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Family Change in Latin America: Schooling and Labor Market Implications for Children and Women

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1. Introduction

This chapter provides an account of the major family transformations that occurred in recent decades across Latin American and Caribbean countries and examines the implications of such transformations for children's school attendance and progress and women's labor force participation. Latin American and Caribbean families and households have undergone substantial changes in recent years while keeping some of their distinctive features unchanged (Esteve et al., 2022; Esteve & Florez-Paredes, 2018a; Juárez & Gayet, 2014). This combination of stability and change has had profound transformations in the family status in which women raise their children and the family context in which children are raised. We refer to *family context* as the combination of women`s marital status and the type of households in which children reside. We combine references to the literature and own calculations based on Latin American and Caribbean population census samples, available at the Integrated Public-use Microdata Series International (IPUMS) (Minnesota Population Center, 2020). We use data from 25 countries based on the most recent census microdata and, in some instances, historical samples starting in the late 1950s (see Appendix 1).

The chapter is organized as follows. First, we document trends in family change and children´s status. To illustrate family change empirically, we focus on women aged 25 to 29 and children aged 7 to 16. For reasons that will be displayed during the paper, these groups offer a reliable overview of major transformations with the advantage of avoiding overlapping cohorts when data are analyzed over time. Variations by educational attainment are also examined to illustrate the role of inequality of opportunities in family change. Second, we focus on the implications of family forms on children's school attendance and progress and women's participation in the labor market. In the absence of tailored indicators about progress in cognitive and non-cognitive skills, school attendance and progress are standard indicators of early human capital accumulation (UNESCO, 2022). We examine these two outcomes among more than 15 million children included in the IPUMS-I census samples. For women, we examine the degree of participation in the labor market (n = 16 million).

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We consider the implications of family contexts on children's outcomes and women's labor force participation as mere associations within variables as we cannot investigate the mechanisms and causal relationships that produce such outcomes. To strengthen our interpretation, we rely on existing studies with causality-oriented designs and discuss the potential linkages among family structures, women's labor force participation, and children's well'-being (Amador & Bernal, 2012; DeRose et al., 2017; S. Reynolds et al., 2018). The chapter ends with a discussion of the main results, including their relation with other chapters and existing studies, and suggestions for future research.

2. Family Change in Latin America

Families are the essential building blocks of human societies. They belong to the most important institutions of human life for their contributions to social, cultural, and economic reproduction. For most individuals, it is within families that primary socialization takes place, and individuals often depend on families for fundamental processes of human capital accumulation and insertion into society. Households are partial congregations of family members. Societies, families, and households revolve around kinship links, which result from various blood and legal links (e.g., marriage or adoption) among individuals.

Despite these general claims, families and households adopt multiple forms across societies and social groups (Bongaarts, 2001; Carmichael & Rijpma, 2017; Goode, 1963; Goody, 1996; Lloyd, 2005; Todd, 1985). Unequal data availability across countries has led to an unequal understanding of global family patterns. The fact that Latin America and the Caribbean were only vaguely included in Goode's (1963) landmark work is a telling example of how global family change has been conceptualized and studied, namely, with a focus on western nations. However, the emergence of new publicly available data sources and research capacities has contributed to countering these knowledge imbalances (Castro Torres, Pesando, et al., 2022; Guzmán et al., 2006; Ruggles, 2014). An emergent body of literature looks at low- and middle-income countries using these newly available data sources (Esteve & Florez-Paredes, 2018a; García & de Oliveira, 2011; Lloyd, 2005; Pesando et al., 2021; Pesando & GFC team, 2019).

Based on trends observed in recent decades, Latin American and Caribbean families and households stand for various unique features closely connected to the region's stratification systems (Cienfuegos & Therborn, 2022). These features include divergent transition patterns to union formation and childbearing by social class. For example, whereas women from lower socioeconomic backgrounds transition to motherhood during their teenage and early adulthood, upper-class women tend to postpone motherhood (Castro Torres, 2021; Lima et al., 2021). These divergent patterns are linked to high levels of economic inequality, particularly income inequality in the region (Ariza & De Oliveira, 2007; Arriagada, 2002; Castro Torres, Batyra, et al., 2022;

Cavenaghi, 2009; J. G. Williamson, 2010). Likewise, among lower socioeconomic status groups, transitions to partnership formation and parenthood are not necessarily concomitant with leaving the parental home. These results in multigenerational and extended co-residence patterns (i.e., households that include non-primary kin or non-relatives). These patterns are furthered in some areas as some families share dwellings as a survival strategy in the absence of access to adequate housing (Ward et al., 2015). The region is also characterized by the historical presence of unmarried cohabitation among highly educated couples and its recent boom (Castro-Martin, 2002; Covre-Sussai et al., 2015; Esteve, Lesthaeghe, et al., 2012; Laplante et al., 2018; Quilodrán, 2004). There exists a substantial amount of union instability, often resulting in single mothers raising their children and the importance of extended and family co-residence likely functional adapted to the needs of young single mothers (Esteve, García-Román, et al., 2012; Goldman, 1981; S. Reynolds & Cakouros, 2022; Ruiz-Vallejo & Solsona i Pairó, 2020).

In addition, Latin America and the Caribbean are far from being racially and ethnically homogeneous, partly due to centuries of European colonization (Cienfuegos & Therborn, 2022; Livi Bacci, 2008). These variations, along with the countless domestic and international confrontations of the 19th century, resulted in distinct combinations of indigenous, mestizos, slavery, and migrant populations (E. Williamson, 2009). Substantial and relevant variations across racial and ethnic groups in family and co-residence patterns display diverse interactions when added to the layer of regional and cultural variations.

A recent summary of trends and literature on Latin America and the Caribbean family patterns has set the overview of the major family transformations in the region, highlighting commonalities, singularities, and variations across social groups (Esteve et al., 2022). Three defining features come across in many research papers and chapters of this book. First, a system of rigid social stratification with limited intergenerational social mobility (Torche, 2014; J. G. Williamson, 2010) as class-specific family ethos are shaped by the divergent material living conditions of socially privileged and socially disadvantaged people. Second, the expansion of educational attainment in the region has not occurred as in other parts of the world, such as Europe or south-East Asia, and continues to be strongly elitist (Ferreyra et al., 2017; Sánchez-Ancochea, 2021; UNESCO, 2022). The underlying culture of democratization of access to education has not occurred in higher education. Third, informality in the housing and labor markets has greatly influenced household structure and family formation patterns (Gasparini & Tornarolli, 2009; Liu et al., 2023).

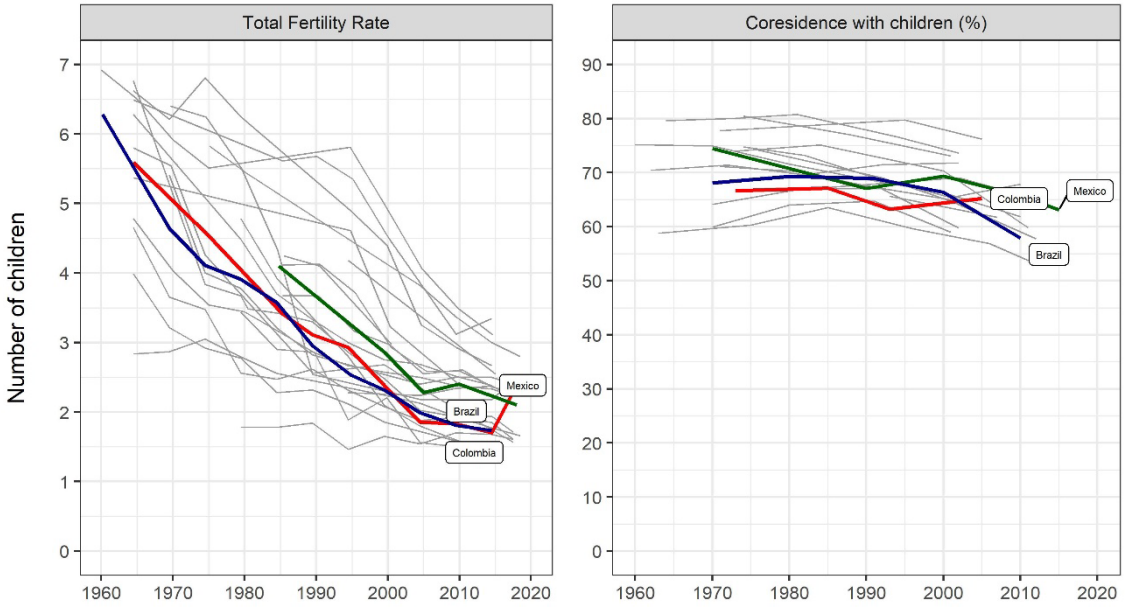
In this weak institutional and strongly stratified setting by gender, social class, and race-ethnicity, demographic patterns must be understood as the results of combined individual-level choices and structural influences. For example, the fluidity of families and the variegated forms of household

arrangements observed in the region should be seen as individual strategies to cope with economic uncertainty as well as consequences of structural problems such as widespread violence and political conflicts (Alvarado & Massey, 2010; Castro Torres & Urdinola, 2019; Caudillo & Lee, 2022).

2.1. Fertility, Union formation, and the Family Status of Mothers

The birth of a baby is a major life course event, often resulting from a pre-existing couple or romantic relationship and presumably a family dynamic. Demographers condense the intensity of childbearing in the period Total Fertility Rate (TFR). The TFR measures the number of births a woman would have in her reproductive life if she survives to age 49 and experiences the prevailing birth intensities of a given period, typically a five-year period. Biological limitations provide a two-digit maximum theoretical value for the TFR. However, most human populations display TFRs far below that theoretical number (Bongaarts & Potter, 1983). An arguably critical value for the TFR is 2.1 children per woman. Interpreting this number as critical assumes that to preserve a population, women should have, on average, 2.1 children: a *future* father and a *future* mother. The decimal figure accounts for potential mortality before adult age. Hence, TFRs below 2.1 could lead to population decline in the absence of immigration; therefore, they are referred to as population replacement fertility.

Figure 1. Trends in Total Fertility and Coresidence with Children among Women 25-29 across Latin American Countries



Source: Left panel - filtered by authors from the ECLAC / Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (https://statistics.cepal.org/). Details about the countries represented in the paper are shown in Appendix 2. Right panel - authors' calculations based on samples from IPUMS international (Appendix 3).

Figure 1 summarizes six decades of demographic changes and stabilities through the lens of the declining country-level TFRs, and stable fractions of women that co-reside with children, i.e., the percentage of women that by age 25 to 29 are mothers (see Appendixes 2 and 3). The compound message of Figure 1 is that fertility has declined within a framework of persistent early transitions to motherhood. More specifically, the left panel shows trends in Total Fertility Rates for 25 Latin American countries. These data have been gathered and harmonized by the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).

The first noticeable trend is that fertility in Latin America and the Caribbean has been declining steadily since 1960 without exception. However, cross-national heterogeneity in both the level and pace of decline existed. Hence, a ranking of countries' TFRs will put Central American countries at the top (e.g., Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras) and Southern Cone nations at the bottom (e.g., Brazil, Chile, Uruguay). We highlight the trajectory of the three largest countries in the region: Mexico, Brazil, and Colombia. These nations are located across a long geographic range and comprise more than half of the region's population. Since 1960 these three countries have displayed constant decline and nowadays are close to or below the so-called replacement fertility level. Several other countries in the regions have already crossed the 2.1 children per woman threshold (e.g., Chile, Costa Rica, Cuba, Jamaica, Puerto Rico, Uruguay), and future prospects anticipate a generalized decline and eventual cross-national convergence (United Nations, 2022). Despite the widespread decline in fertility, many Latin American and Caribbean countries might continue to grow during the following decades, given their relatively young populations. Importantly for the region's economic sustainability is that low fertility levels often lead to population aging, i.e., a large and increasing share of people above retirement age.

One way of looking at the causes of fertility change is through its proximate determinants, i.e., the necessary conditions for births to occur in a population (Bongaarts & Potter, 1983). These determinants include marriage or couple formation rates, the length of postpartum sterility, abortion rates, the frequency of sexual intercourse among couples, fecundity levels, and the prevalence of contraception. Data limitation often prevents a full account of the roles of proximate determinants in fertility change. In Latin America and the Caribbean, scholars highlight the importance of spread in contraception (Bronfman et al., 1986; Castanheira & Kohler, 2017; Cavenaghi, 2009) as well as State-lead sterilization strategies during the period of the fertility transition (Caetano & Potter, 2004; Carranza Ko, 2020). Other more distal determinants, such as educational attainment and changing preferences toward small families, have also been highlighted (Castro-Martín & Juarez, 1995; Ferrara et al., 2012).

In other parts of the world, fertility declines of similar intensity have occurred together with a postponement of age at first child. Less and later children is a hallmark of fertility in western

countries (Sobotka, 2004). In Latin America and the Caribbean, however, we observe a relatively stable early pattern of childbearing closely connected to early union formation (Castro-Martín & Juarez, 1995; Esteve & Florez-Paredes, 2018b). Several articles have documented these peculiar trends by analyzing Demographic and Health Surveys and Census microdata on union formation and fertility (Bongaarts et al., 2017; Guzmán et al., 2006; Lloyd, 2005).

The right panel in Figure 1 provides evidence of these trends by portraying the percentage of women aged 25-29 who co-reside with their children. This information comes directly from population censuses of 17 countries, spanning from 1960 to the most recent census available. Unfortunately, the 2020 census round of data is not yet available in IPUMS. The overall picture is that of stability, with a slight tendency to decrease in recent years. Between 54% to 81% of women 25-29 co-reside with children. Some might have had children but do not co-reside with them.

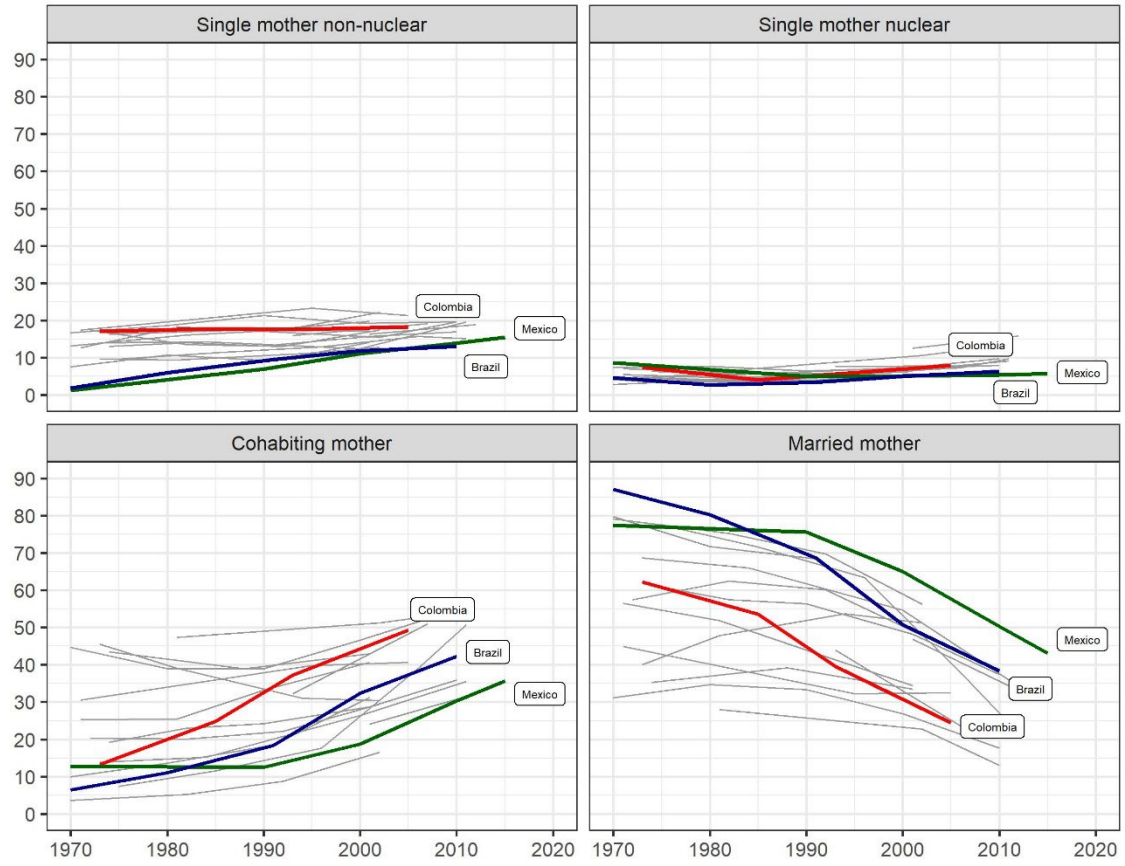
However, the stability of union formation patterns hides significant transformation regarding the nature of unions and the changes by social groups. Regarding unions, the most extraordinary shift has been the rise of unmarried cohabitation in the region and the decline of marriage. Non-marital cohabitation in Latin America has been present since colonial times as a substitute for marriage among the lower social classes (Castro-Martin, 2002; Lesthaeghe, 2020; Quilodrán, 2004). However, their prevalence varies across countries and within them (Esteve & Lesthaeghe, 2016). Regional differences in cohabitation are linked to the ethnic and religious mix of the different regions in Latin America and the Caribbean. A social-class gradient exists in which women and men with a lower level of education and black or indigenous backgrounds have a much higher propensity to form cohabitation than marriage. The interaction of these categories with the intensity of religiousness and the influence of the catholic and newly established evangelical churches explains the rest.

The expansion of cohabitation has taken place across all regions and social strata, while keeping the socio-economic gradients and regional variations in cohabitation intact. Whether the rise in cohabitation is an early manifestation of the second demographic transition or a response to existing constraints and material difficulties is a matter of debate (Covre-Sussai et al., 2015; Lesthaeghe, 2014; Pérez Amador, 2016).

Cohabitating couples have been historically less stable than marriage (Goldman, 1981). Recent data for Colombia suggest that this pattern persists in a context of increasing union instability across all union types (Esteve et al., 2022). As a result of early childbearing and union formation, higher cohabitation and union dissolution, an increasing number of women raise their children without the presence of a male partner (Laplante et al., 2018), also referred as unpartnered or single mothers.

These family patterns could be consequential for child development. Previous studies indicate that children that experienced parental separation display worse cognitive outcomes in Chile compared to those who did not (S. Reynolds, 2022). As a unique feature of Latin American and Caribbean countries, however, a large proportion of these women co-reside with other relatives in an extended household (Esteve, García-Román, et al., 2012), which urge studies to consider family context more broadly beyond union stability and include the presence of other adults such as grandparents (S. Reynolds et al., 2018). Early union formation and childbearing usually imply young grandparents. Extended families are pivotal in providing shelter and support to unpartnered mothers.

Figure 2. Changes in the Family Status of Mothers aged 25-29 who Co-reside with Children across Latin American Countries (see Appendix 4 and 5)



Source: IPUMS international.

Figure 2 illustrates the above-mentioned family trends from the perspective of mothers aged 25-29. We depict the percentage of women mothers in different family statuses. Family status is defined by a combination of marital status, union type, and household composition. The final classification results in four groups: married mother, cohabitating mother, single mother in nuclear household, and single mother in extended household. Nuclear households refer to those living arrangements in which only primary kin are involved. Primary kins are partners, parents and children, and siblings. Unpartnered mothers in nuclear households are women who co-reside

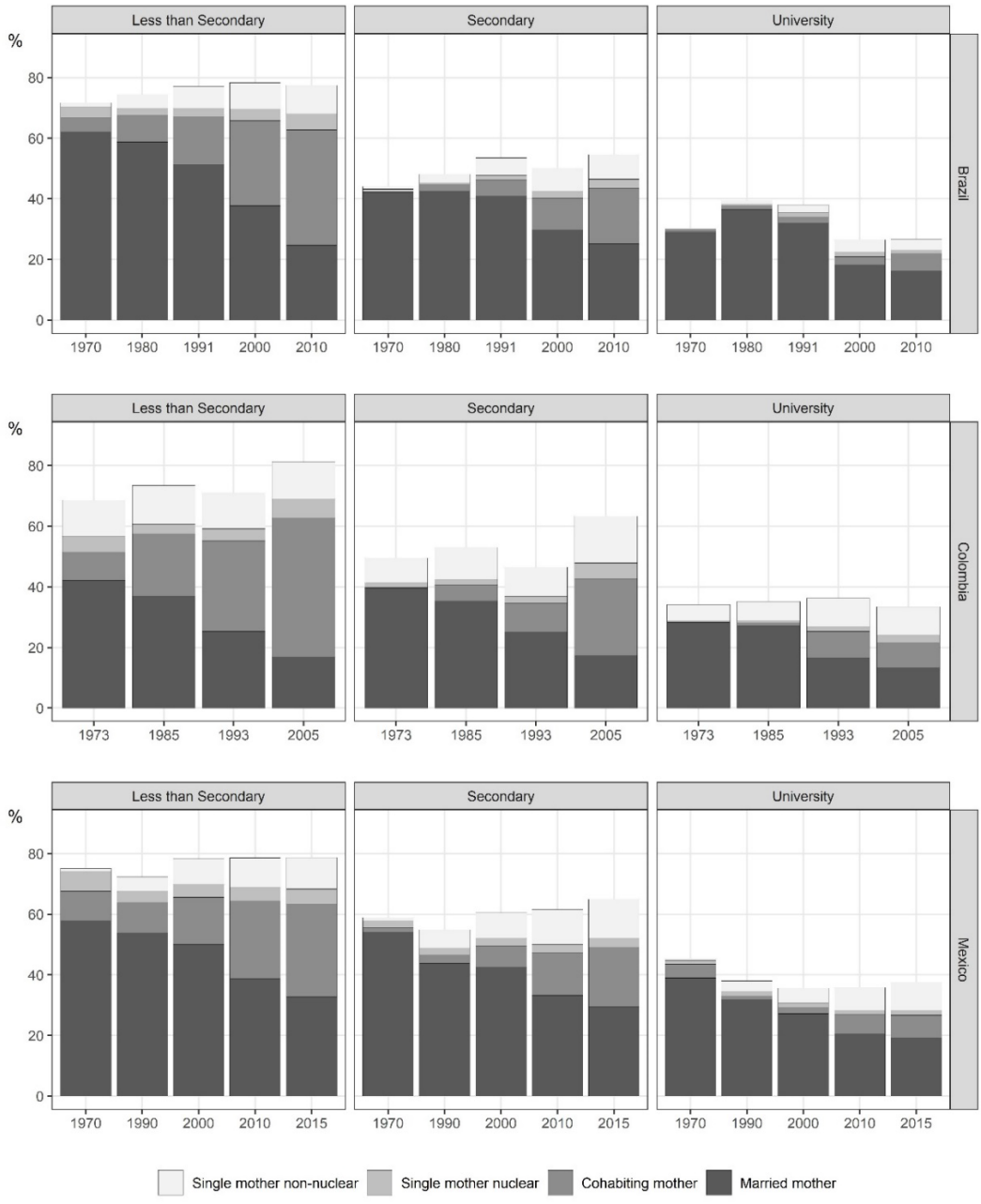
with their children and nobody else. Depicted trends show the substantial decline in marriage and the increase in cohabitation. In the most recent observation, cohabiting mothers outnumber married mothers in 10 of the 17 countries under study (see Appendix 4). Likewise, although at a different pace, the percentage of single mothers has increased. Across all countries and years, single mothers in extended households outnumber single mothers in nuclear household. On average, the first is almost twice as large as the second. For Mexico and Brazil, we observe a steady increase of single mothers in non-nuclear households and more modest increase of single mothers in nuclear households. While census data does not allow examining if some of these women were in partnership before they became mothers, a substantial amount of them will likely result in union dissolution.

The general trends described until this point refer to the total young population. However, research has shown that important variations exist across social groups. Several axes of analysis can be used to examine Latin American and Caribbean populations. The first one is *gender*. Gender is essential as men and women experience different calendars and intensity of family formation. In this paper we focus on adult women and children. A second axis of differentiation is *ethnicity* and *race*. Some Latin American and Caribbean countries have a substantial amount of racial and ethnic diversity (e.g., Mexico and Guatemala, but also the Andean countries: Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia), others are more homogeneous (eg., Argentina, Chile and Uruguay). Population censuses capture this heterogeneity in various ways, which compromises comparability across countries. Family forms vary across ethnic and racial groups. A third axis of classification is *education*. Educational attainment is an important stratification variable in Latin America and the Caribbean, as we show in Figure 3.

In Figure 3, we represent the proportion of women aged 25-29 who co-reside with children (height of the bar) by educational attainment (three panels). We further classify these women based on their family status, using the same categories as in Figure 2. Data are shown for three countries: Brazil, Colombia, and Mexico. Results look similar across all countries. The horizontal axis shows trends over time. First, we see that the proportion of mothers among women aged 25-29 decreases as women's level of education increases. The proportion of mother among 25-29 university graduates stays below 40% across the three countries and census rounds, except in Mexico 1970. By contrast, more than 70% of women with less than secondary education co-reside with children. Among women with secondary education, the share of co-residing children varies from 44% for Brazil 1970 to above 60% for Mexico 2015 and Colombia 2005. Consistent with the idea of stability in early union formation and childbearing (Castro Torres, Batyra, et al., 2022), the shares of women with less than secondary and secondary completed co-residing with children do not diminish over time. In the three countries co-residence with children among these groups is higher in most recent censuses compared to previous ones.

Put together, trends in co-residence with children by educational attainment are divergent. On one side, we observe a maintenance or rejuvenation of trends among the lowest and medium educated women and a maintenance or postponement among the highest. In a context of educational expansion, these trends have yielded an aggregate idea of stabilization at the population level that comes with significant variations across social groups. Recent research on fertility has provided evidence of a bimodal fertility schedule, strongly stratified by educational attainment: lower educated / class women having children at younger ages, and high educated women having children at later ages (Lima et al., 2021; Rios-Neto et al., 2018).

Figure 3. Change in the Percentage of Women Aged 25-29 with Co-resident Children by Family Status and Educational Attainment in Brazil, Colombia and Mexico



Source: IPUMS international.

The stability of union formation and childbearing is one of the unique features of Latin American and Caribbean countries compared to other parts of the world where declines in fertility have been accompanied by postponements of union formation and childbearing (Lesthaeghe, 2014; Rosero-Bixby et al., 2009), largely attribute to the expansion of women's education and labor force participation. In Latin America, however, the expansion of education has taken place without the postponement of partnership formation and childbearing (Cavenaghi, 2009); raising concerns about the quality and transformative role of education in Latin American societies (Batyra, 2020; Bongaarts et al., 2017; Castro-Martín & Juarez, 1995).

The paradox is served: while family transitions are heavily stratified by educational attainment, the expansion of education produces no aggregate effects on postponement. Education becomes a positional good with respect to others but not an agent of transformative behaviors. Relative measures of education based on quintiles of the least and best educated show that ages at union formation and childbearing remain stable over time despite the absolute number of years of schooling attained (Esteve & Florez-Paredes, 2018b). This again refers to the three underlying contextual factors key to understand Latin American family dynamics: inequality, weak educational institutions, and informality in the housing and labor market.

Figure 3 provides information on the family status of women co-residing with children. Across educational groups, we observe a decline in marriage rates, and increases in unmarried cohabitation and single mothers in nuclear and non-nuclear households (extended or composite). We also observe that, in absolute terms, the expansion of unmarried cohabitation is more pronounced among the least educated women. Unmarried cohabitation has been historically more frequent among low educated women but at much lower levels than the ones observed in recent times. Among high educated women, marriage is more common than cohabitation, which does not happen among women with secondary education or less. Across all educational groups, a sizeable share of women co-reside with own children without the presence of a partner in the household. Unpartnered motherhood is more frequent among the least educated women with percentages ranging from 1% to 15% depending on the country and year. Most unpartnered mothers raise their children in extended/composite households, which often include parents and non-primary kin.

2.2. The Family Context of Children and Adolescents

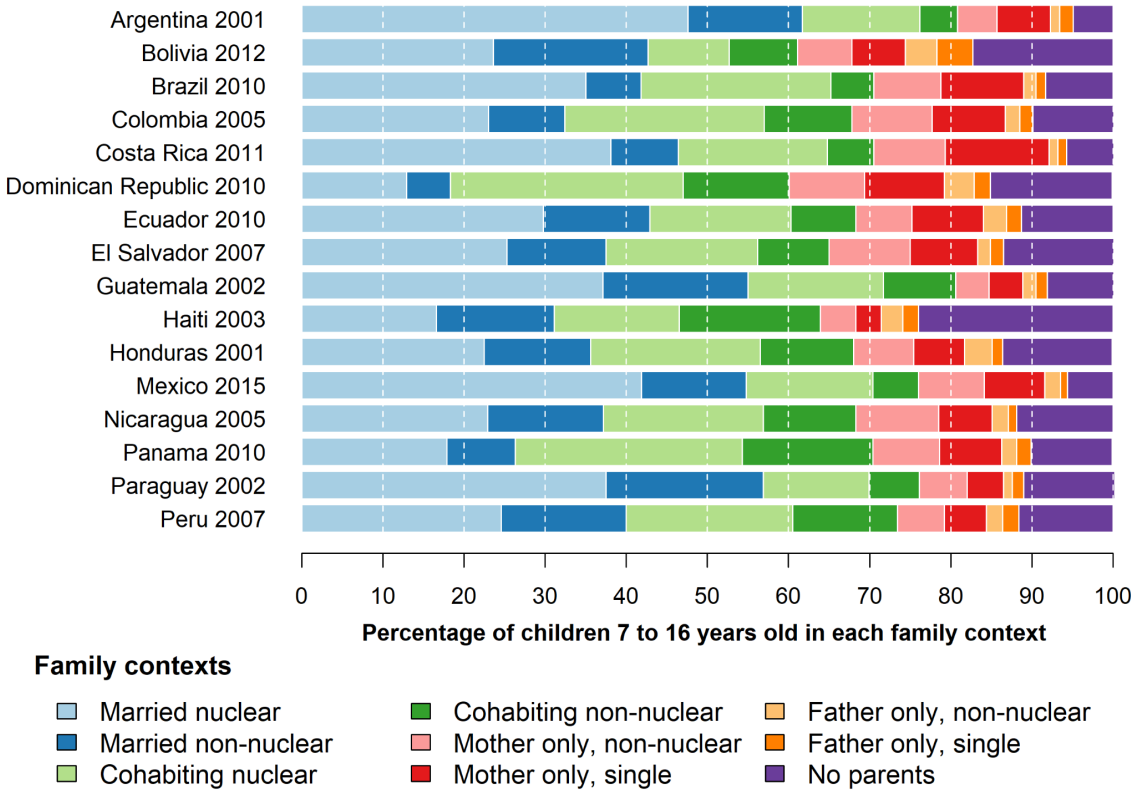
Changes in family formation can also be observed from the perspective of the children. Figure 4 provides a graphical representation of the family context in which children and adolescents, 7 to 16, are raised across Latin American and Caribbean countries. These ages include the most common schooling ages across countries. To characterize the family context of children, we have created nine categories that result from the combination of three variables: co-residence with

parents, women's type of union/partnership, and type of household. *Type of union* applies only to children who co-reside with both parents, and it distinguishes between cohabiting and married couples. *Co-residence with parents* includes 'both parents', 'only mother', 'only father' and 'no parents'. *Type of household* distinguishes between 'nuclear' (exposure to primary kins only) and 'non-nuclear' (exposure to non-primary kin relatives and others).

Between 60% and 80% of children co-reside with both parents. When both parents are present, marriage constitutes, for most countries, the most frequent partnership arrangement except in the Dominican Republic 2002-2010, Colombia 2005, Haiti 2003, and Panama 2000-2010. Depending on the country, children co-residing with cohabiting unions range from 11,9 to 44,1%. Regarding household type, the most common arrangement for children is to live in nuclear households with either cohabiting or married parents. In both married and cohabiting families, we observe a sizable share of non-nuclear households, usually largest among married couples than among cohabiting ones.

The percentage of children living with only their mothers ranges from 7,5% in Haiti 2003 to 21,6% in Costa Rica 2011. Consistent with Figure 3, co-residence with an unpartnered mother takes place in the context of non-nuclear (i.e. extended or composite) living arrangements. By contrast, a small proportion of children co-reside with an unpartnered father (from 1,5% in Costa Rica 2010 to 8,3% in Bolivia 2012). In all countries except Argentina 2001, Bolivia 2012, Costa Rica 2000, and Paraguay 2002, non-nuclear households outnumber nuclear households among unpartnered father households.

Figure 4. The Family Context of Children aged 7 to 16 across Selected Latin American Countries



Source: IPUMS international.

Some children do not co-reside with their parents. This proportion ranges from 23% in Haiti 2003 to less than 5% in Argentina 2001. Censuses do not provide enough information to determine why these children do not live with their parents. Some might have left the parental homes, others might be orphans, others might have their parents away and stay with their grandparents or other relatives. Although the cross-sectional nature of census data limits our understanding of the parental absence and changes in co-residence over childhood (S. Reynolds, 2022; S. Reynolds & Cakouros, 2022), these results indicate that the family context can be a locus for the intergenerational transmission of disadvantages, for example, if absent parents are more likely to be from low socioeconomic backgrounds.

3. Implications for Children and Women

The study of family patterns and trends per se has attracted sociological and demographic interest for its ability to reveal broad changes in the society. In a micro level perspective, family structures have been connected to social disadvantage (Schady et al., 2015). Establishing causal relationships between family structure and children's outcomes requires data with a longitudinal perspective and more conceptual detail than the one available in population censuses. The use of census microdata to examine children's and women's outcome is limited to a very few variables and to basic correlational approaches. This requires caution in the interpretation of results

(Tommasi et al., 2021). With such caveats in mind, next we examine the association between family context and status on children's schooling outcomes and women's labor force participation respectively. We connect these results with existing studies for the United States, and several Latin American and Caribbean countries which had relied on longitudinal data and causality-oriented research designs (Bernal, 2008; Bernal & Keane, 2011; S. Reynolds et al., 2018; S. Reynolds, 2022).

3.1. Implications for Children's School Attendance and Progress

Education is a key variable for the improvement of human wellbeing. Through educational processes individuals acquire cognitive and non-cognitive abilities to develop their cultural, economic, and social potentials. Across the world, countries have put substantial effort in improving the quality and quantity of education as a way of ensuring both individual and societal developments. The United Nations has set a global agenda for improving the educational standards worldwide (UNESCO, 2022). To monitor progress towards these goals, specific indicators have been identified. We focus on school attendance and progress. The first refers to the percentage of all children of schooling ages that attend school. The second one to the percentage of children of a given age that attend the grade or level of school they are expected to attend based on their age.

Multiple factors potentially explain variations in school attendance and progress among children. These factors can be group at several levels: individual, family, community, and institutional. Institutional factors such as school resources or policies have an impact on school attendance as to ensure that all children have access to education and that the mechanisms are in place to monitor children's attendance is a major responsibility of governments worldwide. Local communities also play a role as they provide resources and facilities to implement school policies and they have direct contact with the children and their families. While institutional and local community factors are important at the aggregate level, variations in school attendance within communities might be related to family and individual factors. Families are equipped with unequal cultural and economic resources to promote the educational development of their children. Individual factors such as the ability to learn might also play a role. These factors interact in multiple ways and are responsible for individual variations in school attendance and progress (Amato et al., 2015; DeRose et al., 2017; García & de Oliveira, 2011).

Here we examine the relationship between the family context in which children were living at the time of the census and school attendance. We use a multivariate Poisson regression approach. We run a separate model for every country and year. In total, there are 21 samples. To partially overcome the bias in significance levels due to multiple testing, p-values are corrected using the Bonferroni correction (Shaffer, 1995). The dependent variable is school attendance. This is a

standard variable captured in all Latin American censuses. We restrict the analysis to children aged 7 to 16, which are the most typical schooling ages.

Table 1. Sample sizes and descriptive statistics for children's and women's outcome and country level percentage of urban population and Human Development Index

Country - year	Children			Women		Country	
	Total	Attending school (%)	School progress (%)	Total	Labor force participation	Urban (%)	HDI
Argentina 2001	679,302	94.5	82.7	725,196	64.9	91.2	78.6
Bolivia 2001	203,579	89.3	74.5	164,402	52.9	70.0	63.0
Bolivia 2012	211,766	93.0	92.1	213,322	63.8	73.9	67.5
Brazil 2000	4,219,584	91.9	68.2	4,441,555	65.0	84.8	68.5
Brazil 2010	3,734,468	95.1	n.a.	4,544,588	71.1	87.0	72.7
Colombia 2005	860,714	85.9	73.8	817,081	47.0	80.2	68.9
Costa Rica 2000	84,436	86.1	68.1	83,688	41.3	62.1	72.1
Costa Rica 2011	75,292	90.4	79.5	98,581	53.1	73.5	77.8
Dom. Republic 2002	189,587	87.5	62.3	182,918	84.3	67.4	66.8
Dom. Republic 2010	194,973	92.6	73.0	203,189	53.6	77.4	70.6
Ecuador 2001	267,257	79.4	72.2	257,758	42.7	76.6	68.0
Ecuador 2010	306,501	91.5	83.3	307,500	57.0	66.5	72.6
El Salvador 2007	138,443	82.4	68.0	124,791	49.7	66.8	65.2
Guatemala 2002	292,431	80.3	47.6	218,259	30.1	51.3	56.3
Haiti 2003	209,917	51.0	35.3	182,222	56.4	48.2	44.9
Honduras 2001	162,819	72.3	53.1	118,540	31.7	53.6	57.0
Mexico 2015	2,289,273	92.4	90.5	2,425,567	47.6	78.9	76.6
Nicaragua 2005	131,265	78.1	54.3	109,758	41.8	59.2	60.1
Panama 2000	57,366	89.5	79.0	60,341	54.6	68.7	73.5
Panama 2010	66,228	94.3	84.4	71,385	56.6	70.3	77.4
Paraguay 2002	127,433	86.5	68.1	101,595	48.9	64.5	66.2
Peru 2007	572,249	92.0	84.1	599,083	50.3	80.5	70.4
Total	15,074,883	90.8	74.9	16,051,319	60.1	81.2	71.0

Note: For the regression analyses we excluded 50,365 children who declared being the household head. This exclusion is unlikely to drive our due to its relative small size (0.3% of the sample) and allows us measure more accurately household arrangements based on the parental generation.

Table 1 displays the sample sizes of children and women for our 21 census samples along with the country level percentage of children attending school and with adequate school progress according to their age. These sample sizes are one of the most important strengths of the IPUMS data. For women, Table 1 displays the proportion in the labor market. Finally, the last two columns indicate the percentage of children residing in urban areas and the Human Development Index for each country and year.

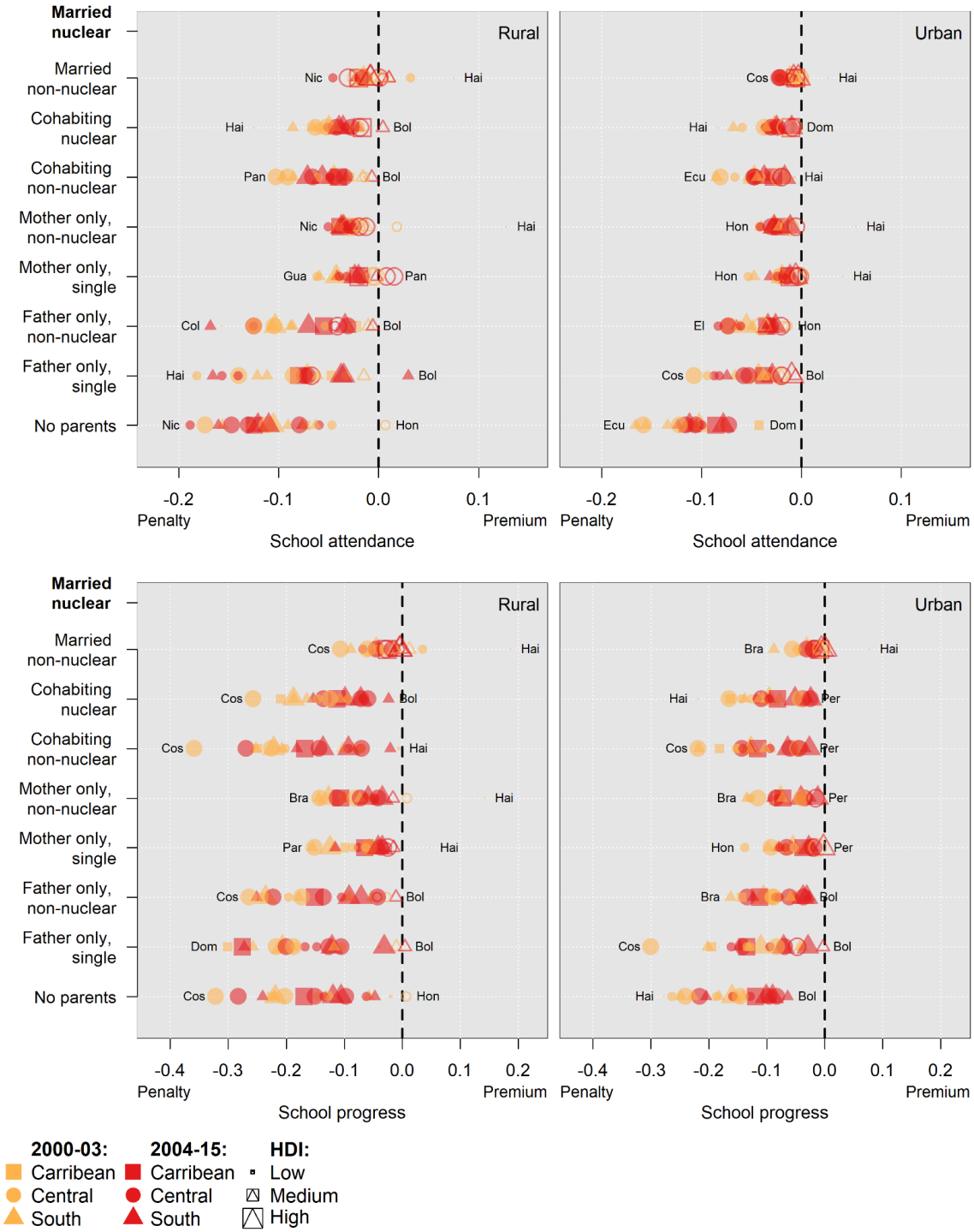
As we move on to document relative gaps in children's schooling and women's labor force participation outcomes, we need to keep in mind overarching levels in these outcomes. Table 1 displays this information. School attendance is above 70% in all samples. The lowest value is observed for Honduras in 2001, where 72.3% of children aged 7 to 16 were attending school at the time of the census. The highest value pertains to Brazil 2010 with 95.1%. Level of school

attendance increase over time across all countries. Same patterns apply for school progress, despite differences in levels. The maximum and minimum for this variable are 35.1% in Haiti 2003 and 92.1% in Bolivia 2012. Although these two outcomes may be correlated, they capture potentially different dimensions of school performance. As for women, labor force participation ranges from 31.7% in Honduras in 2001 to 84.3% in the Dominican Republic in 2002.

Figure 5 shows the country-year-specific coefficients capturing the influence of family context on school attendance (top panel) and progress (bottom panel). For representation purposes, the scale of the x-axes in top and bottom panels are not the same. We label countries with the smallest and largest coefficients within each family context. Full details are available in Appendix 6. Children in *married nuclear* households are taken as the reference group. The horizontal axis represents differences with regard to the reference category expressed in log-scaled relative risk to warrant symmetry. Positive values indicate that children in that family context are more likely to attend school and have progressed more adequately than children in married nuclear households. Negative values indicate the opposite. For example, a coefficient of -0.1 implies a $\exp(-0.1)-1 = 0.905$ relative risk, i.e., 9.5% lower school attendance or adequate school progress among children in a given family context.

We rely on graphical features to contextualize these coefficients. We distinguish between urban and rural areas, and we color the country coefficients based on the period of the census (2000-03 and 2004-15). The shape of the markers indicates sub-regional grouping: Caribbean, Central America, and South America. And their sizes represent the level of the Human Development Index (Low < 0.546, Medium < 0.697, and High < 0.796). Filled symbols identify coefficients that differ from the reference category in a statistically significant way. Unfilled symbols represent parameters that do not differ significantly from the reference category.

Figure 5. Poisson Regression Coefficients for Children School Attendance (top panels) and Progress (bottom panels) by Family Context in Latin American (Appendix 7)



Source: IPUMS international.

Note: Model controls for children's age in two-year age groups, a dummy variable indicating the presence of other children in the household, and the educational attainment of the highest achiever between parents (if present) and the household head. To partially overcome the bias in significance levels due to multiple testing, p-values are corrected using the Bonferroni correction and statistical significance is assessed at a 95% confidence level.

We control for age of the child in two-year age groups, a dummy variable indicating the presence of other children in the household, and the educational attainment of the highest achiever among the child's parents or the household head when the parents were absent. Results on these control variables are not commented in detail but some general remarks can be made. School attendance and progress are negatively correlated with age, and with the presence of other children in the household. This later variable displays the largest and more heterogeneous coefficients across the samples. Expectedly, children living in households where the highest achiever did not finish primary school are less likely to attend school and progress adequately. There are not big gaps between children in households with higher levels of education.

A summary of the main results found in the top panels in Figure 5 regarding school attendance goes as follows. First, there are significant and large variations in levels of school attendance by family context. In most cases, non-marital family contexts are associated with school attendance penalties that range from -0.03 to -0.19, i.e., relative risks between 0.83 and 0.97. Second, such differences are less pronounced in urban areas than in rural areas, which signals the context-dependent nature of family functioning. Third, temporal, geographical, and HDI-related patterns in the role of family contexts on children's school attendance are not apparent; markers of all colors, sizes and shapes are distributed along the range of the regression coefficients. This lack of patterns may be related to the relatively short intercensal period, the arbitrariness of subregional groupings, and the minor variation in countries' HDI (range: 0.449 to 0.786), respectively. However, it may also signal a Latin American and Caribbean specificity where non-marital familial contexts negatively influence children's outcomes over time and across space. This interpretation is in line with studies showing weak country-level correlations between the HDI and partnership regimes and household structure indicators (Pesando & GFC team, 2019). Forthcoming census rounds will be fundamental to further test this interpretation.

On the specific variations in school attendance by family context, several conclusions come into place. Children co-residing with married household in either nuclear or non-nuclear households have the highest rates of school attendance both in rural and urban areas and in all the countries studied. Children in other family contexts have systematically lower levels of school attendance. After children residing with married couples, the highest levels of school attendance are found among children residing with single mothers.

Although our model specifications do not test the statistical significance of all potential comparisons, a visual inspection reveals several patterns. Variations in school attendance by type of household (nuclear versus non-nuclear) among single mothers are relatively small. Children in single mother households show higher levels of school attendance than those residing with cohabiting couples, regardless the type of household. School attendance among children in

cohabiting non-nuclear households is slightly lower than among those in cohabiting nuclear households (i.e., more negative coefficients visually). Notably, the largest difference in school attendance compared to children in married households is found among those who do not live with their mother. Children in motherless households have the lowest levels of school attendance, regardless the presence of the father. The association between motherless households and school attendance is stronger in rural than in urban areas.

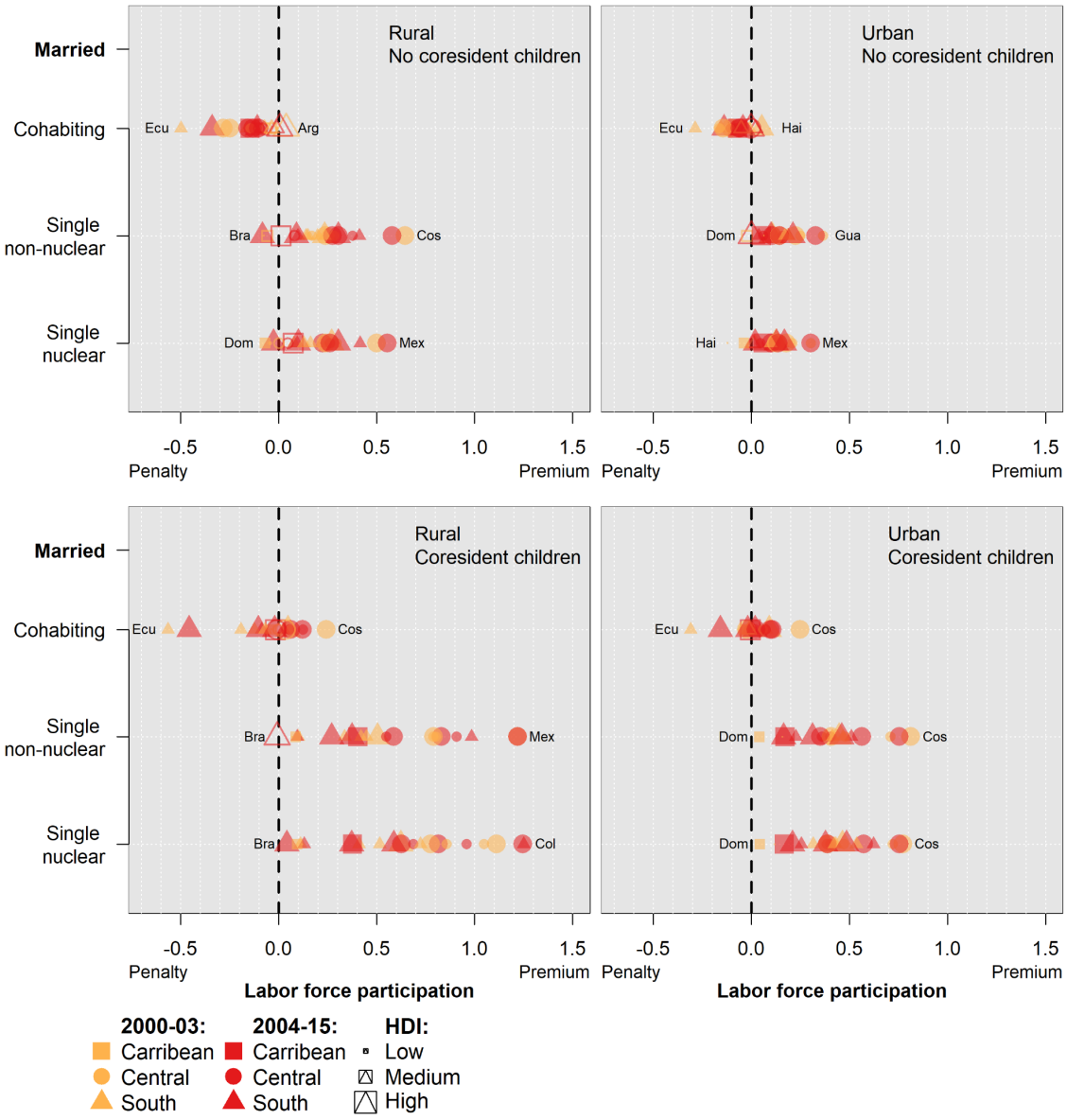
The bottom panels of Figure 5 show the same scheme but for a different outcome variable: school progress. This measures the extent to which the children are attending the corresponding level given their age. It is constructed as a dummy variable where one means the child is in the adequate level for his/her age. The overall pattern is quite similar to the school attendance but, in general, coefficients are more negative and spread, suggesting that there is more heterogeneity across countries. Children co-residing with married couples in nuclear household (reference category) or in non-nuclear household are the ones who show a more adequate school progress according to their age. All other categories fall systematically below them. Again, children living with cohabiting couples or without the mother show lowest scores. In comparison, the school progress shown by children raised in married non-nuclear and single-mother households, regardless of household composition, is closer to the children raised by married couples than any other category.

3.2.Implications for Women's Labor Force Participation

There is ample evidence on the implications of family life, union formation and childbearing on women's professional careers (Becker, 1998; Shelton & John, 1996). The so-called motherhood penalty revolves around the idea that childbearing is many times detrimental to women's pursuing a job career in similar terms than men. Research on this topic has been mainly dominated by studies in western countries where most jobs are created in the formal sectors (Connelly, 1992). In comparison, there is less research in lower income countries with informal economies. Beyond the economy, gender norms also play a role. Men and women are given different roles in production and reproduction tasks (Hu & Mu, 2021; Shelton & John, 1996). Heterosexual couples might have incentives to specialize in roles in adapting to the socially stemmed better job employability of men. While the male breadwinner model has been eroding in western societies as a result massive entrance of women in the labor force participation and tertiary education, this trend is far from reaching similar levels in Latin America and the Caribbean. In this section we investigate if there are significant differences in labor force participation among women based on their family status. This analysis builds on census microdata for 16 countries and follows the same visualization strategy as in Figure 5.

Figure 6 shows women's log-scaled relative risk of being in the labor force for family statuses other than *Married* (reference category). We compare childless women (top panels) with mothers (bottom panels) in rural (left) and urban (right) areas. To be more precise, we compare women who have co-residence children (mothers) with women with no co-resident children. The latter might be childless (presumably many of them) but some might have children living elsewhere. Models control for women's age and educational attainment.

Figure 6. Poisson Regression Coefficients for Women's Labor Force Participation by Family Status in selected Latin American and Caribbean countries (Appendix 8).



Source: IPUMS international.

Note: Model controls for women's age in four-year age groups (18 to 21, 22 to 25, …, 42 to 46), and three categories of educational attainment (Less than primary, Primary or secondary school, Univesitary education). To partially overcome the bias in significance levels due to multiple testing, p-values are corrected using the Bonferroni correction and statistical significance is assessed at a 95% confidence level.

Several general conclusions arise from the observation of these panels. First, family status matters for labor force participation. Unpartnered/single women are more likely to be in the labor market than partnered women, particularly among mothers. The association between cohabitation and labor force participation, instead, varies from positive to negative across countries, reflecting the cultural and social class diversity of cohabitation arrangements. Only among childless women (top panels), cohabitation seems to be negatively associated with labor force participation, particularly in rural areas. Second, variations on women's labor force participation by family status are larger for mothers than for women without children. Third, coefficients are also larger for rural than for urban areas. Female labor force participation is lower in rural than in urban areas, which may contribute to greater relative gaps in the former areas. As for the results for children's school attendance and progress, there are not clear patterns over time, across space and by HDI level, suggesting the potential persistency of family contexts on children's and women's outcomes. The coefficients for the control variables display expected patterns. Labor force participation is positively associated with women's age and educational attainment.

4. Discussion

In this chapter we have exploited census microdata samples to provide an overarching view of the main family transformations in Latin America and the Caribbean over recent decades. Our analysis has been complemented with the references to the literature. We have also examined the implications of family status and context on children's schooling attendance and progress and women's labor force participation patterns.

Consistent with previous studies, our analyses showed the relevance of family status and contexts for women and children, i.e., for the reproduction of populations and societies and suggest a careful consideration of family change in the institutional design of policies related to children's wellbeing and women's participation in society. While mainstream views of societies often distinguish between productive and reproductive work, our findings emphasize that reproductive work is a fundamental prerequisite for productive activities. This insight blurs the boundaries between these two domains (Fraser, 2022). In addition, we extend existing evidence by offering a dynamic perspective that links long-term demographic transformations with women's labor force participation and children's schooling outcomes across sixteen Latin American and Caribbean countries. This perspective adds nuances to exiting interpretations by highlighting that family structures cannot be solely blamed for negative or undermined outcomes among children (Amador & Bernal, 2012; Bernal & Keane, 2011). For example, research in the US has document heterogenous associations between father connectedness and children's' outcomes by race, which indicates that the societal (i.e., racialized) context shape the influence of family structures on children's development (Vogel et al., 2006). Likewise, our results reinforce the call for further

recognition and support to women's economic contributions. Together with evidence on the lack of negative consequences of mothers' engagement in the labor market to child development (Halim et al., 2023; S. A. Reynolds et al., 2017), our result highlight the need to support working mothers, particularly those in single-mother nuclear living arrangements.

We have shown that families in Latin American and the Caribbean have experienced profound transformations in recent decades. These transformations include dramatic declines in fertility, class-specific patterns of early and delayed transitions to union formation and childbearing, significant increases in cohabitation, union dissolutions, and single motherhood. We have also observed a significant number of young mothers, partnered and unpartnered, that co-reside in non-nuclear households. These transformations have had significant impact of the family status and context of women and children respectively. An increasing number of mothers raise their children outside of marriage, mainly within cohabiting unions but also as single mothers. These trends hold for all ethnic/racial and educational groups. The proportion of mothers at young ages stays relatively stable but the family context of motherhood has changed dramatically because of changes in union type and union dissolution. Cohabiting unions have been characterized as less stable than married ones.

We have shown that family context matters for both children's and women's outcomes. We have found strong and statistically robust associations between family context in which children are raised and their levels of school attendance and progress. Children of intact married couples perform better than any other children both in terms of attendance and progress. After them, children in single mother households perform better than children raised in cohabiting couples and much better than children in motherless households. These findings show the importance of the presence of the mother in the household. The difference between cohabiting and single mother households is particularly intriguing, as the presence of a father in the former might be read as detrimental of the children's performance. Despite controls, these models are not sufficiently developed to establish any kind of causal relationship and to unveil the potential mechanisms. These results should be read in combination of the ample sociological and anthropological literature of women's agency in single mother households, which have not been echoed in this chapter. Regarding the differential labor force participation of women based on their family status, we found that single mothers are more likely to participate in the labor market than any other women. Future research with more detailed data should investigate the links between single motherhood, children's schooling outcomes and women's labor force participation and their impact on the reproduction of inequality.

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Appendix 1.Latin American and Caribbean Population Census samples used in this study

Country	Decade							Tot. No.
	60s	70s	80s	90s	00s	10s	15s	Samples
Argentina		1970	1980	1991	2001			4
Bolivia		1976		1992	2001	2012		4
Brazil		1970	1980	1991	2000	2010		5
Chile		1970	1982	1992	2002			4
Colombia		1973	1985	1993	2005			4
Costa Rica		1973	1984		2000	2011		4
Dominican Republic			1981		2002	2010		3
Ecuador		1974	1982	1990	2001	2010		5
El Salvador					2007			1
Guatemala	1964	1973	1981	1994	2002			5
Haiti					2003			1
Honduras		1974	1988		2001			3
Mexico		1970		1990	2000	2010	2015	5
Nicaragua		1971		1995	2005			3
Panama	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010		6
Paraguay	1962	1972	1982	1992	2002			5
Peru				1993	2007			2
Uruguay	1963	1975	1985	1996	2006	2011		6
Venezuela		1971	1981	1990	2001			4
Tot. No. Samples	4	15	13	14	19	8	1	74

Source: IPUMS international.

Appendix 2. Total Fertility Rate in selected Latin American and Caribbean countries

Country	Total Fertility Rate							
	50s	60s	70s	80s	90s	00s	10s	15s
Argentina			3,4	2,9	2,7	2,5	2,3	2,2
Bolivia			5,8	5,4		3,8	3,0	2,8
Brazil		6,3	4,1	3,6	2,5	2,0	1,7	
Chile	4,8	4,7	3,5	2,5	2,3	1,9	1,9	1,6
Colombia		5,6	4,5	3,4	2,9	1,9	1,7	2,3
Costa Rica	7,0	6,8	3,8	3,5	2,9	2,0	1,8	1,7
Cuba			1,8	1,8	1,5	1,5	1,7	1,6
Dominican Republic				3,7	3,7	3,0	2,6	2,3
Ecuador		6,4	6,2	4,3		2,2	2,2	2,5
El Salvador				4,2	4,1	3,0		
Guatemala		6,5		5,6	5,7	4,5	3,3	
Haiti		6,9	5,9		5,8	4,1	3,1	
Honduras	5,9	6,6	6,8		4,9	3,3	2,7	
Jamaica		5,8	4,3	2,6	2,7	2,4		1,6
Mexico				4,1	2,9	2,3		2,1
Nicaragua	5,0	5,4			4,6	3,2		
Panama	5,2	5,4	4,0	3,2	2,7	2,4	2,5	2,4
Paraguay					4,2			2,5
Peru				4,1	4,1	2,9	2,6	2,2
Puerto Rico	4,6	4,0	2,9	2,3	2,1	1,6		
Saint Lucia			4,8	3,9	2,8	1,8	1,4	
Suriname					2,3	2,2	2,4	
Trinidad and Tobago	5,3	4,8	4,0	3,4	1,9	1,6		
Uruguay		2,8	3,0	2,6	2,2	2,1	1,9	1,7
Venezuela		6,3	4,5	3,7	3,0	2,7	2,4	

Source: filtered Latin American and Caribbean countries by authors from the ECLAC / Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (https://statistics.cepal.org/).

Appendix 3. Percentage of women 25-29 co-residing with children across selected Latin American and Caribbean countries

Country	Decade						
	60s	70s	80s	90s	00s	10s	15s
Argentina		60	64	65	59		
Bolivia		74		69	65	58	
Brazil		68	69	69	66	58	
Chile		64	67	67	60		
Colombia		67	67	63	65		
Costa Rica		74	75		70	60	
Dominican Republic			67		69	66	
Ecuador		75	73	70	65	68	
Guatemala	80	80	81	77	74		
Honduras		80	77		73		
Mexico		74		67	69	66	63
Nicaragua		78		80	76		
Panama	75	75	72	69	66	62	
Paraguay	70	71	70	71	72		
Peru				66	62		
Uruguay	59	60	64	60	57	54	
Venezuela		71	70	68	65		

Source: IPUMS international.

Appendix 4. Percentage of married and cohabiting mothers 25-29 co-residing with children across selected Latin American and Caribbean countries

Country	Married Mother						Cohabiting Mother					
	70s	80s	90s	00s	10s	15s	70s	80s	90s	00s	10s	15s
Argentina	80	72	68	49			10	14	19	31		
Bolivia				47	33					24	32	
Brazil	87	80	69	51	38		6	11	18	32	42	
Chile	79	75	70	56			4	5	9	17		
Colombia	62	54	40	24			13	25	37	49		
Costa Rica	69	66		55	36		14	15		26	36	
Dom. Rep.		28		23	13			47		51	54	
Ecuador	61	58	56	48	37		19	23	24	29	36	
Guatemala	40	48	54	51			46	39	31	30		
Honduras	35	39		34			43	39		43		
Mexico	77		76	65	50	43	13		13	19	30	36
Nicaragua	45		32	33			31		40	41		
Panama	31	35	33	27	18		45	39	39	47	55	
Paraguay	57	63	60	48			20	20	22	29		
Peru			44	22					32	51		
Uruguay	78	72	63	38	24		7	12	18	39	51	
Venezuela	57	52	44	34			25	25	33	41		

Source: IPUMS International.

Appendix 5. Percentage of single mothers 25-29 co-residing with children across selected Latin American and Caribbean countries

Country	Single Mother Nuclear						Single Mother non-Nuclear					
	70s	80s	90s	00s	10s	15s	70s	80s	90s	00s	10s	15s
Argentina	3	4	4	6			8	11	9	14		
Bolivia				13	16					16	19	
Brazil	5	3	3	5	6		2	6	10	12	13	
Chile	4	3	4	5			13	16	17	22		
Colombia	7	4	6	8			17	18	18	18		
Costa Rica	4	5		7	9		14	14		13	20	
Dom. Rep.		6		11	13			18		16	20	
Ecuador	6	6	6	7	10		13	14	13	16	17	
Guatemala	5	4	4	6			10	9	11	13		
Honduras	5	5		6			16	17		17		
Mexico	9		5	5	5	6	1		7	11	14	16
Nicaragua	7		5	6			17		23	21		
Panama	8	8	7	7	8		17	19	21	19	20	
Paraguay	5	4	5	5			17	14	13	17		
Peru			8	8					16	19		
Uruguay	5	6	6	7	10		10	11	13	16	15	
Venezuela	6	5	5	5			13	18	17	20		

Source: IPUMS International.

Appendix 6. Poisson regression coefficients for children's school attendance by family context in selected Latin American and Caribbean countries

Country	2000-03								2004-15							
	MnN	CN	CnN	MonN	MoN	FonN	FoN	nP	MnN	CN	CnN	MonN	MoN	FonN	FoN	nP
Rural																
Argentina	-0,01	-0,05	-0,04	-0,04	-0,04	-0,10	-0,07	-0,11								
Bolivia	0,01	-0,02	-0,03	*-0,01*	-0,04	*-0,01*	-0,01	-0,09	0,01	0,00	-0,01	-0,03	*0,00*	*-0,01*	0,03	-0,08
Brazil	-0,02	-0,07	-0,10	-0,03	-0,03	-0,09	-0,12	-0,11								
Colombia									-0,02	-0,02	-0,03	-0,03	-0,04	-0,17	-0,17	-0,16
Costa Rica	-0,02	-0,06	-0,09	-0,02	*-0,01*	-0,10	-0,14	-0,16	-0,03	-0,04	-0,07	*-0,01*	*0,01*	-0,12	-0,07	-0,15
Dom. Rep.	-0,01	*-0,02*	-0,03	-0,02	*-0,01*	-0,02	-0,05	-0,07	-0,02	-0,02	-0,04	-0,04	-0,02	-0,05	-0,08	-0,12
Ecuador	-0,01	-0,09	-0,09	-0,04	-0,04	-0,09	-0,11	-0,13	-0,01	-0,04	-0,06	-0,04	-0,02	-0,03	-0,04	-0,12
El Salvador									0,00	-0,05	-0,05	-0,03	-0,04	-0,04	-0,16	-0,06
Guatemala	-0,01	-0,06	-0,06	-0,04	-0,06	-0,05	-0,03	-0,05								
Haiti	0,08	-0,12	*-0,01*	0,13	-0,01	-0,16	-0,18	-0,08								
Honduras	0,03	-0,03	-0,01	0,02	-0,02	*-0,02*	-0,18	0,01								
Mexico									-0,02	-0,03	-0,04	-0,03	-0,02	-0,03	-0,07	-0,13
Nicaragua									-0,05	-0,03	-0,05	-0,05	-0,03	-0,13	-0,14	-0,19
Panama	*-0,02*	-0,05	-0,10	-0,03	*0,00*	-0,12	-0,09	-0,12	*0,00*	-0,02	-0,03	*-0,02*	*0,02*	*-0,04*	*-0,07*	-0,08
Paraguay	*0,00*	-0,04	-0,02	-0,02	-0,06	-0,11	-0,06	-0,06								
Peru									-0,01	-0,04	-0,07	-0,04	-0,02	-0,07	-0,04	-0,11
Urban																
Argentina	-0,01	-0,03	-0,05	-0,03	-0,02	-0,06	-0,04	-0,10								
Bolivia	*0,00*	-0,03	-0,04	-0,03	-0,02	-0,03	-0,02	-0,16	-0,01	*-0,02*	*-0,03*	-0,03	-0,02	-0,03	*-0,01*	-0,11
Brazil	-0,02	-0,03	-0,05	-0,04	-0,03	-0,05	-0,07	-0,16								
Colombia									-0,01	-0,03	-0,04	-0,03	-0,03	-0,07	-0,07	-0,12
Costa Rica	-0,02	-0,04	-0,08	-0,03	-0,02	-0,07	-0,11	-0,17	-0,02	-0,03	-0,05	-0,03	*0,00*	-0,07	-0,06	-0,11
Dom. Rep.	*-0,01*	0,00	-0,02	-0,01	0,00	-0,03	-0,03	-0,04	*-0,01*	-0,01	-0,03	-0,02	-0,01	-0,03	-0,04	-0,09
Ecuador	-0,01	-0,07	-0,08	-0,03	-0,01	-0,06	-0,04	-0,17	-0,01	-0,02	-0,04	-0,03	-0,01	-0,03	-0,03	-0,11
El Salvador									*-0,02*	-0,04	-0,05	-0,03	-0,02	-0,08	-0,09	-0,10
Guatemala	*-0,01*	-0,04	-0,04	-0,01	-0,02	-0,02	-0,04	-0,08								
Haiti	0,03	-0,08	-0,01	0,05	*0,04*	-0,05	-0,05	-0,08								
Honduras	*0,00*	-0,06	-0,07	-0,04	-0,05	-0,01	-0,09	*-0,11*								
Mexico									-0,02	-0,02	-0,05	-0,03	-0,01	-0,03	-0,05	-0,12
Nicaragua									-0,01	-0,04	-0,05	-0,04	-0,02	-0,06	-0,08	-0,11
Panama	*0,00*	-0,02	-0,02	*-0,01*	*0,00*	-0,04	*-0,02*	-0,11	*-0,01*	*-0,01*	-0,02	-0,01	*0,00*	-0,02	-0,02	-0,07
Paraguay	*0,00*	-0,04	-0,04	-0,02	-0,05	-0,04	-0,04	-0,13								
Peru									*0,00*	-0,01	-0,02	-0,01	-0,01	-0,03	-0,01	-0,08

Source: IPUMS International.

Note: coefficients in italics are not statistically significant at the 95% confidence interval.

Appendix 7. Poisson regression coefficients for children's school progress by family context in selected Latin American and Caribbean countries

Country	2000-03								2004-15							
	MnN	CN	CnN	MonN	MoN	FonN	FoN	nP	MnN	CN	CnN	MonN	MoN	FonN	FoN	nP
Rural																
Argentina	-0,04	-0,19	-0,22	-0,13	-0,12	-0,24	-0,21	-0,22								
Bolivia	*0,01*	-0,07	-0,08	*-0,06*	-0,05	*-0,05*	-0,01	-0,06	0,00	-0,02	-0,02	-0,02	-0,02	-0,01	0,00	-0,05
Brazil	-0,09	-0,19	-0,25	-0,14	-0,12	-0,18	-0,26	-0,22								
Colombia									-0,04	-0,15	-0,18	-0,10	-0,12	-0,25	-0,27	-0,24
Costa Rica	-0,11	-0,26	-0,36	-0,14	*-0,15*	-0,26	-0,22	-0,32	-0,04	-0,14	-0,27	-0,11	-0,06	-0,22	-0,20	-0,28
Dom. Rep.	*-0,04*	*-0,21*	-0,25	-0,10	*-0,10*	-0,24	-0,30	-0,23	-0,03	-0,11	-0,17	-0,11	-0,06	-0,15	-0,28	-0,17
Ecuador	-0,01	-0,16	-0,21	-0,05	-0,04	-0,10	-0,12	-0,13	0,00	-0,10	-0,14	-0,03	-0,03	-0,07	-0,12	-0,12
El Salvador									0,00	-0,10	-0,07	-0,06	-0,08	-0,04	-0,15	-0,06
Guatemala	-0,03	-0,14	-0,20	-0,06	-0,08	-0,20	-0,10	-0,15								
Haiti	0,19	-0,12	*-0,01*	0,14	*0,05*	-0,03	-0,04	-0,02								
Honduras	*0,04*	-0,09	-0,07	0,01	-0,06	*-0,03*	-0,18	*0,01*								
Mexico									-0,02	-0,06	-0,07	-0,04	-0,04	-0,04	-0,10	-0,10
Nicaragua									-0,07	-0,07	-0,09	-0,05	-0,03	-0,10	-0,17	-0,13
Panama	*-0,06*	-0,12	-0,23	*-0,08*	*-0,06*	-0,17	*-0,19*	-0,20	-0,03	-0,07	-0,14	-0,07	-0,02	-0,14	-0,13	-0,15
Paraguay	*-0,01*	-0,11	-0,10	-0,07	-0,16	-0,09	-0,12	-0,12								
Peru									0,00	-0,07	-0,09	-0,06	-0,04	-0,09	-0,03	-0,11
Urban																
Argentina	-0,03	-0,10	-0,13	-0,08	-0,05	-0,11	-0,11	-0,16								
Bolivia	0,00	-0,08	-0,09	-0,04	-0,04	-0,05	-0,04	-0,18	-0,01	*-0,03*	*-0,03*	-0,02	*-0,02*	*-0,03*	*0,00*	-0,06
Brazil	-0,09	-0,14	-0,22	-0,13	-0,08	-0,16	-0,20	-0,25								
Colombia									-0,02	-0,10	-0,13	-0,09	-0,08	-0,12	-0,15	-0,20
Costa Rica	-0,06	-0,16	-0,22	-0,12	-0,09	-0,09	-0,30	-0,24	-0,03	-0,11	-0,14	*-0,08*	*-0,07*	-0,13	-0,14	-0,22
Dom. Rep.	-0,02	-0,16	-0,18	-0,08	-0,07	-0,14	-0,20	-0,16	*-0,01*	-0,08	-0,12	-0,07	-0,04	-0,11	-0,14	-0,12
Ecuador	-0,01	-0,11	-0,13	-0,04	-0,03	-0,06	-0,04	-0,14	-0,01	-0,05	-0,06	-0,04	-0,03	-0,04	-0,07	-0,10
El Salvador									*-0,02*	-0,10	-0,09	-0,08	-0,07	-0,08	-0,09	-0,13
Guatemala	-0,05	-0,13	-0,15	-0,04	-0,05	-0,10	-0,13	-0,26								
Haiti	0,08	-0,22	-0,12	-0,04	-0,09	-0,06	-0,18	-0,28								
Honduras	-0,02	-0,14	-0,15	-0,13	-0,14	-0,06	-0,13	-0,19								
Mexico									-0,02	-0,04	-0,06	-0,04	-0,02	-0,04	-0,07	-0,08
Nicaragua									-0,02	-0,12	-0,14	-0,08	-0,08	-0,08	-0,16	-0,16
Panama	-0,01	-0,04	-0,05	-0,04	-0,01	-0,09	-0,08	-0,15	*-0,02*	*-0,02*	-0,04	*-0,02*	*-0,02*	*-0,06*	*-0,05*	-0,10
Paraguay	-0,01	-0,11	-0,10	-0,07	-0,10	-0,06	-0,13	-0,23								
Peru									*0,00*	-0,02	-0,03	-0,01	0,00	-0,03	-0,03	-0,09

Source: IPUMS International.

Note: coefficients in italics are not statistically significant at the 95% confidence interval.

Appendix 8. Poisson regression coefficients for women's labor force participation by family status in selected Latin American and Caribbean countries

Country	No coresident children						Coresident children					
	2000-03			2004-15			2000-03			2004-15		
	Co.	Si.N.	Si.nN.	Co.	Si.N.	Si.nN.	Co.	Si.N.	Si.nN.	Co.	Si.N.	Si.nN.
Rural												
Argentina	0,039	0,271	0,235				0,047	0,623	0,505			
Bolivia	-0,074	0,078	0,140	*-0,009*	0,095	0,098	-0,193	0,112	0,100	-0,086	0,131	0,094
Brazil	-0,163	0,220	0,199	-0,108	-0,026	-0,083	-0,124	0,410	0,337	-0,104	0,042	*-0,008*
Colombia				-0,118	0,415	0,412				0,025	1,250	0,985
Costa Rica	-0,247	0,501	0,645	-0,156	0,225	0,306	0,243	1,112	1,219	0,123	0,817	0,831
Dom. Rep.	-0,037	-0,068	-0,058	-0,144	0,074	*0,012*	-0,038	0,096	0,088	-0,017	0,377	0,404
Ecuador	-0,498	0,163	0,149	-0,339	0,100	0,092	-0,565	0,516	0,420	-0,456	0,373	0,270
El Salvador				-0,080	0,047	0,081				0,055	0,688	0,550
Guatemala	-0,062	0,297	0,286				0,063	1,048	0,802			
Haiti	*-0,009*	-0,043	-0,074				-0,037	0,121	0,072			
Honduras	-0,142	*0,003*	0,170				*-0,002*	0,857	0,790			
Mexico				-0,102	0,556	0,581				0,062	1,246	1,220
Nicaragua				-0,100	0,263	0,378				0,125	0,960	0,909
Panama	-0,281	0,242	0,240	-0,129	0,264	0,276	0,036	0,776	0,792	*-0,011*	0,628	0,588
Paraguay	*-0,036*	0,130	0,237				-0,069	0,724	0,448			
Peru				*0,005*	0,304	0,305				-0,020	0,588	0,374
Urban												
Argentina	0,052	0,124	0,105				0,091	0,465	0,448			
Bolivia	-0,155	*0,018*	0,189	*0,020*	*0,006*	0,038	*-0,008*	0,316	0,383	-0,013	0,254	0,226
Brazil	-0,009	0,132	0,136	*-0,002*	0,020	*0,000*	0,074	0,430	0,411	0,019	0,210	0,165
Colombia				-0,092	0,159	0,188				0,009	0,623	0,509
Costa Rica	-0,105	0,179	0,226	-0,064	0,102	0,107	0,248	0,774	0,814	0,108	0,574	0,564
Dom. Rep.	-0,035	-0,037	-0,023	-0,071	0,061	0,051	-0,022	0,043	0,042	*-0,006*	0,167	0,172
Ecuador	-0,287	0,159	0,182	-0,141	0,127	0,100	-0,310	0,536	0,468	-0,158	0,378	0,311
El Salvador				-0,075	0,046	0,060				0,020	0,405	0,360
Guatemala	-0,109	0,303	0,367				0,061	0,721	0,710			
Haiti	0,095	-0,121	0,064				0,011	0,119	0,158			
Honduras	-0,163	0,209	0,251				-0,042	0,471	0,480			
Mexico				*-0,002*	0,304	0,329				0,097	0,755	0,755
Nicaragua				-0,106	0,116	0,160				0,074	0,384	0,405
Panama	-0,143	0,127	0,143	-0,057	0,138	0,145	-0,024	0,389	0,408	0,024	0,390	0,352
Paraguay	-0,053	0,098	0,169				*-0,011*	0,422	0,415			
Peru				-0,043	0,168	0,211				-0,019	0,485	0,460

Source: IPUMS International.

Note: coefficients in italics are not statistically significant at the 95% confidence interval.