

# **Role Overload: Preferences for Wife's Employment in Japan**

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### **Introduction**

The rapid increase paid employment among Japanese women is well known. Although working on family farms or in family businesses was common historically, employment outside the home differs dramatically in terms of its compatibility with domestic role expectations. As the former declined, the proportion of women 25-29 paid employment increased rapidly (Brinton, 1993): from 45 to 72 percent between 1970 and 2005 (National Institute of Population and Social Security Research, 2007: 139). While employment is obviously lower among married than among unmarried women, it is considerably higher than commonly supposed—one-third even among mothers of preschool children, and half of these are employed full-time ((Japan Ministry of Labour 1999, Choe, et al., 2004).

Female employment grew with the expansion of the postwar economy, even if the jobs available for married women were heavily constrained to *paato*, employment that provides only hourly wages without fringe benefits. These trends seem very likely to continue in the world's most rapidly aging society—perhaps with an increasing incorporation of women into regular employment roles (Brinton, 2001). With limited immigration and an increasing ratio of dependent elderly to employed persons, the well-educated female population may be the primary resource for future growth in the number of workers. Indeed, the need for wives' employment has likely increased as men's jobs become less secure in contrast to historical expectations of permanent employment (Yuji,

2005). At the same time, consumption aspirations are increasing (Schor, 1991, 1998), as both cause and consequence of wives' employment, even as many wives work simply in order to meet family needs.

The difficult challenges of balancing work and family are surely not unique to Japan (Blossfield, 1995; Spain and Bianchi, 1996; Jacobs and Gerson, 2004; Reynolds, 2005; McInnes, 2002, Clarkberg and Moen, 2001), and vary considerably across countries with differences in social policies (McInnes, 2002; Gornick and Meyers, 2004). Nonetheless, this balancing is especially difficult for Japanese women. The implications of employment for Japanese wives are set in the context of traditional role obligations that extend back at least since the adoption of the *ie* system in the Imperial Civil Code of 1896 (Taeuber 1958; Lebra 1984; Fukutake 1989). Well-defined hierarchal relations among family members supported strong male dominance and a gender division of labor that placed heavy obligations on women for household maintenance and childrearing. These domestic obligations have very likely become even heavier in the postwar period with the growth of the intense psychological and time demands placed on mothers for the education of their children—reflected in after-school programs and other measures to prepare children for entrance exams (Tsuya and Choe, 2004; Hirao, 2007). While men spend many hours in employment, they provide little assistance with domestic and childrearing chores (Tsuya *et al.* 2005).

For employed wives, the total hours spent in household production progressively escalate towards a “double shift” (Hochschild, 1991). In Japan, as in the U.S., the sum of market and household work for women is twice as high among those working full time as it is for those who are housewives, approximately 80 compared to 40 hours in 2000-2004

(Tsuya, et al., 2005). While the means on this combined measure are similar among women and men, time spent in childcare is not included. Mothers, and especially mothers of preschool children, have even heavier time demands than represented by this sum of employment and household hours.

Are wives and mothers employed out of economic necessity when they would rather remain full-time housekeepers or work only a few hours a week? Given traditional roles and their dependence on their wives' home services, are Japanese men opposed to their wives' being employed, especially full-time? Surely we expect variability within the population, especially among women (Hakim, 2003), and knowledge of this variation is essential.

Surprisingly, virtually nothing is known about employment preferences in Japan<sup>1</sup> While there is a literature on employment preferences across a number of European countries (Stier and Lewin-Epstein, 1996; Sousa-Posa and Henneberger, 2002), as well as the U.S. (Clarkberg and Moen, 2001) and Australia (Reynolds and Aletraris, 2006), these analyses address a different topic. They are concerned with the disparity between actual and preferred work hours, i.e. whether fewer or more hours are desired; and the survey questions are specifically about this comparison. The focus is most often on whether such discrepancies are structured by preferences or by the labor market, as well as on relevant social policies.

The present analysis is unique in examining the *number* of employment hours preferred, rather than the disjuncture between preferred and actual hours, and is the first

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<sup>1</sup>Minor exceptions are a descriptive table for 1994 comparing Japan, Korea and the U.S. in Tsuya and Bumpass (1998), and means for the U.S., including retired couples in the base, in an analysis addressing the disparity between desired and actual work hours (Moen and Clarkberg, 2001)

to include husbands' orientations towards their wives' employment. It is critical that these preferences be measured independently from current employment. In addressing the work-family balance, a number of analyses conclude that family factors are unrelated, or only weakly related, to preferences (Reynolds, 2003; MacInnes, 2005). However, preferences for more or fewer hours among employed persons miss the selection into employment that occurs on the basis of preferences.

In this study, we document preferences of both husbands and wives for differing levels of wives' employment, and factors associated with these preferences. Our findings are consistent with our argument that employment has become institutionalized as a preferred, even expected, aspect of a wife's role.

### ***Data and Measures***

This study uses the 2000 National Survey on Family and Economic Conditions (NSFEC). Details of the survey can be found in Rindfuss *et al.* (2004). The focus here is on 2,443 currently married women and men aged 20-49 and their spouses. Sample weights are used for estimated actual and preferred employment hours because younger individuals (age 20-39) were selected at twice the rate of those aged 40-49, and to adjust for different rates of responses by sex, age, and place of residence.

In the 2000 NSFEC respondents were asked to provide reports for themselves and their spouses on objective information, including such basic socio-demographic characteristics as age, education, and hours of employment. To measure life-course and family constraint variables, we include age of youngest child, coresidence with parents/parents-in-law, and wives' age. Age of youngest child is coded into three

categories: under age 7, age 7-17, and no child under age 18. Coresidence with parents is indexed by a dichotomous variable indicating whether or not couples live with at least one parent or parent-in-law. Though decreasing in recent decades (Ogawa and Retherford, 1997), the proportion of married women and men aged 20-49 living with at least one parent or parent-in-law is still sizable: 31 percent in 2000. Age of wives is a categorical variable: less than 30, 30-34, 35-39, 40-44, and 45 or older. Because wives' age and husbands' age are highly correlated (.88), we do not include both in the analysis.

The education of each spouse is measured by a categorical variable: less than senior high school, senior high school, some college, and four-year college or higher. The category of "some college" includes junior college and two kinds of schools for advanced occupational training (*kōtō-senmon-gakko* and post-high-school *senshū-gakko*).<sup>2</sup>

We also look at employment hours of wives and husbands. The multivariate analysis, however, includes only husband's hours because of the expected simultaneity of wives' actual and preferred work hours. Employment hours were measured with six categories: 0, 1-15, 16-34, 35-41, 42-48, 49-59, and 60 or more. We group these categories differently by gender as appropriate to the distributions of wives' and husbands' employment. Finally, to the extent that household economic need determines a wife's actual and preferred employment, husband's income is a critical variable. We

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<sup>2</sup> *Kōtō-senmon-gakko* is equivalent to junior college in which students study for 5 years after completing junior high school, specializing mostly in various sub-fields of engineering. *Kōtō-senmon-gakko* are all public, i.e., funded by the national or municipal governments. Post-high-school *senshū-gakko* refers to various educational facilities that mainly train individuals who have high school education for such white-collar jobs as accounting/bookkeeping and computer applications. They are almost all private.

have collapsed this variable into four categories: less than 4 million, 4-5.99 million, 6-7.99 million, and 8 million or more yen a year.

Our central measure, preferred hours for wife's employment, is based on two questions which were asked of all respondents. For wives' preferences we used responses to the question: "If **you** could work just the number of hours in paid employment that you would like, how many hours per week would that be? (Even if you are not working, please make sure to answer.)" For the preferences of husbands, we used responses to the parallel question: "If **your spouse** could work just the number of hours in paid employment that **you** would like, how many hours per week would that be? If you are not married answer according to how you think you would feel if you were married."<sup>3</sup> The response categories were the same as those reported above for actual employment hours, with an additional category "uncertain." Cases responding "uncertain" are deleted from these analyses (none of the wives and 16% of husbands). These questions seem quite unambiguous in the issue they pose, but, of course, answers can be contingent on an array of assumed—and unspecified—hypothetical circumstances. That they capture much of our construct of interest is indicated in how well responses are structured in ways consistent with theoretical expectations; and that they are not simply rationalizations of current behavior is reflected in the substantial discrepancy between these measures and wives' actual hours of employment.

Binary logistic regression is used to predict three separate dependent variables. These are preferences: 1) that the wife stay home and not work, 2) that she work less than 16 hours (including zero hours), and 3) that she work 35 hours or more. The first

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<sup>3</sup> The last sentence directed to unmarried persons is much more hypothetical, difficult for respondents, and obviously not relevant to this analysis.

variable obviously refers to full-time homemakers and the second designates an employment commitment that may not significantly compete with family obligations. The third is a preference for essentially full-time work. Ninety percent of those who indicated “full-time” as their current employment status selected “35 hours or more” to describe their actual hours of employment.

## **Analysis**

### *Observed Distributions*

We begin by examining three dimensions of wives’ hours of employment: actual hours, hours preferred by husbands and wives, and comparisons between actual and desired work hours. Looking first at the distributions of these variables in Figure 1, several patterns stand out. Consistent with current levels of wives’ employment, slightly less than two-fifths of Japanese wives aged 20-49 are full-time homemakers. Even so, this proportion contrasts starkly with the preferences of wives--and perhaps even more surprisingly--of their husbands. Fewer than 10 percent of the wives say that they do not want to be employed, and only one-sixth of husbands prefer that their wives be full-time homemakers. These figures are about one-fifth and one-half, respectively, of the proportion of wives who are not employed.

At the other end of the distribution, about a third of wives are employed 35 or more hours, and about one third of both men and women state this as their preference.<sup>4</sup> Finally, relatively few husbands and wives think that the lowest levels of employment hours (1-15) are desirable, whereas the substantial, but less than full-time category, 16-34

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<sup>4</sup> To simplify the discussion, we are ignoring variation within this upper category, though about hours are distributed approximately equally across the categories of 35-41, 42-48, and 49 or more hours.

hours, is modal for both. This is especially so for wives, two-fifths say that they would prefer to work this number of hours.

The above discussion relates to average values reported by men and women. What proportions of women prefer to be working about the number of hours they actually are? While some might expect a bias towards the rationalization of current behavior by reporting consistent preferences, numerous studies across an array of countries report that substantial proportions want to work either more or fewer hours than they actually are (e.g., Reynolds, 2005; McInnes, 2002, Clarkberg and Moen, 2001). We find this for Japan as well. Indeed, as we would expect, the discrepancy between actual and preferred hours is larger in the comparison for individuals than it appears in the average figures.

In Table 1, we see that almost all full-time homemakers would like to be employed: 9 out of 10. Of those in the low employment category of 1-15 hours, almost half would prefer to work more, and only 7 percent would rather be a housewife. Not surprisingly, the proportion wishing to work fewer hours increases as the actual number of hours employed increases. Nonetheless, two-thirds of wives employed full-time want to work full time. Over all categories of employment hours, about a third are in the same category of preferred hours as they are currently working, with twice as many preferring to work more than to work less. Husbands are more likely than wives to prefer that their wife work fewer hours than she does. Nonetheless, two-thirds of husbands want their wife to work at least as many, or more, hours than she is. Thus, among wives, the “balancing of work and family” is tilted toward family obligations despite preferences for more employment, and this may well be salient when employed single women think about marriage.

## *Multivariate Analyses*

We turn now to an examination of how various factors are associated with preferences for the wife 1) not to be employed, 2) to either be a full-time homemaker or work only a few hours, and 3) to work full-time.<sup>5</sup> Table 2 reports the coefficients and significance levels from the binary logistic regressions. Because it is difficult to grasp substantive implications from these results, we will focus the discussion on estimated proportions simulated from the logistic regressions. In general, we will discuss these predicted percentages as differences net of the other variables without referring to this each time. (The simulation results are available in Table 3 but represented by figures in the course of the discussion.) These estimates generally differ by only a few percentage points from those observed in the unadjusted data. (The estimates

Because of the important substantive implications of the differences between our classifications of preferred hours, differences within each are discussed sequentially (going down the associated columns). We begin, however, by noting the absence of age effects across all three outcomes. Because of the M shape in women's age-specific employment rates associated with childbearing in Japan (National Institute of Population and Social Security Research 2007: 139), we would expect preferences for wives' employment to be lower among younger wives and among the husbands of younger wives. Taking the presence of children into account, however, younger persons might be more favorable towards wives' employment if there has been social change in this regard spearheaded by the younger generation. Nonetheless, we see that there is no consistent

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<sup>5</sup> Some of the variables are potentially endogenous. We have run models which sequentially, and then jointly, drop coresidence, husband's income, and husband's work hours. These models do not change the results with the exception of one, readily interpretable, difference. Husband's education has a significant effect on the latter two preference outcomes that is mediated through his income: i.e. there is a significant effect without, but not with, income in the model.

pattern across age categories and that none of the coefficients are significant. Either there has been no change over time, which is unlikely, or change has occurred rather evenly across all cohorts. The difficulties following the bursting of the economic bubble in the early 1990s (Cargill, Hutchison and Ito 1997: 91-116; Cotis 2003; Yoshitomi 2004) might have contributed to such a trend as a period effect.

*Preferences that Wife Not be Employed:* We saw earlier that very few Japanese women prefer to be full-time homemakers, and that surprisingly few husbands want their wives to stay home. Two variables show clear relationships with preferences for a wife to remain out of the labor force: whether the couple lives with a parent, and husband's income (left columns of Table 2). When they are living with a parent, both husbands and wives are less likely to want the wife to be a full-time homemaker. The proportions predicted from the regression model are presented in Figure 2: comparing those not coresiding with those living with a parent these proportions are 29 vs. 19 percent among wives, and 37 vs. 25 among husbands. These differences are quite large and may well reflect potential additional help from coresident mothers/mothers-in-law for housework and childcare that make it possible for wives to enter the labor force. In addition, employment may be seen by many wives, and their husbands, as a way to minimize conflict inherent in sharing a household with a parent, usually the husband's mother (Kumagai and Kato, 2007).

Turning to income, wives' preferences for remaining at home do not depend on how much money their husband makes. While we will see systematic differences within levels of employment, economic factors do not appear to affect wives' desire to have the roles and social interactions out of the household that employment provides. On the

other hand, there is a sharp divide between husbands in the upper and lower half of the income distribution, with twice as many of the former wanting their wives not to be employed (Figure 2). That having been said, even in these highest income categories, only 30 percent of husband's want their wife to stay home—70 percent would rather that she be employed. (One category of husband's employment, 42-48 hours, is significant among wives, but this deviation is not readily interpretable and the effect of husband's employment hours will be seen more clearly in the later variables.)

*Preferences for Wife to Work Fewer Than 16 Hours:* There may be considerably less conflict between employment and other role obligations for wives who work only a few hours a week than for those who work longer hours. We have seen that relatively few husbands or wives want the wife to be a full-time homemaker. Nonetheless, one-quarter of wives, and one-third of husbands, prefer that she either remain home or work fewer than 16 hours. This is a preference that facilitates a primary emphasis on wives' domestic roles, and there is more systematic variation in this variable (middle columns of Table 2) than when housework was considered alone: in particular, relationships with coresidence, presence of children, and husband's income.

The effects of family circumstances are seen clearly in Figure 3. When a couple lives with parents, both wives and husbands are less likely to want the wife to work only a little or not at all: the contrast is between predicted percentages of 29 and 19 among wives, and 37 and 25 among husbands. Again, assistance from a coresident mother-in-law or mother likely reduces some of the domestic pressure on a wife, and/or employment may be seen as a strategy to minimize intergenerational conflict at home.

Also, as we would expect, this preference for little or no employment is strongly related to the presence and ages of children. In particular, the contrast between those with preschool children and those with no children under 18 is large and statistically significant. It is notable that this is true among both husbands and wives with the largest difference among husbands. Net of other factors, the predicted value for this measure among husbands is 38 percent if they have preschool children compared to 23 percent if there are no preschool or school-age children. Clearly, the balancing of work and family is strongly affected by family contexts. But, we must note, once again, that a large majority want the wife to work more than 15 hours per week even if they are not living with parents, and even if they have preschool children.

The education variables show much weaker effects in Table 2 than we might have expected. Higher education among wives represents greater human capital that increases their value in the labor force, and, among both wives and husbands, those with more education have been more exposed to less traditional values. Consequently, it would seem likely that education would be negatively associated with preferences for the wife to stay home or work little.

We have treated high school graduates as the omitted category rather than those without a high school education because the latter are a small and unusual group in contemporary Japan.<sup>6</sup> In contrast to high school graduates, we find a significant coefficient only for husbands who attended a junior college or trade school (which as noted is a non-academic educational category), and husband's in this category are *more*

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<sup>6</sup> Those who do not have high school education are mostly those with junior high school education, which is the level of compulsory education in Japan. Providing that around 97 percent of junior high school graduates advancing onto high school in Japan in recent years (Monbu-kagaku sho 2006: 36), however, high school education has become de facto compulsory education.

likely to want their wives not to work more than 15 hours per week (predicted values of 45 percent compared to 31 percent among high school graduates and 36 percent among university graduates). There is not an obvious explanation for this deviation, though it is possible that this type of schooling is more common among males with more traditional gender-role attitudes in general. None of the coefficients for wives' are statistically significant.

Turning to husband's hours of employment, the preference for a wife to be employed only a little or not at all is highest when the husband works less than a 35-hour week. This is true among both husbands and wives, but there is a difference in the pattern of the significant coefficients. Among husbands, the only statistically significant difference (in contrast to working 35-41 hours) is the high proportion among those who themselves work less than 35 hours a week. Since the ages of these husbands are generally not old enough for regular retirement, it is plausible that above average wealth (not measured) may make it possible for some husbands to spend less time in paid employment and want their wives to do so as well. In any event, only about 4 percent of husbands work this few hours. Among wives, on the other hand, the difference appears among those whose husbands work more than 41 hours a week.

Differences by husband's income are very large, nearly linear, and highly significant among both wives and husbands. In Figure 4, the predicted proportion wanting the wife to stay at home or be employed very little is twice as large in the highest income group compared to the lowest (41 compared to 20 percent among wives, and 49 compared to 27 percent among males). As we would surely expect, economic concerns play an important role in affecting the orientations of both husbands and wives towards

wives' employment. That having been said, it is essential to keep in mind that, even among the highest income group, only one half of husbands and two-fifth of wives want the wife to work few hours or remain a full-time housekeeper.

*Preferences for Wives to Work 35 Hours or More:* We noted at the beginning that higher proportions than we might expect want the wife to hold a full-time job in paid employment (about one-third). While such employment may often be an extension of *paato*, without the fringe benefits usually associated with regular employment, it nonetheless represents a large time obligation adding to the already heavy burden of a wife's domestic role, and making the balancing of work and family all the more difficult.

In this balancing, we would surely expect family factors to affect who wants to be employed full-time, and this is what we see among wives in the last two columns of Table 2 and in Figure 5. Wives who live with parents are much more likely to want to work 35 hours or more (predicted values of 44 vs. 28 percent). The potential role of help with household tasks and childcare associated with coresidence that we have noted above can be especially important if a wife is to work full-time. Economies of scale and reduced living expenses associated with shared households would be expected to have the opposite effect, however. It is surprising that husbands' preferences for wives' full-time work are not significantly related to living with parents, even though we did see such a relationship with respect to preferences for wives to be employed little or not at all. We would have expected that husbands might be particularly favorable to their wives taking on a heavy employment obligation under circumstance in which the household consequences might have less direct impact on them.

As expected, the presence of non-adult children reduces preferences for wives' full-time employment, especially when there are preschool children, and this is true among both husbands and wives. The predicted differences are large: for example, the contrast between wives with preschool children and those without is 44 compared with 28 percent. Even so, the estimated proportion wanting the mother to work fulltime is about a quarter among both the mothers and fathers of preschool children; and among those whose oldest child is in school, this proportion is about a third among mothers and two-fifths among fathers.

As shown above, we found only one significant coefficient for education on preferences for lower levels of employment, and that one was not readily interpretable. Here, we find only one educational category with a statistically significant effect on preferences for full-time employment. Net of other factors in our models, husbands of university graduates are more likely to want their wives to work full-time: the predicted levels are 46 percent compared to 31 percent among husbands of high school graduates. Perhaps, many of these husbands would like to see their university-educated wives take advantage of their investment in human capital, and augment family income in the process. Overall, however, there is surprisingly little evidence for a relationship between the education of either spouse and orientations towards wives' employment.

Though the patterns across categories of husband's hours of employment differ somewhat between husbands and wives, both spouses are least likely to want the wife to work fulltime when the husband works less than 35 hours a week, and most likely to want her to do so when he works 60 or more hours a week (Table 2). We know that actual hours of wives' employment are associated positively with actual hours of

husbands' employment (Choe, *et al.* 2004). In addition to possible wealth effects at the lowest level of employment (noted earlier), perhaps consumption aspirations also contribute to this association, motivating both spouses to commit more time to the labor force. Local labor markets play a role in this as well.

Finally, we once again see a strong relationship between husband's income and the preferences of both spouses for wife's employment. Perhaps most importantly, this is so for full-time employment (Figure 6). The differences across income categories are systematic and the coefficients are highly significant. The predicted percentages wanting the wife to work full-time are twice as high among those in the lowest income category compared to the highest (about two fifths and one-fifth, respectively). The obvious and straightforward explanation is that economic need is a primary reason for wanting a wife to work full-time. Contributing to this relationship as well, however, are likely the associated non-economic costs of this employment. Among women, the burdens of a double shift are likely to seem less desirable if economic circumstances permit a lower time commitment in the labor market. Among husbands, it is also plausible that the balancing of work and family reduces the services she is able to contribute to her traditional tasks if she works long hours, and that this is an outcome Japanese husbands prefer to avoid to the extent that they can afford to do so. Nonetheless, it is impressive that one-fifth of both husbands and wives with the highest levels of husbands' income still want the wife to work full-time.

## **Conclusion**

Because institutionalized marriage roles in Japan come as a tightly bundled “package” (Rindfuss, et al. 2004), the balancing of work and family by wives must be

accomplished with little room for the reduction of family obligations in the bargain. The tension created by this 'all or nothing' characteristic of marriage is reflected in the fact that a book became a best seller by celebrating the freedom and financial independence of women who remain single and childless: *Makeinu no Tōboe (Howlings of a Loser)* by Sakai Junko (2003).

In order to better understand the evolving place of wives' employment in Japanese families, we have examined the preferences of both husbands and wives towards the number of hours a wife should be employed. Rather than treating preferred hours as a continuous variable, we have focused on three substantively meaningful classifications: whether the wife should be a full-time homemaker, whether she should only be employed for less than 16 hours or not work at all, and whether she should be employed full-time (35 or more hours a week). As the employment of Japanese wives has reached high levels, so also have preferences for her to be employed. This is not circular, since many are employed when they would prefer to be fulltime homemakers, while others want to work even though they are not. Indeed, while 37 percent of wives are not employed, only 9 percent of wives and 17 percent of husbands state this as their preference. Forty-two percent of wives reported that they preferred to work more than their current hours of employment.

At the same time, however, preferences for wife's employment are clearly structured by family and economic circumstances in ways that are consistent with theoretical expectations. Wives coresiding with parents/parents-in-law, compared with those who are not, are more likely to want to be employed, and more likely to want to work fulltime. Having children under age 18, particularly preschool children, is

associated with a higher preference for the wife to be a fulltime homemaker or be employed only a few hours, and with a lower preference for her to work 35 or more hours. That these are the expected patterns is important, but so too is the remaining high preference for wives' employment, net of other factors, estimated for those in family circumstances where this is more difficult: those without the help of a coresidential mother-in-law/mother, and those with young children.

Husband's income is a major conditioning factor as well, and this relationship is stronger than that with coresidence or the presence of children. The differences by income are very large with respect to both preferences for the fulltime homemaker role and for the fulltime employed role. Clearly family economic need is a major reason that wives want to be employed, though as we have seen, many in the highest income category (and even more in the next highest) want the wife to work. We must recognize, however, that "economic need" extends to far more than life's basic necessities, through aspirations for children, to more general consumption aspirations.

In conclusion, Japanese husbands and wives of reproductive ages have strong preferences for wives to be employed. Especially given the already heavy burdens that are part of the traditional domestic role of wives, these preferences create major challenges in the balancing of work and family. We have examined these relationships among husband and wives of childrearing ages. It is possible, however, that the most profound effects of this difficult balancing of work and family may operate through the anticipation of this task by the unmarried--especially by young unmarried women. The incorporation of employment into the expected marriage package for women, given the persistence of traditional domestic role expectations and unequal gender relations at

home, makes this role all the more difficult. It seems likely that this added weight of the “marriage package” makes some, perhaps many, all the more reluctant to pick it up: contributing to other factors delaying marriage and having children.

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Table 1. Wife's hours of employment compared to the number of hours she prefers, and to the number of hours her husband prefers for her

Wife's actual employment hours per week	Preferred hours are (%)				Number of cases
	Fewer	Same	More	Total	
Wife's preferred hours					
None	n.a.	11	89	100	495
1 to 15	7	46	47	100	108
16 to 34	18	61	21	100	264
35 or more	36	64	n.a.	100	412
Total	23	34	42	100	1,289
Husband's preferred hours wife					
None	n.a.	29	71	100	360
1 to 15	14	48	38	100	69
16 to 34	28	58	14	100	172
35 or more	68	32	n.a.	100	298
Total	35	39	27	100	899

n.a. indicates "not applicable."

Table 2. Estimated binary logistic regression coefficients on preferred employment hours per week for wives: “zero,” “less than 16 hours,” and “35 hours or more hours,” reported by wives and husbands

Covariate	Zero		<16 hours		35 hours or more	
	Wives	Husb.	Wives	Husb.	Wives	Husb.
Wife’s age (ref: 45-49)						
Under 30	-0.18	0.63	-0.01	0.53	-0.13	-0.28
30-34	-0.23	0.43	-0.14	0.63	-0.08	-0.32
35-39	-0.62	0.56	-0.17	0.51	-0.17	-0.23
40-44	-0.28	-0.13	-0.28	0.26	-0.32	-0.43
Coresidence with parents/in-law (ref: no)						
Yes	-0.54*	-0.60**	-0.61***	-0.64***	0.73***	0.33
Age of youngest child (ref: none under 18)						
Preschool	0.34	0.50	0.60**	0.81***	-0.75***	-0.78***
School age	0.30	0.44	0.26	0.55*	-0.50**	-0.09
Wife’s education (ref: Senior high)						
<Senior high	0.08	0.11	0.45	0.74	-0.48	-0.16
Some college	0.19	0.08	0.11	0.00	0.08	0.04
University	0.10	-0.14	-0.05	-0.46	0.23	0.66*
Husband’s education (ref: Senior high)						
<Senior high	0.27	-0.05	0.02	-0.43	-0.11	0.37
Some college	-0.43	0.35	-0.02	0.68**	-0.27	-0.15
University	0.17	-0.28	0.30	0.29	-0.29	-0.11
Husband’s work hours per week (35-41)						
Less than 35	-0.23	0.58	0.50	1.23***	-0.57	-0.88*
42-48	-0.89*	-0.25	-0.53*	-0.26	-0.09	-0.35
49-59	-0.36	0.11	-0.47*	-0.33	0.37	-0.20
60+	-0.46	0.10	-0.64**	-0.38	0.57*	0.39
Husband’s annual income in Japanese yen (ref: <4 million)						
4 to 5.99 million	-0.41	0.11	0.17	0.14	-0.29	-0.18
6 to 7.99 million	-0.11	0.87**	0.58**	0.87***	-0.64**	-0.86***
8 million or more	0.04	1.05**	1.07***	1.02***	-1.13***	-1.05***

Notes: Each column shows results from separate binary logistic regression model.

\* indicates  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* indicates  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* indicates  $p < 0.001$ .

Table 3. Simulated percentages preferring wife to be employed “not at all,” “less than 16 hours per week,” and “35 hours or more hours per week,” from logistic regression models reported in Table 2

Covariate	Zero		<16 hours		35 hours or more	
	Wives	Husb.	Wives	Husb.	Wives	Husb.
Coresidence with parents/in-law						
Yes	5	12	19	25	44	
No	9	20	29	37	28	
Age of youngest child						
Preschool			30	38	28	25
School age			24	33	33	39
None under 18			20	23	44	41
Wife's education						
<Senior high						28
Senior high						31
Some college						32
University						46
Husband's education (ref: Senior high)						
<Senior high				23		
Senior high				31		
Some college				45		
University				36		
Husband's work hours per week (35-41)						
Less than 35	9		44	64	20	19
35-41	11		33	37	30	36
42-48	5		23	32	28	29
49-59	8		24	31	38	31
60+	8		21	30	42	44
Husband's annual income in Japanese yen (ref: <4 million)						
<4 million		14	20	27	41	40
4 to 5.99 million		15	23	30	34	36
6 to 7.99 million		27	30	45	27	23
8 million or more		30	41	49	19	20

Note: Simulation was done only when one or more of the dummy variables associated with the covariate is statistically significant.

Figure 1. Wives' employment hours per week: actual, preferred by wives, and preferred by husbands



Figure 2. Percentage preferring that the wife not be employed, by coresidence with parents/in-law and husband's income: Simulated from logistic regression models

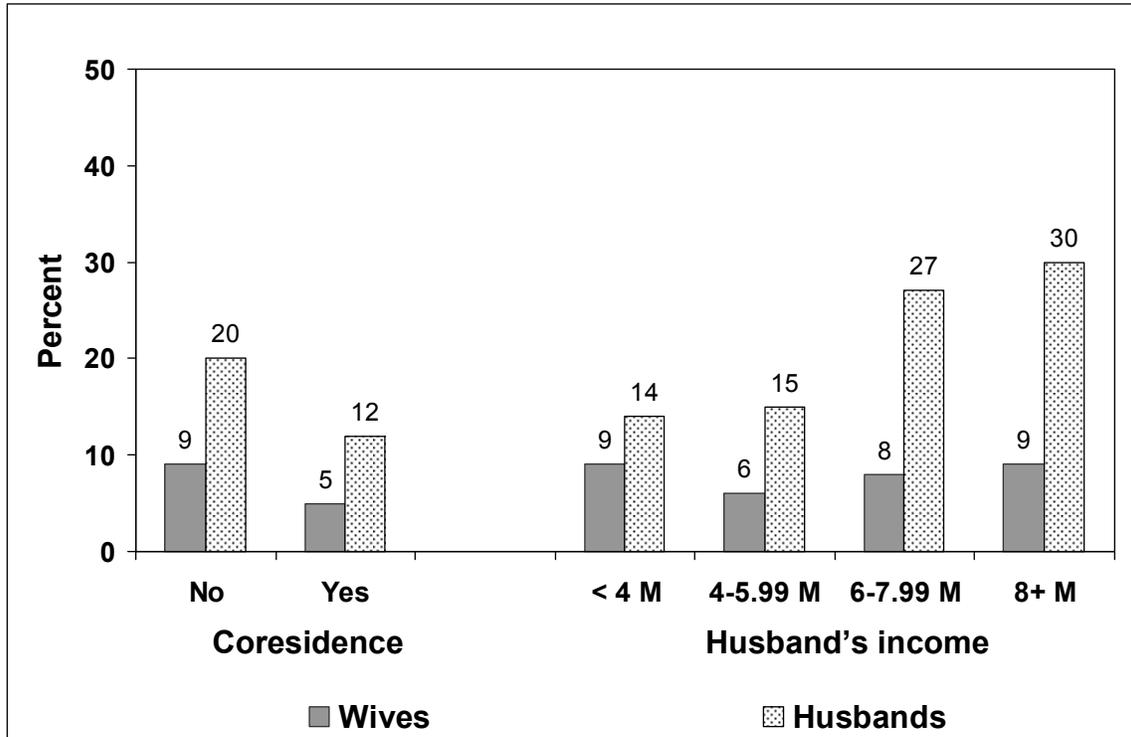


Figure 3. Percentage preferring that the wife be employed less than 16 hours, by coresidence with parents/in-law and by age of youngest child: Simulated from logistic regression models

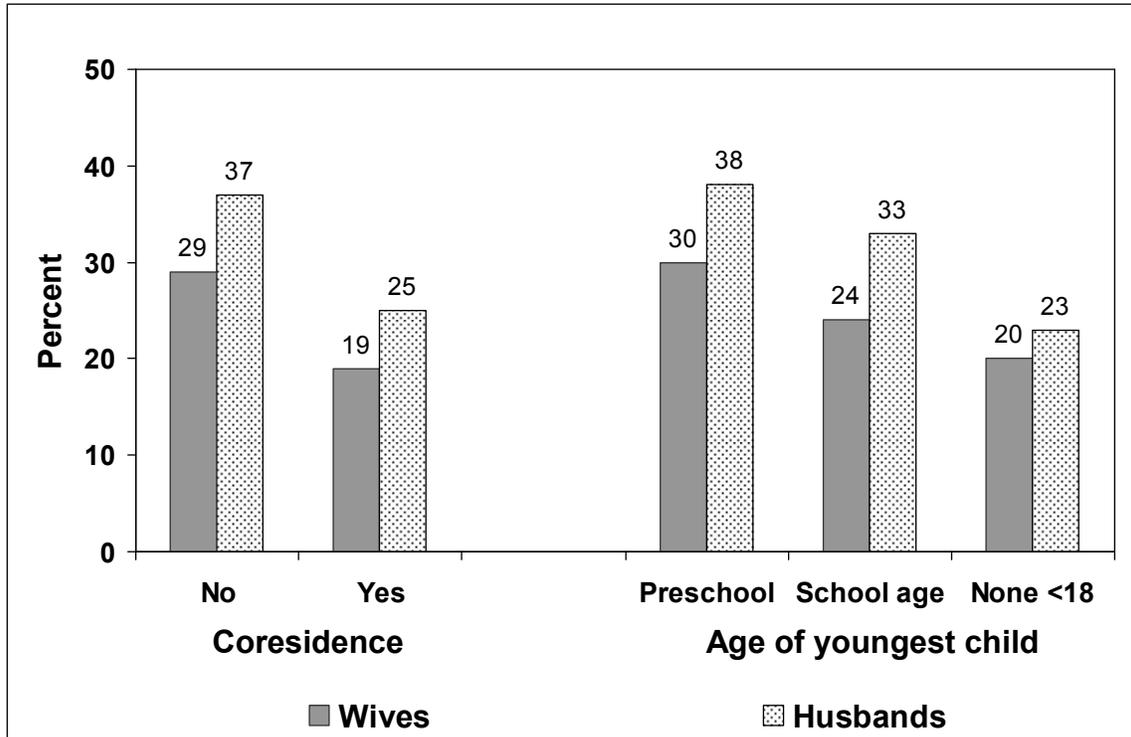


Figure 4. Percentage preferring that the wife be employed less than 16 hours, by husband's income: Simulated from logistic regression models

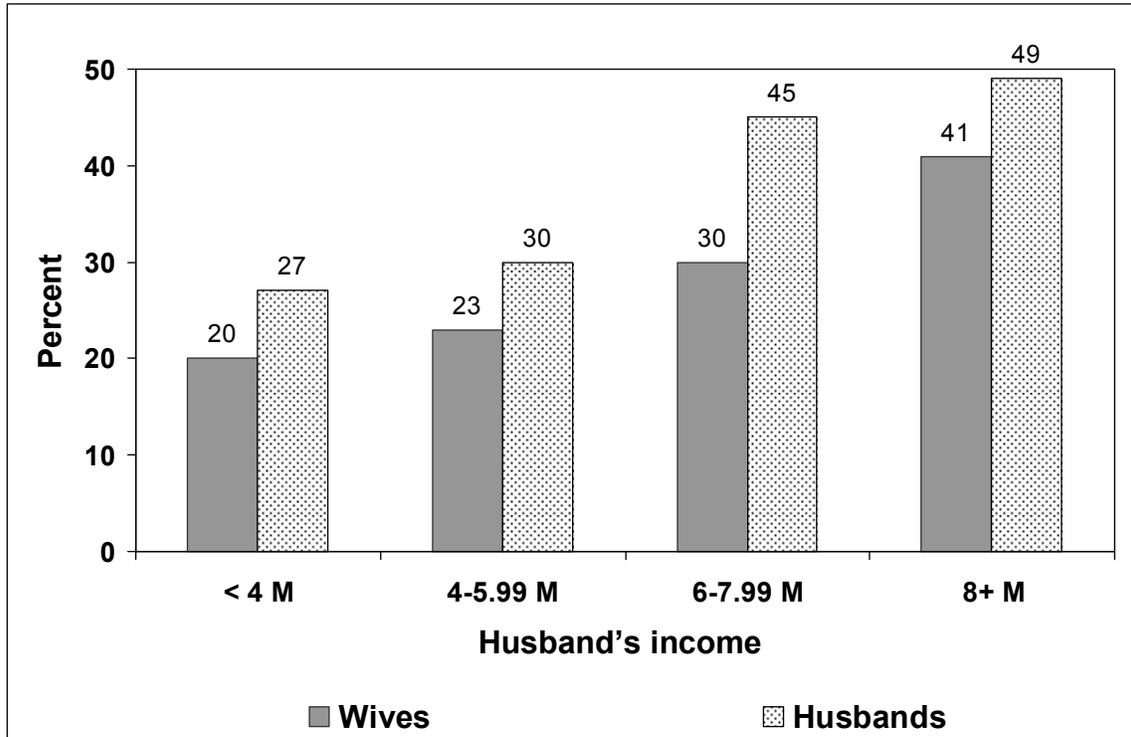


Figure 5. Percentage preferring that the wife be employed 35 or more hours per week by coresidence with parents/in-law and by age of youngest child: Simulated from binary logistic regression models

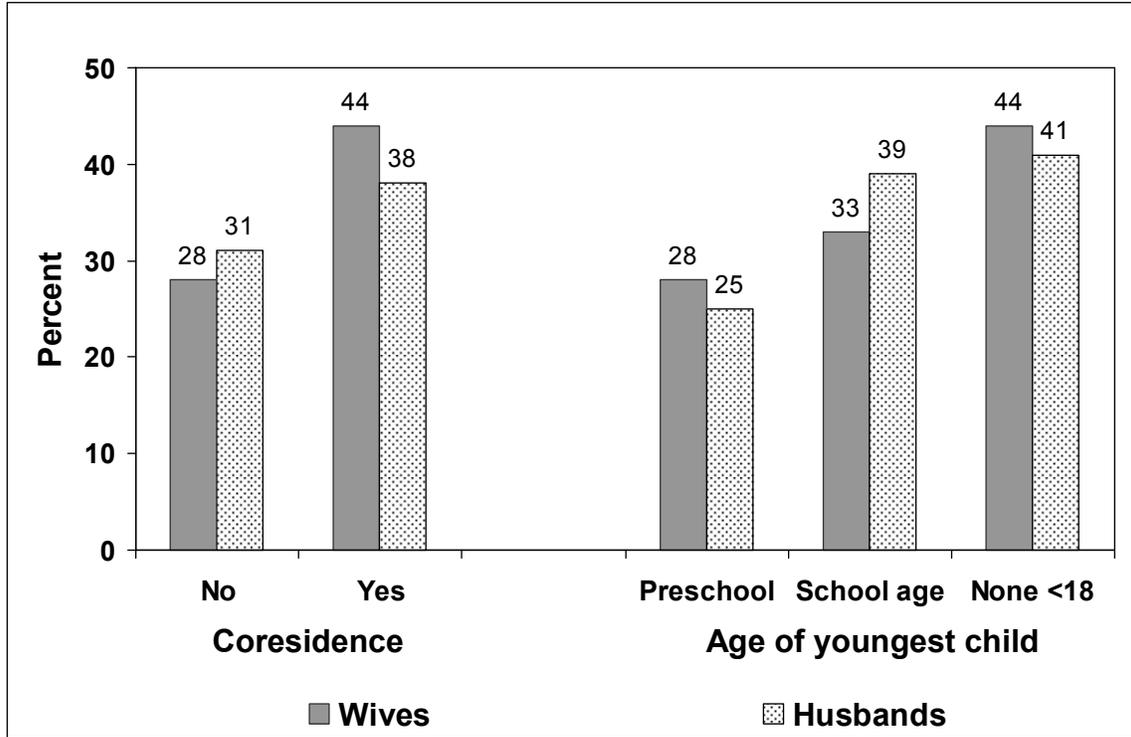


Figure 6. Percentage preferring that the wife be employed 35 or more hours per week by husband's income: Simulated from binary logistic regression models

