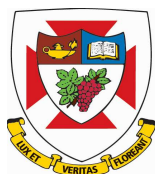


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Abstract:

This paper provides the first estimates of the effects of housework burdens on the earnings of men and women in China, using data from the country's time use survey in 2008. The analysis shows that working women in China not only spend many more hours on housework than their male co-workers but are also more likely to experience interference with their market work by housework activities. Three indicators are introduced to measure the degree to which market work is intertwined with housework. The estimates show that both housework time and its interference with market work have negative effects on the earnings of men and women. Quantitatively, the gender differences in housework-related indicators account for 27 to 28 percent of the gender earnings gap. This result supports the feminist contention that gender inequality at home is a major contributor to the weaker position of women in the labor market.

Key words: Housework, Market work, Earnings, Gender, China

1. Introduction

The massive entry of women into the labor market in recent decades has drawn wide attention to the work–family conflict facing women and its impact on women’s well-being. There is a growing body of empirical literature that investigates the effects of housework on the wages of men and women.¹ However, the existing literature is concentrated on developed countries. Therefore, our knowledge is very limited regarding developing countries and transition countries. To fill in this knowledge gap, this paper documents the gender patterns of housework and market work and estimates the effects of housework burdens on men’s and women’s earnings in China, using data from the country’s first large-scale time use survey, conducted in 2008.

Due to China’s socialist legacy, more women participate in the labor market in China than in any other country in the developing world. The vast majority of prime-age women joined the labor force and worked on a fulltime basis after completing school. While women work nearly as many hours as do men in the workplace, housework remains primarily the responsibility of women. Analysts estimate that the economic value of housework amounts to approximately one third of China’s GDP in 2008, and more than 70% of that value was contributed by women (Xiao-yuan Dong and Xinli An 2012). However, the value of housework to human well-being and the fact that housework requires both time and effort are largely overlooked by policy makers. As a result, while China’s economic transformations over the past three decades have brought about rapid income growth, the pressure on women to play dual roles as income earners and caregivers has also been intensified

(Sarah Cook and Xiao-yuan Dong 2011). Economic deregulation and privatization have made market work ever more demanding. According to official statistics, the number of weekly working hours went up for both men and women, but more sharply for women than for men, following the public-sector restructuring that occurred in China in the late 1990s. Between 1997 and 2002, the number of weekly working hours increased by 1.8 hours (from 43.9 to 45.7 hours) for men and 2.1 hours (from 42.9 to 45.0) for women (Xiao-yuan Dong et al. 2006). Under pressure for profits, employers were increasingly reluctant to accommodate workers' family responsibilities; as a consequence, workers with higher housework burdens were at greater risk of losing earnings or being dismissed from their jobs.² The dismantling of the employer-based socialist welfare system has also led to a substantial decline in state and employer support for social reproduction in the form of on-site nursing facilities, subsidized daycare programs, and paid maternity leave, shifting care responsibilities predominantly to the family (Cook and Dong 2011). Despite the expansion of commercial services, the ability of women in low-income families to outsource housework is limited (Bohong Liu, Yongying Zhang and Yani Li 2008). The growing tension between work and family has important implications for Chinese workers' job performance and earnings.

As in other countries, women in China earn lower wages than men, and the gender wage gap has increased steadily during the economic transition (Margaret Maurer-Fazio, Thomas G. Rawski and Wei Zhang 1999; Björn Gustafsson and Shi Li 2000; Pak-Wai Liu, Xin Meng and Junshen Zhang 2000; Scott Rozelle et al 2002; and

Chi and Li 2008). A large proportion of the gender wage gap cannot be explained by gender differences in human capital characteristics.³ Analysts have argued that part of the residual gender wage gap may be attributable to unobserved gender differences in productivity (Joseph G. Altonji and Rebecca M. Blank 1998; Xiao-yuan Dong and Liqin Zhang 2009). Indeed, Yuping Zhang, Emily Hannum and Meiyang Wang (2008) find that women's family responsibilities play more important roles than their disadvantages in human capital in the rise of gender wage differentials in the urban labor market in post-reform China. Nan Jia and Xiao-yuan Dong (2012) find that mothers earned substantially less than childless women with the same human capital characteristics in China's emerging private sector.

In this paper, we estimate the effects of housework burdens on the earnings of Chinese men and women and evaluate the extent to which the gender earnings gap is attributable to gender differences in housework-related indicators.

2. Literature Review

Several theories have been proposed to explain how housework may affect wages. Gary S. Becker (1985) explains the impact of housework on wages with a model in which each individual has to allocate not only a fixed amount of time but also a fixed amount of effort (or energy) amongst different activities. Because housework requires effort and consumes energy, workers bearing greater household responsibilities inevitably expend less effort on the job and therefore earn lower wages. Jens Bonke, Nabanita Datta Gupta and Nina Smith (2005) emphasize the role of the timing and flexibility of housework. They argue that many housework tasks have to be performed

at regular points in time each day. Examples are cooking meals, feeding a baby, and sending children to and picking them up from daycare. If these activities are performed at times of the day that interfere with market work, the workers' productivity and wages will be adversely affected. Another mechanism for explaining the impact of housework on wages is that individuals who bear higher housework burdens may seek out jobs that offer convenient hours, flexible working schedules, or require less intensive effort. In accordance with the theory of compensating wage differentials (Sherwin Rosen 1986), workers have to accept lower wages to compensate employers for accommodating their preferences for these jobs (Becker 1985; Joni Hersch 1991).

The impacts of housework on wages have been empirically examined in the literature through standard wage equations augmented by various measures of housework. Most of the existing studies focus on housework time. There is consistent evidence that an increase in the amount of time spent on housework has a negative effect on wages for women, although the evidence for men is mixed.⁴ Quantitatively, a survey of 17 empirical studies (Maani and Cruickshank 2009) indicates that the wage reduction effects of housework time are nontrivial: an increase in housework by one hour per week is associated with decreases in the hourly wages for women ranging from 0.21 to 3.0 percent (Maani and Cruickshank 2009). The empirical literature also shows that the inclusion of a variable for housework time in the wage equation considerably increases the explained component of the gender wage gap, by approximately 10 percentage points, for example, for married workers, according to

Hersch and Stratton (1997), 7.6 percentage points, according to Hersch (2009), and 17 to 27 percentage points according to Bryan and Sevilla-Sanz (2007).

Empirical evidence has also been obtained in support of the hypothesis that the timing and flexibility of housework is an important determinant of wages for women. Hersch (1991) finds that housework on workdays has a significant negative effect on wages for women, whereas the effect of housework on non-work days is insignificant. Hersch and Stratton (2002) divided housework tasks into typically female tasks and typically male tasks by whether the task is a daily routine activity or not. The former category includes such activities as cooking, cleaning, shopping and laundry, and the latter includes home and yard maintenance and auto repair. They find that only the time spent on typically female tasks has a significant negative effect on wages. Bonke, Gupta and Smith (2005) find that women who spend more time on housework or perform housework immediately before or after market work earned lower wages and that the correlation of wages with the indicators for the timing and flexibility of housework is stronger than the correlation with the amount of time spent on housework.

In this paper, we focus our attention on the direct effects of housework burdens on the quality of market work time. As we describe in the next section, to cope with long working hours and heavy housework burdens, many Chinese workers time housework activities around market work. Some workers undertake housework activities right before or right after market work, while others attend to domestic chores during working hours by either forgoing work breaks or directly disrupting

market work. The intertwinements of housework and market work unavoidably diminish the quality of market work time and consequently lower earnings, as the burden of coping with both housework and market work is likely to make workers feel rushed and tired, unable to concentrate, prone to reduce pre-work preparation, and unable to stay at work for late meetings or training activities. Thus, we introduce three new indicators to measure the degree to which the quality of market work time is affected by housework interference. In the remainder of the paper, we document gender differences in the amount of time spent on housework and in the quality of market work and we estimate the effects of these housework indicators on the earnings of men and women.

3. Data and measures of the quality of market work time

The data used in this study are drawn from the 2008 China Time Use Survey (CTUS) that was conducted by the National Bureau of Statistics of China in ten provinces, namely, Beijing, Hebei, Heilongjiang, Zhejiang, Anhui, Henan, Guangdong, Sichuan, Yunnan and Gansu. The survey covers 37,142 individuals aged between 15 and 74 years from 16,616 households in both urban and rural areas. Using a time diary instrument, the survey gathered information on what each respondent did during each 10-minute interval of a 24-hour period on a weekday and on a weekend day. Unlike task-based retrospective survey data that only provide information on the amount of time spent on selected activities, CTUS provides information on the timing and sequence of activities and the amount of time spent on all activities. This information enables us to investigate time allocation more deeply. Additionally, the

survey provides complementary information on respondents' age, sex, marital status, educational attainments, occupation, and monthly income (by a categorical measure). For the purposes of this paper, we focus on men and women aged between 21 and 50 years who are employed in non-agricultural sectors. After omitting observations with missing information, we have a sample of 6,460 men and 5,339 women for analysis.⁵

Guided by the International Standard Activity Classifications introduced by the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD) and EUROSTAT, CTUS divides human activities into nine one-digit, 61 two-digit and 113 three-digit categories. The nine one-digit categories include personal care and self-maintenance (0); paid employment (1); household production in primary industries (2); household-based production in manufacturing and construction industries (3); household-based services to generate income (4); housework for households' own consumption (5); care for household members (children and the elderly, sick or disabled), help to other households, and community volunteer services (6); study and training (7); recreation, leisure and social contact (8). We aggregate the nine one-digit activities into three categories—market work, housework and non-work activity. Market work consists of the activities in categories 1, 3 and 4; housework consists of the activities in categories 5 and 6; and non-work activity consists of the activities in categories 0, 7 and 8.

Table 1 presents summary statistics for time spent on market work and housework on a weekday, a weekend day and in a week. As in other countries (Michael Burda, Daniel Hamermesh and Philippe Weil 2007), in China, women spend less time on market work and more time on housework than men. Specifically, men,

on average, spend 49 hours on market work and 9 hours on housework each week, while women spend 45 hours and 21 hours, respectively. Adding up the time spent on market work and housework, we note that the total work time of women is higher than that of men by 0.87 hour on a week day, 1.3 hours on a weekend day, and 7.0 hours per week. To examine the gender difference in the qualitative side of housework time more closely, we divide housework time into several subcategories. The gender difference in housework time is observed to be most stark in daily routine tasks such as cooking, cleaning, shopping, and taking care of children. These housework tasks have to be performed at regular times of the day and cannot easily be put off, and they are therefore more likely to interfere with market work.

- Table 1 -

To depict the timing of market work and housework activities, we calculate the participation rates of men and women in market work, housework and non-work activities at each hour of the day and present these participation rates for weekdays and weekend days in Figures 1 and 2, respectively. Clearly, compared to men, fewer women are doing market work but more women are doing housework at any moment of the day, except at night, regardless of whether it is a weekday or a weekend day. However, many more women than men do housework during the time from 7:00 am to 6:00 pm. Given that regular working hours in China are between 8:00 am and 5:00 pm, the timing profiles presented in Figures 1 and 2 indicate that more women than men do housework activities around or during working hours. Specifically, approximately 48 percent of women in the sample perform some housework activity

between 7:00 am and 8:00 am; 38 percent do so between 12:00 noon and 1:00 pm (during the lunch break); 41 percent do so between 5:00 pm and 6:00 pm; and 49 percent do housework during regular working hours—between 8:00 am and 12:00 noon and between 1:00 and 5:00 pm. The participation rates of men in housework during these respective intervals are all lower: 22, 15, 19 and 25 percent. Clearly, women’s market work is more intertwined with housework than is men’s.

- Figure 1 and Figure 2 -

To measure the intertwinement of market work and housework, we construct three indicators. The first indicator, termed *MAX*, is the maximum duration of time spent on market work and non-work activities combined that is not interrupted by housework between the beginning and the end of market work on a given day in a week. *MAX* captures both the degree of continuity of market work and the need for workers to take breaks and eat meals to regain energy for work. We consider the longest spell in a week instead of a weekday because approximately 30 percent of men and women in our sample engage in market work on weekend days, as Figure 2 indicates.⁶ *MAX* is expected to be positively correlated with productivity and earnings. The second indicator is a binary variable *RUPT*, which takes on the value of one if housework occurs between two episodes of market work at least once on a weekday or a weekend day and zero otherwise. *RUPT* is a measure of the lack of continuity of market work time and is thus expected to have a negative effect on productivity and earnings. The third indicator, termed *SWITCH*, is the number of times an individual switches directly between market work and housework in a given week. The more

frequently a worker switches between the two types of work activity, the more he or she is distracted from market work or feels rushed and exhausted. Thus, *SWITCH* is expected to be negatively correlated with productivity and earnings.

Table 2 presents summary statistics of the maximum duration of uninterrupted market work time between the beginning and the end of market work on a given day by gender. For the purpose of comparison, the first half of Table 2 presents the maximum durations of market work time not interrupted by housework activities or by non-work activities, and the second half presents the maximum duration of time on market work and non-work activities combined not interrupted by housework. We can see that the maximum durations of both types of non-interrupted market work time are longer for men than for women. However, the gender differences are much larger in market work and non-work activities combined than in market work time alone. This contrast indicates that much of the extra housework women undertake during working hours is carried out at the expenses of work breaks or other types of self-care or leisure activities. It appears that when men stop working to take a break at work, many of their female co-workers rush to take care of domestic chores. As a result, women are more tired than men and therefore have less energy for market work.

- Table 2 -

Table 3 presents summary statistics for housework performed between the beginning and the end of market work in a given day. We note that approximately 25 percent of men and 48 percent of women do housework during working hours and that the time spent during this period account for 11% to 12% of the total amount of

time spent on housework by men and women. Clearly, women's market work is more likely to be interrupted by housework than men's, and the amount of time spent on housework during working hours is higher for women than for men (1.1 versus 2.8 hours per week). As for the nature of the housework, making lunch meals is the most common task performed during market work periods.

- Table 3 -

Table 4 presents summary statistics of the number of direct switches between market work and housework by gender. As Table 4 indicates, women switch between the two types of work activity twice as frequently as do men. Approximately 74 percent of women switch from one type of work to another at least once on a weekday, while only 41 percent of men do so. Strikingly, approximately 45 percent of women switch between work activities more than once on a weekday. Thus, women's market work time is more fragmented and more rushed than men's.

- Table 4 -

4. Empirical methods

Following the standard approach in the literature, we estimate a human capital earnings equation specified below:

$$LN_INC_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Q_{mi} + \beta_2 HH_i + X_i' \gamma + u_i$$

where LN_INC is the logarithm of monthly earnings⁷; Q_m is an indicator of the quality of market work time, as described in the previous section; HH is the number of hours spent on housework per week; X is a vector of covariates that includes weekly market work hours, education, experience and its squared term, marital status, occupation,

residential status, and provincial dummy variables; Greek letters represent unknown parameters; u is the error term; and the subscript i is the index of individuals.

Like Bonke, Gupta and Smith (2005), we treat the quality of market work time and the amount of housework time as exogenous variables. Undoubtedly, both types of housework measures may be endogenous as they may be correlated with unobserved individual characteristics or determined by the level of earnings. In the literature, panel data are applied to eliminate unobserved individual effects and instrumental variables (IV) are introduced to control for simultaneous bias (Maani and Cruickshank 2009). Regrettably, we are unable to address the subject of unobserved individual fixed effects as we have only a single cross section of observations. To assess simultaneous bias, we performed Hausman tests using three demographic indicators. These indicators include one dummy variable for individuals who live with children under 15 years of age, termed *CHILD*; one dummy variable for individuals living with the elderly (aged 65 years or older) who need to be taken care of, termed *OLD*; and the number of household members between 21 and 64 years of age, termed *HELPER*. These variables are assumed to be correlated with the variables for housework and market work in the earnings equation but are assumed to have no effect on earnings when we control for the effects of housework and market work variables.⁸ The Hausman test results presented at the bottom of Table 6 indicate that we cannot reject the null hypothesis that the variables for housework and market work time are exogenously determined.⁹ Thus, we estimate the earnings equation (1) by ordinary least squares (OLS) regression and focus the discussion on the OLS

estimates. The summary statistics of the variables involved in the regressions are presented in the appendix.

Using the OLS estimates of the earnings equations, we apply the Blinder–Oaxaca decomposition technique to measure the degree to which gender differences in housework time and the quality of market work time explain the gender wage gap.

5. Empirical results

5.1 The correlates of the quality of market work time and housework time

Before discussing the earnings effects of housework, we examine the correlates (determinants) of market work time and housework-related indicator variables, which are obtained as the OLS estimates of the first-stage, reduced-form equation for the Hausman test. Table 5 presents the estimates for the amount of time spent on market work and housework. The estimates show that for both men and women, the presence of children and the elderly in the household decreases the amount of time on market work and increases the amount of time on housework. Interestingly, the effects of children are stronger for women than for men, whereas the opposite gender pattern is observed for the elderly effects. Additionally, the household size is positively correlated with market work time and negatively correlated with housework time. Both married men and women spend more time on housework than their non-married counterparts, but the marital effect is larger for women than for men. Again, for both sexes, more educated individuals spend less time on market work and more on housework. With respect to occupation, migrant workers of both genders spend more time on market work and less time on housework than non-migrants. A similar pattern

of time allocation is also observed for drivers, self-employed workers, and rural workers, compared to workers in other occupations and in urban areas.

Table 5.1

Table 5.2 presents the estimates for the correlates of the quality of market work time. The estimates of *CHILD*, *OLD*, and *HELPER* have expected signs for both men and women, and most of the estimates are statistically significant. The sizes of these estimates are nontrivial. For instance, having a child reduces the maximum length of market work time by nearly a half hour for women, increases the probability that market work is interrupted by housework by 3.5 percent for men and 5.3 percent for women, and increases the number of work switches by 1.2 times for men and 2.1 times for women. As with housework time, living with a disabled elderly person has a stronger adverse effect on the quality of market work for men than for women. The estimates also show that market work is less interrupted by housework for those who live in larger households but is more interrupted for married men and women than for non-married individuals. The estimates of demographic variables indicate that demands for housework are an important determinant of the quality of market work time.

The estimates for occupations in Table 5.2 cast light on the flexibility of market work over occupations. Compared to urban workers in non-service sectors, migrant workers and drivers, clerks, workers in the services sectors, public servants and staff members in education, sciences, culture and health (ESCH) and the self-employed have greater flexibility to time housework activities intimately around market work. It

is also noteworthy that self-employed workers switch from one type of work to another more frequently than do workers in other occupations, with a strikingly large gender difference (1.5 times for men and 4.9 times for women). This result supports the contention that women are more likely than men to choose self-employment in order to reconcile work and family responsibilities.

Table 5.2

5.2 Earnings and housework

Table 6 presents the OLS estimates of the earnings equation for men and women. It can be observed that individual wages are positively associated with *MAX* and negatively associated with *RUPT* and *SWITCH* for both men and women, as expected. All these estimates are significant at the one percent level. Quantitatively, a one-hour reduction in the maximum duration of market work time decreases monthly earnings by 1.5 percent for men and 2.3 percent for women. Compared to their counterparts whose market work is uninterrupted, men and women whose market work is interrupted by housework earn 9.0 and 10.4 percent less, respectively. Additionally, an additional switch between two types of work decreases men's monthly earnings by 0.6 percent and women's monthly earnings by 0.5 percent. These estimates support the hypothesis that the interference of housework with market work lowers the quality of market work time and consequently reduces earnings. With respect to housework time, the estimates show consistently that the amount of time spent on housework is negatively correlated with earnings for both men and women; quantitatively, each additional hour of housework per week reduces monthly earnings by 0.4 to 0.5

percent. The size of the housework time effect is fairly similar for men and women. It is evident that both the amount of time spent on housework and the timing of housework matter.

We now turn to the covariates. As we would expect, education has a positive effect on the earnings of both men and women, although the returns on education are higher for women than for men—8.4 percent per year for women and 5.4 percent for men. The estimates of experience display a standard concave relationship between experience and earnings for men but not for women. These results suggest that the prospect of career advancement for women is limited. Moreover, we note that there is a large variation in earnings across occupations and that rural workers earn substantially less than their urban counterparts, although the earning differentials between the rural and the urban sectors are greater for men than for women.

5.3 Decomposition of the gender earnings gap

Table 7 presents the Blinder–Oaxaca decomposition results of the gender earnings gap. From Table 7, we note that the monthly earnings of men in our sample are 23 percent higher than those of the women. To measure the degree to which gender differences in housework time and the quality of market work time explain the gender earnings gap, we report the proportion of the gender earnings gap that is explained by observable characteristics in three regression models, first excluding both housework time and the quality indicator of market work time, then including housework time only, and then including both housework-related measures. To check the robustness of the estimates, the earnings gap is first decomposed using the

coefficients of the men's earnings equations and then by the coefficients of the women's earnings equations.

We first examine the decomposition results using the estimates of the men's earnings equation. We note that the explained component of the earnings gap increases from -12.6 percent to 9.9 percent when housework time is included in the earnings equation, and it increases further to between 11.6 and 13.3 percent when both housework-related indicators are included.¹⁰ Thus, including housework time alone in the earnings equation increases the explained portion of the gender earnings gap by 22.5 percentage points, and adding housework time and the quality of market work time to the earnings equation increases the explained component by 24 to 26 percentage points. Overall, the two types of housework indicators jointly explain approximately 27 to 28 percent of the gender earnings gap, and the contribution of gender differences in housework time is greater than that of the quality of market work time by all three measures. Nevertheless, the effect of the quality of market work time is non-trivial. For instance, the gender difference in the number of work switches accounts for nearly 12 percent of the earnings gap, which is larger than the contribution of occupation segregation. The decomposition results based on the coefficients of the women's earnings equations are qualitatively similar to those discussed above. Thus, both the amount of time spent on housework and the timing of housework play important roles in generating gender earnings differentials.

6. Conclusions

This paper provides the first empirical analysis of the impact of housework

burdens on the gender earnings gap in China. The analysis adds to the growing body of literature on the housework–wage relationship by introducing new measures that capture the timing of housework and its interference with market work. From China’s first large-scale time use survey, we find that while, like their male co-workers, the vast majority of Chinese women work full time, they spend many more hours on housework. Women not only spend a larger amount of time on housework than men but are also more likely than men to undertake housework activities around working hours or during working hours. The interference of housework lowers the quality of market work time. We find that workers with greater responsibilities for caring for children and the elderly spend more time on housework and are also more likely to interrupt market work by housework activities. We also find that workers in the public sector and self-employed workers have greater flexibility in combining market work with housework than most waged workers in the private sector. Moreover, the estimates show that both the amount of time spent on housework and the quality of market work time have a negative effect on the earnings of men and women. While the negative earnings effects of housework time are quantitatively similar between the two sexes, the interruption of housework lowers earnings more for women than men. We also assess the role of housework burdens as a determinant of the gender earnings gap. The decomposition results show that the gender differences in housework burdens account for 27 to 28 percent of the gender earnings gap.

The findings of this paper provide support for the long-standing feminist contention that gender inequality at home and in housework is a major factor that

disadvantages women in the labor market in terms of earnings and occupational choices (Diane Elson 1999). Our analysis contributes to broadening our understanding of women's struggle with their dual roles as income earners and care-givers. Michael Bittman and Judy Wajcman (2000) argue that women's "double burden" cannot be accurately depicted by just adding up market work and housework time. Their analysis shows that due to their responsibility for housework, the quality of women's leisure time is lower than that of men's. Our results are consistent with those of Bittman and Wajcman (2000) in providing evidence that women's housework burdens also lower the quality of their market work time.

The policy implications of our analysis are straightforward. To create a level playing field in the labor market and make China's new market economy work better for women, measures should be taken to reduce housework burdens and promote greater gender equality at home. The provision of care for children and the elderly should not be deemed solely a private matter; both the government and employer should play greater roles in providing support and services for workers with family responsibilities. Policy measures should also be implemented to promote family-friendly workplace practices and to encourage men to take on larger shares of housework burdens.

Notes

¹ For a recent survey, see Sholeh A. Maani and Amy A. Cruickshank (2009).

² According to field interviews conducted by Samuel Ho, Paul Bowles and Xiao-yuan Dong

(2003), facing cut-throat market competition, many privatized textile enterprises changed work arrangements from four shifts per day to three shifts to increase daily working hours. Many private enterprises adopted the so-called *muoweitaotai* labor discipline scheme that assessed employee performance regularly in terms of punctuality, attendance, and productivity and routinely fired the bottom 5–10 percent of the workforce.

³ For example, the “unexplained” component accounts for 53–63 percent of the gender wage gap in Gustafsson and Li (2000), 89–92 percent in Liu, Meng and Zhang (2002), and 76–85 percent in Rozelle et al. (2002).

⁴ A selective list of such studies include Shelley Coverman (1983), Beth Anne Shelton and Juanita Firestone (1988), Joni Hersch and Leslie S. Stratton 2002, Shirley and Wallace (2004), and Joni Hersch (2009) for the United States; Ian McAllister (1990) for Australia; Shelley A., Peter Burton and Lynn N. Lethbridge (2001) for Canada; and Mark Bryan and Almudena Seilla-Sanz (2011) for Britain.

⁵ The sample consists of more men than women, primarily because it excludes farmers—an occupation in which women are overrepresented.

⁶ China adopted the five-working-day regulation in 1995. However, this regulation is primarily implemented in the public sector; most workers in non-public sector jobs work six days per week. Moreover, as in other Asian countries, shift work and overtime work are very common in China (Sangheon Lee, Deirdre McCann and Jon C. Messenger 2007). Thus, many workers work on weekend days and take a break on weekdays.

⁷ The variable for monthly earnings is derived as the mid-point of each income class. We choose monthly earnings instead of earnings per hour because pay schemes for Chinese workers are

typically specified on a monthly basis rather than by hourly rates. As a reflection of this widespread practice, China's minimum wages for full-time workers are defined as fixed amounts per month, not per hour. To take into account the possibility that people who work longer hours earn more income, we include the amount of time spent on market work (hours per week) in the covariates of equation (1).

⁸ Admittedly, this assumption does not hold if the decisions on time allocation, fertility and co-residence with elderly parents are jointly determined. Because our choice of IVs is very limited, we are unable to address this concern.

⁹ A similar Hausman test result is also reported by Hersch and Stratton (2002).

¹⁰ The interpretation of this result is that without controlling for housework effects, women would earn more than men if their earnings were determined solely on the basis of observable characteristics. This is not surprising, given that the men in the sample have fewer years of schooling than the women and are overrepresented in the rural sector and regions where the earnings are lower.

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Table 1 Time spent on market work and housework (hours)

	Men			Women		
	Weekday	Weekend	A week	Weekday	Weekend	A week
Market work						
Mean	8.28	3.81	49.04	7.80	2.93	44.86
Median	8.33	0.50	45.83	8.00	0.00	42.50
Housework						
Mean	1.02	2.18	9.45	2.36	4.38	20.59
#Cooking	0.39	0.55	3.04	1.05	1.35	7.96
Cleaning	0.08	0.18	0.54	0.22	0.45	1.56
Doing laundry/sewing	0.04	0.11	0.41	0.20	0.50	2.00
Shopping	0.12	0.49	1.56	0.24	0.86	2.90
Caring for pets or plants	0.01	0.01	0.08	0.01	0.01	0.08
Repairing	0.02	0.04	0.17	0.00	0.01	0.03
Household management	0.04	0.00	0.21	0.18	0.01	0.90
Caring for children	0.18	0.32	1.53	0.37	0.53	2.89
Caring for the elderly	0.01	0.03	0.10	0.01	0.04	0.13
Help others/volunteer work	0.05	0.09	0.43	0.12	0.18	0.94
Median	0.50	1.33	7.00	2.17	4.17	19.67
% doing housework	63.72	73.93	82.48	91.10	94.44	96.98
Total work time						
Mean	9.30	6.00	58.49	10.17	7.31	65.44
Median	9.33	5.83	57.67	10.33	7.33	65.50

Note: Time spent on other housework and travel related to housework is not reported in this table.

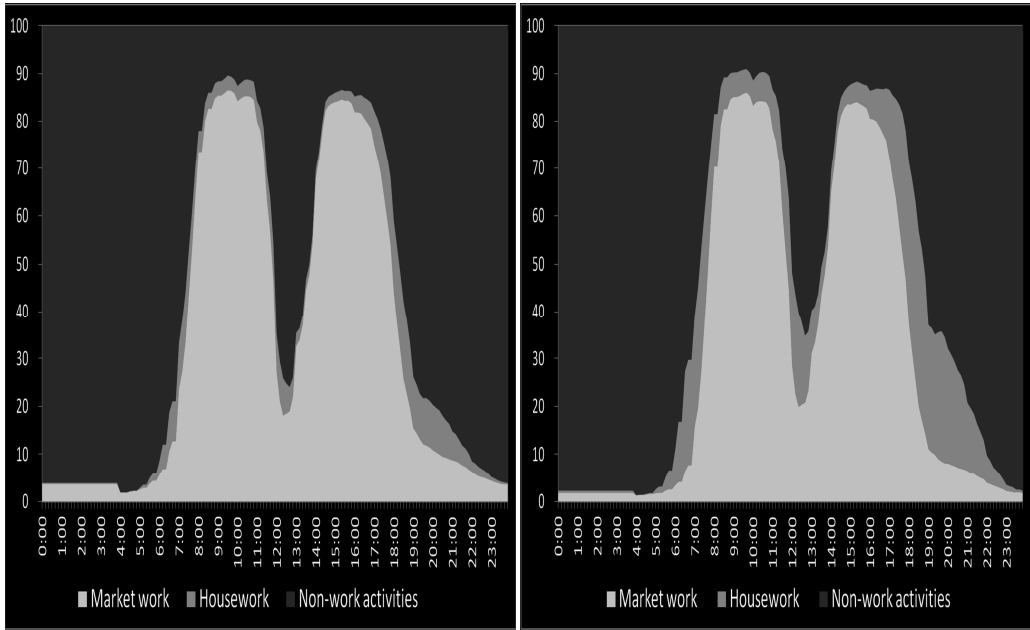


Figure 1 Participation rates of men (left) and women (right) in market work, housework and non-work activities on a weekday

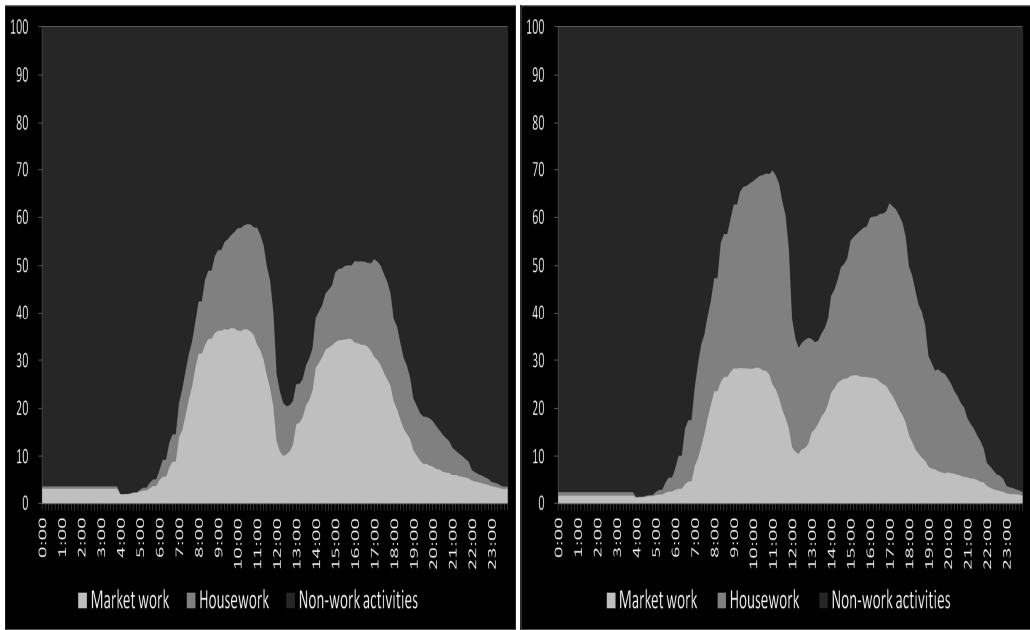


Figure 2 Participation rates of men (left) and women (right) in market work, housework and other activities on a weekend day

Table 2 Maximum durations of non-interrupted market work time (hours)

	Men			Women		
	Weekday	Weekend	A week ¹	Weekday	Weekend	A week
Maximum duration of market work time not interrupted by housework or non-work activity						
Mean	3.73	1.84	3.96	3.57	1.47	3.79
Median	3.83	0.0	4.00	3.67	0.0	3.83
Maximum duration of time on market work and non-work activity combined not interrupted by housework (<i>MAX</i>)						
Mean	6.32	3.03	6.77	5.60	2.28	5.97
Median	5.50	0.33	6.16	4.50	0.0	4.83

Notes: ¹Maximum duration of time in a week is the longer of the longest in a weekday and the longest in a weekend day.

Table 3 Performing housework between the start and end of daily market work

	Men			Women		
	Weekday	Weekend	A week ¹	Weekday	Weekend	A week
% performing housework during daily market work period						
	21.85	8.93	25.48	44.75	14.07	48.44
Amount of the time spent on housework (hours)						
Total	0.18	0.10	1.09	0.43	0.17	2.80
#Cooking ²	0.09	0.04	0.60	0.24	0.09	2.49
Cleaning	0.01	0.01	0.09	0.03	0.01	0.30
Doing laundry/sewing	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.58
Shopping	0.02	0.02	0.20	0.06	0.02	0.36
Caring for pets or plants	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00
Repairing	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.01
Household management	0.01	0.00	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.47
Caring for children	0.01	0.01	0.11	0.03	0.01	0.32
Caring for the elderly	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01
Help others/volunteer work	0.01	0.00	0.09	0.01	0.01	0.17
% in total housework time	17.65	4.59	11.53	18.22	3.88	12.09

Notes: 1. % performing housework in a week is the proportion of those who reported performing housework during the market work period either on a weekday or a weekend day. The amount of time spent on housework during the market work period in a week is the sum of the time spent on a weekday times five and the time spent on a weekend day times two.

2. Time spent on other housework and travel related to housework is not reported in this table.

Table 4 Number of switches between housework and market work activities¹

	Men			Women		
	Weekday	Weekend	A week ²	Weekday	Weekend	A week
Total number of switches						
Mean	0.69	0.27	3.99	1.52	0.52	8.62
Median	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	7.00
% of 0 time	58.61	82.77	52.20	26.24	72.73	21.78
% of 1 time	23.50	10.82	-	28.58	12.76	-
% of 2 times	11.69	4.15	-	25.14	8.30	-
% of 3 times	4.01	1.46	-	12.08	3.88	-
% of more than 3 times	2.20	0.80	-	7.96	2.34	-
Number of switches from housework to market work						
Mean	0.24	0.10	1.88	0.54	0.20	3.08
Median	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Number of switches from market work to housework						
Mean	0.45	0.17	2.60	0.98	0.32	5.54
Median	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	5.00

Notes: 1. Only direct shifts from one type of work to another are counted. That is, if a person went to make lunch after finishing market work in the morning and then took a nap before going back to market work in the afternoon, the person is considered to have switched work activities only once, not twice.

2. Total number of activity switches in a week is the sum of the number of switches on a weekday times five and the number of switches on a weekend day times two.

Table 5.1 Determinants of hours spent on market work and housework per week

	Men		women	
	Market work time	Housework time	Market work time	Housework time
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<i>CHILD</i>	-1.362*** (0.443)	4.309*** (0.249)	-2.334*** (0.458)	7.345*** (0.330)
<i>OLD</i>	-7.032*** (1.336)	9.721*** (0.752)	-4.538*** (1.190)	7.300*** (0.858)
<i>HELPER</i>	0.560* (0.336)	-1.205*** (0.189)	0.683** (0.341)	-1.622*** (0.246)
<i>MARRIED</i>	0.857 (0.825)	1.511*** (0.464)	-0.340 (0.738)	4.033*** (0.532)
<i>EDU</i>	-0.606*** (0.105)	0.189*** (0.059)	-0.495*** (0.111)	0.223*** (0.080)
<i>EXP</i>	0.109 (0.127)	0.077 (0.072)	-0.286** (0.119)	0.497*** (0.085)
<i>EXPSQ</i>	-0.004 (0.003)	0.000 (0.002)	0.005 (0.003)	-0.007*** (0.002)
<i>Clerks</i>	-1.645*** (0.637)	-0.298 (0.359)	-2.728*** (0.657)	0.523 (0.474)
<i>Migrant Workers</i>	7.157*** (0.893)	-1.912*** (0.503)	8.634*** (1.097)	-2.249*** (0.791)
<i>Drivers and Conductors</i>	5.776*** (1.051)	-1.524*** (0.591)	1.314 (1.440)	-0.751 (1.038)
<i>Workers in Service Sector</i>	-0.558 (0.884)	0.699 (0.497)	0.888 (0.726)	0.295 (0.523)
<i>Public Servants</i>	-3.435*** (0.725)	-0.687* (0.408)	-3.694*** (0.840)	-0.030 (0.606)
<i>Staff in ESCH¹</i>	-1.267	0.298	-1.046	-0.325

	(0.918)	(0.517)	(0.815)	(0.588)
<i>Individual Business</i>	2.195**	-1.735***	3.101***	0.640
	(1.022)	(0.575)	(1.077)	(0.776)
<i>Private Owners</i>	-1.115	-0.414	-2.851	-0.295
	(1.499)	(0.844)	(2.126)	(1.533)
<i>RURAL</i>	6.197***	-2.346***	3.617***	-0.908
	(0.729)	(0.410)	(0.868)	(0.626)
<i>Regional dummy</i>	yes	yes	yes	yes
<i>Constant</i>	52.398***	6.763***	53.103***	9.278***
	(2.225)	(1.252)	(2.255)	(1.626)
Test for overall significance				
<i>F statistic</i>	51.76	44.00	32.04	58.38
<i>P value</i>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<i>Adj. R²</i>	0.1642	0.1427	0.1269	0.2118
<i>N</i>	6431	6431	5304	5304

Notes: The estimates presented in this table are the first-stage equation of the 2SLS earnings regressions. Numbers in brackets are heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors. *, **, and *** indicate significance at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively, in a two-tailed test. The reference group consists of manufacturing workers who are unmarried and who live in households in Beijing or other urban areas with no children under 16 years of age and no persons greater than 65 year of age.

Table 5.2 Determinants of the quality of market work time¹

	Men			Women		
	<i>MAX</i>	<i>RUPT</i>	<i>SWITCH</i>	<i>MAX</i>	<i>RUPT</i>	<i>SWITCH</i>
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<i>CHILD</i>	-0.138 (0.089)	0.035*** (0.012)	1.246*** (0.154)	-0.428*** (0.087)	0.053*** (0.015)	2.097*** (0.222)
<i>OLD</i>	-0.877*** (0.266)	0.027 (0.036)	1.251*** (0.466)	-0.183 (0.225)	0.064* (0.038)	1.205** (0.577)
<i>HELPER</i>	0.142** (0.069)	-0.046*** (0.009)	-0.703*** (0.117)	0.173*** (0.065)	-0.050*** (0.011)	-1.179*** (0.160)
<i>MARRIED</i>	-0.235 (0.164)	0.045** (0.022)	0.862*** (0.288)	-0.350** (0.139)	0.060*** (0.024)	1.961*** (0.358)
<i>EDU</i>	-0.059*** (0.021)	0.004 (0.003)	0.021 (0.037)	-0.067*** (0.021)	0.009** (0.004)	-0.042 (0.054)
<i>EXP</i>	-0.000 (0.000)	0.006* (0.003)	0.103** (0.044)	-0.054** (0.022)	0.011** (0.004)	0.245*** (0.058)
<i>EXPSQ</i>	-0.001 (0.000)	-0.000 (0.000)	-0.002* (0.001)	0.000 (0.001)	-0.000 (0.000)	-0.003* (0.002)
<i>Clerks</i>	-0.300** (0.127)	-0.005 (0.017)	0.502* (0.222)	-0.459*** (0.124)	0.000 (0.021)	0.952*** (0.319)
<i>Migrant Workers</i>	0.506** (0.178)	-0.099*** (0.024)	-0.789** (0.312)	0.709*** (0.207)	-0.029 (0.035)	0.505 (0.532)
<i>Drivers and conductors</i>	0.648*** (0.209)	-0.032 (0.028)	-0.008 (0.366)	0.624** (0.272)	-0.157*** (0.047)	-0.940 (0.698)
<i>Workers in Service Sector</i>	-0.194 (0.176)	0.035 (0.024)	1.009*** (0.308)	-0.062 (0.137)	0.002 (0.023)	0.971*** (0.352)
<i>Public Servants</i>	-0.655*** (0.144)	0.039** (0.019)	0.596** (0.253)	-0.946*** (0.159)	0.077*** (0.027)	1.408*** (0.407)
<i>Staff in ESCH</i>	-0.492***	0.120***	1.488***	-0.272*	0.068***	1.355***

	(0.183)	(0.025)	(0.320)	(0.154)	(0.026)	(0.395)
<i>Individual Business</i>	0.286	0.041	1.527***	0.101	0.098***	4.896***
	(0.203)	(0.027)	(0.356)	(0.204)	(0.035)	(0.522)
<i>Private Owners</i>	-0.548	0.033	0.895*	-0.388	-0.024	1.691*
	(0.298)	(0.040)	(0.523)	(0.402)	(0.069)	(1.031)
<i>RURAL</i>	0.297**	0.104***	0.171	-0.045	0.158***	1.805***
	(0.145)	(0.020)	(0.254)	(0.164)	(0.028)	(0.421)
<i>Regional dummy</i>	Yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
<i>Constant</i>	8.215***	0.073	1.805**	8.365***	0.098	4.004***
	(0.443)	(0.060)	(0.776)	(0.426)	(0.073)	(1.094)
<i>Test for zero slopes</i>						
<i>F statistic</i>	18.81	13.11	17.30	23.73	17.98	27.04
<i>P value</i>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<i>Adj. R²</i>	0.0645	0.0448	0.0594	0.0962	0.0737	0.1087
<i>Observations</i>	6431	6431	6431	5304	5304	5304

Notes: The estimates presented in this table are the first-stage equation of the 2SLS earnings regressions. Numbers in brackets are heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors. *, **, and *** indicate significance at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively, in a two-tailed test. The reference group consists of manufacturing workers who are unmarried and who live in households in Beijing or other urban areas with no children under 16 years of age and no persons greater than 65 year of age.

Table 6 OLS estimates of the earnings equation

	Men			women		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
<i>MAX</i>	0.015*** (0.003)			0.023*** (0.003)		
<i>RUPT</i>		-0.090*** (0.018)			-0.104*** (0.017)	
<i>SWITCH</i>			-0.006*** (0.002)			-0.005*** (0.001)
<i>Housework time</i>	-0.005*** (0.001)	-0.004*** (0.001)	-0.003*** (0.001)	-0.004*** (0.001)	-0.004*** (0.001)	-0.004*** (0.001)
<i>Market work Time</i>	-0.002*** (0.001)	0.000 (0.001)	0.000 (0.001)	-0.002*** (0.001)	0.000 (0.001)	0.000 (0.001)
<i>MARRIED</i>	0.047 (0.030)	0.045 (0.030)	0.046 (0.030)	0.051* (0.029)	0.047* (0.029)	0.051* (0.029)
<i>EDU</i>	0.054*** (0.004)	0.054*** (0.004)	0.054*** (0.004)	0.084*** (0.004)	0.085*** (0.004)	0.083*** (0.004)
<i>EXP</i>	0.035*** (0.005)	0.036*** (0.005)	0.036*** (0.005)	0.007 (0.005)	0.007 (0.005)	0.007 (0.005)
<i>EXPSQ</i>	-0.001*** (0.000)	-0.001*** (0.000)	-0.001*** (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)
<i>Clerk</i>	0.188*** (0.024)	0.186*** (0.024)	0.189*** (0.024)	0.101*** (0.026)	0.096*** (0.026)	0.102*** (0.026)
<i>Migrant Worker</i>	0.276*** (0.034)	0.265*** (0.034)	0.271*** (0.034)	0.144*** (0.044)	0.141*** (0.044)	0.146*** (0.044)
<i>Driver and Conductor</i>	0.092** (0.039)	0.092** (0.039)	0.095** (0.039)	0.102* (0.057)	0.097* (0.058)	0.108* (0.058)
<i>Worker in Service Sector</i>	-0.117***	-0.117***	-0.115***	-0.169***	-0.173***	-0.168***

	(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.029)	(0.029)	(0.029)
<i>Public Servants</i>	0.215***	0.215***	0.215***	0.289***	0.283***	0.283***
	(0.027)	(0.027)	(0.027)	(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.033)
<i>Staff in ESCH</i>	0.242***	0.247***	0.245***	0.247***	0.250***	0.251***
	(0.034)	(0.034)	(0.034)	(0.032)	(0.032)	(0.032)
<i>Individual business</i>	0.260***	0.267***	0.272***	0.210***	0.216***	0.231***
	(0.038)	(0.038)	(0.038)	(0.043)	(0.043)	(0.043)
<i>Private owner</i>	0.511***	0.508***	0.511***	0.286***	0.281***	0.293***
	(0.056)	(0.056)	(0.056)	(0.084)	(0.084)	(0.084)
<i>RURAL</i>	-0.421***	-0.414***	-0.422***	-0.334***	-0.327***	-0.334***
	(0.027)	(0.027)	(0.027)	(0.034)	(0.034)	(0.034)
<i>Hebei</i>	-0.428***	-0.430***	-0.436***	-0.438***	-0.436***	-0.450***
	(0.030)	(0.030)	(0.030)	(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.033)
<i>Heilongjiang</i>	-0.566***	-0.561***	-0.565***	-0.525***	-0.519***	-0.522***
	(0.032)	(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.035)	(0.035)	(0.035)
<i>Zhejiang</i>	0.029	0.037	0.040	0.090***	0.103***	0.109***
	(0.031)	(0.031)	(0.031)	(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.033)
<i>Anhui</i>	-0.419***	-0.426***	-0.429***	-0.365***	-0.369***	-0.375***
	(0.032)	(0.032)	(0.032)	(0.036)	(0.036)	(0.036)
<i>Henan</i>	-0.549***	-0.552***	-0.558***	-0.379***	-0.382***	-0.390***
	(0.029)	(0.029)	(0.029)	(0.031)	(0.031)	(0.031)
<i>Guangdong</i>	-0.111***	-0.113***	-0.117***	-0.081**	-0.080**	-0.086***
	(0.031)	(0.031)	(0.031)	(0.032)	(0.032)	(0.032)
<i>Sichuan</i>	-0.497***	-0.488***	-0.497***	-0.420***	-0.425***	-0.437***
	(0.049)	(0.050)	(0.050)	(0.060)	(0.060)	(0.060)
<i>Yunnan</i>	-0.602***	-0.606***	-0.610***	-0.412***	-0.413***	-0.423***
	(0.034)	(0.034)	(0.034)	(0.035)	(0.035)	(0.035)
<i>Gansu</i>	-0.676***	-0.677***	-0.684***	-0.615***	-0.612***	-0.626***
	(0.034)	(0.034)	(0.034)	(0.038)	(0.039)	(0.038)

<i>Constant</i>	6.722***	6.757***	6.763***	6.283***	6.361***	6.366***
	(0.076)	(0.076)	(0.076)	(0.087)	(0.086)	(0.086)
<i>Test for zero slopes</i>						
<i>F statistic</i>	111.07	110.66	110.10	100.93	100.21	99.24
<i>P value</i>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<i>Hausman test</i>						
<i>F statistic</i>	1.606	1.376	1.557	0.665	0.905	0.926
<i>P value</i>	0.19	0.25	0.20	0.57	0.44	0.43
<i>Adj. R²</i>	0.2997	0.2989	0.2978	0.3202	0.3187	0.3165
<i>Observations</i>	6431	6431	6431	5304	5304	5304

Notes: Numbers in brackets are heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors. *, **, and *** indicate significance at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively, in a two-tailed test. The reference group for (1) and (3) consists of urban manufacturing workers who are unmarried and live in Beijing. The reference group for (2) consists of urban manufacturing workers who are unmarried, live in Beijing, and do not interrupt market work by housework.

Table 7 Blinder–Oaxaca decomposition of the gender earnings gap

The gender earnings gap = 0.230

Using coefficients of men’s earnings equation

(1) Both housework hours and quality of market work time are excluded

Explained (%) -12.61

Unexplained (%) 112.61

(2) Housework hours are included but quality of market work time is excluded

Explained (%) 9.88

Unexplained (%) 90.12

(3) Both housework hours and quality of market work time are included

	<i>MAX</i>	<i>RUPT</i>	<i>SWITCH</i>
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Explained (%)	11.59	12.87	13.30
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Unexplained (%)	88.41	87.13	86.7
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Explained by

Quality of market work time	5.19	9.18	11.73
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Weekly housework hour	23.16	17.86	16.14
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Weekly market work hour	-3.52	-0.76	-0.82
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Education	-3.15	-3.16	-3.14
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Experience	2.83	2.86	2.78
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Married	0.41	0.38	0.40
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Occupation	9.24	8.86	8.94
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Rural	-16.57	-16.31	-16.61
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Province	-6.00	-6.03	-6.12
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Using coefficients of women’s earnings equation

(1) Both housework hours and quality of market work time are excluded

Explained (%) -11.08

Unexplained (%) 111.08

(2) Housework hours are included but quality of market work time is excluded

Explained (%)	12.32		
Unexplained (%)	87.68		
(3) Both housework hours and quality of market work time are included			
	<i>MAX</i>	<i>RUPT</i>	<i>SWITCH</i>
Explained (%)	13.69	18.20	16.58
Unexplained (%)	86.31	81.80	83.42
<i>Explained by</i>			
Quality of market work time	8.13	10.64	11.05
Weekly housework hour	21.84	19.89	18.36
Weekly market work hour	-3.97	-0.08	-0.01
Education	2.18	2.23	1.99
Working experience	-4.89	-4.92	-4.85
Married	0.44	0.41	0.44
Occupation	10.04	9.93	9.93
Rural	-13.13	-12.88	-13.15
Province	-6.96	-7.01	-7.19
<i>Observations</i>	11735	11735	11735

Appendix: Definitions and summary statistics of the variables involved in the regressions

Variable name	Definition	Men		Women	
		Mean	S. V.	Mean	S. V.
<i>LN_INC</i> ¹	Logarithm of monthly earnings (<i>yuan</i>)	7.41	0.71	7.18	0.71
<i>MAX</i>	Maximum duration of market work and non-work activity combined not interrupted by housework between the beginning and the end of market work on a given day in a week	6.77	3.27	5.97	2.96
<i>RUPT</i>	=1 if market work is interrupted by housework on a weekday or a weekend day; =0 otherwise	0.25	0.44	0.48	0.50
<i>SWITCH</i>	No. of switches between housework and market work in a week	3.99	5.72	8.62	7.64
<i>Market work time</i>	Weekly market work hour	49.04	17.40	44.86	15.91
<i>Housework time</i>	Weekly housework hour	9.45	9.67	20.59	12.08
<i>CHILD</i>	= 1 if living with children under 15; = 0 otherwise	0.47	0.50	0.46	0.50
<i>OLD</i>	= 1 if having elderly older than 64; = 0 otherwise	0.02	0.15	0.03	0.17
<i>HELPER</i>	No. of household members aged 20-64	2.27	0.67	2.20	0.67
<i>MARRIED</i>	= 1 if married; = 0 otherwise	0.89	0.31	0.87	0.34
<i>EDU</i>	Years of schooling year	12.16	2.74	12.32	2.65
<i>EXP</i>	Working experience (age - schooling year - 6)	19.95	8.28	18.68	8.43
<i>RURAL</i>	= 1 if living in rural area; = 0 otherwise	0.24	0.43	0.15	0.36
Distribution by occupation					
<i>Worker in manufacturing sector</i>		0.22	0.42	0.18	0.38
<i>Clerks</i>		0.22	0.41	0.27	0.45
<i>Migrant workers</i>		0.16	0.36	0.09	0.29
<i>Drivers and conductors</i>		0.04	0.20	0.02	0.15

<i>Workers in service sector</i>	0.07	0.25	0.15	0.36
<i>Public servants</i>	0.15	0.36	0.11	0.31
<i>Staff members in ESCH (education, science, culture and healthcare)</i>	0.07	0.26	0.12	0.33
<i>Individual business</i>	0.05	0.21	0.05	0.21
<i>Owners of private enterprises</i>	0.02	0.14	0.01	0.10
Distribution by region				
<i>Beijing</i>	0.13	0.34	0.15	0.35
<i>Hebei</i>	0.13	0.33	0.11	0.31
<i>Heilongjiang</i>	0.09	0.29	0.09	0.29
<i>Zhejiang</i>	0.11	0.31	0.12	0.32
<i>Anhui</i>	0.09	0.29	0.08	0.28
<i>Henan</i>	0.14	0.35	0.15	0.35
<i>Guangdong</i>	0.11	0.31	0.12	0.32
<i>Sichuan</i>	0.03	0.16	0.02	0.14
<i>Yunnan</i>	0.08	0.28	0.10	0.29
<i>Gansu</i>	0.08	0.27	0.07	0.25
<i>Observations</i>	6431		5304	

Notes: ¹ *LN_INC* is the middle point of an individual earnings interval in log form.