



families commission
kōmihana ā **whānau**

**TOWARDS A STATISTICAL TYPOLOGY OF NEW ZEALAND
HOUSEHOLDS AND FAMILIES: THE EFFICACY OF THE
FAMILY LIFE CYCLE MODEL AND ALTERNATIVES**

Charles Crothers and Fiona McCormack
School of Social Sciences
Auckland University of Technology

DECEMBER 2006
BLUE SKIES REPORT NO 15/06

The Families Commission was established under the Families Commission Act 2003 and commenced operations on 1 July 2004. Under the Crown Entities Act 2004, the Commission is designated as an autonomous Crown entity.

A key role of the Families Commission is to promote research on issues that will give the Commission and the public a better understanding of family life. The Blue Skies Fund provides funding for dynamic new work that examines contemporary and emerging family issues. The fund is intended for new research, emergent ideas and 'ideas papers' which have the potential to lead to new research.

For more information on the Blue Skies Fund, visit the Families Commission website www.nzfamilies.org.nz

Blue Skies research reports, which result from studies funded under the Families Commission's Blue Skies Fund, are produced by independent researchers. The content of the reports and the opinions expressed by the author/s should not be assumed to reflect the views, opinions or policies of the Families Commission.

This report is copyright to the Families Commission. The copyright-protected material may be reproduced free of charge for non-commercial personal use without requiring specific permission. This is subject to the material being reproduced and attributed accurately and not being used in a misleading context. Requests and enquiries concerning the reproduction of information for any purpose other than personal use requires the permission of the Families Commission.

The Commission can be contacted at:
Public Trust Building
Level 5, 117-125 Lambton Quay
PO Box 2839
Wellington

Telephone: 04 917 7040
Email: enquiries@nzfamilies.org.nz
www.nzfamilies.org.nz

➤ Giving New Zealand families a voice *Te reo o te whānau*

ISBN 0-478-29273-2

**TOWARDS A STATISTICAL TYPOLOGY OF
NEW ZEALAND HOUSEHOLDS AND FAMILIES:
THE EFFICACY OF THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE
MODEL AND ALTERNATIVES**

**Charles Crothers and Fiona McCormack
School of Social Sciences
Auckland University of Technology**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank several useful commentators on the project, especially the reviewers.

Note to readers

The analytical work built into this report incorporates much technical statistical analysis. However, to increase the reader-friendliness of the presentation, the main text is written in as jargon-free a style as possible with more technical material confined to appendices, each relating to a particular section of the report. Even this material is a restricted 'sampling' of the wider range of tables drawn on.

CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	5
1 INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE	6
2 STRUCTURE OF ARGUMENT	7
3 POPULATIONS AND PROJECTIONS	8
4 STATISTICS NZ DEFINITIONS OF FAMILY AND HOUSEHOLD	10
4.1 Family and household	10
4.2 In sum: Statistics NZ classification criteria in sequence	13
4.3 'Table Builder' categories	14
4.4 Economic family/core economic unit	14
4.5 In sum	15
5 PROBLEMS WITH DEFINITIONS OF FAMILY, HOUSEHOLD AND NATIONAL CENSUSES	16
5.1 Problems with family analysis using national censuses and surveys	16
5.2 Problems with definitions of family and household	16
6 SUBJECTIVE LIFESTYLE CONCEPTS OF FAMILY/HOUSEHOLD	18
7 INTRODUCTION TO FAMILY LIFE CYCLE CONCEPTS	19
7.1 Introduction	19
7.2 New Zealand studies of family types	20
7.3 Concepts of life cycles in general	21
7.4 Historical development of the family life cycle concept	22
7.5 Methodological and ethical critiques of the classical family life cycle model	22
7.6 Subsequent evolution of the family life cycle concept and current applications	23
7.7 Differences in the family life cycle amongst different social groupings	24
7.8 Further critique of the family life cycle concept	24
7.9 In sum	26
8 APPLICATIONS OF THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE CONCEPT IN VARIOUS DOMAINS	27
9 ALTERNATIVES TO THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE CONCEPT	28
9.1 Life course	28
9.2 Family development theory	28
9.3 Feminist theory and 'new action theory'	29
9.4 In sum	29
10 METHODOLOGY: SECONDARY ANALYSES	30
11 RELATIONSHIPS WITHIN HOUSEHOLDS	31
12 CHARACTERISTICS OF HOUSEHOLDS	33
12.1 Main characteristics of households	33
12.2 Household internal structures (CEU/CEU plus)	35
12.3 Lives with a partner (or not)	37
12.4 Number of children	39
12.5 Age of wife	39
12.6 Characteristics of households by family life cycle stage	40

13	COMPARISONS OF EFFECTS ON SELECTED DEPENDENT VARIABLES OF ALTERNATIVE CATEGORISATIONS OF HOUSEHOLD TYPE	42
14	CONCLUSIONS: IS THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE A USEFUL ANALYTICAL TOOL?	45
15	REFERENCES	46
	APPENDIX ONE: APPENDIX TO CHAPTER 8: SUMMARY OF SOME RELEVANT STUDIES	50
	APPENDIX TWO: METHODOLOGICAL APPENDICES	53
	APPENDIX THREE: FULL VERSIONS OF CHAPTER 11 TABLES	56
	APPENDIX FOUR: TABLES LINKED TO CHAPTER 12	62

ABSTRACT

Despite the family being the nexus of most people's social, economic, political and cultural lives, there is very little systematic social research material concerning its structure and variability in structure. In charting an analytical path through this difficult territory, the Statistics New Zealand (Statistics NZ) classifications are of considerable utility. However, these typologies have been developed from a formal classificatory stance and have not been empirically tested, nor their fit with empirical consequences researched. Alternative classifications may better capture significant empirical variation, and this is the task of this report.

The New Zealand and international literatures are perused in order to bring to bear relevant typological efforts. In particular, a substantial review on the literature on family life cycle is provided.

The Ministry of Social Development Standard of Living (MSD SOL) 2000 data-set is then used to develop a systematic portrait of the households within which New Zealanders live. This large data-set (n=5,000 households) provides much analytical purchase on the structural dimensions of New Zealand households/families. Information from this source includes demographic information on each of the members of the household and information on their relationship within the household, including their membership (within the household) of a 'core economic family'.

Standard conceptual frameworks derived from the sociology of the family are deployed to ascertain the extent to which they seem to be analytically advantageous. It was found that, although the standard classifications are useful, a more fine-tuned family life cycle typology was somewhat more effective, at least for the main dependent variables used in this study.

There are differences between ethnic groups, and other social groupings, in terms of family/household forms which broadly follow a pattern of more 'orthodox' forms being predominant in more 'established' social categories, such as rural, Pākehā and higher socio-economic status.

1 INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE

Classifications are crucial components of any statistical or research study. Often these are simple: such as the categorising of people's gender as either 'male' or 'female'. However, other classifications are more complex (often signified by use of the term 'typology') and require pulling information together that relates to different aspects of the matter being classified. Any classification can be assessed in several ways: clarity, ease of use (practicability) and being theoretically-based are major criteria. To carry out such an assessment, review of theory and/or appropriate research is necessary.

Although there are well-established formal classifications of types of household and family, especially as used by Statistics NZ, the extent to which these 'perform' by providing effective classifications in relation to the realities of New Zealand households/families has not been empirically tested, and nor have alternative empirically-based typologies been developed against which the performance of the more formal classifications might be compared. The end result of this study is a review of different empirical typologies that could be deployed across other studies. In addition, this exercise ought to have clear and obvious implications for policy, as it should help clarify the types of household which are more in need of policy concern and intervention.

Despite the family being the nexus of almost all people's social, economic, political and cultural lives there is very little systematic social research material concerning its structure and variability. Most research tends to treat family as context: a site where other things happen. There are some recent New Zealand accounts, including the families 'reference report' written to interpret the results of the 2001 Census (Statistics NZ 2002) and the Ministry of Social Development (MSD) report for the Families Commission (MSD 2004) but these are broadly descriptive. The main exception is the more recently released demographic account of *Raising Children in New Zealand: Patterns of family formation and change in New Zealand* (Dharmalingam, Pool, Sceats and Mackay 2004) based on a 1995 survey, although its concerns tend to be quite demographic.

Families/households can be classified in terms of either (1) their collective attributes and/or (2) the aggregate characteristics of their members. Most classifications are built on a summation of the relationships amongst their members. The theoretical challenge which is raised by any typology construction exercise is to differentiate between different classifications in terms of appropriate output or criterion variables: what should the classification most clearly try to show differences amongst? The literature review is in large part concerned to identify appropriate discriminatory variables which indicate major differences amongst families, and then to articulate the rationales behind each. The empirical research is in large part concerned to then see whether such typologies 'work', with the data provided.

The research objective of this study is to use appropriate data to develop an empirical typology which will then be tested out in relation to 'attributes' of the household: eg household assets and amenities. In particular, data are used from the 2000 MSD's SOL survey on members of the household and information on their relationship within the household, including their membership (or not) of a 'core economic family'. The literature review and data analysis then provide a platform from which to review and critique pertinent literature and statistical agency practices.

2 STRUCTURE OF ARGUMENT

A range of (mainly structural as opposed to aggregate) characteristics of families/households and their components has been used in providing formal classifications of family/household types: especially marital status, sexual orientation, number of children, kin/non-kin relationships (and marital and non-marital relationships), length of marriage, etc. Most such classifications of families/households are based on the relationships within households, and this is supplemented with descriptive analyses of characteristics of units – such as families – within households. One difficulty with such classifications is that the distributions are heavily skewed: with the majority falling into a few broad types and with tiny proportions included in the remaining classificatory range. (For example, these days only relatively few households are ‘large’.)

The characteristics of the more standardised types of household/family are well known (in several Statistics NZ publications for example) and so further description of these is not pursued, apart from orientating sections which provide a descriptive account of the types of family/households and of the definitions and classifications used in official statistics.

Other non-official classifications have delved more into the internal structure of families/households. In particular, two are explored in this report. First, the concepts of the ‘core’ and the ‘peripheral’ parts of a household are examined. Second, ‘family life cycle’ has been a useful but not completely popular variable in providing a typology of families and in better explaining some phenomena than alternative variables, and this typology is also examined.

In each case, conceptions of types of family must be related to ‘competing’ conceptualisations. Also it is important to consider the ‘domains’ over which the variables are likely to cast an influence (or even cause phenomena): what are we trying to ‘explain’ using the typology? Concepts usually compete with alternatives, and the family life cycle concept especially competes against that of the ages of core members of family (especially the wife/female partner) and duration of the marriage (relationship). In the empirical portion of this study a family life cycle (FLC in tables and figures) classification has been empirically tested against the more ‘orthodox’ conceptions of whether (or not) there is a partnership pair in the household, number of children (ie size of family) and age of female partner. A limited but wide range of dependent variables is developed against which to test family-related classifications – these include socio-demographic characteristics, resource availability and subjective quality of life.

Although family life cycle stages are a relatively straightforward model, with growing social divergences they are increasingly less able to contain the variation amongst families. As the review below recounts, attempts have been made to continue to capture the variation with increasingly complex typologies, but these have been somewhat unsuccessful. In particular, a ‘life course’ (LC) perspective in which each variable can take its own trajectory has developed to replace (or supplement) the family life cycle. However, this approach requires appropriate data and places major burdens on data analysis. It was not possible to pursue this approach in this project, through lack of appropriate data.

It was found that, while other classifications are also useful, the family life cycle categorisation provided a particularly useful framework for understanding variation in terms of some appropriate phenomena. However, although the family life cycle conception was found to be broadly useful, more fine-tuned research was required into the exact definition of its categories.

An alternative approach examining the household roster of members was also deployed. Although a wide set of separable factors was developed, most of these represented variations which were not numerically important. A discriminant analysis of the household register information showed that the standard family life cycle classification sufficed to ‘correctly classify’ most households. However, this inductive approach seemed too unstable a base for building a typology.

3 POPULATIONS AND PROJECTIONS

To provide a broad empirical foundation for the remainder of this report the basic types of New Zealand households are reported in Table 1 and families in Table 2. (For definitions see following section.) It is important that any typology which is developed also be pertinent in the future, so projections are also looked at to alert the reader to some likely trends.

Table 1 Households in New Zealand

Year	Family	Other multi-person	One-person	Total
1991	913,000	65,100	274,400	1,252,600
1996	979,900	62,200	298,100	1,340,200
2001	1,019,000	88,200	333,400	1,440,600
1991	72.9%	5.2%	21.9%	100%
1996	73.1%	4.6%	24.9%	100%
2001	70.7%	6.1%	23.1%	100%
Change 2001/1991	11.6%	35.5%	21.5%	15%

Source: Statistics NZ: percentaged by this study

Although families remain the dominant type of household, and although they are increasing in absolute numbers, their relative proportion is falling and their growth rate is eclipsed by both other multi-person (still proportionally minor) and also one-person households (which now constitute nearly one-quarter of households).

One-person households are projected to be the fastest growing household type, increasing by 46 percent between 2001 and 2021. This is a result of the increasing number of people at older ages. (Of all people in one-person households, 64 percent are projected to be 55 years and over in 2021.) Family households are projected to increase by 23 percent between 2001 and 2021. Other multi-person households are projected to increase by 15 percent between 2001 and 2021. People aged between 18-28 years are expected to continue to account for about half of all people in other multi-person households.

The New Zealand Census recognises three kinds of relationships among families living in a single household:

- > couple with children (numbers remain static and are projected to decrease after 2006)
- > couple-only (growing fast and projected to increase approximately 50 percent between 2001 and 2021)
- > one parent with children (also growing and projected to increase by approximately 28 percent from 2001 to 2021).

Table 2 Families

Year	Couple	Couple with children	One-parent: male-headed	One-parent: female-headed	One-parent: total	Total
1991	329,500	442,000	29,700	134,000	163,600	935,100
1996	385,700	452,000	30,900	148,100	179,000	1,016,700
2001	407,400	445,800	37,000	161,500	198,400	1,051,700
1991	35.2%	47.3%	3.2%	1.4%	17.5%	100%
1996	37.9%	44.5%	3.0%	14.6%	17.6%	100%
2001	38.7%	42.4%	3.5%	15.4%	18.8%	100%
Change 2001/1991	23.6%	.9%	24.6%	20.5%	21.3%	12.5%

Source: Statistics NZ: percentaged by this study

According to the projections of Statistics NZ, the number of families in New Zealand will increase by 24 percent between June 2001 and 2021. Most of the growth in families will be in 'couple without children' families which are projected to overtake two-parent families to become the most common family type by 2006 (Statistics NZ 2006). Additionally, one-person households are projected to increase by 46 percent between 2001 and 2021. Although substantial changes are expected, these are considered to extrapolate recent trends.

For details and progressively updated information see:
www.stats.govt.nz/products-and-services/info-releases/subnat-family-hh-proj.htm

In summary, in this section some descriptive information on changing numbers and proportions of the main types of households and families has been given in order to provide a context for the remainder of the report.

4 STATISTICS NZ DEFINITIONS OF FAMILY AND HOUSEHOLD

As much social research relies on quantitative data collected by central statistical organisations, researchers often have no choice but to use the definitional criteria adopted by such bodies. It is therefore necessary to come to grips with their definitions, which are described in this section and critiqued in the following section. The classifications developed by agencies are most elaborated in relation to census data, but are also applicable in other data contexts such as surveys. In the census (and some surveys where a ‘household roster’ is used), respondents are not asked to classify their living situation, but instead the relationships of each member to the reference person are asked about. However, in some survey contexts, respondents are asked to self-classify their household situation.

4.1 Family and household

There are major complexities surrounding the terms ‘household’ and ‘family’ (discussed further below). The most widely accepted definitions of the various units include:

- > *The Family*: Basic reproductive unit
- > *Kinship*: Network of families, including single persons related to a family
- > *Households*: May be larger or smaller than families, and are normally defined by the criterion of co-residence or commensality (United Nations 1980).

The Statistics NZ framework, *Standard Terms for Measures of Dwellings, Households and Families* (Statistics NZ n.d.), provides the following sequence (arranged top-down). For more information see Standards and Classifications on the Statistics NZ website:

www.stats.govt.nz/domino/external/omni/omni.nsf/wwwglsry?openview&count=500

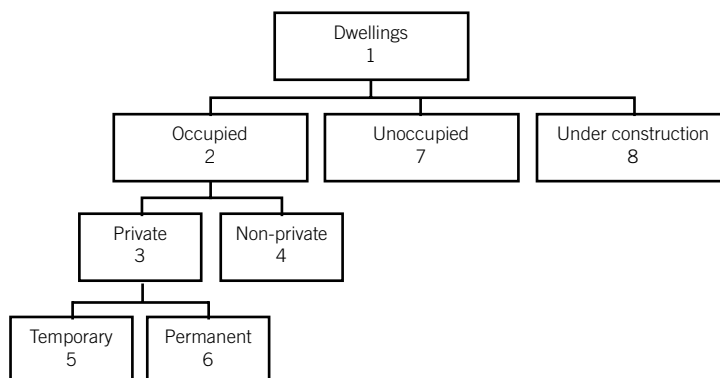
International classifications in this area seem relatively underdeveloped, and therefore provide little guidance. Consequently, the remainder of this section draws substantially on Statistics NZ material.

4.1.1 Dwellings

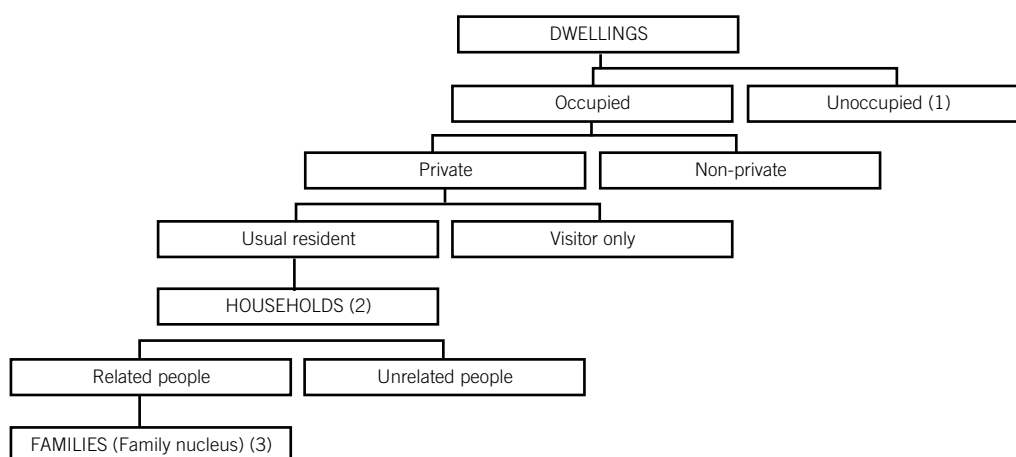
Dwellings provide the frame within which households and families are set (see Table 3).

A dwelling is defined as a structure, part of a structure or group of structures that is used, or intended to be used, as a place where people reside. It includes houses, flats, groups or blocks of flats and many other types. A dwelling may be permanent or temporary and may function as private or non-private. It may also be empty or under construction – although less information is obtained from such dwellings. Dwelling structures include ‘single’ or ‘multiple’, but in multiple blocks, each unit is a dwelling.

Table 3 Overview of definitions



Note: Numbers in the schema relate to the eight standard terms and definitions for dwellings.



4.1.2 Households and household composition

Definitions are provided, followed by classifications.

In census statistics, a household is one person who usually resides alone, or two or more people who usually reside together and share facilities (such as eating facilities, cooking facilities, bathroom and toilet facilities, and a living area) in a private dwelling.

In census statistics, a family is a couple, with or without children, or one parent and their children, usually living together in a household. The children do not have partners or children of their own living in the same household. Related people, such as siblings, who are not in a couple or parent-child relationship, are therefore excluded from this definition.

Classifications for each expand on the definitions. Each private occupied dwelling is classified by its household composition, according to the relationships between the people who usually reside together (for example, 'Couple only and other person(s), some or all related'). Non-private dwellings provide communal or transitory types of accommodation, whereas private dwellings are where residents live and are not available for public use.

'Household composition (HC)' is a hierarchical classification with three levels. Level one of the HC classification has six categories, level two has 19 categories while level three contains 31 categories. The level one categories are:

- 1 One-family household (with or without other people)
- 2 Two-family household (with or without other people)
- 3 Three-or-more-family household (with or without other people)
- 4 Other multi-person household
- 5 One-person household
- 6 Household composition unidentifiable.

Refer to *Household Composition Statistical Standard*. Retrieved from www2.stats.govt.nz/domino/external/web/carsweb.nsf/55d63ae38ba3a25e4c2567e6007f6686/9afad6dce8204944cc256cfd0073283c?OpenDocument

4.1.3 Family and family type

Families comprise family nuclei made up of couples, parents and children who usually reside together (for example, 'One parent with children'). The children do not have partners or children of their own living in the same household. See *Statistical Standard for Family Type* (Statistics NZ 1999). Retrieved from www.stats.govt.nz/statistical-methods/statistical-standards/family-type/default.htm. Family type is a derived variable that classifies family nuclei according to the presence or absence of couples, parents and children, based on the concept of people who have usual residence together. The criterion used to place a family nucleus into the classification is the type(s) of relationships between the people in the family nucleus. Family type is a flat classification with three categories:

- 1 Couple without children
- 2 Couple with child(ren)
- 3 One parent with child(ren).

4.1.4 Relationship to reference person and living arrangements

'Relationship to reference person' and 'living arrangements' are overlapping variables that collect and display the familial and non-familial relationships of a person to all the other people with whom they usually reside. Living arrangements is a hierarchical classification with three levels. At level one, usual residence with close familial relatives (living with spouse/partner, child and parent) is the criterion for classification. This is because spouse/partner, parent, and child living arrangements are needed to identify different types of households and families. All other living arrangements are aggregated at level one to three broad categories: other relative; non-relative; and guest/visitor/inmate/patient/resident.

At level two of the classification, all familial relationships are listed, including close familial relationships (spouse, child, parent) and other familial relationships (sibling, grandparent, aunt/uncle, cousin). Of the non-familial relationships, only living with 'flatmate' is given at level two. This is because 'flatmate' is a frequent response to the living arrangements question. It helps identify, for example, 'households of unrelated people'. All other non-familial relationships are aggregated at level two under 'other non-relative'.

Level three of the classification classifies familial relationships in greater detail: for example, by categories that provide generational information such as 'great' (eg great-grandparent) categories. Non-familial relationships are given in full detail at level three.

Living arrangements is a hierarchical classification with three levels. Level one has 11 categories, level two has 22 categories and level three contains 37 categories. The level one categories are:

- 01 Live alone
- 02 Spouse/partner
- 03 Child (natural, step, adopted, foster)
- 04 Parent (natural, step, adopted, foster)
- 05 Other relative
- 06 Non-relative
- 07 Guest/visitor/inmate/patient/resident
- 44 Don't know
- 55 Refused to answer
- 77 Response unidentifiable
- 88 Response outside scope
- 99 Not stated

Living arrangements was not available for output in the 2001 Census. See *Statistical Standard for Living Arrangements* (Statistics NZ 1999). Retrieved from www.stats.govt.nz/statistical-methods/classifications/living-arrangements-nz-standard-class.htm

The term 'child' is ambiguous as it refers both to someone in relation to their mother and/or father and also as a person who is young. There is an overlap category of descendants still living with their parents although they are no longer young. Statistics NZ classifications therefore distinguish between a 'dependent child' – a 'child in a family nucleus' who is aged less than 18 years and who is not employed full-time, and an 'adult child' – a 'child in a family nucleus' who is aged less than 18 years and is employed full-time, or a 'child in a family nucleus' who is aged 18 years and over.

In addition, there is the wider question of at what age people should be regarded as young or as independently responsible for their own lives. There are clear legal implications involved in answering this as it relates to ages of 'consent' and the possibilities of legal drinking, driving and so on. While the reader needs to bear this point in mind, it is not further explored in this report.

4.1.5 Other statistical issues

Other concepts relate more to the specifics of particular timings and locations (see *Statistical Standard for Usual Residence* (Statistics NZ 1999). Retrieved from www.stats.govt.nz/statistical-methods/statistical-standards/usual-residence/default.htm . 'Usual residence' (the address of the dwelling where a person considers himself or herself to usually reside) is a key variable for determining the geographic characteristics of the population, and also relates to household/family. 'Residents away' indicates that occupants of a dwelling are known to be temporarily away. A 'visitor' is a person who usually lives elsewhere than the household they are enumerated in on census night. When it comes to statistical reporting the usual residence is usually taken as the meshblock, 'census area unit' or higher spatial aggregation within which the 'usual address' falls.

Note that the *Statistical Standard for Usual Residence* (Statistics NZ 1999) states that usual residence is the address of the dwelling where a person self-identifies that they usually live, except in the specific cases listed below:

- 1 People who board at another residence to attend primary or secondary school, and return to their parent's(s') or guardian's(s') home for the holidays, usually reside at the address of their parent(s) or guardian(s). Post-secondary students usually reside at the address where they live while studying.
- 2 Children in joint custody usually reside at the place where they spend more nights, or if they spend equal amounts of time at each residence, they usually reside at the place where they are at the time of the survey.
- 3 People who are in rest homes, hospitals, prisons or other institutions, usually reside where they consider themselves to live, and this may include the institution.
- 4 A person whose home is on any ship, boat or vessel permanently located in any harbour shall be deemed to usually reside at the wharf or landing place (or main wharf or landing place) of the harbour.
- 5 A person from another country who has lived, or intends to live, in New Zealand for 12 months or more usually resides at his or her address in New Zealand (as in external migration).
- 6 People of no fixed abode have no usual residence.
- 7 People who spend equal amounts of time residing at different addresses, and cannot decide which address is their usual residence, usually reside at the address they were surveyed at.
- 8 If none of the above guidelines apply, the person usually resides at the address he or she was surveyed at.

4.2 In sum: Statistics NZ classification criteria in sequence

Clearly, the mapping out of characteristics of households/families can be complex.

In practice, the whole framework can be illustrated by reporting the decisions for classifying: which takes the following sequence.

- > The criterion used to place a household into level one of the classification is the number of family nuclei present, or if no family nuclei are present, then the number of people present.
- > At level two of the classification, one-family households are classified according to family type, and whether there are other people present. For two-family households in which both families contain children, the criterion is the number of parents in each family. Two-family households that contain at least one 'couple-only' family are not classified to the same level of detail as two-family households in which both families contain children. At level three of the classification the criterion for classifying one-family households is whether the other people present are related or unrelated to the family nucleus. In two-family households, the criterion for classification at level three is whether the families are related or unrelated.
- > For multi-person households with no family nuclei present, the criterion used at levels two and three of the classification is whether usually resident people are related, unrelated, or a mixture of both.

4.3 'Table Builder' categories

In addition to the more standard variables, 'table builder' (the Statistics NZ facility for downloading census information for the 2001 Census) makes available several useful additional ones (at the three levels of family, household and dwelling) including:

- > Age of father/mother/parent
- > Age of youngest dependent child
- > Child dependency status (CDS) and family type by CDS
- > Combined parental income/sole-parent income
- > Ethnic group of father/mother/parent
- > Number of dependent children in family/household
- > Sources (and total) family income
- > Work/labour force status of father/mother/parent
- > Number of usual residents (household)
- > Census number and usual number of residents and absentees (dwelling).

There are a considerable number of further variables that are available or derived. One example is 'Number of children' which is a derived variable that identifies the number of children in a family nucleus. It can be applied to (embedded or nested) in the following standard classifications: Family type and Household composition. Number of children is a hierarchical classification with two levels. Level one has five categories while level two has 63 categories. The level one categories are:

- 1 One child
- 2 Two children
- 3 Three children
- 4 Four or more children
- 9 Number of children unknown.

For social researchers it is interesting to note the very considerable compaction of the level one categories, so that it might be difficult – for example – to explore any differences between four- and five-children families because they are included within the same category.

4.4 Economic family/core economic unit (CEU)

Another line of classification seeks to more formally separate the members of a family/household into a 'core' and then others attached to that core. This approach builds on the observation that many families/households are constructed in these terms: either they are a core by themselves or have 'attachments' added to a core.

4.4.1 Statistics NZ definition and classification

An 'economic family' is defined as a person who is financially independent or a group of persons who usually reside together and who are financially interdependent according to current social norms. Economic family is a hierarchical classification with two levels. Level one contains five categories and level two contains eight categories. The criterion used to place an economic family into the first level of the classification is the type of economic family, that is, whether or not a couple is present, and whether or not dependants are present. The criterion used to place an economic family into the second level of the classification is the type or types of dependants present: children, adults or both.

4.4.2 Classification sequence

Again, a path may better illuminate a complex classification. If a person's living arrangements category is '01 live alone', then that person is put into category one 'one-person economic family'. In a multi-person household, all couples, people in a parent role and their children need to be identified. If children are present, age, labour force status and hours worked in employment are used to determine whether a child is a dependent child or an adult child. Adult children and other financially independent people form separate (one-person) economic families and are put in the first category of the classification. In multi-person households that do not contain any couples or dependants, each person forms a separate economic family.

4.4.3 History of usage

In 1996, information about economic families was made available for the first time from the census. The information available on economic families was based around the concept of economic interdependence. This classification is designed to identify the social groups required for social welfare

and other government policy. However, Colquhoun, Keiser and Murphy, Statistics NZ (Personal communication, 2 May 2006) report that “No information on ‘extended families’ or ‘economic families’ was collected prior to the 1996 Census. The economic family data collected and output in 1996 has not been used a great deal. In the preliminary views document, it was recommended that economic and extended families not be output in 2001. There was little user response to this recommendation. Economic families will not be output for the 2006 Census.”

A similar line of classification has been in terms of ‘core families’. Conceptually, an EFU (economic family unit) or a core economic unit (CEU) is a group of people who usually reside together and are financially interdependent (MSD 2002b). They have deployed this concept in their analyses of ‘standard of living’ surveys.

The EFU measure uses economic families as the base unit of analysis. Conceptually, an economic family is a group of co-resident people whose financial affairs are common or have been merged to the extent that the people concerned are substantially interdependent. An individual not part of such a group is considered to constitute an economic family in its minimal form. An EFU is operationally defined as a:

- > financially independent single adult: not in a de jure or de facto marriage, and not caring for dependent children
- > sole-parent family: financially independent single adult (not in a de jure or de facto marriage), and caring for one or more dependent children
- > couple: couple (in a de jure or de facto marriage) not caring for dependent children
- > two-parent family: couple (in a de jure or de facto marriage) caring for one or more dependent children.

Often, for purposes of analysis, a ‘dependent child’ is defined as a child less than 18 years of age with no partner or child of their own. (Note the difference from the Statistics NZ definition above.) A son or daughter aged 18 years or older is considered as a separate EFU; similarly a child younger than 18 with a partner or child of their own is counted as a separate EFU. Commonly, young adults aged 16 to 17 years are also considered financially independent if they are receiving a benefit in their own right, or are working for 30 hours or more per week.

Thus, many households contain multiple EFUs. For instance, a household with four unrelated single people would constitute four EFUs. A couple with a resident adult child would constitute two EFUs. If this same household contained a grandparent, there would be three EFUs and if a boarder was added to the equation there would be four EFUs. And so on (MSD 2002b).

In Canada, for the purposes of statistics, all persons who are members of a census family are also members of an economic family. Examples of the broader concept of economic family include the following: two co-resident census families who are related to one another are considered one economic family and two co-resident siblings who are not members of a census family are considered an economic family (Statistics Canada 2006).

It is possible that further research into classifications used overseas might be helpful.

The MSD analytical report comments on the importance of CEU as follows: “CEU was chosen as the unit of analysis for two reasons. Firstly, it reflects the operational definition of the unit of entitlement used by the New Zealand Government for income support and assistance programmes. Secondly, when measuring living standards it is difficult to disentangle the living standard of each partner in a couple, given that their economic and social arrangements are usually intertwined. It is more practical, therefore, to regard them as a single economic unit with a shared standard of living. For the purposes of this research, the measure of living standards developed for a CEU is assumed to apply equally to its constituent members.” However, further research into intra-household inequality is clearly called for.

4.5 In sum

In this section the usual definitions and then classifications of the major types of households and families have been presented. Attention has been drawn to a range of further variables and classifications which are often available and which provide other angles on aspects of families/ households. Finally, use of a ‘core/periphery’ distinction to differentiate within households/families was examined. Several critical classificatory issues have been identified in the course of these presentations – including perceptions of age of ‘majority’ and notions of dependency. Although there must be considerable attention to these issues in jurisdictions outside New Zealand, a brief search revealed little available material.

5 PROBLEMS WITH DEFINITIONS OF FAMILY, HOUSEHOLD AND NATIONAL CENSUSES

Given their considerable reliance on 'official statistics' social researchers have often made their views about their limitations explicit.

5.1 Problems with family analysis using national censuses and surveys

One major issue that needs to be very clearly signalled is that the posited relationship between families and households held in official statistics is the reverse of that suggested by family researchers.

Families are difficult to research as this is a relationship amongst a group of people (usually based on strong kinship ties) and who may be living (either in the short term or longer term) amongst a set of households (which then become the 'footholds' of the 'overarching' families): sometimes such multi-located families are referred to as 'extended families' although this is but one type. Little is known about the relationships within these wider families (there is a little information on exchange of children, remittances, wealth/property and other resources, etc). Rather, it is more the constituent household units within the networks of families which are amenable to research, although this empirical focus (without considering the wider 'family' context) brings its own limitations. One implication is that researchers seldom are able to study families as most data that are collected tend to concern the (physical) households in which they are embedded. Given that Māori and Pasifika extended families ('whanau') are of this form, the issue of the relationship between family and household has even more pertinence in New Zealand.

Paradoxically, households exist inside families, but also contain them. Households may provide the social framework for component parts of several different families (although the typical situation is that a single household corresponds to a family). It is the latter view which pertains amongst official statisticians.

5.2 Problems with definitions of family and household

Definitional problems occur both in sociological research (eg using surveys) and in national censuses. Although demographers and other social researchers have been forced to accept the official definitions because they are used in the collection and tabulation of statistical data which form the basis of their work, Höhn and Mackensen (1989) argue that it is necessary to distinguish between the concepts themselves and the indicators researchers are forced to use in the absence of better data.

Problems associated with national censuses are related to:

- > a lack of retrospective questions
- > the fact that most large-scale surveys are household-based
- > the divergence in international definitions of family and household.

For instance, Höhn and Mackensen (1989) argue that as most large-scale surveys are household-based very little is known about non-resident family members. This has seriously impeded understanding of family variation and change (eg the study of intergenerational relationships) (Seltzer et al 2005). Further, the study of single parents is hindered by the focus on households. Seltzer et al point out that single parents are unique as their work and family negotiations almost by definition cross household boundaries. They have to negotiate assistance from non-resident parents and extended kin or friends, either those who co-reside or those who live elsewhere. Tracking these complicated time and money flows to and from single-parent households is exceedingly difficult to do in data collections that use household-based sampling frames. To overcome this, the inclusion of retrospective questions in official statistical enquiries would allow for the production of appropriate data which could be then used for the analysis of many different aspects of the life course and of different types of family. Finally, they point out that cross-cultural comparisons of family and household have been encumbered by the highly divergent definitions used internationally (Höhn and Mackensen 1989).

Definitional criteria are much debated among researchers of the family. Rice (1994) criticises both the US Bureau of the Census and family sociologists who use an operational definition which is based on the longstanding assumption that families must live together and be related by blood, marriage or adoption.

Bongaarts, Burch and Wachter (1987) have criticised both the delimitation of the family by an all-embracing household concept and the use of marriage as a defining factor. They promote a more differentiated study of marriage (including cohabitation), marital disruption and remarriage and of relations between kin which do not depend on membership of the same household. They suggest a sequence of concepts which could be used in differentiating the different units:

Conjugal couple: couple who live in conjugal union, with formal marriage as an additional characteristic.

Nuclear family: a conjugal couple/single parent, together with their unmarried children (as defined by United Nations) but who do not necessarily live in the same household (violates UN criterion of co-residence).

Family: members of a household related by blood, marriage, or adoption (UN definition) including any unmarried children who have left the parental household but are still financially dependent on their parents.

Household: a residential and economic unit, which can contain a family or families (eg a three-generation family, just one nuclear family, or a family of two sisters), 'family household', or no family at all (eg one-person households, or a childless conjugal couple).

Kingroup: extended family, ie family with members of the families of origin of both spouses and their descendants, irrespective of co-residence.

Höhn and Mackensen (1989), however, critique Bongaart et al's sequence for not clarifying whether or not the household forms part of the definition of the family, or whether it is a separate category, which may or may not overlap with the family.

Laslett (1972 in Höhn and Mackensen 1989) regards the household as a unit which includes the family. Wheaton (1974 in Höhn and Mackensen 1989) has hesitated to differentiate at all between the household and the family. Höhn and Mackensen (1989) suggest it might be useful to disregard the concept of the household until a more precise definition of the family has been achieved. Only then will it be possible to ascertain whether the concept of the 'household' adds to the understanding of the family, and to consider whether either concept requires modification.

In sum, such critiques map out the areas of concern which will in some part be explored in this report. Firstly, a major distinction between family and household is pointed out. Then more detailed points from the literature are rehearsed. Several of the points made seem to relate, though, to quite primordial conceptions of family/household and may be less pertinent in relation to more recent classifications.

6 SUBJECTIVE LIFESTYLE CONCEPTS OF FAMILY/HOUSEHOLD

Most of the work on family types is resolutely 'objective': but what do people in families/households think about them and talk of them?

There seems to be little obvious research which reveals the vocabularies which people use to describe different types of family form. At present there is an array of popular terms which are pinned on unsuspecting family types: 'blended', 'skipped generation family', 'multi-generational family', 'yuppies' etc, which denote both individual's lifestyles but also the family contexts within which these lifestyles are pursued: eg 'stem family', 'beanpole family'. Terms such as these may point to interesting (and often emerging) aspects of families and so may deserve further sociological attention. (However, in this study such complexities may be excessive.) Table 4 lists some common terms as used in the United States of America.

Table 4 Lay terms for family types

A **Yuppie** is a 'young upwardly mobile person'. While this term is far less common, many confuse the derivation for *yuppie* with that of *yumpe*, and the two express broadly the same connotations anyway. Some sources (textbooks, even) state that *yuppie* actually stands for 'young upwardly mobile person'.

Yippie is sometimes used to refer to a person with *yippie* values and attire but with *yuppie* consumer habits. [*Yippies* were members of the Youth International Party, a US radically youth-oriented and countercultural political movement, known for street theatre and politically themed pranks.]

Buppie is a black urban professional.

Guppie is a gay *yuppie*.

Puppie is a poor urban professional.

Yupmo is a crossover between a *yuppie* and an *emo* [a name given to young people who are over-emotional and depressed about imperfections in their lives].

Yuppify and **yuppification** are slang terms used in place of the words 'gentrify' and 'gentrification' but with similarly negative connotations.

DINKs (also **DINKY** in the UK) are well-off couples who often have much in common with *yuppies*. The label is an acronym for Dual Income No Kids [Yet].

SITCOMs are former *yuppies* or *DINKs*. The label is an acronym for Single Income Two Children Oppressive Mortgage.

Organic yuppies is a term used in the UK for *yuppies* and middle-class thirty-somethings obsessed with food and wine.

A variation, **yuffie**, is a young urban failure, or more generally a failed *yuppie*.

Boughie (pronounced Bōō-zhee – an abbreviation of the word Bourgeois), is a derogatory term originated in African-American vernacular English, and used to describe an African-American of lower-class origins, who has elevated into 'upper-crust', and has forgotten (or, has chosen to forget) about their true origins. Boughies tend to have fancy or refined tastes, style and manner in the interest of appearing more cultured or sophisticated than their ordinary upbringing would suggest.

Source: wordspy.com

7 INTRODUCTION TO FAMILY LIFE CYCLE CONCEPTS

In sociological studies, family life cycle has been the major approach to classifying families. By the end of the section the full complexities involved with this approach will have been covered, but the section builds slowly from more simplified beginnings.

7.1 Introduction

A preliminary definition of family life cycle is as a sociological concept that describes changes in families across time, emphasising effects of marriage, divorce, births and deaths on families and changes in income. More formally, the family life cycle concept is “the categorical system of operationally slicing the family career into segments that modally represent families whose incumbents display particular configurations of characters” (Mattessich and Hill 1987 in Kapinus and Johnson 2003).

The series of stages through which the typical family passes includes:

- > bachelor
- > young marrieds
- > full nest
- > empty nest
- > sole survivor.

For example, young marrieds is an early stage in the family life cycle which is often targeted by marketers as it is financially well-off and keen to spend, especially on durables.

In the classical constructions of the family life cycle model (see Table 5) the period between marriage and the dissolution of the nuclear family (the nuclear family history) is divided into six stages (or phases) with seven transitions to mark the beginning and end of each phase.

Table 5 The classical family life cycle (adapted from Höhn and Mackensen 1989)

Phases	Transitions characterising	
	Beginning	End
1 Formation	Marriage	Birth of first child
2 Extension	Birth of first child	Birth of last child
3 Completed extension	Birth of last child	First child leaves
4 Contraction	First child leaves	Last child leaves
5 Completed transaction	Last child leaves	First spouse dies
6 Dissolution	First spouse dies	Other spouse dies

The family life cycle has an immediately intuitive appeal in that it summarises a wide array of experiences into a summative model. The sequence kicks off with the formation of a couple (with the male usually a year or two older than the woman). The new family/household usually enjoys an active lifestyle supported by two incomes and often takes advantage of a small inner-city flat as the base for its activities. The arrival of the first baby disrupts the domestic tranquillity. With the reduction of income following withdrawal from the paid workforce, but with increasing expenses given three mouths to feed, an ‘income crunch’ may ensue. Moreover, young families often feel the need for more space (inside and outside the home) and so seek the ownership of a house on a section (complete with mortgage) in the suburbs. These financial stresses are partially relieved when the last child leaves for schooling when the possibilities of at least a partial return to the workforce of the caring parent can be considered. A period of childrearing may ensue which lasts until the last child has left the home, at which point the original couple is left living with each other. About the same time one or both partners may withdraw from the paid workforce and ‘retire’: which again affects income and perhaps preferred housing situation (with the possibility of smaller and more accessible or appropriate housing being explored). Around this time the male partner is more likely to die, leaving the widow a final period of time before she too expires.

However, informal presentations of the concept need to be balanced by more formal research.

7.2 New Zealand studies of family types

There have been several New Zealand studies. Vosburgh's 1978 study of New Zealand families identifies the structure of families (size, age, sex, kinship and other characteristics of the family unit) in order to provide insights into the place of the family in society and the family as a group of interacting members. Vosburgh is mostly interested in the influence of change in socio-economic structure and conditions on family patterns. The study focuses on nuclear families – husband and wife, with or without children. Trends in the timing and incidence of marriage, in family size, spacing of children and family dissolution through death or divorce, which determine family structure at any one point in time and change the timing of the family life cycle, are outlined for the society as a whole and for some of its social sub-groupings. The main focus of her study is the delineation of trends in family structure and an attempt to explain these. Explanations are based on the theory that there are patterns of marriage, childbearing and family dissolution which are characteristic of a society at different stages of social and economic development. Within this it is postulated that demographic rates affecting family structure will vary with changes in population composition and socio-economic conditions. Further, that cultural values and beliefs will have some independent influence, although Vosburgh argues that their potential for producing family patterns inconsistent with social development and conditions is limited.

Vosburgh outlines New Zealand's social development from 1850 to 1966 in order to facilitate her explanation of changes in patterns of family formation growth and dissolution in this period. Data used in this explanation include statistical reports of New Zealand government departments including censuses, vital, justice, medical and migration statistics, life tables and official yearbooks. As official statistics do not contain information on the family patterns of social sub-groupings of the population, an interview survey was conducted in Wellington in 1967. Occupational status and fertility levels were chosen as the bases for differentiating sub-groupings.

Some of Vosburgh's findings for the years 1850-1966 include:

- > a decline in age at marriage for both males and females, particularly after 1940, and a corresponding decline in age of mother at the birth of her first child
- > a lengthening of the average interval between births at times of expanded economic opportunity
- > a marked decline in the average age of a mother at the time of her last birth: an important consequence of which is the shortening of the childrearing stage and a lengthening of the average duration of marriage.

Thus, more than twice as many couples in the more recent than the earlier period were expected to see all their children married or established in other households, and they were expected to have more than twice as long to live together after all their children had left home. Overall, Vosburgh found that significant changes in trends of family formation patterns were found in two main periods: when New Zealand society was emerging from colonial status, and when the main bases for a modern centralised society with a strong welfare orientation were being built.

Vosburg's foundational treatment has been extended in several directions by several other New Zealand authors. Hadfield (1978) looks at two studies which provide comparisons of the working habits of mothers in middle- and working-class suburbs (Newlands and Newtown, in Wellington) and pinpoint some of the problems of life-cycle poverty. Mitchell (1986) reviews the place of people with intellectual disabilities within their family, and (inter alia) draws attention to the changing patterns and needs of families over the life cycle of the handicapped person.

Lawson (1989) reviews the family life cycle concept in light of demographic patterns in New Zealand using data from the 1981 Census. The study assesses the usefulness and limitations of some of the different family life cycle structures for consumer research and marketing management in New Zealand and proposes an adjusted life cycle structure which covers nearly 80 percent of households. It concludes by illustrating how the life cycle can be related to tourist expenditure in New Zealand and thus provides a basis for formulating marketing strategies.

Pool (1992) examines the effect of fertility decline on families. Johnstone and Pool (1995, 1996) and other papers examine the size, income and labour force participation characteristics of New Zealand families. An empirical overview of changes in family income from 1981 to 1991 is provided together with a detailed examination of the labour force status of parents and the average number of dependent children in families. Looking at income and controlling for socio-economic variables such

as age, ethnicity and labour force status shows which families are more vulnerable to changes in economic circumstances. Other publications examine trends in, and debates about, family demographic change: eg the apparent demise of the two-parent family (Pool 1996; Pool and Johnstone 1996a, b), the rise in the number of sole-parent families over recent decades and the number of children in the families, together with the economic situation the children find themselves in. Jackson and Pool (1996) hook attention with the title of their paper on *Will the Real New Zealand Family Please Stand Up?* They comment on the substantive changes to 'the family' in New Zealand and both the technical and methodological implications of these, briefly critiquing data sources and the central analytical concepts. They outline some of the key demographic factors affecting the analysis of family structures and demonstrate the effects on analyses of adopting two different techniques for the analysis of familial change: one using a 'parenting household' denominator – the other a population base.

Although these various studies have usefully grounded the family life cycle in the New Zealand context, none of the studies systematically examined its applicability in New Zealand and in any case, updating is required.

7.3 Concepts of life cycles in general

The concept of family life cycle involves the application to families of more generally held life-cycle ideas. Life cycle is one of the most widely used concepts in the social sciences, and indeed across all of the sciences. However, O'Rand and Krecker (1990) note that the meanings and uses of the concept are diverse and occasionally contentious. They argue that, defined strictly, the concept is used to represent maturational and generational processes driven by the mechanism of reproduction in natural populations. This classic definition necessitates explicit treatment of stages (phases), irreversible development or maturation, and generation or the reproduction of form (O'Rand and Krecker 1990). In other words, the classical life-cycle model refers to a unilinear series of changes in form undergone by organisms (including families) in their development over time from early stages to equivalent stages in a succeeding generation.

Most social science conceptions of life cycle are historically related to nineteenth century ideas in:

- > biology – the relationship between individual development and the historical progression of species;
- > social philosophy – to the origins and evolution of family forms and kinship systems from primitive promiscuity to patriarchal monogamy; and
- > early development psychology – to human ontogenetic development from conception to death (O'Rand and Krecker 1990).

O'Rand and Krecker (1990) suggest that the Darwinian framework of natural selection reconciled many of these views. Thus, at the end of the nineteenth century, the emerging life-cycle model was a complex notion that included earlier ideas (at the organismic or individual level) about inheritance and development, and (at the species or populations level) about adaptation, survival and extinction.

In terms of population, Darwin's views were fundamentally grounded in ideas that competition occurs not amongst species, but rather amongst individuals and that the variation and reproduction of forms is the central feature of life. Hence, the idea of life cycle, as composed of ideas of stages, maturation and generation, implies a population process of intergenerational sequences (O'Rand and Krecker 1990).

O'Rand and Krecker (1990) maintain that often the life-cycle concept is both metaphorically and heuristically applied in order to initiate analyses of the development of maturational phenomena across social domains from individuals to organisations. They term these models 'naïve models' and state that the varieties of meaning that arise have the potential to lead to imprecise definitions and applications in the social sciences that may in turn impede the study of development and change. As a metaphor, the life cycle serves as an initial framework for observation. However this may be problematic. For instance, it may assume rather than test the life-cycle model, such as Erickson's (1967 in O'Rand and Krecker 1990) classical eight-stage model of psychosocial crises in the life cycle. This model draws from evolutionary theory and assumes the "ontogenesis ... of an inescapable and intrinsic order of strivings" (Erickson 1968 in O'Rand and Krecker 1990) from infancy to old age. Erickson's classical construction does not take into account reproduction or generation at the population level (cyclical reproduction). Levinson's (1978) work carries the same assumptions. In such models, time is defined

by developmental stages and variation refers to individuals' relatively successful/unsuccessful passages through the earlier predetermined stages.

O'Rand and Krecker (1990) assert that often the complexity of time is ignored or confused in life-cycle research which in turn leads to imprecise understandings of development and to misspecifications of the phenomena under investigation. O'Rand and Krecker view time as involving both cyclical constraints (in the process of social order) and linear progression (in the process of change).

The extent to which the application of the life-cycle concept to families has kept up with more general thinking about life cycles is a topic worthy of further work.

7.4 Historical development of the family life cycle concept

Paul Glick was the first demographer to focus on the family life cycle – in a paper published in 1947 – and he continued to refine the concept throughout his life. Glick identified seven demographic stages and concentrated on the ages of women at the critical transition points. His work provided aggregate data which could then be used for empirical studies. According to Höhn and Mackensen (1989), his most important contribution concerned the substitution of longitudinal for period analysis (in a paper published conjointly with Parke in 1965). Glick's application of cohort analysis to the study of family life cycle was influenced by sociologists and historians who had been conducting research into life courses.

In 1948, Duvall and Hall published a report which detailed their development of a four-stage family life cycle model. Subsequently, Duvall expanded her model into an eight-stage version. This model concentrated on the duration of each stage and the interaction of the family members within each of these stages (Glick 1989). In 1964, Hill proposed a version of the family life cycle that involved nine stages and that identified changes in family structure in relation to the advancing ages of young children in the home.

7.5 Methodological and ethical critiques of the classical family life cycle model

Even the early work on family life cycles quickly attracted critical attention. Several issues were identified as problematic, especially in using demographic (rather than life-course) data:

- 1 The date of birth of the last child, the dates of the children's eventual marriage and the date when they leave the parental home are normally based on estimations, which in turn require a number of assumptions. It is also difficult to calculate date of death of either first or surviving spouse.
- 2 Glick's concept of the family life cycle is based on the explicit assumption that all members of the cohort marry and that none of the marriages end by divorce or by death before the wife has reached the end of her reproductive period. (Glick confined his 1977 analysis to first marriages.) Yet, a large proportion of families are excluded if neither divorce nor remarriage is taken into account.
- 3 Childless marriages seemed to be defined as no family at all. Childless 'families' are confined to the 'empty-nest' or 'post-parental phase' (phase 5 in Table 5 above) throughout their lives. (Glick excluded childless families from his studies in 1977.)
- 4 Phase 5 (empty nest or post-parental phase) implies that parents have no continuing relations with their children or grandchildren, but live entirely alone.
- 5 Classical concepts of family life cycle portray an isolated nuclear family and exclude relationships and contacts with other members of the extended family. The study of kin networks must form one of the most important aspects of the later stages of the family life cycle (Höhn and Mackensen 1989). Arguably, this could similarly be said of the earlier stages given the importance of supportive networks for parents of young children.
- 6 Children are neglected in the classical concept. The number of children born into any one family is not usually considered. Further, there are methodological difficulties in determining the age of the children at the time they leave the parental home.
- 7 There is a problem in accounting for number, duration and position of single-parent families. Trost (1977 in Höhn and Mackensen 1989) argues that all three types of one-parent families are non-

fits: those resulting from divorce; those resulting from the death of one or the other spouse; and those that have never been in a conjugal relationship. Höhn and Mackensen argue that such incomplete families should be included in any study of the family life cycle, especially because the post-parental stage in such families may occur earlier or later in their lives than in complete families, and may prove to be a more traumatic event for the single surviving parent than for the married couple.

- 8 The classical concept of the family life cycle does not take account of earlier life history.
- 9 The concept is not concerned with the process of transition into and out of various stages, or with the variability and spread of such transitions.
- 10 The family life cycle approach measures stages of the family only, or rather it measures stages of parenthood.
- 11 The use of demographics (eg birth of first child) to establish the stage timetables can ignore how family events are shaped by historical and cultural context (Elder 1985 in Rice 1994).
- 12 The use of average age of members in discerning the start and duration of events like the timing of children in census data also tends to obscure ethnic and class differences.

To summarise, according to Höhn and Mackensen (1989) the principal objections to the classical concept of the family life cycle are the absence of consideration of divorce, early widowhood, remarriage or incomplete families, and of matters relating to the post-parental stage.

7.6 Subsequent evolution of the family life cycle concept and current applications

It is an interesting possibility that there may well have been a 'golden age' when the concept of the family life cycle was first formulated in which there was a particularly good fit between the reality of family life cycle progression (at least in Western societies) and the concept. Since then, concept and reality may well have moved progressively further apart.

Indeed, Glick acknowledged in his 1989 paper *The Family Life Cycle and Social Change* that by the mid-1970s in America socially significant changes were causing an acute awareness of the increasing complexity of family life cycle types. Variations from the 'traditional' trajectory of family events meant that classical constructions of the concept that applied only to primary marriages were inadequate.

Such variations included:

- > more adults delaying marriage
- > adults living alone or cohabiting outside of marriage
- > an increase in one-parent families
- > more children members of step-families
- > more young adults appeared likely to never marry
- > more children being born out of marriage
- > more childless couples (Glick 1989).

Macklin sees the changes in marriage patterns (which in turn drive changes in family life cycle progressions) as a result of the increasing status of American women, improved means of contraception, a growing acceptance of sexuality outside of marriage and the "increasing ability of the individual to survive independent of a kinship support system" (Macklin 1987 in Glick 1989).

In view of the above social changes, Höhn (1987) attempted to identify a set of family life cycle models that would account for all types of family groupings. Höhn concluded that 12 life-course stages/types were needed to avoid concealing important differences in lifetime family (or non-family) behaviour. Her models are based on variations in stability of marriage (or union) and the presence (or number) of children from the marriage(s) (cf. Glick 1989).

In 1986, Hill developed a complex model of the life course for American families of several types and demonstrated approximately at what period of married life the various stages from family formation to family dissolution were likely to occur. Stages for the intact primary family were shown in comparison with stages for the reconstituted family, the late childbearing remarriage, the premarital pregnant intact family, single-parent family with no remarriage and the childless marriage. He discussed the expected changes in the roles of family members and the likely stress associated with transitions between stages (Hill 1986 in Glick 1989).

Another way to conceptualise family life cycle is to look at the transition between family life cycle stages as the variable of interest (Mattessich and Hill 1987 in Kapinus and Johnson 2003). In this 'stage-transitional' model, disequilibrium occurs between stages but resumes as families settle into their new roles. Using this conceptualisation of family life cycle would require looking at time-since-last-role transition as a potential predictor of variables of interest. This stage-transitional model may also be more useful for examining diverse family forms that may not follow the ordered progression of stages as specified by the traditional family life cycle model (Kapinus and Johnson 2003).

Family therapists have also used the family life cycle concept (see Carter and McGoldrick 1980): their theory being that each stage presents a 'development challenge' which needs to be overcome before moving on to the next stage. Problems resulting from 'derailment' of the family life cycle may be solved by returning the family to an acceptable family course.

In 1979, Nock, and Spanier, Sauer and Larzelere published classic critiques which called into question the empirical utility of family life cycle. However, in rebuttal, Kapinus and Johnson (2003) point to methodological shortcomings by asserting that both critiques deal with sets of dependent variables that are dominated by measures that they question are family variables at all. Indeed the dependent variables employed by Spanier et al are demographic variables. According to Kapinus and Johnson, the pattern of relationships in both articles suggests that the effects of the family life cycle variables are weakest when one is dealing with variables one would reasonably expect to be related more to individual matters (such as income or level of education) than to family life cycle stage. This rebuttal may have breathed new life into a faltering sequence of studies, although the dearth of more recent developments does not support this.

7.7 Differences in the family life cycle amongst different social groupings

Another difficulty with the family life cycle concept is that it may underestimate the variation in family types and sequences between different social groupings.

Some American demographers have attempted to show how certain features of the life cycle differ according to the type of family group. For instance, Norton, (1983 in Glick 1989) found that women in the US with intact first marriages had the most children, remarried women had entered their first marriage the earliest, and divorced women completed their childbearing the earliest. Women who were maturing into adulthood during the baby boom began their childbearing the earliest and completed their childbearing within a relatively short period.

Studies applying the family life cycle model to US minority families involved describing four distinguishing characteristics of African-American families:

- > a more truncated cycle
- > being female-headed
- > a life cycle punctuated by numerous unpredictable life events and the associated stress they engender
- > that since they had few resources available to assist them in coping with these stressors, an extensive reliance on governmental institutions to meet basic needs.

7.8 Further critique of the family life cycle concept

However, reformulations of the family life cycle concept failed to protect it from further rounds of criticism. Some is more general – even philosophical (as in the writings of O'Rand and Krecker reported above).

Rice (1994) presents a feminist and post-modern critique of the normative assumptions built into counselling and related renditions of the family life cycle; particularly its treatment of divorce and gender. According to Rice, divorce can be seen not just as a manifestation of the breakdown of society or the family, rather it can be better construed as resistance to the oppression of women in families and as an identifying marker of societal and historical change and transformation.

Rice asserts that despite the family life cycle theory having been the overarching conceptual model for the fields of family development and family therapy for the past 45 years, it is largely a mythological framework – and that this is the case is accepted by even its proponents. Rice argues that family life cycle is based on a so-called ‘normative’ family (white, middle-class and male-headed) which leads to a ‘deficit comparison’ model being applied in situations where the family form differs: for instance –

- > black families headed by women
- > divorced families headed by single-parent mothers
- > women who remain single
- > the adjustment of women and children post-divorce.

The deficit comparison model leads to the stigmatisation of divorced families and the view that the single-parent family is a transitory variation in family structure preceding (re)marriage. Similarly, Knaub (1989 in Rice 1994) notes that much of stepfamily research is based on the deficit comparison model in which variations from the intact nuclear family are regarded as dysfunctional, problematic and inadequate.

According to Rice, “Family Life Cycle theory is based on the epigenetic principle of a schema of stepwise successive change in development and stages in life cycle. The so-called normative family life cycle referred to by most Family Life Cycle researchers ... finds root in this paradigm: events of becoming (genesis) build upon immediately preceding events. Such a model argues that for each stage (Stage 1, Beginning family; Stage 2, Childrearing family, etc), families must master a set of tasks that are specific to that stage, enabling them to go on successfully to the tasks of the next stage and to prevent developmental arrest” (1994). Divorce is viewed as a disruption of family life cycle that precipitates reorganisation and stages of adjustment until the family re-establishes itself and again conforms to the normative family life cycle described by Hill and Rodgers (1964).

The experiences of black families are often considered and subsumed under the general rubric of ‘ethnicity and families’ in family life cycle research. “When women of color are marginalized into an ethnic variation, the particular effects of racism may be masked, and a White prototypic family as standard implicitly prevails” (Rice 1994). This standard does not account for the rich intergenerational support systems among female-headed black families, which are not merely economically caused, but culturally rooted (Rodgers-Rose 1980 in Rice 1994). Rice endorses the work of Jewell (1988) and Staples (1985) who promote a new view of black cultural variation as a strength rather than a handicap in successful family functioning.

The fact that many families rarely follow family life cycle stage theory expectations in an orderly way has led to refinement of the more static, linear notion of time in family life cycle, and to the idea that continuous micro-transitions in family development may occur under stress (Rice 1994). However, conceptual emphasis is on defining ‘normal’ by age-appropriate behaviours. Thus ‘generation’ is privileged, and gender, class and race differences largely ignored in expectations about appropriate behaviour in family development (Rice 1994).

According to Wijnberg and Holmes (1992 in Rice 1994) traditional family life cycle conceptions do not explain the differences in the processes of adaptation from single-parent families. Rather, she argues, role theory was a more helpful conceptual model in explaining the changes and adaptations post-divorce. (Role theory is a group of concepts, which pertain to the way people are influenced in their behaviours by the variety of social positions they hold and the expectations that accompany those positions.) Women with a less traditional marital and work orientation were more likely to alter their role-set to mother/breadwinner and to move more quickly into role reorganisation and restructuring, whereas traditional women continued to view the mother role as primary and the single-parent family as temporary (Rice 1994).

It could be argued, more broadly, that contemporary changes in family life, rather than reflecting a deviation from more ideologically conceived traditional forms, are an adaptation to changing social, political and economic contexts.

To summarise, according to Rice (1994) the normative version of the family life cycle theory is problematic for the following reasons:

- > there is an almost total reliance on marriage and the residence of children to define ‘family’ in family life cycle theory: effectively eliminating the legitimacy of choosing not to be married and/or not to have children and still be a family

- > there is effectively no family life cycle theory for the adult family
- > the emphasis on the intact married nuclear family in most family life cycle theory minimises and disenfranchises the experiences of individuals and families who do not conform to these values and stages. For instance, poor families, minority families, lesbian and gay families. Such families may be included in separate chapters in books on the family life cycle. Although well-meaning in the attempt at inclusion, Rice argues that the fundamental flaw of isolating these families through language, separate book chapters, etc is that the lack of basic integration of 'deviant families' into the mainstream paradigm of family life cycle is then not recognised.

O'Rand and Krecker (1990) concur with much of this critique and view the family life cycle model to be fundamentally only concerned with the nuclear family in mid-twentieth century Western (American) culture, consisting of a married couple with children. The family life cycle model assumes a particular family type and indexes its development as changes in the size and composition of the unit over time, with the strong assumptions that all members of a cohort married and that no marriage ended without children, in divorce, or in premature death. It left out considerations of generation or reproduction, in spite of its emphasis on stages of parenthood.

The family life cycle perspective lays heavy emphasis on the value of stability over change (Rice 1994). Candib (1989 in Rice 1994) suggested that the ideological function of the family life cycle metaphor exists in maintaining the power and privilege of the dominant class, white middle-class men. Additionally, family life cycle minimises the effect of class: the assumed universal and timeless sequence of the model implies an economic assumption that the nuclear family can make it on their own if they work hard enough, that competent families are self-sufficient, and that the family operates in a just economic system (Rice 1994).

It is arguable how many of these criticisms are fatal. Many are limitations recognised by writers who use the family life cycle concept, and in some other criticisms it is the misuse of the family life cycle concept rather than its use which is under fire. Nevertheless, the critique makes valuable points about the generalisability of the family life cycle concept.

7.9 In sum

This section has presented the core conception of the family life cycle, and then its long and complex career in which critique and further development have been intertwined. Although the family life cycle concept is largely a socio-demographic concept it has also been used by family therapists and in general more normatively. As the following section relates, it has also been pressed into sociological and socio-economic studies. These multiple uses can sometimes lead to conflicting interpretations and difficulties. In the course of the debates many relevant issues have been rehearsed.

8 APPLICATIONS OF THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE CONCEPT IN VARIOUS DOMAINS

In 1979, Le Bras (cited in Höhn and Mackensen 1989) noted that almost all demographic events occur within a family context. His observation was a critique of the lack of research emphasis demographers have usually given to families. The occurrence and frequency of demographic events such as births, marriages, divorces, deaths and migration within a family context depend at least in part on the structure of the family (Höhn and Mackensen 1989). This point undoubtedly holds for a wide swathe of social research in which the family context is not seriously engaged with.

The family life cycle concept has a wide range of applicability including its relevance in relation to:

- > housing decisions (type, tenure and location)
- > fertility decisions
- > incomes and labour force participation
- > investment in education, etc
- > leisure patterns
- > household assets acquisition.

There is considerable literature which reviews many of these areas and which is listed in Table 6 and partially summarised in Appendix One. This review remains at an illustrative stage, and does not attempt to draw up a summative balance on the degree of usefulness of the family life cycle concept, although that would be a useful further exercise. It is possible, though, to conclude that the concept has attracted considerable attention in the social research literature, although less than some might have supposed.

Table 6 Studies on effects of family type and especially family life cycle

a) Housing

Author	Date of publication	Topic
Doling	1976	Demand for housing
Schafer	1978	Effect of life cycle on urban form
McLeod and Ellis	1982	Pattern of housing consumption and location over the family life cycle
Forrest and Kemeny	1982	Demand and supply of furnished rental housing and household structure
Kendig	1984	Housing careers
Speare and Goldscheider	1987	Residential mobility
Mulder and Wagner	1998	The transition to first-time home ownership
Mulder and Smits	1999	The transition to first-time home ownership

b) Family relationships

Silverstein, Giarrusso and Bengtson	2003	Role of grandparents in the lives of their grandchildren
Brannen	2003	'Beanpole' families
Cohler	2005	Sexual minority families
Herlyn	1988	Processes of individualization
Foster	1978	Temporal variability in stem family composition
Kennedy and Strokes	1982	Increasing housing costs and modified extended kin support
Clay and McAllister	1991	Inequality in agrarian societies
Jithoo	1985	Relationship between the joint family and economic development
Albert and Bulcroft	1988	Psychological and emotional roles played by pets in the urban household
Keister	2000	Wealth ownership
Flippen	2001	Wealth inequality, particularly in housing
Lee and Kramer	2002	Inter-age transfers
Warren and Britton	2003	Ethnic differences in economic wellbeing
Scholz and Levine	2004	Race-based wealth disparities

9 ALTERNATIVES TO THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE CONCEPT

9.1 Life course

In the 1960s, work by Goode, Tilly and others presented anomalies in the family life cycle concept. The increasing availability of data on the entire life courses of individuals provided insights into the growing diversity among individuals over the life course – which demonstrated the life cycle model's limited capacity to account for variation (Hareven 1978 in O'Rand and Krecker 1990). Many commentators have, consequently, denoted the demise of the family life cycle as a conceptual tool (eg Elder 1978; Murphy 1987; and Gerenuk et al 1989 in O'Rand and Krecker 1990). O'Rand and Krecker (1990) view the life-course approach, with its emphasis on heterogeneity of timing, sequencing and synchronisation, as a conceptual revolution. The life-course concept is distinguished from family life cycle by its focus on content, timing and sequencing of phases or events constituting the developmental pathways of the individual. However, (unlike family life cycle) it is said to be without intrinsic reference to 'generation' (O'Rand and Krecker 1990). (That is, that the cycle will be continually repeated in coming generations.)

Hareven (1982) states that the life-course approach is the interaction between 'individual time', 'family time' and 'historical time'. Life course encompasses 'pathways' by which individuals move through their lives, fulfilling different roles sequentially or simultaneously. Höhn and Mackensen (1989) believe the life-course perspective to be based on the idea that:

An individual's life course is multidimensional, since movements through successive life states entail the concurrent assumption of multiple roles, from those of son or daughter, age-mate, and student during years of dependency, to adult lines of activity in major institutional domains of society. One's life history is thus the product of multiple histories, each defined by a particular timetable and event sequence – histories of education and work-life, marriage and parenthood, residence and civic involvement (Elder 1978:26).

And that methodologically:

In applying the life course perspective to marriage and the family unit, we begin with the interdependent life histories of their members... A life course framework views the family unit in terms of mutually contingent careers, their differentiating characteristics and problems of management. It facilitates study of divergent or non-conventional family patterns, as well as the conventional, by working with the life histories of individuals (Elder 1978:26).

The life-course concept has implications for the examination of social change (O'Rand and Krecker 1990) as it incorporates the relationship between the individual and their family and how this relationship changes over time in the context of historical conditions (Hareven 1982).

Farber's work in the 1960s paved the way for the life-course work that emerged in the following two decades. This had an emphasis on cohorts, transitions and issues of temporality regarding timing, order, sequence and synchronisation (O'Rand and Krecker 1990).

9.2 Family development theory

Family development theory explicitly looks at time: the interdependence of family time and individual life time within the context of historical time (O'Rand and Krecker 1990). This research programme has emerged out of the life-cycle tradition in direct response to life-course analysis. Its concerns parallel the life-course problem of the relationship of individual development to population or social change. Family development theory attempts to account for the variance in family organisation over time that is attributable respectively to (1) developmental processes in the family itself and (2) to

contextual changes in its environment. This is a cohort analysis strategy. Comparisons are made between aggregates of families which come into existence during selected time intervals. Inter- and intra-cohort variations become the indexes of developmental versus contextual change, and their interdependence can be determined (Hill and Mattessich 1979 in O'Rand and Krecker 1990).

9.3 Feminist theory and 'new action theory'

Rice (1994) states that the last few decades have seen a rise in the applications of feminist theory, approaches and epistemological critique in the field of family research and family therapy. Fundamentally, feminists have insisted that gender, as well as generation, is a basic organising principle of family life (Avis 1985; McGoldrick and Cooper 1989). Insistence on families as fully integrated into wider systems of economic and political power and a recognition of the conflicting interests of family members have been hallmarks of the most recent feminist critical analysis of family sociology and therapy (Ferree 1990 in Rice 1994). Rice (1994) hails 'new action theory' as the way forward in research on the family since this theory apparently does not reify the family, but treats it as a social arrangement that is constructed (see also Stacey 1990). New action theory analyses the ways in which dyads of people interact with each other and cope with political, social and economic conditions to better their lives and the lives of their families.

9.4 In sum

Several alternative frameworks are available for examining families, beyond that provided by family life cycle. Some of these have emerged as advances on family life cycle, while others have a more critical stance. However, the data requirements for life-course analyses in particular are very considerable, and family life cycle might be best interpreted as a way-station towards an eventual life-course approach. It is possible that the two might be merged, or family life cycle, seen as a foundation: as in family development theory. Similarly, new action theory would require extensive data and may also be able to be married to family life cycle in the long run.

10 METHODOLOGY: SECONDARY ANALYSES

The remainder of this project involves some statistical investigations of characteristics of families and households. The data for these analyses are drawn from the 2000 Standard of Living Survey carried out for the Ministry of Social Development (MSD 2002b). The secondary analyses carried out are guided by the study objectives and also broadly by the lessons generated from the literature review. As well as describing the methodology of the secondary analyses carried out in this report, this section also describes the data on which the analyses were carried out.

Methodological details are summarised in Appendix A to section 10 – see Appendix Two. Three surveys carried out in 2000 are harmonised and aggregated to form the data platform of this study.

The survey data were used, rather than census data, because they allowed access to unit-record data, which in turn allow more sophisticated data analysis, and especially clustering approaches. The major problem with these data is that not all items are included for households where the 'reference person' (ie respondent) was 65 years or older. 11.6 percent of total households were in the 'older New Zealanders' survey, and are excluded from many tables. In particular, the household schedule of persons was not included in the data-sets accessible for this study. In comparison to the census as a data source, the survey data allow for better multi-level analysis (combining variables relating to household characteristics as well as household member characteristics) and also access to scale items and to some subjective variables.

Broadly, the objective of this study is to develop an empirically grounded typology (or typologies) of households, or more modestly, to at least critique those which are available. To construct a successful typology requires some 'reference variable' which can act as the empirical standard. Unfortunately, it is not at all clear what the candidates for such a standard might be. It is possible that there is a 'best fit' between household types and resources or satisfactions: but this is explored rather than definitively examined. Above all, a useful typology ought to economically and appropriately summarise the types of relationships within a household (ie amongst its members). In part, this needs to be a 'competitive' situation: any typology proposed needs to work 'better' than alternatives: in this case the main competitor is the age of the core members of the household.

The data analysis uses frequency, cross-tabulations and several multivariate techniques (factor analysis and discriminant analysis). Short descriptions of these are provided in Appendix B to section 10 – see Appendix Two. The mainstay in the report is cross-tabulations as these allow depictions of how household type categories differ in terms of other characteristics of the household and household composition. Because the sample size is large, and attention needs to be focused on the distributions, only percentages are given. In order to provide some benchmark of 'significance' an appropriate measure of association (gamma) is provided where both variables involved in a cross-tabulation are ordinal. When at least one of the variables is interval, eta is often used instead (or as well).

There are some difficulties in deciding on which way to percentage tables and which value to use where measures (especially eta) are asymmetrical. To be consistent, the different categories of each of the 'dependent variables' were used as the base for percentages: that is, they are presented as 'profiles' of the categories. However, in reporting etas, the measure reported depends on whether the variable is regarded as 'antecedent/causing' or 'consequent/caused'. The overall sets of variables used are included in Appendix C to section 10 – see Appendix Two. Note that tables do not always add to 100 percent because of rounding.

The data interpretation is supported by a small set of tables, but full sets of cross-tabulations are not included here: they are available in separate appendices.

In sum, this section introduces the data-sets used in the study and discusses the data analysis procedures used to interrogate these.

11 RELATIONSHIPS WITHIN HOUSEHOLDS

The empirical portion of this report begins with an inductive approach to classifying households.

Each household was characterised in terms of the number of each of the 15 or so types of relationships amongst its occupants that occurred (or did not occur) within it. This set of variables was then subjected to a factor analysis (results are reported below) in order to yield an understanding of the number and types of dimensions which underlie variations in household membership.

A particular difficulty is that the first member of each household was merely recorded as the 'respondent' and so the relationship of that person to others in the household had to be inferred by relating them to the relationship status of the second occupant. This was rendered more straightforward by the fact that many of these relationships were paired or mirror-images of each other: especially that of spouse.

The original schedule had four categories which proved awkward. 'Live-in' employees (whether 'housekeeper' or 'other') failed to be empirically represented. It seemed the difference between boarder and lodger (presumably there is a difference in terms of the extent to which shared meals are involved) may not be great, and so they were amalgamated (after earlier factor analyses showed that they tend to occur together).

The means and standard deviations reported in the first sub-table (7a) are of interest in their own right. Children and spouses are (unsurprisingly) the most prominent categories, although siblings, parents, flatmates and grandchildren are also significant.

Apart from uncle/aunt and visitor, all variables had reasonably high commonalities (ie share in the overall variance). Unfortunately, as many as eight factors were generated: but all are small in size – although the cumulative variance explained reaches 66 percent. To aid interpretation, values are ordered by size.

The factors (Table 7a(b): *variables highly loaded on particular factors are in italics*) can be interpreted as follows:

- > the first contrasts households with a spouse present with those where there are either siblings and/or parents
- > the second contrasts flats with childrening households (also spouses)
- > the third contrasts sole-person households with childrening ones (also spouses)
- > the fourth groups grandchildren and children-in-law
- > the fifth links nephew/niece and uncle/aunt (also spouses, foster-children and other)
- > the sixth centres on households with boarders/lodgers.

The remaining two factors do not seem particularly interpretable.

The factor analysis suggests that there is a considerable complexity in some household structures, with a considerable number of separately analysed factors occurring. On the other hand, the factor analysis is reassuring as it also confirms some of the main dimensions that are considered (in the literature) to underpin variation within household structures. The transformation matrix shows that the factors identified remain fairly solidly still in place after rotation and that therefore the factor pattern found is fairly stable.

A second multivariate approach with the household roster data was to test the extent to which discriminant analyses can be used to validate already developed typologies (Table 8). A standard classification of types of household was used in this case. The group statistics table shows the means (etc) for each membership type for each category of the classification. Although several of the following tables include useful 'diagnostic' information, the final table is the most pertinent. This shows that with 70 percent of the originally classified cases retaining their category, a fairly successful degree of classification has been achieved.

Table 7a Factor analysis of relationship types

(a) Descriptive statistics

	Mean	Std. deviation
Spouse	1.245	.955
Child	1.491	1.384
Child-in-law	.010	.102
Parent/parent-in-law	.292	.585
Grandparent	.006	.078
Grandchild	.029	.224
Sibling	.179	.608
Uncle/aunt	.007	.106
Nephew/niece	.041	.313
Foster-child	.006	.109
Boarder/lodger	.055	.342
Flatmate	.226	.832
Visitor	.001	.053
Other	.032	.308
Sole	.050	.218

weighted n = 3217332

(b) Rotated component matrix (a)

	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Parent/parent-in-law	.894	.135	.084	.042	-.054	-.005	-.041	.017
Spouse	-.745	.394	.320	-.058	.033	-.114	-.150	.139
Sibling	.635	.042	.070	-.094	.452	-.025	-.043	.067
Flatmate	-.036	-.926	.128	-.014	-.048	.044	-.053	-.032
Child	-.041	.578	.447	.046	-.191	.156	-.095	-.087
Sole	-.005	.031	-.947	-.019	-.044	.013	-.040	-.006
Child-in-law	-.010	.007	.008	.869	.030	-.187	-.003	.017
Grandchild	.037	.035	.028	.687	-.042	.433	-.009	-.012
Nephew/niece	.082	.017	.116	-.028	.709	-.015	.117	.038
Uncle/aunt	.018	-.046	-.067	.036	.458	-.009	-.097	-.026
Visitor	-.105	.009	-.054	-.029	.190	.073	-.166	-.140
Grandparent	.026	.011	.010	.000	.007	.913	-.013	.021
Boarder/lodger	-.030	.001	-.007	-.020	-.028	.009	.971	-.025
Foster-child	.076	-.067	.057	-.033	-.269	-.068	-.057	.713
Other	.102	-.067	.074	-.035	-.241	-.098	-.056	-.676

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser normalization.

(a) Rotation converged in six iterations.

**Table 8a Discriminant analysis against household type
Classification results (a) household type**

Predicted /original I count	Single	Couple	Sole parent	Parent +kid/s	Sole parent plus	Parents +kid/s plus	Other	Total
Single	160,240	0	0	0	0	0	0	160,240
Couple	0	448,385	0	0	0	0	0	448,385
Sole parent	2,494	0	211,288	0	0	0	0	213,782
Parent+kid/s	0	216,744	0	705,979	0	138,047	4,159	1,064,930
Sole parent plus	722	0	56,901	0	98,548	0	10,735	166,906
Parents+kid/s plus	0	553	0	133,425	301	159,575	23,118	316,973
Other	34,519	132,867	90,210	34,383	72,239	15,380	466,519	846,116
Single	100.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	100.0
Couple	.0	100.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	100.0
Sole parent	1.2	.0	98.8	.0	.0	.0	.0	100.0
Parent+kid/s	.0	20.4	.0	66.3	.0	13.0	.4	100.0
Sole parent plus	.4	.0	34.1	.0	59.0	.0	6.4	100.0
Parents+kid/s plus	.0	.2	.0	42.1	.1	50.3	7.3	100.0
Other	4.1	15.7	10.7	4.1	8.5	1.8	55.1	100.0

(a) 70 percent of original grouped cases correctly classified.

12 CHARACTERISTICS OF HOUSEHOLDS

The first subsection enumerates the characteristics of households according to traditional classifications and also the five 'dependent variables' specified above, together with some further classifications. The remaining subsections take each of the dependent variables in turn and describe the characteristics of each in terms of the 'independent variables' specified above – illustrating each more succinctly with a few examples. The next section then compares these more formally.

12.1 Main characteristics of households

This section introduces the main characteristics of households included in this survey: particularly numbers of household members of different types and also summative classifications.

Membership rosters (Table 9) provide counts of the numbers of members in the household, using different categories. Each column counts the number of members in the household according to that category of membership. First of all they include CEU members (separately children and adults), non-CEU members and totals in household. 45.2 percent of households contained no CEU child(ren) and 58.7 percent contained no members not included in the CEU. A similar proportion of households contained one and two people who were in the CEU (24.5 and 25.3 percent respectively). Of those households with a single CEU, 15 percent contained a single child and 37 percent contained a single adult. Whereas CEUs ranged up to a size of nine, a few households reached 13.

The most common household type (Table 10) is a couple plus child/ren (parent + kid/s, 29.3 percent), followed by other (23.3 percent), single households (16 percent), couple only households (12.3 percent) and couple with child/ren plus other/s (8.7 percent). The least common are sole parents (5.9 percent) and sole parents plus other/s (4.6 percent).

Major types (Table 11) include sole adult (1 adult, 0 child), couples (2, 0), couples with children (2, with 1-3+ children) and sole parents (1, 1-3+). Nearly two-thirds of respondents live with a partner.

In most households there is a couple (Table 12) and in most households there is only the CEU (Table 13).

The distribution (Table 14) of five-year age categories of woman partner (not necessarily technically a 'wife') fits that of the general population, and with a very small tail of more elderly 'wives', partnered with male respondents under age 65.

The main family life cycle classification used (Table 15) has separate 'sequences' for partnered and non-partnered households. Each of these two groups is divided up into four categories: no children; where the youngest child is under five ('infant'); where the youngest child is under 15 ('child'); and where the youngest child is 15 or over ('youth'). Four categories capture similar proportions of the overall number of the household: non-partnered/no children; partnered no child; partnered with infant; and partnered with child. A proportion similar to each of these captures the remaining types of household.

Finally, two other specifications of household type are presented (Table 16). Almost all households where there are two spouses are opposite-sex households with miniscule proportions of male gay and lesbian couples. (This was calculated from the household roster data.) Most households (60 percent) are two-generational and most of the remainder one-generational – but with a miniscule proportion three-generational. No further work on these two dimensions of household has been carried out.

Analysis of two variables (number of children and age of female spouse) is not covered below in more detailed subsections (12.2, 12.3 and 12.6), but is included in the summary section (13) following.

Table 9 Household roster

	Household size	CEU member	CEU child	CEU adult	Non-membership of CEU
	%	%	%	%	%
0			45.2		58.7
1	5.0	24.5	15.0	36.5	19.1
2	21.1	25.3	22.2	63.2	10.7
3	21.0	14.2	10.7	.3	6.6
4	26.0	20.5	4.6		3.1
5	15.0	9.3	1.8	.0	1.2
6	7.2	4.7	.3	.0	.5
7	2.8	1.1	.2	.0	.0
8	1.3	.3			
9	.6	.2			.1

Table 10 Type of household

	%
Single	16.0
Couple	12.3
Sole parent	5.9
Parent+kid/s	29.3
Sole parent plus	4.6
Parents+kid/s plus	8.7
Other	23.3
Total	100.0

Table 11 Household composition (adults, children)

	Valid %
1,0	24.5
2,0	20.6
3/3+,0	.1
1,1	4.6
2,1	10.3
3/3+,1	.1
1,2	3.8
2,2	18.3
3/3+,2	.1
1,3/3+	3.6
2,3/3+	14.0
3/3+,3/3+	.0
Total	100.0

Table 12 Lives with partner

	%
Valid No	36.7
Yes	63.3
Total	100.0

Table 13 CEU/more in household

	%
Valid CEU only	63.5
CEU plus	36.5
Total	100.0

Table 14 Age of wife (in categories)

	%
Age of wife N/A	4.4
18-24	11.1
25-34	26.4
35-44	31.4
45-54	17.2
55-64	8.8

Table 15 Family life cycle stage

		%
Family life cycle stage	Non-partnered	19.1
	Partnered, no children	19.5
	Partnered, infant	20.4
	Partnered, child	18.7
	Partnered, youth	5.1
	Non-partnered, infant	5.2
	Non-partnered, child	7.3
	Non-partnered, youth	4.7

Table 16: Other family types**a: Sexual orientation**

		%
Valid	NA: no spouses	46.2
	Opposite	53.4
	Woman/Woman	.1
	Man/Man	.3
	Total	100.0

b: Number of generations

		%
Valid	1	36.9
	2	61.2
	3	2.0
	Total	100.0

12.2 Household internal structures (CEU/CEU plus)

Those households consisting solely of CEUs are contrasted with those which also include others. Nearly two-thirds of households are CEU only.

Rural households (see Table 17) are most likely to be composed entirely of members within a CEU (75 percent) and Auckland households least likely (48 percent). Fifty-two percent of Auckland households contain members who are not part of a CEU: this is a strong relationship. In terms of regions, 64 percent of South Islanders live in a household composed entirely of CEU members and only 57 percent of North Islanders do. There is a sharp difference between the larger proportion of CEU plus households in main urban areas as opposed to the other two sizes of place.

Those living with a partner (see Table 18) are far more likely to be in a CEU-only household. One-third (32 percent) of single adults and three-quarters (74 percent) of couples live in a household composed entirely of CEU members. Number of couples attached to a CEU was more usually none (54 percent), although most of the remainder encompassed a (further) couple.

Although the pattern is not entirely clear-cut, increasing number of children (see Table 19) is more likely to be associated with CEU-only households: 58 percent of respondents with no dependent children live in households composed of members additional to their CEU. Those with children are far more likely to live in households composed entirely of CEU members, particularly if they have more than one child. For respondents with one child, 55 percent live in CEU-only households. For respondents with two children, 78 percent live in CEU-only households. For those with five children, 91 percent live in CEU-only households. Of those with four children, 62.5 percent live in CEU-only households and for those with six children, 75.6 percent live in CEU-only households. The difference between childreared and non-childreared households is stark. Increasing household size (see Table 20) is associated with increasing proportion in CEU-plus households.

Within the ELSI groupings (see Table 21), 56 percent of those who answered 'very restricted' live in CEU-only households, and nearly 60 percent who answered 'restricted' live in CEU-only households. However, 57 percent who answered 'comfortable' live in CEU-only households and 70 percent who answered 'very good' live in CEU-only households. Thus, CEU-only households are more likely to be better off. Those claiming a higher standard of living are more likely to be in a CEU-only household. There is a similar, but less sharp relationship in terms of satisfaction with standard of living.

Respondents who live in a household composed entirely of their CEU are more likely to be 'very happy' (61 percent: see Table 22) than those who live in a household with members outside of their CEU (40 percent). Of this latter group, 66 percent are 'very unhappy'. Respondents who live in a household composed entirely of their CEU are more likely to be 'very satisfied' (63.5 percent) than those who live in a household with members outside of their CEU (36.5 percent). Of this latter group, 60 percent are 'very dissatisfied'. But, this is not a strong relationship.

Of those households living in a one-bedroom dwelling, 66 percent are made up of CEUs with no other members. Of those households with six bedrooms, 73 percent contain members other than those in the CEU. Sixty-one percent of three-bedroom households are made up of CEU members and 39 percent contain additional members.

The majority (70.5 percent) of people who own their home (see Table 23) alone or with a partner live in a CEU household with no additional members. Respondents who own their home jointly with other people are more likely to live in a household with members outside of the CEU (64 percent). Almost all (93 percent) of houses that are owned with 'family members' contain members outside of the CEU. Houses that are owned by private landlords and Housing New Zealand are more likely to have members not included in the CEU (74.5 percent and 65 percent respectively). However, houses owned by local authorities are more likely to be made up of CEU members entirely (60 percent).

Nearly two-thirds (64 percent) of respondents who own their own home live in a house composed entirely of CEU members while only 28 percent of those who rent do: a stark difference. Of this two-thirds, two-thirds (65 percent) of those who had no debt on their house live in a household composed entirely of CEU members. This figure increases until 100 percent of those with a debt between \$250,001 and \$300,000 live in a household composed entirely of CEU members (though at a debt between \$150,001 and \$200,000 the figure drops to 63 percent who live in a household composed entirely of CEU members). Eighty percent of those with a debt between \$300,001 and \$400,000 live in a household composed entirely of CEU members. However, there seems no overall relationship between value of property and household type. Respondents who had not yet paid their mortgage are more likely to live with people outside of their CEU (59 percent). For those respondents who had paid their mortgage only 28 percent live with people outside of their CEU.

There seems no overall relationship between gender of respondent (see Table 24) and household type. Nearly all (86 percent) of respondents in the age cohort 18-24 (see Table 25) live in households composed of members additional to their CEU. Respondents aged 25-44 years are more likely to live in CEU-only households. Respondents in the 45-54 age cohort are just as likely to live in households composed of members additional to their CEU (50 percent). Those in the older cohorts are more likely to live in households composed entirely of CEU members.

Where the core household group is Pākehā or mixed (see Table 26), more live in CEU-only households, with Pasifika and Māori households particularly likely to be more complex.

Respondents who left school between the ages of 10 and 18 are more likely to live in households composed entirely of CEU members. Those who left school at 19 and 20 are more likely to live in households composed of additional members. The relationship seems curvilinear. Respondents who live in a household composed entirely of CEU members are more likely to have school qualifications than those who live in a household composed of additional members (for example, 54 percent of respondents from CEU-only households had a Bursary qualification compared with 46 percent of respondents from households composed of additional members). However, of those with no school qualification, 55 percent are likely to live in a CEU household and 45 percent in a household composed of additional members. Those with little education (see Table 27) are more likely to live in complex households whereas those with a Bachelor's degree or higher are more likely to live in CEU-only households. (It is likely that the first statistic mentioned here refers to older people who left school without qualifications.)

Half (52 percent) who are the main income earner respondents live in CEU-only households whereas 48 percent live in households with additional members. This is a moderate to strong relationship. Of the respondents who are main income earners and do not have a full-time job, 58 percent live in households composed of members additional to their CEU. Of the respondents who are main income earners and have a full-time job, 66 percent live in households composed entirely of CEU members. Of respondents who are main income earners and have never had a full-time job, 80.5 percent live in households composed of members additional to their CEU. However, of respondents who 'ever had a

full-time job', 49.5 percent live in households composed entirely of CEU members and 50.5 percent live in households with additional members.

Respondents in the higher occupational groups (legal/administrative /management, professional, associate professional and clerks) are more likely to live in CEU-only households. However, for respondents in the service occupational group the same amount live in the two categories of households – 50 percent in CEU-only households and 50 percent in households with additional members. Those in the occupational groups agriculture/fishing and trades are more likely to live in CEU-only households (72 percent of the former occupation and 70.5 percent of the latter). Similar proportions of people within the occupational group operatives live in both types of household (53 percent in CEU-only households and 47 percent in households with additional members). Those respondents in the elementary occupational group are slightly more likely to live in households composed of members additional to their CEU (53 percent). In terms of the NZSEI there is a tendency for CEU-only households to increasingly dominate with increased socio-economic status, with the exception of farmers. The quintiles of equivalised income reinforce this trend. Nearly two-thirds (62 percent) of respondents who do not receive an income-tested benefit (see Table 28) live in households composed entirely of CEU members. Fifty-three percent of respondents who receive an income-tested benefit live in households composed of members additional to their CEU.

In sum, those households consisting solely of CEUs tend to be urban, not built around a couple, are smaller but have more children, have higher incomes, are happier/more satisfied, have fewer bedrooms, have more assets, are older, Pākehā, middlingly-qualified, more involved with work, and of higher socio-economic status (ses). Broadly, it could be suggested that they fit a 'WASP' model: white, upper middle class and older.

12.3 Lives with a partner (or not)

At the core of many CEUs lies a cohabiting couple. Thirty-seven percent of respondents do not live with a partner and 63 percent do. (Non-residential partners are not known about.)

People in rural areas (see Table 29) are more likely to live with a partner (72 percent) than in urban areas. Of the urban areas, people in 'other major urban areas' (than Auckland and Wellington) are least likely to live with a partner. Wellingtonians are less likely to live with a partner than those from minor urban areas, though are more likely than Auckland residents. A similar proportion of North and South Island New Zealanders live with a partner. People in rural areas are more likely to live with a partner, followed by minor and then major urban areas (72 percent, 6 percent and 61 percent respectively).

There is no simple pattern linking number of non-CEU couples who live with a couple in the CEU. The more children (see Table 30), the more likely is living with a partner. Of the respondents with no children, nearly 10 percent more do not live with a partner (54 percent compared with 46 percent). Those respondents who have children are much more likely to live with a partner. Forty-six percent of respondents with no dependent children live with a partner and the more children the more likely respondents live with a partner. Sixty percent who live in households with members additional to their CEU do not have partners, whereas 76.5 percent of those who live in CEU-only households live with a partner. The pattern in relation to overall household size tends to be linear with larger sizes more linked to couples.

Within the ELSI groupings, 74 percent of those who answered 'very restricted' do not live with a partner whereas 75.6 percent who answered 'very good' live with a partner. Fifty-three percent of those who answered 'somewhat restricted' live with a partner. Respondents are more likely to have a 'high' or 'fairly high' SOL level if they live with a partner (70 and 72 percent respectively) compared with those who do not (30 and 28 percent respectively). Seventy-one percent of people who recorded a 'fairly low' SOL do not live with a partner compared with 30 percent of those who do. However, 51 percent of those who recorded a 'low' SOL live with a partner compared with a slightly lower proportion of 49 percent of those who do not.

Respondents are more likely to be 'very satisfied' if they live with a partner than if they do not (74 percent compared with 26 percent). This gap decreases on the SOL satisfaction rating, and of those respondents who are 'very dissatisfied', 52 percent live with a partner and 4 percent do not.

Within the happiness categories, of those respondents who answered 'very happy', 71 percent live with a partner. Of those who answered 'neither', 50 percent live with a partner and of those who answered 'very unhappy', 58 percent live with a partner: a slightly curvilinear pattern.

Of those respondents who live in houses with one bedroom, 60 percent do not live with a partner. Those who live in houses with two or more bedrooms are more likely to live with a partner. Eighty-five percent of those who live in houses with six bedrooms live with a partner.

Respondents who own their own home are significantly more likely to live with a partner (70 percent) than those who do not live with a partner (30 percent). Those who do not live with a partner more often live in rental accommodation (75 percent) than those who live with a partner (25 percent). Respondents who do not live with a partner and own their own home are more likely to have a smaller debt on their house than those who live with a partner and own their own home. Seventy percent of respondents who have no debt on their house live with a partner compared with 30 percent who do not live with a partner. Those respondents who do have a debt on their house are far more likely to live with a partner, and this likelihood increases with the level of debt owed. Respondents who do not live with a partner and who own their own home are significantly more likely to own a house with a lower government valuation than those partnered couples who own their own home. Respondents who live with a partner are more likely to have paid their mortgage than those who do not live with a partner (21 percent of those who do not live with a partner have paid their mortgage compared with 79 percent of those who do live with a partner).

Very slightly more female respondents are likely to be living in a partnership.

Those within the 18-24 age cohort are least likely to live with a partner. This likelihood decreases until the 45-54 age cohort where it begins to climb again, though it slightly decreases in the 65-74 age cohort.

Two-thirds (66 percent) of respondents who identify as 'all Pākehā' live with a partner, 58 percent of 'all other' live with a partner, 54 percent of 'all Pacific' live with a partner and 35 percent of 'all Māori' live with a partner. However, of those who are 'mixed Māori,' 82 percent live with a partner, of those who are 'mixed Pacific', 84 percent live with a partner and of those who are 'mixed other', 93 percent live with a partner.

Likelihood of being in a partnership increases with school leaving age. Of those respondents who have no school qualification, 56 percent live with a partner and 44 percent do not. However, more respondents who have a school qualification live with a partner than those who have a school qualification and do not. Seventy-four percent of respondents with an overseas qualification live with a partner compared with 26 percent of those with an overseas qualification who do not live with a partner. Just over half (54 percent) of respondents with no school qualification live with a partner. However, 73.5 percent of respondents with a Bachelor's degree or higher live with a partner. In terms of highest qualification levels of respondents the most similar level between those who do and do not live with a partner is those respondents who have a school qualification.

Respondents who are the main income earners are less likely to live with a partner (47 percent of respondents who are the main income earner live with a partner and 53 percent do not). Of the respondents who are the main income earners and who do not have a full-time job, 25 percent live with a partner and 75 percent do not. Of respondents who are the main income earners and who do have a full-time job, 79 percent live with a partner and 21 percent do not. Of the respondents who are the main income earners and have never had a full-time job, 91 percent do not live with a partner and 9 percent do. Of the respondents who are the main income earners and who have had a full-time job, 31 percent live with a partner and 69 percent do not.

Those respondents within the professional/administrative/management occupation group are most likely to live with a partner (83 percent do and 17 percent do not). Of those within the service occupation group, 49 percent live with a partner and 51 percent do not (possibly because they are younger). However, those within the clerk's occupation group are least likely to live with a partner (64 percent do not). The proportion in couples sharply climbs with NZSEI score. This pattern is replicated in terms of equivalised income quintiles. Of those respondents who receive an income-tested benefit, 73 percent do not live with a partner and 27 percent do: the reverse of those receiving benefits.

In sum, coupled households are more likely to be rural, larger, with fewer children, with lower incomes, smaller homes, younger and non-Pākehā.

12.4 Number of children

Although non-childrended households decline with increasing ruralness, there is a U-shaped distribution of number of children with numbers in rural and in main urban areas. The same pattern holds between the two islands with the North Island having more non-childrended households but larger ones if they are childrended. In straight urban/rural terms the pattern is also repeated (see Table 40).

Living with a partner (Table 41) is strongly associated with having children and number of children. If there are more couples in a household they are mainly childless. Household size is also strongly related (Table 42).

More households with children fall into the various 'restricted' categories in terms of the ELSI score (Table 43), whereas those households which are comfortable or better are more likely to be childless. The same pattern holds (in milder form) in terms of subjective SOL and in terms of satisfaction with SOL. Although the pattern is less marked, it also holds for happiness (Table 44), and satisfaction. (In both these latter variables it is the 'lowest' ranked category which differs most from the other categories.)

Number of bedrooms and number of children are moderately related. Households with more children are more likely to be housed in state housing, and also ownership (Table 45), while childless households are more likely to be involved in a range of tenure types.

Childrended households are marginally more likely to be headed by females (Table 46). Childless households are more likely to be headed by young or old heads, with those households with larger numbers of children concentrated especially in the 35-44 age group (Table 47).

Larger numbers of children characterise Māori/Pasifika households, and far fewer in these categories are childless (Table 48).

There is no particularly marked pattern in terms of highest school qualification or highest educational qualification (Table 49), although some differences are more likely explained by an underlying age distribution.

The respondent is less likely to be the main income earner where there are more children and more likely where there are none.

If there is a pattern in relation to occupation it is complex and hard to discern, and no notable patterns emerged in relation to other social class-related variables with the exception of equivalised income where both the top and (especially) the bottom quintile are considerably more likely to be childless (again, probably because of an underlying age distribution). Receipt of income-tested benefits (Table 50) shows no pattern.

12.5 Age of wife

The pattern of age of wife/female partner shows a fairly normal curve pattern, peaking at age 35-44. Given the cut-off at age 64 for respondents, few are older.

There is no broad pattern in relation to region, island or urban/rural location (Table 51).

Younger women are less likely to live with a partner (Table 52), whereas middle-aged women are more likely to and in the older age brackets the pattern evens out. Multiple couple situations are usually found where the female partner is older.

Numbers of children (Table 53) in the CEU (and more generally household size: Table 54) increase up to the modal age and decrease thereafter. This pattern is very strong.

Fewer young female partners are in the higher ELSI categories (Table 55) up to age 35, and it is in the age group before that (ie 25-34) where the largest accumulation of 'very restricted' households lies.

Although there is a broad age pattern, it is clear that particular family circumstances override any linear progression. The subjectively reported SOL pattern, however, while showing the same 'threshold' effect at about age 35, is more muted, as is satisfaction with SOL, happiness (Table 56) and satisfaction.

There is a fairly definite increase in number of bedrooms available with age of wife. Tenure choices are complex (Table 57), but the broad pattern is for households to increasingly focus on more 'orthodox' types of tenure (eg ownership with partner) after the earliest age group period. Ownership of assets increases with age.

Gender of 'respondent' does not vary with age (Table 58). Age of respondent is closely correlated with age of female partner (Table 59).

The younger age structures of minority ethnic groups in New Zealand is reflected in the age pattern of female partners with Pākehā/European more concentrated in older age groups (Table 60).

For the various education variables there are detailed patterns (such as the falling proportion with no qualifications with younger age groups and the high proportion in those age groups with 'other' qualifications: probably obtained overseas) but only the overall pattern of successive generations having better qualifications (Table 61).

The respondent is less likely to be the main income earner at younger age groups (except the youngest). There is no obvious pattern in terms of occupations, or related measures except for equivalised income and receipt of income-tested benefits (Table 62) where socio-economic difficulties are concentrated in the younger and the older age groups.

12.6 Characteristics of households by family life cycle stage

More orthodox stages/types of household predominate in rural areas (see Table 63). Slightly more people are non-partnered in the South Island than in the North Island (24 percent and 20 percent respectively). Seventeen percent in both islands are partnered with no children. Slightly more people in the North Island are partnered with an infant (18.5 percent compared with 17 percent in the South Island). This is reversed for partnered people with a child/children. Similar proportions of people in the North and South Islands are partnered with a youth (4.4 percent and 4.9 percent respectively). More people are single parents in the North than South Island. The largest family type in the North Island is partnered with infant and in the South Island is partnered with child – though in both islands the number of partnered people with no children comes a close second. In both major and minor urban areas the largest group is non-partnered people (23 percent and 20 percent respectively). In rural areas the largest family grouping is partnered with an infant (22 percent). Of those partnered in major and minor urban areas the largest grouping is partnered with an infant. People in major and minor urban areas are more likely to be single parents than those in rural areas. The largest group of single parents are those with a child.

Non-CEU couples (Table 64) predominate amongst the non-partnered category. Larger households (Tables 65 and 66) are more likely where the youngest child is an infant, and to a lesser extent where the youngest child is a youth.

Within the ELSI groupings (see Table 67), restrictions are higher where the stage is 'infant' or 'child', easing off for 'youth', and least for 'no children', although many non-partnered/non-children households are restricted.

The highest SOL level is recorded amongst those who are partnered with no children (22 percent). Those least likely to have a high SOL level are single parents, and of those, parents of a child/children and infant are the least likely (3 percent each). Of those respondents who are partnered with a dependent child, those with the highest SOL levels are the parents of an infant(s). Non-partnered people are most likely to record a medium SOL level (33 percent compared with 3.7 percent of partnered people with no children). In the fairly low SOL level the highest recording is amongst non-partnered people (30 percent), followed by single parents of an infant (18.5 percent). In the low SOL level the highest recording is amongst couples with a child (25 percent) followed by non-partnered people (16 percent) and single parents with a child (16 percent). Single parents of a youth were more

likely to record a low SOL level (8.5 percent) than those parents who were a couple (1.7 percent). However, single parents of an infant were less likely to record a low SOL level (8.7 percent) than coupled parents of an infant (10 percent).

Satisfaction with SOL follows the 'objective' pattern of SOL levels. Happiness follows a broadly similar pattern (see Table 68). Note that non-partnered with youth seem particularly prone to unhappiness. In terms of broader satisfactions it is the partnered who report higher levels, compared with non-partnered types of household.

Number of bedrooms available is undoubtedly a function of household size.

Clearly, tenure follows life-cycle stage (Table 69). Debt levels and property values follow a similar pattern.

Whereas male respondents are slightly predominant amongst non-partnered/non-children and very slightly amongst the various partnered stages, they are fewer amongst the other non-partnered combinations (see Table 70). Age of respondent clearly follows the life-cycle pattern (see Table 71).

Māori and Pasifika (see Table 72) dominate the non-partnered combinations (especially the younger ones) compared with Pākehā/European and also Other (which are mainly Asian).

Age of leaving school and qualifications reveal the underlying pattern of age of respondent (Table 73).

The respondent is more likely to be the main income earner in non-partnered situations. The respondent is more likely to be in full-time work in non-partnered situations where presumably the respondent is more likely to be a beneficiary or in part-time work, given the lack of other caregivers. There is no clear pattern with respect to past work of the respondent. There seems to be a tendency for partnered respondents to be in higher status occupations (or higher NZSEI and with lower equivalised income) whereas non-partnered respondents are in middle- or lower-level occupations (or lower NZSEI or lower equivalised income). In contrast, it is particularly non-partnered categories which receive income-tested benefits. Within each sequence, proportion in receipt of benefits declines (Table 74).

In sum, again the more orthodox types of family are associated with the more conservative and higher status social categories.

13 COMPARISONS OF EFFECTS ON SELECTED DEPENDENT VARIABLES OF ALTERNATIVE CATEGORISATIONS OF HOUSEHOLD TYPE

The effects on the five major dependent variables of each of the 35 independent variables are summarised in Table 75 by tabulating the values of eta. This measure can be taken as comparable across this array of individual tables. The summary table allows the causal efficacy of the five alternative 'dependent variables' to be assessed. In particular, family life cycle should be contrasted with 'age of wife'.

Inspection of this summary table shows that measures vary considerably by 'domain' or section. Location tends to have negligible impacts. Similarly, SOL level and satisfactions do not produce particularly high correlations. On the other hand, there is often a high inter-relation between various dimensions of household type. The relationships with dwelling characteristics vary considerably, as do respondent characteristics (although here, it is only a few pockets where correlations are high).

The table produces much in confirmation of the household asset cycle and life-cycle models. For the most part it performs more effectively than age of wife, and in general is far more strongly related to most of the other variables in this table.

The second set of summative tables report the more detailed results of a set of multiple classification analysis tables (see Tables 76 and 77). In each case the family life cycle variable is pitted 'frontally' against age of wife and number of children in explaining a limited number of dependent variables. In each of these equations, including alternative measures of household characteristics, family life cycle 'wipes the floor' in relation to the other variables, which underlines its importance as a classificatory (and perhaps explanatory) variable.

Table 75 Comparisons of effects (etas)

Location	CEU	Partner	Number of children	Age of wife	FLC
1 Region	.199	.102	.042	.034	.038
2 Region North/South Island	.060	.008	.036	.006	.047
3 Urban/rural	.186	.080	.038	.014	.018
Household type					
4 Lives with partner	.410	X	.323	.411	.163
5 Number of couples not in CEU	X	.171	.175	.224	.096
6 Number of dependent children in CEU	.314	.293	X	.461	.744
7 Dependent children in CEU	.309	.336	.873	.471	.878
8 Number of children (grouped)	.339	.323	.323	.488	.806
10 Household size	.222	.360	.711	.382	.632
SOL level and satisfactions					
11 ELSI grouped	.074	.215	.178	.169	.371
12 Standard of living (SOL) level	.092	.170	.068	.090	.224
13 SOL satisfaction rating	.025	.169	.106	.087	.258
14 How happy	.050	.154	.041	.075	.186
15 Satisfied/dissatisfied	.065	.185	.035	.080	.210
Dwelling characteristics					
16 Number of bedrooms	.160	.118	.263	.217	.251
17 House ownership	.380	.452	.227	.407	.462
18 Tenure	.255	.331	.148	.361	.348
19 Debt on house	.075	.150	.195	.324	.239
20 Government valuation	.019	.216	.070	.208	.232
21 Mortgage paid	.315	.364	.333	.322	.411

Location	CEU	Partner	Number of children	Age of wife	FLC
Respondent characteristics					
22 Gender of respondent	.010	.043	.088	.037	.119
23 Age group of respondent	.401	.384	.508	.599	.232
24 Prioritised ethnicity of CEU	.272	.250	.149	.128	.142
25 Identify as Māori	.114	.175	.011	.194	.065
25 Age left school	.099	.088	.066	.137	.114
26 Highest school qualification	.105	.126	.136	.173	.135
26 Education (highest educational qualification)	.074	.147	.059	.172	.117
27 Respondent main income earner (MIE)	.183	.479	.190	.198	.057
28 MIE in full-time job	.220	.506	.123	.161	.227
29 MIE ever had full-time job	.266	.211	.184	.201	.068
30 Occupation grouped	.166	.277	.099	.120	.135
31 NZSEI classification	.166	.245	.070	.150	.186
33 Equivalent income	.167	.347	.196	.254	.466
34 Received income-tested benefit	.130	.409	.038	.227	.497

Table 76 MCA adjusted for factors

	Satisfied/ dissatisfied	Household size	Tenure	ELSI	SOL level	Equiv income
FLC stage						
Partnered, no children	-.058	-912.654	-.066	-.058	2.982	11,526.784
Partnered, infant	-.145	-1,127.529	-.025	-.117	1.521	-912.654
Partnered, child	-.070	9,549.233	-.017	-.055	1.835	-1,127.529
Partnered, youth	-.032	-16,411.645	-.012	-.126	3.263	9,549.233
Non-partnered, infant	.313	-15,829.568	.188	.473	-12.126	-16,411.645
Non-partnered, child	.376	-10,533.152	.081	.359	-8.782	-15,829.568
Non-partnered, youth	.364	-7,231.730	.170	.131	-5.857	-10,533.152
Age wife						
18-24	.039	575.076	.168	.059	-.553	-7,231.730
25-34	.031	3,728.708	.041	.052	-2.012	575.076
35-44	-.029	-369.431	-.027	-.075	1.314	3,728.708
45-54	-.001	-9,693.653	-.065	-.015	.619	-369.431
55-64	-.012	3,046.869	-.061	.133	.015	-9,693.653
Number children (grouped)						
0	-.105	1,852.184	.032	-.143	2.850	3,046.869
1	.024	-1,321.168	-.034	.099	-.312	1,852.184
2	.101	-4,551.091	-.020	.060	-.953	-1,321.168
3, 3 plus	.017	11,526.784	.003	.062	-2.890	-4,551.091

Table 77 Factor summary

		eta	beta
Satisfaction	FLC stage	.601	.571
	Age wife	.292	.131
	Number children (grouped)	.679	.482
	Multiple R	.765	.585
Household size	FLC stage	.311	.250
	Age wife	.290	.221
	Number children (grouped)	.049	.087
	Multiple R	.374	.140
Tenure	FLC stage	.417	.368
	Age wife	.202	.109
	Number children (grouped)	.204	.174
	Multiple R	.440	.194

		eta	beta
ELSI	FLC stage	.239	.219
	Age wife	.101	.085
	Number children (grouped)	.103	.126
	Multiple R	.259	.067
SOL level	FLC stage	.507	.477
	Age wife	.236	.223
	Number children (grouped)	.256	.155
	Multiple R	.548	.300
Equivalent income	FLC stage	.215	.212
	Age wife	.072	.032
	Number children (grouped)	.066	.096
	Multiple R	.224	.050

14 CONCLUSIONS: IS THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE A USEFUL ANALYTICAL TOOL?

This report has underlined that there are no easy ways in which classifications of households and families can be built. Moreover, different typologies are useful for different purposes and the analyst needs to focus on the conditions under which one, rather than another, classification is appropriate. Nevertheless, in 'competition' with alternative explanatory variables, family life cycle stage seems to be slightly better across quite a range of domains and distinctly powerful across a few domains.

Finally, another research question presents itself: this is the finer-grained examination and refinement of the family life cycle typology. The typology tested out here is a useful first step, but undoubtedly further fine-tuned analytical work comparing alternative operationalisations of family life cycle would optimise it.

15. REFERENCES

- Albert, A., & Bulcroft, K. (1988, May). 'Pets, Families, and the Life Course'. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 50(2):543-552.
- Avis, J.M. (1985). 'The Politics of Functional Family Therapy: A feminist critique'. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy*, 11(2):127-148.
- Bongaarts, J., Burch, T., & Wachter, K. (Eds.). (1987). *Family Demography*. Clarendon Press, Oxford.
- Brannen, J. (2003, May). 'Towards a Typology of Intergenerational Relations: Continuities and change in families'. *Sociological Research Online*, 8(2).
- Bryman, A., Bytheway, B., Allatt, P., & Keil, T. (1987). 'Introduction'. In A. Bryman, B. Bytheway, P. Allatt, & T. Keil (Eds.), *Rethinking the Life Cycle* (pp. 1-13): British Sociological Association/MacMillan Press, Hampshire.
- Burgoyne, J. (1987). 'Rethinking the Family Life Cycle: Sexual divisions, work and domestic life in the post-war period'. In A. Bryman, P. Allatt, & T. Keil (Eds.), *Rethinking the Life Cycle* (pp. 72-87). British Sociological Association/MacMillan Press, Hampshire.
- Carter, E.A., & McGoldrick, M. (1980). *The Family Life Cycle: A framework for family therapy*. Gardner Press, New York.
- Chang, C., Chen, S., & Somerville, T. (2003, April). 'Economic and Social Status in Household Decision-making: Evidence relating to extended family mobility'. *Urban Studies*, 40(4):733-746.
- Cherlin, A.J. (1999). *Public and Private Families: An introduction* (2nd ed.). McGraw Hill, New York.
- Cherlin, A.J. (2005). 'American Marriage in the Early Twenty-first Century'. *The Future of Children*, 15(2):33-55.
- Christensen, H. (Ed.). (1964). *Handbook of Marriage and the Family*. Rand McNally and Company, Chicago.
- Clay, D.C., & McAllister, J. (1991, Spring). 'Family Development Cycle, Social Class, and Inequality in Rwanda'. *Rural Sociology*, 56(1):22-40.
- Cohler, B.J. (2005). 'Life Course Social Science Perspectives on the GLBT Family'. *Journal of GLBT Family Studies*, 1(1):69-95.
- Crothers, C. (1986). 'Dwelling and Household Data'. In C. Crothers (Ed.), *The Uses and Limitations of Census Data: Recent censuses to 1981*. NZ Demographic Society Occasional Paper 6:107-136.
- Dale, A. (1987). 'The Effect of Life Cycle on Three Dimensions of Stratification'. In A. Bryman, P. Allatt, & T. Keil (Eds.), *Rethinking the Life Cycle* (pp. 170-191). British Sociological Association/MacMillan Press, Hampshire.
- Dharmalingam, A., Pool, I., Sceats, J., & Mackay, R. (2004). *Raising Children in New Zealand, Patterns of Family Formation and Change in New Zealand*. Ministry of Social Development, Wellington.
- Doling, J. (1976, February). 'The Family Life Cycle and Housing Choice'. *Urban Studies*, 13(1):55-58.
- Duby, G. (1996). 'Distant Worlds, Ancient Worlds'. In A. Burguire, C. Klapisch-Zuber, M. Segalen, & F. Zonabend (Eds.), *A History of the Family*, Volume One. Polity Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Duvall, E. (1964). 'American Families and NCFR. Since 1938'. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 26(1):10-19.
- Duvall, E., & Hall, R. (1948). *Report of the Committee on the Dynamics of Family Interaction for National Conference on the Family*, Washington.
- Elder, G.H. Jr. (1978). 'Family History and the Life Course'. In T. Hareven (Ed.), *Transitions: The family and the life course in historical perspective*. New York Academic, New York.
- El-Khorazaty, M.N. (1997). 'Twentieth-Century Family Life Cycle and its Determinants in the United States'. *Journal of Family History*, 22(1):77-109.
- Erickson, M. (1998). 'Revisioning the Family Life Cycle Theory and Paradigm in Marriage and Family Therapy'. *American Journal of Family Therapy*, 26(4):341-356.
- Fergusson, D., Hong, B., Horwood, J., Jensen J., & Travers, P. (2001a). *Living Standards of Older New Zealanders: A technical account*. Ministry of Social Policy, Wellington.
- Fergusson, D., Hong, B., Horwood, J., Jensen J., & Travers, P. (2001b). *Living Standards of Older New Zealanders: A summary*. Ministry of Social Policy, Wellington.
- Finch, J. (1987). 'Family Obligations and the Life Course'. In A. Bryman, P. Allatt, & T. Keil (Eds.), *Rethinking the Life Cycle* (pp. 155-169). British Sociological Association/MacMillan Press, Hampshire.
- Flippen, C.A. (2001, Spring). 'Racial and Ethnic Inequality in Homeownership and Housing Equity'. *The Sociological Quarterly*, 42(2):121-149.
- Forrest, R., & Kemeny, J. (1982, May). 'Middle-class Housing Careers: The relationship between furnished renting and home ownership'. *The Sociological Review*, 30(2):208-222.

- Foster, B.L. (1978, April). 'Socioeconomic Consequences of Stem Family Composition in a Thai Village'. *Ethnology*, 17(2):139-156.
- Giddens, A. (1991). *Modernity and Self-Identity. Self and society in the late modern age*. Stanford University Press, Stanford, CA.
- Glick, P. (1977). 'Updating the Life Cycle of the Family'. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 39(1):5-13.
- Glick, P. (1989). 'The Family Life Cycle and Social Change'. *Family Relations*, 38(2):123-129.
- Glick, P., & Parke, R. Jr. (1965). 'New Approaches in Studying the Life Cycle of the Family'. *Demography*, 2:187-202.
- Goldner, V. (1991). 'Toward a Critical Relational Theory of Gender'. *Psychoanalytic Dialogues* 1:249-272.
- Goody, J. (1996). 'The Impact of Modernity'. In A. Burguire, C. Klapisch-Zuber, M. Segalen, & F. Zonabend (Eds.), *A History of the Family*, Volume Two. Polity Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Gustafsson, S. (2001). 'Optimal Age at Motherhood. Theoretical and empirical considerations on postponement of maternity in Europe'. *Journal of Population Economics*, 14:225-247.
- Gutmann, D. (1998, Winter). 'The Paternal Imperative'. *The American Scholar*, 118-124.
- Hadfield, C. (1978, August). 'Whatever Happened to the 40-hour Week? Comment: A New Zealand Quarterly Review, 4:19-23.
- Hareven, T. (1982). *Family Time and Industrial Time*. Cambridge, UK.
- Hawthorn, G. (1977). 'Some Economic Explanations of Fertility'. In A.H. Halsey (Ed.), *Heredity and Environment* (pp. 108-117). Methuen, London.
- Hendrickx, J., Bernasco, W., & De Graaf, P.M. (2001). 'Couples' Labour-Market Participation in the Netherlands'. In H. Blossfeld, & S. Drobnic (Eds.), *Careers of Couples in Contemporary Societies, from Male Breadwinner to Dual Earner Families* (pp. 77-97). Oxford University Press, New York.
- Herlyn, U. (1988). 'Processes of Individualization over the Life Course and in Urban Environments'. *Kolner Zeitschrift für Soziologie und Sozialpsychologie*, Supplement 29:111-131.
- Hill, R. (1964). 'Methodological Issues in Family Development Research'. *Family Process*, 3(1):186-199.
- Hill, R. (1986). 'Life Cycle Stages for Types of Single Parent Families. Family Development Theory'. *Family Relations*, 35(1):19-29.
- Hill, R.H., & Rodgers, R. (1964). *Handbook of Marriage and the Family*. Rand & McNally.
- Höhn, C. (1987). 'The Family Life Cycle: Needed extensions of the concept'. In John Bongaarts, Thomas K. Burch, & Kenneth W. Wachter (Eds.), *Family Demography: Methods and their application*. Clarendon Press, New York: Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.
- Höhn, C., & Mackensen, R. (1989). 'Introduction'. In E. Grebenik, C. Höhn, & R. Mackensen (Eds.), *Later Phases of the Family Cycle, International Studies in Demography, Demographic Aspects* (pp. 1-18). Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.
- Jackson, N., & Pool, I. (1996). 'Will the Real New Zealand Family Please Stand Up?: Substantive and methodological factors affecting research and policy on families and households'. *Social Policy Journal of New Zealand/Te Puna Whakaaro*, 6:148-176.
- Jewell, K.S. (1988). *Survival of the Black Family: The institutional impact of US social policy*. Praeger Publishers, New York.
- Jithoo, S. (1985). 'Indian Family Businesses in Durban, South Africa'. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, 16(3):365-376.
- Johnstone, K., & Pool, I. (1995). *New Zealand Families: Size, income and labour force participation*. Population Studies Centre discussion papers; no. 10. University of Waikato, Hamilton.
- Johnstone, K., & Pool, I. (1996). 'Family Demographic Change: 1. Two-parent families'. *Butterworths Family Law Journal*, 2(1):298-301.
- Kapinus, C.A., & Johnson, M.P. (2003). 'The Utility of Family Life Cycle as a Theoretical and Empirical Tool. Commitment and family life cycle stage'. *Journal of Family Issues*, 24(2):155-184.
- Keister, L.A. (2000). 'What Accounts for Persistent Racial Differences in Wealth Ownership?' *Social Science Research*, 29(4):477-502.
- Kendig, H.L. (1984, August). 'Housing Careers, Life Cycle and Residential Mobility: Implications for the housing market'. *Urban Studies*, 21(3):271-283.
- Kennedy, L.W., & Strokes, D.W. (1982). 'Extended Family Support and the High Cost of Housing'. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 44(2):311-318.
- Lansing, J.B., & Kish, L. (1957). 'Family Life Cycle as an Independent Variable'. *American Sociological Review*, 22(5):512-519.
- Lawson, R. (1989). 'A Modernised New Zealand Family Life Cycle'. *New Zealand Journal of Business*, 11:52-64.

- Lee, R.D., & Kramer, K.L. (2002, September). 'Children's Economic Roles in the Maya Family Life Cycle: Cain, Caldwell, and Chayanov revisited'. *Population and Development Review*, 28(3):475-499.
- Levinson, D.J. (1978). *Seasons of a Man's Life*. Knopf, New York.
- Levis Strauss, A., & Duby, G. (1996). 'Introduction'. In: A. Burguiere, C. Klapisch-Zuber, M. Segalen, & F. Zonabend (Eds.), *A History of the Family: Distant worlds, ancient worlds*, Volume 1. Polity Press, Cambridge.
- McGoldrick, A., & Cooper, C. (1989). *Early Retirement*. Gower, Aldershot.
- McGoldrick, M. (1992). 'Ethnicity and the Family Life Cycle'. *Family Business Review*, 5(4):437-495.
- McKerny, P., & Price, S. (Eds.). (2000). *Families and Change, Coping with Stressful Events and Transitions*. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- McLeod, P.B., & Ellis, J.R. (1982). 'Housing Consumption over the Family Life Cycle: An empirical analysis'. *Urban Studies*, 19(2):177-185.
- Ministry of Social Development. (2002a). *Direct Measurement of Living Standards: The New Zealand ELSI scale*. Ministry of Social Development, Wellington.
- Ministry of Social Development. (2002b). *NZ Living Standards 2000*. Ministry of Social Development, Wellington.
- Ministry of Social Development. (2004). *New Zealand Families Today*. Ministry of Social Development, Wellington.
- Mitchell, D.R. (1986, October). 'The Family as Partner – the Parents and Siblings'. *Mental Handicap in New Zealand*, 11(1):42-47.
- Mueller, M.M., & Elder, G.H. Jr. (2003, May). 'Family Contingencies Across the Generations: Grandparent-grandchild relationships in holistic perspective'. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 65(2):404-417.
- Mulder, C.H., & Smits, J. (1999). 'First-time Home-ownership of Couples: The effect of inter-generational transmission'. *European Sociological Review*, 15(3):323-337.
- Mulder, C.H., & Wagner, M. (1998, April). 'First-time Home-ownership in the Family Life Course: A West German-Dutch comparison'. *Urban Studies*, 35(4):687-713.
- Murphy, M. (1987). 'Measuring the Family Life Cycle: Concepts, data and methods'. In A. Bryman, P. Allatt, & T. Keil (Eds.), *Rethinking the Life Cycle* (pp. 30-52). British Sociological Association/MacMillan Press, Hampshire.
- Nock, S.L. (1979). 'The Family Life Cycle: Empirical or conceptual tool?'. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 41:15-26.
- Norton, A.J. (1983). 'Family Life Cycle, 1980'. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 45(2).
- O'Rand, A.M., & Kreeher, M.L. (1990). 'Concepts of the Life Cycle: Their history, meanings, and uses in the social sciences'. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 16:241-62.
- Peterson, P.G. (2001). 'A Greying World'. *Harvard International Review*, 23(3):66-75.
- Pool, I. (1992, May/November). 'The New Zealand Family: Structural changes in the context of shifts in societal values'. *New Zealand Population Review*, 18(1/2):69-86.
- Pool, I. (1996, December). 'New Zealand Families: Size, income and labour force participation'. *Social Policy Journal of New Zealand/Te Puna Whakaaro*, 7:143-173.
- Pool, I., & Crawford, C. (1979). 'The Life-cycle as a Tool for Research on Children and the Family in New Zealand'. *Proceedings NZ Demographic Society Conference*, Wellington.
- Pool, I., Jackson, N., & Davies, L. (1993). *Demographic Change and Family Policy: A methodological comment*. University of Waikato, Hamilton.
- Pool, I., & Johnstone, K. (1996a, June). 'Family Demographic Change: 2. Sole Parent Families'. *Butterworths Family Law Journal*, 2(2):41-44.
- Pool, I., & Johnstone, K. (1996b, September). 'Family Demographic Change: 3. Stocktaking of the Nation's Children'. *Butterworths Family Law Journal*, 2(3):72-74.
- Pool, I., & Johnstone, K. (1999). *The Life Courses of New Zealand Women: Fertility, family formation and structure, fertility regulation, education, work and economic wellbeing*. Population Studies Centre, University of Waikato, Hamilton.
- Pool, I., & Sceats, J., with the assistance of O'Neill, C.J. (1982). *Fertility and Family Formation in New Zealand: An examination of data collection and analyses*. Government Printer, Wellington.
- Putney, N.M., & Bengtson, V.L. (2005). 'Family Relations in Changing Times: A longitudinal study of five cohorts of women'. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 25(3):92-119.
- Rice, J.K. (1994). 'Reconsidering Research on Divorce, Family Life Cycle, and the Meaning of the Family'. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 18:559-584.
- Rodgers, R. (1964a). 'Toward a Theory of Family Development'. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 26(3):262-270.
- Rodgers, R. (1964b). 'Some Factors Associated with Homogenous Role Patterns in Family Life Cycle Careers'. *Pacific Sociological Review*, 7(1):38-48.

- Ryder, N. (1965). 'The Cohort as a Concept in the Study of Social Change'. *American Sociological Review*, 30:843-861.
- Schafer, R. (1978). 'Metropolitan Form and Demographic Change'. *Urban Studies*, 15(1):23-33.
- Scholz, J.K., & Levine, K. (2004). 'US Black-white Wealth Inequality'. In K.M. Neckerman (Ed.), *Social Inequality* (pp. 895-929). Russell Sage, New York.
- Seltzer, J.A., Bachrach, C.A., Bianchi, S., Bledsoe, M., Casper, L.M., Chase-Landale, P.L., Diprete, T.A., Hotz, V.J., Morgan, S.P., Sanders, S.G., & Thomas, D. (2005). 'Explaining Family Change and Variation: Challenges for family demographers'. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 67:908-925.
- Silverstein, M., Giarrusso, R., & Bengtson, V.L. (2003). 'Grandparents and Grandchildren in Family Systems: A social-developmental perspective'. In V.L. Bengtson & A. Lowenstein (Eds.), *Global Aging and Challenges to Families* (pp.75-102). Aldine de Gruyter, Hawthorne, New York.
- Spanier, G. B., Sauer, W., & Larzelere, R. (1979). 'An Empirical Evaluation of the Family Life Cycle'. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 41(1):27-38.
- Speare, A. Jr., & Goldscheider, F.K. (1987). 'Effects of Marital Status Change on Residential Mobility'. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 49(2):455-464.
- Stacey, J. (1990). *Brave New Families: Stories of domestic upheaval in late twentieth century America*. Basic Books, New York.
- Staples, R. (1985). 'Changes in Black Family Structure: The conflict between family ideology and structural conditions'. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 47(4):1005-1013.
- Statistics Canada. (2006). Retrieved 14 February 2006 from www.statcan.ca/english/concepts/stat-unit-def.htm
- Statistics New Zealand. (2002). *2001 Census of Population and Dwellings*. Families and Households. Statistics NZ, Wellington.
- Statistics New Zealand. (2006). *National Family and Household Projections*. Statistics NZ. Wellington.
- Statistics New Zealand. (n.d.). *Standard Terms for Measures of Dwellings, Households and Families*. Retrieved 14 February 2006 from www.stats.govt.nz
- Sussman, M., Steinmetz, S., & Peterson, G. (Eds.). (1999, 1987). *Handbook of Marriage and the Family* (2nd ed.). Plenum Press, New York.
- United Nations. (1980). *Principles and Recommendations for Populations and Housing Censuses*. United Nations Statistics Division. Retrieved from <http://unstats.un.org>
- Vosburgh, M.G. (1978). *The New Zealand Family and Social Change; A trend analysis*. Occasional Papers in Sociology and Social Welfare No. 1. Victoria University, Wellington.
- Yang, O.K. (2003, April). 'Family Structure and Relations'. *Social Indicators Research*, 62-63:121-148.
- Young, C.M. (1977). *The Family Life Cycle*. Monograph No. 6, Australian Family Formation Project. Australian National University, Canberra.
- Warren, T., & Britton, N.J. (2003, January). 'Ethnic Diversity in Economic Wellbeing: The combined significance of income, wealth and assets levels'. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 29(1):103-119.

APPENDIX ONE: APPENDIX TO CHAPTER 8: SUMMARY OF SOME RELEVANT STUDIES

Note: Some of this appendix draws on published abstracts of studies.

Demographic implications

Much demographic work in relation to family life cycle is technical. For example, El-Khorazaty (1997) states that he has developed new statistical models and techniques to analyse aspects of the family life cycle/childbearing and fertility processes that have not previously been recorded. Advantages of these developments are that they overcome the limitation that observed indices of the family life cycle and childbearing – such as parental ages at the birth of the first and last children and at the ‘launching’ (leave home) of children, the length of reproductive life spans and of extension, completed extension, contraction and completed contracted stages – typically require detailed biographical information on the dates on which these events occurred and thus require one “to wait until a cohort of women is assumed to have finished childbearing before [these events] ... can be estimated” (Horne, El-Khorazaty and Suchindran 1990 in El-Khorazaty 1997). Additionally, direct determinants of the fertility level and pattern in terms of nuptiality, contraception and lactation are usually obtained from fertility survey data. However, such information is not easily available. When available, they are estimated from population surveys which tend both to be costly and conducted only periodically. El-Khorazaty’s article has three aims:

- 1 to extend and generalise the childbearing model to project paternal indices as well as selected family life cycle events and stages
- 2 to apply recent demographic and statistical models to the available data to obtain annual estimates of family life cycle/childbearing and fertility-inhibiting indices
- 3 to use this interlink among the three models to achieve a more comprehensive macro-level picture about the fertility and childbearing process in the US.

Moreover, technical demographic developments may have a major intellectual impact, since according to El-Khorazaty (1997), knowledge of family life cycle/childbearing events and their determinants on an annual basis will enrich the understanding of and help to elucidate the mechanisms and reasons behind demographic changes during the twentieth century.

Family life cycle and housing, etc

Many studies use family life cycle in the urban and/or related housing contexts. In their classic study, Lansing and Kish (1957) argue that to understand behaviour, it may be more relevant to know at which stage in the family life cycle someone is, than to know his (*sic*) age. To test this proposition, they use age and family life cycle as independent variables, with income and some consumer spending characteristics (owning a home, owing debts, having an employed wife, having a high income, buying a new car in a given year and buying a TV in a given year) as dependent variables. Their analysis discloses that the family life cycle variable brings out more of the variation in each of six dependent variables than does age. For example, family life cycle approach shows a sharp decline in home ownership among older unmarried as compared to older married, while home ownership by age shows only a slight drop in older years. (They measure the relative effectiveness of the two independent variables by computing rhos for the age and family life cycle variables: rhos for family life cycle were consistently higher, indicating a greater explanatory power for family life cycle than age.)

Subsequent literature provides a more complex picture. Doling (1976) reports that in the literature of housing choice the stage in the family life cycle has been frequently cited as shaping the relationship between households and their houses, on the basis of an apparent association between changes in preferences or objective needs and changes in household structure throughout the life cycle, such that larger (smaller) families are deemed to naturally need and demand larger (smaller) houses. Data for a small sample of house purchase transactions in the Birmingham area were analysed (using t-tests) to examine the significance of the differences between the behaviour and characteristics of households in successive pairs of life-cycle stages. While there was some evidence that households purchased more space – both internal and external – as they progressed through the early stages of the life cycle, there was no evidence in the sample of a decrease in demand for space in later stages. Neither were the usual locational changes identified: although the author argues that this can probably be explained by the structure of the particular urban area concerned. Although structural changes might provide the incentive for housing change, the study suggests that the demand for larger houses was only realised because of the accumulation of wealth throughout the life cycle.

Schafer (1978) argues that variations in urban form and development (and in particular the then-recent reversal in the long-term trend toward lower density development) depend on the distribution of population characteristics, such as age and marital status, as well as commuting costs and family income. "The abrupt trend reversal reflects a sharp increase in the number of households who traditionally demand multi-family accommodations and a gradual process of disinvestment in the stock of older multi-family units in the central cities." Given that the structure-type choices of households vary substantially with stage in the family life cycle, the large number of young and single households entering the US housing market in the 1960s is seen as a primary force behind the apartment boom, which has generally continued since then across most Western cities.

McLeod and Ellis (1982), using a sample of 294 recent house purchasers from Perth, analyse the pattern of housing consumption and location over the family life cycle, together with the financial position of the household. Their results indicate that marriage-partnering and initial schooling are the significant stages. Clear evidence is found for reduced space consumption once childrearing is completed, and for the presence of income constraints within life-cycle stages. However, wealth and income are found to be more important in explaining housing consumption than the family life cycle concept.

Kendig (1984) argues that the concept of a housing career provides a useful way of integrating the residential mobility and filtering literatures in understanding the operation of the housing market. Questionnaire data from a survey of seven housing groups in Adelaide (with about 100 households per group) are used to examine housing careers in terms of moves to and from both rental and owned housing. He finds that the progression of households through the stock is influenced by the circumstances that prompt moves, economic resources, and stage in the family life cycle. Acceleration and postponement of advancement along housing careers provide the principal mechanisms by which household demand adjusts to available housing supply over the short term.

Kennedy and Strokes (1982) examine the relationship between increasing housing costs and modified extended kin support using probability survey data (N = 452 adult interview respondents) from a large city in western Canada. A multivariate analysis, controlling for the differential and interacting effects of social class, life cycle and housing tenure, determined that home ownership and kin support are a function of life-cycle stage. In turn this leads to increased strains on family relations.

Albert and Bulcroft (1988) examine the psychological and emotional roles played by pets in the urban household, based on telephone interviews conducted with 320 pet owners and 116 non-owners in Providence, Rhode Island. Findings reveal that socio-demographic differences exist between pet owners and those who do not have pets. Remarried people, families with children present and families in the 'middle' stages of the life cycle are most likely to have pets, whereas pet ownership is low among widows, empty-nesters, families with infants and those with low annual incomes. Pets are viewed as important family members by people who live in the city. However, the roles played by pets are related to the social structure of the household: attachment to pets is highest among never-married, divorced, widowed and remarried people, childless couples, newlyweds, and empty-nesters; never-married, divorced, and remarried people, and people without children present, are also most likely to anthropomorphise their pets.

Flippen (2001) suggests that wealth inequality, particularly in housing, has received increased attention in recent years for its importance to racial and ethnic stratification. This article addresses this gap by examining racial and ethnic inequality in home ownership and housing equity among the pre-retirement population. Even after accounting for numerous life cycle, resource and social-psychological considerations, Blacks and Hispanics continue to lag significantly behind Whites in housing wealth.

Family relations

Other family life cycle researchers have highlighted that children have an impact on various dimensions of family life, and the effect varies as a function of the ages of children. For instance, compared with childless couples, parents of young children share less leisure time together, are involved in more instrumental and child-oriented activities and are more traditional in their division of labour. Rexroat and Shehan (1987 in Kapinus and Johnson 2003) found that, even when employed, mothers who have children aged three and under spend more time doing housework than mothers of older children. Higgins, Duxbury and Lee (1994 in Kapinus and Johnson 2003) noted that both mothers and fathers spend the most amount of time on childcare when children are younger than age six and substantially less time on childcare when children are older than 13. Leisure time for both mothers and fathers is inversely associated with time spent performing childcare. Staines and

O'Connor (1980 in Kapinus and Johnson 2003) reported that parents of children younger than six had the highest levels of conflict between family and work and that this conflict lessens as children age. Munch, McPherson and Smith-Lovin (1997 in Kapinus and Johnson 2003) found that childrearing affects both men's and women's network size and composition, and that the effects of offspring depend on their developmental stage. Both men's and women's networks are composed mostly of kin when children are very young. However, young children reduce the frequency of social contact for women but not for men.

APPENDIX TWO: METHODOLOGICAL APPENDICES

Appendix A to Section 10: Methodology of the surveys

The following (reproduced from MSD 2002b) gives a summary of the main features of the three surveys which were amalgamated into a single data-set for this study.

The Older New Zealanders Survey (Statistics NZ):

- > was administered through the Household Labour Force Survey (HLFS) using the HLFS sampling frame;
- > included all households containing a person aged 65 years and over who had recently participated in the HLFS in September 1999, or were participating in the HLFS in March 2000 and were eligible for selection;
- > selected one eligible person per household;
- > was concerned with 'the civilian, usually resident, non-institutionalised population aged 65 years and over living in permanent private dwellings';
- > was conducted between 7 February 2000 and 7 April 2000;
- > involved face-to-face interviews about 90 minutes long;
- > obtained a sample of 3,060 people aged 65 years and over; and
- > achieved a response rate of 68 percent.

The Survey of Older Māori (Statistics NZ):

- > used the superannuation database administered by the Department of Work and Income to obtain a sample;
- > used a simple random sample of Māori aged 65-69 years;
- > selected one eligible person per household and respondents confirmed that they identified themselves as having Māori ethnicity;
- > comprised the usually resident, non-institutionalised New Zealand Māori population aged 65-69 years, living in permanent private dwellings and in receipt of NZS;
- > was conducted between 10 April 2000 and 12 June 2000;
- > involved face-to-face interviews about 90 minutes long;
- > obtained a sample of 542 Māori aged 65-69 years; and
- > achieved a response rate of 63 percent.

The Survey of the Working-age Population (AC Neilson):

- > involved house-to-house sampling where only one person per household was interviewed;
- > included people aged 18-64 years living in permanent private dwellings;
- > was conducted between 11 March 2000 and 18 June 2000;
- > involved face-to-face interviews about 40 minutes long;
- > obtained a sample of 3,682 people aged 18-64 years; and
- > achieved a response rate of 60 percent.

To produce the results given in the MSD report (2002b) and hence this study, it was necessary for the survey data on older New Zealanders and the working-age people to be aggregated. Weightings were developed that enabled data from the different surveys to be combined together to give unbiased estimates for the population and to permit results to be estimated for the dependent child population.

The primary sampling unit for the surveys was the household. From each household, one adult was selected as a survey respondent. The respondent was asked questions both about him/herself and their economic family unit.

Appendix B to Section 10: Statistical approaches used

Note: This material is largely sourced from online SPSS documentation.

The **Frequencies** procedure provides statistics and graphical displays that are useful for describing many types of variables.

The **Crosstabs** procedure forms two-way (and multi-way tables) and provides a variety of tests and measures of association for two-way tables. The structure of the table and whether categories are ordered determine what test or measure to use. Two measures were used to determine the degree of 'predictability'.

Gamma. A symmetric measure of association between two ordinal variables that ranges between -1 and 1. Values close to an absolute value of 1 indicate a strong relationship between the two variables. Values close to zero indicate little or no relationship. For two-way tables, zero-order gammas are displayed. For three-way to n-way tables, conditional gammas are displayed.

Eta. A measure of association that ranges from 0 to 1, with 0 indicating no association between the row and column variables and values close to 1 indicating a high degree of association. Eta is appropriate for a dependent variable measured on an interval scale (eg income) and an independent variable with a limited number of categories (eg gender). Two eta values are computed: one treats the row variable as the interval variable; the other treats the column variable as the interval variable. Only the more appropriate one is reported in the relevant tables. Eta is broadly equivalent to a non-linear Pearson's product moment correlation.

Multiple classification analysis is a procedure for reporting the results of multiple analyses of variance. Both etas and betas (eta controlling for the other independent variables in an equation) are used to assess extent of causal impact.

Factor analysis attempts to identify underlying variables, or factors, that explain the pattern of correlations within a set of observed variables. Factor analysis is often used in data reduction to identify a small number of factors that explain most of the variance observed in a much larger number of manifest variables. In this study:

- > the principal components method of factor extraction was used
- > the varimax method of rotation was used
- > factor scores were not computed.

Discriminant analysis is useful for situations where you want to build a predictive model of group membership based on observed characteristics of each case. The procedure generates a discriminant function (or, for more than two groups, a set of discriminant functions) based on linear combinations of the predictor variables that provide the best discrimination between the groups. The functions are generated from a sample of cases for which group membership is known; the functions can then be applied to new cases with measurements for the predictor variables but unknown group membership.

Appendix C to Section 10: Variables in the analysis

The main 'dependent' variables examined include:

- > whether or not the household contains more than its CEU
- > whether a person lives with a partner
- > number of children
- > age of female spouse/wife
- > a typology of household family life cycle stages.

The main independent variables which are assumed to shape households are amongst the array provided in this data-set. These include (grouped into similar types and identified as either antecedent or consequent):

Location (antecedent)

- 1 Region
- 2 Region North/South Island
- 3 Urban/rural

Household type (consequent)

- 4 Lives with partner
- 5 Number of couples not in CEU
- 6 Number of dependent children in CEU
- 7 Dependent children in CEU
- 8 Number of children (grouped)
- 10 Household size

SOL level and satisfactions (consequent)

- 11 Economic Living Standard Index (ELSI): grouped
- 12 Standard of living (SOL) level
- 13 SOL satisfaction rating
- 14 How happy
- 15 Satisfied/dissatisfied

Dwelling characteristics (consequent)

- 16 Number of bedrooms
- 17 House ownership
- 18 Tenure
- 19 Debt on house
- 20 Government valuation
- 21 Mortgage paid

Respondent characteristics (antecedent)

- 22 Gender of respondent
- 23 Age group of respondent
- 24 Prioritised ethnicity of CEU
- 32 Identify as Māori
- 25 Age left school
- 26 Highest school qualification
- 27 Education (highest educational qualification)
- 28 Respondent main income earner (MIE)
- 29 MIE in full-time job
- 30 MIE ever had full-time job
- 31 Occupation grouped
- 32 New Zealand socio-economic index (NZSEI) classification, grouped
- 33 Equivalent income quintile
- 34 Received income-tested benefit

Several of these variables are items that have been constructed (by MSD) for standard of living studies. Notes on some of their measurement procedures follow.

A **child** is defined as a person aged less than 18 years who is dependent and who does not have a partner or child of their own. By contrast, a person aged less than 18 who is self-supporting or has a partner or a child is counted as a separate economic family unit (or part of a separate unit). It is acknowledged that different people define child dependency in different ways.

The **Economic Living Standard Index**, or **ELSI** (developed in MSD 2002a) is based on what people are consuming, their various forms of recreation and social participation, their household facilities and so on, rather than being calculated from the resources (income, financial and assets) that enable them to do those things. The development of this scale involved identifying a set of items that individually have a strong relationship to living standards and determining the best way of combining them to produce a scale that is valid for its intended purpose and offers the maximum amount of accuracy.

NZSEI is a scaling of occupations developed for Statistics NZ.

Equivalentised incomes are achieved by recalculating household income in terms of numbers and types of people (adult, child) in the household. It is then divided into quintiles.

A subset of eight of these variables is used in some of the multivariate equations (see section 5) used to summarise the analytical relationships and reported in the summative sections of this study. The subset is considered more causally important, to be more clearly 'numeric' (which is useful in multivariate analyses) and also is chosen to represent a wide range of types of variable. They include household size, the ELSI score (ungrouped), SOL standard, life satisfaction, tenure, education, Māori (or ethnicity) and equivalentised income.

APPENDIX THREE: FULL VERSIONS OF CHAPTER 11 TABLES

Table 7b: Factor analysis of relationship types (full details version)

Descriptive statistics

	Mean	Std. deviation	Analysis N
Spouse	1.245	.954	3217332
Child	1.490	1.384	3217332
Child-in-law	.010	.101	3217332
Parent/parent-in-law	.292	.585	3217332
Grandparent	.005	.077	3217332
Grandchild	.029	.224	3217332
Sibling	.178	.607	3217332
Uncle/aunt	.007	.105	3217332
Nephew/niece	.041	.313	3217332
Foster-child	.005	.109	3217332
Boarder/lodger	.055	.341	3217332
Flatmate	.226	.831	3217332
Visitor	.001	.052	3217332
Other	.031	.308	3217332
Sole	.049	.217	3217332

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
Spouse	1.000	.873
Child	1.000	.615
Child-in-law	1.000	.792
Parent-in-law	1.000	.831
Grandparent	1.000	.836
Grandchild	1.000	.665
Sibling	1.000	.630
Uncle/aunt	1.000	.228
Nephew/niece	1.000	.539
Foster-child	1.000	.603
Boarder/lodger	1.000	.945
Flatmate	1.000	.884
Visitor	1.000	.104
Other	1.000	.549
Sole	1.000	.901

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

Total variance explained

Component	Initial Eigen values			Extraction sums of squared loadings			Rotation sums of squared loadings		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	1.963	13.084	13.084	1.963	13.084	13.084	1.799	11.990	11.990
2	1.541	10.276	23.361	1.541	10.276	23.361	1.381	9.206	21.196
3	1.331	8.876	32.237	1.331	8.876	32.237	1.257	8.383	29.578
4	1.065	7.100	39.337	1.065	7.100	39.337	1.249	8.327	37.906
5	1.051	7.009	46.346	1.051	7.009	46.346	1.131	7.541	45.447
6	1.028	6.852	53.197	1.028	6.852	53.197	1.117	7.445	52.891
7	1.009	6.728	59.926	1.009	6.728	59.926	1.039	6.925	59.816
8	1.004	6.695	66.621	1.004	6.695	66.621	1.021	6.805	66.621
9	.999	6.658	73.279						
10	.995	6.631	79.909						
11	.984	6.562	86.471						
12	.751	5.007	91.478						
13	.650	4.331	95.809						
14	.503	3.355	99.164						
15	.125	.836	100.000						

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

Component matrix (a)

	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Spouse	-.878	.104	-.217	.003	.202	-.032	.033	.016
Parent-in-law	.685	.472	-.112	-.032	-.247	-.139	-.192	-.093
Sibling	.616	.318	-.336	.011	.184	-.011	.050	.012
Child	-.395	.616	-.083	.017	-.267	-.023	.021	.017
Grandchild	.018	.397	.693	.013	.147	.056	.033	.011
Child-in-law	-.020	.252	.539	-.008	.371	.011	-.503	.214
Sole	.221	-.454	.227	-.746	-.002	-.126	.112	.100
Flatmate	.243	-.530	.245	.674	.090	-.093	.055	-.097
Nephew/niece	.210	.155	-.305	.067	.499	.275	.173	.137
Uncle/aunt	.152	.017	-.103	-.012	.366	.014	.154	.189
Boarder/lodger	.044	-.132	.022	-.064	-.167	.911	-.178	-.180
Grandparent	.055	.274	.399	.024	-.104	.092	.713	-.264
Visitor	-.036	-.013	-.020	-.009	.112	-.073	.208	.200
Foster-child	-.034	-.020	-.033	-.033	.098	-.243	-.243	-.687
Other	.060	-.047	.056	.207	-.482	-.031	-.045	.511

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

(a) Eight components extracted.

Rotated component matrix (a)

	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Parent/parent-in-law	.894	.135	.084	.042	-.054	-.005	-.041	.017
Spouse	-.745	.394	.320	-.058	.033	-.114	-.150	.139
Sibling	.635	.042	.070	-.094	.452	-.025	-.043	.067
Flatmate	-.036	-.926	.128	-.014	-.048	.044	-.053	-.032
Child	-.041	.578	.447	.046	-.191	.156	-.095	-.087
Sole	-.005	.031	-.947	-.019	-.044	.013	-.040	-.006
Child-in-law	-.010	.007	.008	.869	.030	-.187	-.003	.017
Grandchild	.037	.035	.028	.687	-.042	.433	-.009	-.012
Nephew/niece	.082	.017	.116	-.028	.709	-.015	.117	.038
Uncle/aunt	.018	-.046	-.067	.036	.458	-.009	-.097	-.026
Visitor	-.105	.009	-.054	-.029	.190	.073	-.166	-.140
Grandparent	.026	.011	.010	.000	.007	.913	-.013	.021
Boarder/lodger	-.030	.001	-.007	-.020	-.028	.009	.971	-.025
Foster-child	.076	-.067	.057	-.033	-.269	-.068	-.057	.713
Other	.102	-.067	.074	-.035	-.241	-.098	-.056	-.676

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser normalization.

(a) Rotation converged in six iterations.

Component transformation matrix

	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	.862	-.346	-.263	-.005	.240	.043	.076	-.051
2	.372	.633	.494	.339	.116	.273	-.113	.028
3	-.112	-.265	-.242	.733	-.332	.451	.017	-.087
4	-.016	-.610	.772	-.002	.004	.029	-.064	-.165
5	-.237	-.151	-.042	.365	.753	-.122	-.138	.431
6	-.114	.061	.087	.032	.243	.116	.938	-.150
7	-.165	-.023	-.105	-.419	.321	.786	-.200	-.157
8	-.094	.103	-.109	.193	.300	-.271	-.195	-.854

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser normalization.

Table 8b Discriminant analysis against household type (full details version)
Group statistics

Household type		Mean	Std dev.	Valid N	Unweighted
Single	Spouse	.000	.000	513	160,240.477
	Child	.000	.000	513	160,240.477
	Child-in-law	.000	.000	513	160,240.477
	Parent-in-law	.000	.000	513	160,240.477
	Grandparent	.000	.000	513	160,240.477
	Grandchild	.000	.000	513	160,240.477
	Sibling	.000	.000	513	160,240.477
	Uncle/aunt	.000	.000	513	160,240.477
	Nephew/niece	.000	.000	513	160,240.477
	Foster-child	.000	.000	513	160,240.477
	Boarder/lodger	.000	.000	513	160,240.477
	Flatmate	.000	.000	513	160,240.477
	Visitor	.000	.000	513	160,240.477
	Other	.000	.000	513	160,240.477
	Sole	1.000	.000	513	160,240.477
Couple	Spouse	2.000	.000	861	448,385.031
	Child	.000	.000	861	448,385.031
	Child-in-law	.000	.000	861	448,385.031
	Parent-in-law	.000	.000	861	448,385.031
	Grandparent	.000	.000	861	448,385.031
	Grandchild	.000	.000	861	448,385.031
	Sibling	.000	.000	861	448,385.031
	Uncle/aunt	.000	.000	861	448,385.031
	Nephew/niece	.000	.000	861	448,385.031
	Foster-child	.000	.000	861	448,385.031
	Boarder/lodger	.000	.000	861	448,385.031
	Flatmate	.000	.000	861	448,385.031
	Visitor	.000	.000	861	448,385.031
	Other	.000	.000	861	448,385.031
	Sole	.000	.000	861	448,385.031
Sole parent	Spouse	.000	.000	311	213,782.087
	Child	2.329	1.210	311	213,782.087
	Child-in-law	.000	.000	311	213,782.087
	Parent-in-law	.988	.107	311	213,782.087
	Grandparent	.000	.000	311	213,782.087
	Grandchild	.004	.063	311	213,782.087
	Sibling	.013	.166	311	213,782.087
	Uncle/aunt	.000	.000	311	213,782.087
	Nephew/niece	.001	.025	311	213,782.087
	Foster-child	.009	.129	311	213,782.087
	Boarder/lodger	.000	.000	311	213,782.087
	Flatmate	.000	.000	311	213,782.087
	Visitor	.000	.000	311	213,782.087
	Other	.000	.000	311	213,782.087
	Sole	.000	.000	311	213,782.087
Parent+kid/s	Spouse	1.989	.102	1,096	1,064,929.776
	Child	2.316	1.099	1,096	1,064,929.776
	Child-in-law	.000	.000	1,096	1,064,929.776
	Parent-in-law	.011	.110	1,096	1,064,929.776
	Grandparent	.000	.000	1,096	1,064,929.776
	Grandchild	.007	.128	1,096	1,064,929.776
	Sibling	.000	.000	1,096	1,064,929.776
	Uncle/aunt	.000	.000	1,096	1,064,929.776
	Nephew/niece	.003	.109	1,096	1,064,929.776
	Foster-child	.014	.176	1,096	1,064,929.776
	Boarder/lodger	.000	.000	1,096	1,064,929.776
	Flatmate	.000	.000	1,096	1,064,929.776
	Visitor	.000	.000	1,096	1,064,929.776
	Other	.000	.000	1,096	1,064,929.776
	Sole	.000	.000	1,096	1,064,929.776

Household type		Mean	Std dev.	Valid N	Unweighted
Sole parent plus	Spouse	.000	.000	98	166,906.082
	Child	2.403	1.364	98	166,906.082
	Child-in-law	.032	.175	98	166,906.082
	Parent-in-law	.622	.598	98	166,906.082
	Grandparent	.058	.235	98	166,906.082
	Grandchild	.163	.369	98	166,906.082
	Sibling	.548	1.031	98	166,906.082
	Uncle/aunt	.010	.099	98	166,906.082
	Nephew/niece	.096	.294	98	166,906.082
	Foster-child	.000	.000	98	166,906.082
	Boarder/lodger	.274	.752	98	166,906.082
	Flatmate	.143	.648	98	166,906.082
	Visitor	.000	.000	98	166,906.082
	Other	.277	1.044	98	166,906.082
Parents+kid/s plus	Sole	.000	.000	98	166,906.082
	Spouse	1.828	.377	151	316,972.564
	Child	2.752	1.162	151	316,972.564
	Child-in-law	.018	.136	151	316,972.564
	Parent-in-law	.277	.591	151	316,972.564
	Grandparent	.002	.046	151	316,972.564
	Grandchild	.020	.155	151	316,972.564
	Sibling	.310	.834	151	316,972.564
	Uncle/aunt	.004	.084	151	316,972.564
	Nephew/niece	.154	.451	151	316,972.564
	Foster-child	.003	.061	151	316,972.564
	Boarder/lodger	.110	.362	151	316,972.564
	Flatmate	.023	.179	151	316,972.564
	Visitor	.014	.168	151	316,972.564
Other	.011	.104	151	316,972.564	
Other	Sole	.000	.000	151	316,972.564
	Spouse	.486	.839	649	846,116.279
	Child	.658	.672	649	846,116.279
	Child-in-law	.025	.159	649	846,116.279
	Parent-in-law	.621	.818	649	846,116.279
	Grandparent	.008	.103	649	846,116.279
	Grandchild	.059	.358	649	846,116.279
	Sibling	.452	.864	649	846,116.279
	Uncle/aunt	.022	.193	649	846,116.279
	Nephew/niece	.074	.504	649	846,116.279
	Foster-child	.000	.000	649	846,116.279
	Boarder/lodger	.113	.512	649	846,116.279
	Flatmate	.821	1.431	649	846,116.279
	Visitor	.000	.000	649	846,116.279
Other	.060	.356	649	846,116.279	
Total	Sole	.000	.000	649	846,116.279
	Spouse	1.245	.954	3,679	3,217,332.295
	Child	1.490	1.384	3,679	3,217,332.295
	Child-in-law	.010	.101	3,679	3,217,332.295
	Parent-in-law	.292	.585	3,679	3,217,332.295
	Grandparent	.005	.077	3,679	3,217,332.295
	Grandchild	.029	.224	3,679	3,217,332.295
	Sibling	.178	.607	3,679	3,217,332.295
	Uncle/aunt	.007	.105	3,679	3,217,332.295
	Nephew/niece	.041	.313	3,679	3,217,332.295
	Foster-child	.005	.109	3,679	3,217,332.295
	Boarder/lodger	.055	.341	3,679	3,217,332.295
	Flatmate	.226	.831	3,679	3,217,332.295
	Visitor	.001	.052	3,679	3,217,332.295
Other	.031	.308	3,679	3,217,332.295	
	Sole	.049	.217	3,679	3,217,332.295

Tests of equality of group means

	Wilks' lambda	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Spouse	.223	1,872,471.036	6	3217325	.000
Child	.439	685,130.983	6	3217325	.000
Child-in-law	.985	8,153.771	6	3217325	.000
Parent-in-law	.683	248,761.240	6	3217325	.000
Grandparent	.972	15,337.230	6	3217325	.000
Grandchild	.970	16,715.953	6	3217325	.000
Sibling	.873	78,098.874	6	3217325	.000
Uncle/aunt	.991	4,680.635	6	3217325	.000
Nephew/niece	.973	14,667.425	6	3217325	.000
Foster-child	.997	1,835.053	6	3217325	.000
Boarder/lodger	.953	26,358.177	6	3217325	.000
Flatmate	.815	121,405.726	6	3217325	.000
Visitor	.993	3,667.595	6	3217325	.000
Other	.958	23,424.980	6	3217325	.000
Sole	.(a)				

(a) Cannot be computed because this variable is constant in each group.

Eigenvalues

Function	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %	Canonical correlation
1	3.986(a)	61.6	61.6	.894
2	1.355(a)	20.9	82.6	.758
3	.912(a)	14.1	96.7	.691
4	.143(a)	2.2	98.9	.353
5	.050(a)	.8	99.6	.218
6	.024(a)	.4	100.0	.153

(a) First six canonical discriminant functions were used in the analysis.

Summary of canonical discriminant functions

Standardised canonical discriminant function coefficients

	Function					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Spouse	1.246	-.039	.586	-.122	.148	-.042
Child	.116	1.012	-.306	.030	-.176	-.043
Child-in-law	-.111	.086	.168	.103	-.049	.195
Parent-in-law	.383	.238	1.015	-.820	.510	-.038
Grandparent	-.009	.019	.139	.219	.363	-.226
Grandchild	-.009	-.015	.236	.245	.135	-.236
Sibling	.188	.293	.402	.626	-.211	.164
Uncle/aunt	.094	.062	.209	-.033	-.093	-.067
Nephew/niece	.049	.106	.151	.019	.076	.572
Foster-child	.028	.106	-.064	-.027	-.088	-.142
Boarder/lodger	.153	.328	.510	.270	.268	.116
Flatmate	.441	.419	1.097	-.112	-.519	-.263
Visitor	.015	.092	.017	.025	.028	.466
Other	.064	.163	.323	.300	.417	-.335

Structure matrix

	Function					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Spouse	.922*	-.175	-.262	.105	.078	-.002
Child	.193	.849*	-.405	-.117	.070	-.111
Parent-in-law	-.247	.227	.306	-.617*	.457	.132
Boarder/lodger	-.050	.083	.125	.296*	.234	.154
Grandchild	-.045	.059	.085	.244*	.195	-.243
Flatmate	-.112	-.009	.402	.003	-.733*	-.282
Other	-.052	.063	.066	.316	.363*	-.335
Grandparent	-.038	.053	.033	.267	.348*	-.270
Uncle/aunt	-.023	.005	.080	.023	-.110*	-.024
Nephew/niece	-.012	.068	.096	.134	.034	.630*
Visitor	.012	.028	.007	.022	.030	.458*
Sibling	-.091	.105	.295	.324	-.006	.346*
Foster-child	.015	.021	-.032	-.040	-.069	-.141*
Child-in-law	-.028	.035	.094	.112	.003	.128*

Pooled within groups correlations between discriminating variables and standardised canonical discriminant functions.

Variables ordered by absolute size of correlation within function.

* Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function.

Functions at group centroids

Household type	Function					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Single	-4.090	-2.005	-2.399	.488	-.334	.203
Couple	1.441	-2.177	.203	-.056	.322	.016
Sole parent	-3.006	1.067	-1.095	-1.093	.250	.003
Parent+kid/s	1.719	.400	-.558	.009	-.120	-.113
Sole parent plus	-2.866	1.805	-.180	.977	.538	-.176
Parents+kid/s plus	1.716	1.399	.222	.113	.055	.404
Other	-1.471	-.119	1.279	-.034	-.146	-.022

Unstandardised canonical discriminant functions evaluated at group means.

Classification results (a) Household type

Predicted /original I count								Total
	Single	Couple	Sole parent	Parent+ kid/s	Sole parent plus	Parents +kid/s plus	Other	
Single	160,240	0	0	0	0	0	0	160,240
Couple	0	448,385	0	0	0	0	0	448,385
Sole parent	2,494	0	211,288	0	0	0	0	213,782
Parent+kid/s	0	216,744	0	705,979	0	138,047	4,159	1,064,930
Sole parent plus	722	0	56,901	0	98,548	0	10,735	166,906
Parents+kid/s plus	0	553	0	133,425	301	159,575	23,118	316,973
Other	34,519	132,867	90,210	34,383	72,239	15,380	466,519	846,116
Single	100.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	100.0
Couple	.0	100.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	100.0
Sole parent	1.2	.0	98.8	.0	.0	.0	.0	100.0
Parent+kid/s	.0	20.4	.0	66.3	.0	13.0	.4	100.0
Sole parent plus	.4	.0	34.1	.0	59.0	.0	6.4	100.0
Parents+kid/s plus	.0	.2	.0	42.1	.1	50.3	7.3	100.0
Other	4.1	15.7	10.7	4.1	8.5	1.8	55.1	100.0

(a) 70 percent of original grouped cases correctly classified.

APPENDIX FOUR: TABLES LINKED TO CHAPTER 12

A. CEU/more in household

Table 17 Urban/rural * CEU/more in household

Crosstab

% within Urban/rural

		CEU/more in HH		Total
		CEU only	CEU plus	
Urban/rural	Major urban area	52.5%	47.5%	100.0%
	Minor urban	70.9%	29.1%	100.0%
	Rural	75.1%	24.9%	100.0%
Total		58.7%	41.3%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.393	.001	-363.572	.000
N of valid cases		3216534			

- (a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 18 Lives with partner * CEU/more in household

Crosstab

% within Lives with partner

		CEU/more in HH		Total
		CEU only	CEU plus	
Lives with partner	No	32.0%	68.0%	100.0%
	Yes	73.9%	26.1%	100.0%
Total		58.7%	41.3%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.524	.001	-669.866	.000
N of valid cases		3216536			

- (a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 19 Number of children (grouped) * CEU/more in household

Crosstab

% within No kids (grouped)

		CEU/more in HH		Total
		CEU only	CEU plus	
No kids (grouped)	.00	42.0%	58.0%	100.0%
	1.00	54.8%	45.2%	100.0%
	2.00	78.4%	21.6%	100.0%
	3.00	80.2%	19.8%	100.0%
Total		58.7%	41.3%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.524	.001	-669.866	.000
N of valid cases		3216536			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 20 Household size * CEU/more in household

Crosstab

% within Household size

		CEU/more in HH		Total
		CEU only	CEU plus	
Household size	1.00	100.0%		100.0%
	2.00	74.0%	26.0%	100.0%
	3.00	43.5%	56.5%	100.0%
	4.00	63.4%	36.6%	100.0%
	5.00	51.7%	48.3%	100.0%
	6.00	40.2%	59.8%	100.0%
Total		58.7%	41.3%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.286	.001	383.081	.000
N of valid cases		3216536			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 21 ELSI grouped * CEU/more in household

Crosstab

% within elsi gpd

		CEU/more in HH		Total
		CEU only	CEU plus	
elsi gpd	V restricted	56.2%	43.8%	100.0%
	Restricted	58.7%	41.3%	100.0%
	Somewhat restricted	52.2%	47.8%	100.0%
	Fairly comfortable	55.9%	44.1%	100.0%
	Comfortable	56.8%	43.2%	100.0%
	Good	62.4%	37.6%	100.0%
	V Good	69.8%	30.2%	100.0%
Total		59.0%	41.0%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.117	.001	-148.058	.000
N of valid cases		3187518			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 22 How happy * CEU/more in household

Crosstab

% within How happy

		CEU/more in HH		
		CEU only	CEU plus	Total
How happy	Very happy	60.6%	39.4%	100.0%
	Happy	59.1%	40.9%	100.0%
	Neither happy nor unhappy	55.5%	44.5%	100.0%
	Unhappy	53.0%	47.0%	100.0%
	Very unhappy	34.2%	65.8%	100.0%
Total		58.7%	41.3%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.071	.001	73.481	.000
N of valid cases		3214911			

- (a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 23 Tenure * CEU/more in household

Crosstab

% within Tenure

		CEU/more in HH		
		CEU only	CEU plus	Total
Tenure	Ownership	63.9%	36.1%	100.0%
	Renting	28.2%	71.8%	100.0%
Total		58.7%	41.3%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.637	.001	434.698	.000
N of valid cases		3216535			

- (a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 24 Household member 1: Sex * CEU/more in household

Crosstab

% within H/hold member 1: Sex

		CEU/more in HH		
		CEU only	CEU plus	Total
H/hold member 1: Sex	Male	58.2%	41.8%	100.0%
	Female	59.2%	40.8%	100.0%
Total		58.7%	41.3%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.022	.001	-19.201	.000
N of valid cases		3216535			

- (a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 25 Age group of respondent * CEU/more in household

Crosstab

% within Age group of respondent

		CEU/more in HH		Total
		CEU only	CEU plus	
Age group of respondent	18-24	14.4%	85.6%	100.0%
	25-34	64.7%	35.3%	100.0%
	35-44	76.7%	23.3%	100.0%
	45-54	49.7%	50.3%	100.0%
	55-64	60.8%	39.2%	100.0%
Total		58.7%	41.3%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.219	.001	-262.075	.000
N of valid cases		3216535			

- (a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 26 Prioritised ethnicity of CEU * CEU/more in household

Crosstab

% within Prioritised ethnicity of CEU

		CEU/more in HH		Total
		CEU only	CEU plus	
Prioritised ethnicity of CEU	All Pākehā European	63.8%	36.2%	100.0%
	All Māori	42.9%	57.1%	100.0%
	All Pacific	14.8%	85.2%	100.0%
	All Other	39.4%	60.6%	100.0%
	Mixed Māori	70.8%	29.2%	100.0%
	Mixed Pacific	68.0%	32.0%	100.0%
	Mixed Other	82.9%	17.1%	100.0%
Total		58.7%	41.3%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.212	.001	209.065	.000
N of valid cases		3216535			

- (a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 27 Highest educational qualification * CEU/more in household

Crosstab

% within Highest educational qualification

		CEU/more in HH		Total
		CEU only	CEU plus	
Highest educational qualification	No school qualification	54.6%	45.4%	100.0%
	School qualification	54.8%	45.2%	100.0%
	Occupational certificate or diploma	61.6%	38.4%	100.0%
	Bachelor's degree or higher	62.9%	37.1%	100.0%
Total		58.8%	41.2%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.108	.001	-124.535	.000
N of valid cases		3211391			

- (a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 28 Received income-tested benefit * CEU/more in household

Crosstab
% within Received income-tested benefit

		CEU/more in HH		
		CEU only	CEU plus	Total
Received income-tested benefit	No	62.1%	37.9%	100.0%
	Yes	46.8%	53.2%	100.0%
Total		58.7%	41.3%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.301	.001	227.117	.000
N of valid cases		3216536			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
(b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

B. Lives with partner

Table 29 Urban/rural * Lives with partner

Crosstab
% within Urban/rural

		Lives with partner		
		No	Yes	Total
Urban/rural	Major urban area	38.4%	61.6%	100.0%
	Minor urban	34.8%	65.2%	100.0%
	Rural	27.6%	72.4%	100.0%
Total		36.3%	63.7%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.158	.001	138.114	.000
N of valid cases		3216537			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
(b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 30 Number of children (grouped) * Lives with partner

Crosstab
% within No kids (grouped)

		Lives with partner		
		No	Yes	Total
No kids (grouped)	.00	54.1%	45.9%	100.0%
	1.00	30.7%	69.3%	100.0%
	2.00	16.5%	83.5%	100.0%
	3.00	20.1%	79.9%	100.0%
Total		36.3%	63.7%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.530	.001	642.759	.000
N of valid cases		3216536			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
(b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 31 Household size * Lives with partner

Crosstab

% within Household size

		Lives with partner		
		No	Yes	Total
Household size	1.00	100.0%		100.0%
	2.00	33.9%	66.1%	100.0%
	3.00	48.5%	51.5%	100.0%
	4.00	28.4%	71.6%	100.0%
	5.00	22.8%	77.2%	100.0%
	6.00	26.7%	73.3%	100.0%
Total		36.3%	63.7%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.317	.001	404.144	.000
N of valid cases		3216536			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 32 ELSI grouped * Lives with partner

Crosstab

% within elsi gpd

		Lives with partner		
		No	Yes	Total
elsi gpd	V restricted	74.3%	25.7%	100.0%
	Restricted	51.4%	48.6%	100.0%
	Somewhat restricted	47.4%	52.6%	100.0%
	Fairly comfortable	38.1%	61.9%	100.0%
	Comfortable	33.5%	66.5%	100.0%
	Good	28.6%	71.4%	100.0%
	V Good	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
Total		36.1%	63.9%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.286	.001	358.907	.000
N of valid cases		3187517			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 33 How happy * Lives with partner

Crosstab

% within How happy

		Lives with partner		
		No	Yes	Total
How happy	Very happy	28.6%	71.4%	100.0%
	Happy	36.1%	63.9%	100.0%
	Neither happy nor unhappy	50.4%	49.6%	100.0%
	Unhappy	65.0%	35.0%	100.0%
	Very unhappy	42.0%	58.0%	100.0%
Total		36.3%	63.7%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.266	.001	-275.099	.000
N of valid cases		3214911			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 34 Tenure * Lives with partner

Crosstab

% within Tenure

		Lives with partner		
		No	Yes	Total
Tenure	Ownership	29.7%	70.3%	100.0%
	Renting	74.7%	25.3%	100.0%
Total		36.3%	63.7%	100.0%

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.750	.001	-526.293	.000
N of valid cases		3216535			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 35 Household member 1: Sex * Lives with partner

Crosstab

% within H/hold member 1: Sex

		Lives with partner		
		No	Yes	Total
H/hold member 1: Sex	Male	34.1%	65.9%	100.0%
	Female	38.2%	61.8%	100.0%
Total		36.3%	63.7%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.089	.001	-76.497	.000
N of valid cases		3216535			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 36 Age group of respondent * Lives with partner

Crosstab

% within Age group of respondent

		Lives with partner		
		No	Yes	Total
Age group of respondent	18-24	82.2%	17.8%	100.0%
	25-34	34.3%	65.7%	100.0%
	35-44	24.3%	75.7%	100.0%
	45-54	28.7%	71.3%	100.0%
	55-64	31.7%	68.3%	100.0%
Total		36.3%	63.7%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.368	.001	440.362	.000
N of valid cases		3216535			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 37 Prioritised ethnicity of CEU * Lives with partner

Crosstab

% within Prioritised ethnicity of CEU

		Lives with partner		Total
		No	Yes	
Prioritised ethnicity of CEU	All Pākehā European	33.7%	66.3%	100.0%
	All Māori	64.7%	35.3%	100.0%
	All Pacific	45.8%	54.2%	100.0%
	All Other	41.6%	58.4%	100.0%
	Mixed Māori	18.2%	81.8%	100.0%
	Mixed Pacific	15.8%	84.2%	100.0%
	Mixed Other	7.0%	93.0%	100.0%
Total		36.3%	63.7%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.053	.001	-51.150	.000
N of valid cases		3216535			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.

(b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 38 Highest educational qualification * Lives with partner

Crosstab

% within Highest educational qualification

		Lives with partner		Total
		No	Yes	
Highest educational qualification	No school qualification	46.2%	53.8%	100.0%
	School qualification	42.7%	57.3%	100.0%
	Occupational certificate or diploma	31.6%	68.4%	100.0%
	Bachelor's degree or higher	26.4%	73.6%	100.0%
Total		36.2%	63.8%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.236	.001	270.728	.000
N of valid cases		3211391			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.

(b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 39 Received income-tested benefit * Lives with partner

Crosstab

% within Received income-tested benefit

		Lives with partner		Total
		No	Yes	
Received income-tested benefit	No	25.7%	74.3%	100.0%
	Yes	73.0%	27.0%	100.0%
Total		36.3%	63.7%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.773	.001	-686.985	.000
N of valid cases		3216536			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.

(b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

C. Number of children

Table 40 Urban/rural * Number of children (grouped)

		No kids (grouped)				Total
		.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	
Urban/rural	Major urban area	46.6%	14.8%	20.5%	18.0%	100.0%
	Minor urban	42.2%	15.1%	30.6%	12.1%	100.0%
	Rural	41.7%	15.4%	21.4%	21.5%	100.0%
Total		45.2%	14.9%	22.2%	17.6%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.056	.001	64.253	.000
N of valid cases		3216536			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.

(b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 41 Lives with partner * Number of children (grouped)

		No kids (grouped)				Total
		.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	
Lives with partner	No	67.5%	12.7%	10.1%	9.8%	100.0%
	Yes	32.6%	16.2%	29.1%	22.1%	100.0%
Total		45.2%	14.9%	22.2%	17.6%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.530	.001	642.759	.000
N of valid cases		3216536			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.

(b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 42 Household size * Number of children (grouped)

		No kids (grouped)				Total
		.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	
Household size	1.00	100.0%				100.0%
	2.00	92.1%	7.9%			100.0%
	3.00	48.8%	38.6%	12.6%		100.0%
	4.00	24.3%	9.9%	59.4%	6.4%	100.0%
	5.00	19.8%	9.9%	18.1%	52.2%	100.0%
	6.00	11.0%	8.9%	12.0%	68.1%	100.0%
Total		45.2%	14.9%	22.2%	17.6%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.776	.000	1848.968	.000
N of valid cases		3216536			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.

(b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 43 ELSI grouped * Number of children (grouped)

Crosstab

% within elsi gpd

		No kids (grouped)				Total
		.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	
elsi gpd	V restricted	36.9%	14.7%	23.0%	25.3%	100.0%
	Restricted	31.7%	15.4%	31.0%	21.8%	100.0%
	Somewhat restricted	30.9%	16.9%	21.0%	31.2%	100.0%
	Fairly comfortable	37.0%	19.9%	23.6%	19.4%	100.0%
	Comfortable	47.4%	14.0%	23.9%	14.7%	100.0%
	Good	53.6%	13.6%	21.1%	11.7%	100.0%
	V Good	57.3%	9.0%	14.9%	18.7%	100.0%
Total		45.1%	14.9%	22.3%	17.7%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.194	.001	-315.097	.000
N of valid cases		3187520			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.

(b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 44 How happy * Number of children (grouped)

Crosstab

% within How happy

		No kids (grouped)				Total
		.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	
How happy	Very happy	48.8%	12.9%	21.8%	16.5%	100.0%
	Happy	43.3%	15.8%	22.5%	18.4%	100.0%
	Neither happy nor unhappy	44.4%	16.3%	21.8%	17.5%	100.0%
	Unhappy	46.7%	19.5%	12.4%	21.5%	100.0%
	Very unhappy	33.5%	4.3%	51.5%	10.8%	100.0%
Total		45.2%	14.9%	22.2%	17.7%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.045	.001	59.726	.000
N of valid cases		3214914			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.

(b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 45 Tenure * Number of children (grouped)

Crosstab

% within Tenure

		No kids (grouped)				Total
		.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	
Tenure	Ownership	42.2%	15.6%	23.8%	18.3%	100.0%
	Renting	62.8%	10.9%	12.7%	13.5%	100.0%
Total		45.2%	14.9%	22.2%	17.6%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.304	.001	-234.425	.000
N of valid cases		3216536			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.

(b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 46 Household member 1: Sex * Number of children (grouped)

		Crosstab				Total
		No kids (grouped)				
		.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	
H/Hold member 1: Sex	Male	50.8%	13.2%	20.0%	16.1%	100.0%
	Female	40.3%	16.5%	24.2%	19.0%	100.0%
Total		45.2%	14.9%	22.2%	17.6%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.146	.001	168.072	.000
N of valid cases		3216536			

- (a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 47 Age group of respondent * Number of children (grouped)

		Crosstab				Total
		No kids (grouped)				
		.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	
Age group of respondent	18-24	79.2%	13.9%	4.4%	2.4%	100.0%
	25-34	40.6%	15.7%	24.8%	18.9%	100.0%
	35-44	16.8%	16.2%	35.2%	31.8%	100.0%
	45-54	53.1%	15.9%	19.6%	11.4%	100.0%
	55-64	88.8%	8.2%	2.4%	.5%	100.0%
Total		45.2%	14.9%	22.2%	17.6%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.006	.001	-9.397	.000
N of valid cases		3216537			

- (a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 48 Prioritised ethnicity of CEU * Number of children (grouped)

		Crosstab				Total
		No kids (grouped)				
		.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	
Prioritised ethnicity of CEU	All Pākehā European	49.0%	13.0%	22.3%	15.7%	100.0%
	All Māori	39.7%	15.4%	21.5%	23.4%	100.0%
	All Pacific	43.7%	17.8%	22.5%	16.0%	100.0%
	All Other	42.6%	29.5%	16.0%	11.8%	100.0%
	Mixed Māori	24.8%	18.9%	23.4%	32.9%	100.0%
	Mixed Pacific	30.8%	13.9%	19.7%	35.6%	100.0%
	Mixed Other	37.6%	16.3%	36.5%	9.6%	100.0%
Total		45.2%	14.9%	22.2%	17.6%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.153	.001	194.732	.000
N of valid cases		3216535			

- (a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 49 Highest educational qualification * Number of children (grouped)

Crosstab

% within Highest educational qualification

		No kids (grouped)				Total
		.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	
Highest educational qualification	No school qualification	50.3%	15.8%	17.7%	16.2%	100.0%
	School qualification	47.0%	13.1%	22.5%	17.5%	100.0%
	Occupational certificate or diploma	41.9%	15.0%	24.5%	18.5%	100.0%
	Bachelor's degree or higher	44.7%	17.1%	20.8%	17.4%	100.0%
Total		45.2%	14.9%	22.2%	17.7%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	.049	.001	72.795	.000
N of valid cases		3211391			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 50 Received income-tested benefit * Number of children (grouped)

Crosstab

% within Received income-tested benefit

		No kids (grouped)				Total
		.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	
Received income-tested benefit	No	44.6%	13.8%	23.8%	17.7%	100.0%
	Yes	47.3%	18.8%	16.6%	17.3%	100.0%
Total		45.2%	14.9%	22.2%	17.6%	100.0%

Symmetric measures

		Value	Asymp. std. error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. sig.
Ordinal by ordinal	Gamma	-.066	.001	-63.630	.000
N of valid cases		3216535			

(a) Not assuming the null hypothesis.
 (b) Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

D. Age of wife

Table 51 Age wife * Urban/rural

Crosstab

% within Urban/rural

		Urban/rural			Total
		Major urban area	Minor urban	Rural	
Age wife	.00	8.4%	11.2%	10.1%	9.1%
	18-24	11.1%	8.8%	4.6%	9.8%
	25-34	22.5%	23.1%	27.6%	23.3%
	35-44	28.4%	24.2%	28.9%	27.8%
	45-54	14.8%	15.1%	17.1%	15.2%
55-64	7.8%	7.7%	7.7%	7.8%	
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Age wife dependent	.020
Urban/rural dependent	.091

Table 52 Age wife * Lives with partner

% within Lives with partner

		Lives with partner		Total
		No	Yes	
Age	.00	13.7%	6.4%	9.1%
wife	18-24	19.2%	4.3%	9.8%
	25-34	20.4%	25.0%	23.3%
	35-44	16.3%	34.5%	27.8%
	45-54	13.0%	16.5%	15.2%
	55-64	7.2%	8.1%	7.8%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Age wife dependent	.091
		Lives with partner dependent	.338

Table 53 Age wife * Number of children (grouped)

% within Number of children (grouped)

		Number of children (grouped)				Total
		.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	
Age	.00	15.0%	2.9%	2.9%	2.6%	9.1%
wife	18-24	12.2%	15.9%	3.6%	4.5%	9.8%
	25-34	17.2%	26.5%	31.0%	31.3%	23.3%
	35-44	9.6%	33.5%	49.3%	56.0%	27.8%
	45-54	19.4%	16.8%	10.7%	5.6%	15.2%
	55-64	13.3%	4.4%	1.6%	.1%	7.8%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Age wife dependent	.132
		Number of children (grouped) dependent	.549

Table 54 Age wife * Household size

% within Household size

Crosstab

		Household size					Total	
		1.00	2.00	3.00	4.00	5.00		6.00
Age	.00	47.4%	2.1%	2.8%	1.7%		2.0%	9.1%
wife	18-24	.6%	10.2%	16.4%	7.8%	11.8%	13.3%	9.8%
	25-34	1.7%	27.2%	27.4%	33.1%	21.1%	23.4%	23.3%
	35-44	2.5%	14.7%	25.6%	37.1%	50.2%	44.9%	27.8%
	45-54	2.7%	24.5%	17.7%	16.9%	12.5%	12.9%	15.2%
	55-64	5.0%	20.0%	9.7%	3.4%	4.0%	1.4%	7.8%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Age wife dependent	.121
		Household size dependent	.613

Table 55 Age wife * ELSI grouped

Crosstab

% within ELSI grouped

		ELSI grouped						
		V restricted	Restricted	Somewhat restricted	Fairly comfortable	Comfortable	Good	V Good
Age wife	.00	4.3%	6.4%	6.1%	7.8%	7.2%	12.3%	11.5%
	18-24	6.8%	16.7%	14.3%	13.5%	10.5%	6.8%	4.6%
	25-34	41.8%	27.9%	31.0%	26.0%	24.8%	17.9%	15.2%
	35-44	20.1%	35.1%	27.9%	30.9%	26.8%	26.2%	30.1%
	45-54	19.7%	8.5%	12.1%	12.0%	15.2%	17.1%	20.0%
	55-64	5.9%	3.3%	4.8%	6.0%	9.0%	9.1%	9.6%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Age wife dependent	.136
		ELSI gpd dependent	.217

Table 56 Age wife * How happy

Crosstab

% within How happy

		How happy					Total
		Very happy	Happy	Neither happy nor unhappy	Unhappy	Very unhappy	
Age wife	.00	2.8%	4.7%	6.8%	9.1%	3.5%	4.4%
	18-24	11.7%	11.1%	10.0%	11.1%	5.2%	11.1%
	25-34	25.7%	26.4%	28.4%	20.3%	32.8%	26.4%
	35-44	32.1%	31.2%	30.1%	29.8%	43.0%	31.4%
	45-54	17.0%	17.6%	16.7%	16.1%	14.6%	17.2%
	55-64	10.0%	8.6%	6.7%	12.7%	.3%	8.8%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Age wife dependent	.043
		How happy dependent	.075

Table 57 Age wife * Tenure

% within Tenure

		Tenure		
		Ownership	Renting	Total
Age wife	.00	4.7%	2.9%	4.4%
	18-24	7.0%	35.0%	11.1%
	25-34	24.6%	37.0%	26.4%
	35-44	34.1%	16.1%	31.4%
	45-54	19.0%	6.5%	17.2%
	55-64	9.9%	2.4%	8.8%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Age wife dependent	.256
		Tenure dependent	.360

Table 58 Age wife * Household member 1: Sex

% within Household member 1: Sex

		H/Hold member 1: Sex		
		Male	Female	Total
Age	.00	19.6%		9.1%
wife	18-24	7.2%	12.1%	9.8%
	25-34	21.5%	24.8%	23.3%
	35-44	27.2%	28.3%	27.8%
	45-54	15.9%	14.6%	15.2%
	55-64	7.4%	8.2%	7.8%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Age wife dependent	.252
		H/Hold member 1: Sex dependent	.393

Table 59 Age wife * Age group of respondent

% within Age group of respondent

		18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	Total
Age	.00	2.0%	2.0%	6.2%	5.2%	6.9%	9.1%
wife	18-24	67.3%	4.0%	.9%	3.5%	1.1%	9.8%
	25-34	6.3%	81.6%	8.4%	3.0%	4.4%	23.3%
	35-44	8.9%	6.3%	81.3%	14.4%	.8%	27.8%
	45-54	11.8%	2.4%	1.5%	72.8%	13.9%	15.2%
	55-64	3.6%	2.7%	.9%	.8%	71.8%	7.8%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Age wife dependent	.485
		Age group of respondent dependent	.823

Table 60 Age wife * Prioritised ethnicity of CEU

Crosstab

% within Prioritised ethnicity of CEU

		Prioritised ethnicity of CEU						
		All Pākehā European	All Māori	All Pacific	All Other	Mixed Māori	Mixed Pacific	Mixed Other
Age	.00	5.3%	4.8%	.9%	2.5%	1.4%	.8%	
wife	18-24	8.7%	21.2%	16.8%	21.3%	9.6%	4.5%	1.3%
	25-34	24.4%	34.5%	25.1%	18.8%	36.2%	22.5%	41.5%
	35-44	31.9%	25.2%	27.0%	29.6%	36.2%	48.4%	36.8%
	45-54	18.6%	9.4%	19.9%	18.2%	12.9%	18.3%	16.4%
	55-64	10.5%	4.4%	9.3%	6.2%	3.4%	5.5%	2.9%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Age wife dependent	.137
		Prioritised ethnicity of CEU dependent	.128

Table 61 Age wife * Highest educational qualification

Crosstab

% within Highest educational qualification

	Highest educational qualification				Total	
	No school qualification	School qualification	Occupational certificate or diploma	Bachelor's degree or higher		
Age wife	.00	6.7%	4.4%	3.9%	3.6%	4.4%
18-24		11.4%	16.7%	8.6%	7.0%	11.1%
25-34		19.5%	25.6%	26.0%	34.8%	26.3%
35-44		22.1%	31.1%	33.5%	36.4%	31.5%
45-54		23.7%	14.7%	17.9%	13.5%	17.2%
55-64		16.1%	6.7%	9.2%	4.6%	8.8%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Age wife dependent	.110
		Highest educational qualification dependent	.172

Table 62 Age wife * Received income-tested benefit

% within Received income-tested benefit

	Received income-tested benefit		Total	
	No	Yes		
Age wife	.00	3.7%	7.1%	4.4%
18-24		8.3%	20.5%	11.1%
25-34		27.3%	23.3%	26.4%
35-44		34.5%	20.8%	31.4%
45-54		18.3%	13.4%	17.2%
55-64		7.3%	14.2%	8.8%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Age wife dependent	.072
		Received income-tested benefit dependent	.226

E. Characteristics of households by FLC stage

Table 63 Urban/rural * FLC stage

% within Urban/rural

	Urban/rural			Total	
	Major urban area	Minor urban	Rural		
FLC stage	Non-partnered	23.0%	20.4%	15.9%	21.6%
	Partnered, no children	16.5%	17.6%	20.3%	17.2%
	Partnered, infant	17.1%	18.4%	21.9%	18.0%
	Partnered, child	16.0%	15.0%	20.9%	16.6%
	Partnered, youth	5.0%	2.9%	3.8%	4.5%
	Non-partnered, infant	5.0%	5.3%	1.9%	4.6%
	Non-partnered, child	6.4%	6.4%	6.5%	6.4%
	Non-partnered, youth	4.5%	3.5%	3.2%	4.1%
	Other	6.4%	10.4%	5.5%	6.9%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Urban/rural dependent	.099
		FLC stage dependent	.018

Table 64 Lives with partner * FLC stage

Crosstab

% within Lives with partner

		Lives with partner		Total
		No	Yes	
FLC stage	Non-partnered	58.7%		21.6%
	Partnered, no children		27.2%	17.2%
	Partnered, infant		28.5%	18.0%
	Partnered, child		26.2%	16.6%
	Partnered, youth		7.1%	4.5%
	Non-partnered, infant	12.6%		4.6%
	Non-partnered, child	17.5%		6.4%
	Non-partnered, youth	11.2%		4.1%
	Other		11.0%	6.9%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	FLC stage dependent	.081
		Lives with partner dependent	1.000

Table 65 Number of children (grouped) * FLC stage

Crosstab

% within Number of children (grouped)

		Number of children (grouped)				Total
		.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	
FLC stage	Non-partnered	41.2%	1.3%	.7%		21.6%
	Partnered, no children	32.3%	.8%	1.0%	1.9%	17.2%
	Partnered, infant	.5%	33.7%	37.4%	38.2%	18.0%
	Partnered, child	.3%	17.4%	41.1%	38.7%	16.6%
	Partnered, youth	2.5%	17.2%	4.0%	1.0%	4.5%
	Non-partnered, infant	1.6%	9.7%	5.6%	9.0%	4.6%
	Non-partnered, child	3.0%	11.4%	9.5%	9.8%	6.4%
	Non-partnered, youth	5.2%	8.5%	.7%	1.3%	4.1%
	Other	13.5%				6.9%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	No kids (grouped) dependent	.806
		FLC stage dependent	.474

F. FLC stage

Table 66 Household size * FLC stage

Crosstab

% within FLC stage

		Household size						Total
		1.00	2.00	3.00	4.00	5.00	6.00	
FLC stage	Non-partnered	41.8%	21.0%	21.1%	11.0%	4.0%	1.1%	100.0%
	Partnered, no children		71.4%	17.6%	7.3%	3.0%	.7%	100.0%
	Partnered, infant			18.1%	37.6%	20.1%	24.3%	100.0%
	Partnered, child			10.9%	39.5%	31.9%	17.8%	100.0%
	Partnered, youth		.3%	33.1%	41.1%	18.0%	7.5%	100.0%
	Non-partnered, infant		5.8%	29.5%	27.4%	9.7%	27.6%	100.0%
	Non-partnered, child		12.5%	25.3%	32.9%	14.1%	15.3%	100.0%
	Non-partnered, youth	.7%	17.5%	36.3%	18.1%	19.5%	8.0%	100.0%
	Other	100.0%						100.0%
Total		16.0%	18.6%	18.6%	22.9%	13.2%	10.6%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Household size dependent	.632
		FLC stage dependent	.435

Table 67 ELSI grouped * FLC stage

% within ELSI grouped

		elsi gpd							Total
		V restricted	Restricted	Somewhat restricted	Fairly comfortable	Comfortable	Good	V Good	
FLC stage	Non-partnered	15.9%	21.0%	16.3%	19.3%	22.5%	24.7%	20.2%	21.5%
	Partnered, no children	5.9%	6.3%	7.4%	12.3%	17.6%	22.7%	28.8%	17.3%
	Partnered, infant	9.5%	16.6%	23.5%	25.9%	18.7%	14.0%	15.4%	18.2%
	Partnered, child	8.2%	22.3%	15.8%	16.7%	18.4%	16.6%	13.5%	16.7%
	Partnered, youth	1.3%	2.1%	3.4%	3.3%	5.0%	4.9%	7.3%	4.5%
	Non-partnered, infant	21.7%	15.1%	11.1%	6.9%	1.2%	1.1%	.3%	4.5%
	Non-partnered, child	25.7%	12.4%	12.5%	7.5%	5.7%	3.1%	.9%	6.5%
	Non-partnered, youth	11.1%	2.7%	7.0%	4.5%	4.8%	2.1%	3.0%	4.0%
	Other	.7%	1.4%	2.9%	3.7%	6.1%	10.8%	10.6%	6.8%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	elsi gpd dependent	.371
		FLC stage dependent	.257

Table 68 How happy * FLC stage

Crosstab

% within How happy

		How happy					Total
		Very happy	Happy	Neither happy nor unhappy	Unhappy	Very unhappy	
FLC stage	Non-partnered	17.4%	18.5%	24.5%	23.6%	21.4%	19.2%
	Partnered, no children	24.9%	19.2%	10.5%	7.6%	7.6%	19.5%
	Partnered, infant	22.1%	20.0%	19.3%	5.3%	29.7%	20.4%
	Partnered, child	18.5%	19.5%	16.2%	17.7%	20.6%	18.7%
	Partnered, youth	5.8%	5.2%	3.6%	4.5%		5.1%
	Non-partnered, infant	2.6%	5.7%	8.5%	7.3%	17.3%	5.2%
	Non-partnered, child	5.6%	6.7%	12.1%	15.3%	3.3%	7.3%
	Non-partnered, youth	2.9%	5.1%	5.2%	18.9%		4.7%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	How happy dependent	.186
		FLC stage dependent	.114

Table 69 Tenure * FLC stage

Crosstab

% within Tenure

		Tenure		Total
		Ownership	Renting	
FLC stage	Non-partnered	14.9%	44.1%	19.1%
	Partnered, no children	21.7%	6.3%	19.5%
	Partnered, infant	21.9%	11.5%	20.4%
	Partnered, child	20.9%	6.4%	18.7%
	Partnered, youth	5.8%	1.1%	5.1%
	Non-partnered, infant	4.1%	12.0%	5.2%
	Non-partnered, child	7.0%	9.1%	7.3%
	Non-partnered, youth	3.8%	9.5%	4.7%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Tenure dependent	.348
		FLC stage dependent	.010

Table 70 Household member 1: Sex * FLC stage

Crosstab

% within Household member 1: Sex

		H/Hold member 1: Sex		
		Male	Female	Total
FLC stage	Non-partnered	22.6%	20.6%	21.6%
	Partnered, no children	18.3%	16.3%	17.2%
	Partnered, infant	18.4%	17.7%	18.0%
	Partnered, child	16.9%	16.3%	16.6%
	Partnered, youth	4.9%	4.1%	4.5%
	Non-partnered, infant	1.7%	7.1%	4.6%
	Non-partnered, child	4.3%	8.3%	6.4%
	Non-partnered, youth	4.2%	4.0%	4.1%
	Other	8.5%	5.6%	6.9%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	H/Hold member 1: Sex dependent	.176
		FLC stage dependent	.119

Table 71 Age group of respondent * FLC stage

Crosstab

% within Age group of respondent

		18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	Total
		FLC stage	Non-partnered	43.8%	19.9%	8.3%	16.1%
Partnered, no children	6.1%		19.1%	8.3%	28.4%	58.3%	17.2%
Partnered, infant	10.1%		36.2%	26.9%	3.3%	1.7%	18.0%
Partnered, child	.5%		9.9%	36.4%	22.7%	3.2%	16.6%
Partnered, youth	1.1%		.4%	4.1%	16.8%	5.1%	4.5%
Non-partnered, infant	10.9%		7.4%	2.8%	4.0%	1.6%	4.6%
Non-partnered, child	9.0%		6.5%	9.4%	5.7%	3.2%	6.4%
Non-partnered, youth	18.5%		.6%	3.8%	3.0%	2.8%	4.1%
Other							6.9%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Age group of respondent dependent	.417
		FLC stage dependent	.232

Table 72 Prioritised ethnicity of CEU * FLC stage

Crosstab

% within Prioritised ethnicity of CEU

	All Pākehā European	All Māori	All Pacific	All Other	Mixed Māori	Mixed Pacific	Mixed Other	Total
FLC stage Non-partnered	20.1%	25.5%	27.2%	23.5%				19.1%
Partnered, no children	22.5%	5.2%	4.1%	10.5%	23.2%	28.9%	37.6%	19.5%
Partnered, infant	18.2%	16.1%	32.7%	25.2%	29.1%	32.0%	36.2%	20.4%
Partnered, child	19.9%	10.6%	15.2%	17.4%	24.0%	20.2%	15.3%	18.7%
Partnered, youth	5.6%	3.3%	2.1%	5.3%	5.4%	3.1%	3.9%	5.1%
Non-partnered, infant	3.0%	14.6%	8.0%	3.6%	13.1%	6.1%	.1%	5.2%
Non-partnered, child	5.9%	16.9%	7.4%	9.9%	4.3%	8.3%	3.5%	7.3%
Non-partnered, youth	4.7%	7.8%	3.3%	4.7%	.9%	1.4%	3.3%	4.7%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Prioritised ethnicity of CEU dependent	.165
		FLC stage dependent	.142

Table 73 Highest educational qualification * FLC stage

Crosstab

% within Highest educational qualification

	Highest educational qualification				Total
	No school qualification	School qualification	Occupational certificate or diploma	Bachelor's degree or higher	
FLC stage Non-partnered	17.7%	23.3%	16.8%	19.1%	19.2%
Partnered, no children	23.2%	15.0%	19.6%	23.5%	19.5%
Partnered, infant	11.5%	21.5%	20.2%	27.4%	20.4%
Partnered, child	15.0%	16.5%	22.4%	18.1%	18.8%
Partnered, youth	4.0%	4.2%	6.3%	4.5%	5.0%
Non-partnered, infant	8.9%	6.1%	4.3%	2.4%	5.2%
Non-partnered, child	13.4%	7.9%	6.1%	3.0%	7.3%
Non-partnered, youth	6.2%	5.5%	4.4%	2.1%	4.6%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Highest educational qualification dependent	.184
		FLC stage dependent	.117

Table 74 Received income-tested benefit * FLC stage

Crosstab

% within Received income-tested benefit

		Received income-tested benefit		Total
		No	Yes	
FLC stage	Non-partnered	17.5%	24.8%	19.1%
	Partnered, no children	22.0%	10.6%	19.5%
	Partnered, infant	23.9%	8.3%	20.4%
	Partnered, child	22.4%	6.2%	18.7%
	Partnered, youth	6.0%	2.0%	5.1%
	Non-partnered, infant	1.1%	19.5%	5.2%
	Non-partnered, child	4.3%	17.7%	7.3%
	Non-partnered, youth	2.8%	11.1%	4.7%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Directional measures

Nominal by interval	Eta	Received income-tested benefit dependent	.497
		FLC stage dependent	.257

Blue Skies Research

- 1/06 *Les Familles et Whānau sans Frontières: New Zealand and transnational family obligation*, Neil Lunt with Mervyl McPherson and Julee Browning, March 2006.
- 2/06 *Two Parents, Two Households: New Zealand data collections, language and complex parenting*, Paul Calister and Stuart Birks, March 2006.
- 3/06 *Grandfathers – Their Changing Family Roles and Contributions*, Dr Virginia Wilton and Dr Judith A. Davey, March 2006.
- 4/06 *Neighbourhood Environments that Support Families*, Dr Karen Witten, Liane Penney, Fuafiva Faalau and Victoria Jensen, May 2006.
- 5/06 *New Communication Technologies and Family Life*, Dr Ann Weatherall and Annabel Ramsay, May 2006.
- 6/06 *Families and Heavy Drinking: Impacts on children's wellbeing, Systematic Review*, Melissa Girling, John Huakau, Sally Casswell and Kim Conway, June 2005.
- 7/06 *Beyond Demography: History, ritual and families in the twenty-first century*, Jan Pryor, June 2005.
- 8/06 *Whānau is Whānau*, Tai Walker, Ngāti Porou, July 2006.
- 9/06 *Supervised Contact: The views of parents and staff at three Barnardos Contact Centres in the southern region of New Zealand*, Anita Gibbs and Margaret McKenzie, August 2006.
- 10/06 *New Zealanders' Satisfaction with Family Relationships and Parenting*, Jeremy Robertson, August 2006.
- 11/06 *Korean Migrant Families in Christchurch: Expectations and experiences*, Mrs Suzana Chang, Dr Carolyn Morris and Dr Richard Vokes, October 2006.
- 12/06 *The Role of Whānau in the Lives of Māori with Physical Disabilities*, Adelaide Collins and Huhana Hickey, September 2006.
- 13/06 *New Spaces and Possibilities: The adjustment to parenthood for new migrant mothers*, Ruth DeSouza, November 2006.
- 14/06 *New Zealand Cultural Norms of Parenting and Childcare and How These Relate to Labour Force Participation Decisions and Requirements*, Mervyl McPherson, November 2006.
- 15/06 *Towards a Statistical Typology of New Zealand Households and Families: The efficacy of the family life cycle model and alternatives*, Charles Crothers and Fiona McCormack, December 2006.

These reports are available on the Commission's website www.nzfamilies.org.nz or contact the Commission to request copies.

Families Commission
PO Box 2839
Wellington
Telephone: 04 917 7040
Email: enquiries@nzfamilies.org.nz

Wellington office

Public Trust Building, Level 5
117-125 Lambton Quay
PO Box 2839, Wellington
Phone 04 917 7040
Fax 04 917 7059

Email

enquiries@nzfamilies.org.nz

Website

www.nzfamilies.org.nz

Auckland office

Level 5, AMI House
63 Albert Street, Auckland
Phone 09 970 1700