

RECSM

Research and Expertise Centre for Survey Methodology

Country-of-Origin Gender Ideology and Immigrants' Gender Role Attitudes Toward Women's Employment

Lea Pessin, Bruno Arpino

RECSM Working Paper Number 51

February 2017

Country-of-Origin Gender Ideology and Immigrants' Gender Role Attitudes Toward Women's Employment

Léa Pessin (Corresponding author)

Affiliation: Population Research Institute, Pennsylvania State University

Address: 613 Oswald Tower, University Park, PA 16802

Email: lpessin@psu.edu

Phone: 814-865-1849

Fax: 814-863-8342

Bruno Arpino

Affiliation: Department of Political and Social Sciences and The Research and Expertise Centre for Survey Methodology (RECSM), Universitat Pompeu Fabra

Acknowledgments: The work has benefited from useful discussions with Clara Cortina, Gøsta Esping-Andersen, Aart Liefbroer, Maria Rita Testa and participants at the Family Polarization workshop (March 2016) and the Population Research Institute Immigration Workshop (Pennsylvania State University). Léa Pessin gratefully acknowledges financial support during her PhD from the European Research Council through the advanced ERC Grant ERC-2010-AdG-269387 (Family polarization, P.I. Gøsta Esping-Andersen) and during her postdoctoral fellowship from the Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development to the Population Research Institute at The Pennsylvania State University for Population Research Infrastructure (P2CHD041025) and Family Demography Training (T32-HD007514).

Country-of-Origin Gender Ideology and Immigrants' Gender Role Attitudes Toward Women's Employment

Abstract: Using cross-classified models and data from the European Social Survey, this article studies whether and under what conditions cultural values associated to gender roles in the country of origin influence immigrants' gender roles attitudes across different countries of destination. The sample is composed of first- and second-generation immigrants living in 32 destination countries and from 95 countries of origin. The findings show that immigrants' gender role attitudes can be, in part, attributed to their country of origin but also depend on the context in which they reside. The role played by the country-of-origin gender ideology weakens for second-generation and long-residing immigrants. Furthermore, our results show that the gender ideology at destination is also positively associated to immigrants' gender role attitudes. Nevertheless, immigrants living in more traditional destinations with respect to their country of origin are less inclined to adapt their gender role attitudes to the context of destination.

1 Introduction

The overall trend toward more egalitarian gender attitudes is considered a clear marker of the on-going gender revolution (Davis & Greenstein, 2009). Men and women across the world are increasingly adopting egalitarian views toward gender roles, favoring equal access to employment and greater gender equality within the household (Cha & Thébaud, 2009; Fortin, 2005; Inglehart & Norris, 2003; Treas & Widmer, 2000). Wealthier and post-industrial societies have adopted egalitarian gender ideology at a faster pace than poorer and agrarian ones (Inglehart & Norris, 2003; Seguino, 2007). Nevertheless, even across European countries, which are fairly homogeneous in terms of economic outcomes and women's legal rights, cross-national differences in gender ideology still persist (Guo & Gilbert, 2012; Pampel, 2011).

Gender role attitudes are of particular importance because they positively influence gender-equal outcomes and behaviors within families and across institutions (Brooks & Bolzendahl, 2004). For example, gender-egalitarian attitudes foster women's participation in the labor market (Fortin, 2005) and encourage men's contribution to housework and child care activities (Batalova & Cohen, 2002; Fuwa, 2004; Hook, 2006; Knudsen & Wærness, 2008). Recent studies also show that fertility decline and marital instability weaken in contexts where egalitarian gender role attitudes prevail (Arpino, Esping-Andersen & Pessin, 2015; Pessin, 2015).

While gender role attitudes are at the core of the debate on gender equality, our understanding of the mechanisms that promote the adoption of egalitarian gender role attitudes remains limited. Within the sociological literature, the debate on whether primary socialization or life-course events influence gender role attitudes is still ongoing (Doepke, Tertilt & Voena, 2012). The socialization perspective emphasizes the importance of primary socialization and the transmission of beliefs

from parents to children to explain the persistence of gender role attitudes over the life course (Myers & Booth, 2002). Conversely, the life course approach argues that exposure to gender role attitudes and specific life events, such as tertiary education or employment, influence attitudinal formation at different stages of life (Brooks & Bolzendahl, 2004).

Empirically, it is difficult to disentangle the transmission of a set of beliefs from parents to children from institutional and economic factors. Cultural norms influence institutions and policies, which in turn foster the adoption of different attitudes (Frank & Hou, 2015). As a consequence, egalitarian gender role attitudes are more likely to be observed in countries with institutions and policies that promote gender equality. Building upon the epidemiological approach (Fernandez & Fogli, 2009), we argue that the immigration experience offers a way to isolate the role played by cultural values from the country of origin net of institutional and economic settings. While international immigrants can carry their cultural values to their destination, structural and economic factors from the country of origin are not portable (Fernandez & Fogli, 2009; Furtado, Marcén & Sevilla, 2013). In this study, we use cultural values measured in the country of origin to capture the role played by cultural values transmitted through primary socialization in explaining immigrants' gender role attitudes across countries of destination.

By studying first- and second-generation immigrants from multiple origins and living across different countries, this article seeks to explain whether and how cultural values transmitted through primary socialization influence immigrants' gender role attitudes at destination. We exploit two sources of variation from the migration experience to provide a better understanding of how gender role attitudes are formed and whether they persist across contexts that provide different schemes of gender relations. First, the length of stay and the immigrant generation reflect varying levels of exposure to the country of destination. Second, the difference in cultural values toward gender

roles between the origin and the destination provides varying levels of contrast between values acquired through primary socialization versus those promoted by the context of destination (through institutional and cultural factors).

Our contribution to the literature on the persistence of culture on gender role attitudes is twofold. First, unlike previous studies (e.g. Frank & Hou, 2015; Röder & Mühlau, 2014), cultural values toward gender roles at the origin and destination are constructed using an attitudinal indicator. The common approach in the literature on the persistence of culture on attitudes and behaviors is to measure gender relations using objective indicators such as the share of women in parliament or women's relative labor force participation with respect to men. These indicators, however, reflect outcomes of gender equality rather than a cultural understanding of gender relations (McDonald, 2013). Second, because our study includes several countries of destination, we can study how the influence of cultural values toward gender roles depends on the country of destination's context.

Our analysis includes first and second-generation immigrants from the second, fourth and fifth rounds of the European Social Survey. The final sample is composed of immigrants from 95 different countries of origin residing in 32 countries (31 European countries and Russia). We focus on one dimension of gender role attitudes, namely, whether individuals believe that men and women should have equal access to the labor market. Using cross-classified models, we examine whether and under what conditions cultural values associated to gender roles in their country of origin influence immigrants' gender role attitudes across countries of destination. We address two main research questions. First, does the country-of-origin gender ideology influence immigrants' views toward working women? Second, is this relationship moderated by (i) immigrants' length of stay at destination; (ii) the gender ideology distance between the destination and the origin?

2 Background

The existing literature on gender ideology construction can be divided into two main strands: the socialization explanation and the life course approach. By emphasizing the role played by the intergenerational transmission of beliefs and values, the socialization perspective posits that gender role attitudes remain stable throughout adulthood (Myers & Booth, 2002). The parent-to-children transmission of gender attitudes creates continuity from one generation to the next. Conversely, the life course approach argues that exposure to different beliefs and specific life events influence the adaptation of gender role attitudes (Brooks & Bolzendahl, 2004). Accordingly, living in an environment that promotes gender equality fosters the adoption of egalitarian gender role attitudes and weakens the importance of primary socialization (Davis, 2007).

Previous research provides some empirical support for the role played by primary socialization in shaping gender role attitudes. Parents' gender ideologies are found to directly influence their children's gender role attitudes (Davis & Greenstein, 2009). Bliss (1988), for example, finds that mothers with nontraditional gender ideology have children that display more gender-neutral behaviors in kindergarten. The transmission of gender ideology from mother-to-child is found to be also persistent during adulthood (Davis, 2007; Glass, Bengtson & Dunham, 1986; Moen, Erickson & Dempster-McClain, 1997; Thornton, Alwin & Camburn, 1983; Willits & Crider, 1989). Furthermore, while a majority of studies focus on maternal transmission of gender ideology, Myers & Booth (2002) show that sons are more likely to adopt gender-egalitarian attitudes if both their parents have egalitarian gender ideology. Davis & Wills (2010) also find that paternal ideology influences adolescent attitudinal formation.

The intergenerational transmission of gender ideology can also occur indirectly. Parents expose

their children to behaviors or social environments that reflect different levels of gender ideology. Parents' education and employment can be important indicators of their own attitudes and, therefore, also contribute to the development of children's gender ideology. For example, mother's employment is positively associated to more egalitarian views of gender roles for both sons and daughters (Fernández, Fogli & Olivetti, 2004; Kawaguchi & Miyazaki, 2009). Mother's education and employment are linked to more gender-egalitarian attitudes for their daughters in adulthood (Glass et al., 1986; Thornton et al., 1983). Also, Sutfin, Fulcher, Bowles & Patterson (2008) show that parental gender attitudes fosters stereotyping in the home environment and, in turn, influence their children's attitudes about gender.

Following this line of argument, first- and second-generation immigrants' gender ideology is expected to predominantly reflect the cultural beliefs of their country of origin because of the importance of primary socialization. The context of the destination country with regard to gender ideology should have a weak influence on immigrants' gender attitudes with respect to the country-of-origin's gender ideology. In support of this argument, Arends-Tóth & Van de Vijver (2009) find no generational differences among Turkish, Moroccan, Surinamese and Antillean immigrants in the Netherlands with regard to gender role attitudes. Ersanilli (2012) also finds no generation gap in gender role attitudes of Turkish immigrants across three different destination countries: Germany, France and the Netherlands. On the basis of the literature discussed above we formulate our first hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Net of the institutional and cultural setting at destination, cultural views toward gender roles in the country of origin are positively associated with first- and second-generation immigrants' gender role attitudes. Immigrants from

countries with predominantly traditional (egalitarian) gender ideology will be more likely to adopt more traditional (egalitarian) attitudes toward gender roles.

In contrast with the socialization theory, Davis (2007) shows that social and background factors cannot fully account for gender ideology trajectories of young adults. Rather experiences and exposure are linked to changes in gender role attitudes after adolescence. Therefore, the family-of-origin effect on gender ideology diminishes as young adults transition from adolescence to adulthood (Davis, 2007). Extending this argument to the migration experience, the length of exposure to the destination country may moderate the relationship between immigrants' cultural heritage and their gender role attitudes. The immigration literature shows that the country-of-origin effect is much weaker among second-generation migrants, suggesting that assimilation occurs between generation and over time (Dasgupta, 1998; Diehl, Koenig & Ruckdeschel, 2009; Frank & Hou, 2015; Merz, Özeke-Kocabas, Oort & Schuengel, 2009). Relevant to our study, Röder & Mühlau (2014) find that the difference between the origin and the destination in the Gender Empowerment Index¹ negatively influences immigrants' gender role attitudes but that this negative effect disappears for second-generation immigrants. On the basis of the literature discussed above we formulate our second hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: The strength of the positive association between the country-of-origin gender ideology and immigrants gender role attitudes weakens as the length of stay in the country of destination increases.

Exposure-based explanations also support the idea that when exposed to gender-egalitarian

¹A United Nation measure of representation of women in public institutions and managerial positions.

norms outside the home, individuals tend to also develop more egalitarian gender role attitudes (Brooks & Bolzendahl, 2004; Davis & Greenstein, 2009). For example, Moore & Vanneman (2003) find that living in a state, where the proportion of religious fundamentalists is high, fosters the adoption of traditional gender attitudes. Baxter, Buchler, Perales & Western (2015) and Guo & Gilbert (2012) find greater levels of gender egalitarianism in social democratic countries, which promote gender equality through their welfare regime (Esping-Andersen, 2009). According to Cha & Thébaud (2009), in countries with higher economic development, men's gender ideology is also more egalitarian. Furthermore, macro-level gender equality with respect to objective outcomes (e.g. educational attainment, female labor force participation, standard of living, and health) positively predicts egalitarian attitudes toward female employment (Röder & Mühlau, 2014; Yu & Lee, 2013).

Following the life-course perspective, the structural and cultural context of the destination country is expected to also influence first- and second-generation immigrants' attitudes. Living in a country where institutions and behavioral norms are either more traditional or more egalitarian with respect to their country of origin may force immigrants to re-evaluate and change their gender role attitudes. Huschek, de Valk & Liefbroer (2011) find that the gender role behaviors of second-generation Turks varies by countries of destination. For example, second-generation Turks living in Sweden display more gender-equal behaviors with respect to Turks living in more conservative destination countries. Also, Röder & Mühlau (2014) show that differences in behavioral gender norms between the destination and the origin negatively influences immigrants' gender role attitudes. Their findings, however, do not distinguish whether immigrants come from less or more traditional countries with respect to the destination.

In contrast with the primary socialization argument, these recent findings point to the role

played by the destination in explaining immigrants' behaviors and attitudes. However, it is still unclear how differences in cultural values between the origin and the destination interact and whether the direction of the difference matters, i.e. living in either a more traditional or a more egalitarian country with respect to the country of origin. For simplicity, we refer to differences between the destination and the origin in cultural values associated to gender roles as the *gender ideology distance*. On the one hand, the gender ideology distance may reinforce the role played by the origin in explaining immigrants' gender role attitudes across different destination countries. For example, if the origin and the destination provide extremely different schemes with regard to gender roles, immigrants may be unable to relate to the context of destination. On the other hand, the role played by the gender ideology distance may also depend on whether the origin is more traditional or more egalitarian with respect to the destination. On the basis of the literature discussed above we formulate a third hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: The higher the gender ideology distance, the stronger is the association between the country-of-origin gender ideology and immigrants' gender role attitudes.

In the empirical analysis, we distinguish between a positive and a negative gender ideology distance. This allows us to test whether the influence of the country-of-origin cultural values on immigrants' gender role attitudes depends on whether the origin is either more traditional or egalitarian than the destination. To our knowledge, the existing literature has focused on immigrants' coming from more traditional countries of origin with respect to the destination. Nevertheless, we also expect that immigrants coming from more egalitarian countries with respect to their destina-

tion to be less inclined to assimilate to more traditional gender role attitudes.

3 Data and variables

3.1 Data

We use data from the European Social Survey (ESS). The ESS consists of repeated cross-sectional individual-level surveys, which are conducted every two years. Each round of surveys includes a core module as well as rotating sections on specific themes. The sample of countries has changed over the years and also includes guest countries from outside of Europe. We focus on the second, the fourth and fifth rounds of the ESS, excluding others for lack of information on the gender item under study. The interviews were carried out, respectively, between 2004-2006, 2008-2011 and 2010-2012. We select first- and second-generation immigrants, and we obtain a final sample of 16,339 respondents in 32 destination countries and from 95 countries of origin. The sample size of immigrants in each country of destination and ESS round is described in Table S1 in the supplementary materials (Section 4). The percentage of missing values for all the variables used in the analysis is summarized in Table S2 in the supplementary materials (Section 4).

3.2 Outcome

In this study, we focus on one dimension of gender role attitudes, namely on the perceived adequate relative roles for women with respect to men in the labor market. To measure this concept, we use the following survey question: “When jobs are scarce, men should have more right to a job than women.” Theoretically, it is one of the few available gender items that provides a clear juxtaposition between men and women in terms of the adequacy of their respective gender roles (See Arpino et al. (2015) for an extensive discussion on the theoretical and measurement quality of

existing gender items in the cross-national attitude and value surveys). Another advantage of this survey question is that it has been extensively used to measure gender attitudes toward working women (Arpino et al., 2015; Arpino & Tavares, 2013; Fortin, 2005; Seguino, 2007). Finally, from a practical perspective, this survey measure is present in several surveys and waves of the World Values Surveys and European Value Studies, which allows us to measure the same dimension of gender role attitudes at the origin and the destination for a large cross-national sample.

The dependent variable of interest measures individual-level gender attitudes toward working women and is based on the following survey question: “When jobs are scarce, men should have more right to a job than women.” The respondents are asked how much they agree or disagree with the statement and choose their answer from a 5-point Likert scale going from 0 ‘strongly agree’ to 5 is ‘strongly disagree’². Higher values are interpreted as gender egalitarian views while lower values are considered to be traditional views toward working women.

3.3 Explanatory variables

The immigration status of the respondents is determined by their country of birth as well as their parents’ country of birth. Second generation immigrants are respondents that are born in the country of destination but that have at least one parent born in a foreign country. For second-generation immigrants with both parents born abroad, the country of origin is defined as the mother’s country of birth. In our final sample, only 373 second-generation immigrants have parents born in two different foreign countries (The final sample size of second-generation immigrants with both parents born abroad is 2,201). Further analysis, using the father’s country of birth, showed that the results are not sensitive to this specification (See Table S3 in section S4 of the supplementary materials).

²‘Don’t know’ and ‘refusal’ are coded as missing. In the original ESS sample, 2.3% of responses on this question (mnrjtjb) are missing including ‘Don’t know’ and ‘refusal’.

For second-generation immigrants with only one parent born abroad, the country of origin is the country of birth of the one foreign parent. First generation immigrants are respondents that are not born in the country of destination, and thus their country of origin is defined as their country of birth (Detailed explanations are provided on how the immigrant status is determined in section S1 of the supplementary materials).

The first main independent variable, origin gender ideology, is matched to each respondent on the basis of their country of origin and on the survey year. The level of gender norms in the country of origin is measured as the share of respondents in the country of origin who disagree with the statement “When jobs are scarce, men should have more right to a job than women.” The data for the country of origin rely on two sources of data: the ESS and the harmonized World Values Surveys and the European Value Studies (WVS/EVS). In the WVS/EVS, the same survey question has been asked but the respondents are offered a slightly different scale: (i) ‘agree’, (ii) ‘disagree’, and (iii) ‘neither’. As with the ESS, we use the share of people in country of origin who disagree with the statement. In order to assess, the consistency between both measures, we calculate the correlation between the ESS and the WVS/EVS indicators when both are available on the same country/year and we find a correlation of 0.85. Table S4 (Section S4 in the supplementary materials) reports the values of origin gender ideology for each country of origin and ESS round (Further details on how the origin gender ideology variable was constructed are provided in supplementary materials S2).

The second main independent variable is the length of stay in the country of destination, which we use to distinguish between newly arrived immigrants and those that have lived in the country of destination for a long period of time. This variable takes the following 5 categories: 2nd generation, more than 20 years, 11-20 years, 6-10 years, and 1-5 years. In the second and fourth round of the

ESS, the length of stay variable is categorical, whereas in the fifth round of the ESS, the actual year of arrival was asked (Further detailed information is provided in the supplementary materials S3 to explain how the variable was harmonized across ESS rounds).

The third main independent variable of interest is the gender ideology distance, which is measured at the community-level (i.e. the intersection between the origin and the destination). The gender ideology distance is defined as the difference in country-level gender ideology between the destination and the origin. The destination gender ideology variable is constructed following the same logic than the origin gender ideology variable. It corresponds to the share of natives in the country of destination who disagree with the statement ‘When jobs are scarce, men should have more right to a job than women’. The variable is based on the ESS data using only native respondents (native respondents are defined as respondents who are born in the country of destination and whose parents are born in the country of destination as well).

The gender ideology distance variable is included in the models using a spline variable to allow for different coefficients when the country of origin is either more traditional or more egalitarian than the destination. To do so, the gender ideology distance variable is split into two variables. The first variable, *GI distance (Origin more egalitarian)*, takes the value of the difference between the origin and the destination gender ideology when the origin is more egalitarian with respect to the destination and zero otherwise. The second variable, *GI distance (Origin more traditional)*, takes the value of the difference between destination and origin gender ideology when the origin is more traditional with respect to the destination and zero otherwise. Formally, we can define gender ideology distance in the following way:

$$\text{GI distance (Origin is more egal.)} = \begin{cases} \text{origin GI} - \text{destination GI}, & \text{if origin GI} > \text{destination GI.} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{GI distance (Origin is more trad.)} = \begin{cases} \text{destination GI} - \text{origin GI}, & \text{if origin GI} < \text{destination GI.} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The gender ideology distance variable is interacted with the origin gender ideology variable to test whether the effect of cultural values toward gender roles from the country of origin on immigrants' gender role attitudes are moderated by the distance in gender ideology between the origin and the destination.

3.4 Control variables

At the origin- and destination- levels, several control variables are included in the models. The first is the Human-Development Indicator (HDI), which is a composite measure of three dimensions of human development, i.e. life expectancy, education and economic development. As shown by Inglehart & Norris (2003), economic development is an important marker for the adoption of egalitarian gender attitudes. It is therefore important to control for HDI levels at both the destination and the origin. Furthermore, at the destination-level, two additional control variables are also included to capture behavioral norms with regard to gender roles in the country of destination. First, the ratio of women-to-men labor force participation is considered to capture the relative difference between women and men in the labor market (Blau, Kahn & Papps, 2011). Second, we include the share of women in national parliaments to reflect the degree to which women and men equally participate in political life (Greenstein & Davis, 2006; Kabeer, 2005). Both relative indicators capture whether the context of residence provides more or less gender-egalitarian exam-

ples in economic and political life. While the parliament and labor force variables are relevant to our outcome of interest, they could also be potential intermediate variables and induce a bias in our regression analysis (Angrist & Pischke, 2008; Elwert & Winship, 2014). In the supplementary materials (See Table S5 in Section 4), we replicate our main models excluding these two variables and our substantive findings remain unchanged.

At the individual-level, several control variables are included to take into account compositional differences in immigrants' characteristics coming from and living in different countries (for a complete review of the social and demographic predictors of gender-egalitarian attitudes see Davis & Greenstein (2009)). Women are found to have more egalitarian gender ideology (e.g. Brooks & Bolzendahl, 2004). Also, education has been shown to be a consistent predictor of gender-egalitarian attitudes (e.g. Cunningham, Beutel, Barber & Thornton, 2005). Married individuals tend to have more traditional gender role attitudes (e.g. Kim & Cheung, 2015; Moore & Vanneman, 2003). Age captures different life stages, which are important for gender role attitudes. As the data is cross-sectional, age also indirectly captures cohort differences. This is important because cohort-replacement is a critical factor to account for when studying gender ideology (e.g. Brewster & Rindfuss, 2000). Living in more urban areas leads to more gender-egalitarian attitudes (e.g. Johnson, 1999). From the intergenerational literature on gender role attitudes, we also know that mother's employment is a strong predictor of egalitarian attitudes (e.g. Glass et al., 1986; Thornton et al., 1983). Finally, the immigration literature on values and attitudes emphasizes the role played by the religious affiliation in explaining differences in outcomes among immigrants. In particular, several studies show that Muslim immigrants tend to have more traditional gender role attitudes (e.g. Arends-Tóth & Van de Vijver, 2009; Diehl et al., 2009; Idema & Phalet, 2007).

Accordingly, we include the following control variables: gender, level of education, partnership

status, age, mother's employment when respondent was 14, religious denomination and urbanity. For the gender variable, women are the reference category. The level of education is coded as 4 categories: less than secondary (reference), lower-secondary, upper secondary, and tertiary. Partnership status takes 2 different values: partnered (reference), without a partner. The age variable is categorized into 4 intervals: 15-29 (reference), 30-44, 45-59, and 60+. The urbanity measure has three categories: urban (reference), town or small city, rural. Mother's work is constructed using the survey question on mother's employment status when the respondent was 14. The variable is categorical takes three values: 0 is 'didn't work' (reference), 1 is 'worked' (includes employed and self-employed), 2 when the mother was either absent or deceased. The religious variable is regrouped in 4 categories: No religion (reference), Christian, Muslim, and other religions. Finally, we also include an indicator variable for the three different survey rounds used for the analysis: 2nd round (reference), 4th round and 5th round.

4 Method

Our data structure calls for the application of multilevel cross-classified models. We observe immigrants clustered in countries of origin and countries of destination. The origin and destination levels of classification are not nested as in a standard multilevel model. Instead, they are cross-classified, as immigrants from the same country of origin can be present in different destination countries. Multilevel modeling, in general, allows us to take into account the non-independence of units in the same cluster (for example, the country of origin) and to include in the same model variables defined at different levels (Snijders & Bosker, 2012). Multilevel cross-classified models allow one to partition the relative importance of the three sources of heterogeneity that we want to study (the country of origin, the country of destination and their interaction, i.e. the community),

and testing the role of macro-level variables measured both in the country of origin and destination as well as the community. Cross-classified multilevel analysis allows one to estimate the variability in the outcome due to the effect of countries of destination after the heterogeneity of immigrants' origin has been controlled for and vice versa (see Kalmijn & Van Tubergen, 2010; Van Tubergen, Maas & Flap, 2004; Vitali & Arpino, 2015). A multilevel linear cross-classified model can be represented as:

$$Y_{i(o,d)} = X_{i(o,d)}\beta + Z_o\gamma + W_d\delta + C_{o,d}\theta + e_{i(o,d)} + u_o + v_d + z_{o,d} \quad (1)$$

where the subscript $i(o,d)$ indicates an immigrant belonging to a generic unit of the cross-classified structure, where $i = 1, 2, \dots, n(o, d)$; $o = 1, 2, \dots, 95$ indicates the country of origin and $d = 1, 2, \dots, 32$ indicates the country of destination. Y indicates the outcome. Individual, origin, destination, and community variables are identified with X , Z , W , and C , respectively. The individual error term (e), the origin (u), the destination (v), and the community z error terms are assumed to be normally distributed with zero mean and variance to be estimated (Snijders & Bosker, 2012). These variances are of interest in this study because they measure the importance of the different sources of heterogeneity under analysis. All the upper-level variables are centered on their respective grand mean.

5 Descriptive Results

Immigrants across Europe and Russia come from 95 countries that differ significantly with regard to their views on women's roles in the labor market. To illustrate this variation, we present in Figure 1 a map of the world representing the share of respondents who disagree that men should have more right to a job than women when jobs are scarce (the values correspond to the average

across the three different survey years, see Table S4 in Section 4 of the supplementary materials for the exact values for each country of origin and wave). From Figure 1, we can observe that there is important variation at the country-level regarding cultural values toward women's employment.

Table 1 summarizes the variables described in the Data and variables section. First- and second-generation immigrants in our sample come from more than ninety countries. Therefore, we grouped respondents into larger geographical regions in order to present the descriptive statistics in a unique table. The definition of each region is explained in the supplementary materials (Section 4) in Table S6.

As already illustrated in the descriptive map (Figure 1), origin gender ideology varies widely across the different regions in the sample. Countries in the Middle East and Northern Africa have amongst the least egalitarian gender ideology, whereas Northern Europe and North America have some of the most egalitarian country-level gender ideology. Descriptively, the ranking of origin gender ideology and the individual-level gender role attitudes of immigrants appear to follow a similar pattern. At the individual level, on average, Middle Eastern and North African immigrants have also more traditional gender attitudes, and as expected, the opposite is true of Northern European and American immigrants. There are, however, also some exceptions. For example, Asian immigrants come from fairly traditional countries but their gender role attitudes at destination are not amongst the least egalitarian. Turning to the control variables for the destination countries, we find that there are more homogeneous across regions of origin with respect to the country-of-origin variables. This is to be expected because the countries of destination are concentrated in Europe and Russia, and thus, represent a less diverse sample with respect to the countries of origin. When interpreting the upper-level variables, it is important to keep in mind that that the origin and destination variables are centered on their grand mean. For example, the destination HDI (mean = 0.86)

ranges between -0.05 to 0.03, the FLFP/MLFP ratio (mean = 0.85) from -0.06 to 0.08. In contrast, the origin HDI (mean = 0.80) takes values that range between -0.27 and 0.11.

Turning to the community variables, the variation between regions in the gender ideology distance is also important. For example, as expected, immigrants from non-Western countries tend to come from countries where cultural values toward gender roles are substantially more traditional with respect to their destination. Furthermore, we also see that taking into account the difference between positive and negative gender ideology distances reveals interesting patterns for European immigrants as well. Immigrants from Northern Europe, the most egalitarian region in the sample, still migrate to countries that are on average slightly more egalitarian with respect to their origin, suggesting patterns of within-region migration.

At the individual-level, immigrants' characteristics represent an important source of variation across regions. About half of immigrants from European, Post-Soviet, and Middle Eastern countries are second-generation immigrants. Whereas Asia, Latin America, and Sub-Saharan Africa appear to reflect more recent waves of immigration. A similar pattern extends to the age distribution, where respondents from newer regions of origin are younger with respect to other immigrants in our sample. For example, immigrants from Latin America, Northern Africa and Sub-Saharan Africa are much younger with respect to other regions of origin.

The regional differences are not only important in the experience of immigration, i.e. the length of stay in the country, but also in individual-level characteristics. For example, Sub-Saharan immigrants have the largest share of tertiary-educated respondents ranging around 50%, against only 16% of Middle Eastern immigrants. Furthermore, immigrants from Latin America and Post-Soviet countries are predominantly women. Turning to mother's employment, about 62% of Middle Eastern immigrants had a stay-at-home mother at age 14 with respect to only 18% for Post-Soviet im-

migrants. Finally, the Middle Eastern and Northern African regions present as expected the largest share of Muslims but, interestingly, in each region about 20% declare to have no religion.

As can be seen from the descriptive statistics, the variation in the composition of the sample can represent another potential source of explanation for finding different levels of gender attitudes among immigrant groups. Age, education and mother's employment are, for instance, characteristics that are closely related to adhering to more or less egalitarian gender attitudes. We now turn to the multivariate results to disentangle these different sources of variation.

6 Multivariate Results

6.1 Random Effects Estimates

We first explore the relative importance of contextual factors and compositional effects in explaining variation in immigrants' gender role attitudes. To do so, we start by estimating a null model in which only the ESS round variable is included. We then proceed to estimating models including separately variables for each level of the cross-classified model: the individual-level (I), the origin-level (O), the destination-level (D), and the community-level (C). Finally, we estimate a model (I+O+D+C) that includes all covariates described in Table 1.

In Table 2, we summarize the variances of random effects and their standard errors for the four levels of each model, i.e. the country of destination, the country of origin, the community and the individual. To better understand the changes in the random effects estimates with different sets of independent variables, we show the change in variance with respect to the null model (column “ $\Delta\%$ variance”). We also include the variance-partition coefficients (VPC), which indicate what proportion of the total variance in gender role attitudes that can be attributed to each level.

Estimates of random errors variances in the null model of Table 2 indicate that there is a significant variation in immigrants' gender attitudes according to their country of origin and destination as well as their community. Overall, about 15% of the overall variance lies at the upper-level (the sum of the origin, destination and community VPCs). The percentage of variance attributable to the country of origin is of about 3%. We notice that the amount of variance attributable to the country of destination is considerably higher (about 10%). The community-level variance is small but not negligible in the null model (about 1.5%). Including individual-level variables (Model I) reduces as expected the variance at the individual-level but also of the community and origin levels, which suggests that individual factors account for an important part of the differences observed across immigrants' countries of origin and their communities.

Origin gender ideology and HDI reduce the country-of-origin variance by about two thirds (Model O). These results provide initial evidence that the cultural values toward gender role are still relevant for immigrants' gender role attitudes at destination. As expected, including destination variables substantially reduces the destination-level variance. The destination variables explain about 77% of the variation observed at the destination-level indicating a strong association between contextual factors in the country of destination and immigrants gender role attitudes. The community model, which incorporates into the model the two gender ideology distance variables, slightly reduces both the community and origin variation. This suggests that the observed differences across origins are partially attributable to community-level factors. Finally, once we include all level variables, the contextual variation is almost fully explained across all the upper levels, in particular, for the origin and the destination.

6.2 Fixed Effects Estimates

6.2.1 Model Specifications

For each hypothesis, we present 5 different models to understand how the different sets of control variables mediate the relationship between the main explanatory variables and the outcome of interest. Model 1 presents the main variable(s) of interest and the ESS round indicator. The three subsequent models include, separately, the individual-level, the destination-level and the origin-level control variables. Finally, Model 5 includes all the control variables presented in Table 1. For each hypothesis, we assess whether our models are sensitive to influential cases. Focusing on the variables of substantive interest, we find that our the results remain consistent with our conclusions when considering potential outliers (The influential cases analysis is summarized in the section S5 of the supplementary materials).

6.2.2 Origin gender ideology

We start by presenting results for the relationship between origin gender ideology and immigrants' gender role attitudes. Model 1 in Table 3 shows a significant association between origin gender ideology and immigrants' attitudes toward working women. As expected, immigrants that come from more gender-egalitarian countries tend to hold more gender egalitarian attitudes across different countries of destination. The relationship is significant at the 0.001 level but the size effect is rather modest. For example, coming from a country where about 80% of the population disagrees with the 'jobs are scarce' statement, which is the case of Canada for example, would increase the dependent variable by about 0.19 points with respect to a country with an average value of gender ideology holding all other covariates constant (Note that the origin gender ideology vari-

able is centered on its grand mean = 50.73%, which is similar to Austria in the 2nd ESS round)
($0.654 \times (0.80 - 0.5073) = 0.191$).

As we add the different sets of control variables, the results confirm the association between origin gender ideology and immigrants' gender role attitudes toward working women. Nevertheless, the size of the origin gender ideology coefficient is reduced by half (from 0.654 to 0.384) when comparing the empty model (Model 1) to the full model (Model 5). In line with the random effects discussion, our findings show that the inclusion of contextual variables at the origin and destination as well as compositional factors partially reduce the origin gender ideology coefficient. Of particular interest at the individual-level is the relationship between the length of stay in the destination country and the dependent variable. First generation immigrants are separated in 4 groups according to their length of stay in the country of destination and compared to second generation immigrants (the reference category). As expected, first generation immigrants have more "negative" gender attitudes, i.e., they hold more traditional attitudes, than second generation immigrants. The estimates also show evidence of assimilation: as length of stay increases, first generation immigrants' attitudes become more similar to those of second generation immigrants.

Turning to the country-of-origin control variable, the HDI variable is positively associated with individual-level gender role attitudes but the relationship loses statistical significance when compositional effects and destination-level factors are taken into account (Model 5 in Table 3). While the relationship between origin gender ideology and immigrants' gender role attitudes is robust to the inclusion of contextual variables, several destination variables are also highly significant. Destination HDI is positively associated to the adoption of gender-egalitarian attitudes toward women's employment. Also, as expected, in a context where women participate in higher numbers in the labor market with respect to men (FLFP/MLFP), immigrants have more egalitarian gender role at-

titudes. The coefficient for the share of women in national parliament is positive but not statistically significant. This is, in part, due to the high correlation with HDI ($\rho = 0.612$) because the relationship is significant when the share of women in parliament is included on its own (Results are not shown but are available upon request). Comparing the size effects of a one standard deviation increase in destination HDI to one in origin gender ideology, our results show that the destination HDI is 4 times larger than the origin gender ideology (For destination HDI: $5.571 \times 0.05 = 0.279$; for origin GI: $0.384 \times 0.17 = 0.065$).

Taken together, these results provide partial empirical support for the primary socialization hypothesis. The relationship between origin gender ideology and immigrants' gender role attitudes is statistically significant ($p < 0.001$), which suggests that cultural values toward gender roles have a persistent effect on immigrants' attitudes. Nevertheless, the size effect of the origin gender ideology variable is rather modest when taking into account compositional effects and the contextual variables. Furthermore, in contrast with the socialization theory predictions, our findings show that the destination characteristics are strongly associated to the attitudes of immigrants across countries.

6.2.3 Origin gender ideology and length of stay at destination

We turn to the second hypothesis to test whether the relationship between origin gender ideology and immigrants' gender role attitudes weakens as the length of stay in the destination country increases. We summarize the second hypothesis' findings in Table 4. With respect to the first set of results presented in Table 3, all the models include an interaction between origin gender ideology and the length of stay.

Note that the contextual variables are centered on their grand mean so that the coefficients of the

length of stay dummy variables can be referred to as a (hypothetical) country with average gender ideology (Average origin gender ideology = 50.73%). We can see that the pattern of association between the length of stay and immigrants' gender attitudes for the average country are as that commented above for the origin gender ideology models. The coefficients of the interaction terms between a length of stay shorter than 20 years and the country-of-origin's gender ideology are positive and significant, indicating that the effect of the cultural background is stronger for those who spent less time in the destination country. The substantive findings are similar across model specifications but the origin gender ideology size effect does become smaller and less significant when control variables are included in the model.

To better interpret the interaction, we plot the predicted values of immigrants' attitudes in Figure 2 for all possible values of the origin gender ideology variable. We illustrate the predictions for all immigrants using Model 5 in Table 3 and by length of stay at destination using Model 5 in Table 4. Figure 2 shows that, for second generation immigrants and immigrants that have stayed more than 20 years at destination, there is barely any relationship between their gender attitudes and the cultural values prevalent in their country of origin. The origin cultural background appears to be important only for first generation immigrants. The relationship becomes increasingly important (as demonstrated by the steeper lines) as the length of stay at destination decreases. Figure 2 also shows that the predicted values for recent first-generation immigrants are different from the average values for all immigrants.

We can also read Figure 2 in a different way. If we consider countries of origin with the lowest scores on the gender attitude indicators (toward the left part of the graph), second generation immigrants and immigrants that spent more than 20 years in the country of destination show the highest values on the attitude indicators (i.e., more egalitarian). The gap between them and immigrants

than spent less time in the country of destination diminishes as we consider countries of origin with more gender egalitarian attitudes. Attitudes of different immigrant groups tend to become indistinguishable when moving toward countries with the highest scores on the gender attitudes indicator.

In line with the second hypothesis, the findings presented in Table 4 show that the origin gender ideology coefficient weakens as the length of stay at destination increases. Origin cultural values lose relevance as a cultural framework for immigrants' gender role attitudes as they become exposed to the context of destination either from birth or for long spells of time. Further analysis showed that the origin gender ideology effect loses significance for child-migrants as well, supporting the idea of an influential age at which attitudes are formed (See Table S9 in the supplementary materials for models using age at migration instead of length of stay)³.

6.2.4 Origin gender ideology and gender ideology distance

In Table 5, we present the fixed estimates of the cross-classified models, which include origin gender ideology, gender ideology distance and their interaction. Gender ideology distance is included in the models as a spline variable, which is equivalent to having two variables. The first captures the effect of gender ideology distance for immigrants that come from more egalitarian countries with respect to the destination (Origin more egal.). The second measures the effect of gender ideology distance for immigrants that come from more traditional countries with respect to the destination (Origin more trad.).

In the results presented in Table 5, we find that the gender ideology distance coefficients are statistically significant and of opposite signs. Because the origin gender ideology variable is centered

³Age at migration can only be computed for the 5th wave of the ESS data, where the year of migration was asked instead of the categorical variable used in the main analysis. It is important to keep in mind that because the data is cross-sectional, we cannot disentangle the effects of age from age at migration and length of stay.

on its grand mean, we can interpret the gender ideology distance coefficients for a (hypothetical) country of origin with average gender ideology (Average origin gender ideology = 50.73%). The results show that net of origin country cultural values, natives' country-level gender ideology is also positively associated to immigrants' gender role attitudes. Immigrants living in countries that are more patriarchal with respect to their origin countries tend to adopt more traditional gender role attitudes. The opposite is found for immigrants that reside in more egalitarian destinations. These results suggest that origin gender ideology and the difference in gender ideology between the destination and the origin are both at play in explaining immigrants' gender role attitudes. In a way, these findings add to the results presented in Table 3 and illustrate how the context of destination is also relevant when considering immigrants' values and attitudes.

Turning to the interactions' coefficients presented in Table 5, we also find the relationship between origin gender ideology and immigrants' gender role attitudes to be moderated by the gender ideology distance. The interaction between origin gender ideology and gender ideology distance (origin more egalitarian) is positive and statistically significant, suggesting that the negative effect of living in a patriarchal country is moderated by coming from a more egalitarian origin. This, however, is only true for immigrants of more egalitarian origins with respect to the destination. The results presented in Table 5 show that the coefficient for the interaction between origin gender ideology and gender ideology distance (origin more traditional) is not statistically significant. Differently from the previous interaction, this finding suggest that, for immigrants from more traditional origins with respect to the destination, the positive effect of living in a relatively more egalitarian context does not depend on the cultural values at origin.

We illustrate graphically the results presented in Model 5 in Table 5 by predicting immigrants' gender role attitudes for different combinations of levels of origin gender ideology and gender

ideology distance. We present the predicted values for a positive (origin more egalitarian) and negative (origin more traditional) gender ideology distance separately in, respectively, Figure 3 and 4. For each figure, in the left-quadrant, the average predictions are computed for hypothetical immigrants who live in communities where the gender ideology distance corresponds to the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 90th percentiles. In the right quadrant, we show predictions for community-specific examples.

The average predictions presented in the left-quadrant of Figure 3 and 4 are in line with the coefficients discussed previously. For immigrants living in more traditional countries with respect to their origin, we observe a ‘fanning in’ pattern as the origin gender ideology becomes more egalitarian. As gender ideology distance becomes larger, the slopes of the predicted values also become steeper, suggesting that the influence of the gender culture at the origin is stronger for immigrants who live in contexts where gender ideology is patriarchal with respect to their countries of origin. Illustrating the effect of the destination context, the right-quadrant of Figure 3 shows that Romanian immigrants in the Czech Republic (RO-to-CZ) have higher average predicted values with respect to Chinese immigrants in Ukraine (CN-to-UA) -although both China and Romania share similar gender ideology levels. Instead, taking as an example egalitarian countries of origin, we observe that Canadian immigrants in France (CA-to-FR) vs. Dutch immigrants in Switzerland (NL-to-CH) have very similar predicted gender role attitudes notwithstanding a much larger gender ideology distance for Dutch immigrants.

Turning to immigrants living in more egalitarian countries with respect to their destination, the left-quadrant of Figure 4 shows that across levels of origin gender ideology, the larger the gender ideology distance, the higher the predicted values for immigrants’ gender role attitudes. As shown, by the results presented in Model 4 in Table 4, we find no interactive effects between the gender

ideology at origin and the distance (as illustrated by the parallel slopes). Using community examples, in the right quadrant of Figure 4, we observe that average predicted Vietnamese's gender roles attitudes are more egalitarian in the Netherlands (VN-to-NL) with respect to the United Kingdom (VN-to-UK). This is also true for immigrants from more egalitarian countries such as Austrians in Denmark (AT-to-DK) with respect to Austrians in France (AT-to-FR). For both communities, our findings show that net of the cultural values in the country of origin, the larger the gender ideology distance the more egalitarian are immigrants' gender role attitudes.

The findings presented in Table 4 also show that including the community-level variables captures some of the contextual variation at destination. In particular, with respect to the models presented in Table 3 and 4, the destination control variables lose their statistical significance in the models presented in Table 5. This is, in part, due to the fairly high correlation between the destination characteristics and the gender ideology distance variables.

6.2.5 Control variables

Finally, we discuss briefly the control variables in the models. For sake of space, the full tables for each of the models in Table 3, 4 and 5 are presented in the supplementary materials (Section 4) in, respectively, Table S7, S8 and S10. In line with previous findings (see Davis & Greenstein (2009) for a review), women and higher-educated immigrants have more egalitarian gender role attitudes. Older respondents and immigrants living in rural areas or smaller town are more traditional with respect to those in urban areas. Also, partnered immigrants hold more traditional attitudes toward working women with respect to partner-less immigrants. Having a working mother positively predicts egalitarian gender attitudes. Finally, Christian and Muslim immigrants hold more traditional views toward working women with respect to immigrants who are not religiously affiliated.

7 Discussion

In this article, we use country-of-origin differences in gender ideology to study the influence of cultural values on immigrants' gender role attitudes across 32 destination countries. We apply cross-classified multilevel models to a sample of first- and second-generation immigrants from the European Social Survey. In line with previous studies (e.g. Fernández et al., 2004; Frank & Hou, 2015; Röder & Mühlau, 2014), we find that origin gender ideology has a small but persistent effect on immigrants' attitudes. An advantage of a cross-classified design is that we can compare the size effect of the origin cultural variable to other destination characteristics. Our findings show that, while the relationship between origin gender ideology and immigrants' attitudes is robust to the inclusion of compositional and contextual variables, the size effect remains rather modest when compared to the coefficients for HDI or women-to-men FLP at destination.

Our results also suggest that the persistence of cultural values from the country of origin on immigrants' gender role attitudes diminishes over time. For second-generation and long-residing immigrants, origin gender ideology does not influence their attitudes, while the relationship remains strong for recently arrived immigrants. These findings suggest that secondary socialization as well as exposure to a new set of norms and institutions weakens the relevance of origin cultural values as a framework for immigrants' attitudinal formation.

Furthermore, the relationship between origin gender ideology and immigrants' gender role attitudes hinges on the gender ideology distance between the origin and destination and on whether the destination is either more traditional or more egalitarian with respect to the origin. Our findings show that immigrants' gender role attitudes reflect more strongly their origin country gender ideology when their destination environment is more patriarchal with respect to their country of

origin. Differently, when immigrants reside in more egalitarian countries, the ideological distance does not moderate the relationship between origin gender ideology and immigrants' gender role attitudes. Instead, our findings show that net of origin cultural values, the more egalitarian the destination is, the more immigrants' adopt gender-egalitarian attitudes toward working women.

Our analyses have some limitations. Given the cross-sectional nature of the data, we cannot differentiate length-of-stay effects from differences in gender attitudes between immigrants that migrate at different points in time. Our findings show that recent immigrants have more traditional gender role attitudes with respect to long-residing immigrants. We interpret these differences as immigrants adopting more gender-egalitarian attitudes when they stay longer in their destination countries. If the length-of-stay differences were attributed to pre-migration differences within country, it would mean that immigrants' gender attitudes from earlier migration waves were more egalitarian with respect to those of recent migrants from the same country. Both explanations are plausible but the latter appears less intuitive. Nevertheless, only panel data would allow us to accurately disentangle the adaption hypothesis from the selection one. Another limitation of this study is that it is limited to only one dimension of gender-egalitarian attitudes, namely attitudes toward women's employment. Therefore, our findings cannot be generalized to other dimensions of gender ideology, such as views toward housework or maternal employment. Nevertheless, to our knowledge, this is the only dimension that can be used to carry out the epidemiological approach using such a wide sample of countries of origin.

Overall, our study shows that immigrants' gender role attitudes can be, in part, attributed to their country of origin but also depend on the context in which they reside. Our findings emphasize change rather than persistence in the role played by the country of origin in attitude formation. We show that the strength of origin gender ideology weakens for second-generation immigrants and

long-residing migrants. Furthermore, our results show that the gender norms at destination are also positively associated to immigrants' gender role attitudes. Nevertheless, immigrants living in more traditional destination with respect to their country of origin are less inclined to adapt their gender role attitudes to the context of destination.

References

- Angrist, J. D. & Pischke, J.-S. (2008). *Mostly harmless econometrics: An empiricist's companion*. Princeton university press.
- Arends-Tóth, J. & Van de Vijver, F. J. (2009). Cultural differences in family, marital, and gender-role values among immigrants and majority members in the Netherlands. *International Journal of Psychology, 44*(3), 161–169.
- Arpino, B., Esping-Andersen, G., & Pessin, L. (2015). How do changes in gender role attitudes towards female employment influence fertility? A macro-level analysis. *European Sociological Review, 31*(3), 370–382.
- Arpino, B. & Tavares, L. (2013). Fertility and values in Italy and Spain: A look at regional differences within the European context. *Population Review, 52*(1).
- Batalova, J. A. & Cohen, P. N. (2002). Premarital cohabitation and housework: Couples in cross-national perspective. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 64*(3), 743–755.
- Baxter, J., Buchler, S., Perales, F., & Western, M. (2015). A life-changing event: First births and men's and women's attitudes to mothering and gender divisions of labor. *Social Forces, 93*(3), 989–1014.
- Blau, F. D., Kahn, L. M., & Papps, K. L. (2011). Gender, source country characteristics, and labor market assimilation among immigrants. *The Review of Economics and Statistics, 93*(1), 43–58.
- Bliss, S. B. (1988). The effect of feminist attitudes in parents on their kindergarten children. *Smith College Studies in Social Work, 58*(3), 182–192.

- Brewster, K. L. & Rindfuss, R. R. (2000). Fertility and women's employment in industrialized nations. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 26, 271–296.
- Brooks, C. & Bolzendahl, C. (2004). The transformation of US gender role attitudes: Cohort replacement, social-structural change, and ideological learning. *Social Science Research*, 33(1), 106–133.
- Cha, Y. & Thébaud, S. (2009). Labor markets, breadwinning, and beliefs how economic context shapes men's gender ideology. *Gender & Society*, 23(2), 215–243.
- Cunningham, M., Beutel, A. M., Barber, J. S., & Thornton, A. (2005). Reciprocal relationships between attitudes about gender and social contexts during young adulthood. *Social Science Research*, 34(4), 862–892.
- Dasgupta, S. D. (1998). Gender roles and cultural continuity in the Asian Indian immigrant community in the US. *Sex Roles*, 38(11-12), 953–974.
- Davis, S. N. (2007). Gender ideology construction from adolescence to young adulthood. *Social Science Research*, 36(3), 1021–1041.
- Davis, S. N. & Greenstein, T. N. (2009). Gender ideology: Components, predictors, and consequences. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 35, 87–105.
- Davis, S. N. & Wills, J. B. (2010). Adolescent gender ideology socialization: Direct and moderating effects of fathers' beliefs. *Sociological Spectrum*, 30(5), 580–604.
- Diehl, C., Koenig, M., & Ruckdeschel, K. (2009). Religiosity and gender equality: Comparing natives and Muslim migrants in Germany. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 32(2), 278–301.

- Doepke, M., Tertilt, M., & Voena, A. (2012). The economics and politics of women's rights. *Annual Review of Economics*, 4, 339–372.
- Elwert, F. & Winship, C. (2014). Endogenous selection bias: The problem of conditioning on a collider variable. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 40, 31–53.
- Ersanilli, E. (2012). Model (ling) citizens? Integration policies and value integration of turkish immigrants and their descendants in Germany, France, and the Netherlands. *Journal of Immigrant & Refugee Studies*, 10(3), 338–358.
- Esping-Andersen, G. (2009). *The Incomplete Revolution: Adapting to Women's New Roles*. Cambridge, UK; Malden, USA: Polity Press.
- Fernandez, R. & Fogli, A. (2009). Culture: An empirical investigation of beliefs, work, and fertility. *American Economic Journal: Macroeconomics*, 1(1), 146–177.
- Fernández, R., Fogli, A., & Olivetti, C. (2004). Mothers and sons: Preference formation and female labor force dynamics. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 119(4), 1249–1299.
- Fortin, N. M. (2005). Gender role attitudes and the labour-market outcomes of women across OECD countries. *Oxford Review of Economic Policy*, 21(3), 416–438.
- Frank, K. & Hou, F. (2015). Source-country gender roles and the division of labor within immigrant families. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 77(2), 557–574.
- Furtado, D., Marcén, M., & Sevilla, A. (2013). Did unilateral divorce raise divorce rates? evidence from panel data. *Demography*, 50, 1013–1038.

- Fuwa, M. (2004). Macro-level gender inequality and the division of household labor in 22 countries. *American Sociological Review*, 69(6), 751–767.
- Glass, J., Bengtson, V. L., & Dunham, C. C. (1986). Attitude similarity in three-generation families: Socialization, status inheritance, or reciprocal influence? *American Sociological Review*, 51(5), 685–698.
- Greenstein, T. N. & Davis, S. N. (2006). Cross-national variations in divorce: Effects of women's power, prestige and dependence. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, 37(2), 253–273.
- Guo, J. & Gilbert, N. (2012). Public attitudes and gender policy regimes: Coherence and stability in hard times. *Journal of Sociology & Social Welfare*, 39(2), 163.
- Hook, J. L. (2006). Care in context: Men's unpaid work in 20 countries, 1965–2003. *American Sociological Review*, 71(4), 639–660.
- Huschek, D., de Valk, H. A., & Liefbroer, A. C. (2011). Gender-role behavior of second-generation Turks: The role of partner choice, gender ideology and societal context. *Advances in Life Course Research*, 16(4), 164–177.
- Idema, H. & Phalet, K. (2007). Transmission of gender-role values in Turkish-German migrant families: The role of gender, intergenerational and intercultural relations. *Zeitschrift für Familienforschung-Journal of Family Research*, 19(1).
- Inglehart, R. & Norris, P. (2003). *Rising tide: Gender equality and cultural change around the world*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

- Johnson, N. E. (1999). Nonmetropolitan sex-role ideologies: A longitudinal study. *Rural Sociology*, 64(1), 44–65.
- Kabeer, N. (2005). Gender equality and women's empowerment: A critical analysis of the third millennium development goal. *Gender & Development*, 13(1), 13–24.
- Kalmijn, M. & Van Tubergen, F. (2010). A comparative perspective on intermarriage: Explaining differences among national-origin groups in the United States. *Demography*, 47(2), 459–479.
- Kawaguchi, D. & Miyazaki, J. (2009). Working mothers and sons' preferences regarding female labor supply: Direct evidence from stated preferences. *Journal of Population Economics*, 22(1), 115–130.
- Kim, E. H.-W. & Cheung, A. K. L. (2015). Women's attitudes toward family formation and life stage transitions: A longitudinal study in Korea. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 77(5), 1074–1090.
- Knudsen, K. & Wærness, K. (2008). National context and spouses' housework in 34 countries. *European Sociological Review*, 24(1), 97–113.
- McDonald, P. (2013). Societal foundations for explaining fertility: Gender equity. *Demographic Research*, 28(34), 981–994.
- Merz, E.-M., Özeke-Kocabas, E., Oort, F. J., & Schuengel, C. (2009). Intergenerational family solidarity: value differences between immigrant groups and generations. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 23(3), 291.

- Moen, P., Erickson, M. A., & Dempster-McClain, D. (1997). Their mother's daughters? The intergenerational transmission of gender attitudes in a world of changing roles. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 59(2), 281–293.
- Moore, L. M. & Vanneman, R. (2003). Context matters: Effects of the proportion of fundamentalists on gender attitudes. *Social Forces*, 82(1), 115–139.
- Myers, S. M. & Booth, A. (2002). Forerunners of change in nontraditional gender ideology. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 65(1), 18–37.
- Pampel, F. (2011). Cohort change, diffusion, and support for gender egalitarianism in cross-national perspective. *Demographic Research*, 25(21), 667.
- Pessin, L. (2015). Divorce trends and the changing context of gender norms in the united states: A micro-macro approach. Paper presented in San Diego at the Annual Meeting of the Population Association of America.
- Röder, A. & Mühlau, P. (2014). Are they acculturating? Europe's immigrants and gender egalitarianism. *Social Forces*, 92(3), 899–928.
- Seguino, S. (2007). Plus ça change? Evidence on global trends in gender norms and stereotypes. *Feminist Economics*, 13(2), 1–28.
- Snijders, T. A. & Bosker, R. J. (2012). *Multilevel Analysis: An Introduction to Basic and Advanced Multilevel Modeling* (2 ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Sutfin, E. L., Fulcher, M., Bowles, R. P., & Patterson, C. J. (2008). How lesbian and heterosexual

- parents convey attitudes about gender to their children: The role of gendered environments. *Sex Roles*, 58(7-8), 501–513.
- Thornton, A., Alwin, D. F., & Camburn, D. (1983). Causes and consequences of sex-role attitudes and attitude change. *American Sociological Review*, 48(2), 211–227.
- Treas, J. & Widmer, E. D. (2000). Married women's employment over the life course: Attitudes in cross-national perspective. *Social Forces*, 78(4), 1409–1436.
- Van Tubergen, F., Maas, I., & Flap, H. (2004). The economic incorporation of immigrants in 18 Western societies: Origin, destination, and community effects. *American Sociological Review*, 69(5), 704–727.
- Vitali, A. & Arpino, B. (2015). Living arrangements of second-generation immigrants in Spain: A cross-classified multilevel analysis. *Regional Studies*, 49(2), 189–203.
- Willits, F. K. & Crider, D. M. (1989). Church attendance and traditional religious beliefs in adolescence and young adulthood: A panel study. *Review of Religious Research*, 31(1), 68–81.
- Yu, W.-H. & Lee, P.-L. (2013). Decomposing gender beliefs: Cross-national differences in attitudes toward maternal employment and gender equality at home. *Sociological Inquiry*, 83(4), 591–621.

Tables

Table 1 – Descriptive statistics by region of origin

	Asia	Oceania	Eastern Europe	Latin America	Middle East	Northern Africa	North America	Northern Europe	Post Soviet	Southern Europe	Sub-Sah Africa	Western Europe
Dependent variable												
Gender roles attitudes	3.68	3.78	3.43	3.92	3.07	3.29	4.02	4.08	3.18	3.57	3.87	3.75
Origin variables												
Gender ideology	-0.21	0.20	-0.06	0.13	-0.31	-0.20	0.19	0.23	-0.09	0.05	-0.12	0.13
Human-development indicator	-0.14	0.11	0.01	-0.06	-0.09	-0.19	0.10	0.09	-0.05	0.01	-0.27	0.08
Destination variables												
% women in national parliament	0.04	-0.03	-0.01	0.08	0.03	0.06	0.02	0.05	-0.06	0.00	-0.02	0.04
Human-development indicator	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.04	-0.05	0.02	0.03	0.02
Women-to-men LFP	0.00	-0.05	-0.02	-0.01	-0.04	-0.01	0.00	0.02	0.03	-0.01	-0.02	-0.02
Community variables												
GI distance (Origin more egal.)	0.00	0.15	0.03	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.09	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.05
GI distance (Origin more trad.)	0.40	0.02	0.14	0.08	0.37	0.40	0.06	0.05	0.11	0.09	0.34	0.04
Individual-level variables												
<i>Length of stay (2nd gener.)</i>	<i>34.75</i>	<i>26.09</i>	<i>51.61</i>	<i>20.69</i>	<i>52.32</i>	<i>38.79</i>	<i>56.21</i>	<i>48.75</i>	<i>46.58</i>	<i>48.75</i>	<i>13.24</i>	<i>52.13</i>
>20 yrs	29.66	39.13	19.70	23.79	21.24	30.30	24.01	30.76	38.19	29.09	17.65	26.24
11-20 yrs	13.14	13.04	8.61	18.97	14.05	8.48	6.21	9.56	8.27	13.92	18.38	8.62
6-10 yrs	9.96	8.70	8.00	16.21	7.19	12.42	4.24	5.64	3.77	3.95	30.15	5.16
1-5 yrs	12.50	13.04	12.09	20.34	5.20	10.00	9.32	5.29	3.18	4.30	20.59	7.85
<i>Gender (Woman)</i>	<i>51.06</i>	<i>56.52</i>	<i>56.35</i>	<i>60.69</i>	<i>49.23</i>	<i>43.33</i>	<i>55.93</i>	<i>54.45</i>	<i>60.92</i>	<i>50.59</i>	<i>51.47</i>	<i>54.19</i>
Man	48.94	43.48	43.65	39.31	50.77	56.67	44.07	45.55	39.08	49.41	48.53	45.81
<i>Partnership status (Partnered)</i>	<i>51.48</i>	<i>50.00</i>	<i>60.04</i>	<i>53.45</i>	<i>58.08</i>	<i>51.82</i>	<i>59.89</i>	<i>57.24</i>	<i>55.54</i>	<i>59.30</i>	<i>45.59</i>	<i>60.33</i>
Not partnered	48.52	50.00	39.96	46.55	41.92	48.18	40.11	42.76	44.46	40.70	54.41	39.67
<i>Education (< than sec.)</i>	<i>10.38</i>	<i>2.17</i>	<i>4.78</i>	<i>11.38</i>	<i>29.31</i>	<i>21.82</i>	<i>9.32</i>	<i>7.84</i>	<i>5.71</i>	<i>16.11</i>	<i>7.35</i>	<i>7.78</i>
Lower-secondary	19.28	17.39	16.52	23.10	22.90	23.94	12.71	15.80	13.68	21.46	17.65	14.93
Upper-secondary	29.66	43.48	54.17	36.21	31.97	34.55	35.31	36.70	42.44	43.59	23.53	41.80
Tertiary	40.68	36.96	24.52	29.31	15.82	19.70	42.66	39.67	38.17	18.84	51.47	35.48
N	472	46	2,300	290	904	330	354	1,684	4,399	2,558	136	2,866

Continued on next page

	Asia	Oceania	Eastern Europe	Latin America	Middle East	Northern Africa	North America	Northern Europe	Post Soviet	Southern Europe	Sub-Sah Africa	Western Europe
<i>Age (15-29)</i>	31.78	30.43	20.04	31.72	26.66	32.73	24.01	21.67	16.98	24.32	27.94	16.96
30-44	32.20	50.00	29.57	33.79	28.65	38.48	24.58	31.53	21.78	32.10	47.79	30.08
45-59	21.61	15.22	27.00	24.83	17.48	20.00	26.27	25.59	29.51	25.22	18.38	23.48
60+	14.41	4.35	23.39	9.66	27.21	8.79	25.14	21.20	31.73	18.37	5.88	29.48
<i>Religion (None)</i>	42.37	50.00	41.13	41.03	20.91	24.85	39.27	51.84	42.71	35.11	26.47	46.13
Christian	31.14	50.00	57.96	57.59	36.62	9.39	58.19	47.09	55.51	58.80	63.97	52.27
Muslim	13.14	0.00	0.17	0.00	41.26	64.24	0.85	0.30	1.18	5.43	7.35	0.42
Other religions	13.35	0.00	0.74	1.38	1.22	1.52	1.69	0.77	0.59	0.66	2.21	1.19
<i>Mother's work (Didn't work)</i>	53.60	43.48	33.83	42.76	62.17	69.39	45.76	39.90	18.28	50.74	45.59	49.62
Worked	42.80	56.52	63.52	55.17	35.95	27.27	53.11	57.60	78.34	46.83	52.21	48.05
Dead/absent	3.60	0.00	2.65	2.07	1.88	3.33	1.13	2.49	3.39	2.42	2.21	2.34
<i>Urbanity (Urban)</i>	49.79	45.65	36.52	45.86	49.56	48.18	37.85	37.41	46.78	33.58	45.59	30.57
Town or small city	30.51	26.09	36.74	29.31	30.64	29.09	29.66	30.46	34.89	34.05	41.18	28.44
Rural	19.70	28.26	26.74	24.83	19.80	22.73	32.49	32.13	18.32	32.37	13.24	41.00
<i>ESS round (2nd round)</i>	30.93	41.30	29.39	37.93	34.29	9.70	33.62	30.11	24.89	27.21	11.76	42.46
4th round	35.81	10.87	34.43	28.28	29.20	43.03	39.27	35.27	41.15	44.68	37.50	32.66
5th round	33.26	47.83	36.17	33.79	36.50	47.27	27.12	34.62	33.96	28.11	50.74	24.88
N	472	46	2,300	290	904	330	354	1,684	4,399	2,558	136	2,866

Sources = ESS, WVS/EVS, UN data and National Statistics of the Republic of China (Taiwan). GI = Gender ideology; Sub-Sah = Sub-Saharan.

Table 2 – Cross-classified linear models random effects

Destination				
Models	Variance	SE	$\Delta\%$ variance	VPC(%)
Null Model	0.151	(0.041)		9.7%
Individual (I)	0.154	(0.041)	2.0%	11.1%
Origin (O)	0.146	(0.040)	-3.3%	9.6%
Destination (D)	0.031	(0.010)	-79.5%	2.2%
Community (C)	0.147	(0.044)	-2.6%	9.5%
I+O+D+C	0.014	(0.005)	-90.7%	1.1%
Origin				
Models	Variance	SE	$\Delta\%$ variance	VPC(%)
Null Model	0.052	(0.013)		3.3%
Individual (I)	0.012	(0.005)	-76.9%	0.9%
Origin (O)	0.017	(0.007)	-67.3%	1.1%
Destination (D)	0.052	(0.013)	0.0%	3.6%
Community (C)	0.049	(0.015)	-5.8%	3.2%
I+O+D+C	0.003	(0.002)	-94.2%	0.2%
Community				
Models	Variance	SE	$\Delta\%$ variance	VPC(%)
Null Model	0.024	(0.006)		1.5%
Individual (I)	0.014	(0.005)	-41.7%	1.0%
Origin (O)	0.026	(0.006)	8.3%	1.7%
Destination (D)	0.025	(0.006)	4.2%	1.7%
Community (C)	0.024	(0.006)	0.0%	1.5%
I+O+D+C	0.012	(0.004)	-50.0%	1.0%
Individual				
Models	Variance	SE	$\Delta\%$ variance	VPC(%)
Null Model	1.330	(0.015)		85.4%
Individual (I)	1.208	(0.014)	-9.2%	87.0%
Origin (O)	1.330	(0.015)	0.0%	87.6%
Destination (D)	1.327	(0.015)	-0.2%	92.5%
Community (C)	1.330	(0.015)	0.0%	85.8%
I+O+D+C	1.203	(0.013)	-9.5%	97.6%

Notes: Standard errors in parentheses. VPC = Variance-partition coefficient. The null model only includes a set of indicator variables for the ESS round. The I model includes all the individual-level variables. The O model includes the origin-level variables. The D model includes the destination-level variables. The C model includes the community-level variables. The I+O+D+C models includes all the independent variables described in Table 1

Table 3 – Cross-classified linear models fixed estimates: Origin gender ideology

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
<i>Fixed effects</i>					
Origin gender ideology (GI)	0.654*** (0.103)	0.489*** (0.079)	0.610*** (0.104)	0.484*** (0.113)	0.384*** (0.094)
Length of stay (Ref. 2nd gener)					
> 20 yrs		-0.031 (0.022)			-0.032 (0.022)
11-20 yrs		-0.142*** (0.032)			-0.141*** (0.032)
6-10 yrs		-0.153*** (0.041)			-0.148*** (0.041)
1-5 yrs		-0.270*** (0.040)			-0.260*** (0.039)
Origin					
HDI				0.848*** (0.250)	0.328 (0.201)
Destination					
% women in parliament			0.230 (0.363)		0.603 (0.375)
HDI			6.094*** (0.826)		5.571*** (0.869)
Women-to-men LFP			2.474*** (0.507)		1.715*** (0.520)
<i>Random effects</i>					
Destination	0.145*** (0.040)	0.145*** (0.039)	0.029*** (0.010)	0.146*** (0.040)	0.039*** (0.012)
Origin	0.025*** (0.009)	0.004*** (0.003)	0.026*** (0.009)	0.017*** (0.007)	0.003*** (0.003)
Community	0.026*** (0.007)	0.015*** (0.005)	0.026*** (0.007)	0.026*** (0.006)	0.014*** (0.005)
Individual	1.329*** (0.015)	1.207*** (0.014)	1.327*** (0.015)	1.330*** (0.015)	1.206*** (0.013)
	16339	16339	16339	16339	16339

Standard errors in parentheses. Models 2 and 5 also include all the individual-level variables described in Table 1. Full models results are presented in Table S7. + p<0.10 * p<0.05 ** p<0.01 *** p<0.001.

Table 4 – Cross-classified linear models fixed estimates: Origin gender ideology and length of stay

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
<i>Fixed effects</i>					
Origin gender ideology (GI)	0.313** (0.120)	0.298** (0.097)	0.268* (0.120)	0.179 (0.128)	0.198+ (0.109)
Length of stay (Ref. 2nd gener)					
> 20 yrs	-0.194*** (0.022)	-0.034 (0.022)	-0.193*** (0.022)	-0.193*** (0.022)	-0.035 (0.022)
11-20 yrs	-0.131*** (0.033)	-0.146*** (0.032)	-0.135*** (0.033)	-0.125*** (0.033)	-0.145*** (0.032)
6-10 yrs	-0.088* (0.043)	-0.161*** (0.041)	-0.088* (0.043)	-0.081+ (0.043)	-0.156*** (0.041)
1-5 yrs	-0.182*** (0.042)	-0.291*** (0.040)	-0.173*** (0.041)	-0.176*** (0.042)	-0.280*** (0.040)
Origin GI x Length of stay					
Origin GI × > 20 yrs	0.242+ (0.127)	0.090 (0.121)	0.251* (0.127)	0.240+ (0.127)	0.100 (0.121)
Origin GI × 11-20 yrs	0.726*** (0.186)	0.446* (0.176)	0.733*** (0.186)	0.716*** (0.186)	0.459** (0.176)
Origin GI × 6-10 yrs	0.833*** (0.233)	0.433* (0.221)	0.833*** (0.233)	0.807*** (0.233)	0.429+ (0.220)
Origin GI × 1-5 yrs	1.315*** (0.226)	0.971*** (0.213)	1.320*** (0.226)	1.290*** (0.226)	0.971*** (0.213)
Origin					
HDI				0.680** (0.252)	0.292 (0.199)
Destination					
% women in parliament			0.276 (0.371)		0.621+ (0.376)
HDI			6.322*** (0.848)		5.615*** (0.873)
Women-to-men LFP			2.484*** (0.517)		1.749*** (0.522)
<i>Random effects</i>					
Destination	0.159*** (0.043)	0.149*** (0.039)	0.032*** (0.011)	0.160*** (0.043)	0.039*** (0.012)
Origin	0.024*** (0.008)	0.004*** (0.003)	0.025*** (0.008)	0.018*** (0.007)	0.003*** (0.003)
Community	0.024*** (0.006)	0.013*** (0.004)	0.024*** (0.006)	0.024*** (0.006)	0.013*** (0.004)
Individual	1.319*** (0.015)	1.206*** (0.013)	1.317*** (0.015)	1.320*** (0.015)	1.205*** (0.013)
	16339	16339	16339	16339	16339

Standard errors in parentheses. Models 2 and 5 also include all the individual-level variables described in Table 1. Full models results are presented in Table S8. + p<0.10 * p<0.05 ** p<0.01 *** p<0.001.

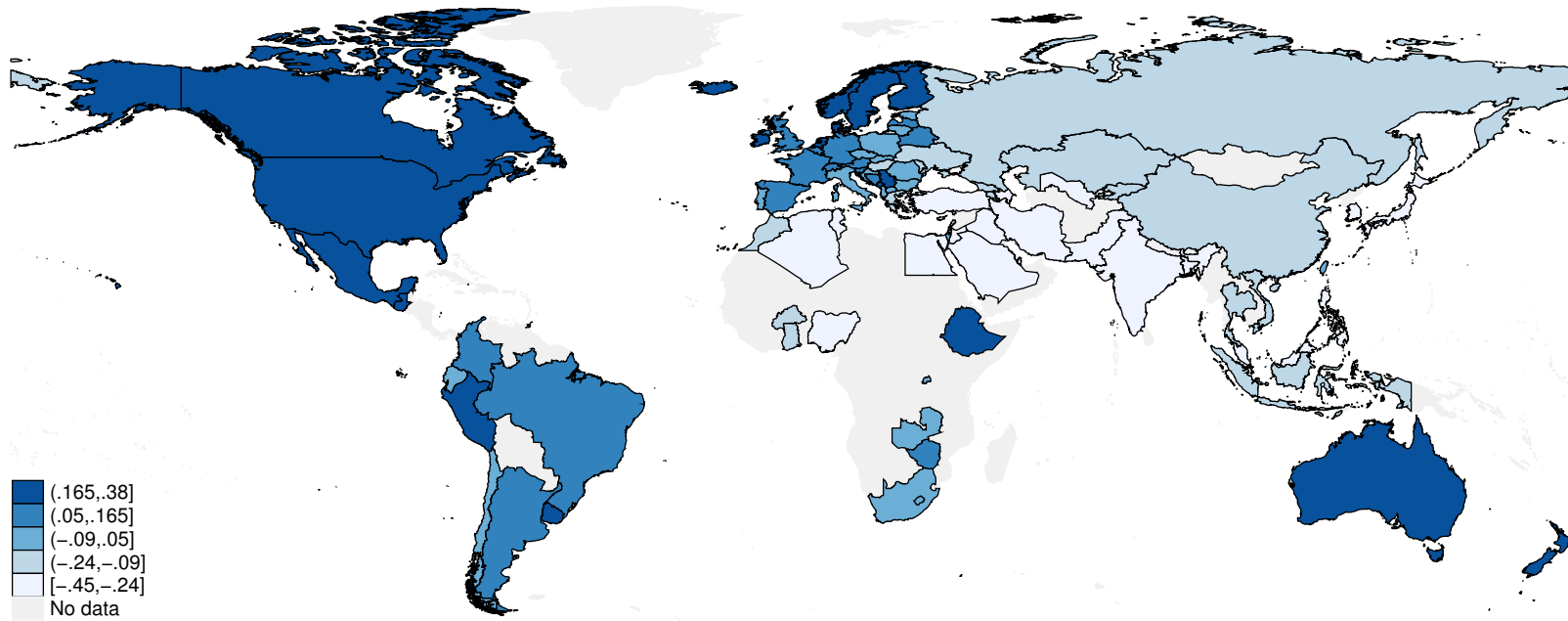
Table 5 – Cross-classified linear models fixed estimates: Origin gender ideology and gender ideology distance

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
<i>Fixed effects</i>					
Origin gender ideology (GI)	2.488*** (0.175)	2.381*** (0.162)	2.256*** (0.240)	2.339*** (0.176)	2.239*** (0.228)
Gender ideology distance					
Origin more egal.	-3.346*** (0.353)	-3.286*** (0.326)	-3.098*** (0.402)	-3.317*** (0.350)	-3.195*** (0.371)
Origin more trad.	1.946*** (0.178)	1.866*** (0.174)	1.737*** (0.239)	1.980*** (0.177)	1.819*** (0.232)
Origin GI × GI distance					
Orig GI × Dist (O more egal.)	5.285** (1.664)	4.730** (1.507)	5.263** (1.669)	5.169** (1.650)	4.621** (1.498)
Orig GI × Dist (O more trad.)	0.464 (0.572)	0.082 (0.482)	0.528 (0.572)	0.401 (0.556)	0.047 (0.474)
Origin					
HDI				0.929*** (0.242)	0.394* (0.194)
Destination					
% women in parliament			-0.529 ⁺ (0.298)		-0.187 (0.307)
HDI			1.991** (0.736)		1.291 ⁺ (0.754)
Women-to-men LFP			0.622 (0.441)		-0.505 (0.450)
<i>Random effects</i>					
Destination	0.012*** (0.005)	0.017*** (0.006)	0.010*** (0.004)	0.012*** (0.005)	0.014*** (0.005)
Origin	0.022*** (0.008)	0.004*** (0.003)	0.022*** (0.008)	0.014*** (0.006)	0.002*** (0.001)
Community	0.024*** (0.006)	0.012*** (0.004)	0.025*** (0.006)	0.024*** (0.006)	0.012*** (0.004)
Individual	1.324*** (0.015)	1.203*** (0.013)	1.323*** (0.015)	1.324*** (0.015)	1.203*** (0.013)
	16339	16339	16339	16339	16339

Standard errors in parentheses. Models 2 and 5 also include all the individual-level variables described in Table 1. Full models results are presented in Table S10. + p<0.10 * p<0.05 ** p<0.01 *** p<0.001.

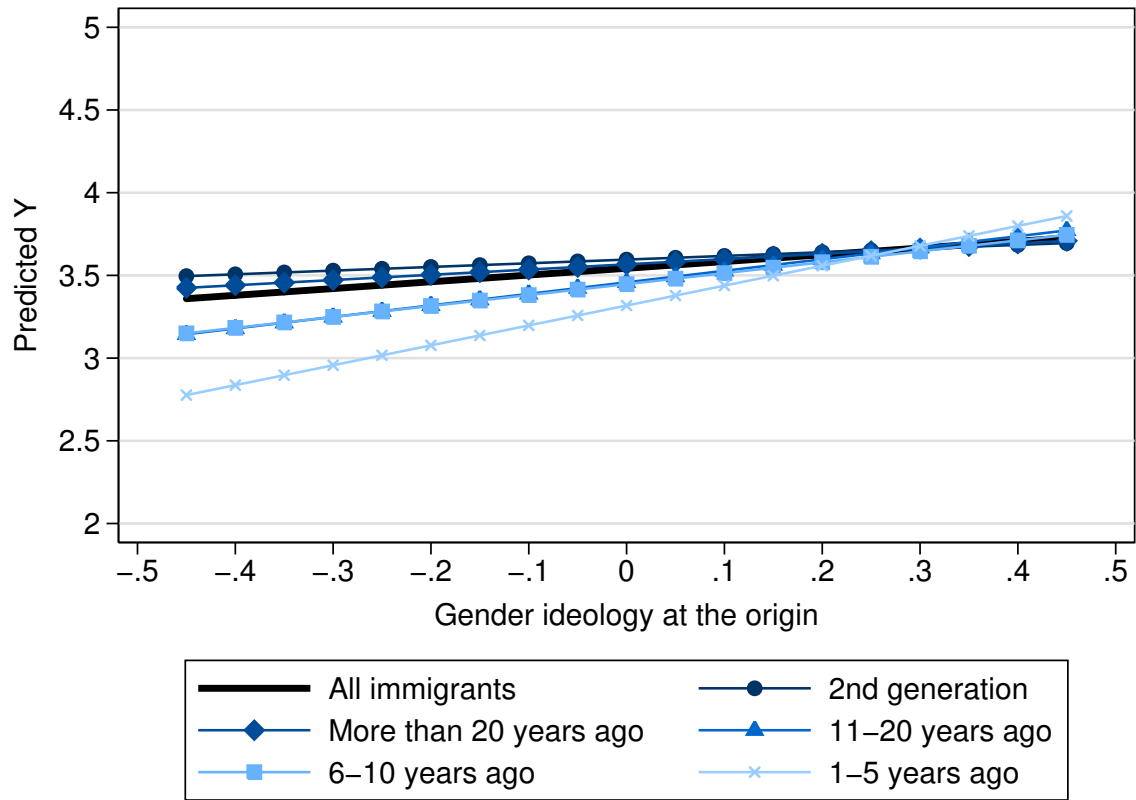
Figures

Figure 1 – The share of respondents who disagree that men should have more right to a job than women when jobs are scarce within each country of origin



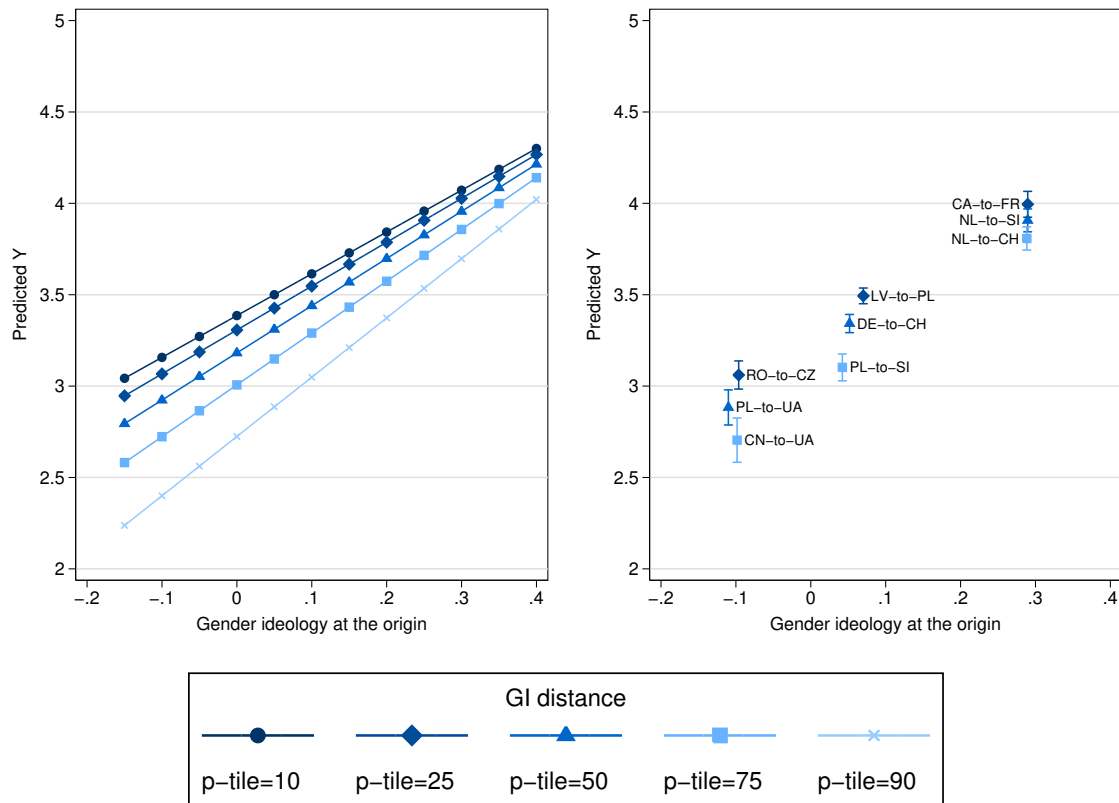
Note: The values represent the average across waves. Sources: ESS and WVS-EVS. The legend is divided into quintiles. The values used for this figure are summarized in Table refTabS2 in the supplementary materials.

Figure 2 – Predicted gender role attitudes by origin gender ideology for different lengths of stay in the country of destination



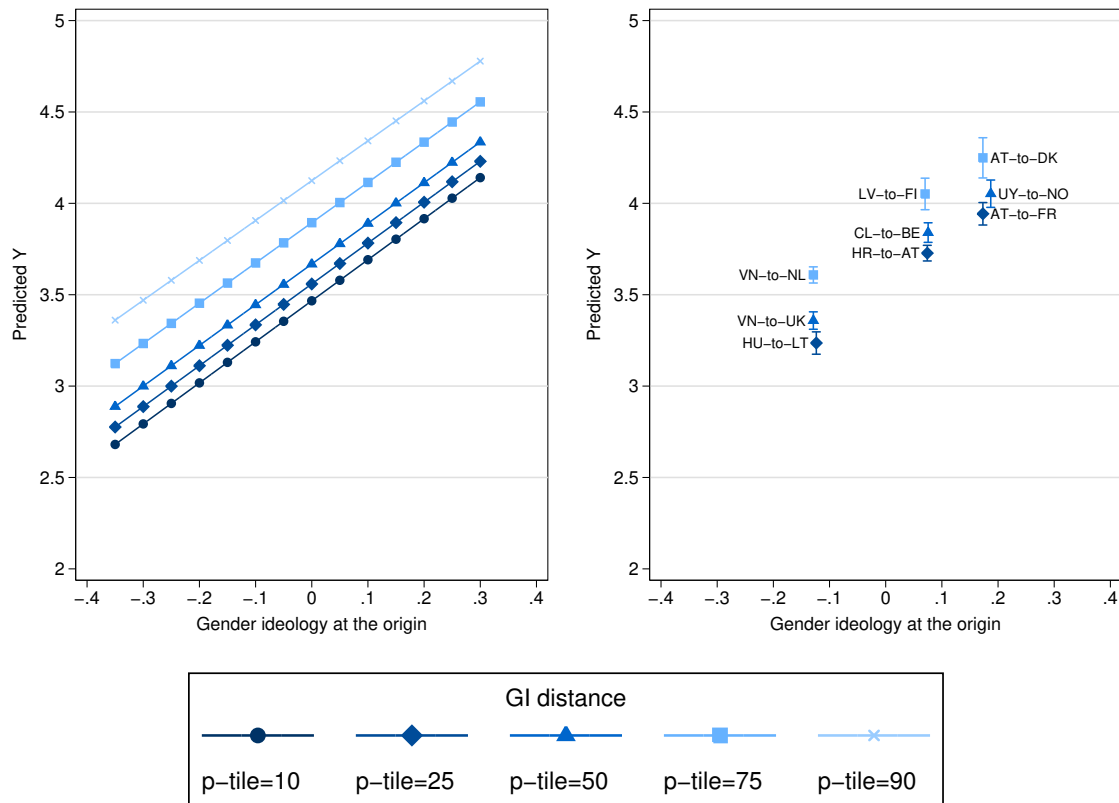
Notes: The predictions are based on Model 5 in Table 3 and 4. The average predictions are calculated by fixing origin gender ideology at specific values while holding the length of stay at each different category, the other control variables are set to their original values. The random effects are set to zero.

Figure 3 – Predicted gender role attitudes by origin gender ideology at different levels of gender ideology distance - when the origin is more egalitarian than the destination



Notes: The predictions are based on Model 5 in Table 5. The average predictions are calculated by fixing the gender ideology at specific values while holding the gender ideology distance at different percentiles (10th=0.01, 25th=0.03, 50th=0.07, 75th=0.13, 90th=0.22), the other control variables are set to their original values. Origin gender ideology is centered on its grand mean (50.73%). The random effects are set to zero.

Figure 4 – Predicted gender role attitudes by origin gender ideology at different levels of gender ideology distance - when the origin is more traditional than the destination



Notes: The predictions are based on Model 5 in Table 5. The average predictions are calculated by fixing the gender ideology at specific values while holding the gender ideology distance at different percentiles (10th=0.03, 25th=0.08, 50th=0.14, 75th=0.28, 90th=0.41), the other control variables are set to their original values. Origin gender ideology is centered on its grand mean (50.73%). The random effects are set to zero.

Supplementary materials

We document the construction and validity of our main variables of interest. In particular, we explain how the following variables were constructed:

1. Immigrant generation and country of origin
2. Measure of attitudes toward working women in the country of origin
3. Length of stay in country

S1 Immigrant generation and country of origin

3rd generation: The respondent is born in the country ($\text{brncnr} = 1$) and the father ($\text{facnr} = 1$) and mother ($\text{mocnr} = 1$) of the respondents are also born in the country. In case the information about one of the parent is missing, the respondent is considered to be of third generation if the parent with a non-missing response is born in the country ($N = 580$). 2nd generation: The respondent is born in the country ($\text{brncnr} = 1$) and at least one of his his/her parents are not born in the country ($\text{facnr} = 1$ AND $\text{mocnr} = 1$).

- For the 2nd generation respondents, the country of origin corresponds to the mother's country of birth (mbrncnt in the 2nd round the ESS and mbrncnta in the 4th and 5th round of the ESS). If the mother's country of birth is missing ($N = 15$), we use the father's country of birth (fbrncnt in the 2nd round the ESS and fbrncnta in the 4th and 5th round of the ESS). As a robustness check (See Table S3 in section 4 of the supplementary materials), we use the father's country of birth when both parents are born abroad and in different countries ($N = 387$).

- In case the information about one of the parent is missing, the respondent is considered to be of the 2nd generation if the parent with a non-missing response is not born in the country (N = 59). 1st generation: The respondent is not born in the country (brncntr = 0).
- For the 1st generation respondents, the country of origin corresponds to the respondent's country of birth (cntbrtha in the 2nd round the ESS and cntbrthb in the 4th and 5th round of the ESS).

S2 Measure of gender attitudes toward working women in the country of origin

The country-level measure of egalitarian attitudes toward working women is measured using both the European Social Survey and the World Values Survey and European Values Study data.

In the ESS, we use the variable `mnrgrtjb`, which is categorical and follows a 5-point Likert scale. The country variable corresponds to the percentage of respondents that either disagree or strongly disagree with the statement “Men should have more right to job than women when jobs are scarce.”

In the harmonized WVS-EVS, we use the variable `c001`, which takes the following three categories: Neither, Disagree and Agree. The country variable corresponds to the percentage of respondents that either disagree or strongly disagree with the statement “Men should have more right to job than women when jobs are scarce.”

In order to match respondents to the measure of gender attitudes in their country of origin and in the corresponding survey year, we take the following steps:

- If available, we use the ESS measure in the same ESS round (about 52% of cases).
- If the ESS variable is not available, we use the WVS-EVS measure in the corresponding

survey year (25% of cases).

- If the WVS- EVS measure is not available in the same survey year, we allow for a two year lag (5%) and then for two years forward (0.2%).

To assess the validity of using two different sources of data for the gender attitudes measure, we calculate the correlation between the ESS and WVS-EVS indicators when both are available (N = 61). We find a 0.84 correlation between them.

S3 Length of stay in country

The variable length of stay (livecntr) in the country has changed between the three waves of the European Social Survey under study. In the 2nd and 4th round of the ESS, the variable is categorical, whereas in the 5th round of the ESS, the actual year of arrival (livecnta) was asked. Using the interview year (inwyys) and the year of arrival (livecnta), the length of stay variable is harmonized across the ESS rounds to match the original categorical variable (livecntr): Within last year, 1-5 years ago, 6-10 years, 11-20 years, More than 20 years. For sample size reasons, the “within last year” and 1-5 years ago categories are merged together.

S4 Additional tables

Table S1 – Sample Size

Destination country	ESS Round 2	ESS Round 4	ESS Round 5	Total
Austria	273	346	0	619
Belgium	243	285	280	808
Bulgaria	0	61	66	127
Croatia	0	207	43	250
Cyprus	0	97	67	164
Czech Republic	187	148	126	461
Denmark	109	140	162	411
Estonia	579	513	499	1,591
Finland	0	75	92	167
France	93	225	230	548
Germany	308	345	456	1,109
Greece	281	176	242	699
Hungary	25	49	67	141
Iceland	19	0	0	19
Ireland	179	298	415	892
Italy	27	0	0	27
Latvia	0	529	0	529
Lithuania	0	163	148	311
Luxembourg	669	0	0	669
Netherlands	206	185	144	535
Norway	137	144	172	453
Poland	50	62	52	164
Portugal	58	48	32	138
Romania	0	27	0	27
Russian Federation	0	209	256	465
Slovakia	108	114	124	346
Slovenia	34	212	160	406
Spain	80	174	174	428
Sweden	258	306	235	799
Switzerland	531	544	436	1,511
Ukraine	415	176	332	923
United Kingdom	74	269	259	602
Total	4,943	6,127	5,269	16,339

Source = European Social Survey.

Table S2 – Percent missing for all the variables of interest

Variable	Missing	Total	Percent Missing
Dependent variable			
Gender roles attitudes	417	23,033	1.81
Origin variables			
Gender ideology	5,226	23,033	22.69
Human-development indicator	1,716	23,033	7.45
Destination variables			
Destination gender ideology	0	23,033	0.00
Human-development indicator	0	23,033	0.00
FLFP/MLFP	0	23,033	0.00
% women in national parliament	0	23,033	0.00
Individual-level variables			
Length of stay	272	23,033	1.18
Gender	19	23,033	0.08
Partnered	97	23,033	0.42
Education	140	23,033	0.61
Age category	93	23,033	0.40
Religion	864	23,033	3.75
Mother's work	519	23,033	2.25
Urban	78	23,033	0.34
Country of origin	1,541	23,033	6.69

Table S3 – Cross-classified linear models fixed estimates: Father’s country of birth

	Model 5 Table 3	Model 5 Table 4	Model 5 Table 5
<i>Fixed effects</i>			
Origin gender ideology (GI)	0.347*** (0.091)	0.159 (0.106)	1.448*** (0.201)
Gender ideology distance			
Origin more egal.			-2.151*** (0.332)
Origin more trad.			1.134*** (0.206)
Length of stay (Ref. 2nd gener)			
> 20 yrso	-0.031 (0.022)	-0.034 (0.022)	-0.027 (0.022)
11-20 yrs	-0.139*** (0.032)	-0.144*** (0.032)	-0.137*** (0.032)
6-10 yrs	-0.147*** (0.041)	-0.155*** (0.041)	-0.149*** (0.041)
1-5 yrs	-0.259*** (0.039)	-0.280*** (0.040)	-0.262*** (0.039)
Origin GI x Length of stay			
Origin GI × > 20 yrs		0.116 (0.121)	
Origin GI × > 11-20 yrs		0.475** (0.176)	
Origin GI × > 6-10 yrs		0.445* (0.220)	
Origin GI × > 1-5 yrs		0.985*** (0.213)	
Origin GI × GI distance			
Origin GI × Distance (O more egal.)			2.792* (1.402)
Origin GI × Distance (O more trad.)			0.152 (0.471)
<i>Random effects</i>			
Destination	0.039*** (0.012)	0.040*** (0.012)	0.017*** (0.006)
Origin	0.003*** (0.003)	0.003*** (0.003)	0.003*** (0.002)
Community	0.014*** (0.005)	0.013*** (0.004)	0.011*** (0.004)
Individual	1.206*** (0.014)	1.205*** (0.013)	1.205*** (0.013)
Observations	16293	16293	16293

Standard errors in parentheses

+ $p < 0.10$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table S4 – Gender norms in the countries of origin for each ESS round

Country of origin	ESS Round 2	ESS Round 4	ESS Round 5	Total
Albania	-0.19	0.10	0.10	0.06
Algeria	-0.31		-0.31	-0.31
Argentina	0.12	0.12	0.20	0.14
Armenia		-0.09	-0.15	-0.12
Australia	0.16	0.21	0.21	0.18
Austria	-0.01	0.17	0.16	0.09
Azerbaijan		-0.34	-0.41	-0.36
Bangladesh	-0.34			-0.34
Belarus		0.16	-0.01	0.10
Belgium	0.03	0.20	0.20	0.09
Bosnia And Herzegovina	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.12
Brazil	0.14	0.14		0.14
Bulgaria	0.03	-0.06	-0.05	-0.03
Burkina Faso		-0.16		-0.16
Canada	0.29	0.29		0.29
Chile	-0.01	0.01	0.07	0.03
China	-0.18	-0.17	-0.10	-0.14
Colombia			0.14	0.14
Croatia		0.07	0.03	0.05
Cyprus	-0.03	-0.05	-0.19	-0.11
Czech Republic	-0.14	-0.02	-0.06	-0.08
Denmark	0.32	0.42	0.39	0.38
Ecuador			0.05	0.05
Egypt	-0.46	-0.46	-0.44	-0.45
Estonia	-0.08	0.11	0.09	0.10
Ethiopia	0.35	0.35		0.35
Finland	0.20	0.34	0.28	0.27
France	0.05	0.25	0.14	0.14
Georgia		-0.18	-0.22	-0.20
Germany	0.05	0.16	0.18	0.12
Ghana	-0.13	-0.13	-0.05	-0.07
Greece	-0.19	-0.20	-0.18	-0.19
Guatemala	0.22			0.22
Hong Kong	-0.07		-0.10	-0.07
Hungary	-0.25	-0.13	-0.24	-0.20
Iceland	0.20	0.46	0.46	0.43
India	-0.30	-0.30		-0.30
Indonesia	-0.15	-0.15		-0.15
Iran (Islamic Republic)	-0.34	-0.34		-0.34
Iraq	-0.28	-0.35	-0.33	-0.32
Ireland	0.03	0.27	0.26	0.23
Israel		0.01	0.04	0.03
Italy	-0.18	0.17	0.17	0.04
Japan	-0.33	-0.35	-0.35	-0.35
Jordan		-0.43		-0.43

Continued on next page

Table S4 – continued from previous page

Country of origin	ESS Round 2	ESS Round 4	ESS Round 5	Total
Kazakhsta		-0.22	-0.22	-0.22
Korea, Republic of	-0.23	-0.25	-0.25	-0.24
Kyrgyzstan	-0.11	-0.26	-0.26	-0.23
Latvia		0.07	0.20	0.09
Lebanon			-0.14	-0.14
Lithuania		-0.07	-0.06	-0.07
Luxembourg	0.03	0.26	0.26	0.18
Macedonia		0.01	0.01	0.01
Malaysia	-0.35	-0.35	-0.33	-0.34
Malta		0.07		0.07
Mexico	0.17		0.20	0.19
Moldova,	-0.12	-0.15	-0.15	-0.14
Montenegro		0.23		0.23
Morocco	-0.18	-0.18	-0.19	-0.18
Netherlands	0.14	0.28	0.29	0.22
New Zeala	0.22	0.27	0.27	0.26
Nigeria		-0.28	-0.28	-0.28
Norway	0.30	0.40	0.33	0.34
Pakistan		-0.30	-0.30	-0.30
Palestinian Territory			-0.29	-0.29
Peru	0.22	0.21	0.15	0.19
Philippines		-0.30	-0.30	-0.30
Poland	-0.11	0.04	0.03	0.00
Portugal	-0.09	0.09	0.02	-0.03
Qatar		-0.28		-0.28
Romania	-0.10	-0.12	-0.06	-0.09
Russian Federation	-0.06	-0.04	-0.15	-0.08
Rwanda		0.13	-0.16	-0.11
Saudi Arabia	-0.42			-0.42
Serbia		0.19	0.19	0.19
Singapore	-0.05		-0.13	-0.12
Slovakia	-0.03	-0.10	-0.10	-0.07
Slovenia	0.07	0.21	0.21	0.18
South Africa	-0.01	-0.01	-0.03	-0.02
Spain	0.05	0.20	0.23	0.16
Sweden	0.27	0.42	0.36	0.36
Switzerland	0.01	0.14	0.10	0.08
Taiwan, Province of China	-0.12	-0.04	-0.04	-0.06
Thailand	-0.10	-0.10	-0.11	-0.10
Trinidad		0.15	0.11	0.13
Tunisia		-0.33	-0.33	-0.33
Turkey	-0.34	-0.35	-0.23	-0.31
Ukraine	-0.18	-0.15	-0.23	-0.19
United Kingdom	0.00	0.23	0.16	0.14
United States	0.17	0.18	0.19	0.18

Continued on next page

Table S4 – continued from previous page

Country of origin	ESS Round 2	ESS Round 4	ESS Round 5	Total
Uruguay	0.19	0.19	0.17	0.18
Uzbekistan		-0.24	-0.24	-0.24
Viet Nam	-0.13	-0.13		-0.13
Zambia		0.01		0.01
Zimbabwe		0.06	0.06	0.06

Sources = ESS, WVS/EVS

Note = The gender norms indicator is defined as the share of respondents who disagree with the statement “when jobs are scarce, men should have more right to a job than women.”.

Table S5 – Cross-classified linear models fixed estimates: Excluding intermediate variables

	Model 5 Table 3	Model 5 Table 4	Model 4 Table 5
<i>Fixed effects</i>			
Origin gender ideology (GI)	0.415*** (0.093)	0.233* (0.108)	2.075*** (0.194)
Gender ideology distance			
Origin more egal.			-3.011*** (0.346)
Origin more trad.			1.664*** (0.200)
Length of stay (Ref. 2nd gener)			
> 20 yrs	-0.031 (0.022)	-0.033 (0.022)	-0.027 (0.022)
11-20 yrs	-0.140*** (0.032)	-0.145*** (0.032)	-0.136*** (0.032)
6-10 yrs	-0.150*** (0.041)	-0.157*** (0.041)	-0.149*** (0.041)
1-5 yrs	-0.266*** (0.039)	-0.286*** (0.040)	-0.262*** (0.039)
Length of stay x Origin GI			
Origin GI × > 20 yrs		0.097 (0.121)	
Origin GI × > 11-20 yrs		0.444* (0.176)	
Origin GI × > 6-10 yrs		0.424 ⁺ (0.220)	
Origin GI × > 1-5 yrs		0.961*** (0.213)	
Origin GI × GI distance			
Origin GI × Distance (O more egal.)			4.539** (1.498)
Origin GI × Distance (O more trad.)			0.060 (0.475)
<i>Random effects</i>			
Destination	0.051*** (0.015)	0.051*** (0.015)	0.015*** (0.005)
Origin	0.003*** (0.003)	0.003*** (0.002)	0.002*** (0.002)
Community	0.014*** (0.005)	0.013*** (0.004)	0.012*** (0.004)
Individual	1.207*** (0.014)	1.206*** (0.013)	1.203*** (0.013)
	16339	16339	16339

Standard errors in parentheses. Full models are available upon request.

⁺ $p < 0.10$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table S6 – Definition of the regions

Asia	Middle East	Post Soviet
Bangladesh	Palestine	Russian Federation
China	Iran	Ukraine
Taiwan, Province Of China	Iraq	Uzbekistan
Cyprus	Israel	Southern Europe
Hong Kong	Jordan	Albania
India	Lebanon	Bosnia And Herzegowina
Indonesia	Qatar	Croatia
Japan	Saudi Arabia	Greece
Korea, Republic Of	Turkey	Italy
Malaysia	Egypt	Malta
Pakistan	Northern Africa	Montenegro
Philippines	Algeria	Portugal
Singapore	Morocco	Serbia
Viet Nam	Tunisia	Slovenia
Thailand	North America	Spain
Oceania	Canada	Macedonia
Australia	United States	Sub-Saharan Africa
New Zealand	Northern Europe	Ethiopia
Eastern Europe	Denmark	Ghana
Bulgaria	Finland	Mali
Czech Republic	Iceland	Nigeria
Hungary	Ireland	Rwanda
Poland	Norway	South Africa
Romania	Sweden	Zimbabwe
Slovakia	United Kingdom	Burkina Faso
Latin America	Post Soviet	Zambia
Argentina	Azerbaijan	Western Europe
Brazil	Armenia	Austria
Chile	Belarus	Belgium
Colombia	Estonia	France
Ecuador	Georgia	Germany
Guatemala	Kazakhstan	Luxembourg
Mexico	Kyrgyzstan	Netherlands
Peru	Latvia	Switzerland
Trinidad And Tobago	Lithuania	
Uruguay	Moldova	

Table S7 – Cross-classified linear models fixed estimates: Origin gender ideology

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
<i>Fixed effects</i>					
Origin gender ideology (GI)	0.654*** (0.103)	0.489*** (0.079)	0.610*** (0.104)	0.484*** (0.113)	0.384*** (0.094)
Length of stay (2nd gener)					
> 20 yrs		-0.031 (0.022)			-0.032 (0.022)
11-20 yrs		-0.142*** (0.032)			-0.141*** (0.032)
6-10 yrs		-0.153*** (0.041)			-0.148*** (0.041)
1-5 yrs		-0.270*** (0.040)			-0.260*** (0.039)
Origin					
HDI				0.848*** (0.250)	0.328 (0.201)
Destination					
% women in parliament			0.230 (0.363)		0.603 (0.375)
HDI			6.094*** (0.826)		5.571*** (0.869)
Women-to-men LFP			2.474*** (0.507)		1.715*** (0.520)
Gender (Woman)					
Male		-0.284*** (0.018)			-0.283*** (0.018)
Partnership status (Partnered)					
Not partnered		0.054** (0.019)			0.056** (0.019)
Education (< than sec.)					
Lower-secondary		0.273*** (0.037)			0.269*** (0.037)
Upper-secondary		0.459*** (0.034)			0.455*** (0.034)
Tertiary		0.750*** (0.035)			0.745*** (0.035)
Age (15-29)					
30-44		-0.079** (0.027)			-0.078** (0.027)
45-59		-0.195*** (0.029)			-0.194*** (0.029)
60+		-0.439*** (0.030)			-0.437*** (0.030)
Religion (none)					
	16339	16339	16339	16339	16339

Continued on next page

Table S7 – continued from previous page

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Christian		-0.168*** (0.019)			-0.164*** (0.019)
Muslim		-0.604*** (0.050)			-0.593*** (0.051)
Other religions		-0.140 ⁺ (0.081)			-0.132 (0.081)
Mother's work (Didn't work)					
Worked		0.127*** (0.020)			0.124*** (0.020)
Dead/Absent		0.116* (0.055)			0.114* (0.055)
Urbanity (Urban)					
Town or small city		-0.059** (0.021)			-0.058** (0.021)
Rural		-0.090*** (0.023)			-0.089*** (0.022)
ESS round (2nd round)					
4th round	0.322*** (0.027)	0.339*** (0.025)	0.216*** (0.028)	0.324*** (0.026)	0.246*** (0.027)
5th round	0.192*** (0.026)	0.205*** (0.024)	0.043 (0.029)	0.184*** (0.026)	0.070* (0.029)
Constant	3.310*** (0.075)	3.247*** (0.085)	3.465*** (0.046)	3.325*** (0.075)	3.388*** (0.063)
<i>Random effects</i>					
Destination	0.145*** (0.040)	0.145*** (0.039)	0.029*** (0.010)	0.146*** (0.040)	0.039*** (0.012)
Origin	0.025*** (0.009)	0.004*** (0.003)	0.026*** (0.009)	0.017*** (0.007)	0.003*** (0.003)
Community	0.026*** (0.007)	0.015*** (0.005)	0.026*** (0.007)	0.026*** (0.006)	0.014*** (0.005)
Individual	1.329*** (0.015)	1.207*** (0.014)	1.327*** (0.015)	1.330*** (0.015)	1.206*** (0.013)
	16339	16339	16339	16339	16339

Standard errors in parentheses. ⁺ $p < 0.1$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table S8 – Cross-classified linear models fixed estimates: Origin gender ideology and length of stay

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
<i>Fixed effects</i>					
Origin gender ideology (GI)	0.313** (0.120)	0.298** (0.097)	0.268* (0.120)	0.179 (0.128)	0.198+ (0.109)
Length of stay (2nd gener)					
> 20 yrs	-0.194*** (0.022)	-0.034 (0.022)	-0.193*** (0.022)	-0.193*** (0.022)	-0.035 (0.022)
11-20 yrs	-0.131*** (0.033)	-0.146*** (0.032)	-0.135*** (0.033)	-0.125*** (0.033)	-0.145*** (0.032)
6-10 yrs	-0.088* (0.043)	-0.161*** (0.041)	-0.088* (0.043)	-0.081+ (0.043)	-0.156*** (0.041)
1-5 yrs	-0.182*** (0.042)	-0.291*** (0.040)	-0.173*** (0.041)	-0.176*** (0.042)	-0.280*** (0.040)
Length of stay x Origin GI					
Origin GI × > 20 yrs	0.242+ (0.127)	0.090 (0.121)	0.251* (0.127)	0.240+ (0.127)	0.100 (0.121)
Origin GI × 11-20 yrs	0.726*** (0.186)	0.446* (0.176)	0.733*** (0.186)	0.716*** (0.186)	0.459** (0.176)
Origin GI × 6-10 yrs	0.833*** (0.233)	0.433* (0.221)	0.833*** (0.233)	0.807*** (0.233)	0.429+ (0.220)
Origin GI × 1-5 yrs	1.315*** (0.226)	0.971*** (0.213)	1.320*** (0.226)	1.290*** (0.226)	0.971*** (0.213)
Origin HDI				0.680** (0.252)	0.292 (0.199)
Destination					
% women in parliament			0.276 (0.371)		0.621+ (0.376)
HDI			6.322*** (0.848)		5.615*** (0.873)
Women-to-men LFP			2.484*** (0.517)		1.749*** (0.522)
Gender (Woman)					
Male		-0.284*** (0.018)			-0.284*** (0.018)
Partnership status (Partnered)					
Not partnered		0.054** (0.019)			0.055** (0.019)
Education (< than sec.)					
Lower-secondary		0.271*** (0.037)			0.267*** (0.037)
Upper-secondary		0.456*** (0.034)			0.452*** (0.034)
Tertiary		0.747***			0.742***
	16339	16339	16339	16339	16339

Continued on next page

Table S8 – continued from previous page

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
		(0.035)			(0.035)
Age (15-29)					
30-44		-0.078**			-0.077**
		(0.027)			(0.027)
45-59		-0.194***			-0.193***
		(0.029)			(0.028)
60+		-0.437***			-0.435***
		(0.030)			(0.030)
Religion (none)					
Christian		-0.166***			-0.162***
		(0.019)			(0.019)
Muslim		-0.591***			-0.581***
		(0.050)			(0.050)
Other religions		-0.130			-0.123
		(0.081)			(0.081)
Mother's work (Didn't work)					
Worked		0.124***			0.122***
		(0.020)			(0.020)
Dead/Absent		0.114*			0.112*
		(0.055)			(0.055)
Urbanity (Urban)					
Town or small city		-0.059**			-0.058**
		(0.021)			(0.021)
Rural		-0.090***			-0.089***
		(0.022)			(0.022)
ESS round (2nd round)					
4th round	0.334***	0.343***	0.224***	0.335***	0.248***
	(0.027)	(0.025)	(0.028)	(0.026)	(0.027)
5th round	0.198***	0.207***	0.044	0.191***	0.071*
	(0.026)	(0.024)	(0.030)	(0.026)	(0.029)
Constant	3.398***	3.252***	3.558***	3.407***	3.394***
	(0.079)	(0.086)	(0.048)	(0.078)	(0.064)
<i>Random effects</i>					
Destination	0.159***	0.149***	0.032***	0.160***	0.039***
	(0.043)	(0.039)	(0.011)	(0.043)	(0.012)
Origin	0.024***	0.004***	0.025***	0.018***	0.003***
	(0.008)	(0.003)	(0.008)	(0.007)	(0.003)
Community	0.024***	0.013***	0.024***	0.024***	0.013***
	(0.006)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.004)
Individual	1.319***	1.206***	1.317***	1.320***	1.205***
	(0.015)	(0.013)	(0.015)	(0.015)	(0.013)
	16339	16339	16339	16339	16339

Standard errors in parentheses. + $p < 0.1$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table S9 – Cross-classified linear models fixed estimates: Age at migration

	Model 5 Table 4
<i>Fixed effects</i>	
Origin gender ideology (GI)	0.289 (0.200)
Age at migration (Ref. 2nd gener)	
0-18 yrs old	-0.049 (0.041)
19-30 yrs old	-0.195*** (0.044)
>30 yrs old	-0.163** (0.058)
Origin GI x Age at migration	
Origin GI × 0-18 yrs old Jobs are scarce: Giving men priority (Origin)	-0.163 (0.221)
Origin GI × 19-30 yrs old Jobs are scarce: Giving men priority (Origin)	0.584** (0.222)
Origin GI × > 30 yrs old Jobs are scarce: Giving men priority (Origin)	0.709* (0.289)
<i>Random effects</i>	
Destination	0.062*** (0.022)
Origin	0.012*** (0.008)
Community	0.009*** (0.008)
Individual	1.212*** (0.024)
Observations	5269

Standard errors in parentheses. Full model is available upon request.

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table S10 – Cross-classified linear models fixed estimates: Origin gender ideology and gender ideology distance

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
<i>Fixed effects</i>					
Origin gender ideology (GI)	2.488*** (0.175)	2.381*** (0.162)	2.256*** (0.240)	2.339*** (0.176)	2.239*** (0.228)
Gender ideology distance					
Origin more egal.	-3.346*** (0.353)	-3.286*** (0.326)	-3.098*** (0.402)	-3.317*** (0.350)	-3.195*** (0.371)
Origin more trad.	1.946*** (0.178)	1.866*** (0.174)	1.737*** (0.239)	1.980*** (0.177)	1.819*** (0.232)
Origin GI × GI distance					
Orig GI × Dist (O more egal.)	5.285** (1.664)	4.730** (1.507)	5.263** (1.669)	5.169** (1.650)	4.621** (1.498)
Orig GI × Dist (O more trad.)	0.464 (0.572)	0.082 (0.482)	0.528 (0.572)	0.401 (0.556)	0.047 (0.474)
Origin					
HDI				0.929*** (0.242)	0.394* (0.194)
Destination					
% women in parliament			-0.529 ⁺ (0.298)		-0.187 (0.307)
HDI			1.991** (0.736)		1.291 ⁺ (0.754)
Women-to-men LFP			0.622 (0.441)		-0.505 (0.450)
Length of stay (Ref. 2nd gener)					
> 20 yrs		-0.027 (0.022)			-0.026 (0.022)
11-20 yrs		-0.140*** (0.032)			-0.136*** (0.032)
6-10 yrs		-0.153*** (0.041)			-0.151*** (0.041)
1-5 yrs		-0.264*** (0.039)			-0.265*** (0.039)
Gender (Woman)					
Male		-0.284*** (0.018)			-0.283*** (0.018)
Partnership status (Partnered)					
Not partnered		0.055** (0.019)			0.056** (0.019)
Education (< than sec.)					
Lower-secondary		0.273*** (0.037)			0.273*** (0.037)
Upper-secondary		0.461*** (0.034)			0.461*** (0.034)
	16339	16339	16339	16339	16339

Continued on next page

Table S10 – continued from previous page

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Tertiary		0.749*** (0.035)			0.748*** (0.035)
Age (15-29)					
30-44		-0.075** (0.027)			-0.076** (0.027)
45-59		-0.194*** (0.028)			-0.195*** (0.028)
60+		-0.439*** (0.030)			-0.440*** (0.030)
Religion (none)					
Christian		-0.163*** (0.019)			-0.163*** (0.019)
Muslim		-0.595*** (0.050)			-0.577*** (0.050)
Other religions		-0.150 ⁺ (0.081)			-0.139 ⁺ (0.081)
Mother's work (Didn't work)					
Worked		0.123*** (0.020)			0.124*** (0.020)
Dead/Absent		0.117* (0.055)			0.120* (0.055)
Urbanity (Urban)					
Town or small city		-0.060** (0.021)			-0.061** (0.021)
Rural		-0.090*** (0.022)			-0.092*** (0.022)
ESS round (2nd round)					
4th round	0.045 (0.031)	0.059* (0.030)	0.053 (0.033)	0.043 (0.031)	0.071* (0.032)
5th round	-0.030 (0.029)	-0.017 (0.028)	-0.039 (0.030)	-0.041 (0.029)	-0.015 (0.028)
Constant	3.410*** (0.040)	3.341*** (0.058)	3.435*** (0.041)	3.421*** (0.039)	3.342*** (0.058)
<i>Random effects</i>					
Destination	0.012*** (0.005)	0.017*** (0.006)	0.010*** (0.004)	0.012*** (0.005)	0.014*** (0.005)
Origin	0.022*** (0.008)	0.004*** (0.003)	0.022*** (0.008)	0.014*** (0.006)	0.002*** (0.001)
Community	0.024*** (0.006)	0.012*** (0.004)	0.025*** (0.006)	0.024*** (0.006)	0.012*** (0.004)
Individual	1.324*** (0.015)	1.203*** (0.013)	1.323*** (0.015)	1.324*** (0.015)	1.203*** (0.013)
	16339	16339	16339	16339	16339

Standard errors in parentheses. ⁺ $p < 0.1$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

S5 Influential cases

One possible concern in multilevel analysis is the potential influence of upper-level outliers on the results. To assess the potential influence of upper-level units on our conclusions, we proceed by dropping one upper-level unit of origin at a time and assess to what extent our results vary when doing so. The excluded unit is chosen according to the measurement-level of the variable(s) of interest. For the first and second hypothesis, we drop a country of origin at a time because the main variables of interest are measured at the country-of-origin level. For the third hypothesis, we focus on the community-level because it corresponds to the gender ideology distance level. In order to summarize the influence analysis results, we plot in a box-plot the estimates for each variable of interest. Corresponding to the first and second hypothesis, Figure S1 and S2 summarize how much the estimated coefficients of interest vary when we exclude a country of origin at a time from the estimation. Figure S3 does the same for the third hypothesis, excluding one community at a time from the estimation. For each figure, the whiskers indicate the range covered by 95% of the resulting estimates. The red line corresponds to the estimates including all countries and used as the main results in this article.

Figure S1 – Influential countries of origin - Hypothesis 1

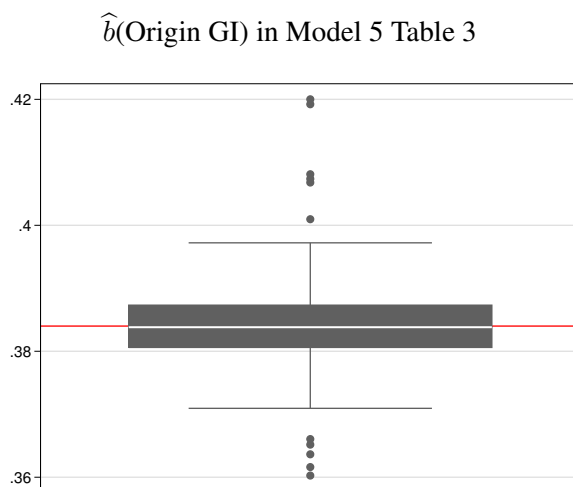


Figure S2 – Influential countries of origin - Hypothesis 2

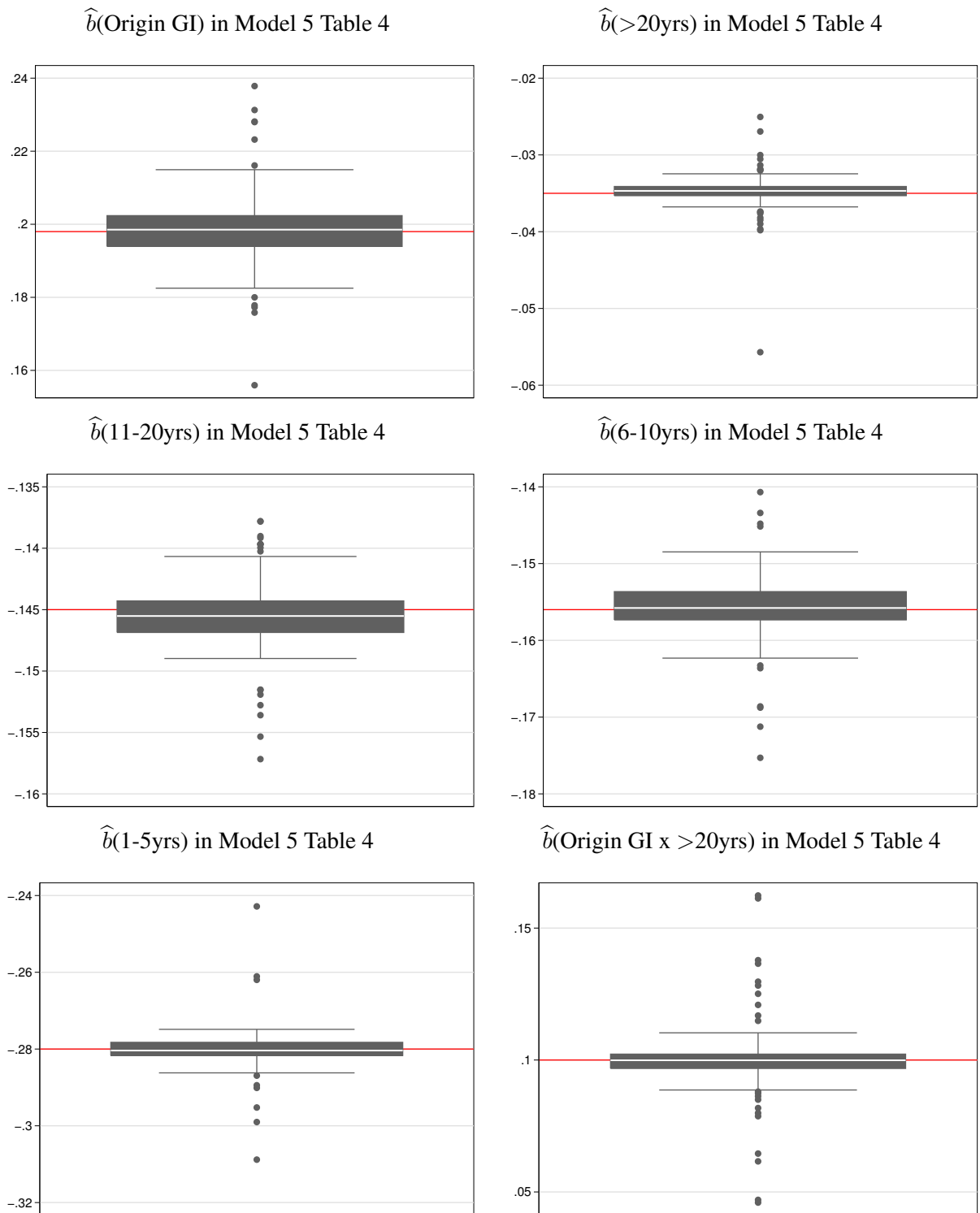
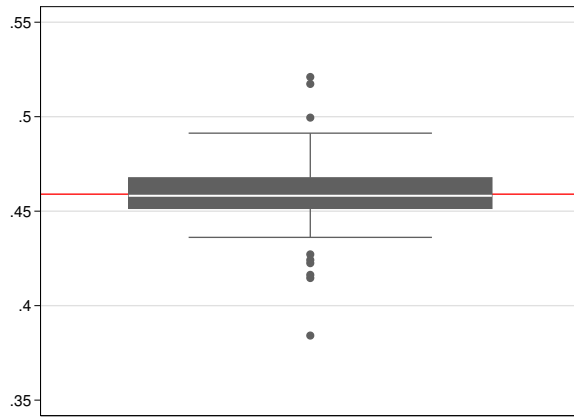
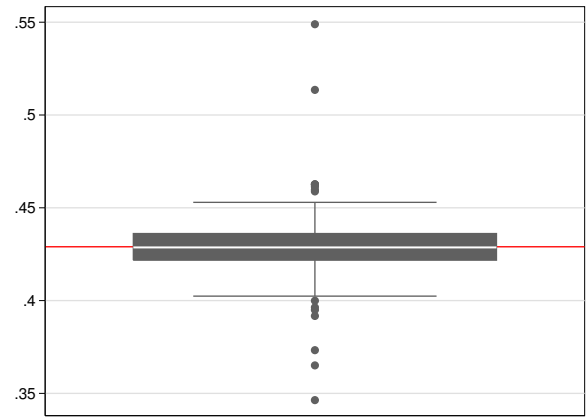


Figure S2 – Influential countries of origin - Hypothesis 2 (cont'd)

$\hat{b}(\text{Origin GI x 11-20yrs})$ in Model 5 Table 4



$\hat{b}(\text{Origin GI x 6-10yrs})$ in Model 5 Table 4



$\hat{b}(\text{Origin GI x 1-5yrs})$ in Model 5 Table 4

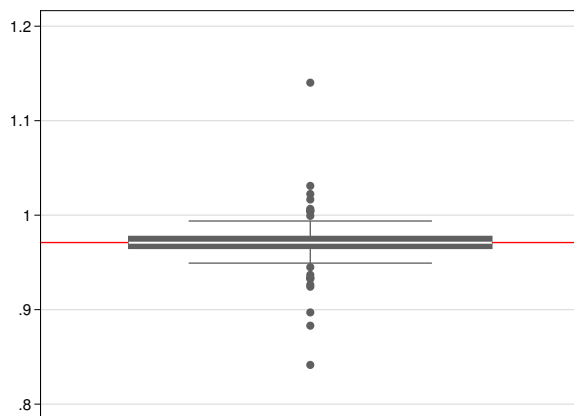


Figure S3 – Influential communities - Hypothesis 3

