Flexible Work and Family Formation: Evidence on Fertility, Earnings, and Household Stability

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March 27, 2026

Abstract

We examine how work-from-home (WFH) opportunities affect fertility using pre-pandemic Swedish registry data. To address potential selection and endogeneity issues of working from home, we exploit variation in the roll-out of high-speed internet across neighborhoods, which facilitated WFH adoption in telework-compatible occupations. Using a difference-in-differences event study design that interacts geographic internet availability with occupational teleworkability, we find that WFH access increases the probability of births for affected couples and the neighborhood fertility rate. Household-level analyses indicate that WFH access increases fertility and parental earnings, with larger income gains for mothers. WFH also reduces reliance on caregiving leave. Distinctively, when fathers gain WFH access, households experience increased paternal caregiving involvement and reduced divorce rates. These findings suggest important gender asymmetries: maternal flexibility enables greater labor market investment, while paternal flexibility additionally facilitates renegotiation of division of labor. Our results suggest that policies promoting workplace flexibility can influence fertility decisions and that targeting paternal flexibility may be particularly effective for simultaneously promoting fertility, household stability, and gender equity. Our pre-pandemic setting lends credence to the external validity of the empirical results, as it isolates WFH effects from confounding disruptions to childcare, social contact, and aggregate economic conditions.

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1 Introduction

Fertility rates have been declining across developed countries for decades, with many nations now well below replacement level (Golberstein et al., 2009; Sobotka, 2017). This demographic shift carries profound implications for economic growth, labor markets, and the sustainability of social insurance systems (Becker et al., 1990; Lee and Mason, 2010; Bongaarts, 2004). Understanding the drivers of fertility decline, and identifying policies that might address it, has thus become a central concern for policymakers (Thévenon and Gauthier, 2011).

A prominent explanation for the decline in fertility is the challenges families face in integrating work and family life (Mills et al., 2011; Rindfuss et al., 2010; Goldin, 2025). These challenges fall disproportionately on women, who often bear the costs of inflexible work arrangements that demand long hours and extensive face time (Goldin, 2014; Bertrand et al., 2010; Kleven et al., 2019). The incompatibility between the demands of career advancement and the demands of childrearing forces many women to choose between professional success and larger families, or to delay and ultimately forgo childbearing altogether (Adserà, 2011; Goldin and Katz, 2002). Goldin (2014) argues that increasing workplace flexibility could be key to closing the gender pay gap, precisely because it would allow women to remain attached to the labor force without sacrificing earnings during their childbearing years. Jobs that permit work from home (WFH) typically offer greater flexibility in when and where work is performed, potentially alleviating the constraints that parents, and mothers in particular, experience when integrating paid employment with family responsibilities (Bloom et al., 2015; Allen et al., 2015).

Investigating how WFH affects fertility requires addressing two key challenges. The first is selection into WFH. Because parents often opt into more flexible work arrangements in anticipation of increased caregiving demands, it is difficult to parse whether WFH increases fertility or, rather plausibly, anticipated fertility drives selection into WFH. Prior studies have addressed this endogeneity concern by leveraging the COVID-19 pandemic as an exogenous shock to WFH status, to analyze a connection between WFH and fertility. Lu et al. (2025) use a difference-in-differences framework around the pandemic, and find that remote work increased fertility, particularly among younger, educated, and married women. Bratsberg and Walther (2025) exploited Norway's first COVID-19 lockdown, and documented an increase in births nine months later, concentrated among women in inflexible jobs, suggesting that increased work flexibility allowed high-earning women to alleviate the career-family trade-off.

While these studies provide valuable evidence of a link between increased flexibility and fertility, the COVID-19 pandemic affected all aspects of life in ways that may confound the external validity and policy implications for a post-pandemic world. During the pandemic, childcare supports were largely disrupted, in-person social contact outside the household was severely limited,

and economic uncertainty pervaded daily life. It is thus unclear to what extent observed fertility responses were driven by WFH itself, as opposed to other features of pandemic life that do not reflect the standard arrangements of working households. Moreover, because the pandemic shock induced widespread and simultaneous increases in WFH across households, it is difficult using these data to identify whether the benefits of WFH extend equally to mothers and fathers, or whether the flexibility of one partner matters more than the other.

The second challenge relates to understanding the mechanisms through which WFH relaxes constraints for working parents. If WFH allows parents to better integrate work and family, then its introduction could be accompanied by greater investment in paid work, reflected in increased full-time employment or higher earnings (Goldin and Katz, 2016; Kleven et al., 2019), as well as reduced conflict between work and family obligations, potentially manifesting in less reliance on paid caregiving leave or lower incidence of divorce (Hochschild and Machung, 1989; Cooke, 2006; Stevenson and Wolfers, 2007). Furthermore, these gains might plausibly operate through either partner, or through both. While mothers typically bear the costs of inflexible work arrangements (Goldin, 2014; Bertrand et al., 2010; Correll et al., 2007), it is possible that increases in fathers' flexibility could be equally beneficial, or even more so, if paternal flexibility enables a reallocation of caregiving responsibilities within the household (Patnaik, 2019).

This paper addresses both challenges using pre-pandemic Swedish administrative data matched to survey data over 2008–2020, providing novel evidence on the link between WFH opportunities and fertility and illuminating the mechanisms through which flexibility affects household outcomes. To address the first challenge, we exploit time variation in the rollout of high-speed internet across Swedish neighborhoods, combined with cross-sectional occupational variation in teleworkability (measured prior to the internet rollout), within a difference-in-differences event-study framework. This rollout facilitated the adoption of WFH for workers in telework-compatible occupations. Using this approach, we find that compared to workers in non-teleworkable occupations, both men and women in teleworkable occupations experience higher rates of first births following the arrival of high-speed internet, and women additionally experience higher rates of second or higher-order births. We first consider all women aged 25-55 in a neighborhood of roughly 250 by 250 square meters regardless of their marital status or prior fertility. The arrival of high speed internet is associated with an increase of 6 additional births per 1000 women in the age range, equivalent to an eighteen percent increase relative to the mean fertility rate prior to the technological change. When we consider first and subsequent births separately, we find similar size effects across the two categories.

To address the second challenge—understanding for whom and how WFH alleviates flexibility constraints—we take advantage of the household-level structure of our data. We classify households into four types based on the WFH compatibility of each partner's occupation recorded prior

to the internet rollout: households where both parents work on-site, households where only the mother's occupation permits WFH, households where only the father's occupation permits WFH, and households where both parents can work from home (following Dingel and Neiman, 2020). We then examine whether the arrival of high-speed internet differentially affects fertility, earnings, caregiving leave, and marital stability across these household types.

Our findings indicate that any household access to WFH increases fertility. Analyzing the effect of WFH availability on established households of married individuals, we find that access to WFH increases the probability of a live birth in the next 6 years by 0.7 percent points. Relative to the pre-WFH mean, this is an increase of seven percent. The effects within household are driven by first births, though we find smaller and significant effects on higher order births as well. WFH access also increases the earnings of both parents, but the gains are larger for mothers, suggesting that increased flexibility ultimately allows mothers to make greater investments in paid labor. WFH access increases women's annual earnings by 5 percent when the wife's occupation allows WFH but the husband's does not. We further find that couples' access to WFH reduces reliance on caregiving leave, consistent with the premise that WFH allows for better work-family integration by relaxing constraints on parents' time. The number of sick leave days taken to care for a child who is unwell decreases for wives and husbands once WFH becomes possible. The reductions for wives are larger in absolute size, at about 15 to 25 percent of the pre-WHF mean for these households. The reductions for husbands are smaller, but similar in relative terms when compared to the husbands' pre-WFH means.

Uniquely, however, we document distinctive effects when fathers' work becomes more flexible. Compared to all other household types, households in which the father gains access to WFH experience a relative increase in fathers' caregiving contributions and a decrease in the incidence of divorce of 0.2 percentage points. These results suggest that paternal flexibility may play a distinctive role in promoting a more equitable division of caregiving labor and household stability.

Interpreting these findings through the lens of the prior literature, several important points emerge regarding theories of household bargaining and the gendered division of labor. The standard model of household time allocation predicts that when one partner's work becomes more flexible, that partner should absorb a greater share of household responsibilities (Becker, 1981; Chiappori, 1992). Our findings, however, indicate an important asymmetry. When mothers gain access to WFH, we observe increases in their labor market earnings alongside increases in household fertility, suggesting they simultaneously invest more in both market work and family formation—consistent with the premise that flexibility allows women to avoid career penalties associated with temporal inflexibility (Goldin, 2014; Goldin and Katz, 2016; Kleven et al., 2019). When fathers gain access to WFH, we similarly observe increases in fertility and earnings, but uniquely, we also observe a shift toward greater paternal involvement in caregiving and reduced mari-

tal dissolution. This pattern suggests that workplace flexibility operates differently for mothers and fathers not simply because they have different preferences, but because they face different constraints (Lundberg and Pollak, 1996). In many dual-earner households, mothers may have already adjusted their labor supply or selected into more flexible (but lower-paying) occupations in anticipation of caregiving demands (Bertrand et al., 2010; Kleven et al., 2019; Correll et al., 2007), and thus exploit WFH primarily to increase labor market investment. When fathers gain flexibility, however, it represents a more fundamental change in household constraints, allowing for a renegotiation of the division of labor that was previously infeasible (Patnaik, 2019). The reduction in divorce rates when fathers have access to WFH suggests that paternal flexibility may reduce household stress and marital strain associated with unequal divisions of household labor (Hochschild and Machung, 1989; Cooke, 2006; Stevenson and Wolfers, 2007). These results thus highlight that policies promoting workplace flexibility may have heterogeneous effects depending on which partner's work becomes more flexible, and that encouraging or enabling paternal flexibility may be particularly important for promoting gender equity in household labor and supporting family stability.

This research builds on existing studies documenting a positive association between WFH and fertility using COVID-era data, while offering distinct contributions. Lu et al. (2025) identify financial stability as a key mechanism linking remote work to fertility, but cannot separate WFH effects from the broader disruptions of the pandemic. Bratsberg and Walther (2025) provide a theoretical framework linking flexibility to the fertility of women in inflexible jobs, but their identification similarly relies on the pandemic shock. We further build on recent non-pandemic evidence from Davis et al. (2026), who use survey data on working arrangements to document that realized and planned fertility are higher among adults who WFH at least one day per week—and higher still when both partners do so. Our contribution is to exploit the pre-pandemic rollout of high-speed internet in combination with differences in the occupational feasibility to conduct work from home as a source of variation in permanent access to work from home, allowing us to trace a link between WFH and fertility in a setting that reflects normal (non-pandemic) working and living conditions. Moreover, our household-level analysis allows us to examine important heterogeneity in effects by the gender of the WFH-enabled parent, providing new evidence on the mechanisms through which flexibility affects family outcomes.

More broadly, this paper contributes to a growing body of work on studying how remote work affects labor supply, with particular emphasis on female labor force participation (e.g., Von Gaudecker et al., 2024; Harrington and Kahn, 2023; Zarate, 2025). Increases in labor force participation stemming from expanded work flexibility have been documented in both lower-income regions (Ho et al., 2024) and developed economies, including the United States. Song (2025) find that access to remote work increases female labor force participation. Di Filippo et al. (2025) show that male ac-

cess to remote work affects their female partner's labor supply and leads to a more gender-equal division of home production. Work from home has also been associated with reductions in the child penalty (Harrington and Kahn, 2023; Zarate, 2025). We extend this literature by examining fertility outcomes jointly with career outcomes, with attention to mechanisms operating through marital stability and intrahousehold labor allocation.

The paper also relates to research on the economic effects of information and communication technology diffusion. Prior work has linked broadband internet expansion to productivity gains (Akerman et al., 2015), improvements in job search and matching (Bhuller et al., 2019), and fertility outcomes (Si et al., 2025; Billari et al., 2019). We combine time variation in high-speed internet rollout with cross-sectional variation in the feasibility of remote work across occupations to isolate technology-induced changes in work-from-home feasibility and adoption to study the impact on fertility, career, and marital stability outcomes.

The remainder of the paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 describes our data sources and sample construction. Section 3 presents the empirical strategy combining the staggered rollout of high-speed internet with differences in occupational teleworkability in a difference-in-differences event study design. Section 4 presents estimates from our neighborhood-level analyses, comparing fertility rates between workers in teleworkable and non-teleworkable occupations before and after the arrival of high-speed internet. It further presents estimates from our household-level analyses, examining within-household changes in fertility and related outcomes. Section 5 concludes.

2 Data and Sample

This section describes our data sources, including Swedish population registry data, survey measures of work from home patterns, and grid-level internet availability. We then describe our measurement of actual work from home rates and our classification of occupations into remotable and non-remotable categories. Finally, we describe the construction of our neighborhood-level and household-level samples.

2.1 Data Sources

We combine individual-level data on the universe of the Swedish population from administrative registers with individual-level survey data on work from home usage as well as grid-level survey data on internet availability. Our administrative data come from three sources: (i) the Longitudinal Integrated Database for Health Insurance and Labour Market Studies (LISA), which provides information on demographics, income, caregiving leave, and spousal links for married couples; (ii) the Multigenerational Register, which contains parent-child links, and (iii) the Register of the

Total Population (RTB), which includes demographics, such as marital status and year of birth. We complement these with survey data on work from home from two sources: (i) the Labor Force Survey (AKU), a rotating panel survey of approximately 40,000 to 70,000 individuals per year between 2005 and 2020, and (ii) the Work Environment Survey (AMU), a biannual survey covering approximately 12,000 to 14,000 individuals per year. Together, these surveys cover about 1 percent of the Swedish working population. We further match occupation-level data on remote work feasibility from Dingel and Neiman (2020) and grid-level survey data on high-speed internet access from the Swedish Post and Telecom Authority.

Work from home We use the terms "work from home" and "remote work" interchangeably. We measure work from home using the survey question "Do you do any work from home from your own residence? (Main occupation)".[1] An individual *works from home* (WFH) if any work is performed outside the workplace. This definition may range from working only occasionally a couple of hours at home to working *fully remotely* (five days per week outside the workplace).[2] This definition follows Gill et al. (2025) who report a similar share of 35 percent of workers occasionally working from home in Sweden for the year 2019 using the European Labour Force Survey.[3]

Remotable occupation We classify occupations as teleworkable following Dingel and Neiman (2020), who use O*NET task descriptions to identify remotable occupations. For example, occupations are classified as non-remotable if respondents report working outdoors every day.

We make several adjustments to the Dingel and Neiman (2020) classification. Specifically, we reclassify the following occupations as non-remotable: teachers, pilots, nannies, educators, railway staff, train attendants, ship commanders, locomotive drivers, cabin crew, and newspaper distributors. Furthermore, we match O*NET occupation codes to Swedish occupation codes by collapsing occupations to the ISCO-08 level using employment-weighted averages, yielding 423 occupation categories.

Fast speed internet Our high-speed internet access data come from the Swedish Post and Telecom Authority (PTS), which conducts annual surveys measuring broadband and mobile internet availability for households and workplaces. Responding to the survey is mandatory under the Electronic Communications Act, with 80-90 percent of operators responding each year. The PTS aggregates the information to the level of 250×250 meter grid cells, classifying a grid as covered if at least one building has access to a given technology. We focus on two technologies: fiber, which

[1] This survey question was translated by the authors using Claude Sonnet 4.5. The original question is in Swedish: "Arbetar du någonting hemifrån den egna bostaden? (Huvudsysslan)".

[2] Note that there is a third mode of working remotely called "hybrid work". This means that individuals are required to work some days in the office but can choose to work at home on other days. Due to data limitations, we are not able to differentiate between individuals subject to hybrid work arrangements and individuals voluntarily working on-site for some days per week.

[3] The definition varies, however, from Barrero et al. (2021)'s working from home definition. They classify individuals into working from home if they work at least 66 percent of full workdays at home, corresponding to the number of 5 percent of all paid working days in the pre-pandemic US.

provides high and typically symmetric internet speed ($\geq$ 100 Mbit/s), and LTE mobile internet, which features lower and more variable performance internet ($\geq$ 30 Mbit/s). We then aggregate these grid-level coverage indicators up to the neighborhood level.[4]

2.2 Sample

Neighborhood-level sample

We define neighborhoods by aggregating 250 $\times$ 250 meter grid cells until each area contains at least 20 women aged 25 to 55 as of 2015. This approach balances the need for sufficient variation in internet access with meaningful geographic coverage for households of childbearing age. The resulting classification yields 26,108 non-overlapping neighborhoods across Sweden.

For our neighborhood-level analysis, we include all women (men) between the years 2008 to 2020.[5] We exclude the self-employed and individuals who reside outside Sweden in any year. We assign each individual to her neighborhood of residence as of 2010 to create a balanced sample that accounts for potentially endogenous residential moves, maintaining the population composition over time. We then aggregate birth counts to the neighborhood-year level.

Household-level sample

Our household-level analysis focuses on a balanced sample of married couples in Sweden between 2008 and 2020. We restrict the sample to women aged 25 to 45 in the year before high-speed internet arrives in their neighborhood, along with their male spouses. Couples must be opposite-sex, cohabiting, and married in the year prior to high-speed internet arrival. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year.

Table 2 reports sample characteristics for households in which spouses hold non-remotable occupations (Column (1)) and remotable occupations (Column (2)) prior to the arrival of high-speed internet (LTE or fiber). Women in non-remotable households are on average 37 years old and have two children, with the largest share employed in service, retail, and automotive occupations. Their husbands are on average three years older and less likely to have tertiary education. Households with remotable occupations differ from non-remotable households along several dimensions: they are on average more educated, older, have fewer children, and are more likely to hold managerial occupations.

[4] We define neighborhoods by aggregating 250 $\times$ 250 meter grid cells until each area contains at least 20 women aged 25 to 55 as of 2015. The resulting classification yields 26,108 non-overlapping neighborhoods across Sweden.

[5] The survey question on working remotely changed twice—in 2008 and late 2020—, so we use 2008 to the beginning of 2020 to maintain a consistent measure over time.

3 Empirical Strategy

We exploit the staggered rollout of high-speed internet (via fiber and LTE) across neighborhoods, combined with cross-sectional differences in occupational remote work feasibility, to study how access to remote work opportunities affects fertility. While local availability of fiber and LTE predicts WFH, it may also affect other outcomes, including local productivity or labor demand, which in turn can directly affect fertility and work decisions. To address this, we introduce an additional dimension of variation based on whether an individual's occupation can be performed remotely (following Dingel and Neiman, 2020), thereby isolating the remote work channel under the assumption that the effects are additive.

Our empirical approach proceeds in two steps. First, we conduct a neighborhood-level analysis that aggregates outcomes within narrowly defined geographic cells. Second, we estimate household-level specifications that allow us to distinguish effects based on whether the wife, the husband, or both have access to remotable occupations.

3.1 Neighborhood-Level Specification

We compare neighborhoods before and after the arrival of high-speed internet (using fiber and LTE technologies) for individuals with remotable vs. non-remotable occupations. Specifically, we define an event as the arrival of fiber or LTE in a neighborhood that previously had no such access. Within each neighborhood, individuals are classified as treated if their pre-determined occupation is remotable. We then collapse the data to neighborhood $\times$ event-time $\times$ event-year $\times$ treatment-status cells, restricting to neighborhoods that contain both treated and control individuals, so that identification is based on within-neighborhood comparisons.

Let j index neighborhoods, t denote calendar year, e denote the calendar year in which high-speed internet arrives, and $s = t - e$ denote event time relative to the arrival of internet. We estimate the following difference-in-differences (DiD) event-study specification:

$$Y_{jesg} = \sum_{s \neq -1} (\delta_s + \beta_s \cdot 1\{g = 1\}) \cdot 1\{t = e + s\} + \gamma_{jt} + \lambda_e + \varepsilon_{jesg}, \tag{1}$$

where g indexes treatment status (remotable vs. non-remotable). The fixed effects γ_{jt} control for neighborhood-specific time trends, and λ_e are event-year fixed effects. Regressions are weighted by the cell population size. Standard errors are clustered at the neighborhood level. The coefficients β_s capture differential changes in fertility between treated and control individuals within the same neighborhood over event time.

3.2 Household-Level Specification

We next turn to household-level data, which allows us to study within-household exposure to remote work. We define the event analogously as the arrival of high-speed internet in the neighborhood of residence and restrict attention to households that do not relocate in that specific year. Treatment is defined based on the remote work feasibility of spouses' occupations measured three years before the event.

We distinguish three mutually exclusive treatment categories: (i) only the wife holds a remotable occupation, (ii) only the husband holds a remotable occupation, and (iii) both spouses hold remotable occupations. The control group consists of households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation.

Let i index households, $j(i)$ denote the neighborhood of household i before the internet arrives, and $e_{j(i)}$ the corresponding year of internet arrival. We estimate the following DiD event-study specification:

$$Y_{it} = \sum_{s \neq -1} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}} \beta_s^k \cdot 1\{t = e_{j(i)} + s\} \cdot T_i^k + \gamma_i + \gamma_{m(i)t} + \gamma_{x(i)t} + \gamma_{x^S(i)t} + \varepsilon_{it}, \tag{2}$$

where T_i^k are indicators for the three treatment categories $k \in \mathcal{K}$, γ_i are household fixed effects, $\gamma_{m(i)t}$ are municipality-by-year fixed effects, and $\gamma_{x(i)t}$ and $\gamma_{x^S(i)t}$ capture fixed effects of education (degree $\times$ study field $\times$ year) for both spouses, allowing for differential time trends across skill groups. The coefficients β_s^k then capture differential changes in outcomes over event time across households with different exposure to remote work opportunities.

By stacking event years and restricting comparisons to units experiencing the arrival of high-speed internet at the same time, the specification avoids comparisons across units with different treatment timing (Borusyak et al., 2024; Roth et al., 2023) and is equivalent to the stacked approach in Cengiz et al. (2019). Standard errors are clustered at the parish level (Bertrand et al., 2004).

Potential Limitations Our identification strategy requires two key assumptions. First, the instrument must be sufficiently strong—that is, high-speed internet availability must meaningfully increase remote work adoption among those in remotable households. We assess this directly through first-stage F-statistics. Second, we require that broadband expansion affects fertility solely through remote work adoption (exclusion restriction). This assumption cannot be tested directly.

A potential concern is that broadband expansion may directly affect wages. Akerman et al. (2015) document skill-biased productivity effects of broadband, and since our treatment correlates with education, wage changes could independently influence fertility. We consider this channel unlikely to fully explain our results. First, Mörk et al. (2013) find no effect of childcare subsidies on fertility in Sweden, suggesting limited responsiveness to financial incentives. Second, Cesarini

et al. (2023) show that wealth shocks increase fertility for men—primarily through marriage—but not for women. By restricting our sample to established couples, we eliminate this marriage channel. Third, to directly address the concern, we control for education degree times education field times year fixed effects in all our specifications, hence allowing for differential time trends in spouses' skill groups.

4 Results

We begin by documenting the expansion of high-speed internet across Sweden along with the rise in remote work adoption. We then present estimates of the effect of internet arrival on fertility outcomes at the neighborhood level. Finally, we investigate mechanisms through our household-level analysis.

4.1 Rise in remote work coincides with rise in high-speed internet

Following COVID-19, more individuals than ever work from home in many countries around the world (Barrero et al., 2023; Aksoy et al., 2023). For Sweden, we document that the share of individuals working occasionally from home steadily increased from 18 percent in 2008 to 37 percent in 2019 (see Figure 1), and spiked with COVID-19, reaching 58 percent in 2021 (see Figure 3c). Figure 2 suggests that at least part of this development comes from an increased demand for remote jobs. The figure shows that since 2008 internet searches for "work from home" (in Swedish "jobba hemifrån") steadily increased, with a spike during COVID-19 in early 2021.

The increase in WFH occurs throughout Sweden, with rural areas experiencing larger growth in the share of individuals working remotely. Figure 1b shows the percentage change in the share of individuals working from home by municipality between 2010 and 2019. Growth in the share of remote workers is not clustered around larger cities—such as Stockholm, Gothenburg, or Malmö—but occurs throughout Sweden.[6]

Figure 3 shows that the majority of workers in jobs that can be done remotely only *occasionally* work a few hours per week at home before COVID-19. This group experiences the largest growth from 1999 to 2019, increasing from 18 percent to 29 percent. A constant share of about 1 percent works fully remotely between 1999 and 2019. Throughout our study's time period, individuals who start or increase their remote work hours continue to go to the office. In other words, our results are not driven by switches from in-person to fully-remote work arrangements, but rather reflect the effects of more flexible work arrangements. These patterns change during COVID-19, strongly suggesting that identification strategies relying on COVID-19 WFH arrangements are

[6]Note that we measure the percentage change relative to the baseline share of individuals working remotely in 2010. In absolute levels, the share of individuals working remotely is higher in metropolitan areas.

driven by a different set of individuals. Figure 3c shows that an almost equal share of 10 percent of remote workers work fully remotely compared with other modes of remote work.

During the same period, high-speed speed internet availability also increases substantially. Panel (A) of Figure 4 shows that the share of households with access to high-speed internet—with at least 100 Mbit/s—increases from around 40 percent in 2010 to above 80 percent in 2019.[7] Similarly, the share of households with at least 10 Mbit/s increases from 85 percent in 2010 to almost a 100 percent coverage by 2013 and beyond. Panel (B) reveals the technology behind this trend: fiber experiences a gradual increase in coverage while LTE is rolled out within 3 years starting in 2010. There is also considerable spatial variation in the rollout, as displayed in Figure 5.

4.2 Effect of high-speed internet on fertility

We first study the impact of fast internet adoption on the neighborhood level, where a neighborhood is approximately defined as a 250 by 250 square meters in urban, and 500 by 500 square meters in rural and less dense areas.[8] Figure 6 uses our 1 percent sample survey aggregated to the neighborhood level. The event study compares the number of respondents WFH before and after the advent of fast internet who are in remotable occupations to those in the same neighborhoods who are required to work from their place of work. The response is stronger for women, with an increase of about 15 percent in WFH relative to the mean. For men, the pattern is not as clear, though we see a slight increase in the probability of WFH in response to faster internet.

Figures 7-11 demonstrate the neighborhood-level effects of fast internet on fertility, household stability, and couples' caregiving. Fertility for women increases in the aftermath of fast internet by almost 6 per thousand. Similarly signed, though less precise increases are noted for men of the same age groups. Couple dissolution and divorce among existing couples are substantially reduced after WFH becomes available. Both males and females are less likely to separate from their current partners, and married couples are substantially less likely to divorce. These findings suggest that the fertility increase we note is accompanied, and potentially due to, increased marital or couple stability for individuals whose occupation allows WFH, after WFH becomes possible in the geography.

4.3 Mechanism

To better understand the mechanisms behind the neighborhood-level effects, we turn to data on individual households. In Table 3 we analyze the relationship between access to fast internet, WFH, and fertility at the individual panel level. We focus on existing married couples in the

[7] The deviation in the trend in 2009 is due to changes in how PTS collects this data.

[8] More precisely, we group neighboring grid cells of 250 $\times$ 250 square meters until we have coverage of at least 20 women between ages 25 to 55 within a cell.

year before the fast internet arrives, and follow them for a few years after. The first two columns report estimates from our 1 percent survey, while columns (3)-(5) use the full registry of married households. In the empirical model, we have separate and exclusive dummy variables indicating the interaction between the post-high speed internet period and the remotability of the husband's occupation, the wife's occupation, or both. The omitted category is neither spouse having an occupation that could be done while WFH.

The arrival of high speed internet results in about 4.5 percentage points (about 17 percent relative to the pre-arrival mean) increase in the probability that women in remotable jobs will report WFH. This is almost exactly the same relative change that we found in our aggregate-level analyses above. For men, the absolute change is similar-sized, but their probability of WFH is a priori higher, resulting in a smaller relative change of about 10 percent.

The impact on fertility is large and statistically significant. Improved opportunity to WFH on either side - female or male - increases the probability of a live birth, though the effects on the wife are somewhat larger in absolute and relative terms. The impact of both partners' WFH is of similar magnitude. The estimates imply a 8-12 percent increase in the probability of having an extra child in the years after high speed internet, relative to the group of households without WFH opportunities.

As columns (4) and (5) demonstrate, the overall fertility effects in column (3) are supported by increases in both first, and subsequent births. This suggests a general fertility effects operating through both the extensive and the intensive margins, for both partners in the household. Figures 12-16 present the event study graphs associated with this analysis. A notable feature is that the probability of having a (new) child is increasing over time after the advent of fast internet for those whose occupations allow WFH. As realized fertility is not immediate and there is some uncertainty about the timing of conceptions and births, this is consistent with our expectations. Furthermore, the implications of WFH on family dynamics are likely not immediately realized by affected couples.

In Table 4 we study the potential impacts of WFH on couple dissolution, income, and the division of care-giving responsibilities. Similar to our findings at the neighborhood level, we note that couple dissolution is significantly negatively affected by husbands' WFH. The effects on wives' WFH are not significant and much smaller. Furthermore, there appears to be no added benefit of the wife's WFH if the husband's job is remotable - the estimated effects on both remotable spouses are the same size as the coefficient on the husband's WFH.

Consistent with a status quo in which the mother is the default parent who takes care of sick children, the estimated effects of WFH across both parents are larger when we consider mothers' sick leave. The reduction in leave taking is between 3.5 days when the husband's job allows WFH to 6 work days when both jobs become remotable. The impact on husbands' leave taking

if the wife is not able to WFH is small and statistically insignificant. If the mother can WFH, the husband's leave taking is reduced by 2 work days.

Turning to annual earnings, we again find that the largest impacts of WFH availability on income are concentrated among mothers. Both parents becoming remotable increases the mother's income by over 6 percent relative to the mean. Both wives' and husbands' income increase when the fast internet arrives.

5 Conclusion

This paper provides evidence on the relationship between flexible work arrangements and fertility using pre-pandemic Swedish administrative data. By exploiting the gradual rollout of high-speed internet across neighborhoods in combination with differences in occupational telework-feasibility as a source of variation in permanent WFH accessibility, we address the selection and timing challenges arising in settings using COVID-19. Our findings show that access to workplace flexibility increases fertility.

We find that high-speed internet availability increases fertility by approximately 6 additional births per 1,000 women in teleworkable occupations—an 18 percent increase relative to baseline rates. At the household level, WFH access increases the probability of a live birth within six years by 7 percent relative to the pre-WFH mean. Our most novel contribution lies in documenting the asymmetric effects of maternal versus paternal flexibility. While WFH access for both mothers and fathers increases fertility and individual earnings, only paternal flexibility generates shifts in the household division of labor and reductions in marital dissolution. When mothers gain flexibility, they maintain career investments during childbearing years—potentially helping close the gender pay gap without fundamentally altering household labor allocation (Goldin, 2014; Kleven et al., 2019). When fathers gain flexibility, it facilitates a renegotiation of caregiving responsibilities, promoting more equitable household labor division while reducing marital strain (Patnaik, 2019; Hochschild and Machung, 1989).

Our findings suggest that workplace flexibility can be an effective policy tool for addressing fertility decline. The distinct mechanisms through which maternal and paternal flexibility operate highlight the importance of considering both parents when designing work-family policies. Given that workplace norms often discourage men from using flexible arrangements even when available, our findings suggest that policies that encourage paternal uptake of flexibility—whether through employer incentives, non-transferable leave provisions, or norm-based interventions—may increase fertility and raise paternal involvement in caregiving.

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6 TABLES

TABLE 1. DESCRIPTIVE TABLE NEIGHBORHOOD IN 2010

	Women			Men		
	Non-remotable	Remotable	Difference	Non-remotable	Remotable	Difference
Average age	46.235	48.168	1.933***	45.724	47.876	2.152***
	(4.025)	(5.786)	(0.048)	(3.946)	(6.271)	(0.051)
Share > HS education	0.424	0.457	0.033***	0.252	0.494	0.242***
	(0.170)	(0.222)	(0.002)	(0.165)	(0.253)	(0.002)
Average income	1,859.011	2,505.283	646.271***	2,733.066	3,708.089	975.023***
	(393.939)	(762.732)	(5.878)	(574.037)	(1,137.243)	(8.735)
Share remotable	0.010	0.984	0.975***	0.012	0.981	0.969***
	(0.026)	(0.049)	(0.000)	(0.032)	(0.062)	(0.000)
Share households with fiber	0.033	0.029	-0.004***	0.033	0.031	-0.001*
	(0.055)	(0.074)	(0.001)	(0.058)	(0.087)	(0.001)
Share households with LTE	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Average number of children	1.871	1.807	-0.064***	1.631	1.833	0.202***
	(0.301)	(0.441)	(0.004)	(0.343)	(0.571)	(0.005)
Number of births	1.082	0.414	-0.669***	1.018	0.436	-0.582***
	(1.199)	(0.754)	(0.010)	(1.176)	(0.820)	(0.010)
Number of first births	0.424	0.161	-0.263***	0.417	0.155	-0.262***
	(0.707)	(0.428)	(0.006)	(0.699)	(0.434)	(0.006)
Number of 2+ births	0.658	0.253	-0.405***	0.601	0.281	-0.320***
	(0.884)	(0.562)	(0.007)	(0.856)	(0.618)	(0.007)
Number of individuals in neighborhood	27.996	10.550	-17.446***	25.289	9.285	-16.004***
	(14.862)	(7.599)	(0.114)	(14.028)	(7.705)	(0.110)
Share married	0.545	0.601	0.056***	0.497	0.622	0.125***
	(0.150)	(0.217)	(0.002)	(0.155)	(0.243)	(0.002)
Number of couples dissolving	0.364	0.123	-0.241***	0.320	0.107	-0.213***
	(0.721)	(0.372)	(0.006)	(0.635)	(0.339)	(0.005)
Number of couples divorcing	0.138	0.050	-0.088***	0.134	0.053	-0.082***
	(0.413)	(0.231)	(0.003)	(0.407)	(0.236)	(0.003)
Average parental leave days	13.181	12.662	-0.519***	4.677	5.520	0.843***
	(10.238)	(16.499)	(0.133)	(4.676)	(8.863)	(0.069)
Observations	21,343	21,267	42,610	21,340	20,990	42,330

Notes: This table reports descriptive statistics at the neighborhood level in the calendar year 2010, separately for non-remotable or remotable occupation, and for women and men. We define neighborhood by aggregating neighboring 250 $\times$ 250 meter grid cells until each area contains at least 20 women in childbearing age of 25 to 45. Income is stated in 100 Swedish kronas. Standard deviations are reported in parentheses. The difference column reports the difference between remotable and non-remotable occupations. * p<0.10, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01.

TABLE 2. DESCRIPTIVE TABLE HOUSEHOLDS

Variable	(1) None remotable	(2) At least one remotable	(3) Difference
Wife Remotable	0.000	0.311	0.311***
	(0.000)	(0.463)	(0.001)
Husband Remotable	0.000	0.368	0.368***
	(0.000)	(0.482)	(0.001)
Both Remotable	0.000	0.321	0.321***
	(0.000)	(0.467)	(0.001)
Wife > HS Education	0.519	0.673	0.154***
	(0.500)	(0.469)	(0.002)
Husband > HS Education	0.302	0.567	0.265***
	(0.459)	(0.495)	(0.002)
Wife Income	2,089.028	2,802.834	713.807***
	(1,162.677)	(1,602.137)	(4.658)
Husband Income	3,336.754	4,582.929	1,246.175***
	(1,396.646)	(2,381.622)	(6.513)
Wife any WFH	0.145	0.302	0.157***
	(0.316)	(0.401)	(0.010)
Husband any WFH	0.176	0.413	0.238***
	(0.337)	(0.425)	(0.011)
Wife Age	36.646	37.638	0.991***
	(5.232)	(4.553)	(0.016)
Husband Age	39.514	40.038	0.524***
	(6.390)	(5.575)	(0.020)
Wife share kid sick days	0.548	0.585	0.037***
	(0.384)	(0.385)	(0.002)
Divorcing	0.001	0.000	-0.000**
	(0.025)	(0.021)	(0.000)
Number of children	2.068	1.964	-0.104***
	(0.974)	(0.855)	(0.003)
Occupation Wife==Military	0.000	0.000	0.000***
	(0.002)	(0.007)	(0.000)
Occupation Wife==Managerial	0.016	0.075	0.059***
	(0.125)	(0.264)	(0.001)
Occupation Wife==In-depth un icompetence	0.162	0.345	0.184***
	(0.368)	(0.476)	(0.001)
Occupation Wife==Uni education	0.235	0.287	0.052***
	(0.424)	(0.452)	(0.001)
Occupation Wife==Administration + customer competence	0.050	0.166	0.115***
	(0.219)	(0.372)	(0.001)
Occupation Wife==Service, care, sales	0.399	0.105	-0.294***
	(0.490)	(0.307)	(0.001)
Occupation Wife==Agriculture, gardening, forestry, fishing	0.006	0.001	-0.005***
	(0.075)	(0.033)	(0.000)
Occupation Wife==Constrcution + manufacturing	0.011	0.004	-0.007***
	(0.105)	(0.065)	(0.000)
Occupation Wife==Machine manufacturing, transportation	0.052	0.007	-0.045***
	(0.221)	(0.082)	(0.001)
Occupation Wife==Shorter education	0.070	0.010	-0.060***
	(0.255)	(0.099)	(0.001)
Observations	177,118	187,737	364,855

Notes: This table reports household-level descriptive statistics prior to the arrival of high-speed internet (event time $s < 0$), separately for control (*None remotable"*) and treated (*At least one remotable"*) households. Households are classified as treated if at least one spouse holds a remotable occupation, and as control if neither spouse holds a remotable occupation three years prior to the arrival of the internet in the neighborhood of residence. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The sample is restricted to women and their male spouses who experience the arrival of high-speed internet between 2012 and 2017, are aged 25–45, and are married and cohabiting in the year prior to treatment. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. Income is measured in hundreds of Swedish kronor. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, we exclude 2012 from the analysis sample. Standard deviations are reported in parentheses. The difference column reports the difference between treated and control households. * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

TABLE 3. WORK FROM HOME AND FERTILITY

	(1) Wife any WFH	(2) Husband any WFH	(3) Live birth	(4) First birth	(5) 2+ birth
Husband Remotable=1 × Post=1	0.008	0.043	0.007***	0.002***	0.003***
	(0.024)	(0.030)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Wife Remotable=1 × Post=1	0.044	0.017	0.009***	0.002**	0.007***
	(0.028)	(0.034)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Both Remotable=1 × Post=1	0.061**	-0.039	0.007***	0.004***	0.003*
	(0.028)	(0.034)	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Constant	0.327***	0.407***	0.035***	0.007***	0.027***
	(0.008)	(0.010)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Dep Mean (Husband Remote)	.26	.46	.09	.02	.06
Dep Mean (Wife Remote)	.28	.24	.08	.02	.05
Dep Mean (Both Remote)	.39	.54	.1	.03	.07
Household FE			X	X	X
Year x High-Edu x Edu-Field Husband	X	X	X	X	X
Year x High-Edu x Edu-Field Wife	X	X	X	X	X
Year x Municipality	X	X	X	X	X
F-stat	1.85	2.2			
N	15,246	14,502	1,249,083	1,249,083	1,249,083
R2	0.41	0.42	0.17	0.11	0.13

Standard errors in parentheses

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

Notes: This table reports DiD estimates of access to remote work on actual work from home use and fertility outcomes at the household level. The specification is a pooled (static) DiD, where treatment indicators for remote work feasibility are interacted with a post indicator following the arrival of high-speed internet (fiber or LTE). The treatment variables indicate whether only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold a remotable occupation prior to treatment, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). Columns (1) and (2) use outcomes on working from home for wives and husbands, respectively, constructed from the labor force survey (AKU), which covers approximately 1 percent of the Swedish working population. Columns (3)–(5) use population register data on fertility outcomes and rely on the full population of households. The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to treatment. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. All specifications include municipality × year fixed effects, treatment indicators, and flexible controls for spouses' education (indicators for more than a high school degree interacted with field of study) interacted with year fixed effects. Columns (3)–(5) additionally include household fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the parish level.

TABLE 4. OTHER OUTCOMES: MARRIAGE STABILITY, HOUSEHOLD DIVISION IN LEAVE DAYS

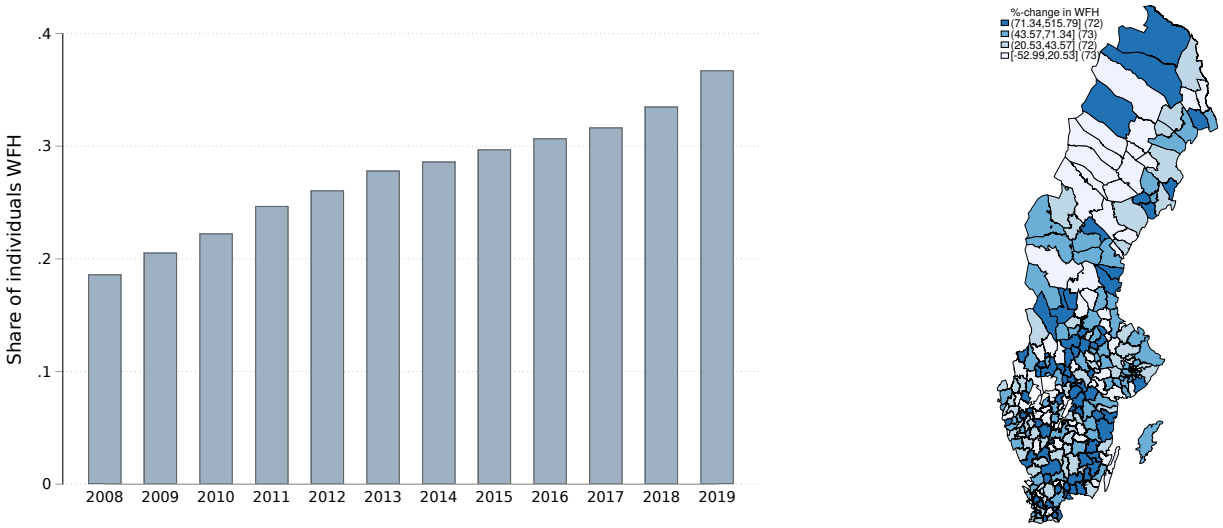
	(1) Couple dissolved	(2) Divorcing	(3) Wife kid sick days	(4) Husband kid sick days	(5) Wife Income	(6) Husband Income	(7) Wife Par. Leave	(8) Husband Par. Leave
Husband Remotable=1 × Post=1	-0.002***	-0.002***	-3.619***	-0.316	35.410***	151.087***	0.361	-0.007
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.329)	(0.251)	(7.709)	(12.244)	(0.379)	(0.166)
Wife Remotable=1 × Post=1	-0.000	-0.001	-3.990***	-2.365***	137.334***	71.972***	1.230**	-0.988***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.346)	(0.279)	(9.347)	(10.001)	(0.399)	(0.163)
Both Remotable=1 × Post=1	-0.001*	-0.002**	-6.050***	-2.003***	210.427***	169.500***	0.032	-1.714***
	(0.001)	(0.000)	(0.420)	(0.287)	(10.932)	(15.300)	(0.436)	(0.196)
Constant	0.012***	0.011***	25.359***	18.208***	3226.937***	4664.945***	17.297***	8.278***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.105)	(0.076)	(2.652)	(3.128)	(0.111)	(0.048)
Dep Mean (Husband Remote)	0.0013	0.0004	30.78	22.15	2299.42	4713.14	36.04	13.04
Dep Mean (Wife Remote)	0.001	0.0004	26.75	27.2	2895.44	3711.34	31.62	13.03
Dep Mean (Both Remote)	0.0015	0.0005	27.91	23.77	3305.95	5308.19	37.78	15.58
Dep Mean (Control; Post)	0.015	0.017						
Household FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Year x High-Edu x Edu-Field Husband	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Year x High-Edu x Edu-Field Wife	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Year x Municipality	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
F-stat								
N	1,249,083	1,243,823	1,249,083	1,249,083	1,249,083	1,249,083	1,249,083	1,249,083
R2	0.10	0.10	0.43	0.45	0.81	0.83	0.34	0.31

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

Notes: This table reports DiD estimates of access to remote work on household outcomes. The specification is a pooled (static) DiD, where treatment indicators for remote work feasibility are interacted with a post indicator following the arrival of high-speed internet (fiber or LTE). The treatment variables indicate whether only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold a remotable occupation prior to treatment, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The outcomes include indicators for couple dissolution (spouses no longer residing in the same household) and legal divorce, the number of days parents stay home to care for a sick child ("VAB" days), annual labor income (measured in hundred Swedish kronas), and days of parental leave taken. The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to treatment. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. All specifications include household fixed effects, municipality × year fixed effects, and flexible controls for spouses' education (indicators for more than a high school degree interacted with field of study) interacted with year fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the parish level.

7 FIGURES

FIGURE 1. INCREASE THE SHARE OF WORKERS OCCASIONALLY WORKING FROM HOME

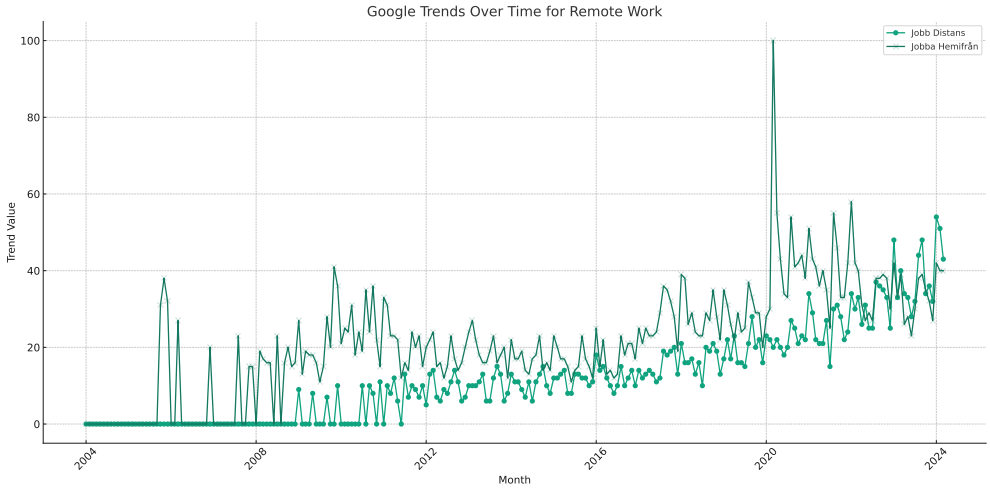


(A) OVER TIME

(B) ACROSS REGIONS

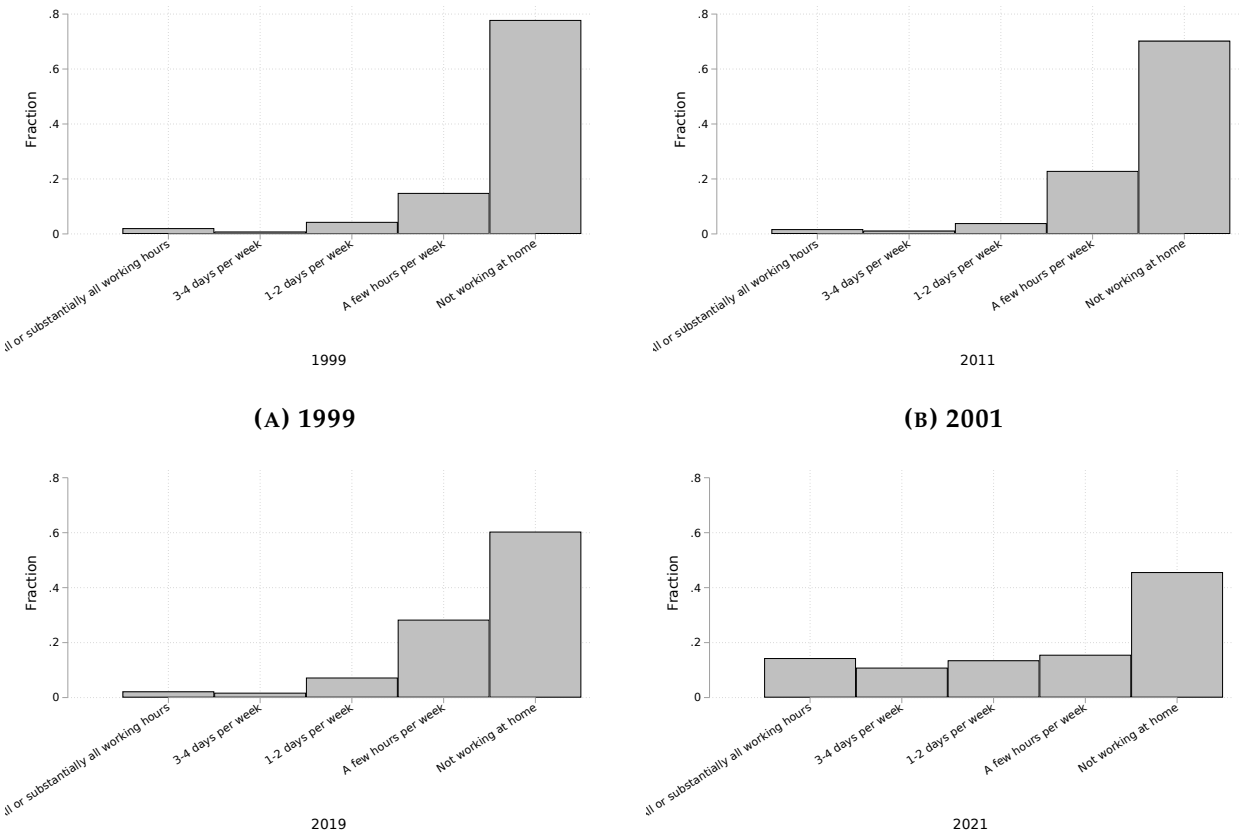
Notes: Panel (a) illustrates the share of individuals working from home over time. Panel (b) illustrates the regional variation in the increase in the share of individuals working remotely between the average share of 2010/2011 and 2018/2019 (percentage change). Working from home captures a range of remote tasks between working occasionally remotely up to working fully 5 days per week at home. The sample is based on the *AKU* rotating panel sample.

FIGURE 2. INTERNET SEARCHES FOR REMOTE JOBS STARTS BEFORE BUT SPIKES COVID-19



Notes: This figure shows the trend in google searches for remote jobs in Sweden.

FIGURE 3. HOW MUCH WORK IS DONE FROM HOME?

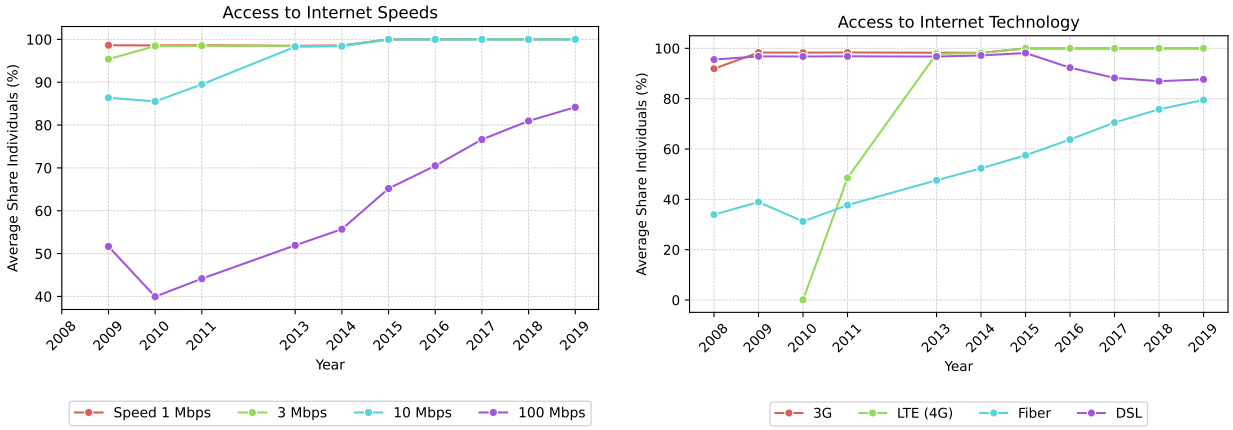


(A) 1999 **(B) 2001**

(C) 2019 **(D) 2021**

Notes: The figure shows the distribution of how much individuals engage in remote work for different years. Conditional on practicing remote work, individuals are categorized into four groups: Working a few hours per week, 1-2 days per week, 3-4 days per week, or all working days remotely. This figure is based on the survey *AMU*.

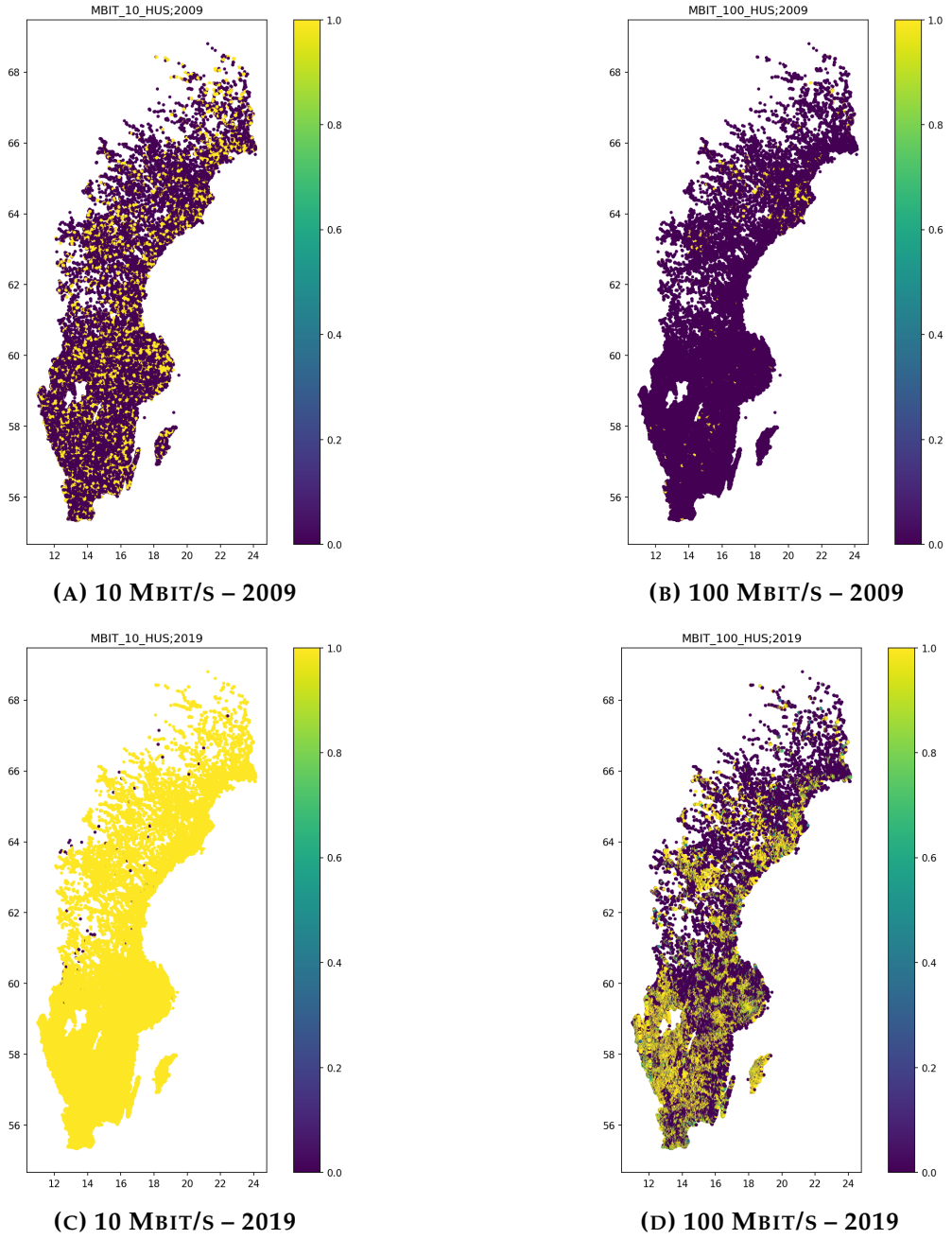
FIGURE 4. FIBER AND LTE BECOME AVAILABLE BETWEEN 2008 AND 2019



(A) INTERNET SPEED **(B) INTERNET TECHNOLOGIES**

Notes: The figure shows the population weighted share of households with certain internet speeds (Panel (A)) measured in Mbit/s and the share of household with access to a internet subscription based on a certain technology (Panel (B)). Data is available on the 250 $\times$ 250 meter grid level from the PTS, except for the year 2012.

FIGURE 5. SPATIAL AND TIME VARIATION OF INTERNET SPEED

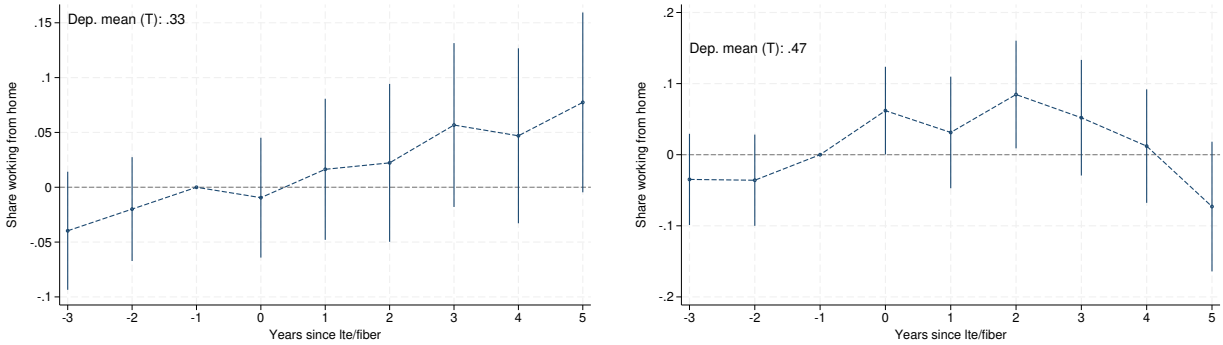


(A) 10 MBIT/S – 2009 **(B) 100 MBIT/S – 2009**

(C) 10 MBIT/S – 2019 **(D) 100 MBIT/S – 2019**

Notes: This figure displays the share of households with access to internet speed of at least 10 Mbit (Panel (a) and Panel (c)) and of at least 100 Mbit (Panel (b) and Panel (d)). Data is available on the 250 × 250 meter grid level from the PTS, except for the year 2012.

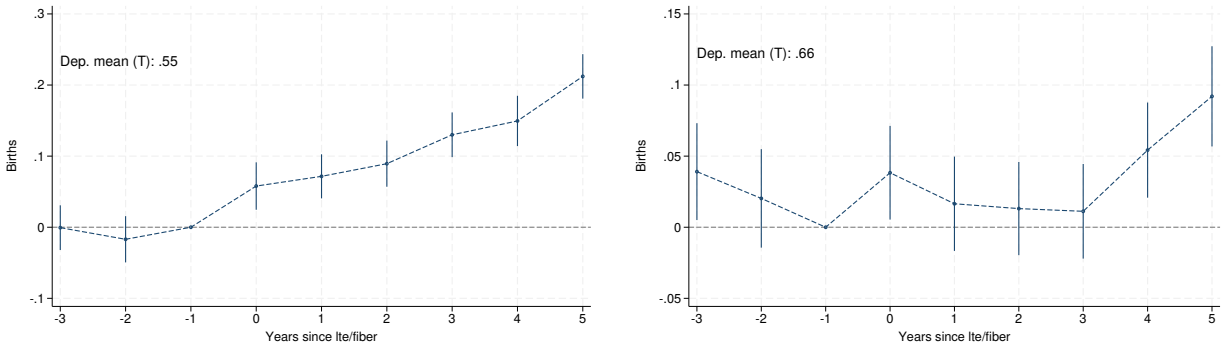
FIGURE 6. NEIGHBORHOOD-LEVEL: SHARE WORKING FROM HOME



(A) WOMEN **(B) MEN**

Notes: This figure plots difference-in-differences event-study estimates of working from home adoption at the neighborhood level, comparing individuals in remotable and non-remotable occupations relative to the arrival of high-speed internet. The outcome, *Share working from home*, is defined as the share of individuals working occasionally from home within a neighborhood–treatment–year cell. *Working from home* is measured using the survey question "Do you do any work from home from your own residence (main occupation)?" from the Labor Force Survey (AKU), which covers approximately 1 percent of the Swedish working population; the sample is therefore restricted to respondents with available information on this outcome. Event time is defined relative to the arrival of high-speed internet in the neighborhood. Treatment is defined as holding a remotable occupation prior to internet arrival. To address endogenous residential sorting, individuals are assigned to their 2010 neighborhood (pre-treatment). Regressions include treatment indicators and neighborhood × year fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the neighborhood level.

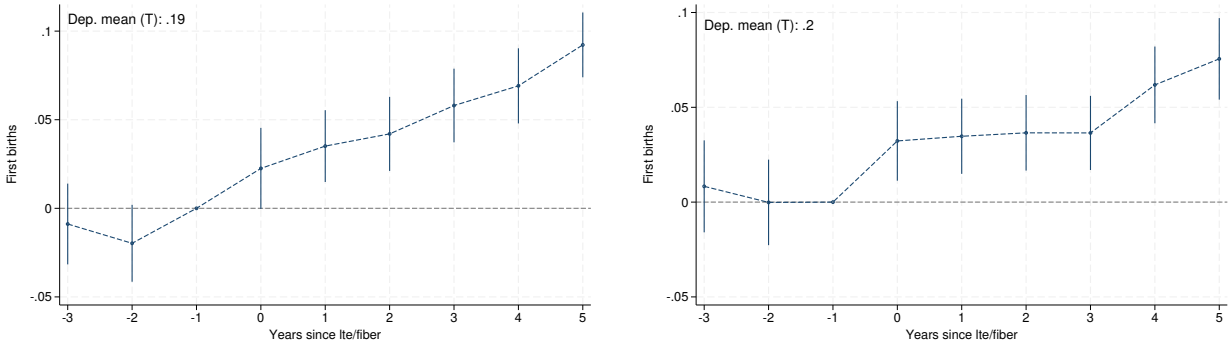
FIGURE 7. NEIGHBORHOOD-LEVEL: TOTAL LIVE BIRTHS



(A) WOMEN **(B) MEN**

Notes: This figure plots DiD event-study estimates of the number of live births at the neighborhood level, comparing remotable and non-remotable individuals over time relative to the arrival of fast-speed internet. The outcome variable, *Births*, is defined as the sum of individuals' live births within a neighborhood-treatment-year cell, aggregated over individuals residing in the same neighborhood. Event time is defined relative to the arrival of fast speed in the neighborhood. Treatment is defined as holding a remotable occupation before the arrival of the internet. To account for endogenous moves, we assign each individual to a neighborhood in the year 2010 (before the arrival of fast-speed internet). Regressions include remotable (treatment) indicators and neighborhood × year fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the neighborhood level.

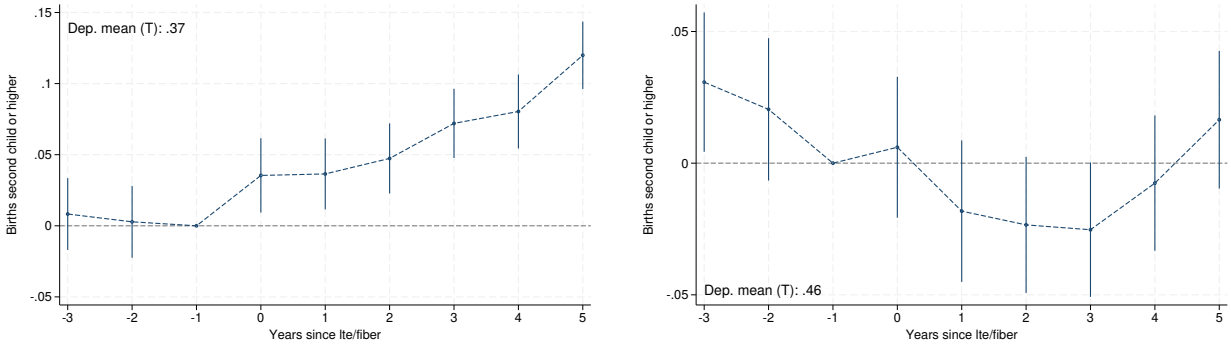
FIGURE 8. NEIGHBORHOOD-LEVEL: FIRST BIRTH



(A) WOMEN **(B) MEN**

Notes: This figure plots DiD event-study estimates of the number of first births at the neighborhood level, comparing remotable and non-remotable individuals over time relative to the arrival of fast-speed internet. The outcome variable, *First Births*, is defined as the sum of individuals' first live birth within a neighborhood-treatment-year cell, aggregated over individuals residing in the same neighborhood. Event time is defined relative to the arrival of fast speed in the neighborhood. Treatment is defined as holding a remotable occupation before the arrival of the internet. To account for endogenous moves, we assign each individual to a neighborhood in the year 2010 (before the arrival of fast-speed internet). Regressions include remotable (treatment) indicators and neighborhood $\times$ year fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the neighborhood level.

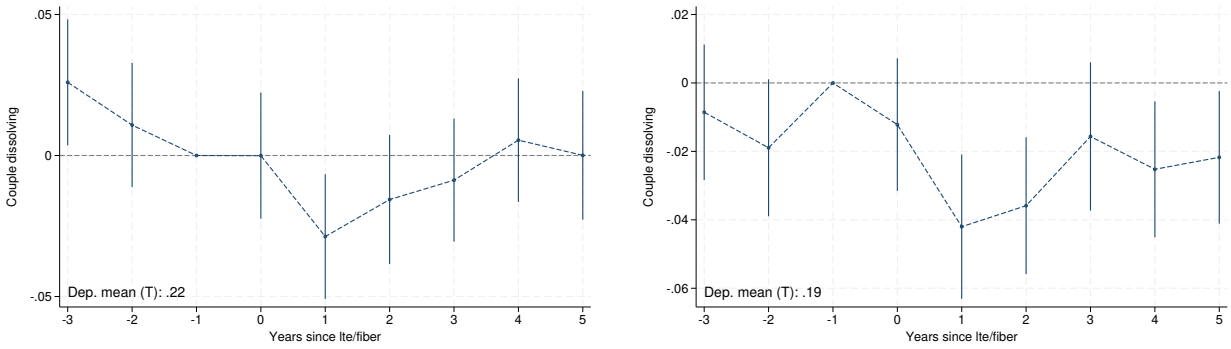
FIGURE 9. NEIGHBORHOOD-LEVEL: SECOND OR HIGHER BIRTH



(A) WOMEN **(B) MEN**

Notes: This figure plots DiD event-study estimates of the number of second-order or higher births at the neighborhood level, comparing remotable and non-remotable individuals over time relative to the arrival of fast-speed internet. The outcome variable, *Births second child or higher Births*, is defined as the sum of individuals' second-order or higher live births within a neighborhood-treatment-year cell, aggregated over individuals residing in the same neighborhood. Event time is defined relative to the arrival of fast speed in the neighborhood. Treatment is defined as holding a remotable occupation before the arrival of the internet. To account for endogenous moves, we assign each individual to a neighborhood in the year 2010 (before the arrival of fast-speed internet). Regressions include remotable (treatment) indicators and neighborhood $\times$ year fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the neighborhood level.

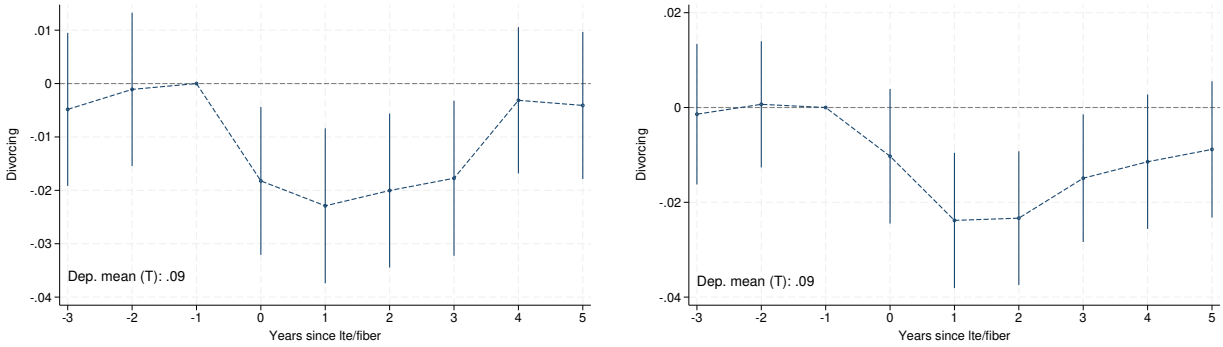
FIGURE 10. NEIGHBORHOOD-LEVEL: COUPLE DISSOLVES



(A) WOMEN **(B) MEN**

Notes: This figure plots DiD event-study estimates of the number of couples that dissolve at the neighborhood level, comparing remotable and non-remotable individuals over time relative to the arrival of fast-speed internet. We can link couples if they eventually have a common child or get married. The outcome variable, *Couple dissolving*, is then defined as stopping to live together with the partner. We aggregate this measure by counting the number of couples who dissolve within the neighborhood-treatment-year cell. Event time is defined relative to the arrival of fast speed in the neighborhood. Treatment is defined as holding a remotable occupation before the arrival of the internet. To account for endogenous moves, we assign each individual to a neighborhood in the year 2010 (before the arrival of fast-speed internet). Regressions include remotable (treatment) indicators and neighborhood $\times$ year fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the neighborhood level.

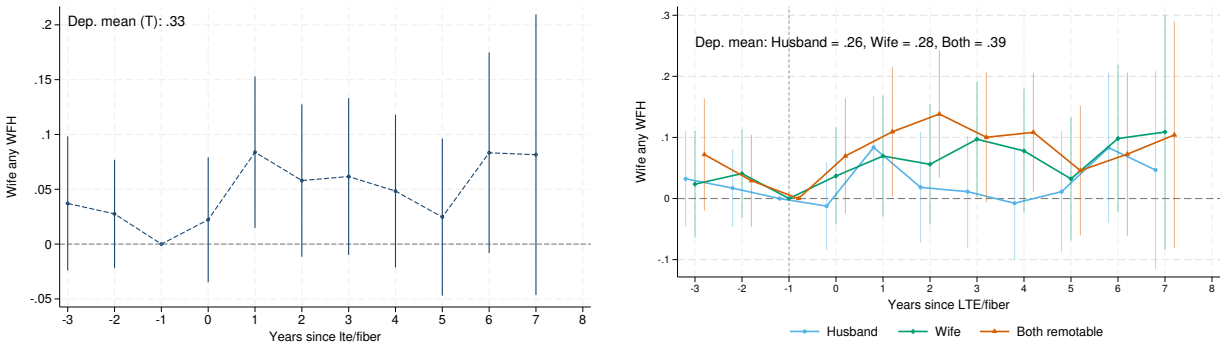
FIGURE 11. NEIGHBORHOOD-LEVEL: DIVORCE



(A) WOMEN **(B) MEN**

Notes: This figure plots DiD event-study estimates of the number of couples that dissolve at the neighborhood level, comparing remotable and non-remotable individuals over time relative to the arrival of fast-speed internet. The outcome variable, *Divorcing*, counts the number of individuals who divorce within the neighborhood-treatment-year cell. Event time is defined relative to the arrival of fast speed in the neighborhood. Treatment is defined as holding a remotable occupation before the arrival of the internet. To account for endogenous moves, we assign each individual to a neighborhood in the year 2010 (before the arrival of fast-speed internet). Regressions include remotable (treatment) indicators and neighborhood $\times$ year fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the neighborhood level.

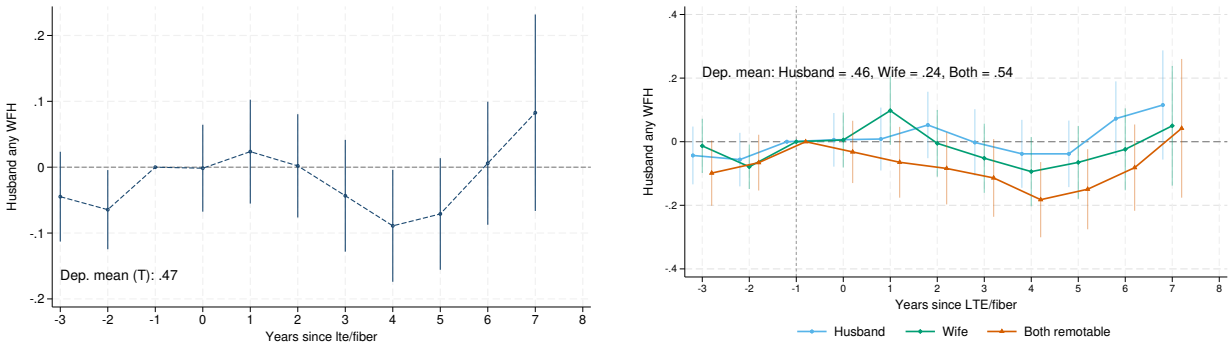
FIGURE 12. HOUSEHOLD-LEVEL: WIFE ANY WORK FROM HOME



(A) EITHER SPOUSE REMOTABLE **(B) REMOTABLE BY SPOUSE**

Notes: This figure reports DiD event-study estimates at the household level, where the outcome is an indicator for whether the wife in the household works from home. Working from home is defined as conducting any work from home, ranging from a couple of hours to working fully remotely. We built that measure from the survey question "Do you do any work from home from your own residence? (Main occupation)" in the labor force survey (AKU), which covers approximately 1 percent of the Swedish working population. Years are defined relative to the arrival of fiber or LTE in the household's neighborhood. Panel (A) reports estimates from a pooled treatment indicator equal to one if at least one spouse holds a remotable occupation, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Panel (B) reports estimates separately by which spouse holds a remotable occupation, distinguishing households in which only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold remotable occupations. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to the arrival of high-speed internet. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. We further need to restrict the figure to individuals in the AKU. All specifications include treatment indicators, municipality $\times$ year fixed effects, and flexible controls for spouses' education (indicators for more than a high school degree interacted with field of study, six categories) interacted with year fixed effects. The reported mean captures the average of the outcome variable in the year prior to the arrival of high-speed internet. Standard errors are clustered at the parish level.

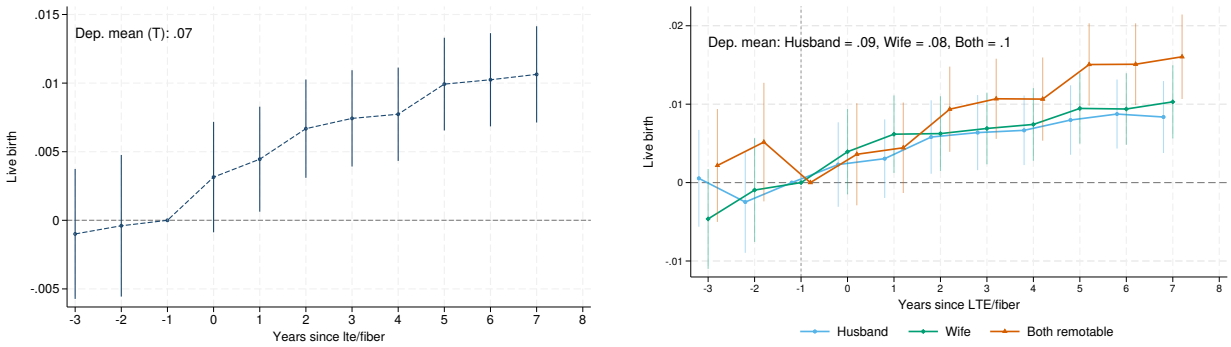
FIGURE 13. HOUSEHOLD-LEVEL: HUSBAND ANY WORK FROM HOME



(A) EITHER SPOUSE REMOTABLE **(B) REMOTABLE BY SPOUSE**

Notes: This figure reports DiD event-study estimates at the household level, where the outcome is an indicator for whether the husband in the household works from home. Working from home is defined as conducting any work from home, ranging from a couple of hours to working fully remotely. We built that measure from the survey question "Do you do any work from home from your own residence? (Main occupation)" in the labor force survey (AKU), which covers approximately 1 percent of the Swedish working population. Years are defined relative to the arrival of fiber or LTE in the household's neighborhood. Panel (A) reports estimates from a pooled treatment indicator equal to one if at least one spouse holds a remotable occupation, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Panel (B) reports estimates separately by which spouse holds a remotable occupation, distinguishing households in which only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold remotable occupations. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to the arrival of high-speed internet. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. We further need to restrict the figure to individuals in the AKU. All specifications include treatment indicators, municipality $\times$ year fixed effects, and flexible controls for spouses' education (indicators for more than a high school degree interacted with field of study, six categories) interacted with year fixed effects. The reported mean captures the average of the outcome variable in the year prior to the arrival of high-speed internet. Standard errors are clustered at the parish level.

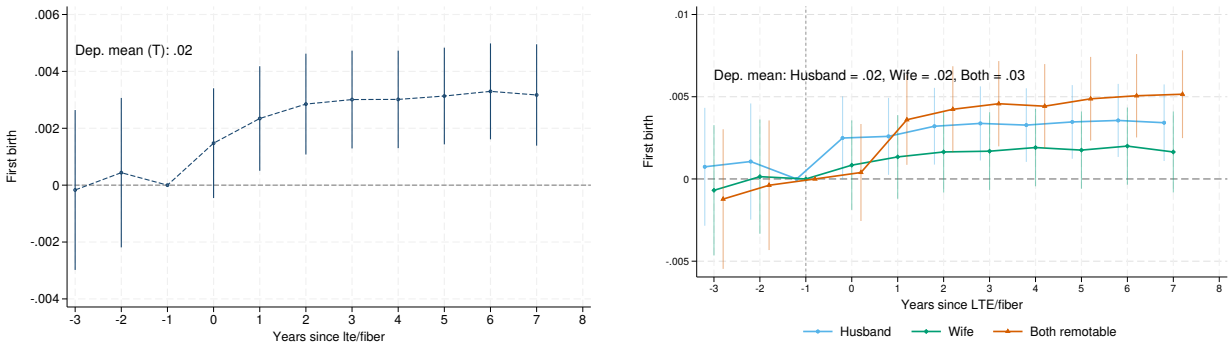
FIGURE 14. HOUSEHOLD-LEVEL: BIRTH



(A) EITHER SPOUSE REMOTABLE **(B) REMOTABLE BY SPOUSE**

Notes: This figure reports DiD event-study estimates at the household level, where the outcome is an indicator for whether the household has a live birth in a given year. Years are relative to the arrival of fiber or LTE in the household's neighborhood. Panel (A) reports estimates from a pooled treatment indicator equal to one if at least one spouse holds a remotable occupation, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Panel (B) reports estimates separately by which spouse holds a remotable occupation, distinguishing households in which only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold remotable occupations. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. All specifications include treatment indicators, municipality fixed effects interacted with year fixed effects, and flexible controls for wives' and husbands' education (i.e., indicators for more than high school degree interacted with the field of study (6 categories)) interacted with year fixed effects. The reported mean captures the average of the outcome variable in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. Standard errors clustered at the parish level.

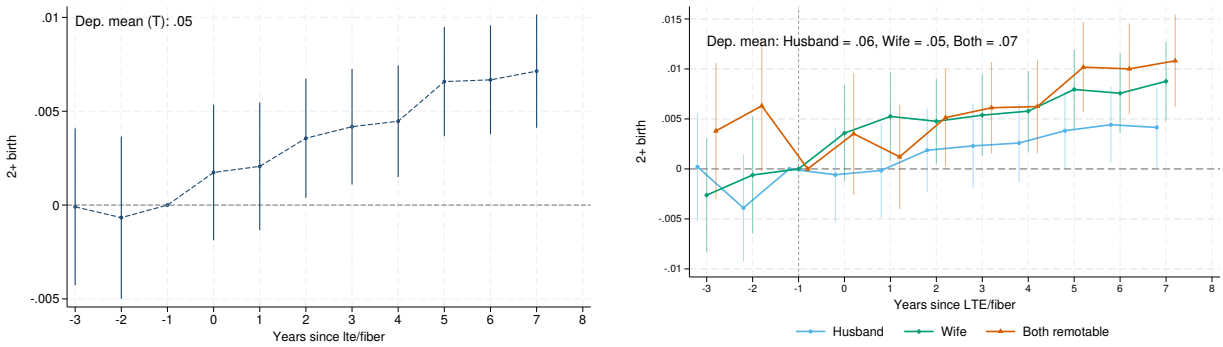
FIGURE 15. HOUSEHOLD-LEVEL: FIRST BIRTH



(A) EITHER SPOUSE REMOTABLE **(B) REMOTABLE BY SPOUSE**

Notes: This figure reports DiD event-study estimates at the household level, where the outcome is an indicator for whether the household has a live birth of the first child in a given year. Years are relative to the arrival of fiber or LTE in the household's neighborhood. Panel (A) reports estimates from a pooled treatment indicator equal to one if at least one spouse holds a remotable occupation, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Panel (B) reports estimates separately by which spouse holds a remotable occupation, distinguishing households in which only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold remotable occupations. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. All specifications include treatment indicators, municipality fixed effects interacted with year fixed effects, and flexible controls for wives' and husbands' education (i.e., indicators for more than high school degree interacted with the field of study (6 categories)) interacted with year fixed effects. The reported mean captures the average of the outcome variable in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. Standard errors clustered at the parish level.

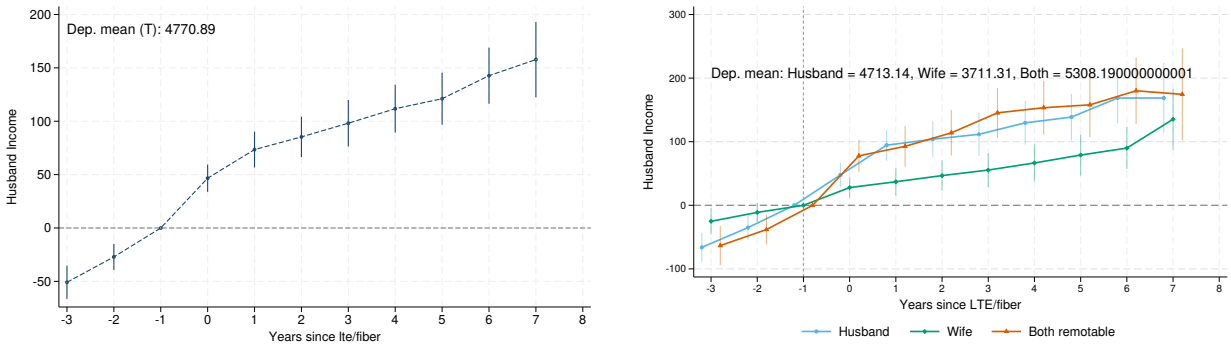
FIGURE 16. HOUSEHOLD-LEVEL: SECOND-PLUS BIRTH



(A) EITHER SPOUSE REMOTABLE **(B) REMOTABLE BY SPOUSE**

Notes: This figure reports DiD event-study estimates at the household level, where the outcome is an indicator for whether the household has a live birth of the second or higher-order child in a given year. Years are relative to the arrival of fiber or LTE in the household's neighborhood. Panel (A) reports estimates from a pooled treatment indicator equal to one if at least one spouse holds a remotable occupation, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Panel (B) reports estimates separately by which spouse holds a remotable occupation, distinguishing households in which only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold remotable occupations. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. All specifications include treatment indicators, municipality fixed effects interacted with year fixed effects, and flexible controls for wives' and husbands' education (i.e., indicators for more than high school degree interacted with the field of study (6 categories)) interacted with year fixed effects. The reported mean captures the average of the outcome variable in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. Standard errors clustered at the parish level.

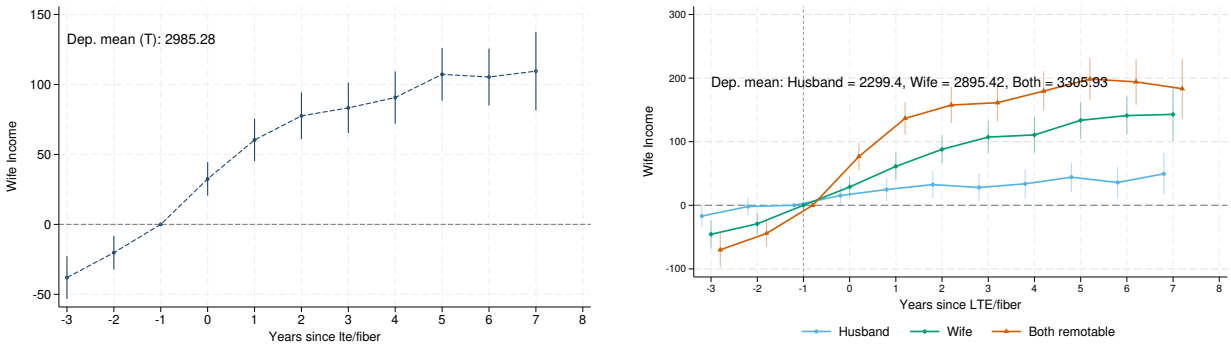
FIGURE 17. HOUSEHOLD-LEVEL: HUSBAND INCOME



(A) EITHER SPOUSE REMOTABLE **(B) REMOTABLE BY SPOUSE**

Notes: This figure reports DiD event-study estimates at the household level, where the outcome is husband's labor income, measured in hundreds of Swedish kronas. Years are relative to the arrival of fiber or LTE in the household's neighborhood. Panel (A) reports estimates from a pooled treatment indicator equal to one if at least one spouse holds a remotable occupation, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Panel (B) reports estimates separately by which spouse holds a remotable occupation, distinguishing households in which only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold remotable occupations. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. All specifications include treatment indicators, municipality fixed effects interacted with year fixed effects, and flexible controls for wives' and husbands' education (i.e., indicators for more than high school degree interacted with the field of study (6 categories)) interacted with year fixed effects. The reported mean captures the average of the outcome variable in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. Standard errors clustered at the parish level.

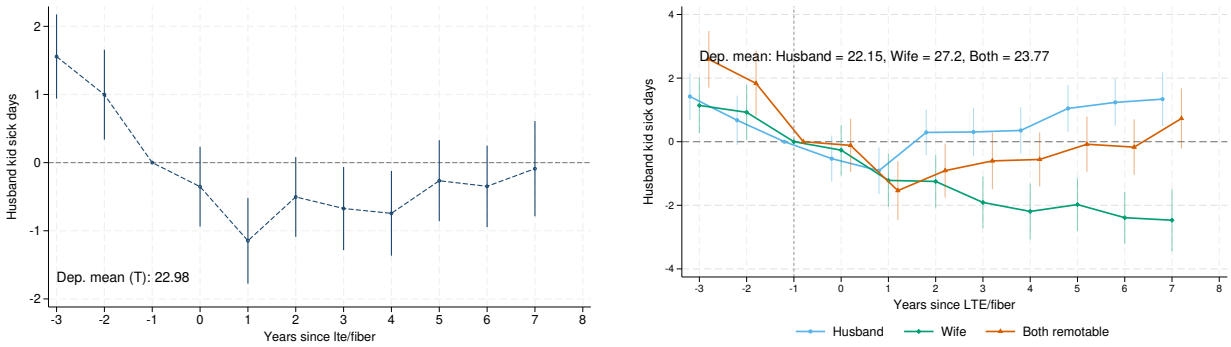
FIGURE 18. HOUSEHOLD-LEVEL: WIFE INCOME



(A) EITHER SPOUSE REMOTABLE **(B) REMOTABLE BY SPOUSE**

Notes: This figure reports DiD event-study estimates at the household level, where the outcome is wife's labor income, measured in hundreds of Swedish kronas. Years are relative to the arrival of fiber or LTE in the household's neighborhood. Panel (A) reports estimates from a pooled treatment indicator equal to one if at least one spouse holds a remotable occupation, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Panel (B) reports estimates separately by which spouse holds a remotable occupation, distinguishing households in which only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold remotable occupations. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. All specifications include treatment indicators, municipality fixed effects interacted with year fixed effects, and flexible controls for wives' and husbands' education (i.e., indicators for more than high school degree interacted with the field of study (6 categories)) interacted with year fixed effects. The reported mean captures the average of the outcome variable in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. Standard errors clustered at the parish level.

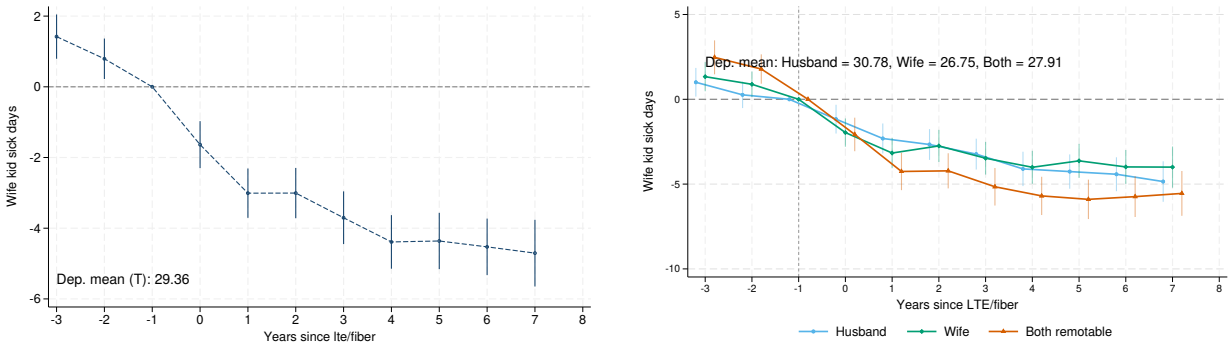
FIGURE 19. HOUSEHOLD-LEVEL: HUSBAND TAKEN CHILDREN'S SICKLEAVE DAYS



(A) EITHER SPOUSE REMOTABLE **(B) REMOTABLE BY SPOUSE**

Notes: This figure reports DiD event-study estimates at the household level, where the outcome is the husband's number of days on temporary leave taken to care for a sick child ("VAB"; a publicly provided benefit in Sweden that entitles parents to stay home with sick children). Years are relative to the arrival of fiber or LTE in the household's neighborhood. Panel (A) reports estimates from a pooled treatment indicator equal to one if at least one spouse holds a remotable occupation, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Panel (B) reports estimates separately by which spouse holds a remotable occupation, distinguishing households in which only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold remotable occupations. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. All specifications include treatment indicators, municipality fixed effects interacted with year fixed effects, and flexible controls for wives' and husbands' education (i.e., indicators for more than high school degree interacted with the field of study (6 categories)) interacted with year fixed effects. The reported mean captures the average of the outcome variable in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. Standard errors clustered at the parish level.

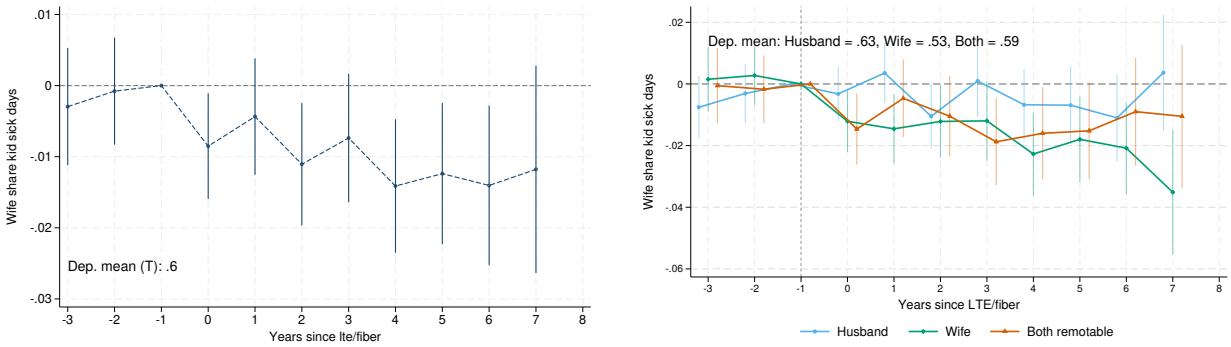
FIGURE 20. HOUSEHOLD-LEVEL: WIFE TAKEN CHILDREN'S SICKLEAVE DAYS



(A) EITHER SPOUSE REMOTABLE **(B) REMOTABLE BY SPOUSE**

Notes: This figure reports DiD event-study estimates at the household level, where the outcome is the wife's number of days on temporary leave taken to care for a sick child ("VAB"; a publicly provided benefit in Sweden that entitles parents to stay home with sick children). Years are relative to the arrival of fiber or LTE in the household's neighborhood. Panel (A) reports estimates from a pooled treatment indicator equal to one if at least one spouse holds a remotable occupation, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Panel (B) reports estimates separately by which spouse holds a remotable occupation, distinguishing households in which only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold remotable occupations. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. All specifications include treatment indicators, municipality fixed effects interacted with year fixed effects, and flexible controls for wives' and husbands' education (i.e., indicators for more than high school degree interacted with the field of study (6 categories)) interacted with year fixed effects. The reported mean captures the average of the outcome variable in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. Standard errors clustered at the parish level.

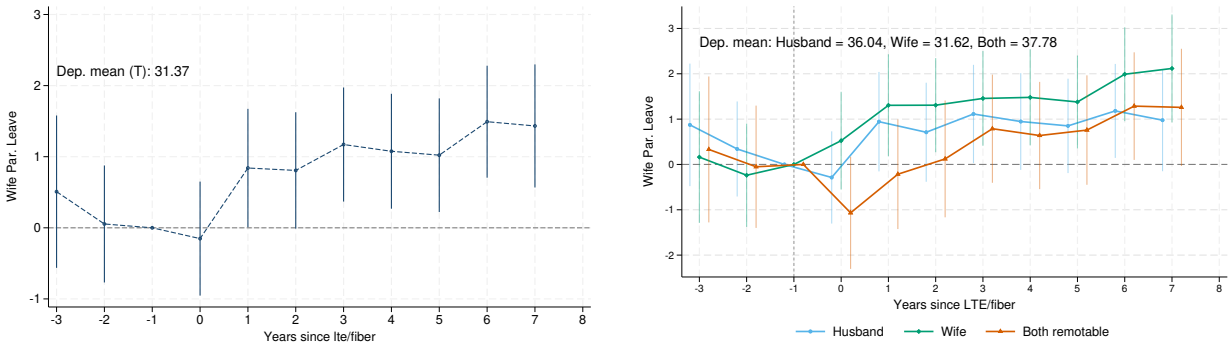
FIGURE 21. HOUSEHOLD-LEVEL: WIFE SHARE TAKEN CHILDREN'S SICKLEAVE DAYS



(A) EITHER SPOUSE REMOTABLE **(B) REMOTABLE BY SPOUSE**

Notes: This figure reports DiD event-study estimates at the household level, where the outcome is the wife's share of the couple's total days spent on temporary leave taken to care for a sick child ("VAB"; a publicly provided benefit in Sweden that entitles parents to stay home with sick children). Years are relative to the arrival of fiber or LTE in the household's neighborhood. Panel (A) reports estimates from a pooled treatment indicator equal to one if at least one spouse holds a remotable occupation, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Panel (B) reports estimates separately by which spouse holds a remotable occupation, distinguishing households in which only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold remotable occupations. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. All specifications include treatment indicators, municipality fixed effects interacted with year fixed effects, and flexible controls for wives' and husbands' education (i.e., indicators for more than high school degree interacted with the field of study (6 categories)) interacted with year fixed effects. The reported mean captures the average of the outcome variable in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. Standard errors clustered at the parish level.

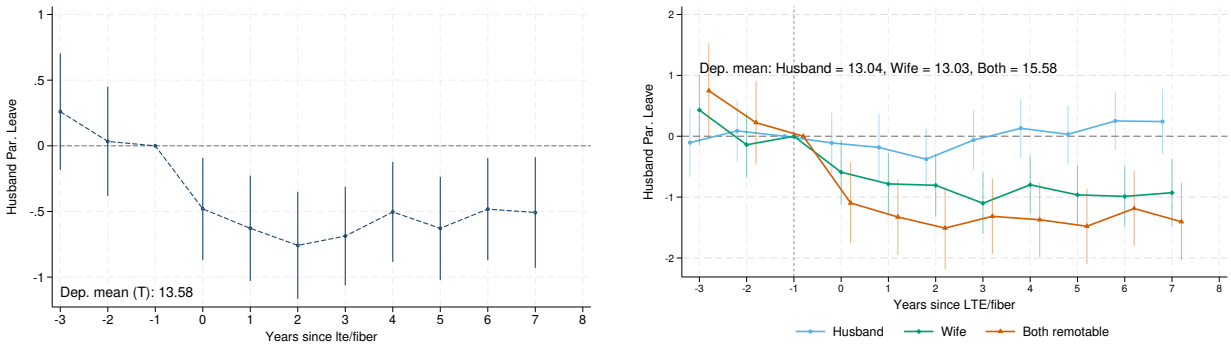
FIGURE 22. HOUSEHOLD-LEVEL: WIFE PARENTAL LEAVE DAYS



(A) EITHER SPOUSE REMOTABLE **(B) REMOTABLE BY SPOUSE**

Notes: This figure reports DiD event-study estimates at the household level, where the outcome is the husband's number of days on parental leave. Years are relative to the arrival of fiber or LTE in the household's neighborhood. Panel (A) reports estimates from a pooled treatment indicator equal to one if at least one spouse holds a remotable occupation, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Panel (B) reports estimates separately by which spouse holds a remotable occupation, distinguishing households in which only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold remotable occupations. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. All specifications include treatment indicators, municipality fixed effects interacted with year fixed effects, and flexible controls for wives' and husbands' education (i.e., indicators for more than high school degree interacted with the field of study (6 categories)) interacted with year fixed effects. The reported mean captures the average of the outcome variable in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. Standard errors clustered at the parish level.

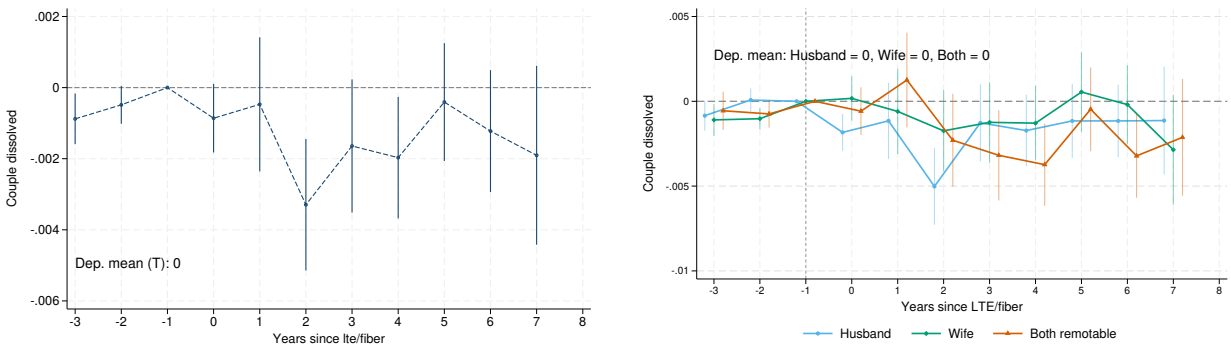
FIGURE 23. HOUSEHOLD-LEVEL: HUSBAND PARENTAL LEAVE DAYS



(A) EITHER SPOUSE REMOTABLE **(B) REMOTABLE BY SPOUSE**

Notes: This figure reports DiD event-study estimates at the household level, where the outcome is the wife's number of days on parental leave. Years are relative to the arrival of fiber or LTE in the household's neighborhood. Panel (A) reports estimates from a pooled treatment indicator equal to one if at least one spouse holds a remotable occupation, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Panel (B) reports estimates separately by which spouse holds a remotable occupation, distinguishing households in which only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold remotable occupations. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. All specifications include treatment indicators, municipality fixed effects interacted with year fixed effects, and flexible controls for wives' and husbands' education (i.e., indicators for more than high school degree interacted with the field of study (6 categories)) interacted with year fixed effects. The reported mean captures the average of the outcome variable in the year prior to the arrival of fast speed internet. Standard errors clustered at the parish level.

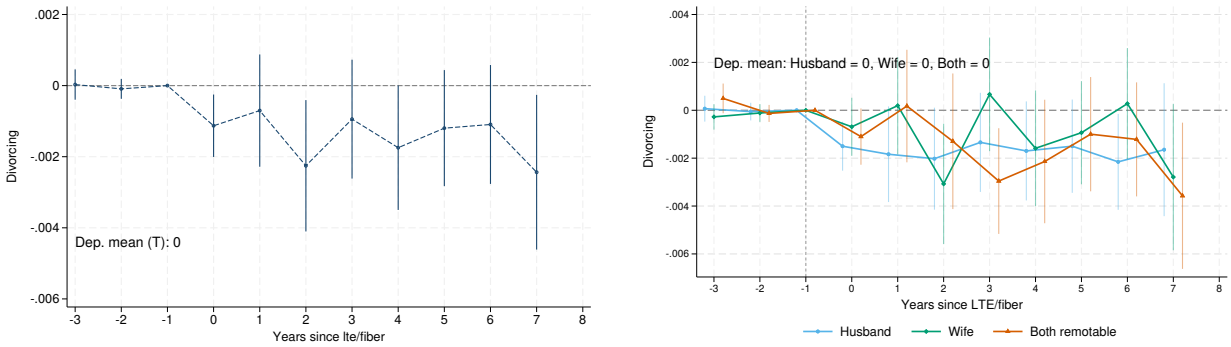
FIGURE 24. HOUSEHOLD-LEVEL: COUPLE DISSOLVING



(A) EITHER SPOUSE REMOTABLE **(B) REMOTABLE BY SPOUSE**

Notes: This figure reports DiD event-study estimates at the household level, where the outcome is an indicator for whether the couple dissolves, defined as spouses no longer residing in the same household. The indicator equals one in the year of separation. Years are defined relative to the arrival of fiber or LTE in the household's neighborhood. Panel (A) reports estimates from a pooled treatment indicator equal to one if at least one spouse holds a remotable occupation, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Panel (B) reports estimates separately by which spouse holds a remotable occupation, distinguishing households in which only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold remotable occupations. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to the arrival of high-speed internet. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. All specifications include treatment indicators, municipality $\times$ year fixed effects, and flexible controls for spouses' education (indicators for more than a high school degree interacted with field of study, six categories) interacted with year fixed effects. The reported mean captures the average of the outcome variable in the year prior to the arrival of high-speed internet. Standard errors are clustered at the parish level.

FIGURE 25. HOUSEHOLD-LEVEL: COUPLE DIVORCING



(A) EITHER SPOUSE REMOTABLE **(B) REMOTABLE BY SPOUSE**

Notes: This figure reports DiD event-study estimates at the household level, where the outcome is an indicator for whether the couple divorces. The indicator equals one in the year of divorce. Years are defined relative to the arrival of fiber or LTE in the household's neighborhood. Panel (A) reports estimates from a pooled treatment indicator equal to one if at least one spouse holds a remotable occupation, with households in which neither spouse holds a remotable occupation serving as the control group. Panel (B) reports estimates separately by which spouse holds a remotable occupation, distinguishing households in which only the husband, only the wife, or both spouses hold remotable occupations. Occupations are classified into a binary indicator of remote work feasibility following (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). The sample is restricted to married, cohabiting households in the year prior to the arrival of high-speed internet. We exclude households in which either spouse is self-employed or resides outside Sweden in any year. As internet data are not available for calendar year 2012, that year is excluded from the analysis sample. All specifications include treatment indicators, municipality $\times$ year fixed effects, and flexible controls for spouses' education (indicators for more than a high school degree interacted with field of study, six categories) interacted with year fixed effects. The reported mean captures the average of the outcome variable in the year prior to the arrival of high-speed internet. Standard errors are clustered at the parish level.