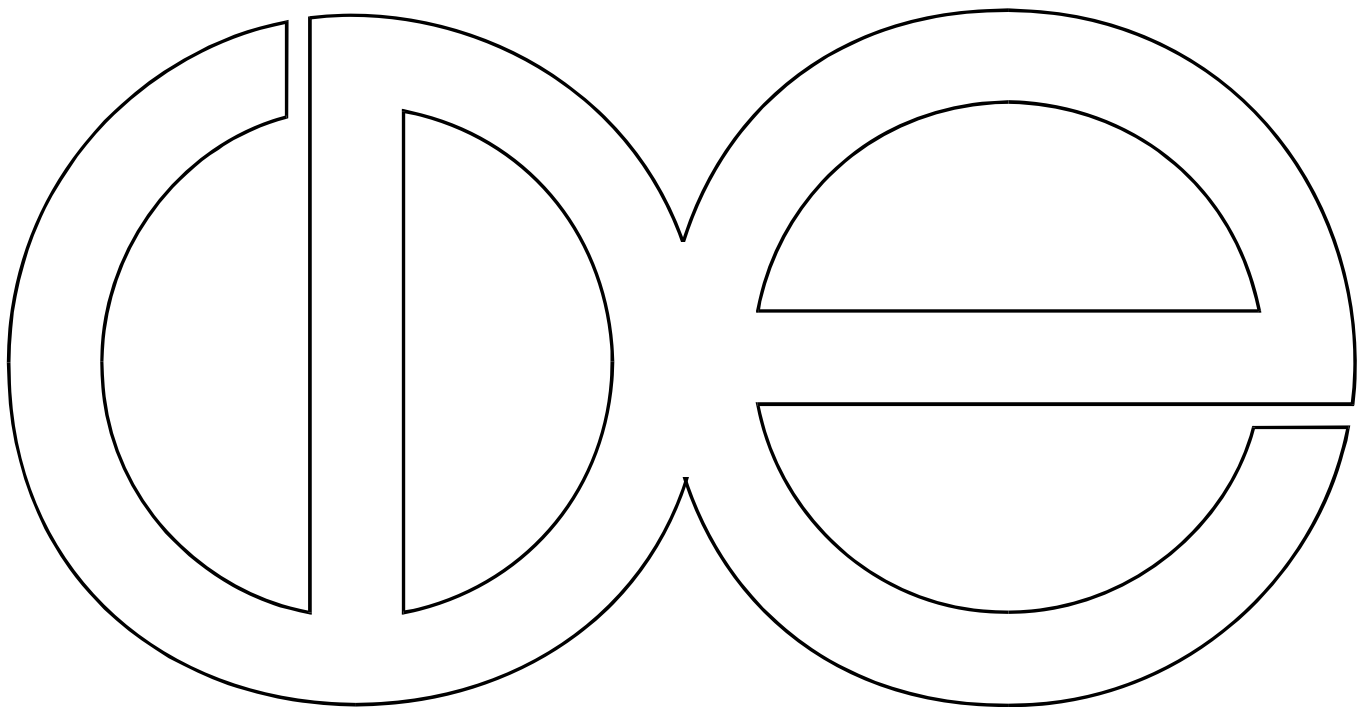


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Differences in Interracial/Ethnic Matching
between Same- and Different-Sex Couples?**

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ABSTRACT

Previous research has found that same-sex couples are more likely to be in interracial/ethnic partnerships than are different-sex couples. Drawing on search theory, we evaluate the plausibility of a common explanation for the higher likelihood of interracial/ethnic partnership among same-sex couples—that those seeking same-sex partners must widen their search because of the smaller pool of available partners. We use data from the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses and the 2005-7 American Community Survey to compare patterns of interracial/ethnic partnership among same-sex male cohabiting couples, same-sex female cohabiting couples, different-sex cohabiting couples, and different-sex married couples. We present multiple pieces of evidence that raise doubts about the availability hypothesis. Most of our measures indicate that in times and places where the availability of same-sex partners is greater, same-sex couples are more likely to be interracial/ethnic, a result opposite of what the availability hypothesis would predict. Our findings suggest the plausibility of other explanations for differences in interracial/ethnic matching between same- and different-sex couples, such as differences in preferences for partners, differences in the venues in which those seeking same- and different-sex partners meet, and differences in pressure from friends and family to form endogamous unions.

Can Differences in Partner Availability Explain Differences in Interracial/Ethnic Matching Between Same- and Different-Sex Couples?

The number of same-sex couples in the United States has increased substantially since 1990, while remaining a small proportion of couples overall. Although difficult to quantify precisely, by one estimate, the number of same-sex unmarried coresidential couples increased from 173,068 to 359,805 between 1990 and 2000, or from 0.29% to 0.59% of all couples (Rosenfeld and Kim 2005). This represents a 108% increase in the number of same-sex couples over 10 years. The number of same-sex coresidential couples in the U.S. has continued to grow since 2000, increasing by more than 30% from 2000 to 2005 while the national population grew by only 6% (Gates 2006a). These increases may be due to increasing numbers of “out” gay, lesbian, and bisexual adults, to an increasing likelihood that same-sex couples cohabit, as well as to an increasing likelihood that same-sex couples are willing to identify themselves as such on government surveys (Gates 2007).

In response to these trends, researchers have begun to compare same- and different-sex couples to better understand the characteristics of same-sex unions. Among other characteristics, researchers have compared same- and different-sex couples’ division of labor between home and market work (Blumstein and Schwartz 1983; Kurdek 2006), childrearing (Stacey and Biblarz 2001), relationship quality and duration (Andersson et al. 2006; Kurdek 2004a), and demographic characteristics (Baumle, Compton, and Poston 2009; Black et al. 2000; Carpenter and Gates 2008). Another way to understand differences between same- and different-sex couples is to examine differences in partner choice (Schoen and Weinick 1993). Whom one chooses to form a relationship with is an outcome of individual preferences as well as the

constraints of the market for partners and the influence of “third parties” such as parents, religious institutions, and the state (Kalmijn 1998).

Previous studies have consistently found that same-sex couples tend to resemble one another less than different-sex couples on a range of dimensions including age, education, and race/ethnicity (Andersson et al. 2006; Jepsen and Jepsen 2002; Rosenfeld and Kim 2005; Schwartz and Graf 2009). Many scholars have hypothesized that shortages of eligible mates cause single persons to redefine what constitutes an acceptable match (Harknett 2008; Lewis and Oppenheimer 2000; Lichter, Anderson, and Hayward 1995) and this has often been used to explain differences in partner selection between those seeking same- and different-sex partners (Harry 1984:7-9, 143; Hayes 1995:131; Kurdek 2003:428; Kurdek and Schmitt 1987:213). This hypothesis assumes that, regardless of sexual orientation, people prefer mates that are similar to themselves, but that the smaller market for same-sex partners necessitate that they “cast a wider net” for partners. Yet there are clearly a number of other reasons why assortative matching patterns may vary between same- and different-sex couples. Sexual minorities tend to be more liberal, egalitarian, and tolerant of non-traditional unions than heterosexuals (Blumstein and Schwartz 1983; Hertzog 1996; Meier, Hull, and Ortyl 2009; Schaffner and Senic 2006), and these values may lead to greater acceptance of interracial relationships. Other potential explanations include the greater concentration of same-sex couples in urban, diverse places (Gates and Ost 2004:35-6), location choices which may lead to greater opportunities to match across social boundaries, and lower parental control over mate selection (Rosenfeld 2007; Rosenfeld and Kim 2005).

Despite the regularity of the descriptive findings, no study to our knowledge has systematically investigated the plausibility of various explanations for these differences in couple

resemblance. We use data from the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses and the 2005 to 2007 American Community Survey (ACS) to compare assortative matching among four types of co-residential couples: same-sex male cohabiting couples, same-sex female cohabiting couples, different-sex cohabiting couples, and different-sex married couples. We focus on patterns of race/ethnic assortative matching and draw on search theory to assess the plausibility of the *availability hypothesis*, which argues that same-sex couples are more likely to be interracial than different-sex couples because of their constrained partner markets. Interracial/ethnic marriage has long been used as a barometer of the “social distance” between race/ethnic groups and previous research has shown that differences in interracial matching between same- and different-sex couples are large (Schwartz and Graf 2009), making race/ethnic matching a good candidate for testing the availability hypothesis. We use variation in the numbers of same-sex couples across years and metropolitan areas to present multiple pieces of evidence that call the availability hypothesis into question.

Our study contributes to the literature by (1) assessing the plausibility of a common explanation for differences in mate selection between same- and different-sex couples, (2) extending search theory to same-sex couples, and (3) adding to a still quite small body of research on the relationship between partner markets and couple resemblance. Empirical work on marriage markets has been heavily influenced by search theory and has consistently shown that shortages of eligible mates are negatively associated with *whether* heterosexual women marry (Fossett and Kiecolt 1993; Harknett 2008; Harknett and McLanahan 2004; Lichter et al. 1992). However, there is surprisingly little research on the association between local partner market conditions and *whom* one marries or partners with (Lewis and Oppenheimer 2000; Lichter, Anderson, and Hayward 1995). Furthermore, no empirical research to our knowledge has applied

search theory to same-sex couples. Assortative matching studies largely do not examine the relationship between availability and partner choice, instead focusing on variation in spousal resemblance over time and place (e.g., Kalmijn 1991; Schwartz and Mare 2005; Smits, Ultee, and Lammers 1998; Raymo and Xie 2000). This paper investigates whether differences in the availability of partners can explain differences in assortative matching between same- and different-sex couples and builds on earlier descriptive work. Our results suggest that a simplistic application of search theory to patterns of interracial/ethnic assortative matching for same- and different-sex couples is inadequate to explain observed patterns. We draw on our results to comment on other potential explanations for differences and suggest alternatives and modifications to the availability hypothesis.

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

Search Theory

According to the availability hypothesis, sexual minorities must widen their search for partners because of the relatively small number of potential mates from which to choose. This hypothesis is consistent with a search theoretic framework in which partner search is often compared with job search (England and Farkas 1986; Mortensen 1988; Oppenheimer 1988). As the costs of searching for a better job increase relative to the potential returns, individuals will lower their “reservation wage” and accept a lower paying job. Likewise, when the costs of searching for a partner increase relative to the gains of continued searching, individuals may lower their standards for what constitutes an acceptable match. When there are shortages of potential mates, desirable partners may be more difficult to find, and thus the costs of searching in these markets will be high relative to markets with greater numbers of potential partners. If availability

differences are the only explanation for differences in assortative matching between same- and different-sex couples, then as the numbers of gay men, lesbians, and bisexual adults increase we would expect differences in assortative matching to decline.

The availability hypothesis is consistent with Becker's (1973, 1974, 1981) theories of assortative matching. Becker predicts that in the absence of search costs there will be perfect positive assortative matching on complementary traits, such as intelligence, beauty, education, and race/ethnicity (1981:112-9), and perfect negative assortative matching on substitutable traits, such as wages and hours worked. Becker states that same-sex couples are less able to capitalize from sex differences in comparative advantage (1981:38-9) and therefore may be less likely to negatively sort on substitutable traits, but does not hypothesize that the gains to matching on complementary traits should differ for same- and different-sex couples. Instead, he argues that search costs should be higher for those seeking same-sex partners because of the difficulties associated with identifying potential mates (1981:330), and therefore same-sex couples should be more likely to be interracial. For Becker then, it can be inferred that race/ethnicity is a complementary trait for both straight and gay couples and differences in search costs may help explain same-sex couples' higher likelihood of being interracial.

Family Change and Variation

Values and Preferences. Rather than variation in availability, scholars focusing on historical change in family life often emphasize the importance of ideational change in explaining variation in mate selection. Family change over the past half century has been marked by an increasing diversity of family forms (Cherlin 2004) and many scholars view this diversification within a framework that emphasizes increasing individualism, egalitarianism, and the decline of parental

control over partner selection (Cherlin 2004; Goode [1963] 1970; Jayakody, Thornton, and Axinn 2008; Kalmijn 1991; Lesthaeghe 1995; Rosenfeld 2007).

While many have commented on historical trends toward increased family and relationship diversity, others have suggested that these changes occur at different rates for different segments of the population (Lesthaeghe and Moors 2000; Surkyn and Lesthaeghe 2004). Gay men and lesbians in particular tend to be more liberal, egalitarian, and accepting of non-traditional relationships than heterosexuals (Blumstein and Schwartz 1983; Meier et al. 2009) as are different-sex cohabitators (Laumann et al. 1994:522; Surkyn and Lesthaeghe 2004). Thus, same-sex couples' higher rate of interracial/ethnic partnering may be just one reflection of their more egalitarian and non-conformist values rather than merely a function of their smaller numbers in the population. A related argument is that cohabitators and, in particular, same-sex couples are more likely to be relationship innovators because they are less hindered by traditional relationship norms, scripts, and institutions (Cherlin 2004; Giddens 1992; Meier et al. 2009).

Empirical studies contrasting sexual minorities' and heterosexuals' attitudes about interracial relationships are consistent with these perspectives. For example, sexual minority youth are less likely than straight youth to think that the race of their partner is important for the success of their relationships (Meier et al. 2009). Furthermore, a study of personal ads contrasting gay and straight men showed that, among those who expressed a race/ethnic preference for partners, men seeking men were much more likely to express a preference for members of a different race/ethnicity than men seeking women (Phua and Kaufman 2003). Thus, not only do sexual minorities tend to be more tolerant of non-traditional relationships in general, empirical evidence suggests that they are more tolerant of interracial relationships in particular.¹

Third Parties. Theories of family change and variation also highlight the importance of declining “third party” control (e.g., the influence of parents, friends, religious institutions, and the state) in explaining variation in partner choice (Goode [1963] 1970; Kalmijn 1991; Rosenfeld 2007). Parents, for example, are seen as a conservative force, preserving social distinctions between groups.

There are a number of reasons to expect that those seeking same-sex partners are less subject to third party pressures toward race/ethnic endogamy than those seeking different-sex partners. Same-sex couples are more likely to be geographically mobile than other types of couples, which may decrease parents’ influence over partner selection (Rosenfeld and Kim 2005). In addition, relationships that are perceived by parents as more serious, or in which childrearing is likely to occur, may be those in which parents exert the most pressure for race/ethnic endogamy. Ethnographic accounts suggest that parents and friends may not fully recognize the seriousness of same-sex relationships until a marriage or public commitment ceremony occurs (Hull 2006:47-50). Other studies show that race/ethnic endogamy increases with the level of commitment to the relationship, with those who are dating being the least likely to be endogamous and married parents the most likely (Joyner and Kao 2005; Mare and Schwartz 2006). Because marriage is not an option for many same-sex couples and childbearing is considerably more difficult especially for gay men, same-sex couples may not feel the same societal pressures toward race/ethnic endogamy as do straight couples. Gay men and lesbians who have been rejected by their parents or who have weak ties to their families because of their sexuality (Savin-Williams and Dube 1998) may also be less likely to receive pressure from their families about the race/ethnicity of their same-sex partners than those seeking different-sex partners or those whose parents are accepting of their sexuality (Harry 1984:8).

Of course, the availability hypothesis and hypotheses emphasizing individual preferences and pressures from third parties need not be mutually exclusive. For example, people may alter their preferences for mates in response to partner market conditions and/or in response to anticipated resistance from parents and friends. In this paper, we evaluate a relatively strict interpretation of the availability hypothesis—that differences in availability can explain differences in assortative matching between same- and different-sex couples—which implicitly assumes that those seeking same- and different-sex partners have similar race/ethnic preferences for partners but are differentially constrained by their partner markets. Although there are many other explanations for differences in assortative matching between same- and different-sex couples, we focus on this common hypothesis as a starting point for more comprehensive future investigations.

Hypotheses

We use variation over time (1990, 2000, and 2005-7) and variation across place (large metropolitan areas) to examine the plausibility of the availability hypothesis. If the availability hypothesis is correct, then as the number of potential same-sex partners increases relative to the total population, differences in the likelihood of interracial partnership among same- and different-sex couples should decline due to increased race/ethnic endogamy among same-sex couples. This implies that:

Hypothesis 1 (Variation over Time) – If the number of available same-sex partners has increased between 1990 and 2005-7 relative to the population, then we expect differences in

interracial/ethnic relationships by couple type to have declined due to increased race/ethnic endogamy among same-sex couples.

Hypothesis 2 (Variation over Place) – According to the availability hypothesis, metropolitan areas where same-sex partners are more numerous will have lower rates of interracial/ethnic partnership than those in which they are more scarce.

We operationalize the availability of same-sex partners in two ways: (1) as the number of same-sex partners relative to the total number of adults in a partner market, and (2) as the absolute number of same-sex partners in a partner market. We define the market for partners as occurring at the national level and within metropolitan areas. We discuss our rationale for these measures and their estimation further below.

DATA, MEASURES, AND METHODS

Identifying Same-Sex Couples

We use 1% and 5% samples of the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses and pooled data from the 2005 to 2007 ACS from the Integrated Public Use Microdata Series (IPUMS) to examine interracial/ethnic partnerships among same- and different-sex couples (Ruggles et al. 2008). We use data from the census as it has by far the largest nationally representative sample of same-sex couples among the data sets commonly used to investigate gay couples. Other surveys that contain information on sexual orientation or in which same-sex couples can be identified are either not nationally representative, have very small sample sizes, and/or do not contain fine enough geographic information to identify local partner markets.

Beginning in 1990, the census included a category on the household roster for “unmarried partner.” We use this item in conjunction with marital status and sex to identify same-sex male couples, same-sex female couples, different-sex cohabiting couples, and different-sex married couples. We focus on same-sex couples who report being “unmarried partners” following the recommendation of Black et al. (2007a), but in supplemental analyses include same-sex couples who reported being married. We do this because of changes in the Census Bureau’s procedure for handling same-sex couples who reported being married (see Black et al. 2007a; Gates and Sell 2007; Rosenfeld and Kim 2005; Schwartz and Graf 2009 for descriptions of these changes).

This sample selection strategy may be problematic for our over-time comparisons if the proportion of same-sex coresidential couples who self-identify as married has grown and if these couples are systematically more or less likely to be homogamous than couples who self-identify as “unmarried partners.” To address this concern, we also compare variation in the odds of interracial/ethnic partnership between 2000 and 2005-7 (the years across which the handling of same-sex couples was most consistent) using data on all same-sex couples, regardless of their marital status (results available in Appendix A). In addition to containing data on “true” same-sex couples who self-identified as married, this second sample likely contains a substantial fraction of heterosexual married couples in which the wrong sex box was marked (Black et al. 2007a). Nevertheless, this sample serves as a valuable sensitivity check for our analyses to the concern that focusing on only unmarried same-sex couples may bias our results. Our sensitivity tests indicate that the substantive conclusions reached with the samples presented here hold in the larger sample of couples.

Samples

In defining our samples, we keep only households in which there is a spouse or partner present and exclude those who live in group quarters and vacant housing units, as well as those for whom age, sex, or relationship to the householder was imputed (following Black et al. 2000:144-46) ($N = 7,677,815$). In addition, we drop households in which the household head reported having more than one spouse or partner and households in which the householder was excluded because of sample restrictions ($N = 7,281,699$). To maximize the number of same-sex couples in our sample, which is a concern despite our very large total sample size, we examine matching patterns for a broad cross-section of couples, focusing on couples in which both partners are between the ages of 20 and 49 ($N = 4,736,301$). Restricting the sample to only unmarried same-sex couples across the data sources (dropping couples for which either partner's marital status was imputed by the Census Bureau regardless of couple type) reduces the sample to 4,697,402 couples, of which 91% are different-sex married couples, 8.6% are different-sex cohabitators, 0.26% are same-sex cohabiting female couples, and 0.27% are same-sex cohabiting male couples.

Because our data do not contain information on when couples began cohabitating or entered their marriages, differences in the duration of unions by couple type and selective union dissolution may affect our results. Moreover, our measures of availability pertain to conditions at the time of the interview and many of the relationships in our sample may have been formed years before. To reduce the effects of selective relationship dissolution and better align our measures of market conditions with the timing of couples' relationship formation, we performed our analyses using a sample of younger couples (those aged 20 to 34) and a sample of recently

formed unions identified from residential mobility information following Gates (2006b). The conclusions from these analyses are quite similar to those presented here (see Appendix A).

We use the full sample of same- and different-sex couples to test whether differences in the odds of interracial/ethnic partnership have declined over time, but focus on couples residing in metropolitan areas with populations of 500,000 or more in 1990 to examine variation over place ($N=2,415,576$). We select large metropolitan areas to reduce measurement error in our availability estimates (Iceland and Nelson 2008; Walther and Poston 2004). Sensitivity analyses also showed that our results are robust to the inclusion of smaller metropolitan areas.

Partner Markets

The characteristics of gay and straight partner markets may differ in many ways not captured here. For example, previous research has shown that the places where couples meet differ depending on the type of relationship sought (Laumann et al. 2004). Data from the late 1980s and early 1990s showed that same-sex male partners most often met in bars and clubs whereas same-sex female partners most often met through friends or at work and heterosexual couples tended to meet through friends, school, and religious institutions (Bryant and Demian 1994; Laumann et al. 2004:Table 3.2). More recent data show that the internet has become a very common way for gay men and lesbians to meet, although lesbians still tend to meet in more institutionalized settings (through friends or at work) than do gay men, who most often report meeting on the internet or at bars or clubs (Rosenfeld 2010). There is also good reason to believe that the demographic characteristics of straight and gay partner markets differ considerably. Gay men and lesbians tend to be more highly educated than heterosexuals and gay couples have

fewer children, higher earnings, and are more likely to be white (Black et al. 2000; Black, Sanders, and Taylor 2007b).

The characteristics of gay and straight partner markets may help explain differences in matching patterns, but we do not investigate their effects here for substantive reasons and because of data constraints. Our substantive goal is to assess the plausibility of the availability hypothesis, which refers to the total numbers of same-sex partners from which to choose. As such, we define availability in terms of the numbers of same-sex partners in a given time or place, rather than the availability of partners of a given type (e.g., by race or education) or in a specific venue (e.g., in bars or on the internet). Furthermore, the census and ACS do not allow us to ascertain the places in which couples met their partners, and because we only have data on the characteristics of same-sex *couples*, the race/ethnic and education characteristics that we observe may not match the characteristics of the market well.

Thus, we operationalize the market for partners in two ways: as a national market and as markets within large metropolitan areas. Our analysis of variation over time assumes that search occurs nationally while our analysis of variation over place assumes that search occurs within metropolitan areas. Defining partner markets as occurring within metropolitan areas is arguably more realistic, but introduces the problem that those who are more likely to be in interracial relationships may be more likely to move to areas with large gay populations, a problem that is avoided by treating partner markets as national. We discuss this selection issue in further detail below along with sensitivity checks of our results.

Measuring the Availability of Same-Sex Partners

Who is Available? Ideally, we would measure the availability of same-sex partners as the numbers of men and women who are “at risk” of forming new same-sex cohabiting relationships. Defining who is at risk of forming a same-sex partnership is difficult. Single “out” lesbian, gay, and bisexual (LGB) adults may be the most likely to be at risk of forming new same-sex cohabiting relationships, but those in unhappy or weakly committed relationships may also be at risk. Furthermore, even those who do not self-identify as gay or bisexual may be at risk of forming a same-sex relationship, but most likely at lower probabilities.

The difficulties associated with defining who is “on the market” are by no means limited to same-sex relationships. Researchers interested in heterosexual marriage markets have long struggled with this issue. Some scholars measure the availability of those who are unmarried but may be cohabiting or dating (e.g., Lewis and Oppenheimer 2000; Lichter et al. 1992) whereas others use measures of availability that include everyone, regardless of marital or relationship status (e.g., Harknett and McLanahan 2004; Fossett and Kiecolt 1993). This issue is simplified by the finding that the number of singles and the total population in an area are highly correlated and therefore which measure is used makes little difference for analysts’ results (Fossett and Kiecolt 1991).

Inferring Availability from Data on Couples. The high correlation between measures of availability for singles and for the overall population is useful in the present analysis because of a limitation of our data. Data from the census and ACS only provide information on same-sex cohabiting *couples*; there is no information on sexual orientation in the census or ACS with which to identify single LGB adults, or others who may be at risk for forming these unions.

Therefore, we must assume that times and places in which there are more same-sex couples are those in which there are more people at risk of forming new same-sex cohabiting relationships.

Evidence from the 1988-2008 General Social Survey (GSS), from which measures of sexual orientation may be constructed, suggests that this is a reasonable assumption. Defining the LGB population as those who (a) have had more than one same-sex partner or at least as many same-sex partners as different-sex partners since age 18 or (b) lives with a same-sex partner and has had same-sex sex in the last year, we find a positive correlation across time and place between the number of LGB adults currently living with a same-sex partner, the total number of LGB adults, and the number of LGB adults who are *not* living with a same-sex partner at the time of the survey (see Appendix Table 1, Panel A). Although our measures are not ideal, this evidence suggests that times and places where there are more same-sex couples are indeed those in which the LGB populations are larger overall and are those in which there are more single LGB adults.²

Variation in Availability over Time. According to the availability hypothesis, if the LGB population has increased relative to the number of heterosexuals over time, then we would expect differences in interracial/ethnic relationships to have declined due to greater endogamy among same-sex couples. Table 1 shows that the numbers of same-sex “unmarried partner” (cohabiting) male and female couples aged 20 to 49 clearly increased between 1990 and 2005-7. Both the number and percentage of same-sex couples more than doubled over this period. Same-sex cohabiting male and female couples made up about 0.20% and 0.15% of all couples in 1990 and 0.40% and 0.39% of all couples in 2005-7, respectively. The steady increase in the numbers of same-sex couples shown in Table 1 is consistent with prior research (e.g., Gates 2007; Rosenfeld and Kim 2005).

The increasing numbers of same-sex couples may be the result of an increased willingness of same-sex couples to identify themselves as such on surveys, an increasing likelihood that LGB adults cohabit, and/or increases in the numbers of “out” LGB adults (Gates 2007). For the present analysis, what matters is the number of persons at risk of forming a same-sex cohabiting union, that is, those who are “on the market.” While the number of individuals who have homosexual desires may not have increased over the past several decades, it is likely that the numbers on the market to form same-sex cohabiting relationships has. Evidence from other data sources suggests that, not only has the number of same-sex couples grown, but so too has the percentage of individuals in the U.S. who self-identify as gay (Mosher, Chandra, and Jones 2005). As more gay men and lesbians come out to their friends and families, it is probable that they will be more likely to identify themselves as such on surveys as well.

Variation in Availability over Place. We use two measures of availability in our analyses of variation in assortative matching by metropolitan area. First, we consider variation in the *relative availability* of same-sex partners in metropolitan areas, which we operationalize as the percentage of adults aged 18 to 65 who are in same-sex male (female) cohabiting relationships. Although we examine matching patterns among couples aged 20 to 49, we measure the availability of adults aged 18 to 65 because individuals in the relationships we observe may have chosen from a wider age range of partners.

Again, we use variation in the relative numbers of adults aged 18 to 65 in same-sex cohabiting relationships as a proxy for variation in the relative numbers of individuals *at risk* of forming these unions. Again, data from the GSS suggest that this is a reasonable proxy. Places where the percentage of adults who are in same-sex cohabiting unions is higher also tend to be

those where the percentage of adults who are gay/bisexual and who are single and gay/bisexual (not cohabiting) are higher (Appendix Table 1, Panel B).

Our measure of relative availability assumes that the costs associated with search in same-sex partner markets are reduced as the likelihood that a random encounter with a potential mate increases. According to search theory, because the costs of search are lower, places in which the likelihood of “bumping into” a potential same-sex partner are higher should have lower odds of interracial/ethnic partnerships. To get a sense of the variation in relative availability, Panel A of Table 2 shows the five metropolitan areas with the largest and smallest percentages of adults aged 18 to 65 in same-sex male and female cohabiting unions in 2000. The San Francisco metropolitan area has the highest percentages for both sexes. Our relative availability measure is weakly positively associated with population size for same-sex male couples ($r = 0.31$), but there is virtually no association for same-sex female couples ($r = 0.002$).

The vast majority of studies that have examined the effects of partner market characteristics on partner choice among heterosexuals have used relative availability-type measures, such as the sex ratio, to estimate partner availability (e.g., Harknett and McLanahan 2004; Lewis and Oppenheimer 2000; Lichter et al. 1992). However, the costs of partner search may not be adequately characterized by relative availability measures, that is, people may not search for a mate by merely hoping to “bump into” an appropriate match. Indeed, cities offer numerous activities, organizations, and clubs geared toward gay men and lesbians (Baumle et al. 2009:88-90; Gorman 1992; Levine 1992; Laumann et al. 2004:14). Moreover, internet dating is an increasingly popular way to meet potential mates (Rosenfeld 2010). If gay men and lesbians can easily find one another, then what may matter more for partner choice are the absolute *numbers* of LGB adults in an area rather than their relative numbers. Thus, we also examine how

the likelihood of interracial/ethnic partnership varies by the numbers of adults aged 18 to 65 in same-sex male and female cohabiting unions. Panel B of Table 2 shows the metropolitan areas with the five largest and smallest populations of adults in same-sex cohabiting unions in 2000. Not surprisingly, places with large populations also tend to have large populations of same-sex couples. This measure is highly correlated with population size for both same-sex male and female couples ($r > 0.90$).

A Note on Sex Differences in the Availability of Same-Sex Partners. Because of data constraints, we are unable to test the extent to which differences in availability can explain why same-sex male couples are more likely to be interracial/ethnic than same-sex female couples. This is because we do not have sufficiently reliable estimates of differences in the availability of same-sex male and female partners. Table 1 showed that there were fewer same-sex male than female cohabiting couples in the United States in 2000 and roughly equal numbers in 2005-7. To estimate the numbers of gay men and lesbians in the population (rather than cohabiting couples), researchers often multiply the numbers of same-sex male and female couples by the inverse of their partnership rates (e.g., Baumle et al. 2009:27; Black et al. 2000; Gates and Ost 2004). Lesbians tend to have higher partnership rates than gay men (Black et al. 2000; Carpenter and Gates 2008) and thus, performing this calculation results in substantially larger population estimates for gay men than lesbians. To our knowledge, however, it is not possible to calculate changes in partnership rates between 1990 and 2007 or variation in partnership rates across metropolitan areas in a reliable and consistent way.³ Because so much of the difference in availability by sex would be due to this single set of time- and place-invariant partnership rates, we believe that it is unwise to use this variation to test whether differences in availability can explain sex differences in matching among same-sex couples. Thus, our focus is on variation

across time and place in differences between same- and different-sex couples, for which our comparisons with the GSS data allow us to be more confident.

Methods and Demographic Measures

We use logistic regression models to examine the likelihood of interracial/ethnic relationships by couple type.⁴ We define interracial/ethnic relationships as those that cross any of the following four groups: non-Hispanic whites, non-Hispanic African Americans, Hispanics, and those of “other” race/ethnicities. Hispanics are those who identify their origin as Hispanic, Spanish, or Latino. Beginning with the 2000 census, the Census Bureau allowed respondents to select one or more race categories. Previously, respondents could choose only one race. In an analysis of the effects of these changes in racial classification on race/ethnic intermarriage, Qian and Lichter (2007:79) find that changes in intermarriage are more comparable between 1990 and 2000 if biracial whites are classified as white. Accordingly, we classify biracial whites as white in 2000 and 2005-7.

Table 3 shows the race/ethnic distribution of individuals aged 20 to 49 by couple type pooled across the sample years.⁵ It shows that men and women in same-sex cohabiting unions are more likely to be white than those in different-sex unions. Table 3 also shows that same-sex male cohabitators are the most likely to be in interracial/ethnic relationships, followed by same-sex female cohabitators and different-sex cohabitators, who have very similar rates of interracial/ethnic partnership, and lastly by different-sex married couples. These findings are similar by race/ethnicity. Same-sex male cohabitators of all race/ethnicities are the most likely to be in interracial/ethnic cohabiting relationships and different-sex married couples are the least likely. White same-sex female cohabitators are slightly less likely to be in interracial/ethnic unions than

different-sex cohabitators, but same-sex female cohabitators of other races/ethnicities are more likely to be in interracial/ethnic unions than different-sex cohabitators.

Some of the observed differences in interracial/ethnic matching may be due to differences in couples' demographic characteristics. As shown in Table 3, men and women in same-sex cohabiting relationships are much more likely to have completed college than either different-sex cohabitators or married couples. Because those with more education are more likely to form interracial unions (Qian 1997; Rosenfeld 2007), same-sex couples' higher incidence of interracial/ethnic relationships may be partially explained by their higher educational attainment. In addition, men and women in same-sex unions tend to be older than different-sex cohabitators but are similar in age to different-sex married couples (Table 3). The likelihood of forming interracial unions tends to decline with age (Joyner and Kao 2005) and therefore differences in the likelihood of interracial unions between same-sex couples and different-sex cohabiting couples may be offset by these age differences. To account for these differences by couple type, our models control for differences in the demographic characteristics of couples.

A logistic regression model that estimates change over time in the log odds of interracial/ethnic unions by couple type and controls for the demographic characteristics of couples can be formalized as:

$$\log\left(\frac{p_i}{1-p_i}\right) = \beta + \sum_j \beta_j^C \text{Couple type}_j + \sum_t \beta_t^T \text{Period}_t + \sum_{jt} \beta_{jt}^{CT} \text{Couple type}_j * \text{Period}_t + \sum_l \beta_l^{E1} \text{Education}(\text{partner1})_l + \sum_m \beta_m^{E2} \text{Education}(\text{partner2})_m + \sum_n \beta_n^{A1} \text{Age}(\text{partner1})_n + \sum_p \beta_p^{A2} \text{Age}(\text{partner2})_p + \sum_k \beta_k^{R1} \text{Race/ethnicity}(\text{partner1})_k \quad (1)$$

where the β s are the parameters to be estimated, p_i is the probability that couple i is in an interracial/ethnic union, j is couple type (j = different-sex married, different-sex cohabiting, same-sex female, same-sex male) and t is period (t = 1990, 2000, 2005-7). β_{jt}^{CT} is the difference

in the log odds of being in an interracial/ethnic union for couple type j relative to the omitted couple type in period t relative to the omitted period. The race/ethnicities and educational attainments of both partners are coded as dichotomous variables as shown in Table 3. Age is also coded as a series of dichotomous variables ($n, p = 20-24, 25-29, 30-34, 35-39, 40-44, 45-49$). Finally, because we are interested in the probability that a couple is in an interracial/ethnic union but the likelihood of being in an interracial/ethnic union varies by race/ethnicity and race/ethnicity varies by couple type, we control the race/ethnicity of one of the partners in our model. Partner 1 is the household head in same-sex relationships and the male partner in different-sex relationships. Sensitivity tests showed that the results are very similar when partner 2's race/ethnicity is controlled instead and when both partners' race/ethnicities are controlled.

A logistic regression model that estimates how the odds of interracial/ethnic partnership vary by the availability of same-sex partners can be formalized as:

$$\log\left(\frac{p_i}{1-p_i}\right) = \beta + \sum_j \beta_j^C \text{Couple type}_j + \sum_t \beta_t^T \text{Period}_t + \sum_i \beta_i^{E1} \text{Education}(\text{partner1})_i + \sum_m \beta_m^{E2} \text{Education}(\text{partner2})_m + \sum_n \beta_n^{A1} \text{Age}(\text{partner1})_n + \sum_p \beta_p^{A2} \text{Age}(\text{partner2})_p + \sum_k \beta_k^{R1} \text{Race/ethnicity}(\text{partner1})_k + \beta^A \text{Availability}_a + \sum_j \beta_j^{CA} \text{Couple type}_j * \text{Availability}_a \quad (2)$$

where we measure availability in metropolitan areas using four different measures (a = relative numbers of same-sex male couples, relative numbers of same-sex female couples, numbers of same-sex male couples, and numbers of same-sex female couples), and all else is as defined above. This model allows the relationship between availability and the log odds of an interracial/ethnic partnership to vary by couple type. Separate models are estimated for each of the four measures of availability.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Variation over Time

Table 4 shows the odds ratios of interracial/ethnic partnership by couple type and year estimated using equation (1). Figure 1 uses the results from this model to illustrate changes in the predicted probabilities of being in an interracial/ethnic union.⁶ Figure 1 shows that increases in interracial/ethnic marriage noted in previous studies (e.g., Rosenfeld 2006) also occurred for same-sex couples and different-sex cohabitators. In addition, Figure 1 shows a relatively consistent pattern of differences in the odds of interracial/ethnic partnership across couple types. Same-sex male couples are the most likely to be interracial, followed by same-sex female couples, different-sex cohabitators, and lastly by different-sex married couples. Table 4 shows that the majority of these contrasts are large and statistically significant. For example, the odds that same-sex male couples were interracial/ethnic in 1990 were 3.8 times the odds for married couples ($p < .001$, column [1]). Likewise, the odds that same-sex female couples were interracial/ethnic were about twice as high as the odds for married couples ($p < .001$). Same-sex female couples were not significantly different from different-sex cohabitators in 1990, but the odds were significantly higher for same-sex female couples in 2000 and 2005-7.

Table 4 and Figure 1 also show that there is little evidence of a decline in differences in interracial/ethnic partnership by couple type between 1990 and 2005-7. Instead, there is some evidence of growing differences in interracial/ethnic unions among same-sex male and female couples and different-sex cohabitators (columns [4] and [5]). By contrast, assortative matching patterns have become more similar for different-sex cohabitators and married couples (column [3]), which is consistent with scholars' claims that as cohabitation becomes more normative, differences between cohabitators' and married couples' matching patterns may shrink (Hamplova

2009; Liefbroer and Dourleijn 2006). These results are similar to those from past research examining changes from 1990 to 2000 (Schwartz and Graf 2009), and are inconsistent with the availability hypothesis, which predicts that differences in assortative matching between same- and different-sex couples should have declined as the numbers of gay men and lesbians have grown relative to the population.

Variation over Place

Table 5 shows the odds ratios of interracial/ethnic partnership by our measures of the availability of same-sex partners in large metropolitan areas and couple type estimated using equation (2). Figures 2 and 3 use the results from these models to illustrate the predicted probabilities of being in an interracial/ethnic union by couple type and availability.

Turning first to variation in the relative numbers of same-sex male and female couples in metropolitan areas, Panels A and B in Figure 2 show *all couples* are *more* likely to be in interracial/ethnic partnerships in places where there are higher relative numbers of gay and lesbian adults in same-sex cohabiting unions. Table 5 shows that as the relative numbers of same-sex male and female couples in metropolitan areas increase, the odds of interracial/ethnic partnership increase among same-sex male couples, same-sex female couples, different-sex cohabitators, and different-sex married couples. All of these associations are statistically significant and are the opposite of what the availability hypothesis would predict. That all couples are more likely to be interracial/ethnic in places where there are higher relative numbers of gay men and lesbians suggests that there is something about these metropolitan areas that explains both the higher relative numbers of adults in same-sex unions and the greater likelihood of interracial/ethnic partnerships. Politically liberal and diverse metropolitan areas may be more

likely to attract LGB adults as well as heterosexuals who are accepting of race/ethnic differences in their partners.

The relationship between the absolute numbers of same-sex male and female couples in metropolitan areas and couples' likelihood of being interracial/ethnic is also inconsistent with the availability hypothesis. Again, Table 5 and Figure 3 show that places with more same-sex male couples are those in which same-sex male and female couples are *more* likely to be interracial/ethnic rather than less likely as the availability hypothesis would predict. Table 5 shows that each additional 10,000 individuals in same-sex male cohabiting unions is associated with about a 9% increase in the odds that same-sex male couples are in interracial/ethnic unions. The numbers of same-sex female couples in metropolitan areas are also positively associated with interracial/ethnic partnership, although this association is somewhat weaker than it is for same-sex male couples. Finally, there are no statistically significant relationships between the numbers of same-sex couples in metropolitan areas and racial/ethnic endogamy for different-sex couples. Thus, our results suggest that where the costs of search should be lower because of greater partner availability, LGB adults are, if anything, *more* likely to form interracial/ethnic unions. In sum, neither our analysis of availability over place nor variation over time supports the availability hypothesis.⁷

Selection into Metropolitan Areas. Our results by metropolitan area are inconsistent with the availability hypothesis but it is possible that they may be produced by differential selection into metropolitan areas. Specifically, LGB adults who are the most likely to be in interracial relationships may also be those who move to areas with large gay communities. The availability hypothesis could still hold if these individuals would have been *even more* likely to have formed interracial relationships if they had lived in places with more limited numbers of

potential same-sex partners than in places with greater availability. Our analysis of variation over time avoids the problem of selection into metropolitan areas as it implicitly treats the market for partners as occurring at the national level. In addition, we reduce the potential effects of selective migration on our results by metropolitan area by examining variation in interracial/ethnic matching for samples of couples that have been relatively geographically stable. If the availability hypothesis is correct but selection is biasing our results, then we should see a weaker association between availability and the likelihood of being in an interracial relationship for geographically stable same-sex couples compared with other couples.

To investigate this, we define geographically stable couples as those in which both partners lived in the same metropolitan area for the last 5 years and both lived in the state of their birth at the time of the survey. This is a far from perfect measure of geographic stability (e.g., individuals in these couples may have moved to areas with large gay communities more than 5 years ago and/or may have moved away and then back to their state of birth), but we would still expect the effects of selective migration to be reduced in this sample given that these couples are likely to be more geographically stable than other couples.

We find no evidence to support this hypothesis using data from the 1990 and 2000 censuses (5-year migration status is not available in the ACS). Table 6 shows that the only significant differences in the relationship between availability and the odds of interracial partnership for geographically stable couples and other couples (as indicated by the †s) are the opposite of what we would expect if selection into metropolitan areas were driving our results. Specifically, Table 6 shows that the association between availability and the odds of being in an interracial/ethnic union is stronger among geographically stable couples than other couples. Because the numbers of geographically stable same-sex couples in the census are small, we also

used alternative definitions of geographic stability to increase our sample sizes, and again found no support for the argument that the results can be explained by the selection of individuals who are likely to be in interracial relationships into areas with large gay communities (results available upon request).

Metropolitan Area-Year Fixed Effects. The analyses of relative availability suggest that there may be something about metropolitan areas where the availability of same-sex partners is large relative to the population that explains both their large gay populations and their greater tendency for interracial partnerships. Consistent with the hypothesis that large urban areas foster unconventionality (e.g., Fischer 1975; Wirth 1938), could the fact that gay men and lesbians are more likely to live in tolerant, liberal, and diverse areas than heterosexuals (Baumle et al. 2009:49-53, 86-8; Black et al. 2002; Gates and Ost 2004) explain why they are more likely to form interracial partnerships? To test this hypothesis, we estimate models with and without fixed effects by metropolitan area and year. In doing so, we control for all characteristics that vary over time and metropolitan area, but are constant across couple types. For example, time varying characteristics of metropolitan areas such as political liberalness or greater metropolitan area diversity are controlled. The effects of a place's political liberalness and diversity may differ for those seeking same- vs. different-sex couples, but fixed effects are an important test of the sensitivity of our results to shared metropolitan area conditions.

The first column of Table 7 shows the ratio of the odds of interracial/ethnic partnership by couple type relative to the odds for different-sex married couples estimated from a logistic regression model controlling for year, the ages and educations of both partners, and the race/ethnicity of partner 1. It shows the expected result: same-sex male couples are the most likely to be interracial/ethnic, followed by same-sex female couples, different-sex cohabitators,

and lastly different-sex married couples. All of the contrasts between groups are statistically significant (not shown). The second column of Table 7 shows that adding fixed effects by metropolitan area and year does little to diminish these differences. These results suggest that the primary explanation for same-sex couples' greater likelihood of being interracial/ethnic is not differences in the types of metropolitan areas in which gay men and lesbians are likely to live. The odds of being in an interracial/ethnic relationship may be higher for *all* couple types in areas with high relative numbers of gay men and lesbians because these metropolitan areas are more liberal or more tolerant,⁸ but these time- and place-specific characteristics do not appear to explain why same-sex couples are more likely to be interracial.

DISCUSSION

Shortages of available partners have been widely assumed to affect individuals' choices about who constitutes an acceptable match. Search theory posits that shortages of mates cause individuals to relax their standards for partners because of the increased costs of search. From this perspective, if gay men, lesbians, and heterosexuals generally prefer to match within race/ethnic groups, then the relatively small pool of potential mates from which gay men and lesbians have to choose may explain their greater likelihood of interracial/ethnic relationships. Our study casts considerable doubt on this hypothesis. Most of our measures indicate that in times and places where the availability of same-sex partners is greater, same-sex couples are *more* rather than less likely to be in interracial/ethnic cohabiting relationships. Of course, due to the observational nature of our study, we cannot rule out the possibility that differences in the supply of eligible mates do, in fact, explain differences in matching but that we do not observe these patterns because of strong countervailing unobserved factors. However, our sensitivity

tests, which suggest that our conclusions are robust to measures of differential selection into metropolitan areas and to the shared characteristics of metropolitan areas where couples live, increase our confidence in the results.

Overall, our results are more consistent with theories of family change and variation, which emphasize the increasing diversity of family forms within the context of changing norms and preferences (Cherlin 2004; Goode [1963] 1970; Kalmijn 1991; Lesthaeghe 1995; Rosenfeld 2007). Scholars have often pointed out that changes in norms and preferences occur at different rates for different groups (e.g., Lesthaeghe and Moors 2000; Surkyn and Lesthaeghe 2004), and same-sex couples in particular have been called the “pioneers” of social change in relationships (Giddens 1992:135). Given the lack of support for the availability hypothesis and past research showing that gay men and lesbians tend to be more liberal, egalitarian, and accepting of non-traditional relationships than heterosexuals (Blumstein and Schwartz 1983; Hertzog 1996; Meier et al. 2009; Schaffner and Senic 2006), differences in preferences may provide a more plausible explanation for differences in interracial/ethnic matching between same- and different-sex couples. Other potential explanations include differences in normative pressures toward endogamy for same- and different-sex couples from friends and family members (Rosenfeld and Kim 2005), the lack of institutional recognition of same-sex relationships, and different venues in which individuals search for mates.

Although our results are not consistent with the availability hypothesis, search theory may still be useful in understanding differences in interracial/ethnic partnering between same- and different-sex couples. For example, it may be that a larger fraction of those seeking same-sex partners prefer interracial relationships than those seeking different-sex partners. Indeed, this is consistent with studies comparing gay and straight men’s stated preferences for partners from

personal ads (Phua and Kaufman 2003). If this is the case in the population, then both those seeking same-sex interracial and endogamous relationships may be thwarted from realizing their preferences to some degree because of the higher costs of search relative to those seeking different-sex partners. Despite higher search costs, however, if a larger fraction of those seeking same-sex partners prefer interracial relationships, we would expect same-sex couples to be less likely to be endogamous than different-sex couples. What the results of this paper illustrate is that we cannot assume that all groups have similar preferences for endogamy and are merely constrained by the number of available mates. Future research should further explore differences in preferences among those seeking same- versus different-sex partners, for example, by using two-sided models that infer preferences from cross-sectional data (Logan, Hoff, and Newton 2008) or from stated preference data (Phua and Kaufman 2003). Future research should also investigate whether the availability hypothesis is consistent with matching on other characteristics such as education, religion, and age. It may be that the relative importance of preferences, availability, and third parties varies depending on the characteristic in question.

Our study is limited by the lack of detailed information about gay men's and lesbians' partner markets. The census and ACS only contain information on same-sex couples, rather than on all individuals who self-identify as gay or bisexual, which means that we do not have direct information on the characteristics of eligible same-sex partners. Although evidence from the GSS suggests that times and places with more same-sex cohabiting couples also tend to be those with more single LGB adults, cohabiting and single LGB adults may be different from one another. For example, Carpenter and Gates (2008) find that partnered gay men and lesbians are more likely to be white and highly educated than those who are not partnered. In addition, the census and ACS do not contain information on the places in which individuals search for

partners. Our analysis has assumed that individuals search within metropolitan areas or nationally for their partners, but the search process within these geographic units may be quite different depending on the type of relationship sought. Previous research suggests that heterosexuals tend to meet in more institutionalized places (Kurdek 2004b; Laumann et al. 2004:Table 3.2; Rosenfeld 2010), which may account for their greater likelihood of endogamy. Indeed, some have argued that heterogamous relationships are an underappreciated product of casual sexual encounters among gay men (Stacey 2004).

Despite the lack of detailed information about partner markets, our study contributes to existing literature by assessing the plausibility of the availability hypothesis. Our investigation does not support this hypothesis and moves us closer to a more complete understanding of how availability and preferences interact in shaping differences in partner choice among different types of couples. Moreover, although not the primary focus of our analysis, we also showed that the increase in interracial relationships noted in previous studies (e.g., Qian 1997; Rosenfeld 2006) continued for all couple types into the mid-2000s and that differences in the odds of race/ethnic endogamy declined for different-sex cohabitators and married couples over this period. The latter finding is consistent with the hypothesis that differences between cohabiting and married couples should decline as cohabitation becomes more common (Hamplova 2009; Liefbroer and Dourleijn 2006). As better data on the preferences and partner market characteristics of gay and straight men and women become available, future research should continue to investigate potential explanations for change and variation in assortative matching among same- and different-sex couples.

ENDNOTES

¹ Despite this evidence, there are numerous examples of race/ethnic discrimination in the gay community (e.g., Boykin 1996; Han 2007).

² Times and places with larger LGB populations may not be those in which there are larger LGB populations of specific race/ethnic groups. Census and ACS data suggest that this is not the case—the numbers and proportions of couples in same-sex cohabiting unions increased for all races/ethnicities between 1990 and 2007 and places with more same-sex couples also tend to have more same-sex couples of all races/ethnicities. These findings suggest those seeking same-sex partners have more same-race/ethnicity partners from which to choose in times and places with more same-sex couples.

³ National partnership rates have been calculated from the GSS and the National Health and Social Life Survey (NHSLs) (Black et al. 2000). It would be possible to use the GSS to calculate variation in partnership rates over time, but the sample sizes are small and thus this variation would likely contain substantial measurement error. In addition, metropolitan areas are not identified in either survey.

⁴ Log-linear models are also commonly used in assortative matching studies. We use logistic regression models because they are straightforward and easily interpretable. Results from log-linear models also provide little support for the availability hypothesis (see Appendix A).

⁵ While the characteristics of couples by couple type did change between 1990 and 2007, the contrasts shown in Table 3 summarize the differences between couple types across periods well.

Throughout the majority of our analysis the units of observation are couples. To avoid arbitrarily describing the characteristics of one partner in a couple, we describe the

characteristics of all *individuals* in coresidential unions in Table 3. Thus, the total sample size in Table 3 is twice that of the remainder of the analysis.

⁶ In all figures, predicted probabilities are shown for couples with a white household head (same-sex couples) or male partner (different-sex couples), in which both partners' highest educational attainment is "some college" and both partners are between 25 and 29 years of age.

⁷ The results shown in Table 5 and Figures 2 and 3 are robust to outliers and to different specifications of the availability of same-sex couples in metropolitan areas. For example, the results are very similar to those presented here using the square root of our availability measures and excluding San Francisco.

⁸ Consistent with theories emphasizing the link between urbanism and unconventionality, the positive association between the relative numbers of same-sex couples and the odds of being in a interracial/ethnic couple is reduced (but not eliminated) when logistic regression models are estimated using metropolitan area fixed effects (not shown). This supports the notion that some of the positive association between the relative availability of same-sex couples and interracial/ethnic relationships is due to fixed characteristics of places such as liberalness, tolerance, diversity, and/or population concentration.

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Table 1. Number of Couples by Couple Type (Couples Aged 20 to 49) by Data Source and Year

	6% Census Samples		ACS
	1990	2000	2005-7 ^a
Same-Sex Cohabiting Male Couples			
Population Estimate	60,857	106,233	122,533
As a % of All Couples	0.198	0.332	0.396
N	3,128	5,679	3,755
Same-Sex Cohabiting Female Couples			
Population Estimate	44,991	108,385	120,258
As a % of All Couples	0.146	0.339	0.389
N	2,452	5,987	3,794
Different-Sex Cohabiting Couples			
Population Estimate	2,211,873	3,190,401	3,834,296
As a % of All Couples	7.2	10.0	12.4
N	124,673	182,641	97,176
Different-Sex Married Couples			
Population Estimate	28,404,423	28,612,393	26,836,109
As a % of All Couples	92.5	89.4	86.8
N	1,738,828	1,711,425	817,864
Total N	1,869,081	1,905,732	922,589

Notes: ^aThree-year weighted average. Estimates are weighted using household weights.

Sources: 1% and 5% samples of the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses and the 2005-7 American Community Survey (ACS).

Table 2. Metropolitan Areas^a with the 5 Largest and Smallest Populations of Adults Aged 18 to 65 in Same-Sex Cohabiting Unions in 2000

Same-Sex Male Cohabiting Unions		Same-Sex Female Cohabiting Unions	
Metropolitan Area		Metropolitan Area	
Panel A. Percentage of Adults in Same-Sex Cohabiting Unions (%)			
Five Largest			
San Francisco-Oakland-Vallejo, CA	0.630	San Francisco-Oakland-Vallejo, CA	0.461
Fort Lauderdale-Hollywood-Pompano Beach, FL	0.515	Seattle-Everett, WA	0.458
Seattle-Everett, WA	0.440	Portland, OR-WA	0.420
Austin, TX	0.406	Boston, MA-NH	0.346
Denver-Boulder, CO	0.351	Denver-Boulder, CO	0.320
Five Smallest			
Bakersfield, CA	0.040	El Paso, TX	0.088
El Paso, TX	0.067	Birmingham, AL	0.094
Albany-Schenectady-Troy, NY	0.075	Detroit, MI	0.105
Buffalo-Niagara Falls, NY	0.086	Cleveland, OH	0.106
Baton Rouge, LA	0.087	Memphis, TN/AR/MS	0.111
Panel B. Numbers of Adults in Same-Sex Cohabiting Unions			
Five Largest			
New York-Northeastern NJ	24,588	New York-Northeastern NJ	15,411
Los Angeles-Long Beach, CA	19,296	Los Angeles-Long Beach, CA	13,410
San Francisco-Oakland-Vallejo, CA	17,843	San Francisco-Oakland-Vallejo, CA	13,047
Chicago, IL	9,578	Boston, MA-NH	7,824
Washington, DC/MD/VA	9,546	Chicago, IL	7,332
Five Smallest			
Bakersfield, CA	140	El Paso, TX	328
El Paso, TX	250	Birmingham, AL	425
Charleston-N.Charleston, SC	292	Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton, PA/NJ	479
Baton Rouge, LA	316	Baton Rouge, LA	495
Albany-Schenectady-Troy, NY	342	Knoxville, TN	508

Notes: ^aIncludes only metropolitan areas with populations of 500,000 or more in 1990. Estimates are weighted using person-level weights.

Sources: 1% and 5% samples of the 2000 U.S. census.

Table 3. Characteristics of Individuals Aged 20 to 49 in Coresidential Unions by Couple Type

	Same-Sex Cohabiting Male	Same-Sex Cohabiting Female	Different-Sex Cohabiting	Different-Sex Married
Race/ethnicity (%)				
White	79.0	80.5	68.2	74.2
Black	4.7	6.4	12.0	6.9
Hispanic	13.0	10.1	15.9	13.0
Other	3.3	3.0	3.9	5.9
Percent in an Interracial/ethnic Union (%)	22.0	14.2	13.8	7.8
By Race/ethnicity (%)				
White	13.3	7.8	8.8	4.7
Black	44.7	26.0	17.4	9.6
Hispanic	51.5	41.6	23.8	17.7
Other	81.0	66.6	51.0	22.9
Age				
Mean	36.5	35.8	31.8	36.7
SD	6.50	6.78	6.85	7.27
Educational Attainment (%)				
Less than High School	4.7	4.4	14.2	9.4
High School	17.3	18.7	36.8	29.3
Some College	33.0	32.6	31.4	30.3
College and Above	44.9	44.3	17.6	30.9
<i>N</i>	25,124	24,466	808,980	8,536,234

Note: Estimates weighted using household weights.

Sources: Pooled data from the 1% and 5% samples of the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses and the 2005-7 American Community Survey (ACS).

Table 4. Odds Ratios of Interracial/Ethnic Partnership by Couple Type and Year (Couples Aged 20-49)

Year	Same-Sex Cohabiting Male vs. Different-Sex Married [1]	Same-Sex Cohabiting Female vs. Different-Sex Married [2]	Different-Sex Cohabiting vs. Different-Sex Married [3]	Same-Sex Cohabiting Male vs. Different-Sex Cohabiting [4]	Same-Sex Cohabiting Female vs. Different-Sex Cohabiting [5]	Same-Sex Cohabiting Male vs. Same-Sex Cohabiting Female [6]
1990	3.765 ***	2.107 ***	1.942 ***	1.939 ***	1.085	1.787 ***
2000	3.714 ***	2.266 ***	1.845 *** †††	2.013 ***	1.228 ***	1.639 ***
2005-7	3.809 ***	2.146 ***	1.727 *** †††	2.206 *** †	1.243 ***	1.775 ***

Notes: $N = 4,697,402$. Odds ratios from logistic regressions predicting interracial/ethnic partnership by couple type and year controlling for both partners' education and age, and partner 1's race/ethnicity (male partners in different-sex unions and household heads in same-sex unions). Significance levels for two-tailed t-tests of the difference in couple resemblance by relationship type:

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$. Significance levels for two-tailed t-tests of changes in the difference in couple resemblance from 1990: † $p < .05$; †† $p < .01$; ††† $p < .001$. Estimates are weighted using household-level probability weights.

Sources: 1% and 5% samples of the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses and the 2005-7 American Community Survey.

**Table 5. Odds Ratios of Interracial/Ethnic Partnership by Couple Type and Partner Availability
(Couples Aged 20-49 in Metropolitan Areas^a)**

Measure of Availability	Same-Sex Cohabiting Male	Same-Sex Cohabiting Female	Different-Sex Cohabiting	Different-Sex Married
	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
Relative Numbers (%)				
Same-Sex Cohabiting Male	5.169 ***	4.262 ***	3.409 ***	4.119 ***
Same-Sex Cohabiting Female	4.756 ***	4.328 ***	6.136 ***	7.737 ***
Numbers (10,000s)				
Same-Sex Cohabiting Male	1.086 ***	1.055 ***	0.996	1.001
Same-Sex Cohabiting Female	1.115 ***	1.082 **	0.993	1.001

Notes: ^aThose with populations of 500,000 or more in 1990. *N* = 2,415,576. Odds ratios from logistic regressions predicting interracial/ethnic partnership by couple type and measures of the availability of same-sex partners controlling for both partners' education and age, partner 1's race/ethnicity (male partners in different-sex unions and household heads in same-sex unions), and year. Significance levels for two-tailed t-tests: * *p* < .05; ** *p* < .01; *** *p* < .001. Estimates are weighted using household-level probability weights.

Sources: 1% and 5% samples of the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses and the 2005-7 American Community Survey.

Table 6. Odds Ratios of Interracial/Ethnic Partnership by Couple Type and Partner Availability for Geographically Stable and Other Couples (Couples Aged 20-49 in Metropolitan Areas^a)

Measure of Availability	Geographically Stable Couples ^b		Other Couples ^b	
	Same-Sex	Same-Sex	Same-Sex	Same-Sex
	Cohabiting Male	Cohabiting Female	Cohabiting Male	Cohabiting Female
Relative Numbers (%)				
Same-Sex Cohabiting Male	39.841 ***	12.024 *	4.200 *** ††	3.482 ***
Same-Sex Cohabiting Female	37.728 **	2.389	4.824 *** †	3.731 ***
Numbers (10,000s)				
Same-Sex Cohabiting Male	1.205	1.647 *	1.290 ***	1.094
Same-Sex Cohabiting Female	1.232	2.071 *	1.419 ***	1.131
<i>N</i>	222,487		1,685,205	

Notes: ^aThose with populations of 500,000 or more in 1990.

^bGeographically stable couples are those in which both partners were born in the state in which they resided at the time of the census and in which both partners resided in the same metropolitan area at the time of the census as they did 5 years before. Other couples are all couples who are not classified as geographically stable.

Odds ratios from logistic regressions predicting interracial/ethnic partnership by couple type and measures of the availability of same-sex partners controlling for both partners' education and age, partner 1's race/ethnicity (male partners in different-sex unions and household heads in same-sex unions), and year. Significance levels for two-tailed t-tests : * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$. Significance levels for two-tailed t-tests of differences in couple resemblance between geographically stable same-sex male (female) couples and other same-sex male (female) couples: † $p < .05$; †† $p < .01$ ††† $p < .001$. Estimates are weighted using household-level probability weights. Total $N = 1,907,654$.

Sources: 1% and 5% samples of the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses.

Table 7. Odds Ratios of Interracial/Ethnic Partnership by Couple Type Relative to Different-Sex Married Couples (Couples Aged 20-49 in Metropolitan Areas^a)

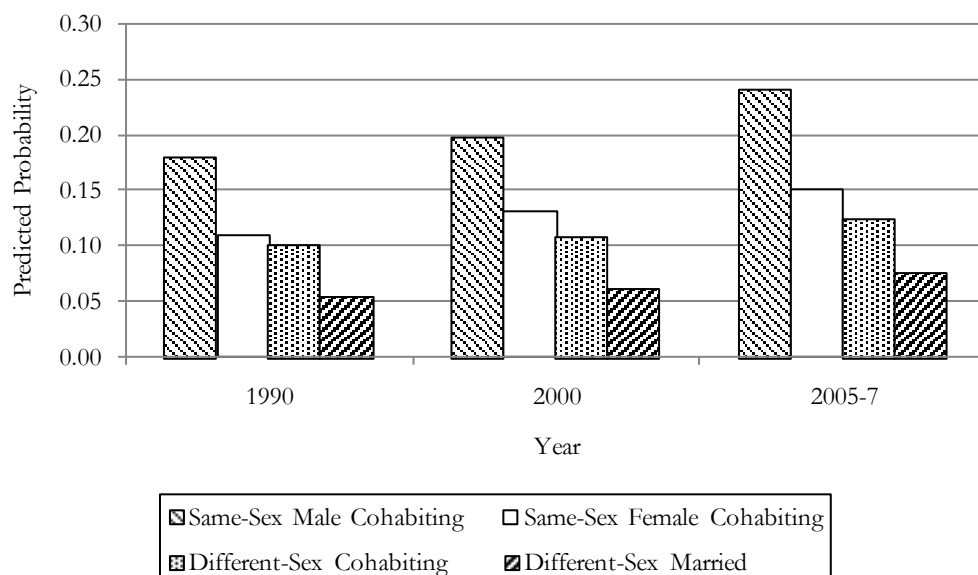
Couple Type	Model	
	Baseline	Metropolitan Area x Year Fixed Effects
Same-Sex Cohabiting Male	3.66 ***	3.44 ***
Same-Sex Cohabiting Female	2.22 ***	2.09 ***
Different-Sex Cohabiting	1.89 ***	1.84 ***
Different-Sex Married	1.00	1.00

Notes: ^aThose with populations of 500,000 or more in 1990.

N = 127,778. Odds ratios from logistic regressions predicting interracial/ethnic partnership by couple type controlling for both partners' education and age, partner 1's race/ethnicity (male partners in different-sex unions and household heads in same-sex unions), and year. Significance levels for two-tailed t-tests of the difference in couple resemblance by relationship type: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$. To increase the computation speed of the estimation of the fixed effects model, random samples of 55,000 married and 55,000 cohabiting couples were selected along with all same-sex couples. Both the baseline and the fixed effects models are estimated using this sample. The fixed effects model is estimated using the Stata command "xtlogit", which does not allow the data to be weighted. Unweighted results are presented here, but a comparison of the weighted and unweighted baseline model results shows that the two estimates differ little.

Sources: 1% and 5% samples of the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses and the 2005-7 American Community Survey.

Figure 1. Predicted Probabilities of Interracial/Ethnic Partnership by Couple Type and Year (Couples Aged 20 to 49)

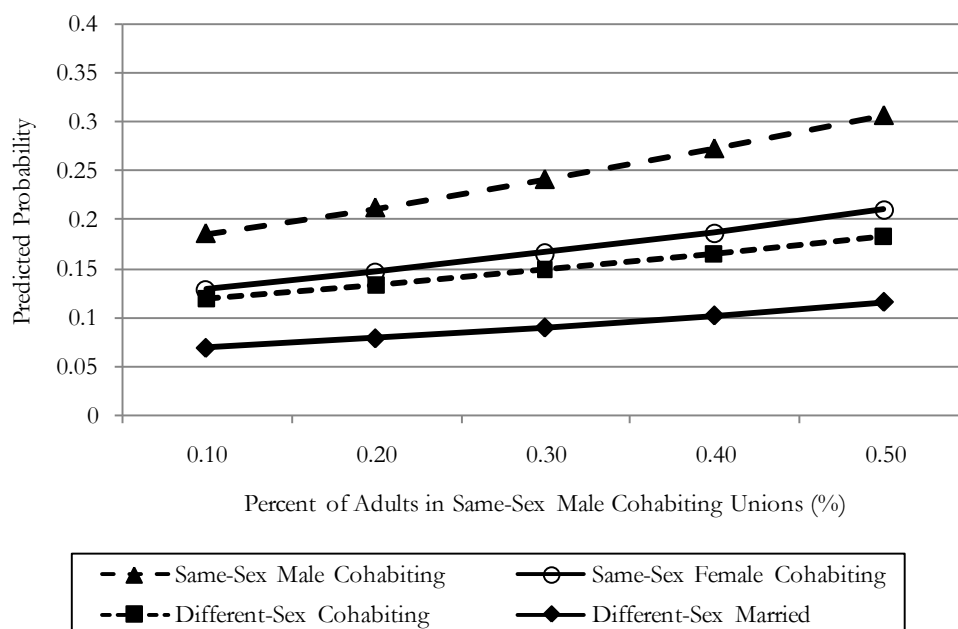


Notes: $N = 4,697,402$. Probabilities are estimated from a logistic regression model predicting interracial/ethnic partnership by couple type and year controlling for both partners' education and age, and partner 1's race/ethnicity (male partners in different-sex unions and household heads in same-sex unions). Estimates are weighted using household-level probability weights.

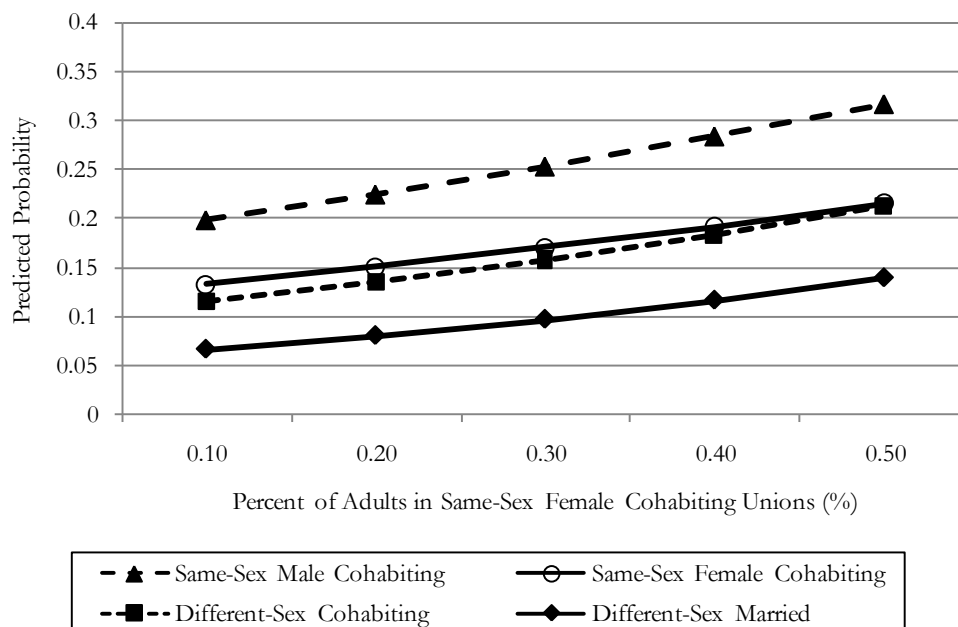
Sources: 1% and 5% samples of the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses and the 2005-7 American Community Survey.

Figure 2. Predicted Probabilities of Interracial/Ethnic Partnership by Couple Type and Percent of Adults in Same-Sex Male and Female Cohabiting Unions in Metropolitan Areas^a

Panel A. By Percent of Adults in Same-Sex Male Cohabiting Unions



Panel B. By Percent of Adults in Same-Sex Female Cohabiting Unions

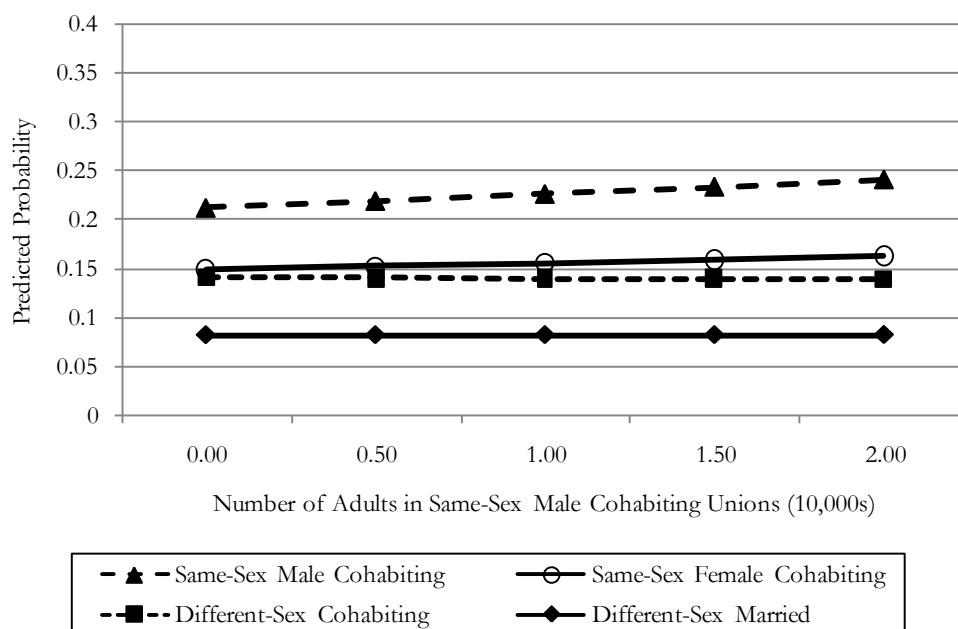


Notes: ^aThose with populations of 500,000 or more in 1990. $N = 2,415,576$. Probabilities are estimated from a logistic regression model predicting interracial/ethnic partnership by couple type and measures of the availability of same-sex partners controlling for both partners' education and age, partner 1's race/ethnicity (male partners in different-sex unions and household heads in same-sex unions), and year. Estimates are weighted using household-level probability weights.

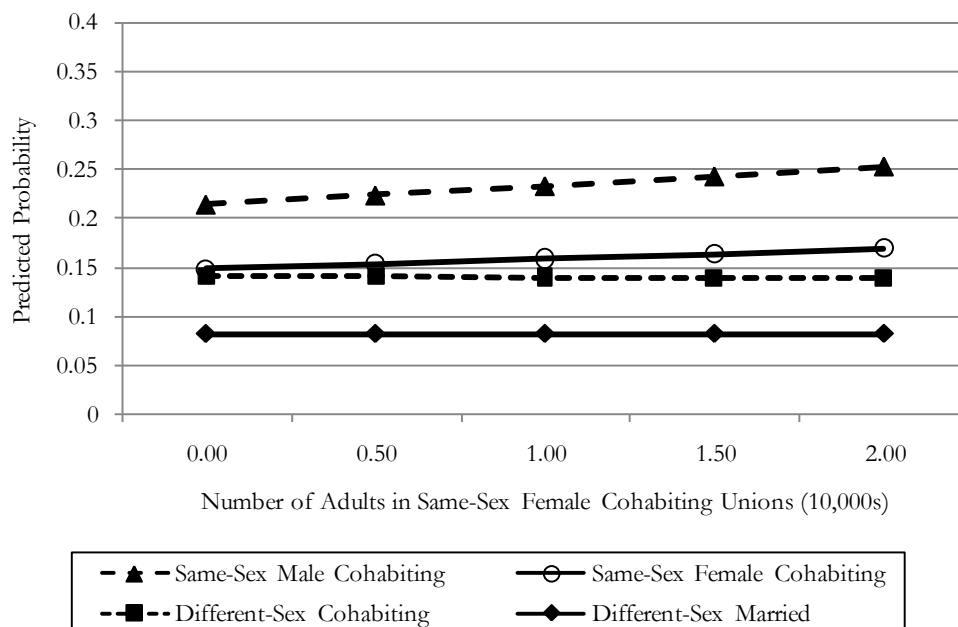
Sources: 1% and 5% samples of the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses and the 2005-7 American Community Survey.

Figure 3. Predicted Probabilities of Interracial/Ethnic Partnership by Couple Type and Numbers (10,000s) of Adults in Same-Sex Male and Female Cohabiting Unions in Metropolitan Areas^a

Panel A. By Numbers of Adults in Same-Sex Male Cohabiting Unions



Panel B. By Numbers of Adults in Same-Sex Female Cohabiting Unions



Notes: ^aThose with populations of 500,000 or more in 1990. $N = 2,415,576$. Probabilities are estimated from a logistic regression model predicting interracial/ethnic partnership by couple type and measures of the availability of same-sex partners controlling for both partners' education and age, partner 1's race/ethnicity (male partners in different-sex unions and household heads in same-sex unions), and year. Estimates are weighted using household-level probability weights.

Sources: 1% and 5% samples of the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses and the 2005-7 American Community Survey.

Appendix Table 1. Correlations Among the Numbers and Relative Numbers of Total, Cohabiting, and Non-Cohabiting Gay, Lesbian, and Bisexual Adults Aged 18 to 65

	Gay/Bisexual Men			Lesbian/Bisexual Women		
	Total	Cohabiting	Non-Cohabiting	Total	Cohabiting	Non-Cohabiting
Panel A. Numbers of Gay/Bisexual Men and Lesbian/Bisexual Women						
Across Region and Size of Place ^a (N=90)						
Total	1			1		
Cohabiting	0.836 *	1		0.812 *	1	
Non-Cohabiting	0.984 *	0.723 *	1	0.980 *	0.679 *	1
Across Survey Years (N=13)						
Total	1			1		
Cohabiting	0.707 *	1		0.740 *	1	
Non-Cohabiting	0.981 *	0.557 *	1	0.984 *	0.609 *	1
Panel B. Relative Numbers of Gay/Bisexual Men and Lesbian/Bisexual Women						
Across Region and Size of Place ^a (N=90)						
Total	1			1		
Cohabiting	0.698 *	1		0.425 *	1	
Non-Cohabiting	0.934 *	0.395 *	1	0.940 *	0.089	1

Notes: ^aDefined as variation in size of place within region. Region is coded as the nine Census Bureau regional divisions (New England, Middle Atlantic, East North Central, West North Central, South Atlantic, East South Central, West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific). Size of place is coded according to the expanded NORC size codes, which combine information on metropolitan/central city status and population size. Significance level for correlation coefficients: * p < .05. Estimates of the numbers of gay/bisexual men and lesbian/bisexual women are weighted.

Source: 1988-2008 General Social Survey.

APPENDIX A

INCLUDING SAME-SEX COUPLES WHO SELF-IDENTIFIED AS MARRIED

Our primary analyses include only those couples who self-identified as “unmarried partners.”

We do this because the Census Bureau’s procedure for handling same-sex couples who self-identified as married changed between 1990 and 2000, making obtaining comparable samples that include married same-sex couples across these years impossible (see Black et al. 2007; Gates and Sell 2007; Rosenfeld and Kim 2005; Schwartz and Graf 2009 for detailed descriptions of these changes). Although we cannot recover same-sex couples who self-identified as married in 1990, we can include these couples in 2000 and 2005-7. We test the sensitivity of our results to their inclusion by re-estimating our models including couples in which either partner’s marital status was imputed (“allocated”) by the Census Bureau using data from 2000 and 2005-7. In doing so, we are likely to capture both “true” same-sex couples who self-identify as married, but also a substantial number of different-sex married couples in which the wrong sex box of one of the partners was checked. Black et al. (2007) estimate that over 40% of same-sex couples in the 2000 census are actually different-sex married couples in which sex was miscoded. Nevertheless, this is an important sensitivity test because it is possible that same-sex “unmarried partner” male and female couples have become increasingly likely to be interracial/ethnic because of increasing selection of endogamous same-sex couples into marriage.

Panel A of Table S1 and Figure S1 show time variation in the odds of being in an interracial/ethnic union by couple type for couples in which both partners were between the ages of 20 and 49 in 2000 and 2005-7, regardless of whether either partner’s marital status was allocated. Note that compared with Figure 1, which includes only “unmarried partner” same-sex

couples, Figure S1 shows that the odds of being interracial/ethnic are much smaller for same-sex male and female couples in both 2000 and 2005-7. This is to be expected given that these samples are contaminated by a substantial fraction of different-sex married couples, who are less likely to be interracial/ethnic.

According to the availability hypothesis, as the availability of same-sex partners increases we expect that differences in the odds of being interracial by couple type should decline because of a decrease in the odds of being interracial among same-sex partners. Panel A of Table S1 shows no evidence of this for same-sex male couples. In fact, the difference between same-sex male and different-sex cohabiting couples appears to have diverged (column [4]). By contrast, there is evidence that differences between same-sex female couples and different-sex cohabiting couples declined (column [5]), but Figure S1 shows that the decline is inconsistent with the availability hypothesis. The reason for the decline is that the odds of being in an interracial/ethnic union increased *faster* for same-sex female couples than for different-sex cohabiting couples, but the availability hypothesis would predict that differences should decline because the odds of being interracial/ethnic for same-sex couples increase *slower* for same-sex couples relative to different-sex couples because of their increasing numbers in the population. Given that the samples of same-sex female couples shown here contain a substantial fraction of different-sex married couples who checked the wrong sex box, it is likely that the odds of being in an interracial/ethnic union for “true” same-sex female couples is higher than observed in Figure S1, and thus what appears to be convergence in the odds in Figure S1 is most likely evidence of divergence.

An additional complication is that the rate of sex-miscoding among different-sex couples may have been smaller in the 2005-7 ACS than the 2000 census because about a third of

respondents received computer-assisted interviews in which their sex was verified if they reported being married to a same-sex respondent (U.S. Census Bureau 2006:7-3 and authors' calculations from IPUMS data). Thus, it may be the case that the odds of interracial/ethnic unions increased between 2000 and 2005-7 for same-sex couples because they were more likely to be "true" same-sex couples. To check this, we re-estimated the models excluding individuals who received computer-assisted interviews in the ACS. The results are shown in Panel B of Table S1. The pattern of changes between 2000 and 2005-7 are quite similar to those shown in Panel A, but none of the changes are statistically significant.

In addition to testing the sensitivity of our over-time analyses, we tested the sensitivity of our metropolitan area analyses to the inclusion of same-sex couples who self-identified as married. Panels A and B of Table S2 show the relationship between the odds of being in an interracial/ethnic partnership and our measures of the availability of same-sex partners in large metropolitan areas using data from the 2000 census and 2005-7 ACS. (These are the same samples as used in Table S1, except consistent with the rest of the metropolitan area analyses, we restrict the sample to those living in metropolitan areas with populations of 500,000 or more in 1990.) The patterns of association are similar to those shown in Table 5; there is no evidence that places where same-sex partners are more plentiful are those in which couples are less likely to be interracial/ethnic. Overall, these analyses suggest that the results shown in the main portion of the paper are not due to differential selection of endogamous same-sex couples into marriage.

COUPLES AGED 20 TO 34 AND RECENTLY FORMED UNIONS

Our primary analysis sample is made up of couples in which both partners are between the ages of 20 and 49 at the time of the survey. There are two potential problems with this. First, we measure the characteristics of partner markets at the time of the survey, which may be years after these couples' relationships were formed. Second, selective union dissolution may differentially affect the resemblance of partners by couple type. For example, one reason different-sex married couples may be less likely to be interracial/ethnic than other couples is because their average duration is longer and thus, the dissimilar couples have had more time to split up and leave the stock of marriages. We attempt to measure couples closer to the time in which they formed their unions in two ways: (1) by examining a younger sample of couples (those in which both partners are between the ages of 20 to 34 at the time of the survey) and (2) by estimating our models for a sample of recently formed unions. Because the date at which individuals began their unions is not available in the census or ACS, we define recently formed unions indirectly using information on both partners' residences five years ago, following Gates (2006). Using this method, we roughly identify recently formed unions as those in which one partner lived in their current Public Use Microdata Area (PUMA) five years ago and the other did not *or* the two partners did not live in the same PUMA five years ago. The 2005-7 ACS did not collect information on where individuals lived five years ago and thus we only use 1990 and 2000 data for this analysis.

Panels C and D of Table S1 show the results of our over-time analyses for couples aged 20 to 34 and recently formed unions, respectively. In both cases, the results are consistent with those shown in Table 4—there is no evidence of declines in the differences in the likelihood of being in an interracial/ethnic union between same- and different-sex couples. Likewise, Panel C

and D of Table S2 show the results of our analysis by metropolitan area for those living in large metropolitan areas. Again, the results are similar to those shown in Table 5.

The similarity of our results for young couples and recently formed unions to those shown in the main portion of the analysis suggests that our results are robust to the mismatch between the exact timing of individuals' union formation and our measures of market conditions. Moreover, our measures of availability by metropolitan area are highly correlated across years (not shown), again suggesting our results should be robust to error in the precise timing of these measures.

RESULTS FROM LOG-LINEAR MODELS

We present results from logistic regressions predicting the odds of being in an interracial/ethnic couple in the main portion of our paper for ease of presentation, but log-linear models can also be used to test the availability hypothesis. An advantage of log-linear models is that they control for the marginal distributions of couples' characteristics in estimating the odds of being in an interracial/ethnic relationship, but adding control variables to these models can be cumbersome. Moreover, it is likely that the marginal distributions of couples' characteristics, especially for same-sex couples, are different from the distributions of characteristics in the population (Carpenter and Gates 2008), and thus controlling for the marginal distributions may not adequately control for differences in availability of particular race/ethnic groups by couple type. Nevertheless, as a sensitivity check, we present the results of log-linear models of the log odds of being in an interracial/ethnic union by couple type across years and metropolitan areas—analogs of the analyses presented in the paper.

Figure S2 shows the log odds of being in an interracial/ethnic relationship by couple type and year estimated from a simple log-linear model (see Figure S2 for the model specification). Overall, the results are similar to those shown in Figure 1. The same “gradient” in interracial/ethnic partnership can be seen, although differences between couple types, especially between same-sex female and different-sex cohabiting couples, are smaller. Also, unlike the results shown in Figure 1 and Table 4, there is some evidence of smaller differences between same-sex male and different-sex married couples in 2005-7 than in 1990 ($p < .05$), a result consistent with the availability hypothesis. The bulk of the evidence, however, is inconsistent with the availability hypothesis: there are no significant declines in differences between same-sex male couples and different-sex cohabiting couples across years, or between same-sex female couples and different-sex couples.

Figure S3 shows variation in the odds by couple type and measures of availability across large metropolitan areas. Each point on these figures represents the odds of being in an interracial/ethnic relationship in a given metropolitan area using data pooled across years estimated from a log-linear model (see Figure S3 for model specification). Because the sample size requirements are higher for these models than for the logistic regressions, Figure S3 contains data on metropolitan areas in which there are at least 50 same-sex male and female couples in the data pooled across years. We also deleted two metropolitan areas that were very low outliers on the odds of being interracial/ethnic for same-sex couples (Charlotte-Gastonia-Rock Hill, NC-SC and West Palm Beach-Boca Raton-Delray Beach). A regression line is then fit to the points by couple type. The results shown in Figure S3 are quite similar to those shown in Figures 2 and 3. The one exception is the downward slope of the relationship between the number of adults in same-sex male and female cohabiting unions and the odds of being in an interracial/ethnic

relationship for same-sex female couples. However, this relationship is not statistically significant in either Panel C or D of Figure S3 ($p = 0.593$ and $p = 0.669$, respectively). The advantage of using log-linear models here is that the race/ethnic distributions by couple type within metropolitan areas are controlled and the log odds of interracial/ethnic unions can be plotted for each metropolitan area (whereas they cannot in Figures 2 and 3 because the analyses are conducted at the individual level), but the disadvantage is that, because of the small number of metropolitan areas that meet the sample size requirements for these analyses, our estimates of the slopes are quite imprecise. Overall, however, these results provide little support for the availability hypothesis.

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Table S1. Sensitivity Tests of Odds Ratios of Interracial Partnership by Couple Type and Year

Year	Same-Sex Cohabiting Male vs. Different- Sex Married [1]	Same-Sex Cohabiting Female vs. Different- Sex Married [2]	Different-Sex Cohabiting vs. Different- Sex Married [3]	Same-Sex Cohabiting Male vs. Different-Sex Cohabiting [4]	Same-Sex Cohabiting Female vs. Different-Sex Cohabiting [5]	Same-Sex Cohabiting Male vs. Same- Sex Cohabiting Female [6]
Panel A. Retain Couples with Allocated Marital Status Values (<i>N</i> = 2,856,003)						
2000	2.300 **	1.591 **	1.826 **	1.260 **	0.872 **	1.445 **
2005-2007	2.419 **	1.709 **	1.727 ** ††	1.401 ** †	0.990 †	1.415 **
Panel B. Exclude Computer-Assisted ACS Interviews (<i>N</i> = 2,541,928)						
2000	2.300 **	1.588 **	1.811 **	1.270 **	0.877 **	1.448 **
2005-2007	2.432 **	1.648 **	1.796 **	1.354 **	0.917 *	1.476 **
Panel C. Couples Aged 20 to 34 (<i>N</i> = 1,595,363)						
1990	3.274 **	1.979 **	1.808 **	1.811 **	1.095	1.654 **
2000	3.034 **	2.467 **	1.784 **	1.701 **	1.383 ** †	1.230 *
2005-2007	3.372 **	2.033 **	1.690 ** ††	1.995 **	1.202 **	1.659 **
Panel D. Recently Formed Unions (<i>N</i> = 521,733)						
1990	3.151 **	1.614 **	1.632 **	1.930 **	0.989	1.952 **
2000	3.343 **	1.933 **	1.638 **	2.040 **	1.180 *	1.730 **

Notes: Significance levels for two-tailed t-tests of the difference in couple resemblance by relationship type: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. Significance levels for two-tailed t-tests of changes in the difference in couple resemblance from baseline year (1990 or 2000): † $p < .05$; †† $p < .01$.

Sources: 1% and 5% samples of the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses and the 2005-7 American Community Survey.

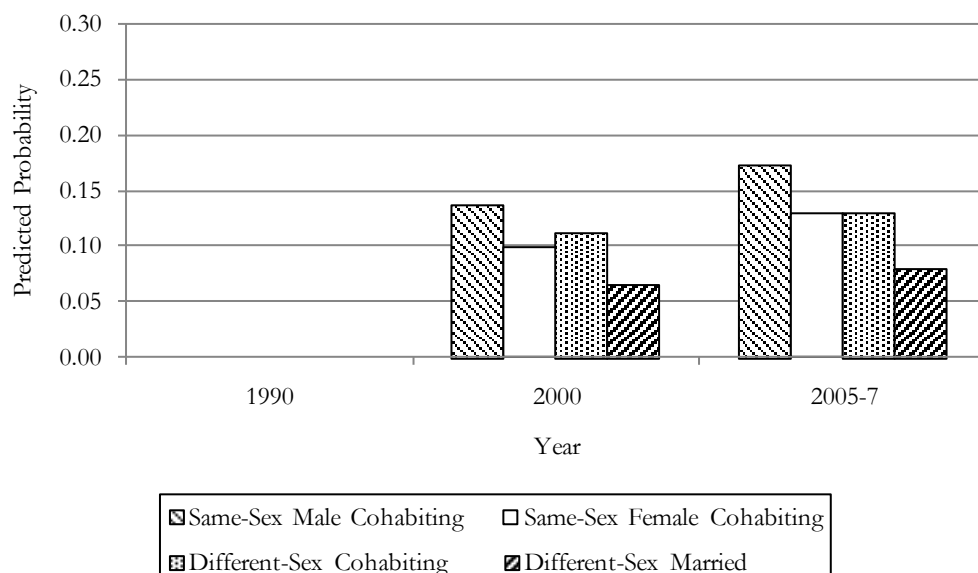
Table S2. Sensitivity Tests of Odds Ratios of Interracial/Ethnic Partnership by Couple Type and Partner Availability in Metropolitan Areas^a

Measure of Availability	Same-Sex Cohabiting Male [1]	Same-Sex Cohabiting Female [2]	Different-Sex Cohabiting [3]	Different-Sex Married [4]
Panel A. Retain Couples with Allocated Marital Status Values (N = 1,502,069)				
Relative Numbers (%)				
Same-Sex Cohabiting Male	7.273 **	4.494 **	3.203 **	3.694 **
Same-Sex Cohabiting Female	4.915 **	4.640 **	4.875 **	5.144 **
Numbers (10,000s)				
Same-Sex Cohabiting Male	1.074 **	1.041 **	1.000	1.001
Same-Sex Cohabiting Female	1.109 **	1.069 **	1.004	1.005
Panel B. Exclude Computer-Assisted ACS Interviews (N = 1,334,827)				
Relative Numbers (%)				
Same-Sex Cohabiting Male	7.391 **	4.510 **	3.318 **	3.826 **
Same-Sex Cohabiting Female	5.259 **	4.636 **	4.749 **	5.271 **
Numbers (10,000s)				
Same-Sex Cohabiting Male	1.074 **	1.046 **	1.031 **	1.016 **
Same-Sex Cohabiting Female	1.107 **	1.076 **	1.051 **	1.027 **
Panel C. Couples Aged 20 to 34 (N = 805,906)				
Relative Numbers (%)				
Same-Sex Cohabiting Male	6.639 **	5.098 **	3.678 **	3.370 **
Same-Sex Cohabiting Female	10.074 **	5.921 **	6.740 **	6.876 **
Numbers (10,000s)				
Same-Sex Cohabiting Male	1.086 **	1.028	0.999	0.984 **
Same-Sex Cohabiting Female	1.119 **	1.037	0.999	0.976 **
Panel D. Recently Formed Unions (N = 290,094)				
Relative Numbers (%)				
Same-Sex Cohabiting Male	4.230 **	3.165 **	3.960 **	3.409 **
Same-Sex Cohabiting Female	6.616 **	3.231 *	5.853 **	6.470 **
Numbers (10,000s)				
Same-Sex Cohabiting Male	1.320 **	1.033	1.138 **	1.019
Same-Sex Cohabiting Female	1.569 **	1.004	1.204 **	1.006

Notes: ^aThose with populations of 500,000 or more in 1990. Odds ratios from logistic regressions predicting interracial/ethnic partnership by couple type and measures of the availability of same-sex partners controlling for both partners' education and age, partner 1's race/ethnicity (male partners in different-sex unions and household heads in same-sex unions), and year. Significance levels for two-tailed t-tests: * p < .05; ** p < .01. Estimates are weighted using household-level probability weights.

Sources: 1% and 5% samples of the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses and the 2005-7 American Community Survey.

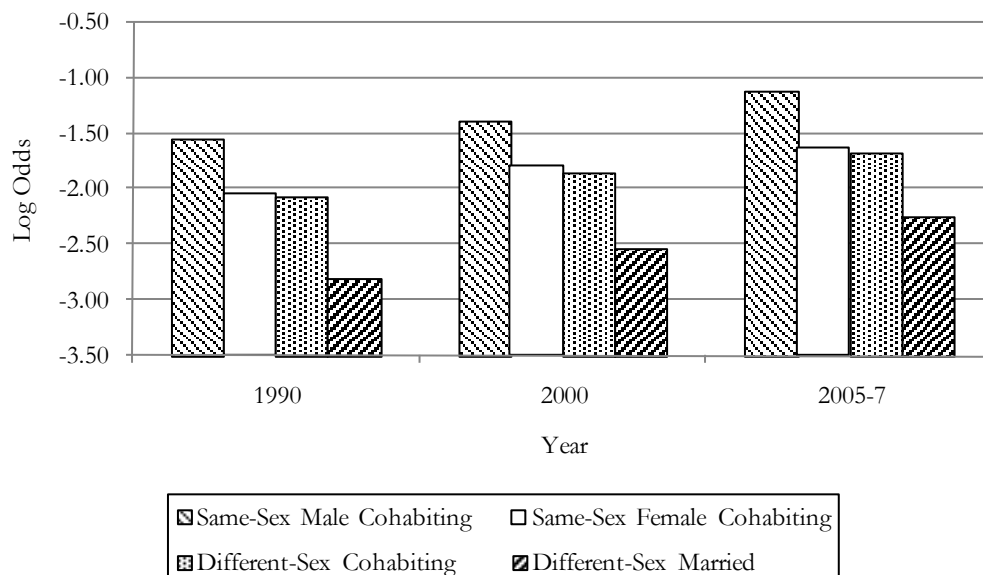
Figure S1. Predicted Probabilities of Interracial/Ethnic Partnership by Couple Type and Year (Couples Aged 20 to 49), Retaining Couples with Allocated Marital Status Values



Notes: $N = 2,856,003$. Probabilities are estimated from a logistic regression model predicting interracial/ethnic partnership by couple type and year controlling for both partners' education and age, and partner 1's race/ethnicity (male partners in different-sex unions and household heads in same-sex unions). Estimates are weighted using household-level probability weights. Models are not estimated for 1990 as the handling of same-sex couples who reported being married differed from later years.

Sources: 1% and 5% samples of the 2000 U.S. census and the 2005-7 American Community Survey.

Figure S2. Log Odds of Interracial/Ethnic Partnership by Couple Type and Year (Couples Aged 20 to 49), Log-Linear Model Estimates



Notes: $N = 4,697,402$. Odds are estimated using the following log-linear model for each year separately:

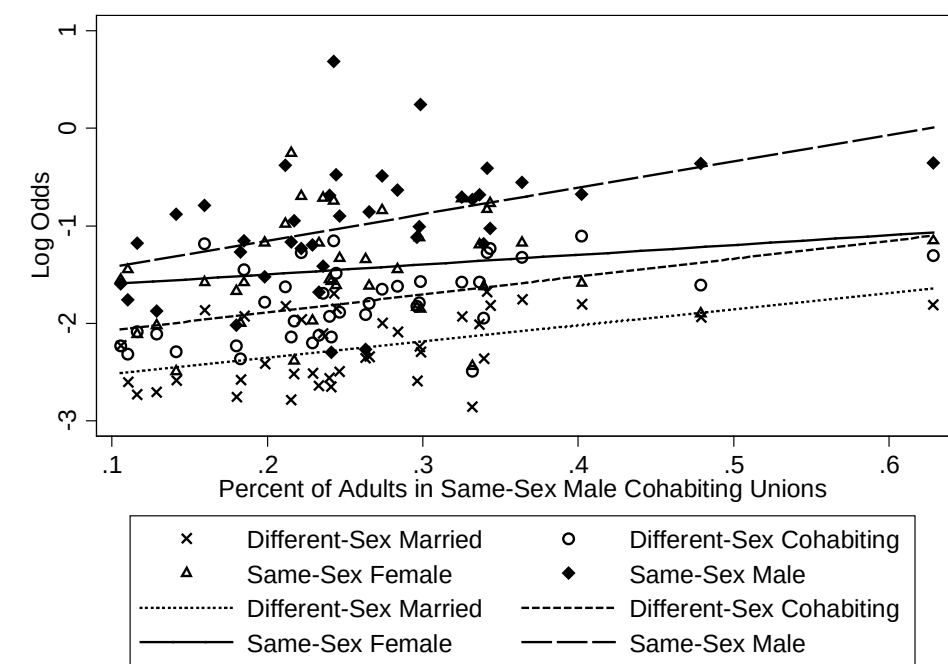
$$\log(\mu_{ijk}) = \lambda + \lambda_i^{R1} + \lambda_j^{R2} + \lambda_k^C + \lambda_l^I + \lambda_{ik}^{R1C} + \lambda_{jk}^{R2C} + \lambda_{lk}^{IC},$$

where $R1$ is the race/ethnicity of household head in same-sex relationships and the male partner in different-sex relationships and $R2$ is the race/ethnicity of the other partner ($i, j = 1, \dots, 4$), C is couple type ($k = 1, \dots, 4$), I is a dummy variable that equals 1 when $i \neq j$ and 0 otherwise, and μ_{ijk} is the (weighted) expected number of unions between partners of race/ethnicity ij among couples of type k .

Sources: 1% and 5% samples of the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses and the 2005-7 American Community Survey.

Figure S3. Odds of Interracial/Ethnic Partnership by Couple Type and Measures of the Availability of Same-Sex Partners, Log-Linear Model Estimates

Panel A. By Percent of Adults in Same-Sex Male Cohabiting Unions



Panel B. By Percent of Adults in Same-Sex Female Cohabiting Unions

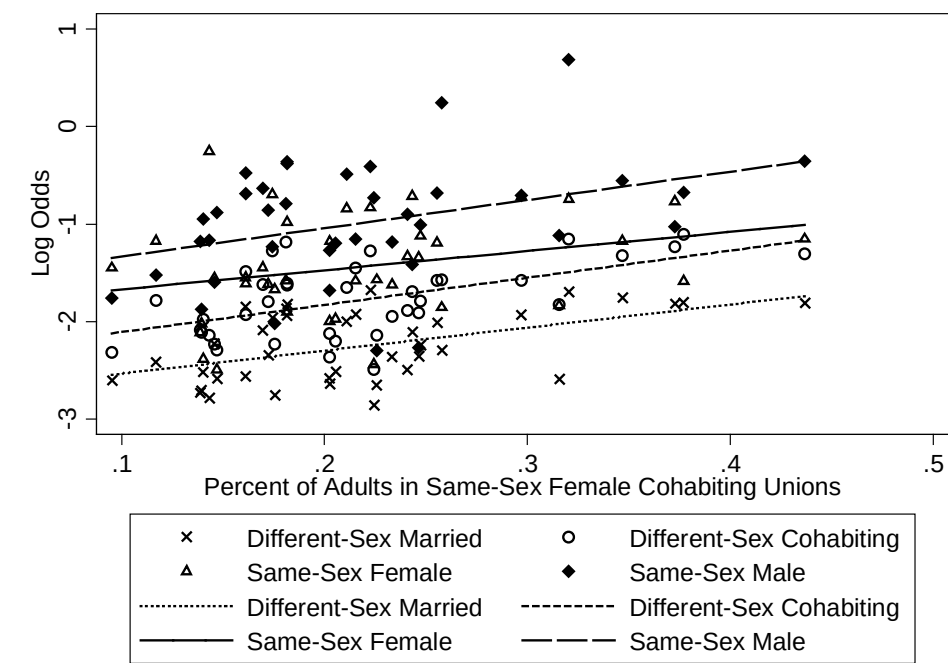
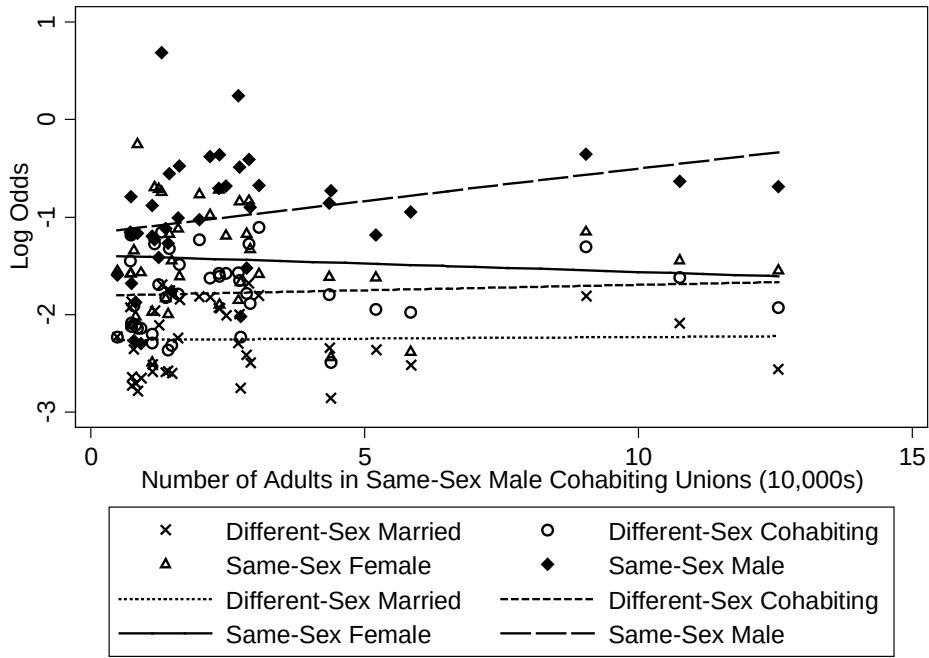
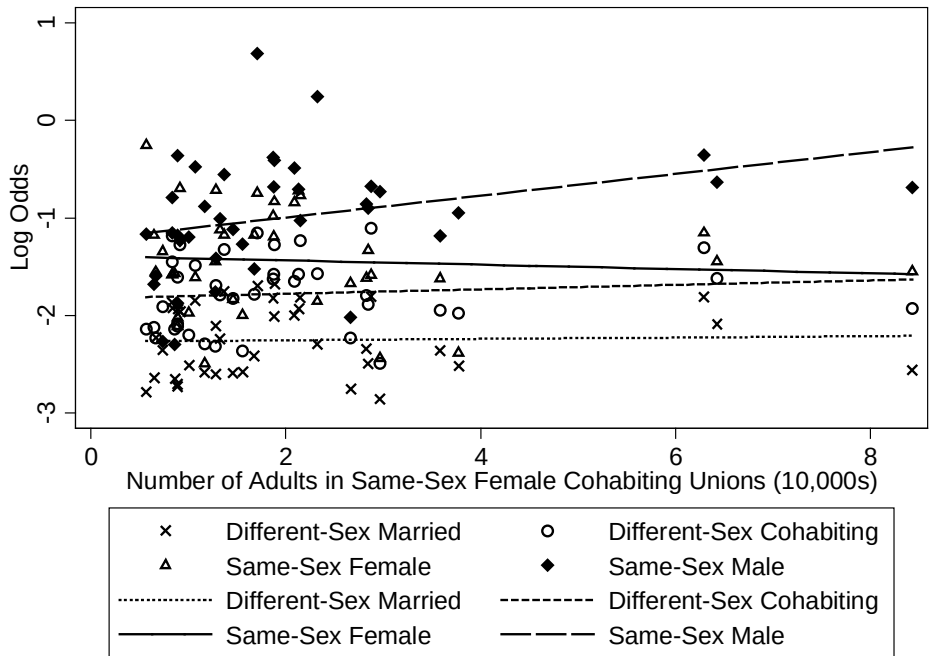


Figure S3. Continued...

Panel C. By Numbers of Individuals in Same-Sex Male Cohabiting Unions



Panel D. By Numbers of Individuals in Same-Sex Female Cohabiting Unions



Notes: Odds are estimated using the following log-linear model for each year separately:

$\log(\mu_{ijk}) = \lambda + \lambda_i^{R1} + \lambda_j^{R2} + \lambda_k^C + \lambda_l^I + \lambda_{ik}^{R1C} + \lambda_{jk}^{R2C} + \lambda_{lk}^{IC}$, where $R1$ is the race/ethnicity of household head in same-sex relationships and the male partner in different-sex relationships and $R2$ is the race/ethnicity of the other partner, C is couple type ($k = 1, \dots, 4$), I equals 1 when $i \neq j$ and 0 otherwise, and μ_{ijk} is the (weighted) expected number of unions between partners of race/ethnicity ij among couples of type k . Because of small sample sizes within metropolitan areas, we collapsed our race/ethnic categories into a dichotomous variable where $ij = 1$ if partner 1 (partner 2) is white and 0 otherwise.

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