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DISENTANGLING THE INFLUENCE OF MEN'S ATTITUDES TOWARD CHILDCARE AND HOUSEWORK ON LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES: LONGITUDINAL EVIDENCE FROM CHILE

Barbara Flores Arenas and Ignacia Abufhele Milad

ABSTRACT

This article explores the influence of gender-role attitudes toward childcare and housework on men's labor market outcomes. Using the Chilean Longitudinal Social Survey (2016–21), the study estimates an individual fixed effects labor supply model and addresses endogeneity through panel data correction methods. Although childcare and housework attitudes are often treated similarly, findings suggest they influence men's labor market outcomes differently. Men with egalitarian views about housework are less likely to participate in the labor market, more likely to be formal workers, and more likely to face challenges redistributing paid work hours to housework. Conversely, an egalitarian view regarding childcare does not explain any of the outcomes. This difference can be attributed to traditional gender norms that associate childcare with women, leading men to feel less external pressure to participate in this task than housework. This evidence highlights the importance of implementing policies that promote co-responsibility and gender-inclusive work policies.

KEYWORDS

Gender-role attitudes, gender inequality, male labor supply, individual fixed effects, sample selection correction

JEL Codes:: D10, J16, J20

HIGHLIGHTS

- Men's views on housework shape labor participation, contracts, and wages in Chile.
- Egalitarian housework attitudes link to formal jobs and higher pay for men.
- Support for men's childcare links to fewer full-time and permanent jobs.

- Women's labor outcomes show little response to beliefs about men's roles.
- Flexible work schedules and parental leave are needed to align attitudes and behavior.

INTRODUCTION

Historically, economists have explained gender gaps in labor market participation, employability, hours of work, and salaries by using the classic human capital theory (Becker 1964), attributing the observed differences to the supply side and overlooking institutionally-based demand-side discrimination against women (Tan 2014). Gender scholars have rejected this reductional approach on the grounds that institutions and the social context can shape individual decisions and perpetuate gender differences in all dimensions of life (Calkin 2018). From this perspective, the concept of labor must consider both paid and unpaid work and its interplay with cultural factors (Marcén and Morales 2022).

The human capital approach explains labor market disparities through traditional determinants of productivity, such as education and experience (Mincer 1962; Goldin 2006) and, when comparing the outcomes of men and women, has tended to ignore the possible influence of cultural norms on human capital accumulation and their reinforcement by the institutional framework (Colander and Woos 1997; Lips 2013). According to this theory, investments are embedded in the private sphere and gendered outcomes are the result of personal and family choices (Gardiner 2000).

Gender scholars have argued that classic human capital theory denies gender as a basic principle of social structure, asserting that gender regimes are appropriated conceptualizations since they define how gender hierarchies are constructed (Acker 1992). Accordingly, care and housework are no longer family decisions, but part of the economic domain, which considers both paid and unpaid work (Walby 1989, 2020). This broader perspective is essential for studying gender gaps in the labor market comprehensively, taking into account cultural factors and institutional constraints. Despite consensus on labor market gender gaps, the intricate interactions between the cultural factors that underpin existing inequalities remain unclear. Specifically, how men's gender-role attitudes shape their working conditions has been understudied. This article contributes to this open debate by looking at whether the dynamics of gender-role attitudes toward childcare and housework¹ are related to men's labor market outcomes in Chile. Although experts have increasingly accepted gender-role attitudes as relevant for explaining labor market outcomes (Kabeer 2020), research has focused on female labor force participation (Muchomba, Jiang, and Kaushal 2020). Studies focused on men, analyzing

other labor market outcomes, disaggregating gender-role attitudes, and using a dynamic perspective, are scarce, especially in Latin American countries.

Chile is an interesting case study because machismo and conservative social norms predominate, but vary with sociodemographic characteristics (Contreras and Plaza 2010); despite a high educational level, the female labor participation rate (FLPR) is low compared to both developed and other Latin American countries (Flores 2021); and important social movements, such as the 2018 Feminist May (Vivaldi and Sepúlveda 2021) and the October 2019 social uprising (Sehnbruch and Donoso 2020), have placed feminist ideology at the center of public policy discussion. Additionally, the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 revealed the care crisis, and men's attitudes may have changed (Gerber et al. 2021).

Using the Chilean Longitudinal Social Survey (COES 2021), we estimate an individual fixed effects model and correct sample selection bias to describe the relationship between attitudes toward childcare or housework and labor outcomes by sex. The results show that more gender-egalitarian views on housework reduce men's probability of participation in the labor market by 7.9 percentage points (pp) and, when they do participate, they are an average 18 pp more likely to have a formal contract. We do not find a statistically significant association between men's attitudes toward childcare and their labor outcomes. For women, we found no association between their views on men's role in childcare or housework and their labor outcomes.

These findings provide important insights. First, men's views on childcare and housework are differently associated with their labor market outcomes. Therefore, it is important to disentangle the influences that attitudes toward various aspects of gender roles have on labor market outcomes to capture the complexity of individual beliefs. As attitudes are multifaceted and evolve independently, a separate analysis provides a more nuanced understanding of societal dynamics as a basis for promoting gender equity.

Second, the significant positive association between men's egalitarian views on housework and labor participation and formality and, on the other hand, the null correlation between men's egalitarian views on childcare and these outcomes suggest that the factors determining these views may be different. As Chilean women are primarily responsible for childcare, men could feel less external pressure to participate in this task compared to housework. Men, especially those who grew up under patriarchal fatherhood, could find childcare more challenging because it requires more intimacy and loving intensity (Olavarría 2003).

The model includes sociodemographic controls since they could influence the variability of results. However, our sample size constrained further exploration of heterogeneities and our estimates are applicable to

an average man under constant conditions. Previously, Verónica Gómez-Urrutia and Paulina Royo-Urrizola (2017) have found that younger cohorts are more pro-egalitarian than older ones and low-income households with children tend to adhere more strongly to conventional gender division of work (Ramm and Salinas 2019).

Finally, this study is highly relevant to informing policy, given the persistence of the gender gap in intrahousehold time use in Latin America (Amarante, Rossel, and Scalese 2024). Its findings underscore the need for gender-inclusive work policies since labor market rigidities and cultural and institutional factors could be hindering the translation of attitudinal changes into a more equitable distribution of housework. Examining men's attitudes toward unpaid work and tracking their labor market outcomes are essential for crafting policies to promote family co-responsibility and inclusive workplaces. Moreover, understanding how men's attitudes differ between tasks is an exciting path of research through which to deepen current knowledge and tailor supportive work policies for all.

GENDER-ROLE ATTITUDES AND LABOR MARKET

Gender-role attitudes “refer to views held by individuals regarding the roles men and women should play in society” (Van der Horst 2014: 1). They are multidimensional constructs and include beliefs in gendered separate spheres, such as the division of paid work and family responsibilities (Grunow, Begall, and Buchler 2018). Attitudes range from the traditional view (female homemaker and male breadwinner) to an egalitarian conception of the equal division of both paid and unpaid work. They are shaped and reinforced by social norms that establish how people should behave according to their gender (Hoffman and Averett 2021). Consequently, they influence social constructs, institutional constraints, and a wide range of choices, including labor market decisions.

For instance, women are more likely to participate in the labor market in countries where gender egalitarian views predominate (Uunk 2015; Xiao and Asadullah 2020). These findings are crucial for reinterpreting the impact of public policy that promote gender equality in the labor market (Kabeer 2020). However, the discussion has focused almost exclusively on women using cross-sectional data. Therefore, it is relevant to expand the analysis to men and several labor market outcomes, taking into account attitudes toward care and housework (Baranowska-Rataj and Matysiak 2022). Adding a dynamic perspective is crucial because gender-role attitudes may change over time, affecting labor market trajectories. Attitudes have substantial power to explain labor market participation (Fortin 2015), but differences can be found across countries and cohorts (Alesina, Giuliano, and Nunn 2013; Baxter et al. 2015).

Hence, it is necessary to consider the evolution of beliefs and the effects of specific shocks that could change gender-role attitudes, such as feminist movements, wars, or pandemics.² However, evidence on men remains scarce. Malte Reichelt, Kinga Makovi, and Anahit Sargsyan (2021) focused on the pandemic period and found that men adopt more egalitarian attitudes when they move to unemployment or working-from-home status, in line with theories asserting that gender-role attitudes adapt to lived realities (Bolzendahl and Myers 2004; Fischer and Anderson 2012). Furthermore, previous literature has not disaggregated gender-role attitudes, implying that it is also relevant to identify attitude of different types because housework and care could be perceived differently (Poortman and Van Der Lippe 2009).

In sum, gender-role attitudes may affect labor market outcomes, but previous analyses have focused mainly on female labor participation with cross-sectional data and have not classified attitudes. This study contributes to the literature by focusing on men, adding a dynamic perspective, disaggregating gender-role attitudes, and analyzing their influence on labor market outcomes. Given the prevalence of conservative norms in Latin America, this study fills a gap by studying the Chilean case.

CHILEAN CONTEXT

Labor gender gaps in Chile are not fully explained by the traditional factors used by the human capital model. Although the FLPR increased from 31.5–48.9 percent between 1990 and 2017 (CASEN 2017), this has not translated into a redistribution of unpaid work. A decrease from 28 to 8 percent in paid domestic service (maids) between 1990 and 2016 (Órdenes 2016) has tensioned traditional gender roles and exacerbated the work-family conflict.³ Indeed, 20 percent of women cite family and housework responsibilities as reasons for remaining out of the labor market, as compared to 10 percent of men (CASEN 2017).

On average, men spend 3.15 fewer hours per day than women on unpaid work. Among the employed, this time-use gender gap is three hours per day and is even larger among part-time workers, the unemployed, and inactive people (INE 2015). During the pandemic, 38 percent of Chilean men spent zero hours per week on housework, while 57 percent spent zero hours on caregiving (Bravo, Castillo, and Hughes 2020). This uneven burden of unpaid housework and adverse working conditions for women in Chile hinder their entry into the labor market. The average wage gap is 27.2 percent (INE 2022b), and the glass ceiling phenomenon is also present: 36 percent of private firms do not have women in management positions and 45 percent do not have women on their board (Ministry of Finance 2023).

Cultural factors undermine the effectiveness of family co-responsibility policies. Fathers who do not use their five-day parental leave cite possible problems at work (El Mostrador 2022). Since 2011, only 0.3 percent of parental postnatal leaves have been transferred from mothers to fathers (García and Vergara 2022). Additionally, a motherhood penalty is observed in the labor market (Villanueva and Lin 2020). After the first childbirth, fathers, unlike mothers, do not reassign hours from paid work to childcare, and the index of employment precariousness increases by 30 percent only for women (Eberhard 2023). This may indicate institutional discrimination against motherhood.⁴ Nonetheless, other types of caregiving are important. Bárbara Flores and F. Ortiz (2023) demonstrated that caring for older people, the sick, or disabled family members does not decrease men's probability of participation in work, but does so for women.

Consequently, a direct relationship exists between the household context and labor market outcomes, with cultural factors and institutional restrictions seeming to play a role in hindering an equal distribution of unpaid work. Therefore, an understanding of the interaction between gender-role attitudes and the labor market is key, but few studies have addressed this topic in Chile. Dante Contreras and Gonzalo Plaza (2010) found that women who lived in a machista cultural context, and had conservative values reduced their participation in the labor market. More recently, Bárbara Flores (2021) showed that social networks of low-skilled women could reshape women's beliefs and facilitate their access to work.

This article uses fluctuations in gender-role attitudes over time to explore changes in labor market outcomes for Chilean men. Figures 1 and 2 show how gender-role attitudes toward childcare and housework evolved in Chile between 2016 and 2021. There was a positive shift in the percentage of men agreeing with these two statements: "Men should increase their current responsibility in housework" (from 89 percent to 95 percent) and "Men should increase their current responsibility in childcare" (from 94 percent to 96 percent). The Chilean feminist revolution of May 2018 – three months before our data collection – may have influenced these views by bringing gender equality to the forefront of the political discussion. This evolution is consistent with Sonia Brito et al. (2021), who argue that changes in men's gender-role attitudes are driven by interactions with women who seek to overturn patriarchy.

METHODS

Data

We use the Chilean Longitudinal Social Survey (ELSOC) from the Center for Social Conflict and Cohesion Studies (COES 2021).⁵ ELSOC analyzes the dynamics of social conflict and cohesion and seeks to understand

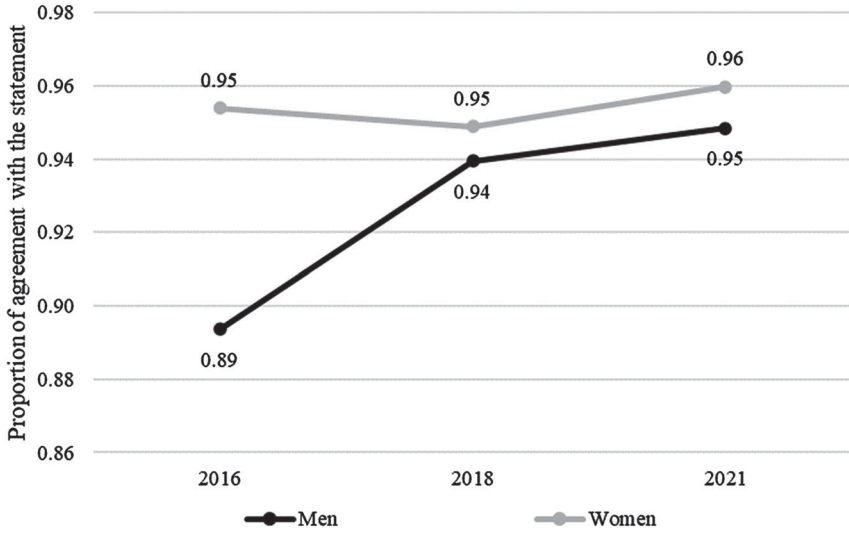


Figure 1 Dynamics of gender-role attitudes toward housework by sex
Note: Proportion of individuals who totally agree or agree with the following statement: “Men should increase their responsibility in housework.”
Source: Prepared based on ELSOC, COES (2021).

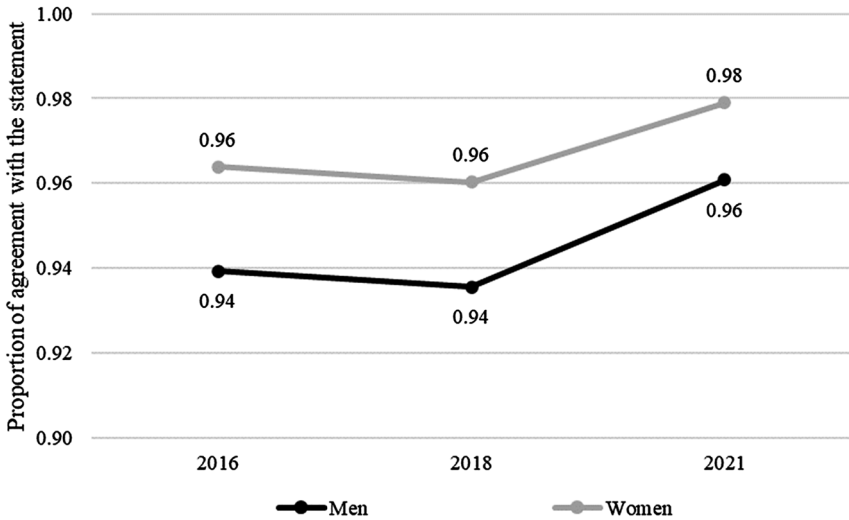


Figure 2 Dynamics of gender-role attitudes toward childcare by sex
Note: Proportion of individuals who totally agree or agree with the following statement: “Men should increase their responsibility in childcare.”
Source: Prepared based on ELSOC, COES (2021).

changes in attitudes and perceptions regarding these topics (ELSOC 2023). The sample is representative of the Chilean urban population ages 18–75 years.⁶

We built a balanced panel of 509 men and 959 women using the years 2016, 2018, and 2021 (when the survey included gender-role attitudes questions).⁷ The survey asked How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements: (i) Men should assume a greater degree of responsibility for housework than they currently do, and (ii) Men should assume a greater degree of responsibility for childcare than they currently do. We construct two binary variables from the five-point Likert scale, which takes 1 if the individual supports the statement (is neutral, agrees, or totally agrees) and 0 otherwise.⁸ These variables are a proxy for gender-role attitudes toward childcare and housework because they refer to men in general, not the respondent in particular.⁹ We analyze seven labor market outcomes (participation, employment, holding a contract, length of the contract, full-time work, weekly hours of work, and hourly wages) as a function of individual socioeconomic characteristics and gender-role attitudes.

The hypothesis is that men with more gender egalitarian views are more willing to increase their responsibility in traditional women's roles. Agreeing with these statements could impact labor market outcomes through a redistribution of time between paid and unpaid work. Like women, these men may face greater difficulties in accessing employment opportunities compatible with housework and be more likely to take time off work and be paid less.

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of relevant variables for our sample by year and sex. Each column presents a specific year and sex.

We find gender differences in the seven labor market outcomes. Male participation increased from 85 to 87 percent between 2016 and 2018 and then decreased to 84 percent in 2021, while the FLPR increased from 53 to 57 percent between 2016 and 2018 before stabilizing at that level in 2021. These trends are consistent with Latin American statistics which show that men are reducing their participation in work while women are increasing theirs (ILO 2022). However, the FLPR in our sample is still below the average for developed countries (64.8 percent), and the COVID-19 pandemic slowed its growth (OECD 2022).

In our sample, conditional on participation in the labor force, the percentages of men and women in employment in 2016 reached 89 and 92 percent, respectively. However, there was a downward trend for women, from 89 percent in 2018 to 85 percent in 2021. Women in our sample are more likely to be unemployed than a representative woman in Chile since the national female unemployment rate is 9 percent (INE 2022a). By contrast, men's employment in our sample increased to 96 percent in 2018 before dropping to 91 percent in 2021, due to the pandemic and the

Table 1 Mean and (standard deviation) of relevant variables by year and sex – estimation sample

Variables	Men			Women		
	2016	2018	2021	2016	2018	2021
1: Participates in the labor market	0.85 (0.36)	0.87 (0.34)	0.84 (0.37)	0.53 (0.50)	0.57 (0.50)	0.57 (0.50)
1: Employed	0.89 (0.31)	0.96 (0.19)	0.91 (0.28)	0.92 (0.27)	0.89 (0.31)	0.85 (0.36)
Ln(Hourly wage)	8.08 (0.62)	8.15 (0.71)	8.08 (0.59)	7.80 (0.78)	7.88 (0.75)	7.93 (0.76)
Weekly hours of work	40.27 (17.53)	41.78 (16.48)	41.78 (18.21)	34.99 (17.79)	31.50 (18.99)	29.78 (19.36)
1: Has a labor contract	0.73 (0.44)	0.71 (0.46)	0.68 (0.47)	0.63 (0.48)	0.57 (0.50)	0.54 (0.50)
1: Works full time	0.86 (0.34)	0.82 (0.38)	0.75 (0.43)	0.66 (0.47)	0.63 (0.48)	0.55 (0.50)
1: Has a permanent labor contract	0.83 (0.37)	0.78 (0.41)	0.76 (0.43)	0.85 (0.36)	0.75 (0.44)	0.71 (0.45)
1: Men should increase housework (agrees or totally agrees)	0.89 (0.31)	0.94 (0.24)	0.95 (0.22)	0.95 (0.21)	0.95 (0.22)	0.96 (0.20)
1: Men should increase childcare (agrees or totally agrees)	0.94 (0.24)	0.94 (0.25)	0.96 (0.19)	0.96 (0.19)	0.96 (0.20)	0.98 (0.14)
Age	44.21 (15.82)	46.36 (15.34)	49.19 (14.73)	46.38 (14.90)	48.37 (14.60)	48.71 (14.24)
1: Has partner	0.60 (0.49)	0.61 (0.49)	0.63 (0.48)	0.51 (0.50)	0.52 (0.50)	0.47 (0.50)

(Continued)

Table 1 Continued.

Variables	Men			Women		
	2016	2018	2021	2016	2018	2021
Education (years)	12.76 (3.49)	13.19 (3.31)	13.03 (3.24)	12.10 (3.63)	12.6 (3.42)	12.91 (3.17)
1: Household head	0.72 (0.45)	0.79 (0.41)	0.79 (0.40)	0.40 (0.49)	0.38 (0.49)	0.47 (0.5)
Household head education (years)	11.61 (4.07)	12.64 (3.48)	12.88 (3.15)	10.68 (4.58)	12.19 (3.62)	12.54 (3.37)
1: There is a child < 6 years old	0.20 (0.40)	0.12 (0.33)	0.06 (0.24)	0.21 (0.41)	0.17 (0.38)	0.11 (0.31)
Weekly hours of care for the elderly, sick, or disabled family members	1.65 (7.99)	2.92 (11.63)	4.93 (15.80)	5.80 (19.41)	8.56 (23.85)	11.93 (30.36)
1: Lives in the Santiago metropolitan region	0.34 (0.48)	0.39 (0.49)	0.38 (0.49)	0.42 (0.49)	0.42 (0.49)	0.47 (0.50)
N	509	509	509	959	959	959

Notes: Calculations use sample weights that denote the inverse of the probability that the observation is included because of the sampling design.

Source: Prepared based on ELSOC, COES (2021).

economic crisis. Similar figures are found in national statistics, according to which 7 percent of men are unemployed (INE 2022a).

The pay gap is also observed in our sample.¹⁰ For men, log hourly wages remained stable over the period at approximately 8.1, which is equivalent to an average of 5 USD per hour. Women's wages increased from 7.8 in 2016 to 7.88 in 2018 and 7.93 in 2021, equivalent to 3.5 USD per hour. These figures suggest an overall gender pay gap¹¹ of 30 percent. This is slightly larger than the pay gap of 27.2 percent reported in national statistics (INE 2022b).

According to our data, women are less likely to work in formal employment than men. Informality is a female phenomenon around Latin America, especially for mothers (Villanueva and Lin 2020). Employees are formal workers if their employment relationship is, in law or practice, subject to national labor legislation, taxation, and contributory social security (OECD 2022). The percentage of formal working women decreased from 63 percent in 2016 to 57 percent in 2018 and 54 percent in 2021. The figures for men are higher but also decreased over time, from 73 percent to 71 and 68 percent in 2016, 2018, and 2021, respectively.¹² Our data show that, in 2021, 91 percent of men with a formal labor contract worked full time. These figures suggest that labor market conditions have been worsening for both groups but that women's jobs are more precarious than those of men.

Time-use distribution is also a gendered phenomenon. Women spend more time (5.89 h) than men (2.54 h) on housework and caregiving (INE 2015) and are more likely to offer fewer hours in the labor market than their male peers. Our data show that men worked, on average, more than forty hours per week during the analyzed period, while women reduced their weekly work hours from 35 in 2016 to 32 in 2018 and 30 in 2021. Part of the gap may reflect the difference in unpaid work and have been reinforced by school closures and lockdowns during the pandemic, which increased the demand for care. Additionally, full-time jobs are less common among women than men in the sample. The percentage of men working full time decreased from 86 to 82 percent between 2016 and 2018 and to 75 percent in 2021, while, among women, the figure dropped from 66 percent in 2016 to 63 percent in 2018 and 55 percent in 2021. Length of contract can serve as a proxy for work quality. A permanent or indefinite contract provides workers' labor and financial stability (Amuedo-Dorantes and Serrano-Padial 2007). However, sometimes women have to opt for temporary work for the sake of flexibility (Durán and Narbona 2021). According to ELSOC, 83 percent of employed men had a permanent contract in 2016, which dropped to 76 percent in 2021 while, for women, the figures were 85 percent in 2016 and 71 percent in 2021. To summarize, the gender gaps in the labor market are stable and significant. By complementing with time-use surveys, labor market

outcomes can be seen to be correlated with the unequal distribution of unpaid work. Additionally, labor market outcomes reveal deterioration in working conditions for both men and women.

Regarding attitudes toward gender roles, 89 percent of men agreed or totally agreed with “men should increase housework” in 2016, 94 percent in 2018, and 95 percent in 2021, matching women’s level throughout the analyzed period. Second, 94 percent of men agreed or totally agreed with “men should increase childcare” in 2016 and 2018, and this then rose to 96 percent in 2021. For women, it also increased 2 pp, from 96 percent in 2016 and 2018 to 98 percent in 2021. This evolution suggests a slight cultural change, with men showing more egalitarian views. This phenomenon may have been driven and reinforced by the 2018 feminist movement as well as the care crisis associated with the COVID-19 pandemic.

Table 1 also presents the sample’s demographic characteristics. Although men and women are, on average, similar in most variables, there are differences. Around 60 percent of men had a partner but, for women, the figure was 10 points lower. Approximately 75 percent of men, but only 40 percent of women, were heads of household. Finally, a relevant difference is the weekly hours of care for older, sick, or disabled family members. Each year, women spent almost three times more hours than men on providing care, which aligns with the national gap.

Model

Using the balanced panel, we estimate a labor supply model with individual fixed effects. The model includes two dummy variables equal to 1 if the individual is neutral, agrees, or totally agrees with the statement and 0 otherwise in order to analyze how these gender-role attitudes affect labor participation, weekly hours of work, wages, type of contract, and informality status.¹³ We use Anastasia Semykina and Jeffrey M. Wooldridge’s (2010) correction for panel data models to address selection bias from participation. Although we focused on men, we also ran estimations for women to analyze gender heterogeneity.

Considering a random sampling of individuals indexed by $i = 1, \dots, N$, with fixed time periods $t = 1, \dots, T$, the data can be described as $\{(\mathbf{x}_{it}, \mathbf{w}_{it}, y_{it}) : t = 1, \dots, T, c_i\}$, where $\mathbf{x}_{it}$ represents a vector of observable characteristics, $\mathbf{w}_{it}$ is a vector of gender-role attitudes, and y_{it} is the dependent variable of individual i in period t . Note that c_i is an unobserved individual effect. The general specification of a panel data model is presented in equation (1):

$$y_{it} = \mathbf{x}_{it}\beta + \mathbf{w}_{it}\gamma + c_i + u_{it} \quad (1)$$

We adopt an individual fixed effect approach to allow for correlation between the unobserved effect and the individuals’ observed characteristics

and gender-role attitudes. The fixed effect estimation removes c_i by time, demeaning the equation (1):

$$y_{it} - \bar{y}_i = (\mathbf{x}_{it} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i)\beta + (\mathbf{w}_{it} - \bar{\mathbf{w}}_i)\gamma + u_{it} - \bar{u}_i \quad (2)$$

where the overbar indicates the time average:

$$\bar{y}_i = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T y_{it}, \quad \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_{it}, \quad \bar{\mathbf{w}}_i = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{w}_{it}, \quad \bar{u}_i = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T u_{it} \quad (3)$$

We estimate the time demeaned equation in (2) and use the time variation within each individual i to eliminate the unobserved effect c_i which affects the dependent variable.¹⁴ We use pooled ordinary least squares as an estimation method.

The vector $\mathbf{x}_{it}$ includes age, squared age, having a partner, years of education, household head status, years of education of the household head, the presence of a child younger than 6 years, and weekly hours of care in the household. The model includes time dummies and a region fixed effect. The vector $\mathbf{w}_{it}$ contains the two dummies that measure gender-role attitudes. The variable y_{it} can be a dummy equal to 1 if the individual participates in the labor market, is employed, has a formal contract, works full time, or has a permanent contract. The dependent variable can also be continuous, such as the log of weekly hours of work or the hourly wage.

The parameters of interest are included in the vector γ . There is a potential bias due to two-way causality since attitudes may affect labor market outcomes. However, these changes may also modify the perception of gender roles. For example, men with more conservative gender-role attitudes could work more hours to ensure that women do not work. Conversely, men working fewer hours could change their perception of their role in care or housework.

We interpret γ as the influence of gender-role attitudes on labor market outcomes and argue that it will be an unbiased estimate due to the short time span of the analysis. Following Stephanie Seguino (2007), in the short run, cultural factors cause labor market outcomes and not vice versa because labor market outcomes may change gender-role attitudes with a lag so that the effects are not seen in the same year. This is supported by the slow increase in the FLPR in Chile, which increased from 43 percent in 2011 to 47 percent in 2020 (CASEN 2020). This is in line with previous studies: “It would take longer for women’s participation to change cultural attitudes than for attitudes to influence their participation in labor markets” (Contreras and Plaza 2010: 30). Additionally, the individual fixed effect c_i controls for all unobserved factors that are constant over time, correlated with attitudes, and relevant to explaining labor market outcomes. Therefore, the risk of omitted variable bias, such as individual ability, is also addressed.

The Semykina and Wooldridge (2010) correction addresses the sample selection problem: individuals who participate in the labor market have different characteristics from those who do not participate, and we observe outcomes only if an individual self-selects into the workforce. The correction follows three steps. First, the selection equation is estimated for each time period by running a probit model of the selection indicator, s_i (that is, labor participation), on explanatory variables in the selection equation ($\mathbf{x}_{it}, \mathbf{w}_{it}$), and the time means of these regressors. This set of variables includes an instrumental variable that must satisfy the exclusion restriction and be exogenous in the primary equation (such as wages). The inverse Mills ratios are obtained after running the model.

Second, for the selected sample (those who participate), the primary equation is estimated by pooled two-step least squares using the same set of instruments defined in the first step and the estimated inverse Mills ratios. The third step estimates the asymptotic variances.

We argue that the presence of children younger than 6 years in the household is a relevant instrument because it is correlated with participation and, generally, explains self-selection into the labor market. It would satisfy the exclusion restriction by affecting labor outcomes through its effect on participation in work as individuals in the market must arrange childcare (Kunze 2020). Certainly, the exclusion restriction in this context may exhibit limitations, as having young children might affect labor market outcomes directly through different mechanisms, such as, time constraints, workplace flexibility, or employer discrimination (Cortés and Pan 2023).¹⁵

RESULTS

Tables 2 and 3 display the estimations of the fixed effect panel model for men and women, respectively. Each table contains seven columns representing the different dependent variables. Covariates remain consistent across estimations.

Column (1) of Table 2 presents the specification for labor participation. Only the gender-role attitude toward the housework is statistically significant. On average, men who agree with the housework statement exhibit a 7.9 pp decrease in the probability of participating in the labor market compared to those who disagree. Regarding socioeconomic controls, only age and weekly hours of care are statistically significant. One additional year of age is associated with an increase of 10.3 pp in the probability of participation, but this rises at a decreasing rate, as indicated by the negative estimate for squared age. Additionally, an additional weekly hour of care in the household is associated with a 0.2 pp reduction in the probability of participation in the labor market.

Men's agreement with the childcare statement is unrelated to their labor participation. One plausible explanation for this is that childcare

Table 2 Gender-role attitudes toward childcare and household work and labor market outcomes – Individual fixed effect model estimations for men

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<i>Variables</i>	<i>1: Participates in the labor market</i>	<i>1: Employed</i>	<i>Ln(Weekly hours of work)</i>	<i>1: Has contract</i>	<i>1: Works full time</i>	<i>1: Permanent contract</i>	<i>Ln (Hourly wage)</i>
Age	0.103*** (0.025)	0.012 (0.020)	0.056*** (0.019)	− 0.005 (0.034)	0.024 (0.025)	0.001 (0.026)	− 0.019 (0.033)
Squared age	− 0.001*** (0.000)	− 0.000 (0.000)	− 0.001*** (0.000)	− 0.000 (0.000)	− 0.000* (0.000)	− 0.000 (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)
1: Has partner	0.059 (0.044)	0.007 (0.028)	− 0.086* (0.050)	− 0.027 (0.052)	0.008 (0.063)	0.045 (0.046)	0.061 (0.037)
Education (years)	0.014 (0.020)	− 0.028* (0.017)	− 0.020 (0.017)	0.005 (0.018)	0.033 (0.025)	− 0.007 (0.025)	0.024 (0.028)
1: Household head	0.041 (0.055)	0.079 (0.056)	0.133** (0.058)	0.198*** (0.058)	0.078 (0.069)	0.054 (0.071)	− 0.068 (0.068)
Household head education (years)	0.001 (0.008)	0.025* (0.014)	0.005 (0.013)	− 0.001 (0.010)	− 0.005 (0.015)	− 0.001 (0.017)	0.005 (0.015)
1: Child < 6 years old	− 0.015 (0.031)	0.022 (0.028)	0.057 (0.042)	− 0.033 (0.057)	− 0.000 (0.049)	0.045 (0.072)	− 0.166* (0.085)
Weekly hours of care	− 0.002* (0.001)	− 0.000 (0.001)	− 0.004* (0.002)	− 0.000 (0.001)	− 0.005*** (0.002)	0.004* (0.002)	0.002 (0.002)

(Continued)

Table 2 Continued.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<i>Variables</i>	<i>1: Participates in the labor market</i>	<i>1: Employed</i>	<i>Ln(Weekly hours of work)</i>	<i>1: Has contract</i>	<i>1: Works full time</i>	<i>1: Permanent contract</i>	<i>Ln (Hourly wage)</i>
1: Men should increase childcare	0.105 (0.090)	0.074 (0.095)	0.074 (0.087)	- 0.127 (0.123)	- 0.200** (0.098)	- 0.241** (0.109)	- 0.154* (0.081)
1: Men should increase housework	- 0.078* (0.045)	0.092 (0.082)	- 0.051 (0.084)	0.172* (0.091)	0.069 (0.064)	0.115** (0.056)	0.156* (0.087)
Constant	- 1.579** (0.744)	0.477 (0.449)	2.796*** (0.426)	1.047 (0.788)	0.349 (0.738)	0.982* (0.575)	8.250*** (0.725)
Observations	1,527	1,292	1,201	1,205	1,207	1,204	1,177
R-squared	0.154	0.108	0.085	0.084	0.078	0.027	0.035
Number of individuals	509	466	458	460	460	460	452

Notes: All estimations control for year and region fixed effects, inverse Mills ratio, and time mean of explanatory variables. Standard errors in parentheses. ***, **, * denote significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels, respectively. The dummies “Men should increase childcare” and “Men should increase housework” takes value one when individual is neutral, agrees or totally agrees, zero otherwise.

Table 3 Gender-role attitudes toward childcare and household work and labor market outcomes – Individual fixed effect model estimations for women

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Variables	1: Participates in the labor market	1: Employed	Ln (Weekly hours of work)	1: Has contract	1: Works full time	1: Permanent contract	Ln (Hourly wage)
Age	0.046** (0.018)	0.011 (0.024)	0.002 (0.063)	− 0.036 (0.036)	0.048* (0.027)	− 0.043 (0.030)	0.101** (0.046)
Squared age	− 0.000*** (0.000)	− 0.000 (0.000)	− 0.000 (0.001)	0.000 (0.000)	− 0.001* (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)	− 0.001*** (0.000)
1: Has partner	0.089* (0.047)	0.059 (0.045)	− 0.090 (0.081)	0.025 (0.058)	− 0.058 (0.056)	− 0.033 (0.055)	0.004 (0.075)
Education (years)	0.025* (0.013)	0.040** (0.017)	− 0.020 (0.037)	− 0.008 (0.021)	− 0.034 (0.027)	− 0.002 (0.023)	0.006 (0.040)
1: Household head	0.184*** (0.038)	0.062 (0.043)	0.132 (0.109)	0.058 (0.049)	0.068 (0.073)	0.091* (0.051)	− 0.156* (0.092)
Household head education (years)	0.001 (0.005)	0.004 (0.010)	0.017 (0.024)	0.011 (0.011)	0.017 (0.012)	− 0.004 (0.011)	0.026 (0.023)
1: Child < 6 years old	− 0.020 (0.047)	− 0.030 (0.101)	0.209 (0.209)	0.019 (0.056)	0.264** (0.121)	0.022 (0.142)	− 0.078 (0.182)
Weekly hours of care	0.000 (0.000)	− 0.001* (0.001)	− 0.002 (0.002)	0.000 (0.001)	− 0.000 (0.001)	− 0.001 (0.001)	− 0.001 (0.003)

(Continued)

Table 3 Continued.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<i>Variables</i>	<i>1: Participates in the labor market</i>	<i>1: Employed</i>	<i>Ln (Weekly hours of work)</i>	<i>1: Has contract</i>	<i>1: Works full time</i>	<i>1: Permanent contract</i>	<i>Ln (Hourly wage)</i>
1: Men should increase childcare	0.102 (0.085)	− 0.062 (0.099)	0.195 (0.221)	0.289* (0.167)	0.134 (0.122)	− 0.081 (0.106)	− 0.563* (0.321)
1: Men should increase housework	− 0.063 (0.056)	− 0.036 (0.059)	− 0.067 (0.195)	0.002 (0.066)	− 0.144 (0.115)	0.013 (0.081)	0.388 (0.258)
Constant	− 1.023* (0.585)	0.562 (0.593)	3.368* (1.922)	0.799 (1.046)	− 0.025 (0.686)	2.456*** (0.753)	5.888*** (1.240)
Observations	2,874	1,607	1,441	1,442	1,445	1,444	1,421
R-squared	0.057	0.060	0.054	0.036	0.051	0.050	0.073
Number of individuals	959	693	655	657	657	657	650

Notes: All estimations control for year and region fixed effects, inverse Mills ratio, and time mean of explanatory variables. Standard errors in parentheses. ***, **, * denote significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels, respectively. The dummies “Men should increase childcare” and “Men should increase housework” takes value one when individual is neutral, agrees or totally agrees, zero otherwise.

is perceived as a more personal and intimate responsibility of the mother. Indeed, 76.2 percent of the men in our sample believed that a preschool child suffers when the mother works in the labor market (COES 2021). Consequently, even though men report a more egalitarian view of childcare, they may privilege childcare by the mother. Other labor market outcomes are presented in columns (2) to (7) of Table 2.¹⁶ Employment and weekly hours results are presented in columns (2) and (3), respectively. The coefficients associated with gender-role attitudes are not statistically significant, indicating that these variables are not related to the probability of being employed or working time (conditional on being employed).

Column (4) shows the estimation results for holding a formal labor contract. The housework coefficient is statistically significant, indicating that men with more gender egalitarian views on housework have a 17.2 pp higher probability of holding a formal contract than men with less egalitarian views on housework. This may indicate rigidities in the labor market, with formal employment hampering the conciliation of working times with household needs, considering that most men in our sample were working full time (91 percent in 2021). This supports the claim that formal workers in Chile face rigid schedules, making full-time workers less likely to take time from paid work for housework. Naturally, labor market rigidity is not the only obstacle to men's unpaid work at home. They could spend time doing housework after work or at weekends but, according to national statistics, this is not the case. The gender gap in housework time is significant in Chile.

The specification for working full time is presented in column (5). In this case, agreement with the childcare statement is negatively related to the probability of working full time. Men who agree with it have a 20 pp lower probability of working full time than those who disagree. The parameter of attitudes toward men's housework is not statistically significant.

Column (6) shows the results for a permanent contract. The childcare estimate is negative: men who agree with the statement have a 24.1 pp lower probability of holding a permanent contract than men who disagree, implying that they are more likely to have a fixed-term contract. The estimate associated with housework is positive, indicating that men who agree with the statement have an 11.5 pp higher probability of holding a permanent contract than those who disagree. This finding is consistent with the results for holding a formal contract. Finally, column (7) presents the specification for the log of the hourly wage. The two gender-role attitudes coefficients are statistically significant at the 10 percent level. The hourly wages of men who believe that men should increase childcare are, on average, 14 percent lower than for men who disagree. By contrast, men who believe that men should increase housework have hourly wages that are, on average, 17 percent higher than those who disagree.

Table 3 presents the estimations results for the sample of women. Women's views on male housework are not related to any of the outcomes while their opinions on male childcare are positively related to the probability of having a formal contract and negatively related to hourly wages. These results could be explained by the reduced variance of these cultural variables for women. Despite sample selection bias, the results presented in Tables 2 and 3 are relevant because they show that gender-role attitudes are related to men's labor market outcomes. Men with egalitarian views on housework are less likely to participate in the labor market, but those who do participate have a greater probability of having a formal contract and a higher hourly wage. For those agreeing with increasing men's childcare responsibilities, the estimates show that they have a lower probability of working full time, holding a permanent contract, and receiving a lower wage.

Tables 4 and 5 present estimations corrected for selection bias for six outcomes (excluding participation) for men and women, respectively. Table 4 shows differences compared to Table 2. Only the estimate associated with gender-role attitudes toward housework is statistically significant in the formal contract equation. Column (3) shows that the estimated coefficient is positive and statistically significant at the 5 percent level. For men with more egalitarian views on housework, the probability of holding a formal contract is 18 pp greater than for men with less egalitarian views. The estimate is 1 pp greater than that without correction.

The conclusion is similar from corrected estimations: men who work in the labor market and report gender egalitarian views toward housework have a greater probability of having a formal contract. This suggests that these men may face greater rigidity in working times, making accommodating paid working hours and housework more challenging. Corrected estimations for women show that their views on male housework and childcare are unrelated to their labor market outcomes (Table 5).

According to Table 4, the estimate associated with gender-role attitudes toward childcare is not statistically significant for any labor market outcome. This result reinforces the idea that, for our sample, the association of gender-role attitudes toward childcare and housework with labor market outcomes differs, although they are often treated similarly. Previously, Anne-Rigt Poortman and Tanja Van Der Lippe (2009) showed that attitudes impact the hours spent by men cooking and cleaning, but not the time devoted to childcare. Men who perceive childcare as important may be constrained by time, rather than attitudes.

In our data, changes in attitudes toward different roles showed diverse dynamics. Gender egalitarian views on childcare in 2016 were already high, at 95 percent compared to 89 percent for housework. Possibly, job arrangements for childcare may have been made before data collection. Overall, assuming that time allocation is determined by negotiation within

Table 4 Gender-role attitudes toward childcare and household work and labor market outcomes – Individual fixed effect model estimations for men, corrected by sample selection

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
<i>Variables</i>	<i>1: Employed</i>	<i>Ln (Weekly hours of work)</i>	<i>1: Has contract</i>	<i>1: Works full time</i>	<i>1: Permanent contract</i>	<i>Ln (Hourly wage)</i>
Age	0.049** (0.022)	0.095*** (0.030)	− 0.004 (0.042)	0.002 (0.031)	0.007 (0.035)	0.100** (0.050)
Squared age	− 0.000** (0.000)	− 0.001*** (0.000)	− 0.000 (0.000)	− 0.000 (0.000)	− 0.000 (0.000)	− 0.001** (0.000)
1: Has partner	0.011 (0.028)	− 0.072 (0.056)	− 0.025 (0.054)	− 0.007 (0.064)	0.039 (0.052)	0.103* (0.056)
Education (years)	− 0.018 (0.015)	− 0.000 (0.021)	− 0.005 (0.023)	0.036 (0.025)	− 0.012 (0.027)	0.070* (0.036)
1: Household head	0.092* (0.055)	0.193*** (0.066)	0.154** (0.065)	0.068 (0.068)	0.020 (0.072)	0.131 (0.109)
Household head education (years)	0.027* (0.014)	− 0.003 (0.012)	0.015 (0.013)	0.000 (0.014)	0.003 (0.017)	− 0.015 (0.022)
Weekly hours of care	− 0.001 (0.001)	− 0.004** (0.002)	− 0.001 (0.002)	− 0.005*** (0.002)	0.002 (0.002)	− 0.002 (0.003)

(Continued)

Table 4 Continued.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
<i>Variables</i>	<i>1: Employed</i>	<i>Ln (Weekly hours of work)</i>	<i>1: Has contract</i>	<i>1: Works full time</i>	<i>1: Permanent contract</i>	<i>Ln (Hourly wage)</i>
1: Men should increase childcare	0.085	0.265	− 0.160	− 0.087	− 0.155	− 0.180
	(0.094)	(0.173)	(0.124)	(0.113)	(0.111)	(0.145)
1: Men should increase housework	0.088	− 0.051	0.180*	0.052	0.089	0.147
	(0.075)	(0.094)	(0.094)	(0.068)	(0.056)	(0.101)
Constant	− 0.040	− 0.064	− 0.138**	− 0.044	0.022	− 0.358***
	(0.033)	(0.060)	(0.060)	(0.049)	(0.069)	(0.100)
Observations	1,292	1,201	1,205	1,207	1,204	1,177
Number of individuals	466	458	460	460	460	452

Notes: All estimations control for year and region fixed effects, inverse Mills ratio, and time mean of explanatory variables. Standard errors in parentheses. ***, **, * denote significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels, respectively. The dummies “Men should increase childcare” and “Men should increase housework” takes value one when individual is neutral, agrees or totally agrees, zero otherwise.

Table 5 Gender-role attitudes toward childcare and household work and labor market outcomes – Individual fixed effect model estimations for women, corrected by sample selection

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(5)
<i>Variables</i>	<i>1: Employed</i>	<i>Ln(Weekly hours of work)</i>	<i>1: Has contract</i>	<i>1: Works full time</i>	<i>1: Permanent contract</i>	<i>Ln(Hourly wage)</i>
Age	0.000 (0.023)	0.010 (0.053)	− 0.030 (0.032)	− 0.001 (0.035)	− 0.053 (0.029)	0.177** (0.056)
Squared age	− 0.000 (0.000)	− 0.000 (0.001)	0.000 (0.000)	− 0.000 (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)	− 0.002** (0.001)
1: Has partner	0.024 (0.051)	0.069 (0.086)	0.061 (0.058)	0.067 (0.067)	− 0.006 (0.059)	0.225* (0.091)
Education (years)	0.011 (0.016)	0.010 (0.037)	0.013 (0.018)	− 0.041 (0.025)	− 0.013 (0.020)	0.059 (0.040)
1: Household head	0.037 (0.039)	0.292** (0.111)	0.070 (0.054)	0.129 (0.078)	0.113* (0.057)	0.100 (0.114)
Household head education (years)	0.006 (0.009)	0.008 (0.022)	0.013 (0.010)	0.014 (0.013)	0.006 (0.011)	0.015 (0.021)
Weekly hours of care	− 0.001 (0.001)	− 0.002 (0.002)	− 0.000 (0.001)	− 0.001* (0.001)	− 0.002* (0.001)	− 0.002 (0.003)

(Continued)

Table 5 Continued.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(5)
<i>Variables</i>	<i>1: Employed</i>	<i>Ln(Weekly hours of work)</i>	<i>1: Has contract</i>	<i>1: Works full time</i>	<i>1: Permanent contract</i>	<i>Ln(Hourly wage)</i>
1: Men should increase childcare	− 0.061	0.035	0.254	0.129	− 0.334	− 0.180
	(0.089)	(0.274)	(0.187)	(0.164)	(0.209)	(0.428)
1: Men should increase housework	− 0.034	0.044	− 0.004	− 0.133	0.198	− 0.045
	(0.054)	(0.222)	(0.118)	(0.125)	(0.153)	(0.308)
Constant	0.025	− 0.244*	− 0.079	− 0.161*	− 0.115	− 0.411
	(0.057)	(0.108)	(0.079)	(0.076)	(0.064)	(0.179)
Observations	1,607	1,441	1,442	1,445	1,444	1,421
Number of individuals	693	655	657	657	657	650

Notes: All estimations control for year and region fixed effects, inverse Mills ratio, and time mean of explanatory variables. Standard errors in parentheses. ***, **, * denote significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels, respectively. The dummies “Men should increase childcare” and “Men should increase housework” takes value one when individual is neutral, agrees or totally agrees, zero otherwise.

the household based on institutional conditions (pay gap, maternity leave, and so on), views on childcare and housework can be associated with labor outcomes differently, due to timings, bargaining, or institutional factors.

CONCLUSION

We implemented an individual fixed effects model and sample bias correction to study how attitudes toward childcare and housework influences labor participation, employment status, weekly working hours, wages, contract type, and informality status.

The results showed that, although men with more egalitarian views are less likely to participate in the labor market, those who do participate are more likely to be formal workers. We assert that labor market rigidities, culture, and institutional factors may restrict compatibility between work and household needs. As formality is directly related to full-time jobs, formal workers could face challenges in substituting working hours for housework hours (Ramm and Salinas 2019). This is also true for women, but since they have historically been excluded from the labor market and socially allocated to care and housework, they usually bear the cost of these institutional barriers.

Men's gender-role attitudes toward childcare are not statistically significant when explaining participation or holding a formal labor contract. We argue that the same factors do not necessarily determine gender-role attitudes toward housework and childcare, nor do they have the same impacts on the labor market. For participation, childcare may be driven by traditional gender norms. In Chile, women are primarily responsible for caregiving, so men may feel less external pressure to participate in this task and, as a result, their participation in paid work is not related to this specific gender-role attitude. Informality is also a primarily female phenomenon in Chile that emerges, among other sources, from the need to balance childcare and paid work. Given the traditional social norm under which men are the primary breadwinners, their gender-role attitude toward childcare will arguably not be related to the probability of being a formal worker. The pressure of childcare may drop as the child gets older and starts school. Regrettably, we cannot analyze further heterogeneities due to the small sample size, but these issues open important questions for future research.

For women, their beliefs regarding men's roles are not associated with any of their outcomes. This may be because current structures limit their ability to change their job arrangements or labor market decisions regardless of their egalitarian views. Gender-inclusive work policies are crucial for men and women to balance paid and unpaid work, especially given the gender disparities highlighted in this study. Public policy,

including work-family arrangements, must never imply precariousness or reinforce the gendered division of work (Fares and Oliveira 2023).

Finally, changes in men's attitudes toward less gender-stereotypical views do not translate into redistribution between paid and unpaid work. We interpret these results as evidence of cultural barriers and institutional restrictions. Attitudes take time to evolve, and public policy and institutions are key to enabling change by incentivizing or penalizing certain behaviors. Policies such as parental leave are associated with reductions in the gender time-use gap (Hagqvist et al. 2017), but male users are often penalized in Chile. Given the intergenerational transmission of gender-role attitudes (Olavarria 2003), policies of this type may reinforce social changes in younger cohorts. Consequently, it is crucial to understand the dynamics between gender-role attitudes and labor market outcomes and how public policy and institutional frameworks can create effective strategies to promote gender equality.

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NOTES

- ¹ Agreement with (i) “Men should increase their responsibility in housework” and (ii) “Men should increase their responsibility in childcare.”
- ² Changes in gender-role attitudes have been analyzed during wars and economic recessions that are associated with men’s transition to unemployment, disrupting traditional gender roles (Hofferth and Goldscheider 2010). Generally, liberal attitudinal changes emerge from cohort replacement, but perceptions do not necessarily translate into actual pro-egalitarian behavior (Scott, Alwin, and Braun 1996).
- ³ COVID-19 implied the loss of a decade of progress in the FLPR (INE 2022a). Working women were more affected by lockdowns than men and experienced a slower recovery because of care duties and their clustering in the services sector (COES 2020).
- ⁴ Hiner (2020) claims that discriminatory labor institutions emerged with the dictatorship (1973–90), due to cuts in welfare state policies and the socialization of care and women’s integration into the labor force was based on their vulnerabilities (Ipsen 2024).
- ⁵ COES is funded by the Chilean government through the National Research and Development Agency.
- ⁶ <https://coes.cl/acerca-de-elsoc/>. Public data at: <https://dataverse.harvard.edu/dataverse/elsoc>.
- ⁷ Although ELSOC has experienced an attrition of 48 percent from 2016 to 2021 (COES 2021), Table 1 suggests that our estimation sample is very similar, on average, to the whole sample (Table A1), reducing traits from selection bias. We use the initial (2016) sample weight because ELSOC does not provide longitudinal weights.
- ⁸ Similar questions are included in social values surveys (ESS 2023; WVS 2023).
- ⁹ In Spanish: *¿Cuán de acuerdo o en desacuerdo está usted con cada una de las siguientes afirmaciones? (i) Los hombres deberían asumir un mayor grado de responsabilidad en el trabajo doméstico que el que asumen actualmente; (ii) Los hombres deberían asumir un mayor grado de responsabilidad en el cuidado de los niños que el que asumen actualmente* (ELSOC 2023).
- ¹⁰ Wages are adjusted by the consumer prices index retrieved from the Chilean Central Bank on March 13, 2023.

- ¹¹ Calculated as men's minus women's mean hourly wage, divided by men's mean hourly wage. Multiplying this by 100 gives the mean gender gap in hourly wage as a percentage of men's wages. Calculations vary with educational level, age, and sociodemographic characteristics.
- ¹² Contracts can be signed for any number of hours up to forty-four per week (full time).
- ¹³ Given the small sample size of individuals who change their opinions over time (for the childcare dummy, eighteen men switched from 0 to 1 and nineteen switched from 1 to 0. Similarly, for the housework dummy, thirty-two men switched from 0 to 1 and twenty-one switched from 1 to 0) we run sensitivity tests to analyze the results when we use the original variable (5-point Likert scale variable) and when opinions get more polarized, that is, individuals who are neutral with the statements are not included in the group of individuals who agree or totally agree with the gender-equity statements. However, the small sample size within each category represents a significant limitation in these analyses, particularly when using the 5-point Likert scale variables. Consequently, we do not report these results, as they are susceptible to sampling error; however, they are available upon request.
- ¹⁴ Despite the small sample size and high agreement with the statements, we find within-individual variation in gender-role attitude dummies. Using Stata's xtsum command on the estimation sample, we decompose the standard deviations into between and within components. For men, the within standard deviation is 0.105 for childcare and 0.131 for housework. For women, the within standard deviations are 0.104 and 0.127 for childcare and housework, respectively. Note that the within number refers to the deviation from each individual's average with the global mean being added back to make results comparable. If a variable does not vary over time, it's within standard deviation is zero.
- ¹⁵ Data limitations prevent us from fully exploring these factors and the heterogeneity in the instrument's effect by household characteristics. For instance, we would like to test whether the availability of childcare options alters the instrument's effect. The presence of accessible childcare may reduce the direct impact of young children on labor market outcomes, isolating their effect through labor force participation.
- ¹⁶ Results can be biased due to sample selection. We report the results to compare them with the corrected estimations.

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APPENDIX

Table A1 Mean and (standard deviation) of variables under analysis by year and sex – whole sample in ELSOC

Variables	Men			Women		
	2016	2018	2021	2016	2018	2021
1: Participates in the labor market	0.85 (0.36)	0.86 (0.35)	0.85 (0.36)	0.57 (0.50)	0.58 (0.49)	0.57 (0.50)
1: Employed	0.91 (0.28)	0.96 (0.19)	0.92 (0.26)	0.90 (0.30)	0.89 (0.32)	0.85 (0.35)
Ln(Hourly wage)	8.13 (1.25)	8.16 (1.02)	8.14 (0.85)	7.88 (0.76)	7.90 (0.71)	7.92 (0.74)
Ln(Weekly hours of work)	3.75 (0.36)	3.71 (0.46)	3.77 (0.35)	3.53 (0.60)	3.41 (0.69)	3.42 (0.67)
1: Has a labor contract	0.71 (0.45)	0.70 (0.46)	0.70 (0.46)	0.64 (0.48)	0.58 (0.49)	0.54 (0.50)
1: Works full time	0.85 (0.36)	0.82 (0.38)	0.77 (0.42)	0.69 (0.46)	0.65 (0.48)	0.56 (0.50)
1: Has a permanent labor contract	0.84 (0.37)	0.79 (0.41)	0.77 (0.42)	0.85 (0.36)	0.76 (0.43)	0.72 (0.45)
1: Men should increase housework (agrees or totally agrees)	0.89 (0.31)	0.94 (0.23)	0.95 (0.22)	0.94 (0.24)	0.95 (0.21)	0.95 (0.21)
1: Men should increase childcare (agrees or totally agrees)	0.95 (0.23)	0.95 (0.22)	0.96 (0.21)	0.95 (0.21)	0.96 (0.20)	0.98 (0.15)

(Continued)

Table A1 Continued.

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Men</i>			<i>Women</i>		
	<i>2016</i>	<i>2018</i>	<i>2021</i>	<i>2016</i>	<i>2018</i>	<i>2021</i>
Age	43.14 (15.71)	46.06 (15.90)	48.75 (14.58)	45.69 (14.95)	48.14 (14.89)	48.42 (14.34)
1: Has partner	0.59 (0.49)	0.57 (0.49)	0.63 (0.48)	0.52 (0.50)	0.54 (0.50)	0.47 (0.50)
Education (years)	12.77 (3.48)	13.18 (3.26)	13.18 (3.24)	12.17 (3.79)	12.47 (3.42)	12.92 (3.19)
1: Household head	0.72 (0.45)	0.76 (0.43)	0.79 (0.41)	0.39 (0.49)	0.39 (0.49)	0.47 (0.50)
Household head education (years)	11.73 (4.20)	12.55 (3.46)	13.05 (3.18)	10.90 (4.55)	12.15 (3.55)	12.52 (3.37)
1: There is a child < 6 years old	0.22 (0.41)	0.13 (0.33)	0.06 (0.24)	0.23 (0.42)	0.18 (0.39)	0.10 (0.30)
Weekly hours of care	2.04 (8.91)	3.24 (11.89)	4.79 (14.94)	5.86 (20.81)	7.63 (21.52)	12.10 (30.49)
1: Lives in the Santiago metropolitan region	0.40 (0.49)	0.41 (0.49)	0.40 (0.49)	0.44 (0.50)	0.42 (0.49)	0.47 (0.50)
N	1,162	841	627	1,765	1,388	1,112

Notes: Calculations use sample weights that denote the inverse of the probability that the observation is included because of the sampling design.

Source: Prepared based on ELSOC, COES (2021).