	
	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
In paid work	42,760	56.84	37,741	43.84				
In education	5,137	6.83	5,490	6.38				
Unemployed active seeker	3,682	4.89	3,186	3.70				
Unemployed no active seeker	1,367	1.82	1,408	1.64				
Sick or disabled	2,001	2.66	2,043	2.37				
Retired	18,030	23.97	21,650	25.15				
Community or military service	171	0.23	62	0.07				
Housewife	1,341	1.78	13,591	15.79				
Other	736	0.98	917	1.07				
Total	75225		86088					

Table ESS.8

Marital status	(1)	(2)
	Freq	Percent
Married	87,425	54.20
Separated	1,922	1.19
Divorced	14,360	8.90
Widowed	16,606	10.29
Never married	41,000	25.42
Total	161313	

Table ESS.9

Marital status	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Men		Women	
	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
Married	43,709	58.10	43,716	50.78
Separated	811	1.08	1,111	1.29
Divorced	5,459	7.26	8,901	10.34
Widowed	3,403	4.52	13,203	15.34
Never married	21,843	29.04	19,157	22.25
Total	75225		86088	

Table ESS.10

	(1)
	mean
Share of satisfied people	0.47
Share of satisfied men	0.48
Share of satisfied women	0.47
Share of depressive people	0.11
Share of depressive men	0.08
Share of depressive women	0.14
Observations	161,313

Satisfied people are defined as those with a life satisfaction score above 7 on a 0-10 scale. Depressive people are defined as those with a score above 3 on a modified version of the CES-D8 depression scale. The score counts the number of times a respondent chooses the two lower categories when answering the CES-D8 questions.

Table ESS.11

	AL	BE.	BG	CH	CY	CZ	DE	DK	EE	ES	FI	FR	GB	GR	HR	HU	IE
Life satisfaction	5.75	7.41	4.39	8.01	7.06	6.38	6.94	8.48	6.12	7.15	8.11	6.27	7.19	5.68	6.27	5.51	6.43
Depression	.	11.29	13.34	10.69	11.69	13.22	11.85	10.56	12.75	11.98	10.64	11.66	11.39	.	.	14.19	10.88
Anxiety	1.80	1.86	2.12	1.74	2.11	1.61	1.23	1.23	1.76	1.43	1.38	1.86	1.55	.	.	1.96	1.53
Calmness	2.70	2.66	2.62	2.82	2.72	2.96	2.89	3.03	2.80	2.63	2.76	2.53	2.58	.	.	2.71	2.85
Happiness overall	6.43	7.72	5.20	8.02	7.20	6.68	7.25	8.35	6.78	7.52	8.09	7.09	7.47	5.98	6.67	6.14	6.81
Share of satisfied people	0.34	0.58	0.12	0.73	0.51	0.36	0.50	0.84	0.33	0.49	0.78	0.37	0.53	0.23	0.36	0.24	0.39
Share of satisfied women	0.37	0.59	0.12	0.74	0.49	0.36	0.50	0.84	0.36	0.48	0.80	0.36	0.53	0.21	0.37	0.24	0.38
Share of satisfied men	0.31	0.57	0.12	0.72	0.55	0.36	0.50	0.84	0.30	0.50	0.77	0.38	0.53	0.24	0.34	0.22	0.39
Share of depressive people	.	0.09	0.19	0.05	0.13	0.19	0.09	0.04	0.14	0.10	0.05	0.11	0.09	.	.	0.24	0.07
Share of depressive women	.	0.11	0.22	0.06	0.17	0.23	0.11	0.05	0.15	0.14	0.06	0.14	0.11	.	.	0.28	0.06
Share of depressive men	.	0.06	0.14	0.04	0.08	0.15	0.07	0.03	0.13	0.07	0.03	0.07	0.07	.	.	0.19	0.07
Observations	1109	9059	3963	8529	1641	7282	13772	7802	1964	7800	2057	6957	3570	1844	2250	5024	3630
	IL	IS	IT	LT	LU	LV	NL	NO	PL	PT	RO	RU	SE	SI	SK	UA	XK
Life satisfaction	6.95	8.17	6.71	5.55	7.70	5.70	7.60	7.85	6.52	5.60	5.94	5.40	7.89	6.84	6.21	4.54	6.01
Depression	11.97	10.52	12.71	13.27	.	.	11.15	10.07	12.26	13.07	.	13.69	10.62	11.26	13.10	14.23	13.66
Anxiety	1.44	1.44	1.78	1.80	.	.	1.83	1.20	1.61	1.74	.	2.05	1.46	1.42	1.70	2.16	1.66
Calmness	2.74	3.09	2.65	2.62	.	.	2.83	2.95	2.56	2.58	.	2.58	3.02	2.84	2.80	2.78	2.66
Happiness overall	7.37	8.31	7.11	6.24	7.78	6.24	7.73	7.97	6.91	6.30	6.04	6	7.87	7.16	6.59	5.62	6.44
Share of satisfied people	0.51	0.77	0.42	0.25	0.64	0.25	0.64	0.69	0.42	0.22	0.32	0.21	0.69	0.47	0.34	0.12	0.34
Share of satisfied women	0.53	0.78	0.37	0.24	0.64	0.27	0.63	0.70	0.43	0.22	0.32	0.21	0.68	0.47	0.36	0.12	0.37
Share of satisfied men	0.48	0.76	0.47	0.25	0.63	0.24	0.64	0.69	0.41	0.22	0.31	0.22	0.70	0.46	0.32	0.12	0.31
Share of depressive people	0.11	0.06	0.11	0.12	.	.	0.07	0.03	0.15	0.17	.	0.22	0.06	0.09	0.15	0.26	0.16
Share of depressive women	0.13	0.08	0.16	0.13	.	.	0.09	0.03	0.19	0.20	.	0.26	0.07	0.11	0.17	0.29	0.18
Share of depressive men	0.09	0.04	0.05	0.10	.	.	0.06	0.02	0.12	0.13	.	0.16	0.05	0.06	0.12	0.20	0.13
Observations	5006	1027	537	2987	1880	1606	9924	9817	8633	2001	1676	8141	3042	6359	4304	4884	1162

Satisfied people are defined as those with a life satisfaction score above 7 on a 0-10 scale. Depressive people are defined as those with a score above 3 on a modified version of the CES-D8 depression scale. The score counts the number of times a respondent chooses the two lower categories when answering the CES-D8 questions

Table ESS.12 (Women)

	AL	BE.	BG	CH	CY	CZ	DE	DK	EE	ES	FI	FR	GB	GR	HR	HU	IE
Life satisfaction	5.87	7.43	4.32	8.05	6.94	6.35	6.98	8.50	6.24	7.09	8.18	6.24	7.17	5.62	6.33	5.55	6.43
Depression	.	11.85	13.87	11.10	12.61	13.83	12.25	10.84	12.92	12.75	10.80	12.28	11.72	.	.	14.60	10.93
Anxiety	1.83	1.96	2.18	1.79	2.26	1.68	1.29	1.25	1.79	1.52	1.37	1.97	1.61	.	.	2.02	1.54
Calmness	2.60	2.55	2.54	2.75	2.55	2.88	2.80	2.99	2.76	2.53	2.74	2.41	2.47	.	.	2.70	2.80
Happiness overall	6.54	7.73	5.13	8.05	7.10	6.69	7.28	8.37	6.91	7.44	8.14	7.11	7.47	5.93	6.72	6.18	6.87
Observations	605	4573	2299	4401	914	3826	6772	3774	1153	3952	1052	3730	2004	1035	1238	2797	1929
	IL	IS	IT	LT	LU	LV	NL	NO	PL	PT	RO	RU	SE	SI	SK	UA	XK
Life satisfaction	7.01	8.19	6.39	5.51	7.69	5.83	7.58	7.89	6.53	5.54	5.96	5.38	7.84	6.83	6.29	4.53	6.25
Depression	12.19	10.88	13.60	13.61	.	.	11.66	10.31	12.93	13.53	.	14.23	11	11.65	13.37	14.67	14.05
Anxiety	1.49	1.52	1.96	1.86	.	.	1.90	1.24	1.71	1.77	.	2.13	1.54	1.49	1.76	2.24	1.72
Calmness	2.69	2.99	2.41	2.61	.	.	2.73	2.86	2.47	2.55	.	2.54	2.94	2.80	2.77	2.77	2.63
Happiness overall	7.37	8.40	7.00	6.22	7.74	6.30	7.74	8.01	6.91	6.20	6.07	5.98	7.83	7.12	6.64	5.59	6.60
Observations	2761	521	262	1838	874	1016	5334	4622	4496	1238	909	5027	1491	3409	2451	3130	603

Table ESS.13 (Men)

	AL	BE	BG	CH	CY	CZ	DE	DK	EE	ES	FI	FR	GB	GR	HR	HU	IE
Life satisfaction	5.60	7.39	4.49	7.97	7.22	6.41	6.90	8.47	5.96	7.22	8.03	6.31	7.22	5.77	6.20	5.47	6.43
Depression	.	10.71	12.59	10.27	10.54	12.56	11.46	10.28	12.52	11.23	10.47	10.94	10.96	.	.	13.67	10.83
Anxiety	1.75	1.75	2.03	1.68	1.92	1.54	1.17	1.20	1.71	1.35	1.39	1.73	1.47	.	.	1.90	1.52
Calmness	2.82	2.78	2.73	2.91	2.93	3.04	2.98	3.07	2.85	2.72	2.78	2.67	2.73	.	.	2.72	2.90
Happiness overall	6.30	7.71	5.29	7.99	7.34	6.67	7.22	8.33	6.59	7.59	8.04	7.07	7.48	6.04	6.60	6.08	6.74
Observations	504	4486	1664	4128	727	3456	7000	4028	811	3848	1005	3227	1566	809	1012	2227	1701
	IL	IS	IT	LT	LU	LV	NL	NO	PL	PT	RO	RU	SE	SI	SK	UA	XK
Life satisfaction	6.88	8.14	7.02	5.61	7.71	5.48	7.61	7.82	6.50	5.71	5.93	5.42	7.94	6.86	6.11	4.57	5.77
Depression	11.69	10.17	11.87	12.77	.	.	10.59	9.85	11.54	12.31	.	12.80	10.28	10.78	12.76	13.44	13.25
Anxiety	1.38	1.37	1.61	1.73	.	.	1.74	1.17	1.50	1.69	.	1.90	1.38	1.35	1.63	2.03	1.60
Calmness	2.81	3.18	2.87	2.63	.	.	2.93	3.04	2.66	2.64	.	2.64	3.10	2.90	2.85	2.81	2.70
Happiness overall	7.36	8.22	7.23	6.26	7.82	6.14	7.72	7.94	6.91	6.46	6.00	6.05	7.89	7.20	6.53	5.68	6.26
Observations	2245	506	275	1149	1006	590	4590	5195	4137	763	767	3114	1551	2950	1853	1754	559

3. British Household Panel Survey (All waves: 1991-2009)

Table BHPS.1

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	mean	sd	min	max
Age	45.37	18.62	15	100
Monthly household income (£)	2,441.10	1,962.43	0	86,703.29
Monthly labour income (£)	810.84	1,181.67	0	72,055.43
Life satisfaction	5.23	1.29	1	7
GHQ	10.10	2.96	0	12
Job satisfaction	5.40	1.29	0	7
Financial expectations	2.16	0.60	1	3
Job satisfaction: Promotion prospects	3.76	2.33	0	7
Job satisfaction: relation with boss	5.48	1.68	0	7
Wish better job	0.37	0.48	0	1
Expect better job	0.15	0.36	0	1
Promotion opportunities	0.49	0.50	0	1
Hours per week on housework	10.95	10.55	0	99
Hours per week on paid work	17.28	18.57	0	99
Grocery shopping: balanced distribution	0.39	0.49	0	1
Grocery shopping: partner does more	0.27	0.45	0	1
Cooking: balanced distribution	0.24	0.43	0	1
Cooking: partner does more	0.35	0.48	0	1
Washing ironing: balanced distribution	0.17	0.38	0	1
Washing ironing: partner does more	0.38	0.48	0	1
Cleaning: balanced distribution	0.27	0.45	0	1
Cleaning: partner does more	0.33	0.47	0	1
Childcare: balanced distribution	0.34	0.47	0	1
Childcare: partner does more	0.29	0.45	0	1
Social support	7.33	2.44	0	10
Contacts with friends	8.95	2.06	3	12
Thin relationships	8.34	1.36	2	10
Number of organisations active in	0.69	0.93	0	11
Observations	224,237			

Table BHPS.2

	(1)	(2)
	Men	Women
	mean	mean
Age	44.79	45.86
Monthly household income (£)	2,567	2,336
Monthly labour income (£)	1,114	558.0
Life satisfaction	5.235	5.223
GHQ	10.43	9.826
Job satisfaction	5.269	5.521
Financial expectations	2.198	2.137
Job satisfaction: Promotion prospects	3.851	3.682
Job satisfaction: relation with boss	5.308	5.641
Wish better job	0.433	0.316
Expect better job	0.171	0.138
Promotion opportunities	0.519	0.458
Hours per week on housework	5.876	15.18
Hours per week on paid work	20.70	14.42
Grocery shopping: balanced distribution	0.419	0.372
Grocery shopping: partner does more	0.464	0.0963
Cooking: balanced distribution	0.255	0.227
Cooking: partner does more	0.614	0.106
Washing ironing: balanced distribution	0.190	0.157
Washing ironing: partner does more	0.747	0.0367
Cleaning: balanced distribution	0.301	0.249
Cleaning: partner does more	0.606	0.0672
Childcare: balanced distribution	0.380	0.304
Childcare: partner does more	0.588	0.0263
Social support	7.161	7.478
Contacts with friends	8.736	9.135
Thin relationships	8.249	8.424
Number of organisations active in	0.702	0.671
Observations	101986	122251

Table BHPS.3

	(1)	(2)
Education	Freq	Percent
Higher degree	5,276	2.35
Apprenticeship	4,577	2.04
Other qualif	1,567	0.70
No qualif	53,367	23.80
Still at school no qualif	1,505	0.67
First degree	21,245	9.47
Teaching qualification	5,497	2.45
Other higher qualif	44,860	20.01
Nursing qualif	3,289	1.47
GCE A levels	27,175	12.12
GCE O levels or equiv	42,223	18.83
Commercial qualif no O levels	5,936	2.65
CSE grade 2-5 scot grade 4-5	7,720	3.44
Total	224237	

Table BHPS.4

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
		Men	Women	
Education	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
Higher degree	2,945	2.89	2,331	1.91
Apprenticeship	3,999	3.92	578	0.47
Other qualif	636	0.62	931	0.76
No qualif	21,167	20.75	32,200	26.34
Still at school no qualif	707	0.69	798	0.65
First degree	10,309	10.11	10,936	8.95
Teaching qualification	1,567	1.54	3,930	3.21
Other higher qualif	24,862	24.38	19,998	16.36
Nursing qualif	196	0.19	3,093	2.53
GCE A levels	13,455	13.19	13,720	11.22
GCE O levels or equiv	17,808	17.46	24,415	19.97
Commercial qualif no O levels	390	0.38	5,546	4.54
CSE grade 2-5 scot grade 4-5	3,945	3.87	3,775	3.09
Total	101986		122251	

Table BHPS.5

	(1)	(2)
Labour force status	Freq	Percent
Self employed	15,292	6.82
Other	904	0.40
In paid employment	111,878	49.89
Unemployed	8,492	3.79
Retired	45,851	20.45
Family care	2,027	0.90
Student	16,702	7.45
Sick or disabled	13,337	5.95
Maternity leave	9,197	4.10
Government training scheme	557	0.25
Total	224237	

Table BHPS.6

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Men		Women	
Labour force status	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
Self employed	11,115	10.90	4,177	3.42
Other	372	0.36	532	0.44
In paid employment	54,220	53.16	57,658	47.16
Unemployed	5,302	5.20	3,190	2.61
Retired	19,332	18.96	26,519	21.69
Family care	25	0.02	2,002	1.64
Student	700	0.69	16,002	13.09
Sick or disabled	5,982	5.87	7,355	6.02
Maternity leave	4,626	4.54	4,571	3.74
Government training scheme	312	0.31	245	0.20
Total	101986		122251	

Table BHPS.7

	(1)	(2)
Marital status	Freq	Percent
Under 16 years	502	0.22
Married	120,433	53.71
Living as couple	23,615	10.53
Widowed	17,305	7.72
Divorced	12,115	5.40
Separated	3,856	1.72
Never married	46,411	20.70
Total	224237	

Table BHPS.8

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Men		Women	
Marital status	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
Under 16 years	244	0.24	258	0.21
Married	57,790	56.66	62,643	51.24
Living as couple	11,253	11.03	12,362	10.11
Widowed	3,818	3.74	13,487	11.03
Divorced	3,964	3.89	8,151	6.67
Separated	1,315	1.29	2,541	2.08
Never married	23,602	23.14	22,809	18.66
Total	101986		122251	

Table BHPS.9

	(1)	(2)
Duration of work contract	Freq	Percent
Permanent	122,916	91.40
Not permanent	11,569	8.60
Total	134485	

Table BHPS.10

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Men		Women	
Duration of work contract	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
Permanent	62,521	92.07	60,395	90.71
Not permanent	5,382	7.93	6,187	9.29
Total	67903		66582	

4. German Socio-Economic Panel (1991-2012)

Table GSOEP.1

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	mean	sd	min	max
Life satisfaction	6.97	1.78	0	10
Age	47.03	17.47	17	102
Monthly net household income (€)	2,522.63	1,758.09	0	200,000
Hours/week on paid job	21.83	21.37	0	80
Hours/weekday on Housework	1.81	1.69	0	22

Table GSOEP.2

	(1)	(2)
	West	East
	mean	mean
Life satisfaction	7.15	6.48
Age	46.91	47.41
Monthly net household income (€)	2,694.18	2,041
Hours/week on paid job	21.57	22.49
Hours/weekday on Housework	1.83	1.78

Table GSOEP.3

	(1)	(2)
	Men	Women
	mean	mean
Life satisfaction	6.97	6.97
Age	46.62	47.39
Monthly net household income (€)	2,603.97	2,450.16
Hours/week on paid job	27.75	16.57
Hours/weekday on Housework	0.86	2.65

Table GSOEP.4

	(1)	(2)
Education	Freq	Percent
In school	7,433	2.11
Inadequately	9,752	2.77
General elementary	60,414	17.13
Middle vocational	169,940	48.19
Vocational plus Abi	17,345	4.92
Higher vocational	24,281	6.88
Higher education	63,504	18.01
Total	352669	

Table GSOEP.5

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Men		Women	
Education	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
In school	3,593	2.16	3,840	2.06
Inadequately	4,075	2.45	5,677	3.04
General elementary	22,190	13.35	38,224	20.50
Middle vocational	80,688	48.56	89,252	47.86
Vocational plus Abi	7,347	4.42	9,998	5.36
Higher vocational	13,887	8.36	10,394	5.57
Higher education	34,386	20.69	29,118	15.61
Total	166166		186503	

Table GSOEP.6

	(1)	(2)
Labour force status	Freq	Percent
NW (Non-working)	41,501	11.77
NW-But Reg Sec Job	4,930	1.40
Working	199,302	56.51
Working But NW Past 7 days	965	0.27
NW-Age 65 And Older	59,466	16.86
NW-In Education-Training	12,548	3.56
NW-Maternity Leave	6,043	1.71
NW-Military-Community Service	452	0.13
NW-Unemployed	19,719	5.59
NW-But Sometimes Sec. Job	5,647	1.60
NW-but work past 7 days	2,096	0.59
Total	352669	

Table GSOEP.7

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Men		Women	
Labour force status	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
NW (Non-working)	11,490	6.91	30,011	16.09
NW-But Reg Sec Job	1,984	1.19	2,946	1.58
Working	106,332	63.99	92,970	49.85
Working But NW Past 7 days	346	0.21	619	0.33
NW-Age 65 And Older	25,620	15.42	33,846	18.15
NW-In Education-Training	6,091	3.67	6,457	3.46
NW-Maternity Leave	113	0.07	5,930	3.18
NW-Military-Community Service	437	0.26	15	0.01
NW-Unemployed	9,891	5.95	9,828	5.27
NW-But Sometimes Sec. Job	2,742	1.65	2,905	1.56
NW-but work past 7 days	1,120	0.67	976	0.52
Total	166166		186503	

Table GSOEP.8

	(1)	(2)
Marital status	Freq	Percent
Married	218,037	61.82
Married, but separated	6,484	1.84
Single	82,783	23.47
Divorced	22,848	6.48
Widowed	22,228	6.30
Husband/wife abroad	289	0.08
Total	352669	

Table GSOEP.9

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Men		Women	
Marital status	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
Married	105,914	63.74	112,123	60.12
Married, but separated	2,917	1.76	3,567	1.91
Single	43,526	26.19	39,257	21.05
Divorced	8,901	5.36	13,947	7.48
Widowed	4,696	2.83	17,532	9.40
Husband/wife abroad	212	0.13	77	0.04
Total	166166		186503	

Table GSOEP.10 (West sample)

	(1)	(2)
	Men	Women
	mean	mean
Life satisfaction	7.15	7.15
Age	46.61	47.18
Monthly net household income (€)	2,781.53	2,616.22
Hours/week on paid job	28.27	15.59
Hours/weekday on Housework	0.81	2.73
Observations	119,623	134,041

Table GSOEP.11 (East sample)

	(1)	(2)
	Men	Women
	mean	mean
Life satisfaction	6.48	6.48
Age	46.72	48.03
Monthly net household income (€)	2,105.90	1,983.39
Hours/week on paid job	26.47	18.95
Hours/weekday on Housework	0.96	2.50
Observations	40,188	45,272

Table GSOEP.12 (Women in partnership)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	mean	sd	min	max
Life Satisfaction	7.04	1.73	0	10
Age	47.99	14.72	17	94
Monthly net household income (€)	2697.40	1784.56	0	200000
Hours/week on paid job	16.74	18.58	0	80
Hours/weekday on Housework	3.03	1.77	0	20
Total	115,548			

Table GSOEP.13 (Men in partnership)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	mean	sd	min	max
Life Satisfaction	7.00	1.73	0	10
Age	50.73	14.88	18	100
Monthly net household income (€)	2694.61	1739.23	0	200000
Hours/week on paid job	29.02	22.45	0	80
Hours/weekday on Housework	0.81	0.96	0	14
Total	115,088			

5. Generations and Gender Programme (2 waves: 2002-2013)

Table GGP.1

	(1)	(2)
Country	Freq	Percent
Bulgaria	12,858	7.16
Russia	11,261	6.27
Georgia	10,000	5.57
Germany	10,017	5.58
France	10,079	5.61
Hungary	13,540	7.54
Italy	9,570	5.33
Netherlands	8,161	4.55
Romania	11,986	6.68
Norway	14,880	8.29
Austria	5,000	2.79
Estonia	7,855	4.38
Belgium	7,163	3.99
Australia	7,125	3.97
Lithuania	10,036	5.59
Poland	19,987	11.13
Czech Republic	10,006	5.57
Total	179524	

Table GGP.2

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	mean	sd	min	max
Age	46.53	16.45	16	99
Depression	9.68	3.58	7	28
Sat. with division of HH tasks	8.27	1.90	0	10
Sat. with relationship	8.62	1.70	0	10
Breaking intentions	0.08	0.27	0	1
HH tasks: partner	18.15	6.02	7	35
Decisions	8.69	1.72	3	15
Disagreements	11.46	4.15	7	35
Cooking: balanced rep.	0.13	0.34	0	1
Cooking: partner does more	0.29	0.45	0	1
Dishes: balanced rep.	0.20	0.40	0	1
Dishes: partner does more	0.24	0.43	0	1
Grocery shopping: balanced rep.	0.31	0.46	0	1
Grocery shopping: partner does more	0.19	0.39	0	1
Vacuum-cleaning: balanced rep.	0.20	0.40	0	1
Vacuum-cleaning: partner does more	0.25	0.43	0	1
Small repairs: balanced rep.	0.09	0.29	0	1
Small repairs: partner does more	0.34	0.48	0	1
Bills: balanced rep.	0.24	0.42	0	1
Bills: partner does more	0.22	0.41	0	1
Social activities: balanced rep.	0.51	0.50	0	1
Social activities: partner does more	0.09	0.28	0	1
Dec. Routine purchases: balanced rep.	0.41	0.49	0	1
Dec. Routine purchases: part. does more	0.24	0.43	0	1
Dec. Expensive purchases: balanced rep.	0.81	0.40	0	1
Dec. Expensive purchases: part. does more	0.08	0.27	0	1
Dec. Social activities: balanced rep.	0.83	0.38	0	1
Dec. Social activities: part. does more	0.07	0.25	0	1
Disagreement HH chores	1.81	0.90	1	5
Disagreement Money	1.85	0.97	1	5
Disagreement Leisure	1.67	0.85	1	5
Disagreement Friends	1.57	0.81	1	5
Disagreement Parents	1.59	0.89	1	5
Disagreement Alcohol	1.56	0.91	1	5
Disagreement Sex	1.47	0.77	1	5
Keep your opinion to yourself	2.41	1.10	1	5
Discuss calmly	3.48	1.01	1	5
Argue heatedly or shout	2.05	0.96	1	5
End up becoming violent	1.09	0.37	1	5
Part-time job	0.17	0.37	0	1
Hours per week on paid job	24.57	21.65	0	140
Flexible time arrangements at work	0.43	0.50	0	1
Observations	179,524			

Table GGP.3

	(1)	(2)
	Men	Women
	mean	mean
Age	46.03	46.93
Depression	8.95	10.30
Sat. with division of HH tasks	8.68	7.89
Sat. with relationship	8.81	8.45
Breaking intentions	0.06	0.10
HH tasks: partner	20.60	15.89
Decisions	9.45	7.99
Disagreements	11.29	11.62
Cooking: balanced rep.	0.16	0.11
Cooking: partner does more	0.62	0.03
Dishes: balanced rep.	0.25	0.17
Dishes: partner does more	0.50	0.04
Grocery shopping: balanced rep.	0.36	0.27
Grocery shopping: partner does more	0.33	0.08
Vacuum-cleaning: balanced rep.	0.23	0.17
Vacuum-cleaning: partner does more	0.50	0.05
Small repairs: balanced rep.	0.07	0.11
Small repairs: partner does more	0.03	0.65
Bills: balanced rep.	0.26	0.22
Bills: partner does more	0.27	0.18
Social activities: balanced rep.	0.56	0.46
Social activities: partner does more	0.13	0.05
Dec. Routine purchases: balanced rep.	0.46	0.37
Dec. Routine purchases: part. does more	0.44	0.06
Dec. Expensive purchases: balanced rep.	0.81	0.80
Dec. Expensive purchases: part. does more	0.09	0.08
Dec. Social activities: balanced rep.	0.84	0.81
Dec. Social activities: part. does more	0.09	0.04
Disagreement HH chores	1.75	1.86
Disagreement Money	1.80	1.90
Disagreement Leisure	1.65	1.68
Disagreement Friends	1.57	1.56
Disagreement Parents	1.55	1.62
Disagreement Alcohol	1.54	1.59
Disagreement Sex	1.45	1.48
Keep your opinion to yourself	2.41	2.40
Discuss calmly	3.51	3.46
Argue heatedly or shout	1.97	2.12
End up becoming violent	1.09	1.09
Part-time job	0.09	0.25
Hours per week on paid job	29.22	20.64
Flexible time arrangements at work	0.42	0.44
Observations	80315	99209

Table GGP.4

	(1)	(2)
Education	Freq	Percent
Pre-Primary	1,459	0.88
Primary	11,574	6.95
Lower secondary	29,400	17.65
Upper secondary	70,286	42.20
Post secondary non-tertiary	15,745	9.45
First stage of tertiary	36,059	21.65
Second stage of tertiary	2,042	1.23
Total	166565	

Table GGP.5

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Men		Women	
Education	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
Pre-Primary	481	0.64	978	1.06
Primary	4,268	5.72	7,306	7.95
Lower secondary	12,789	17.14	16,611	18.07
Upper secondary	34,599	46.37	35,687	38.81
Post secondary non-tertiary	6,347	8.51	9,398	10.22
First stage of tertiary	15,011	20.12	21,048	22.89
Second stage of tertiary	1,125	1.51	917	1
Total	74620		91945	

Table GGP.6

	(1)	(2)
Employment status	Freq	Percent
Employed or self-employed	93,300	52.02
Other	2,011	1.12
Working pensioner	847	0.47
In apprenticeship or training	50	0.03
Family business	963	0.54
Unemployed	11,969	6.67
Student or vocational training	9,221	5.14
Retired	41,218	22.98
Parental leave	3,254	1.81
Disabled for a long time	6,450	3.60
Housewife	9,991	5.57
Military or social service	97	0.05
Total	179371	

Table GGP.7

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Men		Women	
Employment status	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
Employed or self-employed	47,925	59.73	45,375	45.77
Other	777	0.97	1,234	1.24
Working pensioner	283	0.35	564	0.57
In apprenticeship or training	22	0.03	28	0.03
Family business	322	0.40	641	0.65
Unemployed	5,896	7.35	6,073	6.13
Student or vocational training	4,177	5.21	5,044	5.09
Retired	17,372	21.65	23,846	24.06
Parental leave	73	0.09	3,181	3.21
Disabled for a long time	3,081	3.84	3,369	3.40
Housewife	219	0.27	9,772	9.86
Military or social service	95	0.12	2	0
Total	80242		99129	

Table GGP.8

	(1)	(2)
Marital status	Freq	Percent
Never married	47,702	27.21
Married	99,668	56.86
Widowed	13,632	7.78
Divorced	14,299	8.16
Total	175301	

Table GGP.9

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Men		Women	
Marital status	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
Never married	24,004	30.63	23,698	24.45
Married	47,025	60	52,643	54.31
Widowed	4,708	6.01	8,924	9.21
Divorced	2,638	3.37	11,661	12.03
Total	78375		96926	

APPENDIX C. Results

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1. The Explicandum: Gender Gaps in SWB

Table 1. The Gender Gap in Life Satisfaction. OLS Estimates. WVS (2011-2015) and ESS (2002-2013)

	(1)	(2)
	Life Satisfaction	
	WVS	ESS
Women	0.04*** (0.01)	0.05*** (0.01)
Age	-0.02*** (0.00)	-0.03*** (0.00)
Age ²	0.00*** (0.00)	0.00*** (0.00)
Household income decile	0.11*** (0.01)	0.06*** (0.00)
Observations	79,399	160,682

* $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level and professional status.

Table 2.A The Gender Gap in Depression. OLS Estimates. ESS (2006-2007 and 2012-2013)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
		Depression	
Women	0.25*** (0.01)	0.21*** (0.02)	0.15*** (0.02)
Country fixed effects	NO	YES	YES
Year fixed effects	NO	YES	YES
Age and Age ²	NO	YES	YES
Demographic variables	NO	NO	YES
Observations	57,949	57,949	57,949

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Depression: "Please tell me how much of the time during the past week : you felt depressed? you felt everything you did was an effort? your sleep was restless? you were happy? you felt lonely? you enjoyed life? you felt sad? you could not get going?" with responses labelled: "None or almost none of the time" = 1; "Some of the time" = 2; "Most of the time" = 3; "All or almost all of the time" = 4. Demographic controls include: household income, marital status, education level, professional status.

Table 2.B The Gender Gap in Anxiety. OLS Estimates. ESS (2006-2007 and 2012-2013)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
		Anxiety	
Women	0.24*** (0.01)	0.18*** (0.02)	0.15*** (0.02)
Country fixed effects	NO	YES	YES
Year fixed effects	NO	YES	YES
Age and Age ²	NO	YES	YES
Demographic variables	NO	NO	YES
Observations	60,808	60,808	60,808

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Anxiety: "Please tell me how much of the time during the past week you felt anxious?" with responses labelled: "None or almost none of the time" = 1; "Some of the time" = 2; "Most of the time" = 3; "All or almost all of the time" = 4. Demographic controls include: household income, marital status, education level, professional status.columns 4.

Table 2.C The Gender Gap in Calmness. OLS Estimates. ESS (2006-2007 and 2012-2013)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
		Calmness	
Women	-0.20*** (0.01)	-0.19*** (0.02)	-0.16*** (0.02)
Country fixed effects	NO	YES	YES
Year fixed effects	NO	YES	YES
Age and Age ²	NO	YES	YES
Demographic variables	NO	NO	YES
Observations	60,723	60,723	60,723

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Calmness: "Please tell me how much of the time during the past week you felt calms and peaceful?" with responses labelled: "None or almost none of the time" = 1; "Some of the time" = 2; "Most of the time" = 3; "All or almost all of the time" = 4. Demographic controls include: household income, marital status, education level, professional status.

Table 2.D The Gender Gap in Emotional Happiness. OLS Estimates. ESS (2006-2007 and 2012-2013)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
		Happiness overall	
Women	-0.05*** (0.00)	0.01* (0.01)	0.06*** (0.01)
Country fixed effects	NO	YES	YES
Year fixed effects	NO	YES	YES
Age and Age ²	NO	YES	YES
Demographic variables	NO	NO	YES
Observations	160,358	160,358	160,358

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Happiness: "Taking all things together, how happy would you say you are?" with responses labelled: "None or almost none of the time" = 1; "Some of the time" = 2; "Most of the time" = 3; "All or almost all of the time" = 4. Demographic controls include: household income, marital status, education level, professional status.

Table 2.E The Gender Gap in Life Satisfaction by Country. OLS Estimates. ESS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
	Life Satisfaction											
	AL	BE	BG	CH	CY	CZ	DE	DK	EE	ES	FI	FR
Women	0.12 (0.09)	0.05*** (0.02)	-0.01 (0.03)	0.07*** (0.02)	-0.05 (0.05)	0.04* (0.02)	0.09*** (0.02)	0.04*** (0.01)	0.15*** (0.05)	-0.02 (0.02)	0.08*** (0.03)	0.02 (0.02)
Obs.	1,106	9,043	3,951	8,523	1,627	7,230	13,763	7,794	1,960	7,773	2,055	6,956
	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)
	Life Satisfaction											
	GB	GR	HR	HU	IE	IL	IS	IT	LT	LU	LV	NL
Women	0.03 (0.03)	0.00 (0.05)	0.08* (0.04)	0.03 (0.03)	-0.02 (0.03)	0.10*** (0.03)	0.06 (0.04)	-0.19** (0.09)	0.02 (0.04)	0.03 (0.05)	0.22*** (0.05)	0.06*** (0.01)
Obs.	3,563	1,842	2,242	5,002	3,623	4,967	1,026	534	2,968	1,876	1,589	9,914
	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)		
	Life Satisfaction											
	NO	PL	PT	RO	RU	SE	SI	SK	UA	XK		
Women	0.04*** (0.01)	0.04* (0.02)	0.02 (0.04)	0.07 (0.05)	0.06*** (0.02)	0.01 (0.02)	0.05** (0.02)	0.09*** (0.03)	0.06* (0.03)	0.15* (0.08)		
Obs.	9,812	8,601	1,987	1,667	8,097	3,038	6,330	4,289	4784	1150		

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level and professional status.

Table 2.F The Gender Gap in Depression by Country. OLS Estimates. ESS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
	Depression										
	BE	BG	CH	CY	CZ	DE	DK	EE	ES	FI	FR
Women	0.22*** (0.03)	0.21*** (0.05)	0.14*** (0.03)	0.35*** (0.08)	0.21*** (0.06)	0.13*** (0.03)	0.09*** (0.03)	-0.03 (0.05)	0.28*** (0.04)	0.02 (0.03)	0.22*** (0.03)
Obs.	3,240	1,806	2,652	859	1,205	4,593	2,469	1,908	2,644	2,041	3,503
	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)			
	Depression										
	GB	HU	IE	IL	IS	IT	LT	NL			
Women	0.11** (0.05)	0.13** (0.06)	0.02 (0.05)	0.13*** (0.05)	0.14** (0.07)	0.31*** (0.09)	0.10** (0.04)	0.14*** (0.03)			
Obs.	1,716	1,341	1,891	1,550	606	512	1,595	3,203			
	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)		
	Depression										
	NO	PL	PT	RU	SE	SI	SK	UA	XK		
Women	0.09*** (0.03)	0.24*** (0.04)	0.19*** (0.07)	0.18*** (0.04)	0.12*** (0.04)	0.14*** (0.04)	0.09** (0.04)	0.18*** (0.06)	0.06 (0.06)		
Obs.	3219	2,732	1,006	3,299	1,641	2,012	2,145	1493	1068		

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level and professional status.

Table 2.G The Gender Gap in Subjective Well-Being. OLS Estimates. BHPS (1991-2008)

	(1) Life Satisfaction	(2) GHQ	(3) Job Sat. (Working individuals)
Women	0.01 (0.01)	-0.19*** (0.01)	0.19*** (0.01)
Observations	155,230	216,659	118,014

* $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², Year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Life satisfaction: "How dissatisfied or satisfied are you with your life overall?" (0-10 scale); Job satisfaction: "All things considered, how satisfied or dissatisfied are you with your present job overall" (1-7 scale). GHQ: "Have you recently: been able to concentrate on whatever you're doing?" with responses "Better than usual"; "Same as usual"; "Less than usual"; "Much less than usual". "Have you recently: lost much sleep over worry? felt constantly under strain? felt you couldn't overcome your difficulties? been feeling unhappy or depressed? been losing confidence in yourself? been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?" with the responses: "Not at all"; "No more than usual"; "Rather more than usual"; "Much more than usual". "Have you recently: felt that you were playing a useful part in things? felt capable of making decisions about things? been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities? been able to face up to problems? been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered?" with the responses: "More so than usual"; "About same as usual"; "Less so than usual"; "Much less than usual". The GHQ indicator is the Caseness GHQ score, which counts the number of questions for which the response is in one of the two "low well-being" categories. This count is then reversed so that higher scores indicate higher levels of well being, running from 0 (all twelve responses indicating poor psychological health) to 12 (no responses indicating poor psychological health).

Table 2.H The Gender Gap in Depression. OLS Estimates. GGP (2005)

	(1) Depression
Women	0.31*** (0.03)
Observations	79,401

* $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country fixed-effects, marital status, education level, employment status. Depression: "Please tell me how frequently did you experience the next items during the previous week: I felt that I could not shake off the blues even with help from my family or friends; I felt depressed; I thought my life had been a failure; I felt fearful; I felt lonely; I had crying spells; I felt sad". Responses are labelled: "Seldom or never" = 1; "Sometimes" = 2; "Often" = 3; "Most of the time" = 4.

2. The Gender Gap Over the Life Cycle

Table 3.A WWS. Life Satisfaction Over the Life Cycle. OLS Estimates. Minimal Controls. (2011-2015)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Life Satisfaction					
	All	All	Age<18	18<Age ≤ 35	35<Age≤50	50<Age
Women	0.10*** (0.03)	0.08* (0.04)	0.02 (0.05)	0.04** (0.02)	0.04** (0.02)	-0.00 (0.02)
Women*18<Age≤35		-0.05 (0.04)				
Women*35<Age≤50		-0.05 (0.05)				
Women*50<Age		-0.08* (0.05)				
Women*Age	-0.00** (0.00)					
Observations	79,399	79,399	1,883	31,313	22,405	23,798

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects. Reference category: "Women*Age≤18".

Table 3.B WWS. Life Satisfaction Over the Life Cycle. OLS Estimates. Full Set of Controls. (2011-2015)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Life Satisfaction					
	All	All	Age≤18	18<Age≤35	35<Age≤50	50<Age
Women	0.02 (0.03)	0.05 (0.04)	-0.01 (0.06)	0.03** (0.01)	0.06*** (0.02)	0.07*** (0.02)
Women*18< Age≤ 35		-0.03 (0.04)				
Women*35< Age≤ 50		-0.01 (0.04)				
Women*50< Age		0.02 (0.05)				
Women*Age	0.00 (0.00)					
Observations	79,399	79,399	1,883	31,313	22,405	23,798

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Reference category: "Women*Age≤18".

Table 3.C ESS. Life Satisfaction Over the Life Cycle. OLS Estimates. Minimal Controls. (2002-2013)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Life Satisfaction						
	All	All	All	Age≤18	18<Age≤35	35<Age≤50	50<Age
Women	0.01 (0.01)	0.11*** (0.02)	0.10*** (0.03)	-0.05 (0.03)	0.05*** (0.01)	0.02** (0.01)	-0.01 (0.01)
Women*18< Age≤35			-0.06* (0.03)				
Women*35< Age≤50			-0.09** (0.04)				
Women*50< Age			-0.11*** (0.04)				
Women*Age		-0.00*** (0.00)					
Observations	160,682	160,682	160,682	4,978	39,602	43,339	72,763

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country and year fixed-effects. Reference category: "Women*Age≤ 18" in column 3.

Table 3.D ESS. Life satisfaction Over the Life Cycle. OLS Estimates. Full Set of Controls. (2002-2013)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Life Satisfaction						
	All	All	All	Age≤18	18<Age≤35	35<Age≤50	50<Age
Women	0.05*** (0.01)	0.02 (0.02)	0.04 (0.03)	-0.04 (0.03)	0.03*** (0.01)	0.05*** (0.01)	0.07*** (0.01)
Women*18< Age≤35			-0.01 (0.03)				
Women*35< Age≤50			-0.03 (0.04)				
Women*50< Age			0.03 (0.04)				
Women*Age		0.00 (0.00)					
Observations	160,682	160,682	160,682	4,978	39,602	43,339	72,763

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Reference category: "Women*Age≤ 18" in column 3.

Table 3.E ESS. Depression Over the Life Cycle. OLS Estimates. Full Set of Controls.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Depression						
	All	All	All	Age≤18	18<Age≤35	35<Age≤50	50<Age
Women	0.15*** (0.02)	0.11*** (0.03)	0.11*** (0.03)	0.23*** (0.03)	0.13*** (0.02)	0.13*** (0.02)	0.16*** (0.02)
Women*18< Age≤35			0.02 (0.04)				
Women*35< Age≤50			0.07* (0.04)				
Women*50< Age			0.03 (0.04)				
Women*Age		0.00 (0.00)					
Observations	57,949	57,949	57,949	1,855	14,042	15,622	26,430

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Reference category: "Women*Age ≤ 18" in column 3.

Figure 1. The Gender Gap in Emotional Wellbeing. WHO Index of Depression. Reproduced from Eurofound (2013), Figure 33.

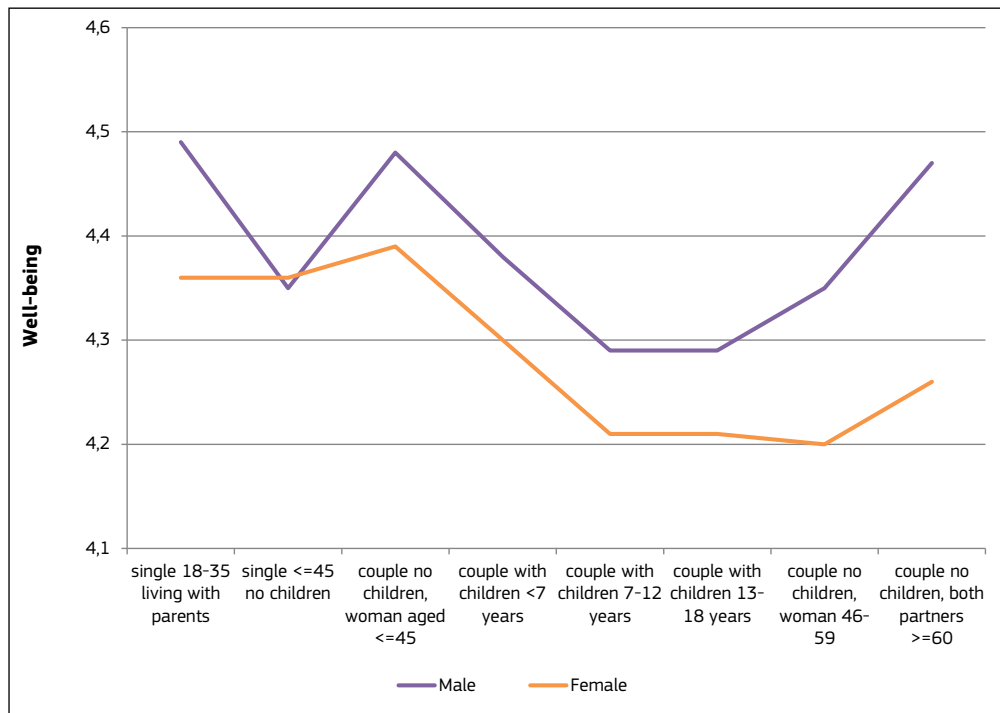


Image courtesy of the authors

3. The Time Trend in the Gender Gap in SWB

Table 4.A A Declining Trend in the Gender Gap in Life Satisfaction. OLS Estimates. ESS. (2002-2013)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Life Satisfaction		
Women	0.06*** (0.01)	0.05*** (0.01)	0.07*** (0.01)
Women*Year	-0.00** (0.00)		-0.00 (0.00)
Women*Year≥2008		-0.02* (0.01)	0.01 (0.02)
Observations	107,777	107,777	107,777

* $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level and professional status. Sub-sample of countries part of all waves of the ESS.

Table 4.B No Declining Time Trend in the Emotional Wellbeing Gap. OLS Estimates. ESS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Life Satisfaction	Depression	Anxiety	Calmness	Happiness
Women	0.06*** (0.01)	0.18*** (0.03)	0.19*** (0.04)	-0.20*** (0.03)	0.05*** (0.01)
Women*Year/100	-0.32** (0.14)	-0.30 (0.34)	-0.41 (0.41)	0.13 (0.37)	0.02 (0.15)
Observations	107,777	39,903	40,245	40,256	107,754

* $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level and professional status. Sub-sample of countries part of all waves of the ESS.

4. Country Differences

Table 5.A The Greater Wellbeing Gap in Rich Countries. OLS Estimates. WVS, Last Wave.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Life Satisfaction					
Women	0.04 (0.04)	0.05 (0.03)	0.02 (0.02)	0.06*** (0.01)	-0.00 (0.01)	0.02 (0.02)
Women*Asia	-0.01 (0.04)	-0.01 (0.04)				
Women*America	-0.03 (0.04)	-0.01 (0.04)				
Women*Europa	-0.05 (0.04)	-0.01 (0.03)				
Women*Oceania	0.09* (0.05)	0.13*** (0.04)				
Women*Developing countries			0.01 (0.02)	-0.03 (0.02)		
Women*Lower-middle-income country					0.02 (0.04)	0.00 (0.05)
Women*Upper-middle-income					0.03 (0.02)	0.01 (0.03)
Women*High-income country					0.03* (0.02)	0.05* (0.03)
Demographic variables	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES
Observations	79,399	79,399	79,399	79,399	79,399	79,399

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects in column 1 ; demographic variables (household income, marital status, education level, professional status) are added in column 2. Reference category: "Women*Africa" columns 1 and 2, "Women*Developed countries" in columns 3 and 4, "Women*Low-income country" in columns 5 and 6.

Geographical area (unstats.un.org) :

Europe

- Northern Europe: Estonia, Sweden
- Western Europe: Germany, Netherlands
- Eastern Europe: Belarus, Poland, Romania, Russia, Ukraine
- Southern Europe: Slovenia, Spain

Africa

- Northern Africa: Algeria, Libya, Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt
- Western Africa: Ghana, Jordan, Nigeria
- Eastern Africa: Rwanda, Zimbabwe
- Southern Africa: South Africa

Asia

- Eastern Asia: China, Hong Kong, Japan, South Korea, Taiwan
- Southern Asia: India, Pakistan
- Western Asia : Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Armenia, Cyprus, Palestine, Iraq, Kuwait, Lebanon, Qatar, Turkey, Yemen
- Central Asia: Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan
- South-Eastern Asia : Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand

America

- Central America : Mexico
- Northern America : United States
- South America : Argentina, Brail, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Uruguay
- Carribean : Trinidad and Tobago

Oceania

- Australia
- New Zealand

Developing/Developed countries :

Developing countries

- Africa
- Carribean
- Central America
- South America
- Asia, excluding Japan

Developed countries – United States

- United States
- Europe
- Japan
- Oceania

Classification by income level:

<http://data.worldbank.org/about/country-and-lending-groups>

Table 5.B Geographical Differences in Depression. OLS Estimates. ESS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Depression			
Women	0.25*** (0.04)	0.18*** (0.03)	0.20*** (0.02)	0.14*** (0.02)
Women*Northern Europe	-0.13*** (0.04)	-0.13*** (0.04)		
Women*Southern Europe	0.03 (0.06)	0.04 (0.06)		
Women*Western Europe	-0.01 (0.04)	-0.02 (0.04)		
Women*Western Asia	0.01 (0.13)	0.02 (0.11)		
Women*CEI	0.05 (0.04)	0.03 (0.04)		
Women*Great Britain and Ireland	-0.13** (0.07)	-0.11** (0.05)		
Women*Central and Eastern Europe			0.02 (0.04)	0.01 (0.03)
Demographic variables	NO	YES	NO	YES
Observations	57,949	57,949	57,949	57,949

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects. Demographic variables (Household income, marital status, education level and professional status) are added in columns 2 and 4 only. Reference category: "Women*Eastern Europe" in columns 1 and 2. "Eastern Europe" does not include Russia and Ukraine, which are part of the CEI.

5. Education

Table 6 Education and the Gender Gap in SWB. OLS Estimates. ESS.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Life Satisfaction		Depression	
Women	0.05*** (0.01)	-0.04* (0.02)	0.15*** (0.02)	0.34*** (0.05)
Women*Lower secondary		0.09*** (0.02)		-0.16*** (0.05)
Women*Lower tier upper secondary		0.10*** (0.02)		-0.20*** (0.06)
Women*Upper tier upper secondary		0.08*** (0.03)		-0.18*** (0.06)
Women*Advanced vocational		0.11*** (0.03)		-0.26*** (0.05)
Women*Lower tertiary education		0.10*** (0.03)		-0.27*** (0.05)
Women*Higher tertiary education		0.10*** (0.02)		-0.28*** (0.05)
Observations	160,682	160,682	57,949	57,949

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Reference category for education : "Less than lower secondary".

6. Job Characteristics

Table 7.A Gender Gap in Life Satisfaction and Working Conditions. OLS Estimates. BHPS.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Life Satisfaction			
	All	All	Men	Women
Women	0.02*	0.02*		
	(0.01)	(0.01)		
Log of monthly labour income		0.06***	0.09***	0.05***
		(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)
Hours per week on paid work/100		-0.29***	-0.14*	-0.34***
		(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.09)
Promotion opportunities		0.06***	0.07***	0.04***
		(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Temporary job		-0.05***	-0.07***	-0.04*
		(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.02)
Commuting time>20 min		-0.06***	-0.05***	-0.06***
		(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)
Nb. of people employed at workplace (dummies)	NO	YES	YES	YES
Observations	70,917	70,917	33,259	37,658

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Sub-sample of working individuals.

Table 7.B Gender Gap in Mental Health and Working Conditions. OLS Estimates. BHPS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	GHQ (working individuals)			
	All	All	Men	Women
Women	-0.18*** (0.01)	-0.18*** (0.01)		
Log of monthly labour income		0.02** (0.01)	0.02 (0.01)	0.03* (0.01)
Hours per week on paid work/100		-0.05 (0.05)	0.03 (0.06)	-0.12 (0.08)
Promotion opportunities		0.06*** (0.01)	0.06*** (0.01)	0.05*** (0.01)
Temporary job		-0.02 (0.01)	-0.04* (0.02)	-0.01 (0.02)
Commuting time > 20 min		-0.05*** (0.01)	-0.03** (0.01)	-0.06*** (0.01)
Nb. of people employed at workplace (dummies)	NO	YES	YES	YES
Observations	92,817	92,817	43,716	49,101

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Sub-sample of working individuals.

Table 7.C Gender Gap in Job Satisfaction and Working Conditions. OLS Estimates. BHPS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Job Satisfaction (working individuals)			
	All	All	Men	Women
Women	0.18*** (0.01)	0.14*** (0.01)		
Log of monthly labour income		0.06*** (0.01)	0.16*** (0.02)	0.04*** (0.01)
Hours per week on paid work/100		-0.83*** (0.06)	-0.55*** (0.08)	-0.86*** (0.08)
Promotion opportunities		0.23*** (0.01)	0.28*** (0.01)	0.19*** (0.01)
Temporary job		-0.08*** (0.02)	-0.08*** (0.03)	-0.07*** (0.02)
Commuting time > 20 min		-0.06*** (0.01)	-0.03* (0.01)	-0.08*** (0.01)
Nb. of people employed at workplace (dummies)	NO	YES	YES	YES
Observations	94,949	94,949	44,722	50,227

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Sub-sample of working individuals.

Table 7.D Gender Gap in Job Satisfaction and Working Conditions. GGP

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Part time job (Probit)	Weekly working hours (OLS)	Flexible time arrangements (Probit)
Women	0.17*** (0.03)	-4.29*** (0.61)	0.01 (0.02)
Observations	79,425	146,772	58,188

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country fixed-effects, marital status, education level, employment status.

Table 7.E Gender Gap in Depression and Working Conditions. OLS Estimates. GGP

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Depression				
	All	All	All	Men	Women
Women	0.31*** (0.02)	0.32*** (0.02)	0.31*** (0.02)		
Part-time job		0.02 (0.03)	0.01 (0.03)	0.08 (0.05)	-0.03 (0.03)
Hours per week on paid job		0.00*** (0.00)	0.00** (0.00)	0.00** (0.00)	0.00* (0.00)
Flexible time arrangements at work		-0.03 (0.03)	-0.04 (0.03)	-0.01 (0.03)	-0.06 (0.04)
Part-time job (partner)			0.07 (0.04)	0.02 (0.03)	0.18** (0.05)
Hours per week on paid job (partner)			0.00*** (0.00)	0.00** (0.00)	0.00*** (0.00)
Flexible time arrangements at work (partner)			0.02 (0.02)	-0.00 (0.02)	0.04 (0.03)
Regularity of work (dummies)	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES
Observations	13,100	13,100	13,100	6,219	6,881

* $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country fixed-effects, marital status, education level, employment status. Dummies for the regularity of respondent's work include 5 modalities: "continuous through much of the year", "Seasonal", "Intermittent", "Casual", or "Other". Flexible time arrangement variable is a dummy equal to 1 if respondent answers "yes" to the question: "Does your employer allow regular flexible time arrangements for personal reasons, like for adapting to children's schedules?".

7. Personality Traits

Table 8. The Gender Gap in SWB and Personality Traits. OLS Estimates. WVS.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Life Satisfaction				
	All	All	All	Men	Women
Women	0.05** (0.02)	0.06** (0.02)	0.08 (0.14)		
Openness-to-experience		0.01 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)	0.02* (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)
Conscientiousness		0.02*** (0.01)	0.02** (0.01)	0.03*** (0.01)	0.02** (0.01)
Extroversion		0.01 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)
Agreeableness		0.01 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)
Neuroticism		-0.05*** (0.01)	-0.05*** (0.01)	-0.05*** (0.01)	-0.05*** (0.01)
Women*Openness-to-experience			-0.01 (0.01)		
Women*Conscientiousness			0.00 (0.01)		
Women*Extroversion			0.00 (0.01)		
Women*Agreeableness			0.00 (0.01)		
Women*Neuroticism			-0.01 (0.01)		
Observations	30,444	30,444	30,444	15,106	15,338

* $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level and professional status. Big 5 personality traits: "Now could you tell me whether you agree strongly, agree a little, neither agree nor disagree, disagree a little or disagree strongly with each of the following statements?" "I see myself as someone who has few artistic interests" (O). "I see myself as someone who has an active imagination" (O). "I see myself as someone who tends to find fault with others" (C). "I see myself as someone who tends to be lazy" (C). "I see myself as someone who is outgoing, sociable" (E). "I see myself as someone who is reserved" (E). "I see myself as someone who is generally trusting" (A). "I see myself as someone who tends to find fault with others" (A). "I see myself as someone who gets nervous easily" (N). "I see myself as someone who is relaxed, handles stress well" (N). Responses are labelled as follows: "Disagree strongly" = 1 ; "Disagree a little" = 2 ; "Neither agree nor disagree" = 3 ; "Agree a little" = 4 ; "Agree Strongly" = 5. Response scales are reversed when necessary.

8. Reported Division of Tasks and Decision-making

Table 9.A Reported Division of Tasks and Decision-Making. OLS Estimates. GGS

	(1) Partner does HH tasks	(2) Partner makes decisions	(3) Frequency of Disagreements
Women	-4.34*** (0.50)	-1.43*** (0.15)	0.24* (0.11)
Observations	58,587	65,304	42,906

* $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country fixed-effects, marital status, education level, employment status.

Table 9.B Reported Division of Detailed Tasks. OLS Estimates. GGS

	(1) Cooking	(2) Dishes	(3) Grocery shopping	(4) Vacuum- cleaning	(5) Small repairs	(6) Bills	(7) Social activities
Women	-1.71*** (0.13)	-1.38*** (0.17)	-0.76*** (0.04)	-1.31*** (0.15)	1.88*** (0.12)	-0.29* (0.14)	-0.30*** (0.05)
Observations	119,930	114,291	120,608	97,288	110,072	110,855	100,670

* $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country fixed-effects, marital status, education level, employment status. For each household task, the variable of interest is the response to the question: "Who does this household task?" Responses are labelled "Always respondent" = 1; "Usually respondent" = 2; "Respondent and partner equally" = 3; "Usually partner" = 4; "Always partner" = 5. Household in which neither partner does one of those tasks are excluded.

9. The Division of Tasks Explains the Gender Gap Away

Table 10.A Life Satisfaction and the Division of Tasks. OLS Estimates. BHPS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Life Satisfaction			
	All	All	Men	Women
Women	0.06*** (0.02)	0.00 (0.03)		
Grocery shopping: balanced distribution		0.03 (0.02)	-0.00 (0.04)	0.06** (0.02)
Grocery shopping: partner does more		-0.01 (0.02)	-0.03 (0.04)	-0.02 (0.04)
Cooking: balanced distribution		-0.03 (0.02)	0.02 (0.04)	-0.04 (0.03)
Cooking: partner does more		-0.02 (0.02)	0.05 (0.04)	-0.10*** (0.04)
Washing ironing: balanced distribution		-0.04 (0.02)	-0.05 (0.05)	-0.02 (0.03)
Washing ironing: partner does more		-0.03 (0.03)	-0.04 (0.04)	-0.13** (0.06)
Cleaning: balanced distribution		0.00 (0.02)	0.11** (0.04)	-0.02 (0.03)
Cleaning: partner does more		-0.00 (0.03)	0.11** (0.05)	-0.09* (0.05)
Childcare: balanced distribution		-0.01 (0.02)	0.05 (0.06)	-0.00 (0.02)
Childcare: partner does more		-0.03 (0.03)	0.02 (0.06)	-0.05 (0.06)
Observations	31,301	31,301	14,729	16,572

* $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Reference category: "Respondent does more". Controls : age, age², year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Household task: "Could you please say who mostly does these household jobs here?" with responses labelled "Mostly self", "Mostly partner", "Shared", "Other". Since responses "Other" represent very few observations, they are dropped from the sample.

Table 10.B Mental Health and the Division of Tasks. OLS Estimates. BHPS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	GHQ			
	All	All	Men	Women
Women	-0.15*** (0.02)	-0.26*** (0.03)		
Grocery shopping: balanced distribution		-0.01 (0.02)	0.00 (0.03)	0.00 (0.02)
Grocery shopping: partner does more		-0.03 (0.02)	-0.03 (0.03)	-0.00 (0.04)
Cooking: balanced distribution		-0.02 (0.02)	0.02 (0.03)	-0.02 (0.03)
Cooking: partner does more		-0.02 (0.02)	0.02 (0.03)	-0.07** (0.04)
Washing ironing: balanced distribution		-0.07*** (0.02)	-0.05 (0.04)	-0.07** (0.03)
Washing ironing: partner does more		-0.07** (0.03)	-0.05 (0.04)	-0.19*** (0.06)
Cleaning: balanced distribution		-0.04* (0.02)	0.03 (0.04)	-0.05** (0.02)
Cleaning: partner does more		-0.03 (0.03)	0.05 (0.04)	-0.10* (0.05)
Childcare: balanced distribution		-0.00 (0.02)	0.01 (0.05)	0.00 (0.02)
Childcare: partner does more		-0.03 (0.02)	-0.03 (0.05)	0.00 (0.05)
Observations	40,607	40,607	19,147	21,460

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Reference category: "Respondent does more". Controls : age, age², year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status.

Table 11.A Life Satisfaction and Work Hours. OLS Estimates. GSOEP

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Life Satisfaction				
	All	All	All	Men	Women
Women	0.04*** (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)	-0.20*** (0.02)		
Hours per weekday on housework/100		-0.16 (0.26)	-4.63*** (0.60)	-4.45*** (0.60)	-0.43 (0.29)
Hours per week on paid job/100		-0.07** (0.03)	-0.20*** (0.05)	-0.16*** (0.05)	-0.10** (0.05)
Hours per weekday on housework>0		0.07*** (0.01)	0.09*** (0.01)	0.10*** (0.01)	0.29*** (0.02)
Women*Hours per weekday on housework/100			4.47*** (0.66)		
Women*Hours per week on paid job/100			0.11* (0.06)		
Women*Hours per weekday on housework>0			0.21*** (0.02)		
Women*Hours per week on paid job>0			-0.12*** (0.03)		
Hours per week on paid job>0				0.10* (0.06)	
Observations	352,669	352,669	352,669	166,166	186,503

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², region and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Life satisfaction: "How satisfied are you with your life, all things considered?". Responses are on a 0 ("completely dissatisfied") to 10 ("completely satisfied") scale. Non workers are assigned 0 working hours.

Table 11.B Life Satisfaction and Work Hours. OLS Estimates. BHPS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Life Satisfaction				
	All	All	All	Men	Women
Women	0.01 (0.01)	-0.00 (0.01)	-0.28*** (0.04)		
Hours per week on housework/100		-0.04 (0.05)	-0.17 (0.12)	-0.14 (0.12)	-0.12* (0.06)
Hours per week on paid work/100		-0.14*** (0.05)	-0.16** (0.07)	-0.13* (0.07)	-0.15** (0.07)
Hours per week on housework>0		0.13*** (0.02)	0.07*** (0.02)	0.08*** (0.02)	0.35*** (0.04)
Hours per week on paid work>0		0.09*** (0.02)	0.10*** (0.03)	0.08*** (0.03)	0.10*** (0.02)
Women*Hours per week on housework/100			0.13 (0.13)		
Women*Hours per week on paid work/100			0.03 (0.09)		
Women*Hours per week on housework>0			0.30*** (0.04)		
Women*Hours per week on paid work>0			-0.02 (0.04)		
Observations	153,423	153,423	153,423	69,785	83,638

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Non workers are assigned zero working hours.

Table 11.C Mental Health and Work Hours. OLS Estimates. BHPS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	GHQ				
	All	All	All	Men	Women
Women	-0.19*** (0.01)	-0.20*** (0.01)	-0.42*** (0.04)		
Hours per week on housework/100		-0.03 (0.05)	-0.33*** (0.09)	-0.32*** (0.09)	0.00 (0.06)
Hours per week on paid work/100		-0.05 (0.04)	-0.02 (0.05)	-0.03 (0.06)	-0.06 (0.06)
Hours per week on housework>0		0.08*** (0.01)	0.05*** (0.01)	0.06*** (0.01)	0.25*** (0.03)
Hours per week on paid work>0		0.02 (0.02)	0.00 (0.02)	0.01 (0.02)	0.02 (0.02)
Women*Hours per week on housework/100			0.34*** (0.10)		
Women*Hours per week on paid work/100			-0.04 (0.08)		
Women*Hours per week on housework>0			0.21*** (0.03)		
Women*Hours per week on paid work>0			0.02 (0.03)		
Observations	204,497	204,497	204,497	93,182	111,315

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Non workers are assigned zero working hours.

10. Work-life Balance

Table 12.A Satisfaction with Work-Life Balance. OLS Estimates. ESS

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Satisfaction with work-life balance	Work to family conflict	Family to work conflict
Women	0.03* (0.02)	-0.06*** (0.02)	0.00 (0.03)
Observations	38,728	23,145	14,960

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Satisfaction with work-life balance: "How satisfied are you with the balance between the time you spend on your paid work and the time you spend on other aspects of your life?" Answers are on a 0-10 scale. Work to family conflict: "How often do you: keep worrying about work problems when you are not working? feel too tired after work to enjoy the things you would like to do at home? find that your job prevents you from giving the time you want to your partner or family? find that your partner or family gets fed up with the pressure of your job?". Family to work conflict: "How often do you: find that your family responsibilities prevent you from giving the time you should to your job? find it difficult to concentrate on work because of your family responsibilities?". Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status.

Table 12.B Desired Working Hours. OLS Estimates. ESS

	(1)	(2)
	Desired own weekly working hours	Desired partner's weekly working hours
Women	-0.39*** (0.03)	0.38*** (0.05)
Observations	42,412	18,799

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status.

11. Social Capital and Life Satisfaction

Table 13.A The Gender Gap in Life Satisfaction and Social Capital. OLS Estimates. ESS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
			Life Satisfaction			
Women	0.04*** (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)	0.03** (0.01)	0.04*** (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	-0.18*** (0.06)
Thick relationships		0.07*** (0.00)			0.05*** (0.00)	0.05*** (0.00)
Thin relationships			0.03*** (0.00)		0.03*** (0.00)	0.02*** (0.00)
Active involvement				0.03*** (0.00)	0.01*** (0.00)	0.01** (0.00)
Women*Thick relationships						0.01*** (0.00)
Women*Thin relationships						0.00 (0.00)
Women*Active involvement						-0.00 (0.00)
Observations	39,142	39,142	39,142	39,142	39,142	39,142

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status.

Table 13.B The Gender Gap in Depression and Social Capital. OLS Estimates. ESS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Depression					
Women	0.14*** (0.02)	0.19*** (0.02)	0.15*** (0.02)	0.14*** (0.02)	0.20*** (0.02)	0.61*** (0.09)
Thick relationships		-0.10*** (0.00)			-0.09*** (0.00)	-0.08*** (0.00)
Thin relationships			-0.03*** (0.00)		-0.02*** (0.00)	-0.01*** (0.00)
Active involvement				-0.03*** (0.00)	-0.01 (0.00)	-0.00 (0.00)
Women*Thick relationships						-0.01*** (0.00)
Women*Thin relationships						-0.00** (0.00)
Women*Active involvement						-0.01 (0.01)
Observations	37,403	37,403	37,403	37,403	37,403	37,403

* $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status.

12. Time Stress

Table 14.A Satisfaction and Decision-Making Within the Household. GGP

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Depression (OLS)		Intention to break up (Probit)		Sat. with relationship (OLS)	
Women	0.30*** (0.01)	0.29*** (0.01)	0.03*** (0.00)	0.02*** (0.00)	-0.25*** (0.04)	-0.17*** (0.03)
Dec. Routine purchases:\ balanced responsibility		-0.01 (0.01)		-0.01*** (0.00)		0.15*** (0.03)
Dec. Routine purchases:\ part. does more		-0.01 (0.01)		-0.01*** (0.00)		0.12*** (0.03)
Dec. Expensive purchases:\ balanced responsibility		-0.13*** (0.03)		-0.03*** (0.00)		0.28*** (0.03)
Dec. Expensive purchases:\ part. does more		0.04* (0.02)		-0.00* (0.00)		0.11** (0.04)
Dec. Social activities:\balanced responsibility		-0.20*** (0.02)		-0.05*** (0.01)		0.39*** (0.05)
Dec. Social activities:\ part. does more		-0.03 (0.02)		-0.02*** (0.00)		0.21*** (0.05)
Observations	41,096	41,096	60,015	60,015	64,813	64,813

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country fixed-effects, marital status, education level, employment status. Decision indicators: "Who makes decisions about the following issues in your household?". Responses are labelled "Always respondent" = 1; "Usually respondent" = 2; "Respondent and partner equally" = 3; "Usually partner" = 4; "Always partner" = 5. Household in which neither partner makes one of those decisions are excluded. Reference category: respondent does more.

Table 14.B Satisfaction and Decision-Making within the Household by Gender. GGP

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Depression (OLS)		Intention to break up (Probit)		Sat. with relationship (OLS)	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Dec. Routine purchases:\ balanced responsibility	-0.04 (0.03)	0.00 (0.02)	-0.00 (0.00)	-0.02*** (0.00)	0.12*** (0.02)	0.16*** (0.03)
Dec. Routine purchases:\ part. does more	-0.05 (0.03)	0.06 (0.05)	-0.01** (0.00)	-0.00 (0.01)	0.09*** (0.02)	0.13** (0.05)
Dec. Expensive purchases:\ balanced responsibility	-0.09* (0.04)	-0.16*** (0.03)	-0.01*** (0.00)	-0.04*** (0.00)	0.18*** (0.03)	0.36*** (0.04)
Dec. Expensive purchases:\ part. does more	0.10*** (0.02)	-0.01 (0.03)	0.00 (0.00)	-0.01* (0.01)	0.06** (0.03)	0.13* (0.07)
Dec. Social activities:\ balanced responsibility	-0.10*** (0.02)	-0.24*** (0.02)	-0.02*** (0.01)	-0.06*** (0.01)	0.22*** (0.04)	0.45*** (0.05)
Dec. Social activities:\ part. does more	0.04* (0.02)	-0.02 (0.05)	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.02*** (0.01)	0.07 (0.05)	0.24*** (0.06)
Observations	20,342	20,754	28,604	31,405	31,121	33,692

* $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country fixed-effects, marital status, education level, employment status. Reference category: respondent does more.

Table 15. Satisfaction and the Distribution of Tasks Among Spouses. GGP

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	Depression (OLS)		Sat. with division of HH tasks (OLS)		Sat. with relationship (OLS)		Intention to break up (Probit)	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Cooking:\ balanced responsibility	-0.19***	0.06*	0.24***	0.17***	0.16**	0.01	-0.00	0.01*
	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.05)	(0.01)	(0.05)	(0.03)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Cooking:\ partner does more	-0.22***	0.12*	0.26***	0.17**	0.20***	-0.01	-0.01	0.02**
	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Dishes:\ balanced responsibility	-0.03	-0.01	0.11***	0.24***	0.17***	0.13***	-0.02***	0.00
	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Dishes:\ partner does more	-0.04	0.05	0.06	0.24***	0.08*	0.11**	-0.02***	-0.01
	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Grocery shopping:\ balanced responsibility	-0.03	-0.04*	0.04**	0.15***	0.02	0.10***	-0.01	-0.01
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.03)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Grocery shopping:\ partner does more	-0.00	-0.01	0.02	0.17***	-0.03	0.12**	-0.00	-0.00
	(0.02)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.05)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Vacuum-cleaning:\ balanced responsibility	-0.01	0.04*	0.06	0.19***	0.04	0.10***	-0.00*	-0.01***
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.01)	(0.03)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Vacuum-cleaning:\ partner does more	-0.05*	0.03	0.03	0.13***	0.00	0.06**	-0.00	0.00
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Small repairs:\ balanced responsibility	0.15**	-0.14*	-0.10**	0.28***	-0.10*	0.13**	0.01	-0.01
	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Small repairs:\ partner does more	0.20***	-0.27***	-0.03	0.45***	-0.01	0.29***	-0.00	-0.04***
	(0.02)	(0.04)	(0.02)	(0.04)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.00)	(0.01)
Bills:\ balanced responsibility	-0.01	-0.05	0.06***	0.10***	0.05**	0.06***	-0.01*	-0.01***
	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Bills:\ partner does more	0.02	-0.04	0.09***	0.10***	0.08***	0.04*	-0.00	-0.01
	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.00)	(0.01)
Social activities:\ balanced responsibility	-0.10***	-0.15***	0.12***	0.30***	0.16***	0.28***	-0.02***	-0.05***
	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Social activities:\ partner does more	-0.02	-0.04	0.04	0.20***	0.02	0.17**	-0.00	-0.02***
	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.06)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Observations	19,691	20,264	23,757	24,318	24,521	24,951	23,775	24,618

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country fixed-effects, marital status, education level, employment status. Household in which neither partner does one of those tasks are excluded. Reference category: respondent does more.

13. Doing Gender

Table 16.A Life Satisfaction and Contribution to Household Income. OLS Estimates. ESS.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Life Satisfaction				
Women	0.04*** (0.01)	0.04*** (0.01)	0.09*** (0.02)	0.04*** (0.01)	0.07*** (0.02)
Proportion of HH income provided		0.00 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)		
Women*Proportion of HH income provided			-0.01* (0.00)		
Prop of HH income > 1/2				0.00 (0.02)	0.03 (0.02)
Women*Prop of HH income > 1/2					-0.05** (0.02)
Observations	54,348	54,348	54,348	54,348	54,348

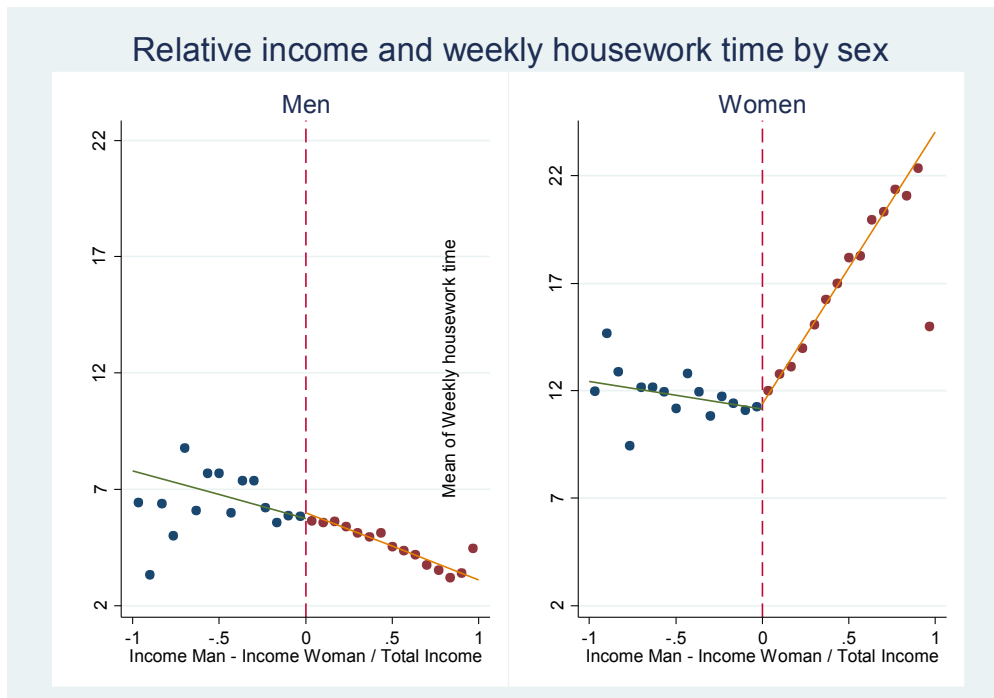
* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Proportion of household income provided: "Around how large a proportion of the household income do yourself?" Answers are on a 1 to 7 scale labelled: "None", "Very small", "Under a half", "About a half", "Over a half", "Very large", "All". Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status.

Table 16.B Life satisfaction and Contribution to Household Income. OLS Estimates. ESS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Life Satisfaction			
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Proportion of HH income provided	0.01 (0.01)	-0.01 (0.01)		
Prop of HH income > 1/2			0.03* (0.02)	-0.03 (0.02)
Observations	25,337	29,011	25,337	29,011

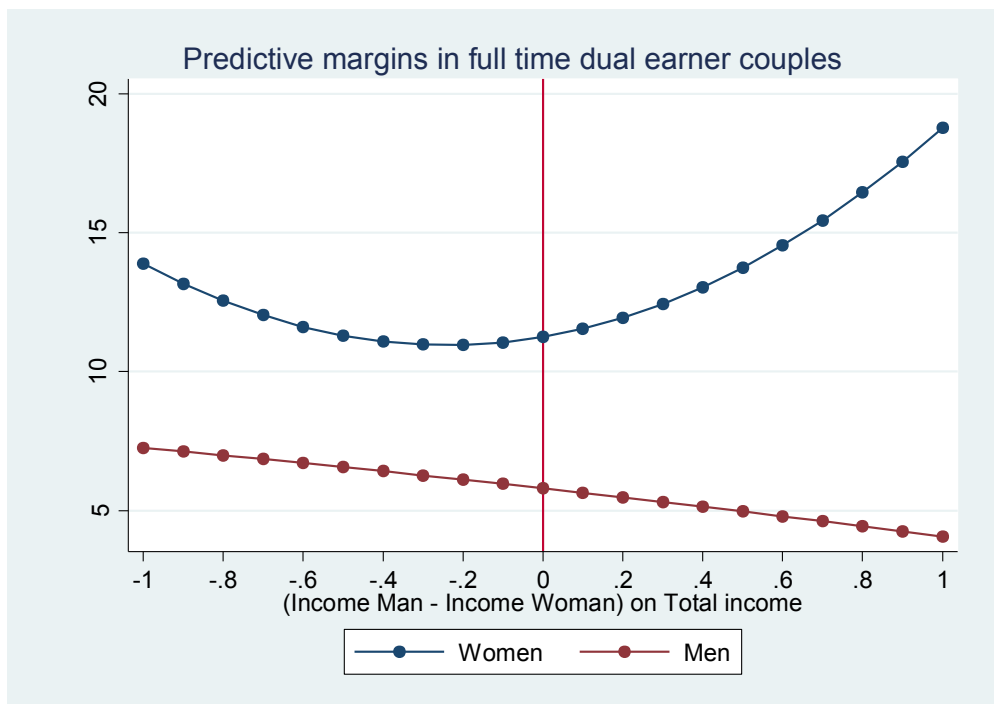
* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status.

Figure 2. Relative Contribution to Household Income and Housework Hours. Full-time Employed Dual-earner Couples. BHPS



Note: The data is from the BHPS, 1992 to 2008. Sub-sample of couples where both spouses are employed more than 34 hours per week, and are between 20 and 60 years of age. Weekly housework time: "About how many hours do you spend on housework in an average week, such as time spent cooking, cleaning and doing the laundry?".

Figure 3. Relative Contribution to Household Income and Housework Hours. Full-time Employed Dual-earner Couples. Predicted margins. BHPS



Note: The data is from the BHPS, 1992 to 2008. Sub-sample of couples where both spouses are employed more than 34 hours per week and are between 20 and 60 years of age. n=9079 men and n= 9084 women. Weekly housework time: "About how many hours do you spend on housework in an average week, such as time spent cooking, cleaning and doing the laundry?".

14. Institutions and Gender Roles. Lessons from East Versus West Germany

Table 17.A Life Satisfaction and Housework. East Versus West Germany. OLS GSOEP

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Life Satisfaction					
	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women
Women	0.04*** (0.01)			0.01 (0.01)		
East Germany	-0.44*** (0.03)	-0.29*** (0.04)	-0.47*** (0.04)	-0.45*** (0.03)	-0.31*** (0.05)	-0.48*** (0.06)
Hours per weekday \ on housework/100				0.46 (0.29)	-3.97*** (0.74)	0.19 (0.33)
Hours per week \ on paid job/100				-0.07** (0.04)	-0.24*** (0.05)	-0.06 (0.05)
Hours per weekday \ on housework>0				0.05*** (0.01)	0.08*** (0.01)	0.28*** (0.02)
Hours per week \ on paid job>0				-0.01 (0.04)		
East*Hours per weekday\ on housework/100				-2.77*** (0.56)	-2.27* (1.33)	-2.90*** (0.66)
East*Hours per week \ on paid job/100				-0.00 (0.08)	0.28*** (0.11)	-0.21* (0.11)
East*Hours per weekday \ on housework>0				0.08*** (0.02)	0.08*** (0.02)	0.09* (0.05)
East*Hours per week \ on paid job>0				0.00 (0.03)	-0.13*** (0.05)	0.08* (0.04)
Observations	339,124	159,811	179,313	339,124	159,811	179,313

p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², region and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status.

Table 17.B Housework Hours, East Versus West Germany. OLS Estimates. GSOEP

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Hours/weekday on housework			
	Women in partnership		Men in partnership	
East Germany	-0.29*** (0.09)	-0.14* (0.07)	0.01 (0.06)	-0.06 (0.05)
Regional fixed effects	YES	YES	YES	YES
Year fixed effects	YES	YES	YES	YES
Demographic variables	NO	YES	NO	YES
Observations	111,631	111,631	111,127	111,127

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Demographic variables : age, age², household income, marital status, education level, professional status are added in column 2. Estimates run on the sub-sample of couples where both spouses were interviewed.

Table 17.C Life Satisfaction and Share of Housework, East Versus West Germany. OLS Estimates. GSOEP

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Life Satisfaction			
	Women in partnership		Men in partnership	
	West	East	West	East
Hours per week on paid job/100	-0.14** (0.07)	-0.42*** (0.13)	-0.33*** (0.07)	-0.22* (0.11)
Hours per weekday on housework/100	-1.61*** (0.39)	-2.54*** (0.77)	-3.59*** (1.03)	-6.12*** (1.57)
Hours per week on paid job > 0		-0.28 (0.22)		
Hours per weekday on housework > 0	0.54*** (0.07)	0.65*** (0.10)	0.15*** (0.02)	0.18*** (0.03)
Share of hours per weekday on housework	0.18*** (0.03)	0.22*** (0.05)	-0.13** (0.05)	-0.11 (0.08)
Observations	82,983	28,648	82,586	28,541

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², region and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Estimates run on the sub-sample of couples where both spouses were interviewed.

15. Disagreement and Violence

Table 18 Reaction to Disagreement Between Spouses. OLS Estimates. GGP

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Keep your opinion to yourself	Discuss calmly	Argue heatedly or shout	End up becoming violent
Women	0.01 (0.07)	-0.07** (0.02)	0.12** (0.04)	-0.01 (0.02)
Observations	48,255	48,260	48,262	48,236

* $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country fixed-effects, marital status, education level, employment status.

Table 19.A Depression and Disagreement Between Spouses. OLS Estimates. GGP

	(1)	(2)	(3)
		Depression	
Women	0.33*** (0.01)	0.31*** (0.01)	0.30*** (0.01)
Disagreement HH chores		0.05*** (0.01)	0.03*** (0.01)
Disagreement Money		0.08*** (0.01)	0.06*** (0.01)
Disagreement Leisure		0.03** (0.01)	0.03** (0.01)
Disagreement Friends		0.05** (0.02)	0.05** (0.01)
Disagreement Parents		0.05*** (0.01)	0.04*** (0.01)
Disagreement Alcohol		0.08*** (0.01)	0.05*** (0.01)
Disagreement Sex		0.06*** (0.01)	0.05*** (0.01)
Keep your opinion\to yourself			0.03*** (0.01)
Discuss calmly			-0.06*** (0.01)
Argue heatedly or shout			0.04** (0.01)
End up becoming violent			0.20*** (0.02)
Observations	25,594	25,594	25,594

* $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country fixed-effects, marital status, education level, employment status. Disagreements : "Within the last 12 months, how often did you and your partner/spouse have disagreement about [topic] ?" with responses

labelled : "Never" = 1 ; "Seldom" = 2 ; "Sometimes" = 3 ; "Frequently" = 4 ; "Very frequently" = 5. Topics covered are: household chores, money, leisure, friends, parents, alcohol and sex. Indicators of reaction correspond to the responses to the corresponding questions: "When you have a serious disagreement with your partner/spouse, how often do you [reaction]?" "Never" = 1 ; "Seldom" = 2 ; "Sometimes" = 3 ; "Frequently" = 4 ; "Very frequently" = 5. Reactions covered are: keep your opinion to yourself, discuss calmly, argue heatedly or shout, end up becoming violent.

Table 19.B Satisfaction and Disagreement Between Spouses. GGP

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Sat. with relationship (OLS)			Intention to break up (Probit)		
Women	-0.28*** (0.06)	-0.25*** (0.05)	-0.24*** (0.04)	0.04*** (0.01)	0.03*** (0.01)	0.03*** (0.01)
Disagreement HH chores		-0.08*** (0.02)	-0.07*** (0.02)		0.01*** (0.00)	0.01* (0.00)
Disagreement Money		-0.17*** (0.01)	-0.15*** (0.01)		0.02*** (0.00)	0.01*** (0.00)
Disagreement Leisure		-0.09*** (0.01)	-0.08*** (0.01)		0.01*** (0.00)	0.01*** (0.00)
Disagreement Friends		-0.07*** (0.01)	-0.06*** (0.01)		0.01*** (0.00)	0.01*** (0.00)
Disagreement Parents		-0.04*** (0.01)	-0.03** (0.01)		0.00*** (0.00)	0.00** (0.00)
Disagreement Alcohol		-0.15*** (0.02)	-0.12*** (0.02)		0.02*** (0.00)	0.02*** (0.00)
Disagreement Sex		-0.14*** (0.01)	-0.12*** (0.01)		0.02*** (0.00)	0.01*** (0.00)
Keep your opinion\to yourself			-0.05*** (0.01)			0.01*** (0.00)
Discuss calmly			0.11*** (0.01)			-0.01*** (0.00)
Argue heatedly or shout			-0.03** (0.01)			0.02*** (0.00)
End up becoming violent			-0.22*** (0.02)			0.02*** (0.01)
Observations	33,625	33,625	33,625	32,624	32,624	32,624

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country fixed-effects, marital status, education level, employment status.

Table 19.C SWB and Disagreement Between Spouses, by Gender. GGP

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Depression (OLS)		Sat. with relationship (OLS)		Intention to break up (Probit)	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Disagreement HH chores	0.02** (0.01)	0.04** (0.01)	-0.05** (0.02)	-0.08*** (0.02)	0.01* (0.00)	0.01* (0.00)
Disagreement Money	0.04*** (0.01)	0.08*** (0.01)	-0.11*** (0.01)	-0.17*** (0.01)	0.01 (0.00)	0.02*** (0.00)
Disagreement Leisure	0.01 (0.01)	0.04** (0.01)	-0.08*** (0.02)	-0.09*** (0.01)	0.00** (0.00)	0.02*** (0.00)
Disagreement Friends	0.03* (0.01)	0.06** (0.02)	-0.06*** (0.01)	-0.06*** (0.01)	0.02*** (0.00)	0.01* (0.00)
Disagreement Parents	0.03** (0.01)	0.05*** (0.01)	-0.04** (0.01)	-0.02 (0.01)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00* (0.00)
Disagreement Alcohol	0.03*** (0.01)	0.06*** (0.01)	-0.06*** (0.01)	-0.16*** (0.02)	0.01*** (0.00)	0.03*** (0.00)
Disagreement Sex	0.06*** (0.01)	0.05*** (0.01)	-0.13*** (0.01)	-0.12*** (0.01)	0.02*** (0.00)	0.01*** (0.00)
Keep your opinion\to yourself	0.02 (0.01)	0.03*** (0.01)	-0.03*** (0.01)	-0.06*** (0.01)	0.01** (0.00)	0.01*** (0.00)
Discuss calmly	-0.05*** (0.01)	-0.06*** (0.01)	0.10*** (0.01)	0.13*** (0.01)	-0.01*** (0.00)	-0.02*** (0.00)
Argue heatedly or shout	0.02 (0.01)	0.05** (0.01)	-0.03** (0.01)	-0.04** (0.02)	0.01*** (0.00)	0.03*** (0.00)
End up becoming violent	0.19*** (0.04)	0.21*** (0.03)	-0.19*** (0.04)	-0.24*** (0.02)	0.02*** (0.01)	0.02*** (0.01)
Observations	12,131	13,463	15,571	18,054	14,921	17,703

$p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls: age, age², country fixed-effects, marital status, education level, employment status.

16. The Gender Gap in Job Expectations

Table 20.A The Gender Gap in Job Satisfaction and Expectations. BHPS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Job sat. (OLS)	Financial expectations (OLS)	Wish better job (Probit)	Expect better job (Probit)	Sat. promotion prospects (OLS)	Promotion opportunities (Probit)	Sat. relation with boss (OLS)
Women	0.19*** (0.01)	-0.06*** (0.01)	-0.12*** (0.01)	-0.03*** (0.00)	-0.06*** (0.02)	-0.06*** (0.01)	0.18*** (0.02)
Observations	118,014	214,792	52,485	51,043	34,346	107,249	34,387

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Questions related to satisfaction with particular aspects of the respondent's present job: "promotion prospects", "relations with your supervisor or manager", "What are your financial expectations for year ahead? "; "In the next twelve months, would you like to get a better job with your current employer? "; "Do you think this actually will happen in the coming twelve months: get a better job with your current employer? "; "In your current job do you have opportunities for promotion?". Subsample of working individuals.

Table 20.B A Time Trend in the Gender Gap in Job Satisfaction and Expectations. BHPS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Job sat. (OLS)	Financial expectations (OLS)	Wish better job (Probit)	Expect better job (Probit)	Sat. promotion prospects (OLS)	Promotion opp. (Probit)	Sat. relation with boss (OLS)
Women	0.30*** (0.02)	-0.04*** (0.01)	-0.17*** (0.02)	-0.03** (0.02)	-0.09*** (0.03)	-0.12*** (0.01)	0.26*** (0.03)
Women*year	-0.01*** (0.00)	-0.00 (0.00)	0.00** (0.00)	-0.00 (0.00)	0.01 (0.01)	0.01*** (0.00)	-0.02*** (0.01)
Observations	118,014	214,792	52,485	51,043	34,346	107,249	34,387

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Sub-sample of working individuals.

Table 20.C Cohort Effects in the Gender Gap in Job Satisfaction and Expectations. BHPS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Job sat. (OLS)	Financial expectations (OLS)	Wish better job (Probit)	Expect better job (Probit)	Sat. promotion prospects (OLS)	Promotion opp. (Probit)	Sat. relation with boss (OLS)
Women	0.24*** (0.02)	0.00 (0.01)	-0.14*** (0.01)	-0.03*** (0.01)	-0.06* (0.03)	-0.07*** (0.01)	0.26*** (0.03)
Born \after 1955	0.07*** (0.03)	0.04*** (0.02)	-0.05*** (0.02)	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.08** (0.03)	-0.07*** (0.02)	0.08** (0.04)
Women*\ After1955	-0.07*** (0.03)	-0.10*** (0.01)	0.02 (0.02)	-0.00 (0.01)	-0.01 (0.03)	0.02 (0.01)	-0.14*** (0.03)
Observations	118,008	214,772	52,483	51,041	34,344	107,244	34,386

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Sub-sample of working individuals.

Table 20.D The Gender Gap in Job Satisfaction and Expectations: People Born Before 1955. BHPS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Job sat. (OLS)	Financial expectations (OLS)	Wish better job (Probit)	Expect better job (Probit)	Sat. promotion prospects (OLS)	Promotion opp. (Probit)	Sat. relation with boss (OLS)
Women	0.24*** (0.02)	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.11*** (0.01)	-0.01*** (0.00)	-0.07** (0.03)	-0.06*** (0.01)	0.25*** (0.03)
Observations	36,727	101,300	12,921	12,549	14,832	31,298	14,855

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Sub-sample of working individuals born before 1956.

Table 20.E The Gender Gap in Job Satisfaction and Expectations: People Born After 1955. BHPS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Job sat. (OLS)	Financial expectations (OLS)	Wish better job (Probit)	Expect better job (Probit)	Sat. promotion prospects (OLS)	Promotion opp. (Probit)	Sat. relation with boss (OLS)
Women	0.17*** (0.01)	-0.10*** (0.01)	-0.12*** (0.01)	-0.04*** (0.01)	-0.06*** (0.02)	-0.05*** (0.01)	0.13*** (0.02)
Observations	81,281	113,472	39,559	38,404	19,512	75,941	19,531

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the individual level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Sub-sample of working individuals born after 1955.

17. The Institutional Foundations of the Gender Gap in SWB

Table 21.A Occupational Segregation and Subjective Wellbeing. OLS Estimates. ESS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Life Satisfaction				
	All	All	All	Men	Women
Women	0.02 (0.02)	0.02 (0.02)	-0.07 (0.29)		
Occupational segregation		-0.04 (0.03)	-0.04 (0.03)	0.01 (0.04)	-0.10 (0.10)
Occupational segr.*Women			0.00 (0.01)		
Observations	17,972	17,972	17,972	8,374	9,598

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Data from years 2003 and 2013. The occupational segregation index reflects the proportion of the employed population that would need to change occupation in order to bring about an even distribution of men and women across occupations. The index varies between 0 (no segregation) and 50 (complete segregation). Data on segregation are from the 2014 report on equality between women and men of the European Commission.

Table 21.B Women in National Parliaments and SWB. OLS Estimates. ESS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Life Satisfaction				
	All	All	All	Men	Women
Women	0.05** (0.02)	0.05** (0.02)	0.04 (0.05)		
Prop. of women in national parliaments		0.03* (0.02)	0.03* (0.02)	0.03 (0.03)	0.03 (0.02)
Prop. of women in national parliaments*Women			0.00 (0.00)		
Observations	16,241	16,241	16,241	7,742	8,499

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Data from years 2003 and 2010 are considered. Data on proportion of women in national parliaments are from the 2014 report on equality between women and men of the European Commission.

Table 21.C Women in Firms' Boards and SWB. OLS Estimates. ESS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Life Satisfaction				
	All	All	All	Men	Women
Women	0.05** (0.02)	0.05** (0.02)	0.03 (0.05)		
Prop. of women in board of directors		0.01 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	-0.02** (0.01)	0.03** (0.01)
Prop. of women in board of dir.*Women			0.00 (0.00)		
Observations	16,241	16,241	16,241	7,742	8,499

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects, household income, marital status, education level, professional status. Data from years 2003 and 2010 are considered. Board members of largest publicly listed companies are considered. Data on proportion of women in board of directors are from the 2014 report on equality between women and men of the European Commission.

Table 21.D European Welfare Regimes and the Gender Gap in SWB. OLS Estimates. ESS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Life Satisfaction		Depression	
Women	0.04*** (0.01)	-0.03** (0.01)	0.15*** (0.02)	0.29*** (0.03)
Women*Nordic regime		0.09*** (0.02)		-0.20*** (0.04)
Women*Continental regime		0.09*** (0.02)		-0.11** (0.04)
Women*Anglo-Saxon regime		0.03 (0.02)		-0.16* (0.08)
Women*Central/Eastern regime		0.08*** (0.02)		-0.16*** (0.04)
Observations	118,975	118,975	44,062	44,062

* p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01. Standard errors clustered at the country level are given in parentheses. Controls : age, age², country and year fixed-effects, house- hold income, marital status, education level, professional status. Reference category: "Women*Southern country" in column 2.

