

## **The Rise of Three-Generation Households among Two-Parent and Single-Parent Families**

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### **Abstract**

This study examined the formation of three-generation households among children living with one and two parents. Using panel data from the Household, Income, and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA) Survey, analyses suggested that certain child, parent, and household predictors increased or decreased odds that grandparents would eventually coreside with grandchildren and their adult children. The strongest predictors of coresidence or non-coresidence were the ages of children and mothers, maternal nativity status and earnings, and household size. This study revealed several factors salient to children's entries into three-generation households, which despite an ever-increasing prevalence, are still poorly understood.

Key words: Grandparents, Three-generation Households, Family Dynamics and Diversity.

## **The Rise of Three-Generation Households among Two- and Single-Parent Families**

In contrast to 30 years ago when approximately 60% of children lived only with married parents and siblings (Hernandez, 1993), more than 50% of children now grow up with only one parent, or with parents who cohabit, or with adults other than parents (Furukawa, 1994). The changes in children's living arrangements are important to study because children's wellbeing is related to the types of households in which they are raised. American children in female-headed households, for instance, are poorer, more prone to welfare use, more likely to drop out of school, and less successful when they become adults than children living in two-parent households (Garfinkel & McLanahan, 1986). Other research suggests that children living with both biological parents who cohabit are less likely to receive welfare than children living with single mothers or mothers cohabiting with unrelated males (Brandon, 1999). Also, studies suggest that children in foster homes do worse at school and later in adulthood than do children in parental homes (McDonald et al., 1993). Overall, compelling evidence suggests children's development, school achievements, economic wellbeing, and later adulthood achievement relate to their living arrangements.

Far from understood, however, are the mechanisms leading millions of children across several industrial countries to eventually live with their grandparents. In the United States alone 5.5 million children live with grandparents and, among children who live with neither parent, most live with grandparents (Hernandez, 1993; Furukawa, 1994). Although only a fraction of all children live in the households of grandparents with no parents present, the numbers are still large and constitute a major non-parental living arrangement (Lugailia, 1998).

Despite data from various countries showing that many children live with grandparents, few studies have attempted to identify factors which may predispose children to eventual

coresidence with grandparents. Understandably, this lack of knowledge stems from inadequate and under-developed sources of data on family diversity and change, including existing longitudinal sources of data. Essentially, the stock of existing longitudinal data possess sampling designs and survey items that restrict researchers' abilities to model family dynamics, especially transitions between two- to three-generation households.

Regardless of the drawbacks in existing sources of longitudinal data, we argue an attempt must be made to address this issue for contemporary family life. We recognise that our present study has pitfalls and the caveats need emphasis. Nevertheless, we believe that the present study identifies predictors of entries into coresidence between grandchildren and grandparents and provides pervasive evidence about the relative effects of these predictors. We conjecture that even with less than full information about the constellation of factors that can potentially bring grandparents and grandchildren to live under the same roof, there must be preexisting predictors pertaining to children, parents, and households that would increase the chances of three-generational household formation. We explore our conjectures using data from the Household, Income, and Labor Dynamics in Australia (HILDA) survey. The richness and panel structure of HILDA enables us to contribute to this research question and thereby lay the groundwork for new research. Further research could then address the complexities that this new ground-laying study has left unanswered.

## BACKGROUND

Research shows that across several industrialised countries the numbers of children living with grandparents is increasing. In the United States, for example, in 1970, 2.2 million or 3.2% of American children lived in a household maintained by a grandparent. By 1997, the number had risen to 3.9 million or 6%, representing a 76% increase over the 27-year period (U.S. Bureau

of the Census, 1998). Substantial increases occurred among all types of households maintained by grandparents regardless of the presence or absence of grandchildren's parents, but increases were greatest among children with only one parent in the household (Casper & Bryson, 1998). The number of grandchildren living in households maintained by grandparents with just their mothers present increased by 118% from 1970 to 1997, while those living with just their fathers increased by 217%. In contrast, smaller increases occurred among those living with both parents (53%) and those living with neither parent (37%). The majority of change for most household types occurred in the 1980s. However, since 1990, the greatest growth in the United States has occurred in the number of grandchildren residing with their grandparents only, with neither parent present. By 1997, a third of grandparent-maintained families did not contain either parent of the child and about 670,000 children across the United States live in a grandmother's home with neither their grandfather nor their parents present (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1998).

Other countries have also experienced large growth in the numbers of grandchildren living with grandparents. Australia is no exception. In Australia in 2003, the Australian Bureau of Statistics reported that there were 22,500 Australian families in which grandparents were guardians of grandchildren, (31,100 children), under 17 years of age (ABS, 2005). Almost half of these families were lone grandparent families, many received some form of government income, and, a little over a third were employed or were in the labour force working or looking for work (ABS, 2005). Furthermore, Brandon (2004) has estimated that at least 60,000 Australian children lived with grandparents in three-generation households at the turn of the millennium. Meantime, De Vaus and Gray (2003) estimated that approximately 30 percent of Australian children lived in alternative family structures to living with both biological parents at some time during their childhood.

The increase in children living with grandparents, especially the rise in children living with grandparents with no parent present has caught the attention of researchers . Indeed, an emerging literature documents the rise of grandparent-maintained households, reasons for the rise, and grandparents' daily caregiving practices. (See Burton, 1992; Chalfie, 1994; Dowdell, 1995; Dressel & Barnhill, 1994; Jendrek, 1994; Joslin & Brouard, 1995; Minler & Roe, 1993; Fuller-Thomson, Minkler, & Driver, 1997; Rutrough & Ofstedal, 1997; Shor & Hayslip, 1994; Minkler, 1988; New York Times, 1991; Washington Post, 1991). Moreover, the trend has captured the attention of policymakers, some of whom question whether public policies protect grandparent rights and enhance their access to social security. (See Fitzpatrick and Reeve [2003]; Tasmanian Parliament [2003]; COTA [2003]; [http://www.facs.gov.au/internet/minister2.nsf/content/031123\\_recognising\\_grandparents.htm](http://www.facs.gov.au/internet/minister2.nsf/content/031123_recognising_grandparents.htm); U.S. Senate, Special Committee on Aging, 1992; U.S. House of Representatives, Select Committee on Aging, 1992; Congressional Record 2000).

Since continued growth in the number of children living with grandparents is expected, much more research is needed. However, there is an especially urgent need to know what factors are pushing or pulling families in the direction of three-generational households (Brandon, 2006; Sorensen and McLanahan, 1990). This study hypothesises that in two-parent and female single-parent families, adverse health, immigrant status, and difficult economic conditions can increase the odds that grandparents and grandchildren will enter into sharing a household. By pursuing this line of inquiry this research supplements work that documents the relatively poor economic situation of grandparents raising grandchildren (Brandon, 1999; Brandon, 2006a; Brandon, 2006b; Bryson & Casper, 1998; Chalfie, 1994; Fuller-Thomson, Minkler, & Driver, 1997; Rutrough & Ofstedal, 1997).

## DATA AND STATISTICAL APPROACH

The data for this study come from the five available annual waves of the Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA) Survey, which began in 2001. The HILDA survey selected a large nationally representative sample of 7,682 Australian households, and yielded a total household response rate of 66 percent.<sup>1</sup> Within the 7,682 sampled households, 19,917 persons were enumerated. Interviews were sought with every member of these households who was over the age of 15 years (Watson and Wooden 2002). Of the 19,917 persons, 4,787 were under 15 years of age and ineligible for an interview in Wave 1. This left 15,127 persons eligible for a personal interview 13,969 of which completed the Person Questionnaire (Watson and Wooden 2002).

We examined the five waves of annual data collected by HILDA. From those five waves of data on the same individuals and households, the sample of children younger than 15 years of age numbered 6,181. Of the 6,181 children, 4,785 were present in Wave 1, the remainder, i.e., 1,396, uniformly entered the sample across the four subsequent waves, 2 through 5. Among these 6,181 children, 309 already lived with a grandparent when first observed leaving 5,872 children "at risk" of living with a grandparent over the remaining waves. Of the 5,872 children, 59, about 1%, were observed to enter into coresidence with a grandparent by the end of the survey, thereby implying that this event was rare. Of those 59, 16 moved in by wave 2, another 23 by wave 4, and a further 20 by wave 5. Even though the number of events of coresidence is small, the literature contains findings that these three-generation households experience difficulties and the factors bringing about this integration of generations under the same roof are still poorly understood.

Of the child sample, (N = 6,181), 840 children lived with a female single parent and 4,869 children lived with two parents. We removed from our sample children living with single fathers (N = 102), children already living with grandparents (N = 309), and other children living with neither parent (N = 61). (Although these groups are important in their own right, we focus on the two larger groups of children for theoretical and policy reasons.) Of the 840 children living with single mothers, 831 were available for analyses because their parents responded to the survey; of the 4,869 children living with two parents, 4,428 were available for analyses because both parents did likewise. Exploiting the panel structure of HILDA, we were then able to create a child-year file by family structure with time-varying and time invariant data for each of the possible five years of data collection. The analytical file for the survival analyses contained 2,894 child-year observations for children who when first observed were living with a female single parent and 15,656 child-year observations for those who when first observed were living with two parents.

For the sample of children, the HILDA survey collected a rich amount of socio-demographic and economic data on their parents and households. Less information was collected on the children themselves as HILDA is a not primarily a panel study of children. However, data was collected on the child's age, health, and sex and that information was merged with the rich and varied information on parents and households, including information on parental country of birth, labor force participation, sources of income, family composition and relationships. Together with household characteristics, the Survey provided a rich set of data on the economic and social circumstances of children that could change over time.

### *Statistical Model*

As these HILDA data indicate, grandchild-grandparent coresidence is a rare event, but one that has important implications for grandchildren, parents, and grandparents alike. Under circumstances where the outcome, like a child coresiding with a grandparent, is a rare occurrence, random-effects regression and population averaged complementary log-log regression is more appropriate than logistic regression (Agresti, 1990; Long, 1999). Moreover, given the empirical data showing that the probability of grandchild-grandparent coresidence approaches zero and one at different rates, assuming a symmetric link using the logit model is unreasonable as its link is symmetric and might lead to substantial bias in the coefficient estimates. The random effects cloglog model is again preferable to a random effects logit model because the former has an asymmetric link approaching one faster than zero.

Another advantage of using the random effects complementary log-log regression is that it is a statistical technique readily available for survival analysis. And, survival analysis is the logical approach for studying entries into grandchild-grandparent coresidence, by family structure. For instance, in our study, a survival function describes the probability that a child fails to live with a grandparent in year  $t$ . The hazard function describes the probability that a child living with a lone parent or two parents will coreside with a grandparent in year  $t$  given that the child has not coresided before year  $t$ . Importantly, as the previous data description section implied, time in these HILDA data is measured discretely. One of the most common discrete-time hazard functions is the complementary log-log (Singer and Willett, 2003) hazard function. The complementary log-log function assumes that the hazard takes the form

$$\lambda(t|m_{it}) = 1 - [1 - \lambda_0(t)]^{\exp(\beta m_{it})} \quad (1)$$

where  $m_{it}$  is a vector of characteristics for child  $i$  in year  $t$  and  $\beta$  is a vector of parameters. The baseline hazard is the probability that a child will coreside in year  $t$  given that  $m_{it}$  is zero and that the child does not coreside before year  $t$ .

The cloglog transformation of (1) yields,

$$\log(-\log(1 - \lambda(t|m_{it}))) = \alpha_t + \beta m_{it} \quad (2)$$

where  $\alpha_t$  is the cloglog transformation of the baseline hazard  $\lambda_o(t)$ .

We assume that  $\beta m_{it}$  is a linear function of child, parent, and household characteristics index by time ( $t = 1, \dots, 5$ ) and a child-specific random component that is normally distributed with mean 0 and variance  $\sigma_{it}^2$ . The measures for each child include their age, sex and health status. Likewise, we include measures of parental age, sex and health status, and country of birth, educational attainment, hours of work, and employment status. Household measures include number of children under 14 years of age, household income, receipt of government pensions or benefits, homeownership status, and the number of bedrooms in the house.

## FINDINGS

Before presenting the findings from the multivariate analyses, we first provide some statistics on the three major groups of children in the study: (1) those 309 children already living with grandparents; (2) those 59 children who eventually coreside with grandparents; and, (3) those 5,813 children who failed to coreside with grandparents.

As Table 1 shows, considerable differences exist across the three groups of children. Children already living with grandparents are younger than the other two groups of children. These same children also live in households that have more income with a larger proportion of that income coming from government pensions or benefits. As the table indicates, the children already living with grandparents are the group whose households are most likely among the three

groups to receive some sort of government pension or benefit. Their households also contain more people and relatives who provide live-in child care services. Interestingly, they are not the most disadvantaged group of children according to the index of relative socioeconomic disadvantage.

[Table 1 about here]

The characteristic of the parents of the three groups of children differ, as well. Table 2 shows that parents of those children who eventually coreside with grandparents by the end of the survey are younger than other parents of children. Though younger, these particular parents are the most likely to report some sort of long-term health condition, disability, or impairment. Given the high reported rates of compromised health, finding that these fathers are the least likely to have employment is unsurprising. They are also the least likely to have attained a university degree, but more likely to be in de facto relationships. Yet, those fathers who are employed tend to work as many hours as the fathers of the other groups of children. Children living with parents who fail to have a grandparent coreside by the end of the survey, had parents who earned more and were the least likely to receive government pensions or benefits.

[Table 2 about here]

We now present the multivariate results for children living in two-parent and female single-parent families. The first column of Table 3 presents results for children living with two parents when first observed. Firstly, the log of time indicates that there is significant negative duration dependence: as time passes children are less likely to enter into three-generation households. Though only moderately significant, the estimated coefficient indicating a child's age suggests that as children grow older they are more likely to enter into a joint living

arrangement with a grandparent over the course of the HILDA panel. Both a child's sex and their health condition fail to significantly increase or decrease entries into coresidence, however.

In contrast, column 1 of Table 3 indicates that an increase in mother's age decreases the rate at which grandchildren and grandparents form joint households. Fathers' ages do not appear to have any effect. Furthermore, other parental characteristics appear to have varying effects on children's entries into three-generational households. Except for clear differences among high school educated only fathers and mothers, the general pattern for educational attainment is that higher educational attainment among fathers and mothers lowers the chances of entries into grandparent-grandchild coresidence compared with parents who did not graduate from high school. However, while a mother with a high school education only increases the rate of three-generation household formation, a father with an equivalent level of education decreases the rate of three-generation household formation. The opposite effect for each gender is also found for the variable indicating having been born in the non-English speaking country. Compared with mothers born in English-speaking countries other than Australia or mothers born in Australia, mothers born in non-English speaking countries significantly raise the probability of children living with their grandparents. But, the exact opposite result is found for fathers who were born in non-English speaking countries; these fathers significantly decrease the probability of children living with their grandparents.

Although parental health ailments fail to increase the chances of entries into coresidence, the direction of the effects for both parents suggest that poor parental health might increase the chances of grandparent-grandchild coresidence. Finally, mothers' earnings decrease the chances of three-generation households forming, while husbands' earnings (log) apparently have no

significant effect. The latter insignificant effect may reflect insufficient data as fathers' earnings might be expected to predict coresidence.

According to the first column of Table 3, for children raised by two parents rather than one at the beginning of the survey, household characteristics also influence the rates of entries into grandchild-grandparent coresidence. Living in a regional area, more children younger than 14 years of age, and renting rather than owning a home, all decrease the chances of three-generation households forming over the course of the panel. On the other hand, homes with more bedrooms, i.e., larger homes that are probably more expensive, increase the chances of three-generation households forming.

Lastly, the regression for children living with two parents has a high degree of stability. The estimate coefficients for the model variables "sigma-mu" and "rho" strongly suggest that the model is predictive.

Column two of Table 3 presents results for children who at the beginning of the HILDA survey were living with single female parents. Unsurprisingly, the rareness of the event, as well as smaller sample sizes, leads to less suggestive results. The variable "log of time" continues to suggest that negative duration dependence is still present. Likewise, increases in children's ages decreases the chances of coresidence across three generations. And at least for mothers with vocational training when compared with mothers without a high school diploma the rate of coresidence is decreased. Importantly, for the first time in these analyses, the second cloglog regression indicates that single mothers with long-term health conditions, disabilities, or impairments increase the rate of entries into three-generation households.

The only household characteristic that registers an effect is the number of children younger than 14 years of age. This finding for larger numbers of dependent, school-aged

children is consistent with the finding found for children younger than 14 years of age who were living with two parents. Another consistency between the two regressions by family structure is that the indicators for the quality of the regression suggest that the regression model for children living with single mothers is appropriate and includes variables that, though generally insignificant, are appropriate regressors and suggestive of factors determining the formation of three-generation households.

[Table 3 about here]

Finally Table 4, shows the characteristics of the 59 grandparents who eventually coreside with their grandchildren and compares their characteristics with the characteristics of grandparents who were coresiding with 309 grandchildren at the beginning of the HILDA. Evidently, grandparents who eventually coreside are older than the other grandparents. These grandparents are also less likely to have completed high school, have labor market attachments, and receive government pensions or benefits. But, when they work they earn similar amounts of income as those already living with grandparents. By contrast, grandparents eventually living with their grandchildren are much more likely to have been born in a non-English speaking country and to be married or widowed.

[Table 4 about here]

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The dramatic changes that have reshaped families since the 1970s make a study such as this useful and timely. We recognise that our study has a premature quality due to the enormous complexities in modeling major changes in family structures, e.g., formation of three-generation households from second-generation ones, and a lack of comprehensive longitudinal data sources on family change and diversity. However, because the profound changes that families have

undergone in the past three decades have significant implications for studying children and families and future social policy development, we chose to proceed. Our new findings inform researchers and policymakers, stimulate new research on the formation of three-generation households, and spur new data collection efforts that could help remedy the problems that burdened this study.

Clearly, future studies should address critical issues that the present study had to bypass. A central concern of ours was having no measures of the proximity of grandparents to grandchildren. Grandparents, most likely, who live close-by would have less incentive to coreside with grandchildren. We also lacked information on whether grandparents were still alive or deceased; and, for grandparents still living we possessed no data on their demographic and socio-economic circumstances before living with grandchildren because HILDA is a household-based panel survey. Thus, we are censored on the distribution of available grandparents and grandparents we observed coresiding were most likely those that might possess the highest propensity for coresidence; in other words, our HILDA data probably generates a selective sample. And, today's families include a mix of blended and cohabiting families. Although our tests for family structure differences proved insignificant, the possibility remains that the stock of grandparents potentially available for coresidence is affected.

There are also other analytical concerns that could affect our estimates of entry into three-generational coresidence. Within the broader kinship network of the child, there are aunts, or uncles, or cousins with whom grandparents could potentially choose to share housing. Our child in the HILDA panel is possibly only one of several grandchildren grandparents may live with. Furthermore, the grandparent might have other residential options in the housing market for retirees that they might wish to consider. Alternatively, grandparents might feel that economic

and in-kind transfers rather than joint living arrangements are the most effective methods for involvement with grandchildren. We have no measures of economic transfers that would assist in reconciling the issue. Though certainly not the last concern, the families that are not observed living with grandparents might be different inter-generationally from those we observe living with grandparents. Theoretically, if there are intergenerational transmissions of wealth, income, and health, the wealthier families failing to live with grandparents may be predisposed to live further away and use income to stay connected. So, overall there are many push and pull factors that we simply cannot address and that the overwhelming majority of longitudinal studies on families don't even come close to addressing.

Notwithstanding these caveats, our study makes progress towards understanding the formation of three-generation households among families raising dependent children. The findings we report fit with the literature, broaden our knowledge, and have policy implications. The general result emerging is that parents' higher levels of education tend to suppress the rate of entries into three-generation households while the effects of lower levels of education are gender specific. Likewise, nativity status has the same sort of gender-specific effects. And, household factors, which might proxy for wealth, all affect the rates of entry. We expected stronger health effects, however, these effects for two-parent families are reduced once other variables are included. On the other hand, the finding that single mothers with poor health are more likely than single mothers without poor health to eventually coreside with a parent or parent-in-law is important and comports closely with cross-sectional studies on the health status of single-mothers in two- and three-generation households. With our results now available, we anticipate that other researchers will attempt to build upon them with better data so that these results are

confirmed or refuted. Either outcome ultimately builds our knowledge and will eventually lead to a better mix of public policy responses.

Overall, this paper calls for new theories on the formation of three-generation households, innovative data collection efforts that transcend the traditional definitions of households, and greater research focus on the lives of children living in three-generation households. The future well-being of families requires that researchers better understand the factors propelling children into three-generational households; living arrangements which research has shown can either help or detract from children's well-being and development.

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<sup>1</sup>Response rates compare favorably with rates in the first waves of HILDA's British and German counterparts (Wooden, Freidin, and Watson, 2002). Comparisons with population data from the Australian Bureau of Statistics suggest that the sample has characteristics corresponding with what would have been expected in the sample were it truly random. Observable differences between the responding and selected samples are corrected by applying provided population weights.

Table 3. Random effects complimentary log-log regressions estimating entries into three-generation households, by family structure [Standard errors in square brackets]

<b>Family structure:</b>	<b>Two-parent</b>	<b>Single female parent</b>
Log of time	-1.917*** [0.336]	-3.454*** [0.718]
Male child	0.318 [0.368]	0.675 [0.858]
Child's age	0.089* [0.051]	0.258** [0.131]
Child's health status	0.41 [0.542]	-1.682 [1.336]
Mother's age	-0.170*** [0.054]	-0.216** [0.087]
Father's age	-0.014 [0.043]	n.a.
Mother: H.S. only	1.856*** [0.468]	-0.745 [1.132]
Father: H.S. only	-3.762*** [1.375]	n.a.
Mother: Vocationally trained	-0.535 [0.609]	-2.202** [1.133]
Father: Vocationally trained	-1.067** [0.450]	n.a.
Mother: University trained	-0.885 [0.823]	-24.2 [23.09]
Father: University trained	-1.285** [0.629]	n.a.
Mother has health cond./dis/imp	0.069 [0.520]	1.606* [0.892]
Father has health cond./dis/imp.	0.477 [0.397]	n.a.
Mother born N.E.S country	1.109* [0.614]	-22.95 [26.53]
Father born N.E.S country	-1.338* [0.793]	n.a.
Log of mother's earnings	-0.133* [0.069]	0.083 [0.158]
Log of father's earnings	0.058 [0.066]	n.a.
Live in regional area	-0.693* [0.429]	-1.284 [0.827]
Log of pension income	0.062 [0.082]	0.328 [0.253]
Number of children aged <=14 years	-0.281* [0.174]	-0.621* [0.353]
Renting house	-0.995** [0.494]	-1.3 [0.889]
Number of bedrooms	0.36* [0.221]	0.493 [0.500]
Constant	-1.199 [1.616]	-0.54 [2.913]
Insig2u:Constant	2.170*** [0.083]	2.241*** [0.177]
Observations (child-year)	15656	2894
N =	4428	831
rho	0.842 0.011	0.85 0.022

Source: HILDA Waves 1-5; Notes: n.a. = not applicable; \*p <= .10, \*\*p <= .05, \*\*\*p <= .01.

**Table 2. Parent characteristics when child first observed**

	<u>Already living with grandparent</u>		<u>Eventually coresides with grandparent</u>		<u>Never coresides with grandparent</u>	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Age	36.48	29.43	34.69	30.90	38.06	35.26
Long-term health condition, disability or impairment	0.08	0.12	0.23	0.22	0.14	0.11
<b>Highest level of education</b>						
Did not complete Year 12	0.36	0.45	0.36	0.45	0.24	0.38
Year 12	0.06	0.20	0.08	0.31	0.10	0.17
Certificate or diploma	0.39	0.22	0.46	0.16	0.43	0.23
University degree or higher	0.19	0.13	0.10	0.08	0.24	0.21
<b>Country of birth</b>						
Australia	0.60	0.76	0.69	0.82	0.76	0.78
Non-English speaking	0.07	0.06	0.08	0.06	0.11	0.09
Other English speaking	0.34	0.18	0.23	0.12	0.14	0.13
<b>Marital status</b>						
Legally married	0.78	0.39	0.69	0.57	0.82	0.71
De facto	0.13	0.08	0.23	0.18	0.15	0.14
Separated	0.01	0.12	0.00	0.06	0.01	0.05
Divorced	0.02	0.05	0.08	0.02	0.01	0.04
Widowed	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Never married and not de facto	0.06	0.35	0.00	0.18	0.01	0.06
<b>Labour force status</b>						
Employed full time	0.74	0.14	0.67	0.08	0.83	0.17
Employed part time	0.08	0.22	0.15	0.35	0.06	0.36
Unemployed	0.06	0.09	0.15	0.04	0.04	0.03
Not in the labour force	0.12	0.55	0.03	0.53	0.07	0.44
Usual hours of work in main job	44.52	29.26	46.06	19.18	46.37	25.49
Current wages & salaries (weekly)	\$549.58	\$153.23	\$666.76	\$131.00	\$803.27	\$227.87
Occupational status (ANU4)	43.29	45.50	33.25	41.14	47.33	48.67
Receives Government pension or benefit	0.19	0.52	0.10	0.49	0.12	0.29
N =	89	212	39	51	4454	5525

Notes: Source: HILDA Release 5.0c; Average values for wave at which children are first observed. Wages & salaries for those not working have zero coded; Usual hours of work in main job only available for those working; Long term health condition, disability or impairment is as stated by the household respondent on the HF; Occupational status uses ANU4 occupational status scale which ranges from 0 to 100.

**Table 1. Child and household characteristics when child first observed**

	Already living with grandparent	Eventually coresides with grandparent	Never coresides with grandparent
	Mean	Mean	Mean
<b>Children</b>			
Age	4.84	5.53	6.12
Sex (male=1, female=0)	0.50	0.51	0.49
Long term health condition, disability or impairment	0.08	0.05	0.07
<b>Households</b>			
<b>Current household income</b>			
Wages & salaries (weekly)	\$792.17	\$627.44	\$954.65
Receives Government pension or benefit	0.82	0.47	\$0.36
Government pensions and benefits (weekly)	\$301.04	\$111.05	\$76.55
Total wages, salaries, Govt. pensions/benefits (weekly)	\$1,093.21	\$738.49	\$1,031.19
Number of children aged under 14	2.39	2.14	2.38
Number in HH	5.46	3.98	4.48
<b>Household type</b>			
Three generation household, partnered parents	0.38	0.00	0.00
Three generation household, single parent	0.45	0.00	0.00
Married parents, no grandparents	0.00	0.49	0.68
Cohabiting parents, no grandparents	0.00	0.17	0.15
Child lives with no relatives/ lives with foster parents	0.00	0.02	0.01
Skipped generation, two grandparents	0.11	0.00	0.00
Skipped generation, female grandparent	0.01	0.00	0.00
Skipped generation, male grandparent	0.05	0.00	0.00
Sole parent, male	0.00	0.10	0.02
Sole parent, female	0.00	0.22	0.14
<b>Child care</b>			
Live in relative provides care for school aged child	0.12	0.00	0.00
Live in relative provides care for preschool aged child	0.08	0.00	0.00
<b>Location</b>			
Major city	0.64	0.69	0.59
Regional Australia	0.33	0.29	0.39
Remote Australia	0.02	0.02	0.03
Socio-economic disadvantage: Decile 1=most disadvantaged	0.20	0.22	0.10
N =	309	59	5,813

Notes: Source: HILDA Release 5.0c; Averages values relate to the wave at which children are first observed. Child care usage relates to when primary caregivers are working; Long term health condition, disability or impairment is as stated by the household respondent on HF; Index of disadvantage is SEIFA 2001 Decile of Index of Relative Socio-Economic Disadvantage.

**Table 4. Grandparent characteristics when grandparent first observed**

	<u>Already living with grandparent</u>		<u>Eventually coresides with grandparent</u>	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Age	56.66	55.23	59.22	61.81
Long term health condition, disability or impairment	0.48	0.51	0.43	0.52
<b>Highest level of education</b>				
Did not complete Year 12	0.50	0.63	0.52	0.67
Year 12	0.07	0.08	0.04	0.10
Certificate or diploma	0.35	0.24	0.43	0.14
University degree or higher	0.08	0.06	0.00	0.10
<b>Country of birth</b>				
Australia	0.71	0.72	0.65	0.57
Non-English speaking	0.06	0.07	0.09	0.26
Other English speaking	0.24	0.20	0.26	0.17
<b>Marital status</b>				
Legally married	0.71	0.41	0.91	0.48
De facto	0.09	0.06	0.00	0.00
Separated	0.08	0.07	0.09	0.07
Divorced	0.08	0.20	0.00	0.14
Widowed	0.00	0.18	0.00	0.31

Never married and not de facto	0.04	0.06	0.00	0.00
<b>Labour force status</b>				
Employed full time	0.30	0.11	0.26	0.21
Employed part time	0.08	0.14	0.09	0.14
Unemployed	0.05	0.02	0.00	0.00
Not in the labour force	0.56	0.74	0.65	0.64
Usual hours of work in main job	39.72	31.67	42.63	31.33
Current wages & salaries (weekly)	\$237.00	\$115.27	\$220.19	\$202.93
Occupational status (ANU4)	45.77	42.81	29.18	36.64
Receives Government pension or benefit	0.43	0.48	0.22	0.38
N =	119	235	23	42

coded; Usual hours of work in main job only available for those working; Long term health condition, disability or impairment is as stated by the household respondent on the HF; Occupational status uses ANU4 occupational status scale which ranges from 0 to 100.