The Influence of Spouse's Income on Married Women's Labor Participation

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Abstract. Gender equality is a hot issue in today's society, and economic independence is important for women to have more say in her family and the society. This paper examines the effect of spouse's labor income on married women's labor participation by using data of CGSS 2015. To give a clear comparison, the paper also examines the effect of wives' labor income on married men's labor participation. The result shows that the husband's labor income share of total family income does have a significantly negative impact on married women, while the wife's labor income share of total family income doesn't have a significant impact on married men. Possible explanations and suggestions are proposed to deal with this phenomenon.

Keywords: Married Women; Income; Family; Labor Participation.

1. Introduction

1.1 Brief Background

Despite some progress made over the past few decades in increasing women's labour force participation and narrowing gender gaps in wages, gender equality in the world labor market still remains an elusive goal. In particular, in the developing countries, women earn less income and are more often affected by long-term unemployment than men (International Labor Organization, 2020). What's more, due to women's socio-economic disadvantages caused by gender discrimination and their dual roles of being a worker and a care taker for the society, many women are more likely to take lower-level jobs or even forced to leave the labor market to take care of their families. The traditional mode of "male breadwinner/female homemaker" still holds away over people's mind and influences their job choices.

One way of promoting woman's rights is to ensure their economic independence, which means they can support themselves rather than depend on their partner or spouse. Therefore, the issue of female labor participation is worth studying. This study aims to find out how the husband's income will influence the married women's labor participation, which is a micro research based on the unit of household. To give a more straightforward picture, I will also study the influence of the wife's income on the married men's labor participation to make a comparison between the results of different gender under the condition of holding other factors fixed. This paper also seeks to investigate the current gender equality situation in China and put forward some suggestions about policies of improving gender equality based on the result of study.

1.2 Theories

One widely used theoretical approach in researches on the influence of spouse's income on the counterpart's labor participation is family economics (Becker, 1981). Classical economic theories of the family assumes that each household is a production unit and every family member will pool their resources to achieve jointly utility maximization. The family member with a higher wage in the labor market will devote more time and resource in working, while the counterpart with a lower wage will invest more time and resource in family, doing housework and child care.

Another theory is the household bargaining theory (Ott, 1992; Lundberg and Pollak, 1996). It refers to negotiations that occur between family members, such as who goes for work and who does housework. The theory assumes that each member will try to maximize their individual utility, and the more productive a partner, the more say and bargaining power he/she has.

Although the two theories proceed from different premises, they reach similar conclusions about the household labor division, i.e. the partners will take a complementary measure: the one who earns more spends more time in the labor market and the one who earns less spends more time in the family, or quits the job market completely if the employed partner's income is sufficient to support the family.

2. Literature Review

Married women's labor participation has been paid much attention by scholars in labor economics. In the western academic circle, Mincer (1962) initiated the research in this field. He used a set of cross-sectional data of U.S. cities and found that the higher a husband's salary, the more likely a wife was to quit the job market. Becker (1981) reached the same conclusion and proposed the theory of family economics (as mentioned above). However, Juhn & Murphy (1997) cast some doubt on a simple story of families substituting husband's and wife's time and earnings. By using the U.S. 1960 census and time-series data of March Current Population Surveys from 1960s to 1980s, they found that employment of low-wage men actually increased during the 1960s though earnings growth for their wives was greater in the 1960s than during the later decades. The results reconfirm earlier findings (Juhn et al. 1991; Juhn 1992) that falling demand for low-skilled workers played the major role in the decline of male employment rates in the 1970s and the 1980s. They also found that wives of high-wage men increased their employment rates significantly more than the wives of low-wage men. A possible reason is that wage growth of women in low-wage households slowed considerably while wage growth of women in high-wage households held steady during the 1970s and the 1980s. Nevertheless, due to change of times and sociocultural background of different countries, Asian researchers came up with conclusions contrary to Juhn & Murphy (1997). Soo (1995) from Korea, Masaru (2002) from Japan and Rana (2009) from Pakistan all found that married women's labor participation is significantly negatively associated with husband's earnings. It is possible that patriarchy still deeply influences the three countries and the "added worker affect" still occupies the mainstream, that is, a married woman is prone to enter the labor market when her husband is unemployed or his salary can't cover the family's need. Things are, again, different in some European countries. Jacob et al. (2014) found that in Germany, if the partner is also unemployed, an out-of-work individual is less likely to return to paid work than is a person with a partner who is employed. The researchers attributed this result to poor labor market conditions or previous joint decisions to take a break. Syse et al. (2014) also found that in Norway, work exits are most frequent among respondents with low household incomes, which may be explained by Norwegian relatively generous welfare benefits associated with work exits in later life.

Chinese scholars also made some researches concerning this issue, though relevant studies are not very affluent. Yao and Tan (2005) extracted data in 1988~1995 and 1995~2002 from the Urban Household Survey by National Bureau of Statistics to compare the female labor participation rate in different times. They found some unexpected results: the fastest decline of female labor participation didn't occur in the period when their husbands' income grew fastest. Furthermore, they also found that the women labor participation rate went down faster in low-income families compared with high-income families. A possible explanation is that women in low-income families also lack necessary skills or education to enter the labor market. A deficiency of the research is that the data only covered five provinces and one municipality, therefore the result may not represent the situation of the whole country. Tang and Chen (2007) did a questionnaire survey in Beijing and Jinan and studied the 142 valid questionnaires with a Tobit model. They used the same explanatory variables as Yao and Tan (2005), but achieved a different result: the regression analysis shew that the husband's monthly income was negatively correlated with the labor supply of urban married women, which was significant at the level of 1%. The small sample sizes and concentrated sample area may explain the inconsistent results. Guo (2012) used the cross-sectional data of CHNS in 2000, 2004 and 2006 and reached the conclusion that as time went by, the relative importance of the influence of husband's income on the labor supply of married women decreased gradually. However, He (2018) held an

opposite attitude. She further detailed the ‘spouse income’ into 3 parts: the proportion of the household income earned by the husband, husband’s income and the income gap between husband and wife. She found that the first two variables had a positive impact on married women’s labor participation while the last variable had a negative impact on married women’s labor participation. The author thought that the miniaturized family structure and the opening of the second-child policy make women bear heavier family care responsibilities. Therefore, some women are affected by the ‘substitution effect’ and rely more on their husbands’ income, while some women are affected by the “income effect” to support the family economy and take a job. Zhao (2019) also studied this topic based on premise researches and drew the conclusion that there was a significant ‘inverted U-shaped’ relationship between spouse income and female labor participation. In other words, women’s labor force participation rate will increase with the increase of spouse’s income. But when spouse’s income reaches a certain level, women’s labor force participation rate will decrease.

2.1 Contribution

As we can see, there is still not a consensus among scholars. Results of researches vary from country to country as to whether high wage or low wage, employment or unemployment of husbands will influence wives’ labor participation. Therefore, it is necessary to continue this research against the background of Chinese society with new data. I will focus on the influence of husband’s yearly labor income on married women’s labor participation. To give a clear picture, I will also study the influence of the wife’s yearly labor income on the married men’s labor participation to make a comparison between the results of different gender under the condition of holding other factors fixed. Plus, I will divide samples into subgroups based on the respondents’ labor income level, according to the per capita disposable income of residents in 2015 published by National Bureau of Statistics of China. In this way, I can compare the women and men labor participation among families of different income levels.

3. Model

3.1 Data Set

Data used are obtained from Chinese General Social Survey (CGSS), a continuous survey conducted yearly since 2003 to collect comprehensive data of Chinese society, communities, families, and individuals. To analyze the influence of spouse income on the counterpart’s labor participation rate, I focus on data in CGSS 2015 because the questionnaire has two sections related to occupation, i.e. the work module of the East Asia Social Survey (EASS) in part C of it, and the work module of the International Survey Cooperation Program (ISSP) in part D, which not only collected basic information such as salaries and job categories of interviewees and their spouses, but also contained questions regarding their self-consciousness and values with respect to the relationship between work and gender. Therefore, the 2015 data can provide us with more affluent background information for the research to be done. After data filtration, there are 3,576 married women and 3,246 married men to compile a cross-sectional data set of 6,822 observations. The distribution of gender is relatively balanced so that the results will be representative.

The dependent variable is the dummy variable ‘*labor participation*’ (*LP*) which takes the value *one* if the respondents worked for more than one hour in order to earn income in the previous week (including joining the army) and *zero* otherwise. The primary independent variable is ‘*the percentage of spouse yearly labor income accounting for the total family yearly income*’ (*per*) to test the influence of relative share of spouse income, which refers to He (2018). We control for individual characteristics, self-consciousness, family background and spouse’s characteristics.

One possible problem of the primary independent variable is the wide distribution of spouse’s yearly labor income and the family yearly income, ranging from 0 to 500,000 yuan and from 0 to 1,000,000 yuan, respectively, which may cause deviation of the result. There are 759 husbands whose yearly income equals zero, accounting for 21.22% in the samples of 3,576 married women, and 1,419

wives whose yearly income equals zero, accounting for 43.72% in the samples of 3,246 married men. However, these extreme values can't be arbitrarily deleted since spouse's zero income may be a contributing factor for the counterpart to enter the labor market. Also, family's zero income can't be interpreted as 'no income' since the family may have other financial resources, such as rental income. As a result, I choose the relative share of spouse income (*per*) to narrow the distribution. Plus, the model will be tested for robustness using alternative primary variable *gap* to measure the relative share of spouse's income.

$$gap = \frac{(\text{husband's income} - \text{wife's income})}{1000}$$

3.2 Results of Probit Model

The final specification explaining the influence of spouse's income on married women's labor participation takes the following form:

$$LP = \beta_0 + \beta_1 per + \beta_2 age + \beta_3 agesqu + \beta_4 edu + \beta_5 hright + \beta_6 health + \beta_7 account + \beta_8 happiness + \beta_9 value + \beta_{10} familyclass + \beta_{11} member + \beta_{12} familyeco + \beta_{13} son + \beta_{14} daughter + \beta_{15} saccount + \beta_{16} sedu$$

The hypotheses are listed in the following:

H1: Holding other factors fixed, the husband's labor income share of total family income has a negative effect on married women's labor participation.

H2: Holding other factors fixed, the wife's labor income share of total family income has a negative effect on married men's labor participation.

Since the dependent variable LP is a dummy variable, so we choose probit model to run the regression, which assumes that the random variable is normally distributed. The results for the above specification for the probit model are shown in the first and second column of Table 1.

Table 1. The results for the above specification for the probit model

	Probit		Logit			Probit		Logit	
VARIABLES	LP (Women)	LP (Men)	LP (Women)	LP (Men)	VARIABLES	LP (Women)	LP (Men)	LP (Women)	LP (Men)
per	-0.312***	0.021	-0.347***	0.023	value	-0.034***	-0.008	-0.034***	-0.007
	(-0.031)	(-0.038)	(-0.034)	(-0.040)		(-0.008)	(-0.008)	(-0.009)	(-0.008)
age	0.053***	0.020***	0.062***	0.016***	familyclass	-0.011**	-0.001	-0.011*	-0.001
	(-0.005)	(-0.005)	(-0.005)	(-0.006)		(-0.006)	(-0.006)	(-0.006)	(-0.006)
agesqu	-0.001***	-0.0004***	-0.001***	-0.0004***	member	-0.020***	0.007	-0.022***	0.007
						(-0.007)	(-0.007)	(-0.008)	(-0.007)
primary school	-0.104***	-0.003	-0.112***	0.001	familyeco	0.011	0.018	0.013	0.021
	(-0.03)	(-0.039)	(-0.033)	(-0.040)		(-0.015)	(-0.014)	(-0.015)	(-0.014)
junior high school	-0.075**	-0.047	-0.080**	-0.046	son	0.036**	0.031**	0.039**	0.031**
	(-0.034)	(-0.042)	(-0.036)	(-0.042)		(-0.015)	(-0.013)	(-0.016)	(-0.014)
vocational high school	-0.024	-0.007	-0.028	-0.009	daughter	0.057***	0.017	0.062***	0.017
	(-0.055)	(-0.057)	(-0.058)	(-0.058)		(-0.013)	(-0.012)	(-0.014)	(-0.012)
senior high school	-0.049	0.046	-0.058	0.047	(spouse)non-agricultural account	-0.089**	-0.102**	-0.088**	-0.112**
	(-0.044)	(-0.046)	(-0.047)	(-0.046)		(-0.039)	(-0.044)	(-0.041)	(-0.046)
adult higher education	0.171***	0.047	0.163**	0.043	(spouse)household account	-0.044	-0.024	-0.044	-0.031

	(-0.062)	(-0.058)	(-0.065)	(-0.058)		(-0.052)	(-0.046)	(-0.054)	-0.047
higher education	0.189***	0.090*	0.189***	0.086	(spouse)primary school	0.044	-0.067**	0.05	-0.067**
	(-0.054)	(-0.054)	(-0.056)	(-0.054)		(-0.040)	(-0.027)	(-0.043)	(-0.027)
postgraduate and above	0.280**	0.086	0.291**	0.075	(spouse)junior high school	-0.011	-0.090***	-0.007	-0.087***
	(-0.122)	(-0.127)	(-0.130)	(-0.129)		(-0.041)	(-0.031)	(-0.044)	(-0.032)
hright	0.056***	0.042**	0.057***	0.046**	(spouse)vocational high school	0.055	-0.063	0.063	-0.057
	(-0.019)	(-0.021)	(-0.020)	(-0.021)		(-0.057)	(-0.051)	(-0.060)	(-0.052)
health	0.037***	0.056***	0.037***	0.057***	(spouse)senior high school	0.028	-0.04	0.033	-0.038
	(-0.009)	(-0.009)	(-0.010)	(-0.009)		(-0.048)	(-0.041)	(-0.051)	(-0.041)
non-agricultural account	-0.043	-0.114***	-0.048	-0.113***	(spouse)adult higher education	0.183***	-0.002	0.191***	-0.002
	(-0.040)	(-0.042)	(-0.042)	(-0.043)		(-0.067)	(-0.062)	(-0.071)	(-0.062)
household account	-0.121**	-0.158***	-0.122**	-0.163***	(spouse)higher education	0.127**	0.036	0.133**	0.041
	(-0.051)	(-0.048)	(-0.052)	(-0.051)		(-0.058)	(-0.052)	(-0.06)	(-0.049)
happiness	-0.013	-0.002	-0.012	-0.003	(spouse)postgraduate and above	0.228*	0.02	0.253*	0.034
	(-0.012)	(-0.013)	(-0.013)	(-0.013)		(-0.123)	(-0.162)	(-0.135)	(-0.169)
Pseudo R ²	0.189	0.308	0.192	0.313	Pseudo R ²	0.189	0.308	0.192	0.313
Correctly classified	72.12%	82.44%	72.04%	82.62%	Correctly classified	72.12%	82.44%	72.04%	82.62%
Observations	3,576	3,246	3,576	3,246	Observations	3,576	3,246	3,576	3,246

* = Significant at 10% level

Robust Standard Errors in Parentheses

** = Significant at 5% level

*** = Significant at 1% level

The '*LP(Women)*' column shows the result of the influence of husband's income on married women's labor participation. Most of the coefficients are significant at 5% or more. The row of 'correctly classified' represents the probability that the model's prediction is correct. We can see that the model has a relatively high probability of accurate prediction.

The coefficient of primary variable *per* is significant at 1%, and the p-value is 0.000. The model predicts that a husband's share of household income increases by 1%, the wife's participation in the labor force declines by 31.2%, which is in line with the hypothesis H1 that the husband's relative income has a negative effect on married woman's labor participation. However, the result is contrary to He's (2018) finding. She found that during 2012 to 2013, the wife's labor participation increases as the husband's income increases. A possible explanation is that China fully liberalized its second-child policy in 2015, middle-class or rich families may be more willing to have a second child. Hence, married women may stay at home to look after the new born baby when their husbands with a decent pay work in the labor market. The '*LP(Men)*' column shows the result of the influence of wife's income on married men's labor participation. When holding other factors fixed, a wife's share of household income increases by 1%, the husband's participation in the labor force increases by 2.1%. Although the result is not significant, the coefficient is positive, contrary to the hypothesis H2 that the wife's relative income has a negative effect on married man's labor participation. This result is contrary to Jacob et al. (2014), these researchers found that the partner's income share has a negative

effect on the counterpart's labor participation, and this result applies to both women and men in Germany. It could be explained by the society's attitudes towards the social role of men and women. In China, people may think that the 'wife breadwinner/husband homemaker' mode runs counter to the expected roles of gender. While people in Germany hold a more open attitude towards the social division of labor between men and women.

There are also some interesting findings about control variables. Firstly, *age* has a curvilinear relationship with both married men's and women's labor participation, the turning point of men is 27.1 years old and women 26.5 years old. The age gap in labor force participation between men and women is not apparent. Secondly, as for *education*, low education level has a significant hindering effect on married women's labor participation rate, while high education level has a significant promoting effect on female labor. Among the educational level, the positive effect of 'postgraduate and above' is the most obvious. By contrast, though low educational level also has a negative effect on married men's labor participation, the coefficient is not significant. Only 'higher education' has a significant positive impact on married men's labor participation at 10% level. We may draw the conclusion that women need more educational qualifications to prove their ability to enter the labor market while the educational level required for men is not as high as women. Thirdly, there is a great difference between gender as for *value* and *familyclass*. Both variables test respondents' subjective recognition. Married women who agree more with the view that 'men put career first while women put family first' are less likely to enter the labor market. Also, married women who think of her family as an upper-class in society are less likely to enter the labor market than married women who think of her family as a lower-class in society. However, coefficients of both variables are not significant for men. This result could also be explained by the unconscious psychological impact of social stereotype on men and women. Married women are more dependent on her partner and the family, while married men may shoulder more responsibility to support the family, so their subjective mind may not influence their decision to work. Finally, when *the number of children* increases, women's participation in the labor force increases regardless of the sex of their children. This result runs counter to the conclusion of Rana (2009). The author found that the presence of male prime-age children lessens the demand for women's labor participation while the presence of female prime-age children increases the demand. He explained that male prime-age children can be seen as an additional worker in a family while female prime-age children may increase the family burden because of the dowry system. The different result in China may be explained by the phenomenon that in Chinese society, people think that men should possess properties such as houses and cars before he get married, so parents of boys may work harder to save money for their children.

3.3 Robustness Test

To test the robustness, the model is run under the logit model again, which assumes that the random variable follows a logical probability distribution. The results under the logit model is consistent with the results under the probit model. The values of the coefficients are slightly different, but the significance of each variable is consistent.

The model is tested for robustness using alternative primary variable *gap* to measure the relative share of spouse's income. Most of the coefficients are significant at 5% or more. The direction and strengths of coefficients is in line with the model of primary variable *per*. Besides, the model also has a relatively high probability of accurate prediction.

The coefficient of primary variable *gap* is significant at 1%, and the p-value is 0.000. The model predicts that the gap between a husband's labor income and a wife's income increase 1 yuan, the wife's labor participation declines by 0.004, which is in line with the hypothesis H1 that the husband's relative income has a negative effect on married woman's labor participation. Besides, contrary to the first model, the wife's relative income also has a significantly negative impact on the husband's labor participation. The model predicts that the gap between a wife's labor income and a husband's income increase 1 yuan, the husband's labor participation declines by 0.002. In this way, the result reconciles with Jacob et al. (2014). A possible explanation is that if a family's income is mainly

composed of husbands' and wives' labor income, and if a wife's labor income is relatively low but accounts for a bigger share of family income, then the couples can't sustain their life only with the wife's income, as a result, the husband will also go for work. However, when only compares the gap between the couple's income, a wide income gap decreasing the labor participation of the partner with a lower income applies to both gender. More researches are needed to study this seemingly contradictory conclusion.

3.4 Further Analysis

We can compare whether there is a difference in the labor force participation of wives at different income levels of their husbands. The couple's individual labor incomes are grouped according to 2015 data from China's National Bureau of Statistics. The primary variable is still *per*, result of regression can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. Regression Results

income range of spouse	LP(Women)	LP(Men)
≤ 5200	0.114**	0.083
(5200,12000]	-0.009	-0.298***
(12000,20000]	-0.17	0.041
(20000,30000]	-0.085**	-0.148***
(30000,55000]	-0.172***	-0.345
>55000	0.007	sample is too small

In the income range lower than 5,200 yuan, we can see that the share of 'the spouse's labor income divides family income' has a positive impact on both married women and men, though the coefficient of *per* is not significant for men. It can be inferred that only one breadwinner in a low-income family is not enough to cover the whole family's expense, so the counterpart also needs to work. An unexpected result is that when the income range of wife is between 5,200 and 12,000 yuan, the share of 'the spouse's labor income divides family income' has a significantly negative impact on married men. Since the income between 5,200 and 12,000 yuan belongs to lower-middle-income households, the result is against our assumption that married men will increase their labor participation in this situation. There may be other factors that influence their labor participation, for instance, the married men have retired or voluntarily decided to quit the job market to have a break. In the income range of 20,000 and 30,000 yuan, the share of 'the spouse's labor income divides family income' has a significantly positive impact on both married women and men, which is line with the assumption that the high share of the partner's income will decrease the counterpart's labor participation. Besides, as for the income range above 55,000 yuan, too small samples belonging to this subgroup may explain why the result is not significant.

4. Concluding Remarks

4.1 Conclusion

First of all, the main conclusion of this paper is that the husband's labor income share of total family income does have a significantly negative impact on married women's labor participation. Plus, the wife's labor income share of total family income has a positive impact on married men's labor participation, though the coefficient is not significant. To study further, in families of different income levels, couples in low-income families are more likely to coordinate with each other, that is, they are more likely to take part in the labor market together because one partner's low wage is hardly to cover the whole family's expense. In upper-middle-income families and upper-income families, the high income of one partner will have a negative impact on the counterpart's labor participation, which is consistent with our hypotheses H1 and H2. An unexpected result is that when a wife's

income level is between 5,200 and 1,2000 yuan, the husband's labor participation is significantly lowered. Although I put forward some possible explanations, further studies are still needed. After that, we use the alternative primary variable *gap* to test the model again. The result shows that the wider gap between husbands' and wives' labor income has a significantly negative impact on the labor participation of both gender. Therefore, we seem to come up with a contradictory conclusion about the influence of wife's income on married men's labor participation. I also give a possible explanation that if a family's income is mainly composed of husbands' and wives' labor income, and if a wife's labor income is relatively low but accounts for a bigger share of family income, then the couples can't sustain their life only with the wife's income, as a result, the husband will also go for work. But when only considering the income gap, both married men and women are less likely to join the labor market if his/her spouse has a higher income than him/her.

4.2 Policy Suggestions

From the study, we can see that women are still at a passive position in families and their labor participation is more easily influenced by their husbands' labor income. Behind this kind of phenomenon is inextricable factors of both individuals and the whole society.

First of all, sex segregation in the labor market is still very common. It is difficult for women to enter certain occupations that are considered as 'male jobs', such as manual labour, as well as jobs with high social status and professional emphasis. Furthermore, in the same industry, men usually have higher positions and salaries, while women are in less skilled, lower-paid positions and are less likely to get promotion. As a result, women usually earn less on average than men, and when families need someone to be the homemaker, women are more likely to quit the job market. During the study, the average yearly labor income of 3,576 married women is 16,020.25 yuan, where the average yearly labor income of 3,246 married men is 30,179.56 yuan. From the statistics, we can see that the income gap between men and women is wide. We need more strict policies to promote 'equal pay for equal work' in the job market. We also need to eliminate the invisible gender discrimination in the job market, providing women with more opportunities to work in different industries and more chances to get promotion in the fair competition, instead of restricting them in 'female jobs'. Besides, another interesting finding in the paper sheds some light on the need to change social stereotypes.

In the paper, I also found that married women who agree more with the view that 'men put career first while women put family first' are less likely to enter the labor market. Also, married women who think of her family as an upper-class in society are less likely to enter the labor market than married women who think of her family as a lower-class in society. However, coefficients of both variables are not significant for men. From this result, we can infer that women are more likely to be influenced by social opinions and are more likely to conform these principles and act what the society expect of them. Therefore, we need to change the society's attitude towards women and women themselves also need to be more independent. Gender equality is not a privilege for any man or woman, people of both gender should depend on themselves and realize their own values. The change of opinion is not easy to realize only with policies, we need more time and efforts to educate the public.

4.3 Limitations and Further Researches

There are some improvements can be carried out in this paper. First of all, though the sample size is enough, the labor income of 759 husbands and 1,419 wives is zero, which may cause the biased result. Juhn & Murphy (1997) used 'twelves weeks' hourly wages' to supplant respondents' zero income to achieve a less biased result, but CGSS 2015 lacks data of hourly wages. A possible solution is to use the average minimum wage of researched regions to replace the zero income sample. What's more, in models with dependent binary variables, unobserved heterogeneity is a problem because coefficients may be affected by omitted variables even when they are unrelated to the independent variables in the model. (Mood 2010; Auspurg and Hinz 2011) Therefore, effects in different groups (married men and women) may be biased by different marginal distributions. We can use the Chi²

test to test the significance of group differences, but the problem can't be completely fixed. Finally, this paper only focuses on the cross-sectional data of one year and fails to show the tendency of married women's labor participation over a period of time. More researches can be carried out to investigate the long-term effect of spouse's income on married women's labor participation based on panel data or questionnaires that are repeatedly handed out in different years to see whether there is difference as the time goes by.

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