TECHNICAL NOTE Nº IDB-TN- 02948

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Cataloging-in-Publication data provided by the
Inter-American Development Bank
Felipe Herrera Library
Muñoz, Ercio.
Socio-economic disparities in Latin America among same-sex and different-sex couples / Ercio A. Muñoz, Dario Sansone, Mayte Ysique.
p. cm. — (IDB Technical Note ; 2948)
Includes bibliographical references.
1. Sexual minorities-Demographic aspects-Latin America. 2. Sexual minorities-Social aspects-Latin America. 3. Demographic surveys-Latin America. I. Sansone, Dario. II. Ysique, Mayte. III. Inter-American Development Bank. Gender and Diversity Division. III. Title. IV. Series.
IDB-TN-2948

Keywords: Latin America, LGBTQ+
JEL codes: D10, I20, I32, J15, J70

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Socio-Economic Disparities in Latin America among Same-Sex and Different-Sex Couples[♠]

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Abstract

Economic research on sexual minority individuals in developing countries has been constrained by the scarcity of nationally representative surveys asking about sexual orientation. This paper merges and harmonizes census data from eight Latin American countries to document socio-economic disparities between different-sex and same-sex couples. Overall, although there are some exceptions, individuals in same-sex couples are on average younger than women and men in different-sex couples, are less likely to identify as Indigenous (while differentials for African descendants vary by country), have higher education levels, and are less likely to live with children. Gaps in unemployment rates by couple type and sex differ by country. Both women and men in same-sex couples have higher average incomes in Brazil. The same holds for women in Mexico, while men in same-sex couples have lower average incomes. Finally, homeownership rates are lower among same-sex couples, while welfare differentials as proxied by ownership of assets and dwelling characteristics vary by country.

Keywords: Latin America, LGBTQ+

JEL: D10; I20; I32; J15; J70

[♠] Financial support through the Inter-American Development Bank ESW RG-E1952 is gratefully acknowledged. The views expressed in this paper are those of the authors and should not be attributed to the Inter-American Development Bank. We thank Caridad Araujo, Lee Badgett, and Laura Nettuno for their helpful comments. We also thank conference participants at the 2024 AEA/ASSA Annual Meeting and AEA CSQIEP, as well as seminar participants at the University of East Anglia for their feedback. We also thank Natalia Tosi for their excellent research assistance in early stages of the project. All errors are our own.

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1. Introduction

A large and growing share of the world population identifies as LGBTQ+.[1] Indeed, 7.2 percent of individuals identified as LGBTQ+ in the US in 2023 – up from 3.5 percent in 2012 (Jeffrey M. Jones 2023) – and an average of 8 percent identified as a sexual minority in 30 countries in 2023 (Chris Jackson 2023). And yet, many countries lack any statistics on the size, demographic, and socio-economic characteristics of this population. In response, high-income countries have been gradually adding questions on sexual orientation and gender identity (SOGI) to their censuses and nationally-representative surveys: for instance, countries such as the UK, Canada, and New Zealand have included SOGI questions in their latest censuses, while in the US more and more surveys have been expanded to collect SOGI data (e.g., the Behavioral Rish Factor Surveillance System and the National Health Interview Survey), and in many European countries rich administrative data can now be leveraged to identify a large fraction of LGBTQ+ individuals. This ongoing data revolution has contributed to the exponential growth of economic studies on LGBTQ+ issues in recent years (M.V. Lee Badgett et al. 2024).

On the other hand, SOGI data remains unavailable in most low- and middle-income countries, leading to the persistent invisibility of LGBTQ+ individuals in these countries. In turn, such data gaps have important policy ramifications. LGBTQ+ individuals are often stigmatized: at best disregarded and ignored, believed not to exist, and at worst persecuted. LGBTQ+ health and economic disparities remain overlooked: inaction by policymakers can create vicious cycles and have negative effects on overall poverty rates, inequality, and public health. When reliable information is missing, unfounded myths – e.g., on the affluence of gay and lesbian individuals (M.V. Lee Badgett 2001) – can be easily spread. In the most striking cases, politicians exploit data limitations, as well as unfamiliarity with these topics among the general population, to use LGBTQ+ individuals as scapegoats and to gain popularity by passing homophobic and transphobic laws. Not only this status quo is unfair and unethical from a human rights perspective, but negative attitudes and anti-LGBTQ policies prevent individuals to achieve their full potential and lead to large national economic costs (M.V. Lee Badgett 2020). Even when countries start to pass LGBTQ-friendly policies and laws, such as the repeal of sodomy laws in India in 2018 and the legalization of same-sex marriage in Taiwan in 2019, the lack of data prevents researchers from estimating the impact of these policies.

[1] LGBTQ+ refers to individuals who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer, as well as to other sexual and gender minority people. Sexual orientation refers to one's sexual attraction, behavior, and/or identity. Individuals with same-sex attraction and/or same-sex sexual activity are generally referred to as sexual minority individuals, including lesbian women, gay men, bisexual and queer individuals (as are those who identify with one of these categories). In contrast, heterosexual or straight individuals are individuals who are attracted to and/or have sex with individuals of a different sex (as are those who identify as such). Gender identity refers to one's sense of being male, female, both, or neither. Gender minority individuals are individuals whose current gender does not match their sex assigned at birth. Cisgender individuals are people whose current gender aligns with their sex at birth. Gender minority individuals include transgender men, transgender women, and nonbinary individuals, among others.

This paper addresses these data limitations by merging and harmonizing microdata from the censuses of eight countries in Latin America: Argentina (collected in 2010), Brazil (2010), Chile (2017), Colombia (2018), Guatemala (2018), Mexico (2020), Peru (2017), and Uruguay (2011). For each country, individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples are identified based on each household member's sex and relationship with the household head. The resulting dataset is the largest one on same-sex couples and, more generally, LGBTQ+ individuals in low- and middle-income countries, and one of the largest ones globally. The vast geographical coverage is clear from Figure 1: the data from these eight countries include most of the region. In terms of sample size, these data represents approximately 78 percent of the population in the region, including around 115,000 same-sex couples with 404,000 individuals living in households headed by same-sex couples and around 26 million different-sex couples with near 102 million individuals living in households headed by different-sex couples.[2] Therefore, by harmonizing data across countries, it is possible to both provide new data on sexual minorities in the region (in most cases, for the first time), and to provide a comprehensive picture of socio-economic disparities by sexual orientation within and across countries.

These Latin American countries are inherently interesting for several reasons. First, they are at different steps of economic development: their GDP per capita ranges from less than USD 11,000 in Guatemala to more than USD 30,000 in Chile (World Bank 2023). Mexico joined the OECD, a club of mostly rich countries, in 1994, followed by Chile in 2010, and Colombia in 2020 (OECD 2023). On the other hand, Argentina has faced multiple economic crises in the past decades (The Economist 2023), while Peru has some economic strengths (e.g., the mining and tourism sectors) but has experienced years of political instability (Michael Stott 2023).

Second, attitudes towards sexual minorities vary substantially across countries, even among countries comparable in terms of economic activity. As shown in Figure B1, most people supported same-sex marriage in 2018 in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, and Uruguay, but marriage equality is still a controversial topic in Colombia, Guatemala, and Peru. There have been improvements in the past years, but these have been larger in countries such as Chile, Mexico, and Uruguay than in Colombia or Peru. Notably, the level of support for same-sex marriage legalization is higher in some of these countries than in the US (Jackson 2023). Similarly, Figure B2 shows differential support for sexual minority politicians across countries and time. Also in this case, there has been an increase in support for sexual minority individuals running for office over time: the only exception that stands out is Argentina, where support has actually declined between 2008 and 2018.

Third, there is large variation in the legislative framework on LGBTQ+ rights. For instance, almost all the countries in the Global South that have legalized same-sex marriage are in Latin America (Miriam Marcén and Marina Morales 2022), but same-sex marriage is still not legal in countries such as Guatemala and Peru. Furthermore, several countries have experienced backlashes in the

[2] For comparison, Sansone (2019) used data from the 2000-2016 American Community Survey – the largest survey available in the US – to identify 46,141 same-sex couples.

past few years, such as an increase in legislative and bureaucratic barriers for transgender individuals (CFR 2021), and the dismantling of the anti-discrimination agency in Argentina (AFP 2024).

Overall, the variety of countries in our sample provides a snapshot of socio-economic disparities by sexual orientation at different economic and cultural stages and it increases the external validity of our main findings. Relatedly, as also highlighted in (Camila Brown, Dante Contreras, and Luis Schmidt 2019), while ex-ante one may expect these socio-economic disparities between same-sex and different-sex couples in Latin America to be qualitatively similar to those estimated in Europe and the US, the size of the gaps may be larger, thus further motivating the need to study the characteristics of this population in the region.

For most of these countries, this study provides the first statistics on LGBTQ+ individuals. Therefore, even if individuals in same-sex couples represented a (selected) fraction of LGBTQ+ individuals, analyzing data on same-sex couples is an important first step to address the historical invisibility of sexual and gender minorities. Furthermore, since a wide range of welfare policies, benefits, and rights are link to marriage and relationship status, and given the central role played by families in many Latin American countries, policymakers may be interested in any socio-economic disparities between same-sex and different-sex couples. An additional advantage of analyzing same-sex couples is that these sexual minority individuals are identified indirectly through their sex and relationship to the household head, thus potentially increasing disclosure rates: some people may feel more comfortable answering these questions in a government survey rather than being asked about their sexual orientation.

Focusing first on demographic and family characteristics, this paper shows that, although there are a few exceptions, both women and men in same-sex couples are on average younger than women and men in different-sex couples, respectively. In addition, individuals in same-sex couples are less likely to identify as Indigenous – while differentials for African descendants vary by country – they have higher education levels, and they are less likely to live with children. Looking then at labor market outcomes, gaps in unemployment rates by couple type and sex differ by country, although in most cases the unemployment rates are higher among individuals in same-sex couples than in different-sex couples. Due to data limitations, income differentials can only be examined in Brazil and Mexico. In Brazil, both women and men in same-sex couples have higher average incomes than women and men in different-sex couples, respectively. In Mexico, women in same-sex couples also have higher average incomes than women in different-sex couples, while men in same-sex couples have lower average incomes than men in different-sex couples. The final section of the empirical analysis discusses wealth and poverty: it shows that homeownership rates are lower among same-sex couples, while welfare differentials as proxied by ownership of assets and dwelling characteristics vary by country.

This study adds to a very limited set of studies analyzing economic outcomes for LGBTQ+ individuals in Latin America. The majority of this literature focuses on labor market outcomes in

Brazil using data on same-sex couples from the 2010 census (Priscila Casari, Sandro Eduardo Monsueto, and Pedro Henrique Evangelista Duarte 2013; Marcio Veras Corrêa, Guilherme Irffi, and Daniel Suliano 2014; Wellington Romero Da Silva and Daniel Domingues Dos Santos 2016; Daniel Suliano et al. 2016; Paulo de Andrade Jacinto et al. 2017; Daniel Tomaz de Sousa and Cássio da Nóbrega Besarria 2018; Daniel Suliano, Guilherme Irffi, and Ana Beatriz Rêgo de Sá Barreto 2022), other national representative surveys allowing the identification of same-sex couples (Ana Luiza Neves de Holanda Barbosa et al. 2020; Daniel Suliano, Alexsandre Lira Cavalcante, and Luciana Rodrigues 2021; Daniel Suliano, Jaime De Jesus Filho, and Guilherme Irffi 2021; Gabriela Gomes Mantovani and Jefferson Andronio Ramundo Staduto 2023; Honorata Bogusz and Jan Gromadzki 2024; Jennifer Graves and Christopher Trond 2024), and more recent datasets including information on sexual orientation (João Tampellini 2024). For other countries, (Brown, Contreras, and Schmidt 2019) analyzed data on same-sex couples in Chile and Uruguay,[3] (Bogusz and Gromadzki 2024) for Uruguay, while (DANE 2022) reported statistics on same-sex couples in Colombia, and (Laura Nettuno, Samuel Mann, and Gilbert Gonzales 2024) documented health disparities by sexual orientation in Chile. (Laura Nettuno 2024) uses data from Chile and is the only study documenting disparities by gender identity in the region. This paper builds on the previous literature by providing additional or updated statistics on same-sex couples in Brazil, Chile, Colombia, and Uruguay and provides the first statistics on same-sex couples for Argentina, Guatemala, Mexico, and Peru. Indeed, to our knowledge, there are no other nationally representative studies on sexual minorities for this second group of countries.[4]

The previous literature provides an additional reason to focus on Latin America since most of the studies in this region have used data on same-sex couples from Brazil and found positive income differentials for both women and men in same-sex couples. These findings are in contrast with evidence from other countries (Marieka Klawitter 2015; M.V. Lee Badgett, Christopher S. Carpenter, and Dario Sansone 2021), thus it is interesting to test whether positive or negative income and wage gaps by sexual orientation are found in other countries in the region, whenever such data is available.

2. Data and methodology

With the aim of characterizing the demographic and socio-economic differences between same-sex and different-sex couples in Latin America, this paper uses microdata from the decennial census of population and housing of eight countries: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia,

[3] Unlike (Brown, Contreras, and Schmidt 2019), the analysis in this paper does not include the 2012 census in Chile since it had been later found to have substantial data issues (BBC 2013).

[4] While not nationally representative, it is also worth noting that a few recent studies have conducted experiments on LGBTQ+ issues in Latin America (Hugo Hernández et al. 2023; Emilio Gutiérrez and Adrian Rubli 2024; Andres Ham, Angela Guarin, and Juanita Ruiz 2024). Other studies have instead focused on changes in attitudes towards sexual and gender minorities (Selim Gulesci, María Lombardi, and Alejandra Ramos 2023).

Guatemala, Mexico, Peru, and Uruguay.[5] Except for Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay, for whom the data collection happened in 2010/2011, the data was mostly collected at the end of the 2010 decade. Table 1 describes for each country the sample size, census year, share of the full-count census being used and the number of different-sex and same-sex couples identified. The samples for Argentina and Brazil were obtained from IPUMS international (IPUMS 2020), Chile and Uruguay made their census microdata publicly available in their respective websites,[6] while the rest of the samples were obtained directly from the respective National Statistical Offices.

Building on previous research done for developed countries (Dan A. Black, S. G. Sanders, and L. J. Taylor 2007; Badgett, Carpenter, and Sansone 2021), a sample of same-sex and different-sex couples was identified based on the information about the household members' relationship to the person identified as the head of the household.[7] In particular, the main dataset include information about individual and housing characteristics of all the persons who were enumerated as a couple, where a couple is composed by a person identified as the head of the household and a person who is identified as spouse or partner of the head of the household.[8] After all these couples were identified, the information about the sex of each household member was used to classify them as different-sex (with male or female as head), male same-sex, or female same-sex couples.[9] It is worth noting that previous research has shown that most individuals in same-sex couples are indeed in a romantic relationship (Christopher S. Carpenter 2004).

The identification of same-sex and different-sex couples is by no means free of measurement error as misreporting of sex for household members can occur, as the cases of the censuses in United States in 2010 (Daphne A. Lofquist and Jamie M. Lewis 2015) and Mexico in 2010 (Albert Esteve and Anna Turu Sánchez 2014) illustrate. This is why some countries ask explicitly about the sex of the spouse or partner, such as Chile in 2012, Brazil in 2010, and Uruguay in 2011.

A clear limitation of relying on data on same-sex couples is that it is not possible to identify LGBTQ+ individuals who are single, as well as individuals in a relationship who are not cohabiting. Since selection into partnership is not random, and not all same-sex couples may feel

[5] Some countries in the region are excluded from the analysis because they either did not allow the identification of partners of the same sex (e.g., Ecuador 2010, El Salvador 2007, among others) or the samples were too small to work with (e.g., Costa Rica 2011 and Suriname 2012).

[6] Census microdata for Chile and Uruguay can be accessed at https://www.ine.gob.cl/estadisticas/sociales/censos-de-poblacion-y-vivienda/censo-de-poblacion-y-vivienda (Accessed: June 20, 2023) and https://www4.ine.gub.uy/Anda5/index.php/catalog/243/get-microdata (Accessed: April 12, 2023), respectively.

[7] See Section A of the Online Appendix for the definition of head of the household used in each census questionnaire. In the case of Uruguay, there is a question about partnership that identifies married status as well as unions with partners of same or different sex. This variable was not used to identify couples in order to make the sample fully comparable to the one from other countries.

[8] See Section A of the Online Appendix for the details about the categories used in each census questionnaire for the relationship to the head of the household.

[9] All the census questionnaires used in this paper contain a question about sex with two response categories (male or female). Since it is not possible to distinguish between sex and gender, the discussion of the empirical analysis uses 'female individual' and 'woman' interchangeably. The same holds for 'male individual' and 'man'.

comfortable declaring their relationship status in a government survey, the sample of individuals in same-sex couples represents only a specific section of the LGBTQ+ population. Nevertheless, it is important to emphasize that in most countries there are no nationally representative surveys including SOGI questions, thus providing statistics on same-sex couples is an important first step to address the historical invisibility of sexual and gender minorities. Furthermore, several policies are often targeted to partnered individuals (e.g., tax and retirement benefits): therefore, policymakers may be interested in any socio-economic disparities between same-sex and different-sex couples.

After identifying and counting the number of different types of couples in these eight countries, the main analysis provides basic characteristics of the individuals and their households using the information collected through the census questionnaire. For example, it explores the average size of the households, the presence of children, the place of residence, basic sociodemographic characteristics such as age, nationality, level of education, and labor market status.[10] All variables are described in detail in Section A of the Online Appendix. Given that limited information about income or wealth that the census questionnaires collect, this paper characterizes economic status using other indicators such as a wealth index based on ownership of different assets and dwelling characteristics. Nonetheless, in the cases where income information is collected (Brazil and Mexico), it also explores income gaps based on sexual orientation controlling for basic demographic factors.

The main results exploit full-count census microdata for Chile, Colombia, Guatemala, Peru, and Uruguay (see Table 1), in which case the analysis is done without the need of using survey weights. Similarly, the 10% sample for Argentina does not require weighting as it was drawn to make each observation self-weighted.[11] However, in the cases of Mexico and Brazil, the data set corresponds to the sample that received the long questionnaire in the census operation and requires the use of survey weights to make it representative of the population.

3. Results

3.1 Demographics

Figure 2 compares the average age of women and men in same-sex and different-sex couples. In all countries, men in same-sex couples are younger than men in different-sex couples. This is in line with the previous literature and evidence from other countries (Badgett, Carpenter, and Sansone 2021). Similarly, with the exception of Argentina, women in same-sex couples also have a lower average age than women in different-sex couples. The age difference among men by couple

[10] Matching patterns by age, ethnicity, and education among same-sex and different-sex couples are explored in a companion paper (Ercio A. Muñoz and Dario Sansone 2024).

[11] See the description of the sample provided by IPUMS (Accessed on December 5, 2023): https://international.ipums.org/international-action/sample_details/country/ar#tab_ar2010a

type is always larger than the difference among women, but all these gaps are statistically significant (as reported in Table B1 in the Online Appendix).

Figures 3 and 4 report statistics by ethnicity and race. The share of indigenous people is very low for both same-sex and different-sex couples in Brazil. The gap between same-sex and different-sex couples is small also in Chile and Colombia. On the other hand, in the countries where indigenous people are more prevalent, women and men in same-sex couples are less likely to be indigenous than women and men in different-sex couples. Interestingly, the only country where the opposite is true is Uruguay. Individuals in same-sex couples in Uruguay are also more likely to identify as African descendants than both women and men in different-sex couples. The same is true in Peru and Colombia – although the size of the gap is smaller – while in Brazil, where a large fraction of individuals identify as African descendant, the sign of the differential is reversed. Given the variety of attitudes towards sexual and gender minorities among ancient and non-Western societies (Badgett et al. 2024), future studies should investigate how different historical level of acceptance among indigenous groups influence current LGBTQ+ attitudes and identification among ethnic minority individuals.

The Online Appendix provides additional descriptive statistics on the demographic composition of same-sex and different-sex couples. Since sexual minority individuals are more likely to migrate to escape from intolerant environments, it is not surprising that women and men in same-sex couples are more likely to be migrants than individuals in different-sex couples (Figure B3). Finally, men in same-sex couples are also less likely to report disabilities than men in different-sex couples, while the size and sign of the differential by couple type among women vary by country (Figure B4). Despite the long-term health negative effects of minority stress due to homophobic attitudes reported in Figures B1-B2, it is likely that the age differentials reported in Figure 2 explain these gaps in disability rates.

3.2 Human Capital

Figure 5 reports education levels by sex and couple type. In line with the previous literature (Badgett, Carpenter, and Sansone 2021), both women and men in same-sex couples are more likely to have completed some post-secondary education. The size of the differential varies by country – larger in Brazil, Chile, and Uruguay, smaller in Mexico and Peru – but all differences are statistically significant (as reported in Table B4). Similar conclusions can be reached by comparing average years of education for individuals in same-sex versus different-sex couples (Figure B5), or by using more detailed educational categories (Table B5 and Figures B6-B9).

It is remarkable that qualitative similar differences can be found across such a varied range of countries. Furthermore, similar educational advantages have been found in high-income countries (Badgett et al. 2024). Several explanations have been proposed to explain such gaps, although no study has yet been able to fully disentangle and rule out potential drivers. For instance, sexual minority individuals may be more likely to attend college since these institutions usually provide

a more welcoming environment. These individuals could also sort into white-collar jobs – which typically require a post-secondary degree – since they may expect to experience less discrimination in those jobs. Differences in intra-household specialization between same-sex and different-sex couples could play a role as well, especially for sexual minority women who may not expect to specialize in home production, and thus invest more in their own education. Alternatively, it is possible that highly-educated sexual minority individuals may be more likely to have a same-sex partner and be comfortable declaring it in a government survey.[12]

3.3 Family

Different factors lead to higher childbearing and childrearing costs for individuals in same-sex couples. For example, men in same-sex couples mainly rely on surrogacy and adoption: these procedures can be expensive and are not tolerated (or even banned) in many countries. Similarly, prohibitive medical costs, as well as policies restricting access to in-vitro fertilization, may impose additional burden on women in same-sex couples hoping to get pregnant. Living in a country that does not recognize same-sex relationships create further barriers and disincentives to childbearing among sexual minority individuals. Such binding constraints supports the findings in Figure 6 that a lower share of same-sex couples having children in their households than different-sex couples.

Typically, sexual minority men face higher societal, biological, and legislative barriers and costs to having children, which explains the lower share of gay men than lesbian women living with a child in their household in the US and other high-income countries (Badgett, Carpenter, and Sansone 2021). The lower percentages of men in same-sex couples living with a child than women in same-sex couples in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Peru, and Uruguay (Figure 6) is thus consistent with previous studies. There are instead fewer differences in childrearing among women and men in same-sex couples in Guatemala and Mexico, where if anything men in same-sex couples are more likely to live with a child.

Figures B10 and B11 disaggregate Figure 6 by looking at couples living in household with children but with no other adults and with other adults, respectively. When focusing on couples without other adults in the household (Figure B10), the disparities between same-sex and different-sex couples, as well as between women and men in same-sex couples are similar to those in Figure 6. When focusing instead on couples with other adults in the household (Figure B11), it is worth noting that very few couples (both same-sex and different-sex) cohabit with children and other adults in Brazil. In addition, women in same-sex couples are more likely than individuals in different-sex couples to live in households with children and other adults in Colombia, while there are small differences by couple type in Mexico. Finally, in line with the idea that sexual minority individuals may face stigma and rejections from members of their extended family, as well as the aforementioned higher childbearing costs, individuals with a same-sex partner are much more

[12] It is also important to emphasize that data on more recent cohorts or young sexual minority individuals do not always confirm such an educational advantage (Dario Sansone 2019b).

likely to reside in nuclear households (that is, without any cohabiting person other than their partner) than individuals coupled with a different-sex individual (Figure B12).

3.4 Labor Market

3.4.1 Employment and occupational sorting

The first LGBTQ+ studies in economics have analyzed labor market disparities by sexual orientation (M.V. Lee Badgett 1995). Since then, the field of LGBTQ+ economics has expanded significantly, but analyses of labor market outcomes still represent a significant fraction of the literature (Badgett et al. 2024). Aside from a few exceptions highlighted in the introduction, most of these studies focus on high-income countries. It is therefore particularly interesting to analyze differences by couple types in employment and earnings in our sample. Nevertheless, when interpreting these comparisons, it is worth remembering that positive selection among same-sex couples is likely to particularly affect these estimates. In other words, it is plausible that only the most successful sexual minority individuals would have the resources, knowledge, and confidence to openly live with a same-sex partner and truthfully report their relationship status in the census.

Looking at the labor market outcomes, it is first important to highlight that, due to gender norms and intra-household specialization, women in different-sex couples have the lowest labor force participation rates (Figure B13). This gender gap is more prevalent in Colombia, Guatemala and Mexico, but it is present in all countries. Women in same-sex couples tend to have a more equal division of household work, and are less subject to gender norms, thus leading to higher labor force participation rates than women in different-sex couples (but still lower than men in different-sex couples). Men in same-sex couples are also less likely to participate to the labor market than men in different-sex couples, especially in Colombia, Guatemala, and Mexico. The size of the differential is smaller in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay, and it is even reversed (by approximately two percentage points) in Brazil. Comparison of employment rates provide a similar picture (Figure B14).

Unemployment rate estimates further shows that, even when sexual minority individuals actively participate in the labor market and look for jobs, they are less likely to find one (Figure 7). Indeed, men in same-sex couples have substantially higher unemployment rates than men in different-sex couples in Argentina, Colombia, Peru, and Uruguay. This differential is small but still statistically significant in Chile while it is not statistically significant in Guatemala (Table B7). As for labor force participation, the gap is reversed in Brazil, and very close in Mexico.

For women, differentials in unemployment rates by couple type vary by country (Figure 7). Women in same-sex couples are less likely to be unemployed in Argentina, Brazil, Peru, and Uruguay; while the opposite holds in Chile, Colombia, Guatemala, and Mexico. One could speculate that, especially in countries with strong gender norms, only the women with the strongest skills and grit (as well as a supportive partner) would enter the labor market, thus leading to

positive selection and low unemployment among these highly-productive women in different-sex couples. Women in same-sex couples may instead face different kinds of discrimination in different contexts – e.g., positive discrimination due to expected lower fertility rates and more (perceived) masculine traits, and negative discrimination due to distaste among employers towards sexual minority employees – thus having mixed effects on their unemployment rates.

3.4.2 Income

Most countries do not collect data on earnings and income in their census, so the analysis of income differentials by couple type needs to be restricted to only two countries: Brazil and Mexico. Brazil has information about total gross monthly income that the person received, as well as earned income (i.e., total income from labor), and Mexico about monthly labor earnings.

Based therefore on the available limited data, Figure 8 reports the unadjusted unweighted distribution of (log) income in Brazil. Panel A compares the distribution of income for women in same-sex and different-sex couples, while Panel B focuses on men. In line with the previous studies mentioned in the introduction using data from the 2010 census, but in contrast with findings in the international context, the income distribution for both women and men in same-sex is shifted to the right compared to women and men in different-sex couples, respectively. In fact, the weighted average income for women in same-sex couples was BRL 1,728 in Brazil in 2010, higher than the BRL 744 average income for women in different-sex couples, and close to the BRL 1,687 average income for men in different-sex couples, while the average for men in same-sex couples was BRL 3,486.

Figure 9 reports the same unweighted income distribution, but for Mexico. While the distribution of income for women in same-sex couples is also shifted to the right of the distribution for women in different-sex couples (although less than the one in Brazil), there are more overlaps in the income distributions of men in same-sex and different-sex couples. On average, the weighted income for women in same-sex couples was MXN 7,325 in Mexico in 2020, MXN 5,517 for women in different-sex couples, MXN 6,675 for men in different-sex couples, and MXN 7,145 for men in same-sex couples.

In order to examine these income differentials more in depth, Table 2 reports estimates from multivariate analyses. The following standard Mincer equation can be estimated by OLS for each individual *i*, separately for each country and sex:

$$y_i = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 SSC_i + \gamma_2 x_i' + \varepsilon_i$$

where the dependent variable y_i is individual *i*'s income. Both household heads and their partners or spouses are included in the analysis. The sample is restricted to individuals aged between 18 and 65 years that were working and reported income greater than zero. One can then test whether and how a binary indicator for being in a same-sex couple (SSC_i) is associated to income. In addition to the constant term (γ_0), the other main regressors are the individual-level controls (x_i):

the respondent's age (and age squared), race, ethnicity, and education; their partner's or spouse's characteristics; and a binary variable indicating the presence of at least one child living in the household. Standard errors clustered at the household level are used throughout, as well as individual weights.

Columns 1-4 reports estimate from Brazil, while Columns 5-6 use data from Mexico. Odd-numbered columns (Columns 1, 3, and 5) estimate income differentials between women in same-sex and different-sex couples, while even-numbered columns (Columns 2, 4, and 6) compare men in same-sex and different-sex couples. The dependent variable in Columns 3-4 and Columns 5-6 is the logarithm of labor income in Brazil and Mexico, respectively. For Brazil, it is also possible to focus on gross monthly personal income (Columns 1-2).

Looking at the coefficients of the same-sex couple indicator, the estimates in Columns 1-4 confirm previous findings in Brazil of an income premium for both women and men in same-sex couples when compared to women and men in different-sex couples, respectively. The income premium for females in same-sex couples is around 19-20 log points (that is, 20.4-21.9 percent) while the corresponding premium for males is around 9-10 log points (8.9-10.8 percent).

The results in Columns 5-6 are, to our knowledge, the first estimates of labor income differentials by couple type in Mexico. These estimates are qualitatively similar to those from the international literature: a labor income premium for women in same-sex couples, and a labor income disadvantage for men in same-sex couples. The income premium for females in same-sex couples is around 29 log points (33.3 percent) while the income penalty for males is around 11 log points (10.1 percent). Although not exactly comparable given differences in the outcome variable and sample, it is worth noting that these estimates are higher than what has been found in other (mostly high-income) countries, especially for women. Indeed, one meta-analysis found an average negative income or wage gap of 11 percent for gay/bisexual men after adjusting for other covariates, and a positive gap of 9 percent for lesbian and bisexual women (Klawitter 2015), while a more recent meta-analysis found a negative gap of 7 percent for gay men, a 10 percent negative gap for bisexual men, a 7 percent positive gap for lesbian women, and a 5 percent negative gap for bisexual women (Nick Drydakis 2022).

3.5 Wealth and Poverty

Since housing represents a major component of wealth for most households, Figure 10 examines the proportion of couples that own their home by type of couple and sex. Across countries, homeownership rates for same-sex couples are significantly smaller than for different-sex couples. When comparing same-sex couples by sex, results vary by country: Argentina and Peru show higher homeownership rates for women while the opposite holds in Uruguay and Mexico, the differences are negligible in Brazil and Guatemala. Lower homeownership rates have been found for sexual minority individuals also in high-income countries (Badgett et al. 2024). Scholars have noted that differences in observables characteristics such as age, household income, preference for

living in city centers, and presence of children could partially explain these gaps. However, other studies have emphasized that limited access to credit markets and discrimination in mortgage application may impose additional barriers to sexual minority individuals (Christopher A. Jepsen and Lisa K. Jepsen 2009; Hua Sun and Lei Gao 2019).

Given the limited information provided by census data for analyzing welfare (i.e., lack of complete information about wealth, income, and expenditure), this section explores differences in welfare proxied by an asset index. Following (Deon Filmer and Lant H. Pritchett 2001; David McKenzie 2005; Deon Filmer and Kinnon Scott 2012), an asset index is constructed by weighting a group of indicators by means of principal component analysis. The set of indicators capture household ownership of certain assets such as refrigerator, telephone, cellphone, computer, tv, and dwelling, access to internet or tubed water, among others, as well as dwelling characteristics such as the type (house, apartment, other), number of rooms, and the dwelling construction materials (see Section A in the Online Appendix for the availability of indicators by country), among others.

To assess what type of household is more likely to be "poor" for a given threshold such as the 40th percentile according to our asset index, they are ranked based on the value of the index after partialling out the effect of the household's head age (and its squared), race/ethnicity, region, and education attainment, as well as the characteristics of the partner (age, race/ethnicity, and education).[13] In other words, households are ranked using the residuals of a regression of the asset index against these demographic characteristics of the head and partner/spouse. The sample considers only households were both head and partner/spouse are aged between 18 and 64 years. Figure B15 and B16 in the Online Appendix displays histograms of the asset index by country before and after partialling out the effect of these variables.

The differences in the share of households at the bottom 40 percent by couple type vary by country (Table 3). In Brazil, Colombia, Guatemala, and Peru, same-sex couples are less likely to be "poor", in some cases with differences of more than 10 percentage points (e.g., males in Brazil and females in Guatemala). In contrast, same-sex couples are more likely to be "poor" in Chile and Uruguay, in both cases by more than 10 percentage points. Lastly, mixed results are found in Argentina and Mexico. In both cases, households with female same-sex couples are less likely to be poor, in contrast to households with male same-sex couples which are more likely, although by small magnitudes.

Although more research is needed to fully explain these results, these findings are likely related to the degree of potential sample selection (i.e., we only observe partnered individuals), as well as the higher labor market participation observed in same-sex couples, especially in the case of females.

4. Conclusion

[13] We compute the share of household below the 20th, 30th, 40th, and 50th percentile, finding qualitatively similar results. These results are available upon request.

This paper provides several statistics on socio-demographic characteristics for individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples in eight Latin American countries. A few patterns have been highlighted: individuals in same-sex couples are on average younger, they are less likely to identify as Indigenous (differentials for African descendant vary by country), they have higher education levels, and they are less likely to live with children. Differentials in unemployment rates by couple type and sex vary by country. Income differentials have then been examined in Brazil and Mexico. In Brazil, both women and men in same-sex couples have higher average incomes than women and men in different-sex couples, respectively. In Mexico, women in same-sex couples also have higher average incomes than women in different-sex couples, while men in same-sex couples have lower average incomes than men in different-sex couples. Lastly, homeownership rates have been shown to be lower among same-sex couples, despite their higher welfare proxied by an asset index in most countries.

As already mentioned, one limitation of this study is that it is not possible to identify individuals in same-sex couples: this paper cannot report socio-economic statistics for sexual minority individuals who are single or in a non-cohabiting relationship. It is also not possible to identify transgender individuals and other gender minorities. In addition, as noted in (Nettuno 2024), homeless individuals are hard to capture in survey data, so since homelessness disproportionately affects LGBTQ+ individuals in Latin America, survey estimates are likely to underestimate any economic disadvantage. While the reported estimates on same-sex couples are still important and relevant for policy-makers, as more countries include questions on sexual orientation and gender identity in their national surveys and censuses, future studies could investigate socio-economic disparities between sexual minority and heterosexual individuals (including those not cohabiting with a partner), as well as between transgender and cisgender individuals.

In particular, it would be interesting to test whether selection into partnership may explain some of the results reported in the previous section. For instance, the income advantage reported for individuals in same-sex couples in Brazil may be due to positive selection into partnership. If that is the case, scholars should analyze the main drivers of such selection, such as homophobic attitudes in the general population. Policy-makers may also worry if only a selected and privileged fraction of sexual minority individuals could afford to be in a same-sex relationship and be comfortable enough to disclose it in government surveys.

Future research could also rely on additional data from new censuses and nationally representative surveys to estimate the impact of LGBTQ+ policies in the region, as well as the effects of general policies on LGBTQ+ individuals (Christopher S. Carpenter and Dario Sansone 2021; Christopher S. Carpenter et al. 2021). Indeed, there are several examples of LGBTQ+ policies that have been implemented in the past years – ranging from same-sex marriage legalization to anti-discrimination laws and employment quota for transgender individuals – that need to be evaluated. There is a growing interest among researchers and policy-makers in this kind of evaluation, but systematic and consistent data on sexual orientation and gender identity is a necessary condition to generate reliable causal estimates of these policies.

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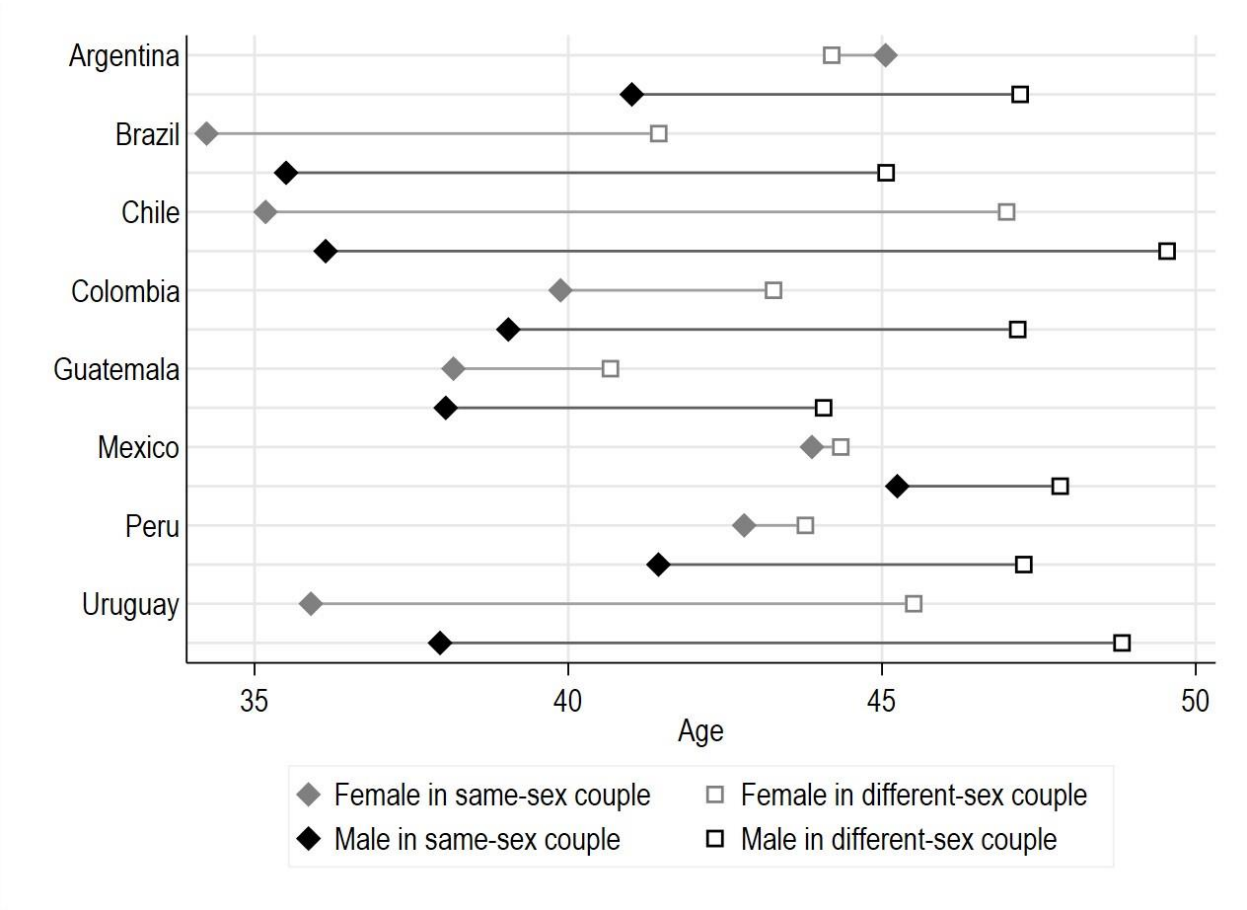
Figure 1: Data coverage.

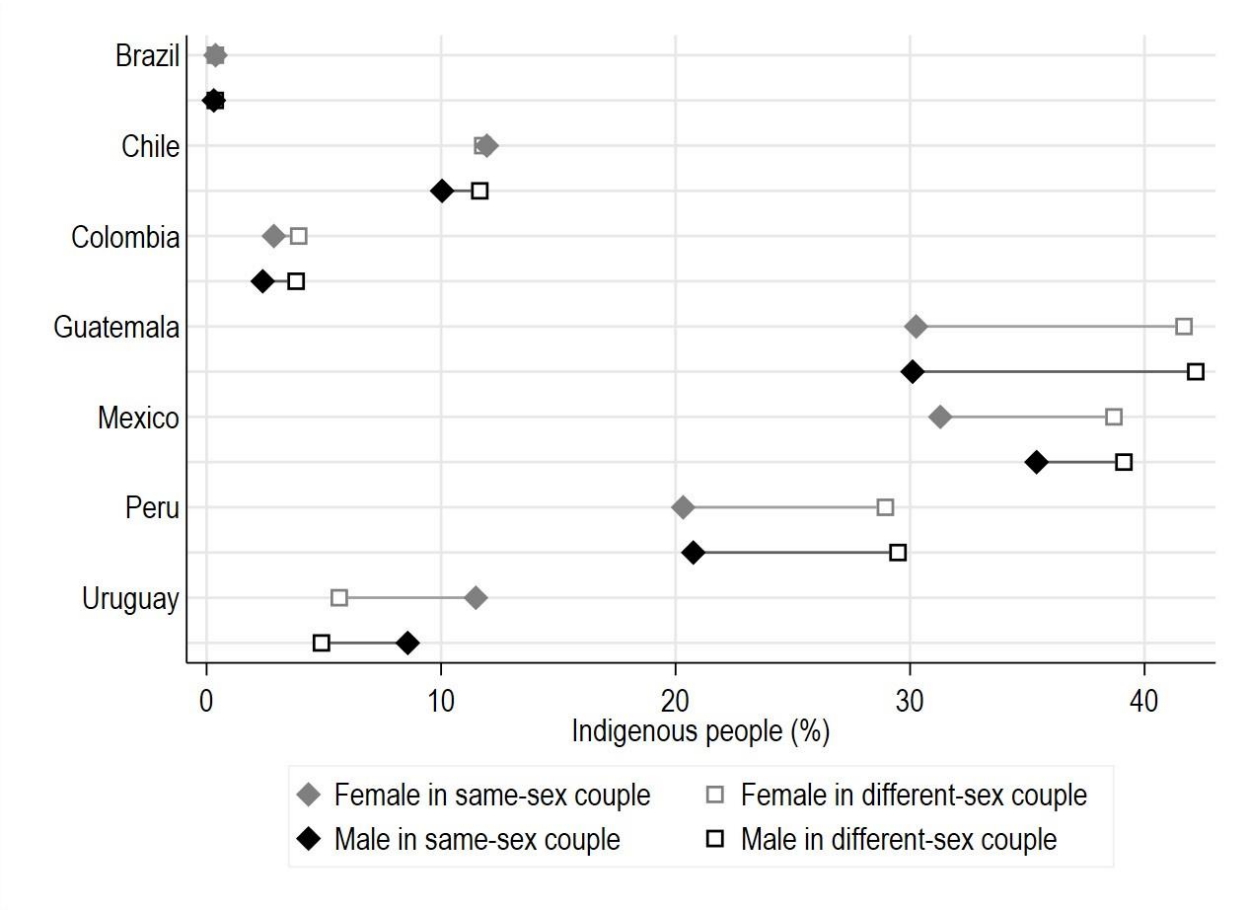
The areas in gray indicate the countries included in the main analysis. Source: authors' own calculations.

Figure 2: Average age of individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples.



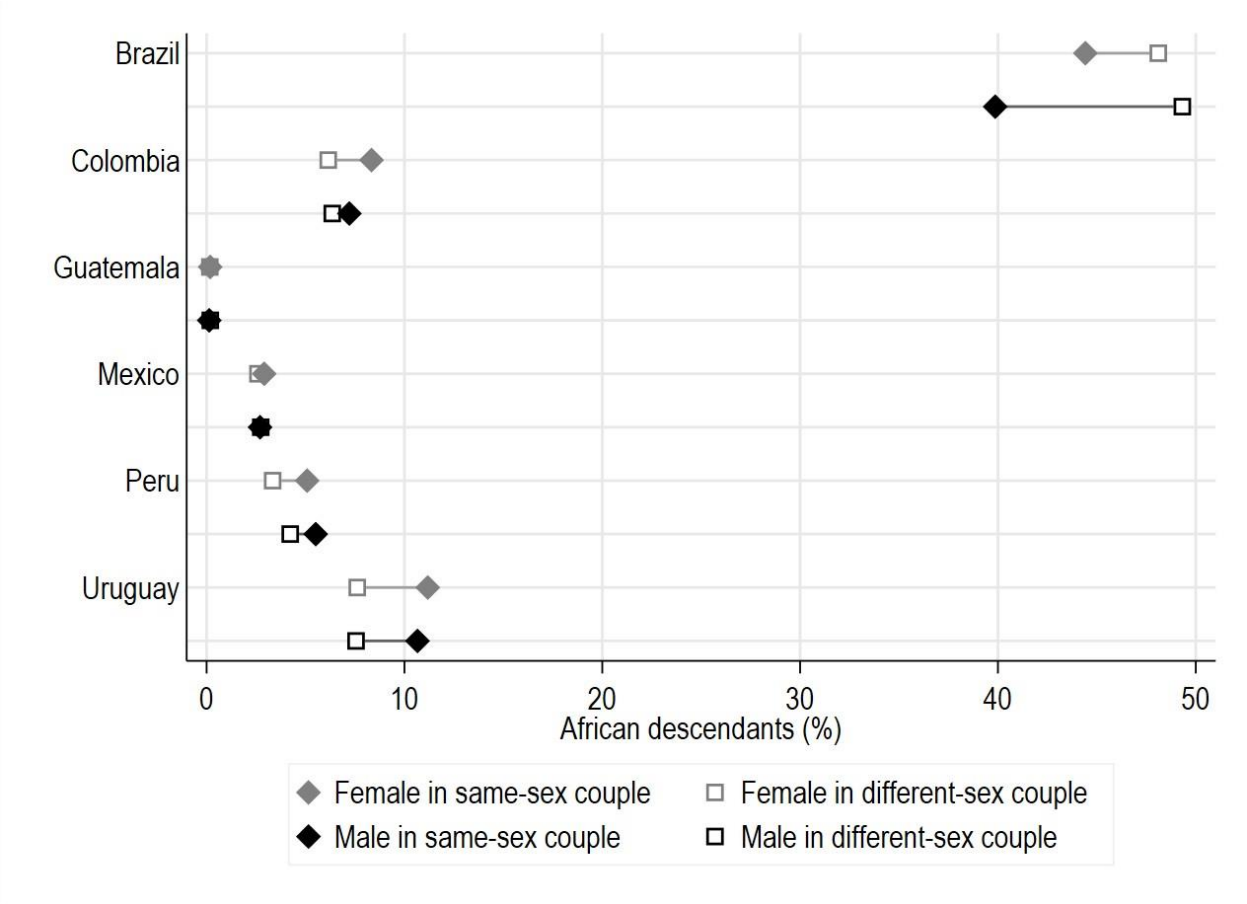
Age in years at the time of the interview. Colombia has age coded in 5-year bins, which we replace with the mid-points. See also Table B1. Weighted statistics.

Figure 3: Indigenous rates of individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples.



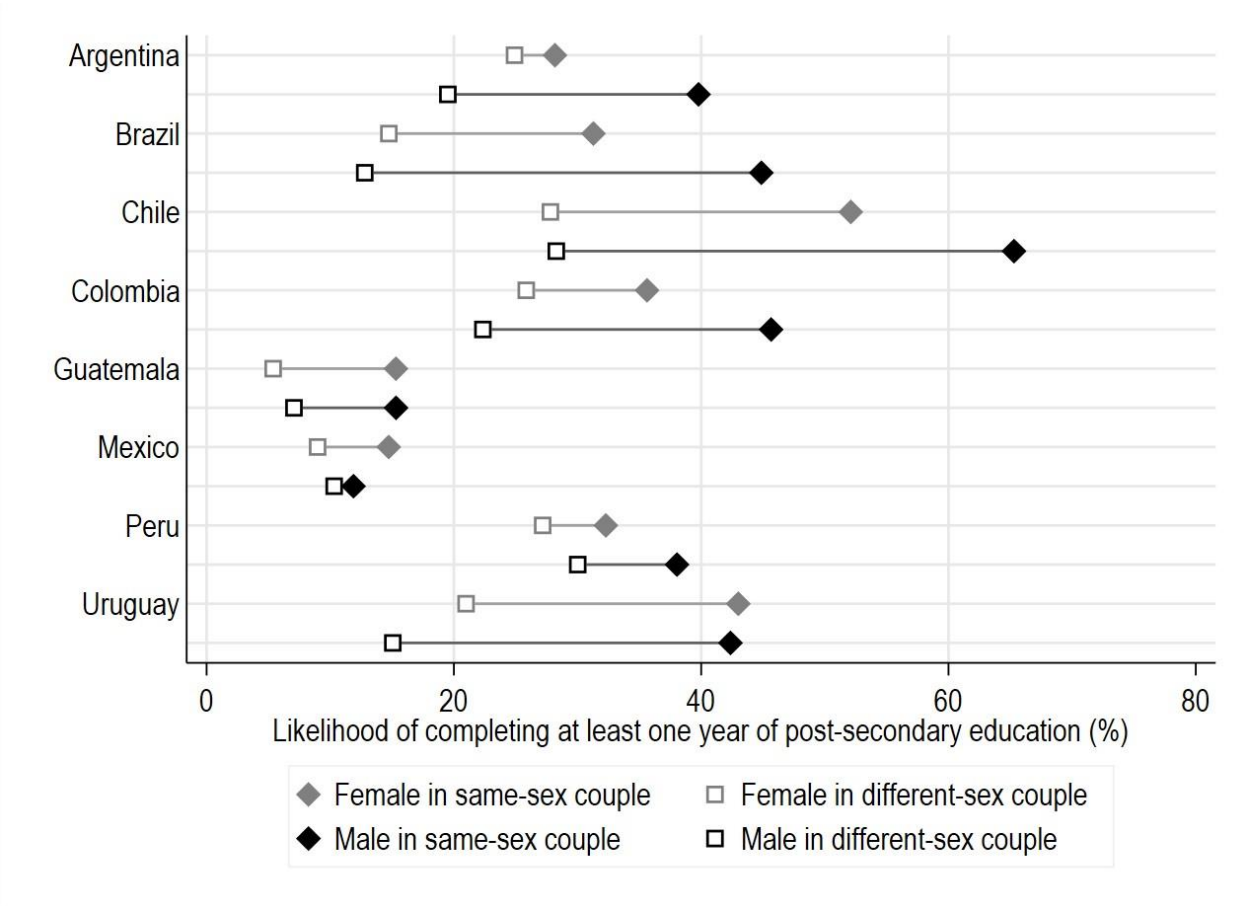
Individuals are classified as indigenous using self-identification questions. See Online Appendix A for details about the original census questions and categories. Weighted statistics. Information about ethnicity is not available for Argentina. See also Table B2.

Figure 4: African descendant rates of individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples.



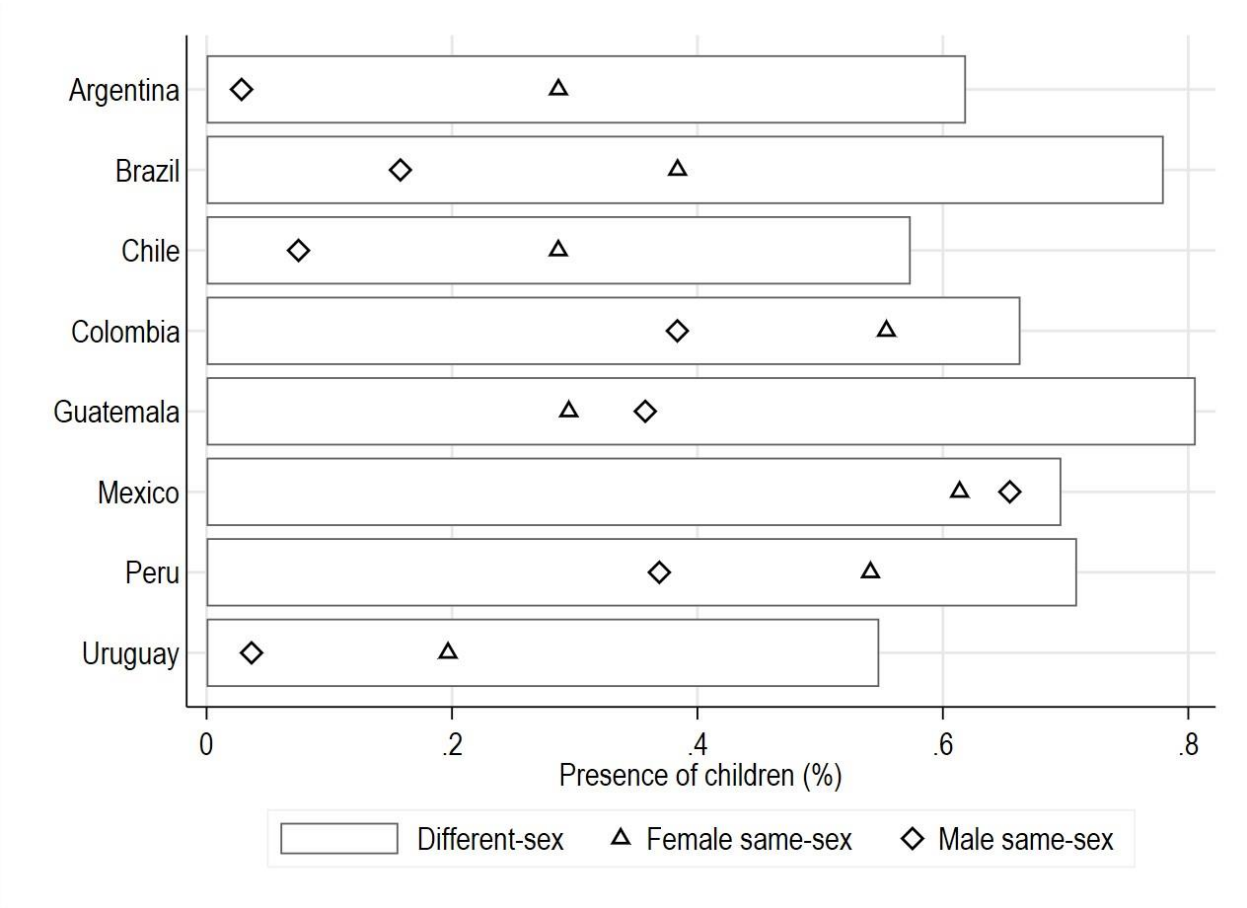
Individuals are classified as African descendants using self-identification questions. See Online Appendix A for details about the original census questions and categories. Weighted statistics. Information about race is not available for Argentina and Chile. See also Table B3.

Figure 5: Average education level of individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples.



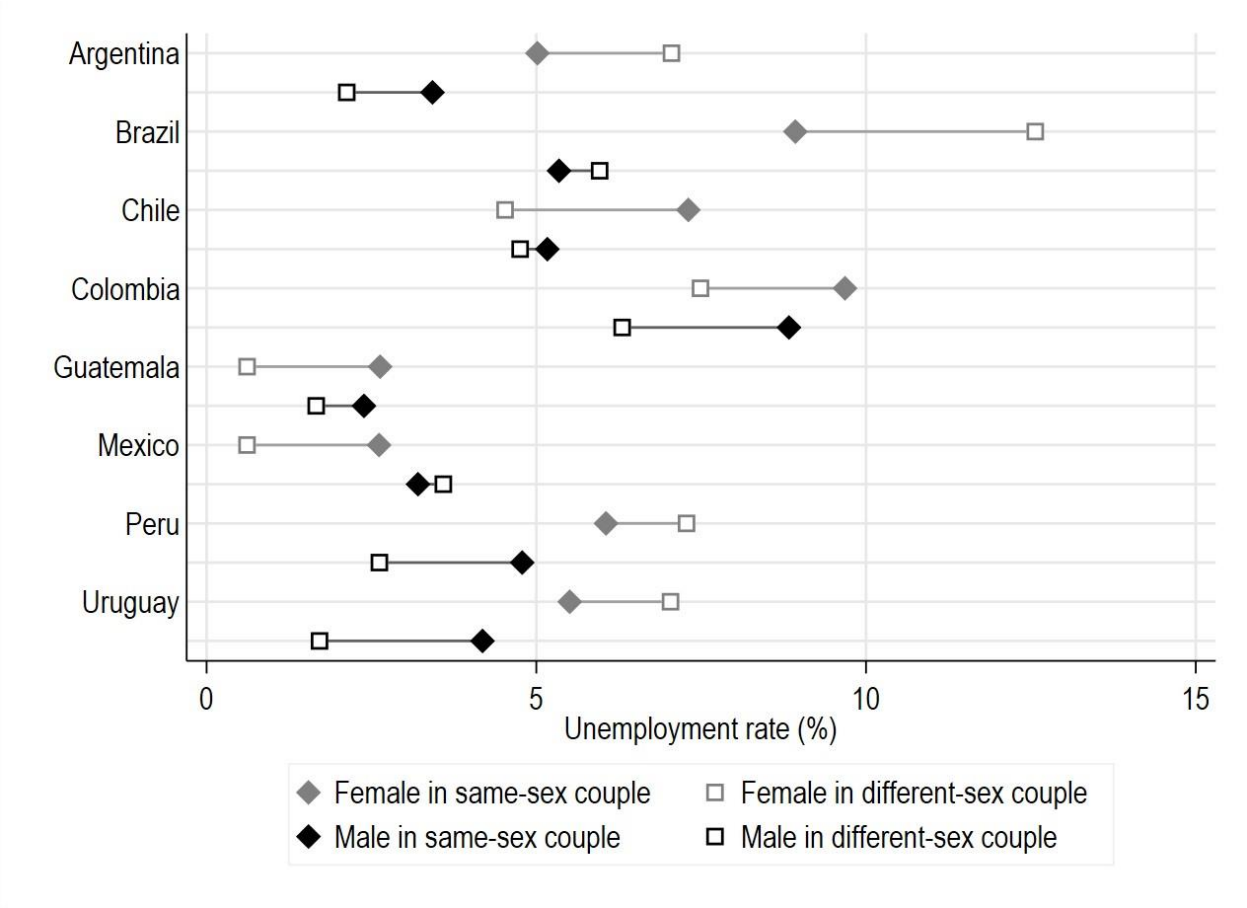
The figure considers whether individuals completed at least one year of formal education at the higher education level (regardless of completion of a degree). Weighted statistics. See also Table B4.

Figure 6: Childrearing by couple type.



Children are any individual younger than 18 years old cohabiting with the main couple (i.e., the head of the household and their spouse or partner). Weighted statistics. See also Table B6.

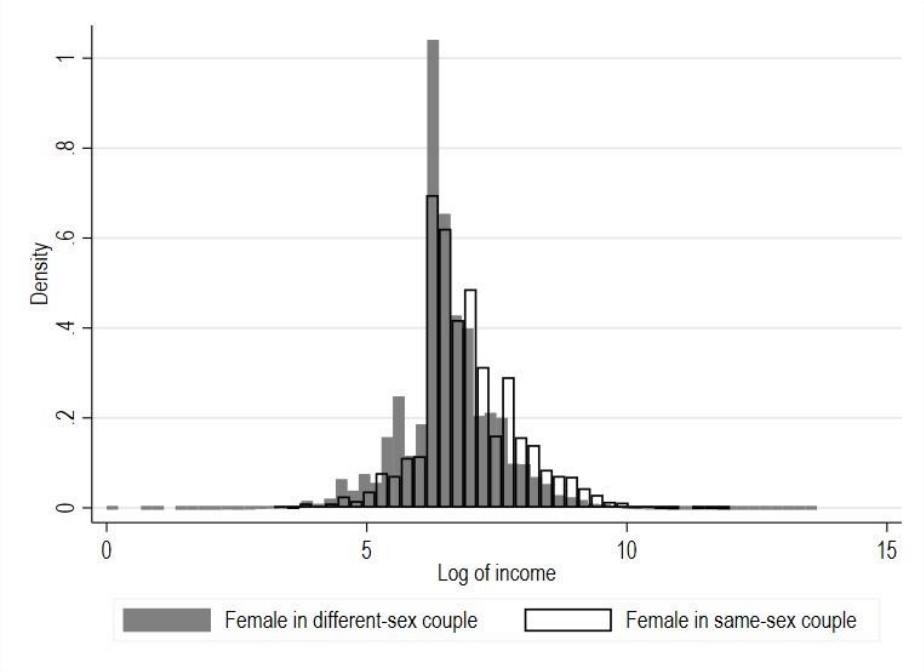
Figure 7: Unemployment rate of individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples.



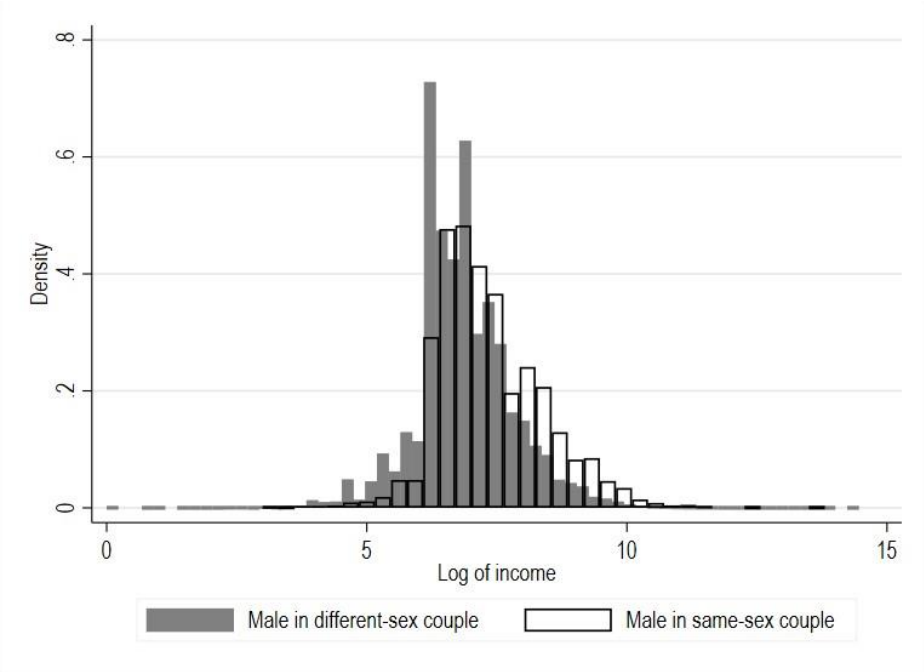
The unemployment rate is defined as the share of individuals that did not work during the previous week among those that are part of the labor force. The sample is restricted to individuals aged 18 to 64 years. Weighted statistics. See also Table B7.

Figure 8: Income distribution by couple type in Brazil.

Panel A: Female



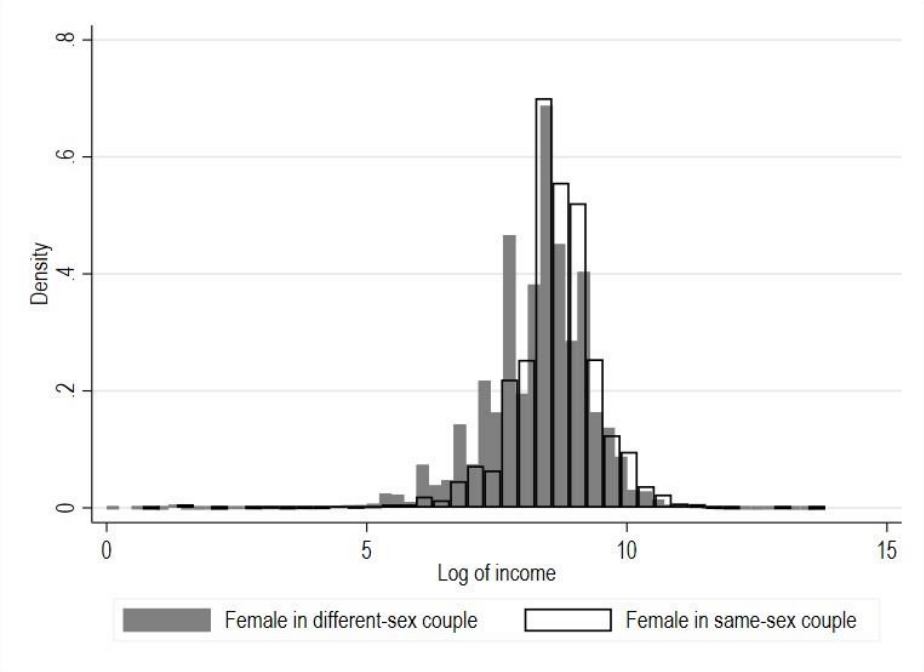
Panel B: Male



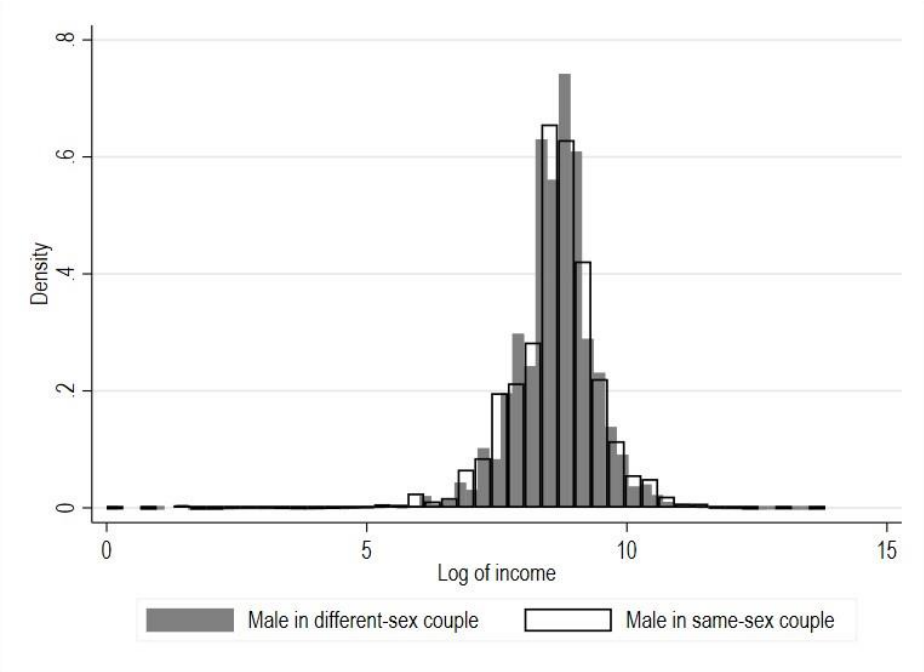
Income is defined as (natural logarithm of) total gross monthly income that the person received in July 2010. The sample includes individuals aged 18 to 64 years that are working and declare positive income. Unweighted statistics.

Figure 9: Income distribution by couple type in Mexico.

Panel A: Female

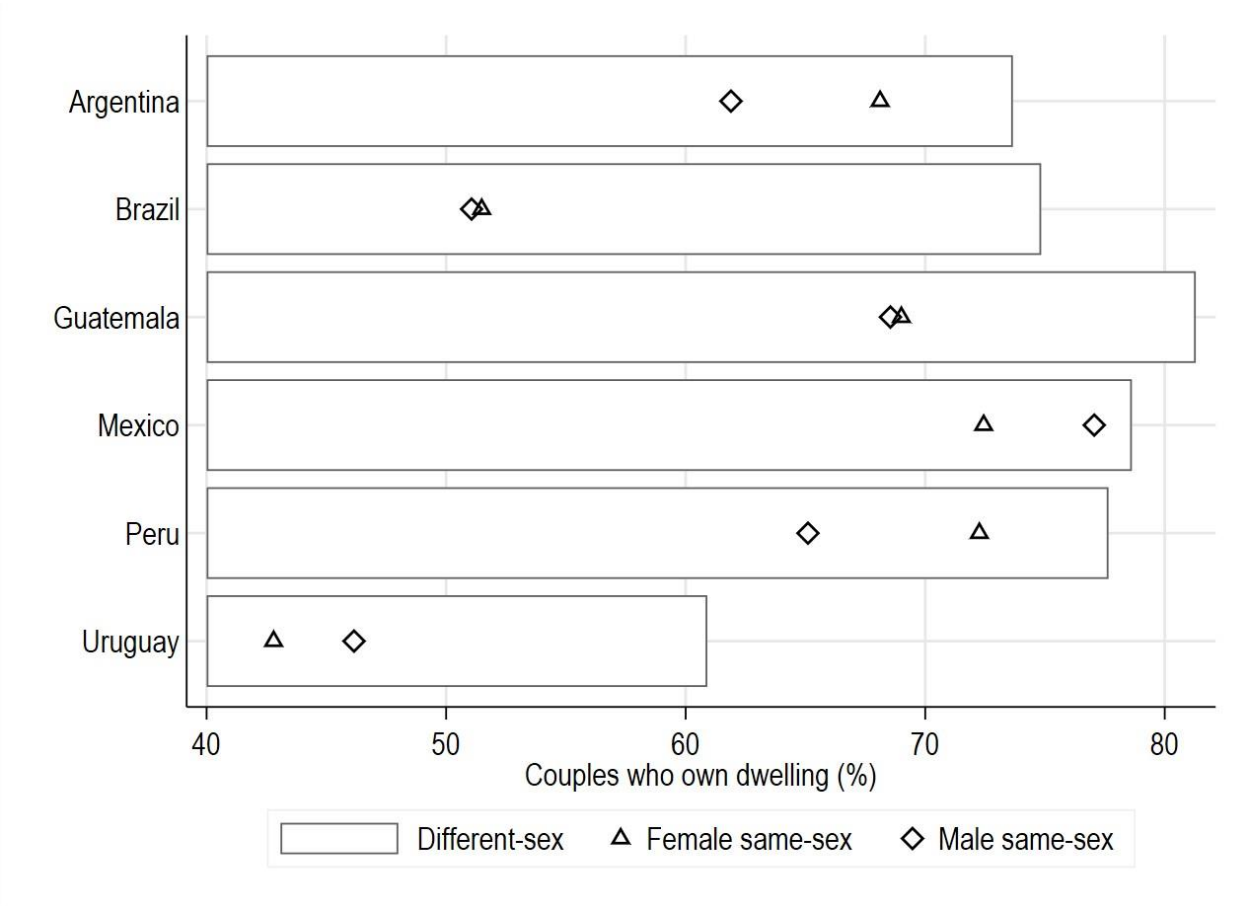


Panel B: Male



Income is defined as (natural logarithm of) monthly labor earnings. The sample includes individuals aged 18 to 64 years that are working and declare positive income. Unweighted statistics.

Figure 10: Homeownership rates by couple type.



Homeownership is defined at the household level and indicates whether a household member owns the dwelling (without specifying the owner). Weighted statistics. Chile and Colombia are not included because information about ownership of dwelling is not available. See also Table B8.

Table 1: Sample description.

Country	Year	Census Sample (%)	Population in the sample	Different-sex couples	Female same-sex couples	Male same-sex couples
Argentina	2010	10	3,966,245	727,471	1,402	984
Brazil	2010	10	20,635,472	4,121,736	2,972	2,332
Chile	2017	100	17,574,003	3,094,164	7,106	8,009
Colombia	2018	100	46,754,581	7,494,104	26,506	21,428
Guatemala	2018	100	15,665,122	2,325,745	271	372
Mexico	2020	10	15,015,683	2,675,919	11,951	23,573
Peru	2017	100	29,381,884	4,505,071	3,998	2,797
Uruguay	2011	100	3,285,877	638,230	493	819
Total			152,278,867	25,582,440	54,699	60,314

Unweighted statistics

Table 2: Income gaps by couple type.

	Brazil				Mexico	
	Income		Earnings		Earnings	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Same sex	0.1982***	0.1024***	0.1859***	0.0851***	0.2875***	-0.1063***
	(0.0154)	(0.0189)	(0.0150)	(0.0176)	(0.0088)	(0.0063)
Observations	1,828,224	2,919,186	1,789,642	2,912,198	663,301	1,719,783
R-squared	0.4130	0.4428	0.4247	0.4460	0.2954	0.2363
Mean log of income	6.655	6.990	6.588	6.935	8.259	8.596

Weighted statistics. Robust standard errors clustered at couple level in parentheses. The dependent variable is the natural logarithm of income or earnings. The sample is restricted to individuals aged between 18 and 64 years that were working and reported income greater than zero. The regressions include state fixed effects, as well as household head and partner's characteristics (age, education level indicators, and race/ethnicity indicators) whose coefficients are reported in Table B9. See also notes in Figures 8-9. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 3: Share of households at the bottom 40 percent by couple type.

	Different-sex couples	Female same-sex couples	Male same-sex couples	Comparisons by couple type	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(2)-(1)	(3)-(1)
Argentina	40.00%	37.62%	40.78%	-0.02	0.01
	{0.00}	{0.01}	{0.02}	(0.11)	(0.65)
Brazil	40.02%	35.81%	29.50%	-0.04	-0.11
	{0.00}	{0.01}	{0.01}	(0.00)	(0.00)
Chile	39.89%	50.78%	65.79%	0.11	0.26
	{0.00}	{0.01}	{0.01}	(0.00)	(0.00)
Colombia	40.02%	33.32%	38.75%	-0.07	-0.01
	{0.00}	{0.00}	{0.00}	(0.00)	(0.00)
Guatemala	40.00%	30.43%	32.62%	-0.10	-0.07
	{0.00}	{0.03}	{0.03}	(0.00)	(0.00)
Mexico	40.02%	35.26%	39.63%	-0.05	0.00
	{0.00}	{0.01}	{0.00}	(0.00)	(0.27)
Peru	40.01%	38.88%	33.00%	-0.01	-0.07
	{0.00}	{0.01}	{0.01}	(0.19)	(0.00)
Uruguay	39.99%	53.97%	60.71%	0.14	0.21
	{0.00}	{0.06}	{0.09}	(0.03)	(0.02)

Households in each country are ranked according to the value of an asset index (after partialling out the effect of age, race/ethnicity, education attainment, and region), which is defined as a weighted average of a set indicators reflecting ownership of assets, access to certain services and dwelling characteristics (see Table A6) constructed using principal component analysis. The sample is restricted to couples aged between 18 and 64 years. Weighted statistics.

Online Appendix (NOT MEANT FOR PUBLICATION)

Appendix A. Variable description.

Sex reports whether the person was male or female. Our data do not allow us to distinguish between sex and gender.

Each household contains an individual designated as household head (see Table A1 for the detail about the definition of headship in each country). All other household members report their relationship to the head according to a pre-defined set of categories (Tables A2-A3). Couples are identified when an individual reports being spouse or partner of the head.

Age reports the respondent's age in years at the time of the interview except for Colombia where age is reported in 5-year bins (0-4, 5-9,..,95-99,100+), which are replaced with the mid-point of each bin.

Ethnicity and race. Ethnicity is a multidimensional concept that can be measured using a diverse set of approaches, including ethnic ancestry or origin, ethnic identity, cultural origins, nationality, race, color, minority status, language, religion, or various combinations of them. The countries in our sample asked individuals to self-identified phrasing the question including some of the concepts previously listed. There are 2 ways in which these questions have been asked: a yes/no question about belonging to a group; and self-identification in one of a set of groups. In the latter case, there is a set of possible answers that vary across countries. We group responses into three categories: "Indigenous", "African descendant" and "Neither Indigenous nor African descendant".

In the case of Chile and Mexico, as shown in Table A4, respondents were asked a yes/no question about belonging to any indigenous people or to the African descendant community (the questionnaire in Chile only asked about Indigenous status). In this case, we categorize as Indigenous or Afro descendant respondents who answer "yes" to the respective question, and those who answer no in both questions are categorize as "Neither Indigenous or Afro descendant".

Brazil, Colombia, Guatemala, Peru, and Uruguay ask the question of ethnicity if you feel identified with any group from a list. This list is classified into the three categories according to Table A5.

It's important to note that Brazil and Uruguay incorporate supplementary inquiries in their classification methods. In Brazil, an additional yes/no query is presented to individuals who do not self-identify as Indigenous, asking whether they consider themselves Indigenous. Those answering affirmatively are also categorized as Indigenous.

In Uruguay, their question adopts a multiple-choice format. An additional question seeks to identify the primary ethnicity in cases where individuals identify with multiple ethnicities. This supplementary question serves to complement the primary classification, aiding in the delineation of predominant ethnic affiliation.

Education is described by three indicators. The first, is the years of schooling, which is calculated according to the highest completed grade and duration of the different levels within the educational system of each country, and it is available for all countries except Brazil and Colombia. The second indicator is a binary variable indicating if the respondent has at least one year of post-secondary

studies. The third indicator is the highest-level completed, which we categorize in four options: "No education/Incomplete primary", "Primary education", "Secondary education", and "Tertiary education". In the case of Colombia, we cannot distinguish if a person was able to finish tertiary education, so this indicator captures tertiary education in a way similar to the second indicator.

Type of household identify a household in these categories according to the number of members and the presence of children:

- Nuclear: Households with a spouse without children nor other relatives or non-relatives.
- Household with only children: This household consists of a head, a spouse, and children. Neither other relatives nor non-relatives reside in this household.
- Household without children but with other adults: This household is composed of other relatives and non-relatives. No children reside in this household.
- The household expanded with children and other adults: The household consisted of a head, a spouse, other relatives, non-relatives, and children.

Labor Force Participation reports if a person is in the working-age population and works or have the willingness to work in the reference period.

Employment reports those who have worked at least one hour in the reference period (generally the last week or the last month if the survey asks about the week) or who, having a job, have not worked for extraordinary reasons (sick leave, strike, vacation, etc.).

Unemployment reports those who did not work for at least one hour in the reference period but are available to work and have taken concrete steps to find work.

Income is a continuous variable that indicates total and labor income in national currency. This information is available only for the census of Mexico in 2020 and Brazil in 2010. In Mexico, the monthly labor income for the principal work is only available when the question is asked: *"How much does (NAME) earn in that job?".* In Brazil, both labor and total income are available. The labor income reports the total income from all jobs in July 2010, and two questions are used to calculate this variable: *"In your main job, what was your usual gross monthly income (or withdrawal) in July 2010?"* and *"In other jobs, what was your usual gross monthly income (or withdrawal) in July 2010?"*. The total income includes labor income, retirement, pension, social programs, transfers and other sources (savings interest, financial applications, rent, pension or private pension retirement, etc.).

Homeownership indicates whether the house is reported to belong to them (whether fully or partially paid for).

Migration is a dichotomous variable that indicates whether the person was born in the country of the census.

Persons with disabilities are identified using questions similar to the Washington Group short set, where individuals report having at least some difficulty performing certain activities.

Assets are dichotomous variables that indicate whether the household owns any tangible or intangible items that hold economic value and contribute to the household's living standards, comfort, and functionality.

Table A1: Definition of household headship

Country	Year	Definition of headship	Source
Argentina	**2010**	Head is the person recognized as such by other household members.	https://international.ipums.org/international/resources/enum_materials_pdf/enum_instruct_ar2010a.pdf
Brazil	**2010**	For the person (man or woman), of at least 10 (ten) years, recognized by residents as responsible for the home.	https://celade.cepal.org/censosinfo/manuales/BR_ManCensista_2010.pdf
Chile	**2017**	Head refers to 15-year-old or older person that was recognized as such by the rest of their family members	http://resultados.censo2017.cl/download/Glosario.pdf
Colombia	**2018**	Head is the habitual resident who is recognized by the rest of his family as "head".	https://www.dane.gov.co/files/censo2018/informacion-tecnica/cnpv-2018-glosario.pdf
Guatemala	**2018**	It is the person that the rest of my home recognizes as such and who makes decisions in that way. They can be a woman or man, one who has the economic responsibility of the house. They can also be the oldest person, if it is regular resident of the house.	https://www.censopoblacion.gt/archivos/Glosario.pdf
Mexico	**2020**	A person recognized as such by the regular residents of the dwelling, through which the bond or kinship relationship of each resident is known to this person. If no one is identified as the head of the dwelling, then it is considered as a person of reference the first person of 12 years or more that is mentioned by the informant.	https://www.inegi.org.mx/app/glosario/default.html?p=cpv2020
Peru	**2017**	A person whom other household members	https://www.gob.pe/536-consultar-resultados-del-censo-nacional-2017-definiciones-basicas

		recognize as such and that lives permanently in the dwelling.	
Uruguay	**2017**	A person recognized as such by other household members.	https://international.ipums.org/international/resources/enum_materials_pdf/enum_instruct_uy2011a.pdf

Table A2: Household relationship to the head categories in original language

Argentina	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Guatemala	Mexico	Peru	Uruguay
2010	2010	2017	2018	2018	2020	2017	2017
Jefe(a)	Pessoa responsável pelo domicílio	Jefe/a de Hogar	Jefe(a) de hogar	Jefa o Jefe del hogar	Jefa o jefe	Jefe o Jefa del hogar	Jefe/a o persona de referencia
Cónyuge o pareja	Cônjuge ou companheiro(a) de sexo diferente	Esposo/a o cónyuge	Pareja (cónyuge, compañero[a], esposo[a])	Esposa(o) o pareja	Esposa(o) o pareja	Esposo/a o compañero/a	Esposo/a o compañero/a
Hijo(a) / Hijastro(a)	Cônjuge ou companheiro(a) do mesmo sexo	Conviviente por unión civil	Hijo(a)	Hija o hijo	Hija(o)	Hijo(a) / hijastro(a)	Hijo/a de ambos
Yerno / Nuera	Filho(a) do responsável e do cônjuge	Conviviente dehecho o pareja	Hijastro(a)	Hijastra(o)	Nieta(o)	Yerno / nuera	Hijo/a sólo del jefe/a
Nieto(a)	Filho(a) somente do responsável	Hijo/a	Yerno o nuera	Nuera o yerno	Nuera o yerno	Nieto/a	Hijo/a del esposo/a o compañero/a
Padre / Madre / Suegro(a)	Enteado(a)	Hijo/a del cónyuge, conviviente o pareja.	Padre o madre	Nieta o nieto	Madre o padre	Padre / madre / suegro/a	Yerno/nuera
Otros familiares	Genro ou nora	Hermano/a	Padrastro o madrastra	Hermana o hermano	Suegra(o)	Hermano/a	Padre/madre
Otros no familiares	Pai, mãe, padrasto ou madrasta	Padre/Madre	Suegro(a)	Madre o padre	Otro parentesco	Otro/a pariente	Suegro/a
Servicio doméstico y sus familiares	Sogro(a)	Cuñado/a	Hermano(a)	Suegra o suegro	Sin parentesco	Trabajador/a del hogar	Hermano/a
	Neto(a)	Suegro/a	Hermanastro(a)	Cuñada o cuñado		Pensionista	Cuñado/a
	Bisneto(a)	Yerno/Nuera	Cuñado(a)	Otra(o) pariente		Otro/a no pariente	Nieto/a
	Irmão ou irmã	Nieto/	Nieto(a)	Empleada(o) doméstica(o)		Otro pariente	
	Avô ou avó	Abuelo/a	Abuelo(a)	Pensionista o huésped			Otro no pariente

	Outro parente	Otro pariente	Otro pariente	Otra(o) no pariente			Servicio doméstico o familiar del mismo
	Agregado(a)	No pariente	Empleado(a) del servicio doméstico				Miembro de hogar colectivo
	Convivente	Servicio doméstico puertas adentro	No pariente				
	Pensionista						
	Empregado(a) doméstico(a)						
	Parente do(a) empregado(a) doméstico(a)						
	Individual em domicílio coletivo						

Categories used to identify a partner are marked in grey

Table A3: Household relationship to the head categories (categories translated to English)

Argentina	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Guatemala	Mexico	Peru	Uruguay
2010	2010	2017	2018	2018	2020	2017	2017
Head	Person responsible for the home	Head of Household	Head of Household	Head of Household	Head of Household	Head of Household	Head or reference person
Partner or husband	Spouse or Partner of Different Sex	Partner or husband	Partner (spouse, companion, husband)	Partner or husband	Partner or husband	Partner or husband	Partner or husband
Son(daughter) / Step son (daughter)	Spouse or Same-Sex Partner	Cohabitant by civil union	Son(daughter)	Son(daughter)	Son(daughter)	Son(daughter) / Step son (daughter)	Son(daughter) of both
Son(daughter) in law	Son of the person responsible and the spouse	De facto cohabitant or partner	Step son (daughter)	Step son (daughter)	Grandson (granddaughter)	Son-in-law or daughter-in-law	Son(daughter) of only the household head
Grandson (Granddaughter)	Son Only of the Person Responsible	Son(daughter) of both	Son-in-law or daughter-in-law	Son-in-law or daughter-in-law	Son-in-law or daughter-in-law	Grandson (granddaughter)	Son(daughter) of only the household partner or husband
Father / Mother / Father-in-law	Stepson	Son(daughter) of only the household partner or husband	Father / Mother	Grandson (granddaughter)	Father or mother	Father / Mother / Father-in-law	Son in law/ daughter in law
Other family	Son-in-law or daughter-in-law	Brother(sister)	Stepfather or Stepmother	Brother or sister	Mother(father) in law	Brother(sister)	Father / Mother
Other non-relatives	Father, Mother, Stepfather or Stepmother	Father / Mother	Father-in-law or mother-in-law	Father or Mother	Other relatives	Other relatives	Father-in-law or mother-in-law
Domestic service and their families	Father-in-law	Brother (sister) in law	Brother(sister)	Father-in-law or mother-in-law	Non-relative	Domestic employee	Brother(sister)
	Grandson (Granddaughter)	Father-in-law or mother-in-law	Stepbrother (stepsister)	Sister-in-law or brother-in-law		Pensioner	Brother-in-law (sister-in-law)
	Great-grandson	Son in law/ daughter in law	Brother-in-law (sister-in-law)	Other relatives		Other non-relatives	Grandson (granddaughter)

	Brother and sister	Grandson (granddaughter)	Grandson (granddaughter)	Domestic employee		Other relatives	
	Grandfather or Granny	Grandfather (grandmother)	Grandfather (grandmother)	Pensioner o Guest			Other non-relatives
	Other Relative Familiar	Other relatives	Other relatives	Other non-relatives			Domestic employee or their familiar
	Relative	Non-relatives	Domestic service employee				Group household member
	Cohabitant	Indoor domestic service	Non-relatives				
	Pensioner						
	Domestic employee						
	Family Member of the Domestic Employee						
	Individual In Collective Home						

Table A4: Indigenous status in Chile and Mexico.

Country	Chile	Mexico
Year	2017	2020
Target population	For all people	3 years and older
Indigenous Questions	Considers themselves to belong to an indigenous or native people (Yes/No)	According to your culture,[...] Do you consider yourself indigenous? (Yes/No)
African descendant question		For their ancestors and in accordance with their customs and traditions, [...] Are they considered Black Afro-Mexican or African descendant? (Yes/No)

Table A5: Ethnicity question.

Country	Brazil	Colombia	Guatemala	Peru	Uruguay
Year	**2010**	**2018**	**2018**	**2017**	**2017**
Target population	For all people	For all people	For all people	12 years and older	For all people
Ethnicity Questions	Their color or race is..	According to their culture, people or physical traits, they are or are recognized as…	Based on your background or history, how do you consider or self-identify:	Because of their customs and their ancestors, Do you feel or consider:	Do you think you have ancestry…
Indigenous categories	Indigenous	Indigenous	Maya Garífuna Xinka	Quechua Aimara Native or indigenous to the Amazon Belonging to or part of another indigenous or native people Shawi Ashaninka Awajun Shipibo Konibo	Indigenous
African descendant categories	Brown Black	Raizal of the archipelago of San Andrés, Providencia and Santa Catalina Palenquero de San Basilio Black, mulatto, Afro-descendant, Afro-Colombian	Afro-descendant / Creole / Afromestizo?	Black, moreno, zambo, mulatto / Afro-Peruvian or Afro-descendant people	Afro or Black?
Non indigenous nor African descendant categories	White Yellow	Gitano o rom No ethnic group	Ladin(s) Foreigner	White Mestizo Other No know / No answer Nikkei Tusan	Asian or Yellow White Other

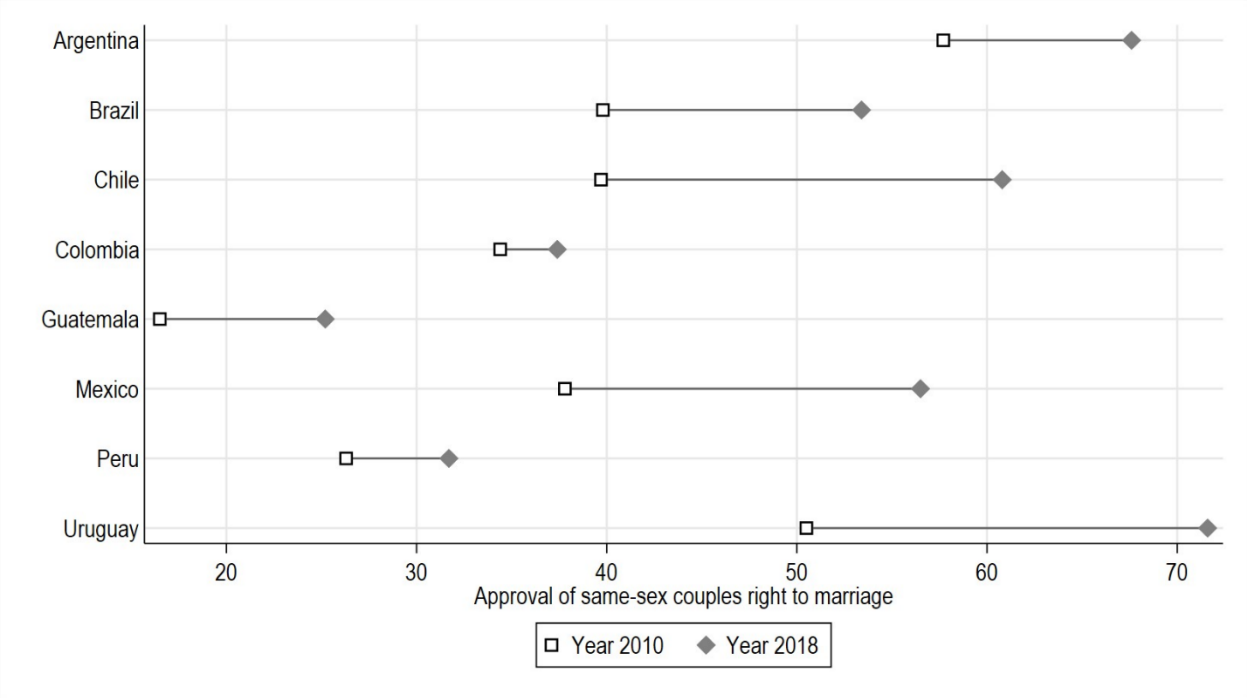
Table A6: Indicators included in the asset index by country.

Description	Argentina	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Guatemala	Mexico	Peru	Uruguay
Material in wall	-	9 categories	6 categories	9 categories	10 categories	8 categories	9 categories	7 categories
Material in ceiling	8 categories	-	7 categories	-	7 categories	10 categories	8 categories	6 categories
Material in floor	3 categories	-	5 categories	6 categories	8 categories	3 categories	7 categories	5 categories
Watter in the house	3 categories	10 categories	7 categories	Yes/No	10 categories	13 categories	8 categories	7 categories
Type of household	8 categories	6 categories	7 categories	6 categories	6 categories	-	9 categories	8 categories
Toilet type	-	-	-	6 categories	5 categories	3 categories	-	-
Kitchen type	-	-	-	6 categories	Yes/No	6 categories	-	3 categories
Source of water for cooking	-	-	-	11 categories	-	-	-	-
With dwelling ownership	5 categories	6 categories	-	-	6 categories	4 categories	5 categories	Yes/No
With a refrigerator in the house	Yes/No	Yes/No	-	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
With telephone in the house	Yes/No	Yes/No	-	-	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
With cellphone in the house	Yes/No	Yes/No	-	-	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
With computer in the house	Yes/No	Yes/No	-	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
With internet in the house	-	Yes/No	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
With television in the house	-	Yes/No	-	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
With Kitchen in the household	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	-
With electricity in the household	-	Yes/No	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	6 categories
With washing machine in the household	-	Yes/No	-	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	-
With Oven in the household	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	-
With own car in the household	Yes/No	Yes/No	-	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
With Motorcycle	Yes/No	Yes/No	-	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
Witk bike	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-	-
With radio	-	Yes/No	-	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	-	Yes/No
With cable TV	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	-
With paid stream	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-	-
With videogame	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-	-
With tinaco	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-	-
With water tank	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-	-
With water bomb	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-	-
With watering can	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-	-
With water heater	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-	-
With solar water heater	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-	-
With air-conditioning	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-	-
With solar panel	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-	-
With a stereo	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-
With blender	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-

With an iron	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-
With a boat	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-
With a stove	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-	-	-
Use of clean fuel in the household	5 categories	-	-	-	7 categories	5 categories	8 categories	7 categories
With sewerage	-	Yes/No	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	5 categories	8 categories	4 categories
With gas	-	-	-	Yes/No	-	-	-	-
With trash	-	7 categories	-	Yes/No	8 categories	6 categories	-	-
With water tank	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-	-	-
With a temazcal	-	-	-	-	Yes/No	-	-	-
With water heater	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No
With dryer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No
With a XO laptop	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes/No
With an exclusive bathroom for the household	3 categories	-	-	-	Yes/No	Yes/No	-	Yes/No
Number of rooms	0-10	1-9	1-6	1-20	Yes/No	1-25	1-15	1-20
Ownership of the land	Yes/No	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
With a bathroom	Yes/No	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
With an improved bathroom	Yes/No	-	-	-	-	3 categories	-	-
With a system heating	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9 categories

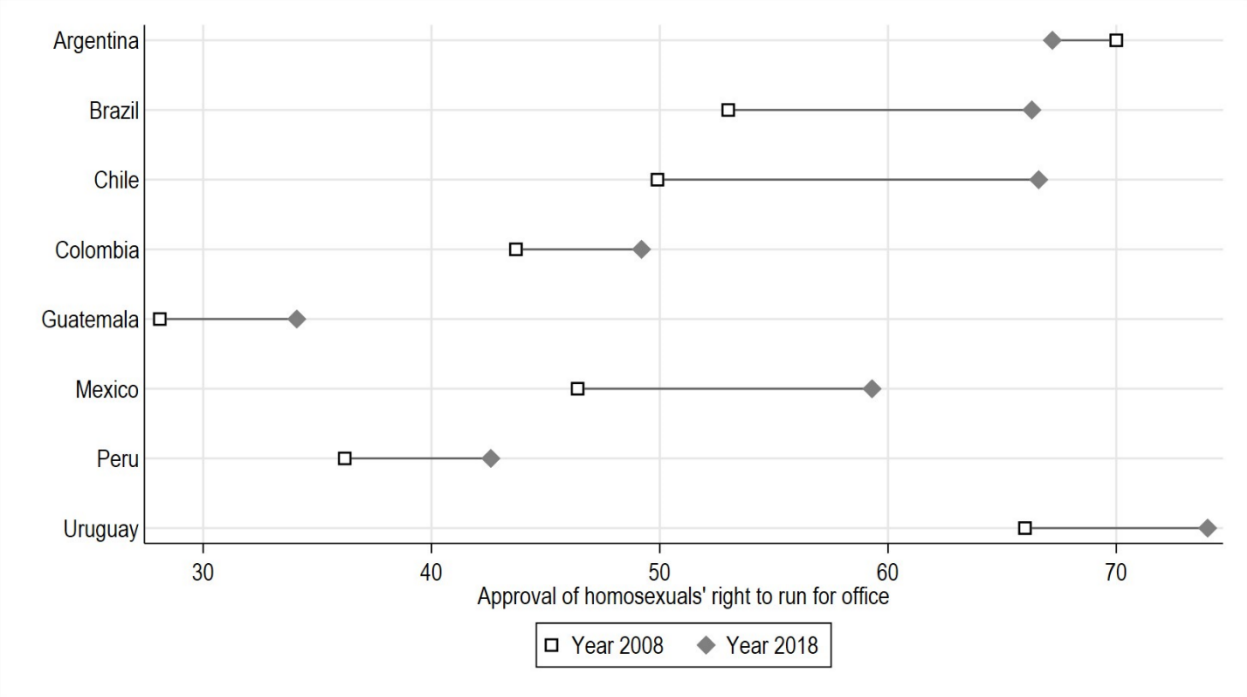
Appendix B. Additional figures and tables.

Figure B1: Attitudes towards same-sex marriage



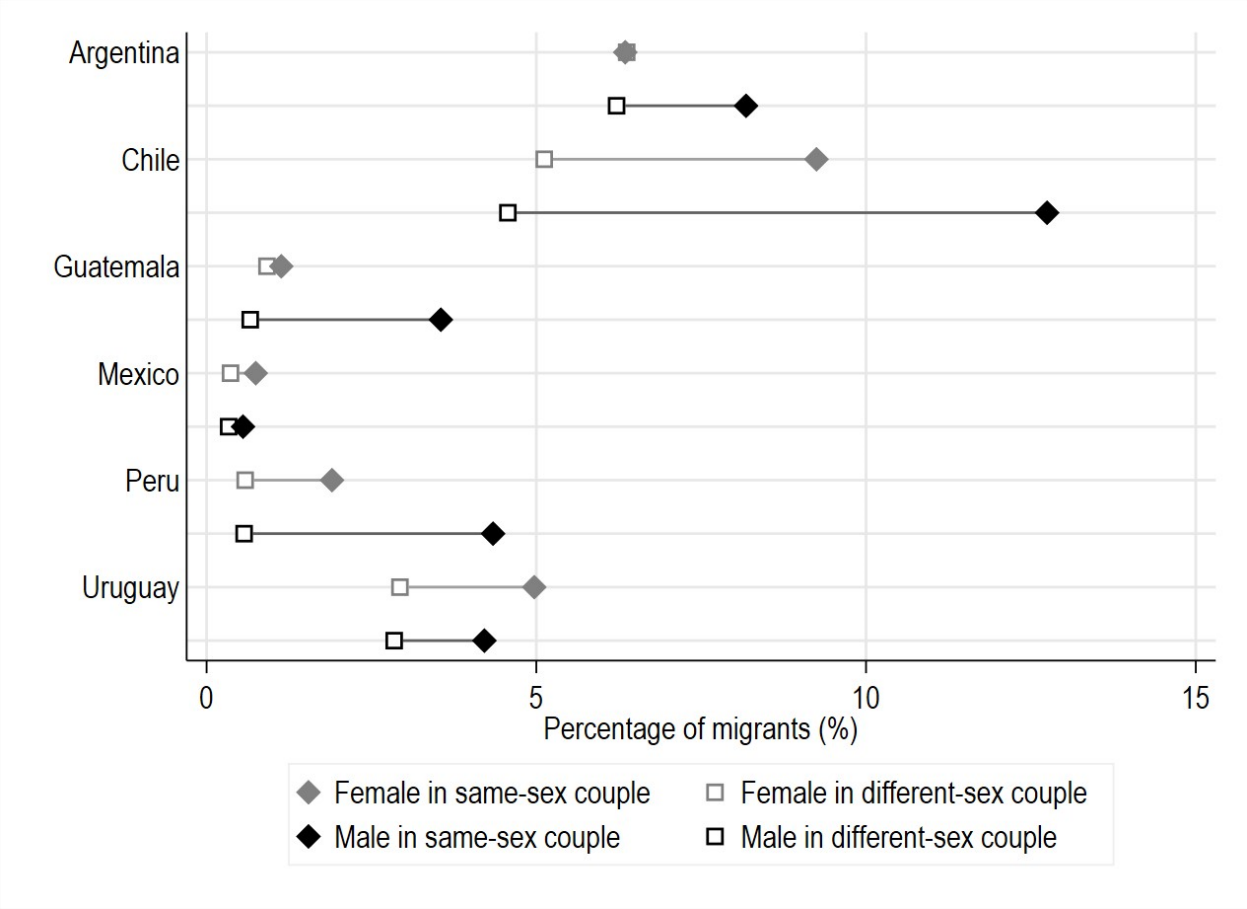
Original question: "How strongly do you approve or disapprove of same-sex couples having the right to marry?" (Scale 0-100). Source: authors' own calculation based on data from AmericasBarometer 2010-2018 (https://public.tableau.com/app/profile/lapop.central/viz/LAPOPV3_2/Combination?publish=yes, accessed on November 2023).

Figure B2: Attitudes towards sexual minority individuals as politicians.



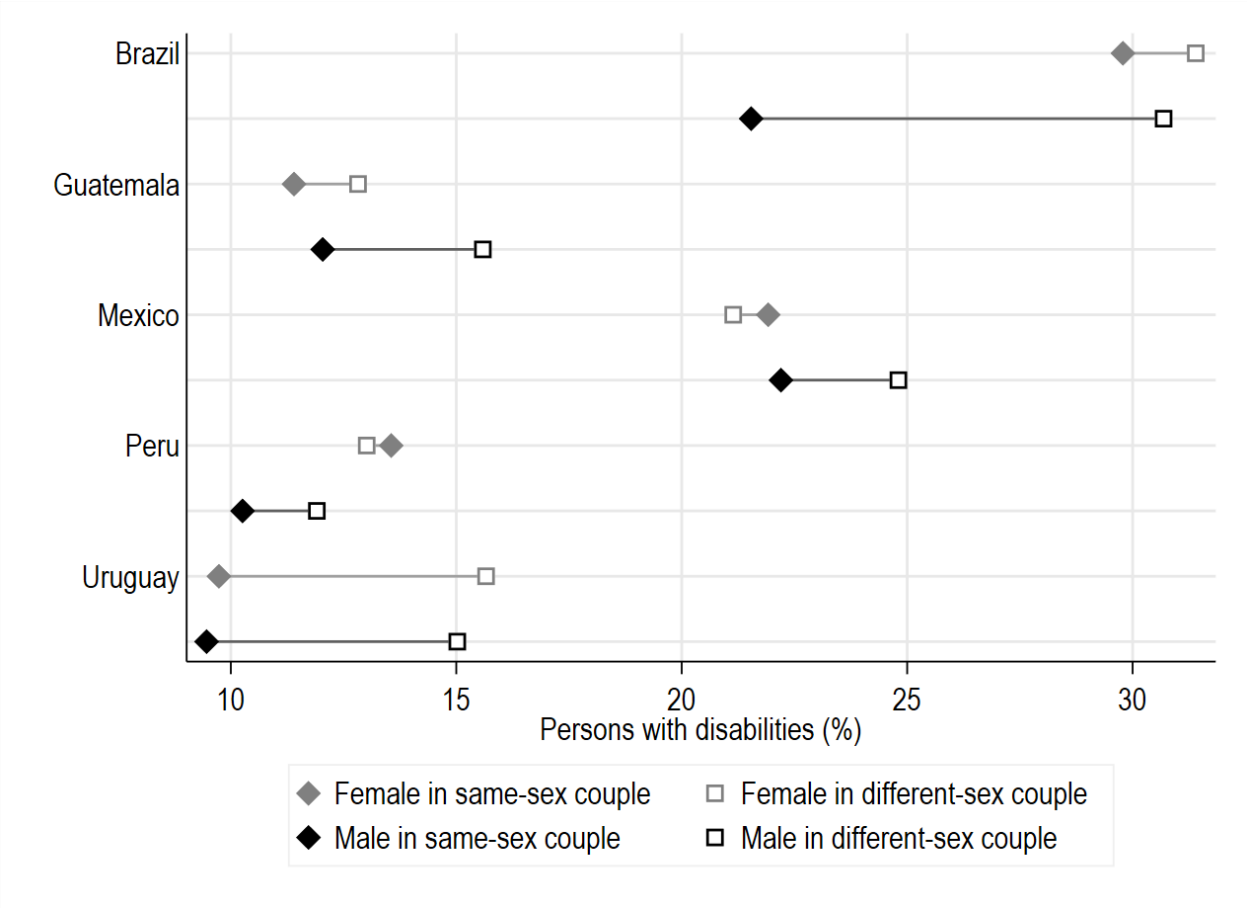
Original question: "And now, changing the topic and thinking of homosexuality, how strongly do you approve or disapprove of such people being permitted to run for public office?" (Scale 0-100). Source: authors' own calculation based on data from AmericasBarometer 2010-2018 (https://public.tableau.com/app/profile/lapop.central/viz/LAPOPV3_2/Combination?publish=yes, accessed on November 2023).

Figure B3: Share of migrants for individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples.



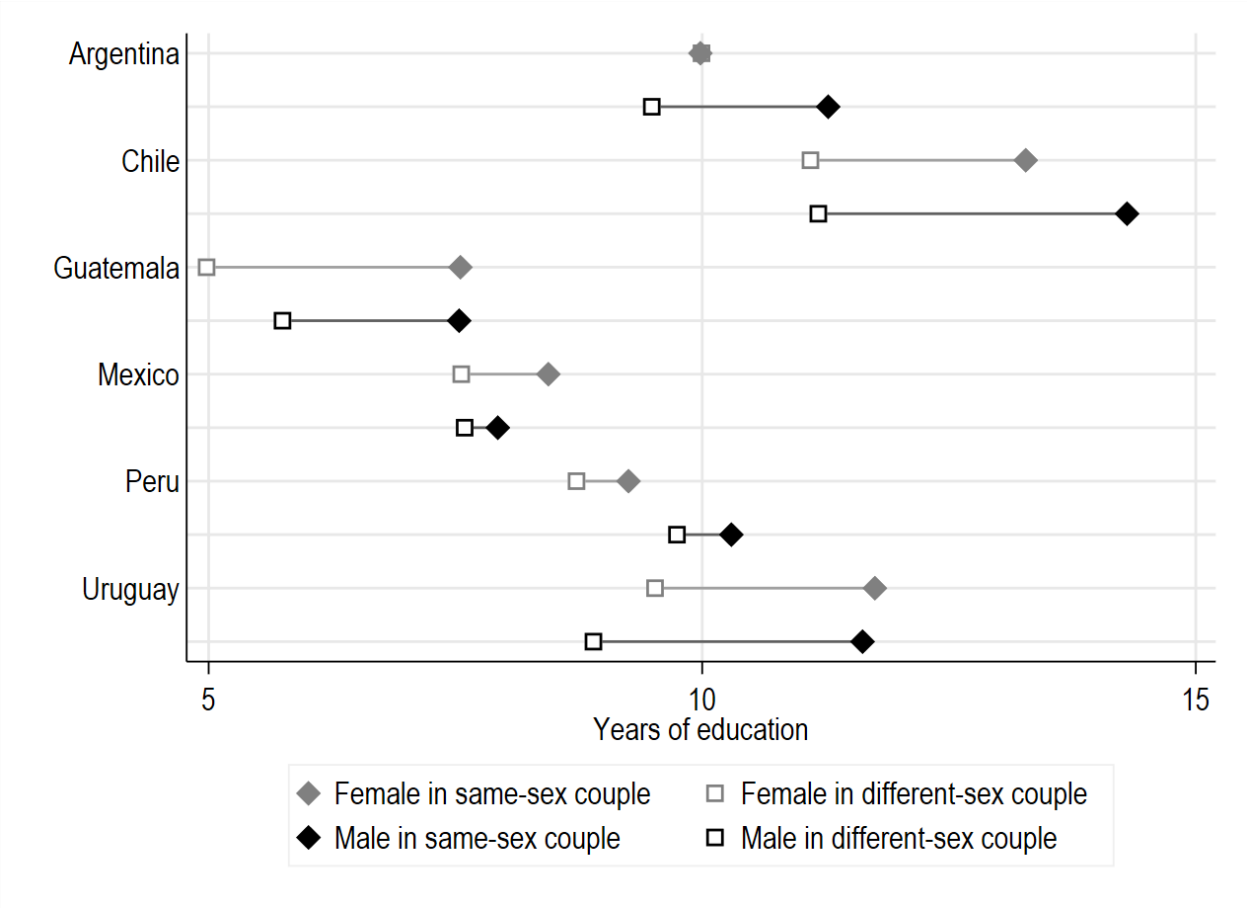
Migrant is defined as a person born in a different country. Weighted statistics.

Figure B4: Disability rates of individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples.



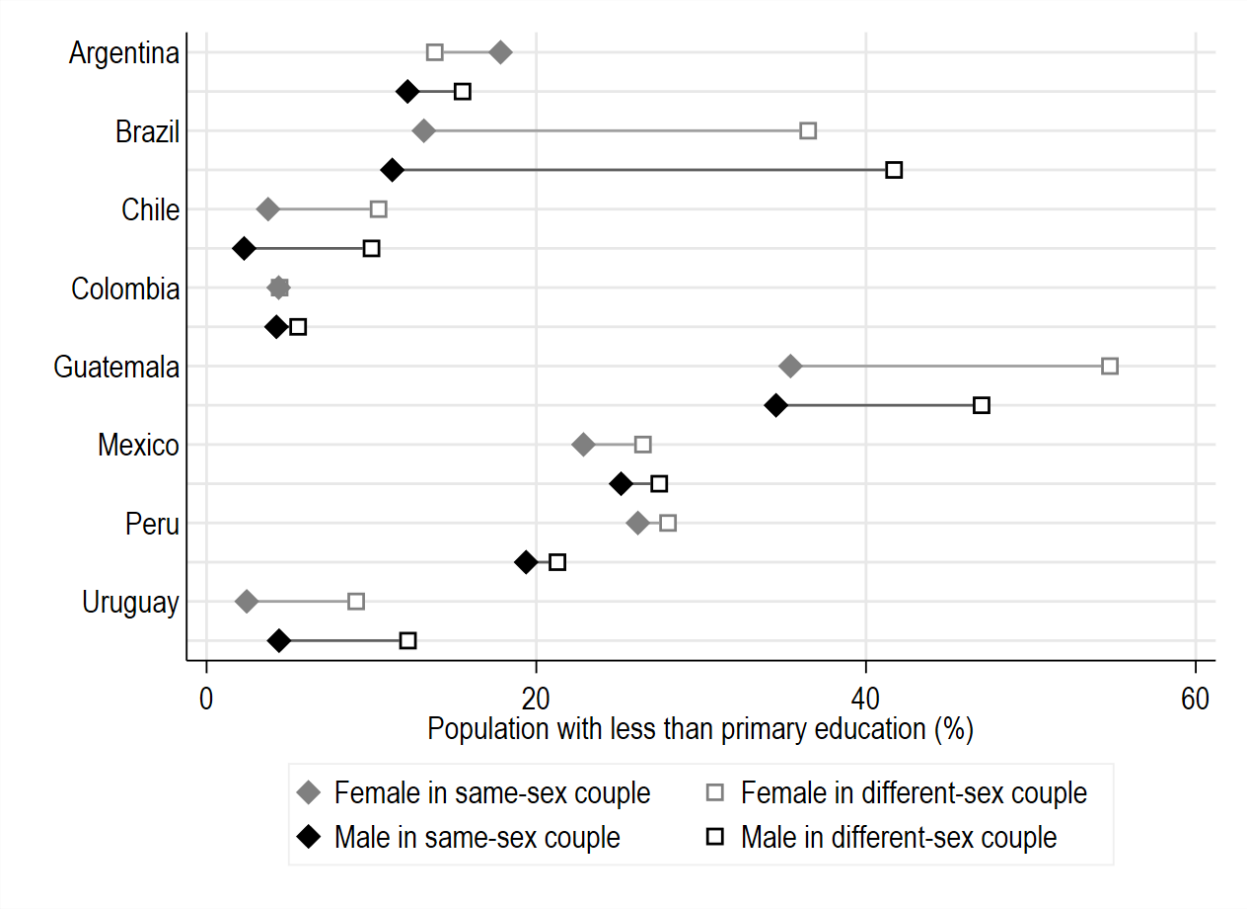
Persons with disabilities are those individuals reporting having at least some difficulty doing certain activities (vision, hearing, mobility, cognition, self-care, and communication). Only questions that are close to the Washington Group short set on functioning questions are used. Weighted statistics. Information about disability is not available in Argentina, Chile, and Colombia.

Figure B5: Average years of education of individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples.



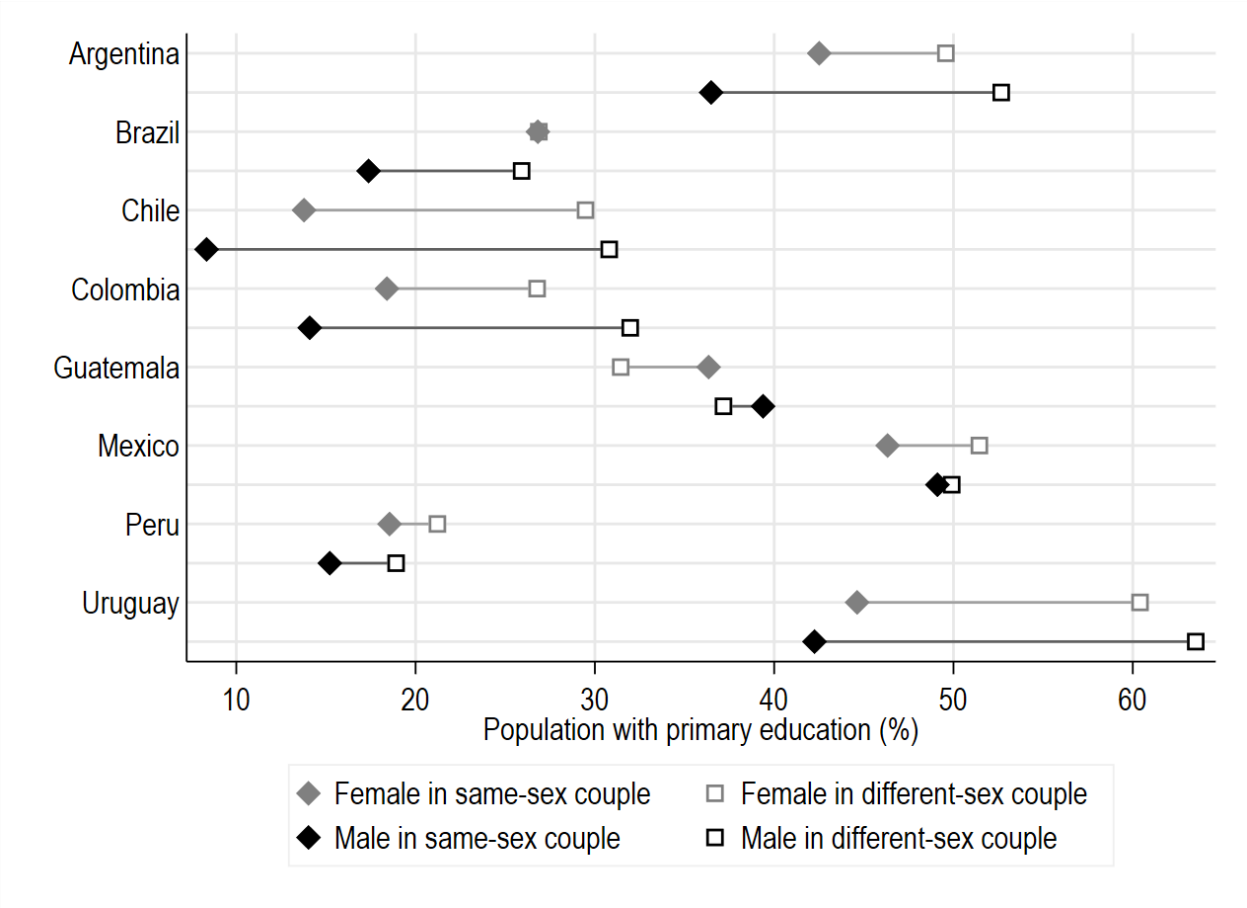
Years of education is defined as completed years of formal schooling and derived from the information about last completed grade and the duration of each level in each country educational system. Weighted statistics. Information about years of education is not available in Brazil and Colombia.

Figure B6: Population with less than primary education in same-sex and different-sex couples.



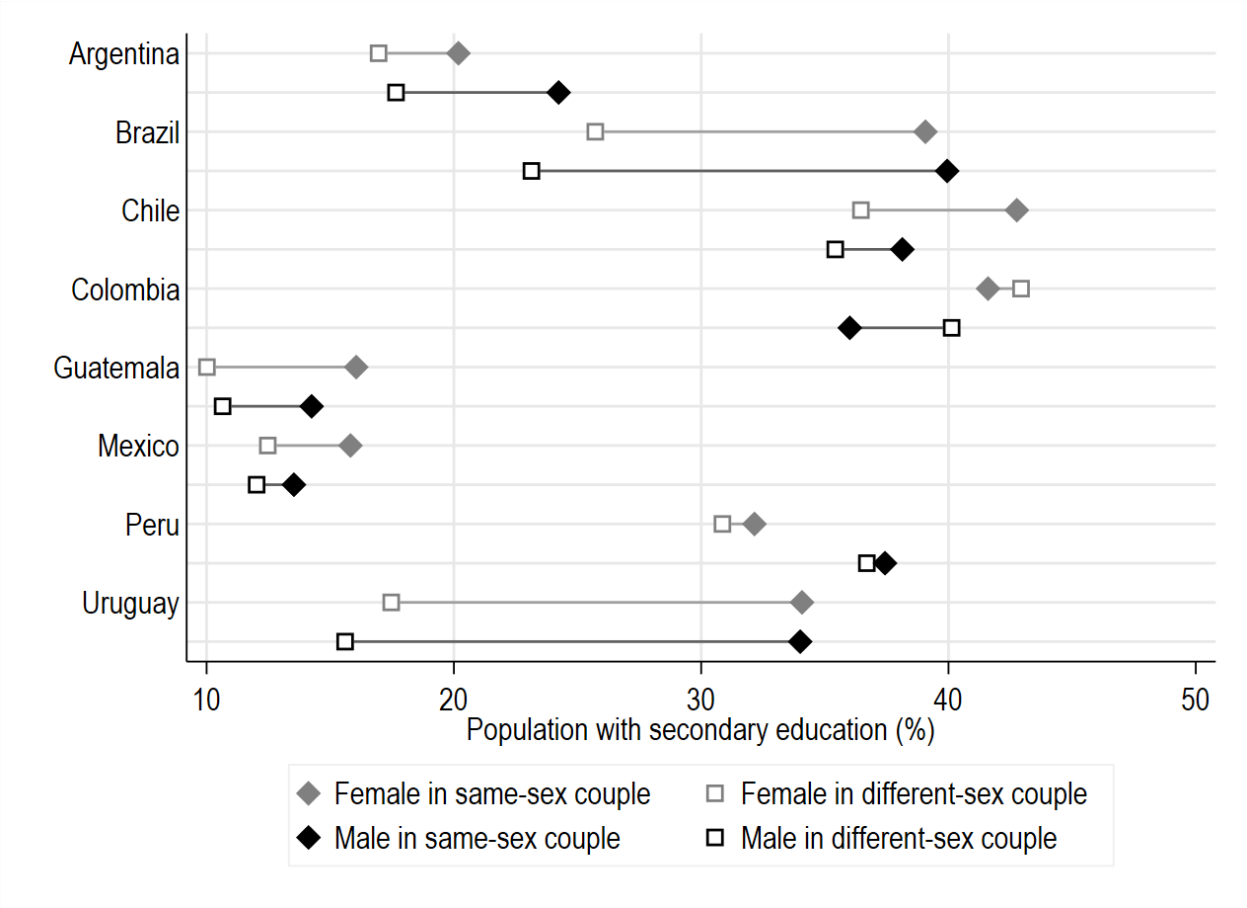
Persons with less than primary education are those individuals with no formal education or with incomplete primary. Primary education is not defined to match any official country educational definition and, when possible, consider the first six years of formal education as primary (following the harmonization done by IPUMS International). Weighted statistics.

Figure B7: Population with primary education in same-sex and different-sex couples.



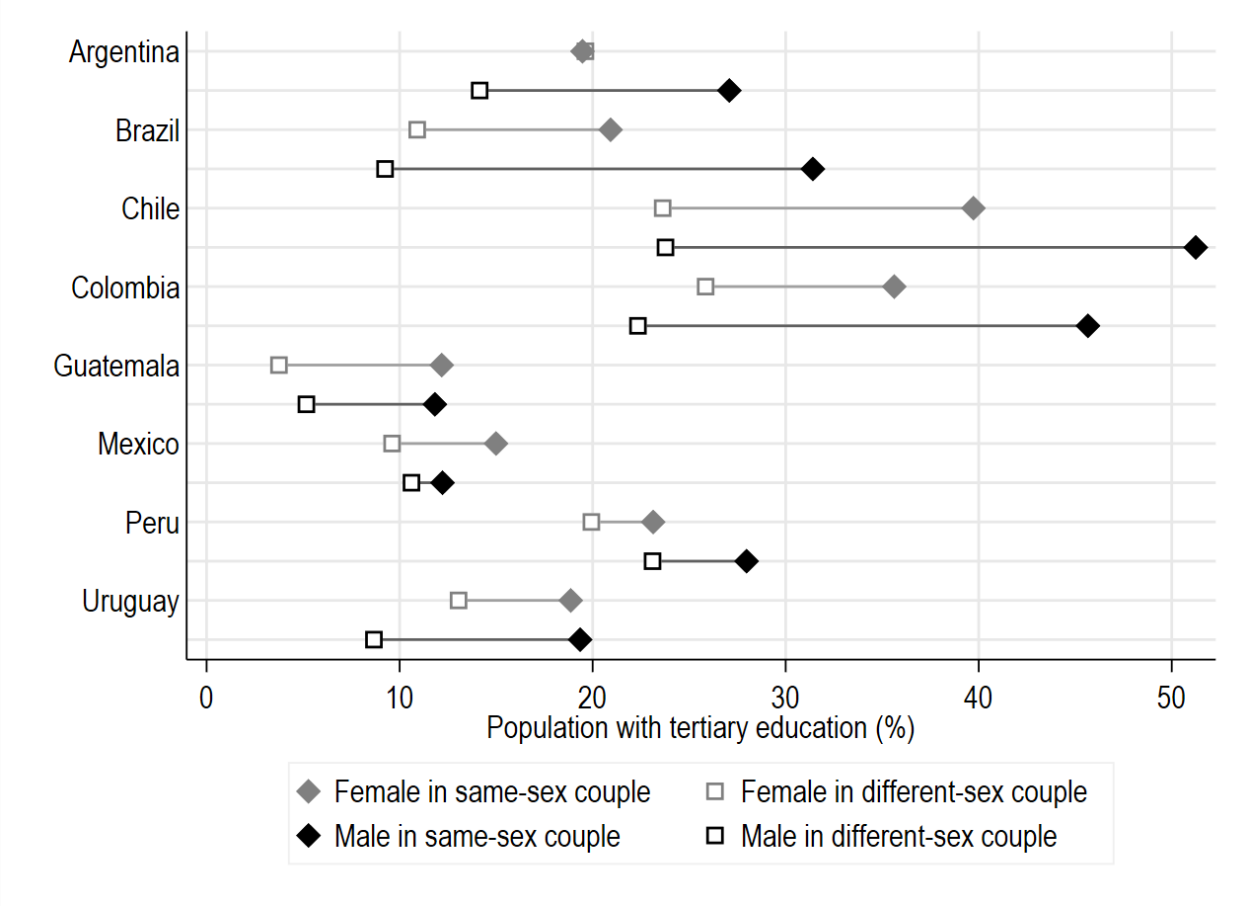
Persons with primary education are those individuals that completed primary education but less than secondary education. The levels of education are not defined to match any official country educational definition and when possible, consider the first six years of formal education as primary and twelve as secondary (following the harmonization done by IPUMS International). Weighted statistics.

Figure B8: Population with secondary education in same-sex and different-sex couples.



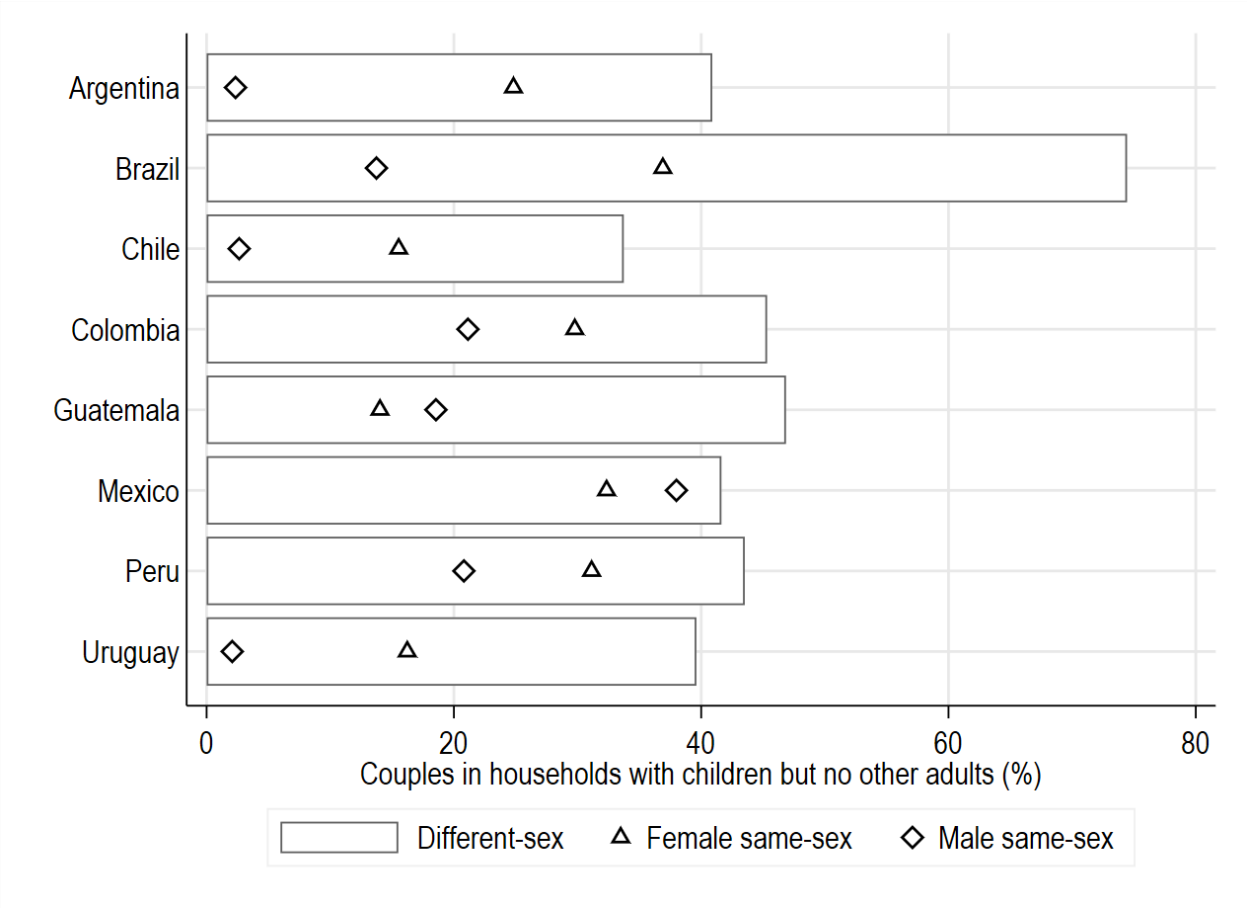
Persons with secondary education are those individuals that completed secondary education but less than tertiary education. The levels of education are not defined to match any official country educational definition and when possible, consider the first twelve years of formal education as secondary (following the harmonization done by IPUMS International). Weighted statistics.

Figure B9: Population with tertiary education in same-sex and different-sex couples.



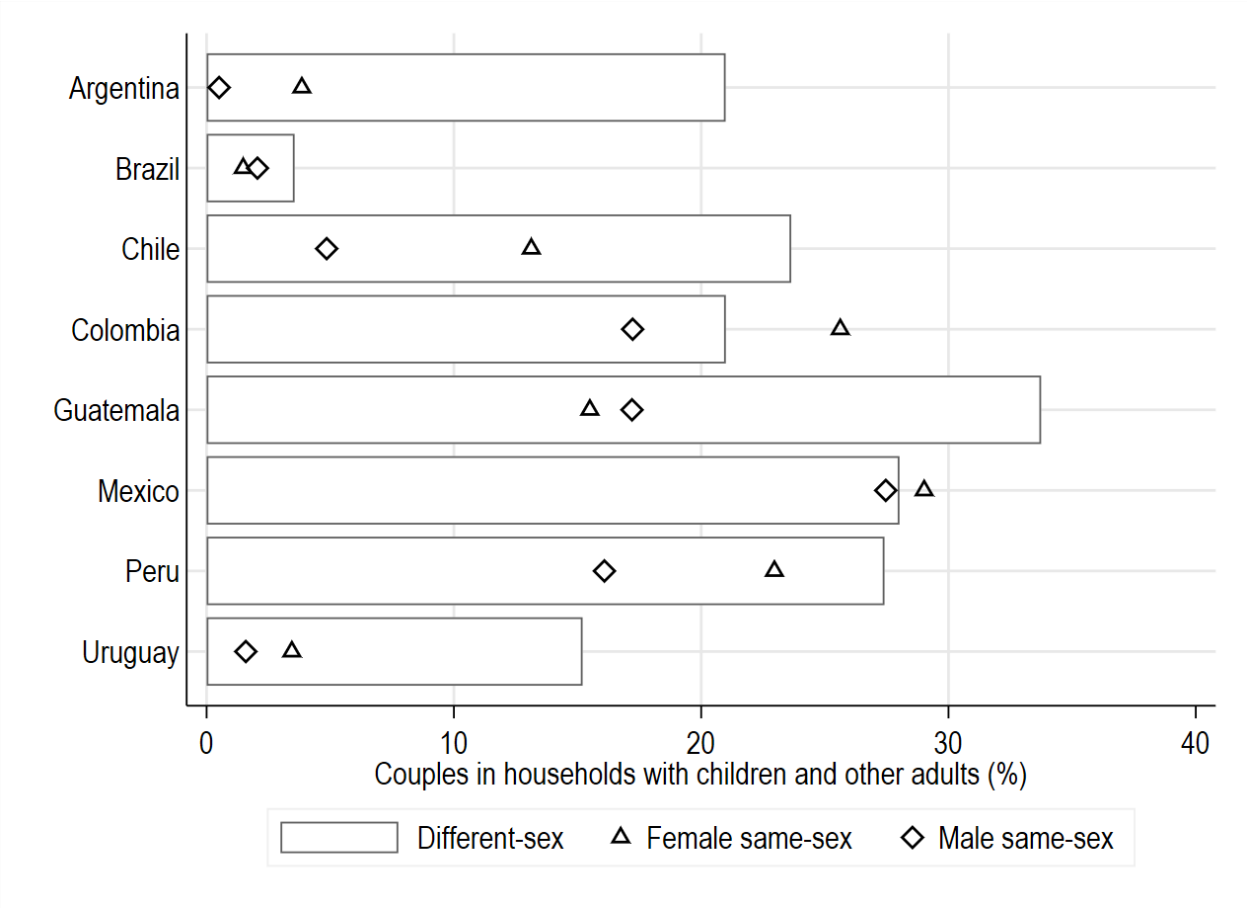
Persons with tertiary education are those individuals that completed a post-secondary degree. Weighted statistics.

Figure B10: Share of couples with children but no other adults, by couple type.



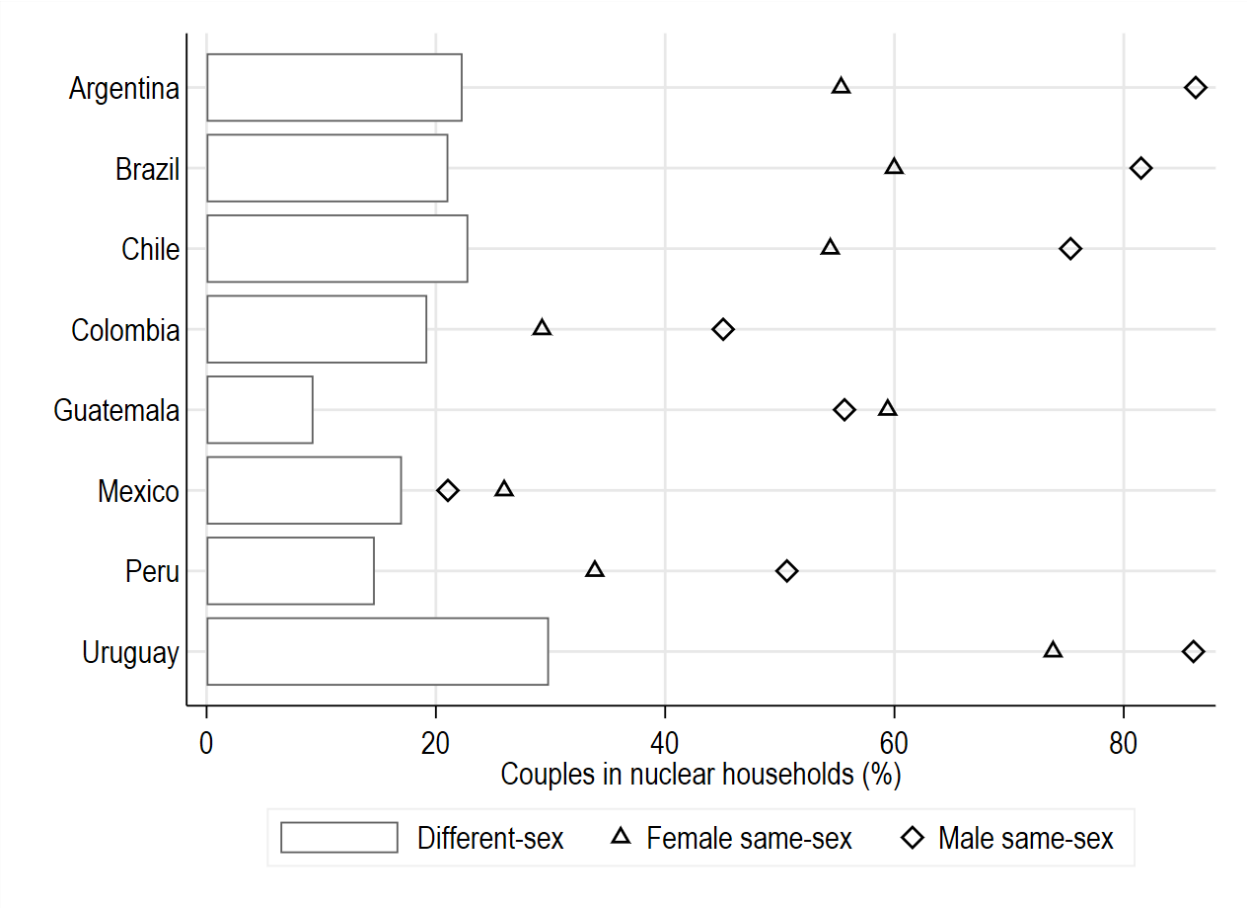
Couple in household with children but no other adults is defined as those households headed by a couple that cohabit only with other individuals younger than 18 years. Weighted statistics.

Figure B11: Share of couples with children and other adults, by couple type.



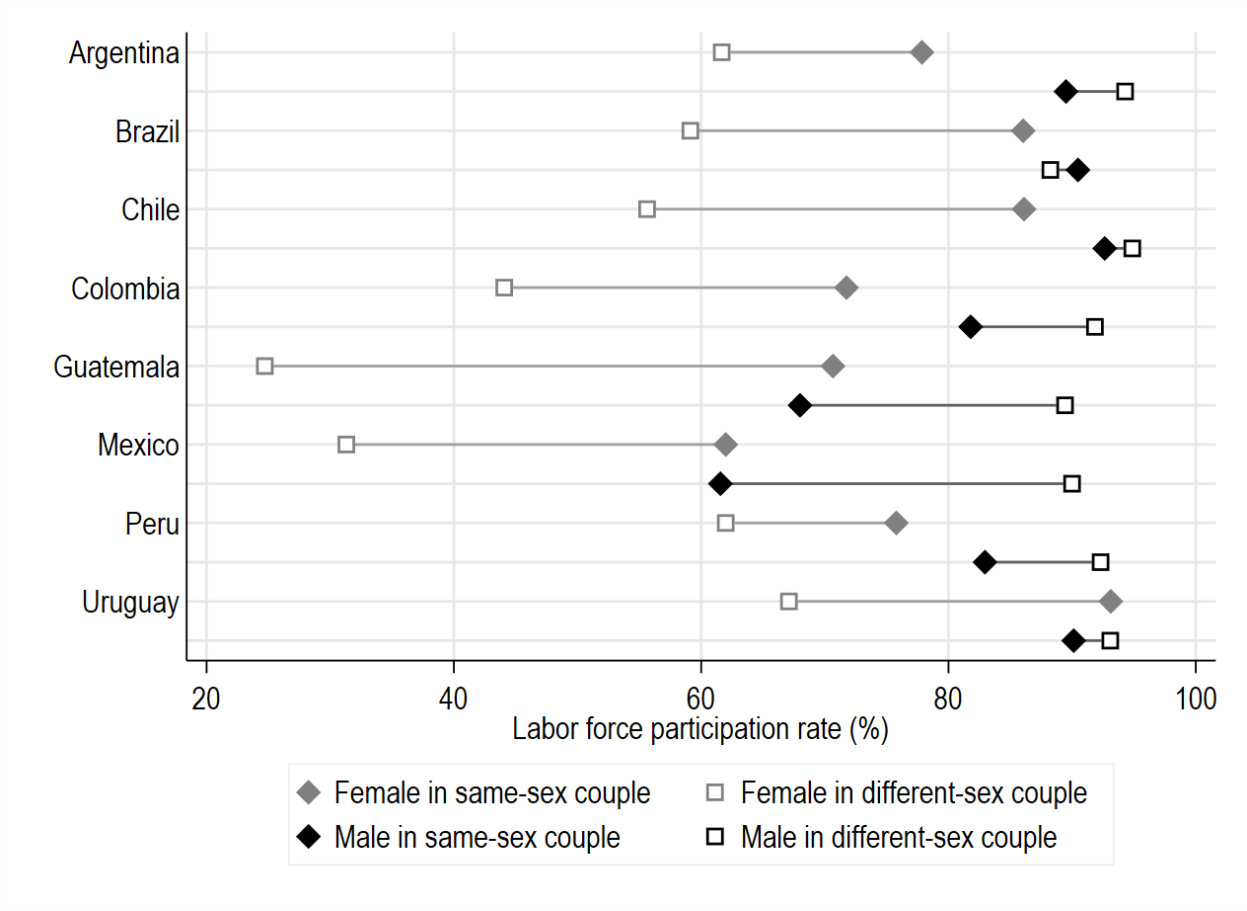
Couple in household with children and other adults is defined as households headed by a couple that cohabit with at least one individual younger than 18 years and at least one individual older than 17 years. Weighted statistics.

Figure B12: Share of couples in nuclear households, by type of couple.



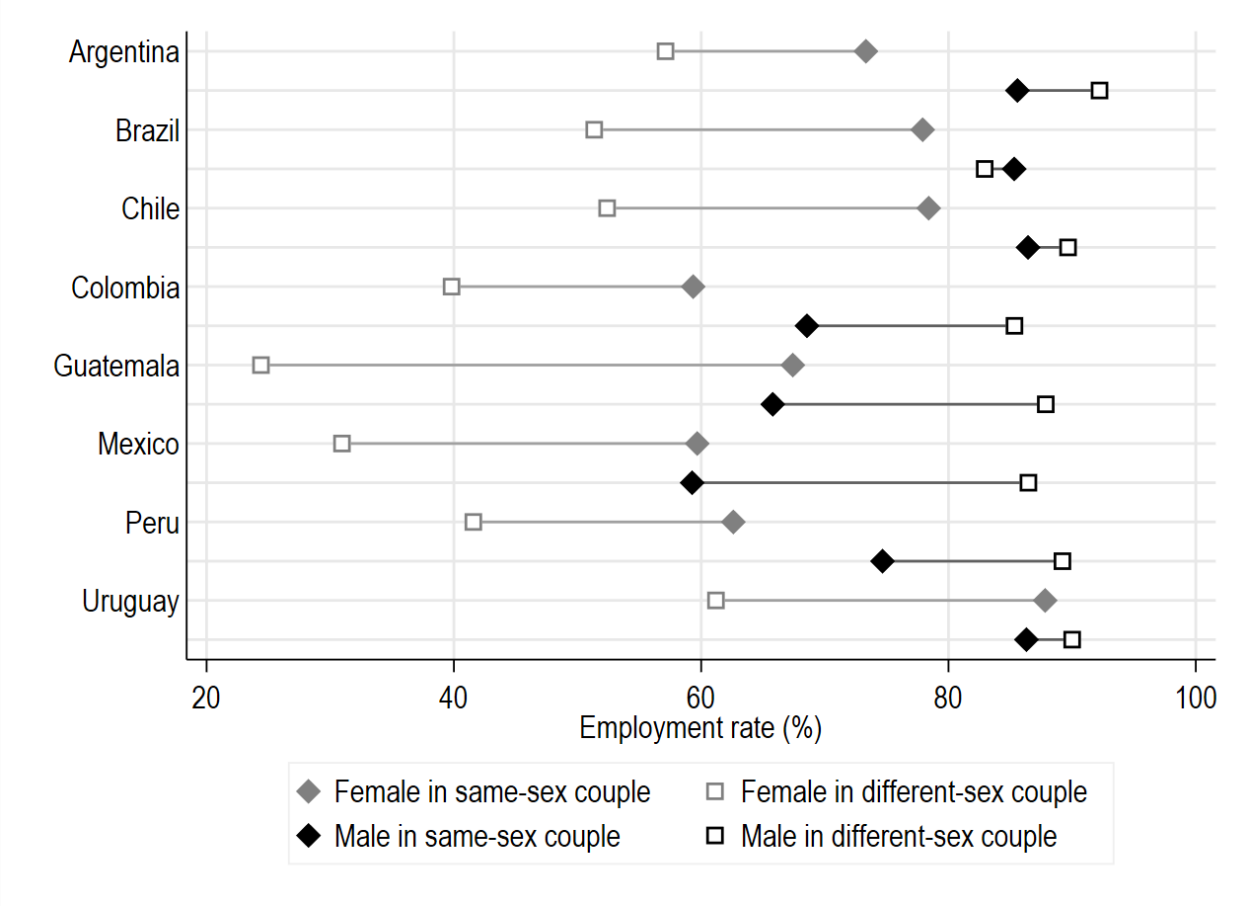
Nuclear household is defined as a household headed by a couple that does not cohabit with any other individual. Weighted statistics.

Figure B13: Labor force participation rate of individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples.



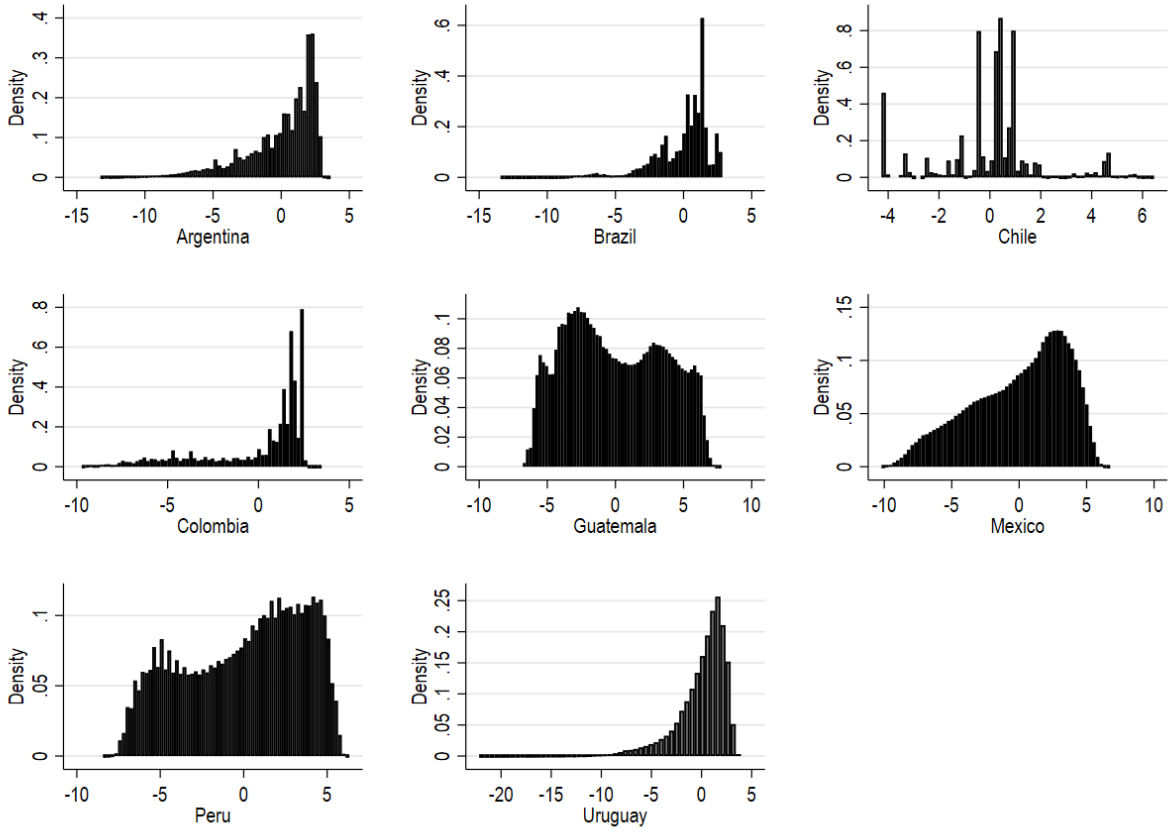
Labor force participation is defined as the share of individuals that are part of the labor force, either working (working for pay at job/business; working, without pay, at job/business; with job, but not at work) or seeking work (unemployed) during the recall period. The sample is restricted to individuals aged 18 to 64 years. Weighted statistics.

Figure B14: Employment rate of individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples.



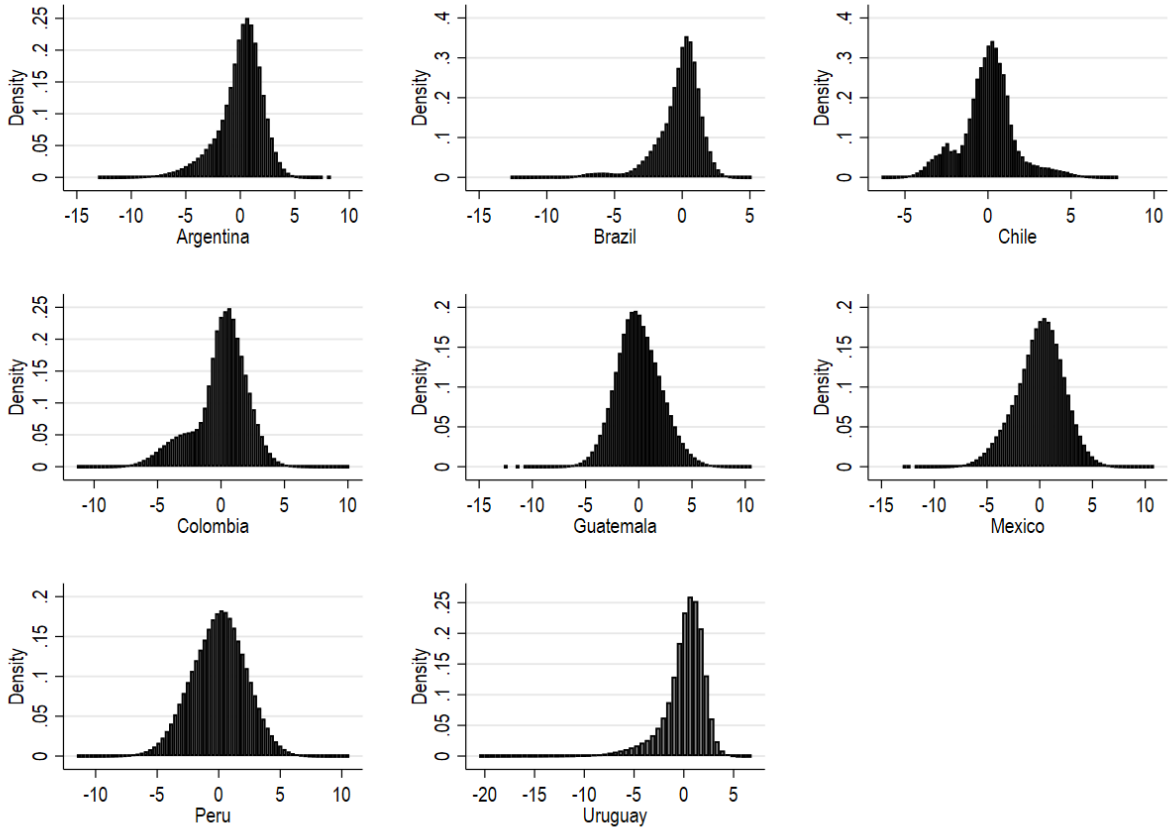
The employment rate is defined as the share of individuals that are working (working for pay at job/business; working, without pay, at job/business; with job, but not at work) during the recall period. The sample is restricted to individuals aged 18 to 64 years. Weighted statistics.

Figure B15: Histogram of the distribution of the asset index.



The asset index is constructed as a weighted average of a set indicators reflecting ownership of assets, access to certain services and dwelling characteristics (see Table A6) using principal component analysis. The sample is restricted to couples aged between 18 and 64 years. Weighted statistics.

Figure B16: Histogram of the asset index after partialling out demographics.



The histogram plots the residuals of a regression between an asset index against the household's head age (and its squared), race/ethnicity, region, and education attainment, as well as the characteristics of the partner (age, race/ethnicity, and education). The asset index is constructed as a weighted average of a set indicators reflecting ownership of assets, access to certain services and dwelling characteristics (see Table A6) using principal component analysis. The sample is restricted to couples aged between 18 and 64 years. Weighted statistics.

Table B1: Average age of individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples.

	Female in different-sex couple	Female in same-sex couple	Male in different-sex couple	Male in same-sex couple	Comparisons by couple type	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(2)-(1)	(4)-(3)
Argentina	44.20	45.06	47.20	41.01	0.86	-6.19
	{0.018}	{0.350}	{0.018}	{0.375}	(0.014)	(0.000)
Brazil	41.44	34.24	45.07	35.50	-7.21	-9.56
	{0.008}	{0.144}	{0.008}	{0.174}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Chile	46.99	35.18	49.54	36.13	-11.81	-13.41
	{0.008}	{0.100}	{0.009}	{0.087}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Colombia	43.27	39.88	47.16	39.04	-3.39	-8.12
	{0.005}	{0.069}	{0.006}	{0.071}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Guatemala	40.67	38.17	44.07	38.05	-2.50	-6.02
	{0.009}	{0.685}	{0.010}	{0.555}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Mexico	44.34	43.88	47.84	45.24	-0.46	-2.60
	{0.009}	{0.107}	{0.009}	{0.071}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Peru	43.78	42.80	47.26	41.44	-0.98	-5.82
	{0.007}	{0.178}	{0.007}	{0.209}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Uruguay	45.51	35.90	48.82	37.96	-9.61	-10.87
	{0.019}	{0.331}	{0.020}	{0.293}	(0.000)	(0.000)

Note: Robust standard errors are reported in curly brackets. P-values for the statistical significance of the differences by couple type are reported in parenthesis. Weighted statistics. See also Figure 2.

Table B2: Indigenous rates of individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples.

	Female in different-sex couple	Female in same-sex couple	Male in different-sex couple	Male in same-sex couple	Comparisons by couple type (p.p.)	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(2)-(1)	(4)-(3)
Brazil	0.4%	0.4%	0.4%	0.3%	0.01%	-0.06%
	{0.0000}	{0.0009}	{0.0000}	{0.0009}	(0.953)	(0.464)
Chile	11.8%	12.0%	11.7%	10.0%	0.18%	-1.61%
	{0.0002}	{0.0028}	{0.0002}	{0.0024}	(0.526)	(0.000)
Colombia	3.9%	2.9%	3.8%	2.4%	-1.06%	-1.43%
	{0.0001}	{0.0007}	{0.0001}	{0.0008}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Guatemala	41.7%	30.3%	42.2%	30.1%	-11.42%	-12.07%
	{0.0003}	{0.0197}	{0.0003}	{0.0168}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Mexico	38.7%	31.3%	39.1%	35.4%	-7.40%	-3.72%
	{0.0003}	{0.0030}	{0.0003}	{0.0022}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Peru	28.9%	20.3%	29.5%	20.8%	-8.62%	-8.73%
	{0.0002}	{0.0046}	{0.0002}	{0.0055}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Uruguay	5.7%	11.5%	4.9%	8.6%	5.83%	3.68%
	{0.0003}	{0.0102}	{0.0003}	{0.0069}	(0.000)	(0.000)

Note: Robust standard errors are reported in curly brackets. P-values for the statistical significance of the differences by couple type are reported in parenthesis. Weighted statistics. The comparisons by couple type are expressed in percentage points (p.p.). Information about ethnicity is not available for Argentina. See also Figure 3.

Table B3: African descendant rates of individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples.

	Female in different-sex couple	Female in same-sex couple	Male in different-sex couple	Male in same-sex couple	Comparisons by couple type (p.p.)	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(2)-(1)	(4)-(3)
Brazil	48.1%	44.4%	49.3%	39.9%	-3.69%	-9.46%
	{0.0003}	{0.0074}	{0.0003}	{0.0081}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Colombia	6.1%	8.3%	6.4%	7.2%	2.19%	0.86%
	{0.0001}	{0.0012}	{0.0001}	{0.0013}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Guatemala	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	0.1%	0.02%	-0.05%
	{0.0000}	{0.0018}	{0.0000}	{0.0013}	(0.912)	(0.694)
Mexico	2.6%	2.9%	2.7%	2.7%	0.31%	-0.03%
	{0.0001}	{0.0011}	{0.0001}	{0.0007}	(0.004)	(0.649)
Peru	3.3%	5.1%	4.2%	5.5%	1.74%	1.29%
	{0.0001}	{0.0025}	{0.0001}	{0.0031}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Uruguay	7.6%	11.2%	7.6%	10.7%	3.56%	3.11%
	{0.0003}	{0.0100}	{0.0003}	{0.0076}	(0.000)	(0.000)

Note: Robust standard errors are reported in curly brackets. P-values for the statistical significance of the differences by couple type are reported in parenthesis. Weighted statistics. The comparisons by couple type are expressed in percentage points (p.p.). Information about race is not available for Argentina and Chile. See also Figure 4.

Table B4: Average education level of individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples.

	Female in different-sex couple	Female in same-sex couple	Male in different-sex couple	Male in same-sex couple	Comparisons by couple type (p.p.)	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(2)-(1)	(4)-(3)
Argentina	24.9%	28.2%	19.5%	39.8%	3.27	20.27
	{0.0005}	{0.0085}	{0.0005}	{0.0110}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Brazil	14.7%	31.3%	12.8%	44.9%	16.54	32.08
	{0.0002}	{0.0071}	{0.0002}	{0.0083}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Chile	27.8%	52.1%	28.3%	65.3%	24.29	37.01
	{0.0003}	{0.0042}	{0.0003}	{0.0038}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Colombia	25.9%	35.6%	22.3%	45.7%	9.77	23.31
	{0.0002}	{0.0021}	{0.0002}	{0.0025}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Guatemala	5.4%	15.3%	7.1%	15.3%	9.93	8.25
	{0.0001}	{0.0155}	{0.0002}	{0.0132}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Mexico	9.0%	14.7%	10.3%	11.9%	5.75	1.56
	{0.0002}	{0.0023}	{0.0002}	{0.0015}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Peru	27.2%	32.3%	30.0%	38.0%	5.11	8.02
	{0.0002}	{0.0052}	{0.0002}	{0.0065}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Uruguay	21.0%	43.0%	15.1%	42.4%	22.02	27.31
	{0.0005}	{0.0158}	{0.0004}	{0.0122}	(0.000)	(0.000)

Note: Percentage of individuals with at least one year of post-secondary education. Robust standard errors are reported in curly brackets. P-values for the statistical significance of the differences by couple type are reported in parenthesis. Weighted statistics. The comparisons by couple type are expressed in percentage points (p.p.). See also Figure 5.

Table B5: Average education level of individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples. Detailed categories.

	Argentina	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Guatemala	Mexico	Peru	Uruguay
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Less than primary education								
Female in different-sex couple	13.8%	36.5%	10.4%	4.4%	54.8%	26.5%	28.0%	9.1%
Female in same-sex couple	17.8%	13.2%	3.7%	4.4%	35.4%	22.9%	26.2%	2.4%
Male in different-sex couple	15.5%	41.7%	10.0%	5.6%	47.0%	27.5%	21.3%	12.2%
Male in same-sex couple	12.2%	11.3%	2.3%	4.2%	34.5%	25.1%	19.4%	4.4%
Primary education								
Female in different-sex couple	49.6%	26.9%	29.5%	26.8%	31.4%	51.4%	21.2%	60.4%
Female in same-sex couple	42.5%	26.8%	13.8%	18.4%	36.3%	46.3%	18.5%	44.6%
Male in different-sex couple	52.7%	25.9%	30.8%	32.0%	37.2%	49.9%	18.9%	63.5%
Male in same-sex couple	36.5%	17.4%	8.3%	14.1%	39.4%	49.1%	15.2%	42.2%
Secondary education								
Female in different-sex couple	17.0%	25.7%	36.5%	42.9%	10.0%	12.5%	30.9%	17.5%
Female in same-sex couple	20.2%	39.1%	42.8%	41.6%	16.1%	15.8%	32.2%	34.1%
Male in different-sex couple	17.7%	23.1%	35.4%	40.1%	10.6%	12.0%	36.7%	15.6%
Male in same-sex couple	24.2%	39.9%	38.1%	36.0%	14.2%	13.5%	37.4%	34.0%
Tertiary education								
Female in different-sex couple	19.6%	10.9%	23.6%	25.9%	3.7%	9.6%	19.9%	13.1%
Female in same-sex couple	19.5%	20.9%	39.7%	35.6%	12.2%	15.0%	23.1%	18.9%
Male in different-sex couple	14.1%	9.2%	23.8%	22.3%	5.2%	10.6%	23.1%	8.7%
Male in same-sex couple	27.1%	31.4%	51.2%	45.7%	11.8%	12.2%	28.0%	19.4%

Weighted statistics. See also Figure 5.

Table B6: Childrearing by couple type.

	Individual in different-sex couple	Female in same-sex couple	Male in same-sex couple	Comparisons by couple type (p.p.)	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(2)-(1)	(3)-(1)
Argentina	61.9%	28.7%	2.8%	-33.2	-59.0
	{0.001}	{0.012}	{0.005}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Brazil	78.0%	38.4%	15.8%	-39.6	-62.2
	{0.000}	{0.010}	{0.008}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Chile	57.4%	28.7%	7.5%	-28.7	-49.9
	{0.000}	{0.005}	{0.003}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Colombia	66.3%	55.4%	38.4%	-10.9	-28.0
	{0.000}	{0.003}	{0.003}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Guatemala	80.6%	29.5%	35.8%	-51.1	-44.9
	{0.000}	{0.028}	{0.025}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Mexico	69.7%	61.4%	65.5%	-8.3	-4.2
	{0.000}	{0.004}	{0.003}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Peru	70.9%	54.1%	36.9%	-16.8	-34.0
	{0.000}	{0.008}	{0.009}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Uruguay	54.8%	19.7%	3.7%	-35.1	-51.2
	{0.001}	{0.018}	{0.007}	(0.000)	(0.000)

Note: Children are any individual younger than 18 years old cohabiting with the main couple (i.e., the head of the household and their spouse or partner). Robust standard errors are reported in curly brackets. P-values for the statistical significance of the differences by couple type are reported in parenthesis. Weighted statistics. The comparisons by couple type are expressed in percentage points (p.p.). See also Figure 6.

Table B7: Unemployment rate of individuals in same-sex and different-sex couples.

	Female in different-sex couple	Female in same-sex couple	Male in different-sex couple	Male in same-sex couple	Comparisons by couple type (p.p.)	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(2)-(1)	(4)-(3)
Argentina	6.9%	4.8%	2.1%	3.3%	-2.03	1.18
	{0.0004}	{0.0049}	{0.0002}	{0.0045}	(0.000)	(0.008)
Brazil	12.8%	9.0%	6.6%	5.4%	-3.83	-1.18
	{0.0003}	{0.0045}	{0.0001}	{0.0039}	(0.000)	(0.002)
Chile	4.4%	7.3%	4.5%	5.1%	2.84	0.60
	{0.0002}	{0.0024}	{0.0001}	{0.0018}	(0.000)	(0.001)
Colombia	7.4%	9.6%	6.3%	8.8%	2.18	2.49
	{0.0002}	{0.0016}	{0.0001}	{0.0016}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Guatemala	0.6%	2.6%	1.6%	2.3%	1.95	0.65
	{0.0001}	{0.0084}	{0.0001}	{0.0068}	(0.021)	(0.342)
Mexico	0.6%	2.6%	3.6%	3.2%	2.02	-0.35
	{0.0001}	{0.0014}	{0.0001}	{0.0011}	(0.000)	(0.001)
Peru	7.1%	6.1%	2.7%	4.7%	-1.02	2.02
	{0.0002}	{0.0034}	{0.0001}	{0.0033}	(0.003)	(0.000)
Uruguay	7.0%	5.5%	1.7%	4.1%	-1.47	2.38
	{0.0004}	{0.0075}	{0.0002}	{0.0052}	(0.051)	(0.000)

Note: Robust standard errors are reported in curly brackets. P-values for the statistical significance of the differences by couple type are reported in parenthesis. Weighted statistics. The comparisons by couple type are expressed in percentage points (p.p.). See also Figure 7.

Table B8: Homeownership rates by couple type.

	Individual in different-sex couple	Female in same-sex couple	Male in same-sex couple	Comparisons by couple type (p.p.)	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(2)-(1)	(3)-(1)
Argentina	73.7%	68.1%	61.9%	-5.5	-11.8
	{0.001}	{0.012}	{0.015}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Brazil	74.8%	51.5%	51.1%	-23.4	-23.8
	{0.000}	{0.010}	{0.012}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Guatemala	81.3%	69.0%	68.5%	-12.3	-12.7
	{0.000}	{0.028}	{0.024}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Mexico	78.6%	72.4%	77.1%	-6.2	-1.6
	{0.000}	{0.004}	{0.003}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Peru	77.7%	72.3%	65.1%	-5.4	-12.5
	{0.000}	{0.007}	{0.009}	(0.000)	(0.000)
Uruguay	60.9%	42.8%	46.2%	-18.1	-14.8
	{0.001}	{0.022}	{0.017}	(0.000)	(0.000)

Note: Robust standard errors are reported in curly brackets. P-values for the statistical significance of the differences by couple type are reported in parenthesis. Weighted statistics. The comparisons by couple type are expressed in percentage points (p.p.). See also Figure 10.

Table B9: Income gaps by couple type: including all coefficients.

	Brazil				Mexico	
	Income		Earnings		Earnings	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Same sex	0.1982***	0.1024***	0.1859***	0.0851***	0.2875***	-0.1063***
	(0.0154)	(0.0189)	(0.0150)	(0.0176)	(0.0088)	(0.0063)
Age	0.0225***	0.0276***	0.0409***	0.0466***	0.0442***	0.0263***
	(0.0005)	(0.0003)	(0.0005)	(0.0003)	(0.0008)	(0.0004)
Age^2	-0.0001***	-0.0001***	-0.0004***	-0.0004***	-0.0005***	-0.0003***
	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)
Primary	0.1924***	0.2470***	0.2212***	0.2471***	0.2324***	0.1492***
	(0.0018)	(0.0013)	(0.0019)	(0.0012)	(0.0039)	(0.0016)
Secondary	0.4437***	0.5040***	0.4867***	0.4993***	0.5312***	0.3109***
	(0.0019)	(0.0015)	(0.0020)	(0.0015)	(0.0047)	(0.0022)
Tertiary	1.1279***	1.2352***	1.1563***	1.2175***	1.0368***	0.6472***
	(0.0026)	(0.0026)	(0.0026)	(0.0025)	(0.0049)	(0.0028)
Indigenous people	-0.1199***	-0.1955***	-0.1566***	-0.2016***	-0.1612***	-0.1111***
	(0.0148)	(0.0115)	(0.0153)	(0.0112)	(0.0044)	(0.0024)
African descendant	-0.0959***	-0.1016***	-0.1013***	-0.0981***	-0.0454***	-0.0145***
	(0.0015)	(0.0011)	(0.0015)	(0.0011)	(0.0092)	(0.0053)
Children	-0.0320***	0.0311***	-0.0437***	0.0352***	-0.0838***	-0.0027
	(0.0016)	(0.0013)	(0.0016)	(0.0013)	(0.0027)	(0.0016)
Age (partner)	0.0000	0.0005***	0.0008***	0.0001*	-0.0016***	-0.0011***
	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0002)	(0.0001)
Primary (partner)	0.1389***	0.1964***	0.1617***	0.1978***	0.1794***	0.1598***
	(0.0017)	(0.0013)	(0.0017)	(0.0013)	(0.0036)	(0.0018)
Secondary (partner)	0.2775***	0.3525***	0.3055***	0.3549***	0.3182***	0.2771***
	(0.0019)	(0.0015)	(0.0019)	(0.0015)	(0.0044)	(0.0023)
Tertiary (partner)	0.6252***	0.6405***	0.6365***	0.6376***	0.4302***	0.3953***
	(0.0030)	(0.0024)	(0.0029)	(0.0023)	(0.0048)	(0.0029)
Indigenous people (partner)	-0.1101***	-0.1799***	-0.1315***	-0.1779***	-0.1008***	-0.1253***
	(0.0138)	(0.0114)	(0.0145)	(0.0112)	(0.0043)	(0.0024)
African descendant (partner)	-0.0641***	-0.1131***	-0.0637***	-0.1086***	0.0038	-0.0187***
	(0.0015)	(0.0012)	(0.0015)	(0.0011)	(0.0089)	(0.0054)
Constant	5.5266***	5.7132***	5.1349***	5.3835***	6.9953***	7.9802***
	(0.0104)	(0.0079)	(0.0104)	(0.0078)	(0.0188)	(0.0096)
Observations	1,828,224	2,919,186	1,789,642	2,912,198	663,301	1,719,783
R-squared	0.4130	0.4428	0.4247	0.4460	0.2954	0.2363
Mean log of income	6.655	6.990	6.588	6.935	8.259	8.596

Weighted statistics. Robust standard errors clustered at couple level in parentheses. The dependent variable is the logarithm of income or earnings. The sample is restricted to individuals aged between 18 and 64 years that were working and reported income greater than zero. The regressions include state fixed effects. See also Table 2.