Policy Research Working Paper 11260

# Gender and Poverty in Latin America and the Caribbean

## An Analysis through the Life Cycle

*Paola Buitrago-Hernandez*
*Daniela Maquera Sardon*
*Hugo Ñopo*
*Eliana Rubiano-Matulevich*

WORLD BANK GROUP
Poverty and Equity Global Department
November 2025

Policy Research Working Paper 11260


## Abstract

This paper analyzes gender disparities in poverty across the life cycle in Latin America and the Caribbean using harmonized household survey data. Although gender gaps in labor market outcomes are well-documented, gendered poverty disparities have remained understudied. The results reveal a gendered poverty penalty that emerges as women enter their prime productive and reproductive years—a penalty that has increased over the past 15 years. The presence of young children significantly increases the likelihood of poverty in a household. Single-mother households and those with sole or no earners face particularly high vulnerability. To explore the determinants of the gendered poverty penalty, the paper identifies four relevant groups of individuals and applies a Kitagawa-Binder-Oaxaca decomposition. The results indicate that, beyond the presence of children at home and women's age, unobserved factors (including potential discrimination) are behind most of the gap. These findings emphasize the critical role of household composition and life cycle factors, particularly family arrangements.


This paper is a product of the Poverty and Equity Global Department. It is part of a larger effort by the World Bank to provide open access to its research and make a contribution to development policy discussions around the world. Policy Research Working Papers are also posted on the Web at http://www.worldbank.org/prwp. The authors may be contacted at sbuitragohernand@worldbank.org. A verified reproducibility package for this paper is available at http://reproducibility.worldbank.org, click **here** for direct access.

# Gender and Poverty in Latin America and the Caribbean: An Analysis through the Life Cycle

Paola Buitrago-Hernandez, Daniela Maquera Sardon, Hugo Ñopo, Eliana Rubiano-Matulevich[1]

World Bank

Authorized for distribution by Carlos Rodriguez Castelan, Practice Manager, Poverty and Equity Global Department, World Bank Group

JEL Codes: I3, J1, O1

Keywords: Poverty, Gender, Lifecycle, Women, Household.

[1] World Bank, 1818 H Street, N.W., DC, USA.  Paola Buitrago-Hernandez is an Economist with the Poverty and Equity Global Practice, Hugo Ñopo and Eliana Rubiano-Matulevich are Senior Economists in the same group, and Daniela Maquera is a Consultant with the World Bank. The four authors, listed in alphabetical order of their last names, equally contributed to this report. Kelly Montoya and Sofia Hidalgo Berrios, Consultants with the World Bank, provided excellent research assistance. Anna Fruttero, Ana Maria Muñoz-Boudet, and participants at the LACEA 2024 and APE 2025 conferences provided valuable feedback.

## Introduction and Literature

An accurate measurement of poverty is important to identify the most in need, to formulate interventions that aim to alleviate poverty, and to monitor and assess their effectiveness. Conventional poverty measurement relies on household-level income or consumption data as the key monetary measure of welfare. This approach attributes the same welfare estimate to all household members, masking individual gender disparities in poverty, as small differences are observed in aggregate poverty rates for women and men. This outcome is mainly explained by data limitations: poverty is measured at the household level, with uniform classification for all members (Newhouse et al. 2017), and neither individual welfare nor intrahousehold disparities are considered (Muñoz-Boudet et al. 2018; Beegle et al. 2021).

There are important efforts underway to estimate the fraction of household expenditure consumed by/allocated to each family member, shedding light on intrahousehold resource allocation and therefore intrahousehold monetary poverty (World Bank 2018; Muñoz-Boudet et al. 2018; Aminjonov et al. 2024; Aminjonov et al. 2025). In Latin America, Iglesias and Coelho (2020) estimate a model for household behavior using data from the Brazilian consumer expenditure survey, to show that the average share of household total expenditure is slightly larger for men than for women. For Mexico, Calvi et al. (2023) report that women receive a larger resource share and that households benefit from significant economies of scale. In Argentina, Bargain (2024) factors women's and men's net-of-tax earnings and targeted benefits into a household resource sharing function, finding that women's financial power modifies the amount of resources accruing to women and children in the household. Overall, these efforts show the importance of challenging the unified household assumption. Consumption data at the individual level, nonetheless, is rarely observed; and establishing equivalence scales to determine how to allocate expenses among individuals within a household remains a challenge (Haddad and Kanbur 1990; Nelson 1993; Muñoz-Boudet et. al. 2018). All of this restricts the analysis to a household-based measure and reliance on the traditional homogeneous-sharing assumptions.

Despite these difficulties, using existing household-level data is an imperfect but valuable way to understand the gender dimensions of poverty. One such approach is to adopt a life cycle approach to poverty measurement, which examines various age groups during their transitions into adulthood, marriage, parenthood, and employment, and analyzes gender disparities in the experience of poverty. A second approach that is increasingly used in the literature to understand the distinct experiences of poverty for women and men is the construction of household typologies based on demographic or economic characteristics, which remain impartial regarding normative or cultural views of household headship (see Grown and Valodia 2010).

This study employs both approaches to document the gendered poverty penalty in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) and examines the channels linking individuals and households to poverty. These factors can reveal nuanced insights into how women, men, girls, and boys in the region experience poverty differently, and how these differences become larger for certain households and in specific moments in life. Importantly, considering the intra-household 'equal share' limitation, this study emphasizes the role of *inter-household differences* in explaining a gender poverty gap in the LAC region. Findings from this study help understand the gendered aspects of poverty, and this understanding is crucial for program design.

We use a harmonized nationally representative cross-country dataset that covers around 86% of the LAC population, making coverage one other advantage of this study. Results point to the existence of a gendered 'poverty penalty' against women in their prime productive and family formation years (25 to 49

years old). This gender disparity in the incidence of poverty can be as high as 7 percentage points for individuals aged 25 to 35. Worryingly, the gap has been increasing over the last 15 years. In line with previous work (Beegle et al. 2021, at the global level), our results also show that in LAC, adults, who co-reside with children, younger children in particular, are more likely to live in poverty. Depending on whether they cohabit with children, the gendered poverty gap emerges and becomes wider at different moments in individuals' lives. In most cases, this gap takes the form of a penalty against women, which lasts longer in life if there is presence of younger children. These patterns allow us to identify four age groups for which gender differences in poverty are statistically significant. Unpacking the gendered penalty across these groups with decomposition techniques, it is observed that the explained component of the poverty gap—attributed to individual and household composition characteristics—explains little of this gap, while the unexplained portion—capturing unobserved factors and potential discrimination—explains most of it. Overall, this gendered poverty penalty is a manifestation of the inequality of outcomes and opportunities between men and women in the region.

In this paper we depart from the traditional approaches to examine gender differences in poverty relying on self-reported household headship, because it turns out to be problematic for at least a couple of reasons. First, focusing solely on household headship does not provide the context for why a particular individual heads the household. For example, a household may be headed by a woman due to her husband's absence caused by migration, separation, illness, or death; and each cause may have different implications for poverty. Second, self-reported household headship is influenced by social norms about who is considered the head of the household, and these norms vary across regions, income groups and may favor one gender over the other (Buvinic and Gupta 1997; Quisumbing et al. 2001; Lampietti and Stalker 2000; Budlender 2008; Chant 2006).

The paper is organized as follows. After this introductory section, we delve into a data description and methodological approach. There we will elaborate on the idea that, by construction, the computation of poverty statistics at the household level limits the possibility of detecting gender differences in poverty incidence asking for a detailed approach for it. Then, in the third section, using data circa 2021, we explore the role of the presence of children in the household as a key driver of poverty. In the fourth section, we delve into the analysis of gendered poverty differences in these four groups, exploring the gender profile of the poor and Kitagawa-Binder-Oaxaca (KBO) decompositions of the factors associated with these gendered differences. Finally in the last section, we present some conclusions and discuss avenues for further inquiries regarding associated factors in poverty along the life cycle.

## Data and Methodology

The main data source for this study is the Socio-Economic Database for Latin America and the Caribbean (SEDLAC). This is the result of a joint project by the Center for Distributional, Labor and Social Studies (CEDLAS) of the Universidad Nacional de La Plata and the World Bank's Poverty and Equity Group that harmonizes national household surveys to construct cross-country comparable measures of wellbeing. The data we use comprises 15 countries with household surveys circa 2007 and 2021. The details of the available countries and specific years can be found in Table 1. Roughly, this covers over 90 percent of the Latin American and Caribbean population, making coverage one of the advantages of this study.

**Table 1. Surveys (countries-years) and population coverage**

| Country | Name of the survey | Circa 2007 | Circa 2021 |
|---|---|---|---|

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Argentina | Encuesta Permanente de Hogares- Continua | 2007 | 2021 |
| Bolivia | Encuesta Continua de Hogares | 2007 | 2021 |
| Brazil | Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicilios – Continua | 2007 | 2021 |
| Chile | Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional | 2006 | 2020 |
| Colombia | Gran Encuesta Integrada de Hogares | 2005 | 2021 |
| Costa Rica | Encuesta Nacional de Hogares | 2007 | 2021 |
| Dominican Republic | Encuesta de Fuerza de Trabajo | 2007 | 2021 |
| Ecuador | Encuesta de Empleo, Desempleo y Subempleo | 2007 | 2021 |
| Honduras | Encuesta Permanente de Hogares Propósitos Múltiples | 2007 | 2019 |
| Mexico | Encuesta Nal. de Hogares sobre Medición de Niveles de Vida | 2006 | 2020 |
| Panama | Encuesta de Hogares | 2007 | 2021 |
| Paraguay | Encuesta Permanente de Hogares | 2007 | 2021 |
| Peru | Encuesta Nacional de Hogares | 2007 | 2021 |
| El Salvador | Encuesta de Hogares de Propósitos Múltiples | 2007 | 2021 |
| Uruguay | Encuesta Continua de Hogares | 2007 | 2021 |
| **Totals** | | | |
| Population covered by these countries (million people) | | 485.9 | 559.6 |
| Population in Latin America and the Caribbean (million people) | | 514.4 | 595.2 |
| Estimated coverage (%) | | 94.5 | 94.0 |

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank). Data on population size is from the WBG World Development Indicators (WDI), information retrieved on 09/15/2025.
Note: The data for Argentina is urban only, for all other countries is urban and rural. The total population for LAC corresponds to the 18 countries included in the SEDLAC collection.

Here we use the data to analyze gender differences in poverty along the life cycle. For that purpose, we start by sharing some definitions and the procedure to obtain the main estimator of interest. First, the information in the surveys is organized around *households* (a set of individuals sharing shelter and feeding), some members of the households have *income*, which can be from *labor* (either as a dependent worker or as a self-employed) and from *non-labor* (which can be public and private transfers, rents and subsidies). The income, which originally could be measured in days, weeks, months, or other periods, is then normalized such that it is measured in daily terms. To allow cross-country and inter-temporal comparability, the daily income is also normalized such that it is measured in purchasing power parity (PPP) terms corresponding to 2017 U.S. dollars. Then, we compute the sum of all sources of income and divide the result by the number of individuals in the households (regardless of their age, labor status or any other condition). Such a ratio is the *per-capita household income per day* which is then compared with the reference value of $6.85 (the *poverty line*). If a household has a per-capita income below the reference value, all its members are considered *poor*.

A key assumption here is that income is homogeneously shared among all household members, regardless of their age, gender, labor status or any other condition. This induces, by construction, no gender differences in poverty within a single household. Gender differences in poverty, if any, would correspond to the existence of certain households with higher (or exclusive) female presence and higher poverty incidence. In this regard, what this paper emphasizes/explores is the role of *inter-household differences* in the gendered poverty gap.

To delve more deeply into the poverty implications of co-residence with children and its interplay with the life cycle, as a first step estimate poverty rates across all ages for three sub-groups: women and men living with children aged zero to five; women and men living with children aged six to twelve but no children zero to five; women and men living with no children zero to twelve. The choice for the age of children seeks to recognize that younger children require more intense care work which therefore impacts differently on household members' ability to engage in income generating activities. Then, for each sub-group, we identify relevant age ranges where we find that the differences in poverty between men and women in that subgroup are statistically significant at the 95% confidence (more detail in Section 4). As a result, the gender poverty gaps that we will focus on are:

Group 1. In households with children aged zero to five: men/women aged 23 to 28
Group 2. In households with children aged zero to five: men/women aged 41 to 45
Group 3. In households with children aged six to twelve (no children 0-5): men/women aged 29 to 39
Group 4. In households with no children zero to twelve: men/women aged 31 to 50

The poverty gap between adult women and adult men, the poverty implications among individuals living with children, and the role of inter-household differences call for the consideration of poverty by household structure. As a second step in our analysis, we focus attention on two typologies of household composition, demographic and economic. These typologies follow a similar approach as in Muñoz-Boudet et al. (2018) and Beegle et al. (2021), with some variations (Table 2). The D*emographic composition* differentiates households with an adult couple, single-headed adult, and others.[2] The E*conomic composition* considers the number and presence of labor income earners and non-earners (or 'earner-dependents'). These alternatives circumvent some limitations of the traditional self-reported headship approach in analyzing gender and poverty and are neutral to normative or cultural views of headship.[3] Table 3 presents the regional aggregate distribution of households according to both compositions.

**Table 2. Household typologies under the Demographic and Economic compositions**

| **Demographic Composition**<br>**Adult refers to people eighteen to sixty-four years old* | **Economic Composition**<br>**Income earners (fifteen+), economic dependents (children zero to seventeen, seniors sixty-five and older, or adults fifteen to sixty-four, who do not receive labor income)* |
|---|---|
| - Adult couple of opposite sex (married or living together) | - No earner |

[2] A 'couple' is defined with respect to the marital status of the household head (married or living together), distinguishing married/cohabiting couples from other multiple adult or multiple earner households.

[3] The link between headship and poverty is not straightforward. Female-headed households (FHH), for instance, are a highly heterogeneous group with different routes to becoming FHH e.g., self-selection, demographic processes, or widowhood (Chant, 2003 and 2008).

| | |
|---|---|
| - One adult - single-headed household<br>- Non-nuclear, extended, and other households | - Any number of earners with no dependents<br>- Single earner with dependent(s)<br>- Head couple earner (two earners of opposite sex (married or living together) with dependent(s)<br>- Two+ earners (other than a couple) with dependents<br>- Any other household |

**Table 3. Regional distribution of household the Demographic and Economic compositions, Circa 2021**

| Demographic HH Typology | % |
|---|---|
| Adult couple households | 31.9 |
| One adult - single-headed household | 22.7 |
| Non-nuclear, and other households | 45.4 |
| *Total* | *100* |

| Economic HH Typology | % |
|---|---|
| Households with no earner | 17.9 |
| Any earner(s) with no dependents | 17.0 |
| Single earner with dependent(s) | 30.1 |
| Head couple earner (two earners of opposite sex (married or living together) with dependent(s) | 13.3 |
| Two+ earners (other than a couple) with dependents | 15.7 |
| Any other household | 6.1 |
| *Total* | *100* |

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from fifteen countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years).

As the third step in our analysis, we intersect the poor individuals (men and women) from the four age ranges identified above with their individual characteristics and the households they live in according to their demographic and economic configurations (as per Table 2), to produce gender profiles of the poor and to decompose the gender difference in poverty rates.

## Motivation: Evolution of Gender Differences in Poverty, 2007-2021

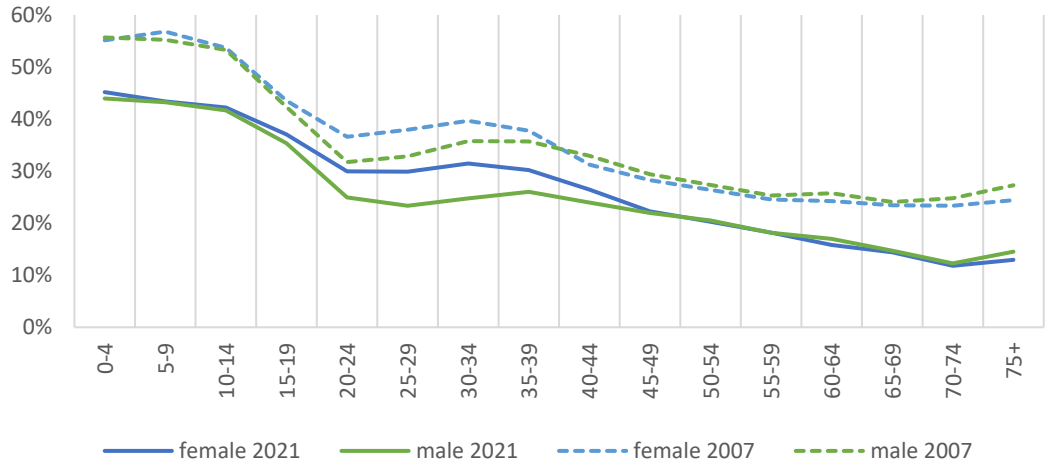
Poverty has declined significantly in LAC over the last two decades, largely driven by economic growth, expanded social programs, and labor market improvements. Worryingly, in the context of decreasing poverty, the gendered disparity in the incidence of poverty has increased and is particularly stark during key stages of the life cycle (Figure 1). This disparity is a manifestation of inequality of outcomes and opportunities between men and women in the region. It constitutes our departure point and, unpacking this disparity, the motivation of our study.

Children, both boys and girls, experience the highest poverty rates among all groups, with no significant gender differences during early childhood and adolescence. As expected, poverty rates decrease with age, following patterns well documented in the literature (Gasparini et al. 2021). However, starting around the 15–19 age group, a gender gap in poverty begins to emerge against women, widening notably during individuals' prime productive and reproductive years. The gender gap in poverty then falls and ultimately disappears by age 49. Then, poverty rates continue to decrease, and the gap vanishes. These results are

in line with what Muñoz-Boudet et al. (2018) and Beegle et al. (2021) reported globally. The emergence of the gender gap is likely due to the high adolescent pregnancy in the region (the gap emerges in the life of women as early as when they are 15 years old), the high incidence of lone mother households, women's higher likelihood of co-residence with children, and unequal distribution of caregiving responsibilities.

As shown in Figure 1, over the past 15 years, the gender gap in poverty rates is not only wider but it also persists for a longer period across the life cycle. In circa 2007, the gender poverty gap reached a maximum of 5 percentage points during the ages of 20-29. However, by circa 2021, the maximum gap had increased to 7 percentage points and shifted to the 25-34 age group. In addition, whereas in circa 2007, the gap closed at ages 35-39, in circa 2021, it persists until ages 45-49.

**Figure 1. Evolution of female and male poverty rates by age group, circa 2007 and circa 2021**




Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP. Argentina has urban coverage only. The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years).

## Children at Home as a Key Driver of Poverty

One key driver of the documented gendered poverty penalty points to the presence of children, particularly young children who require intensive caregiving. Co-residence with children has implications in terms of caregiving responsibilities during women's prime reproductive years that lead to lower female labor force market participation and economic vulnerability. The care intensity varies significantly by child age: children under 5 require constant supervision and hands-on care that often prevents full-time employment, while school-age children (6-12) allow for more flexible work arrangements. Beegle et al. (2021) explore this issue at the global level, finding that co-residence with children is indeed associated with higher poverty rates, although the likelihood that men or women experience higher poverty when living with children varies by region.

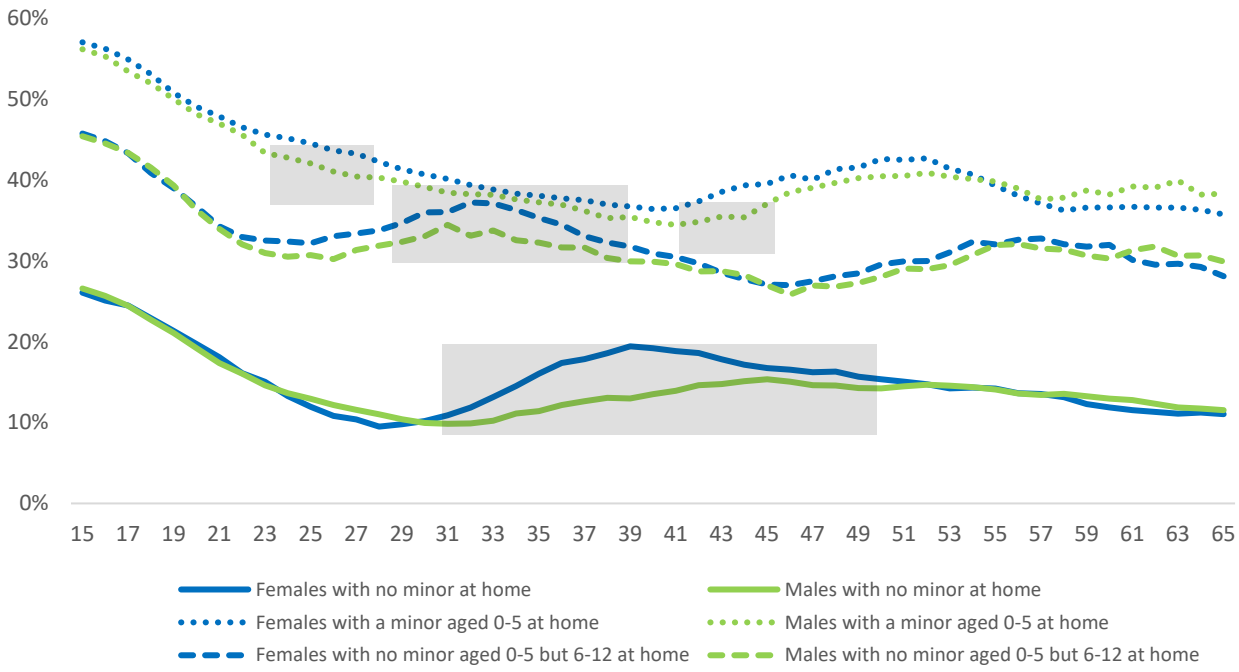
To delve more deeply into the gendered poverty implications of co-residence with children in LAC, we estimate the incidence of poverty separately for men and women, distinguishing whether they live with and without children and the age of the children. Results are presented in Figure 2. The findings reveal that men and women who co-reside with children under 12 years old (dotted lines) are more likely to be living in poverty than their counterparts who live with no children (solid lines). Importantly, the age of

children at home matters for poverty incidence, such that the younger the children the higher the poverty rate. This pattern reflects the intensive care requirements of young children that limit adults' time-availability to engage in income-generating activities. The emergence of gender gaps as early ages 15-19 suggests that teenage pregnancy may create an early pathway into poverty for young women, an area requiring further country-specific investigation.

Besides higher poverty rates, the presence of children has implications for the gender poverty gap. Figure 2 shows that the presence/absence of children leads to disparities in poverty rates between women and men during different moments in the life cycle. Among individuals living with youngest children 0-5, there are two age intervals where gender differences in poverty are statistically significant at the 95% confidence level: between ages 23 and 28; and between ages 41 and 45. For women in the younger age range, this likely reflects women becoming mothers during their prime productive years; for the older interval, this could reflect young grandmothers caring for their grandchildren—a common arrangement in LAC where intergenerational support systems often place caregiving burdens on older women. For individuals living with children between 6 and 12 years old, gender differences are statistically significant only for those between 29 and 39 years old. Notably, while children increase absolute poverty rates for both men and women, the largest gender poverty gap (3.4 percentage points) is found among individuals aged 31-50 who live with no children at home. This finding may reflect women who previously experienced career interruptions due to childrearing and now face challenges with outdated skills, age discrimination, and the cumulative effects of lower lifetime earnings, though the specific pathways require further investigation.

It is important to note that households with young children will, by construction, lead to higher monetary poverty rates (i.e., larger households with lower per capita income) than those without. However, the higher incidence of poverty from co-residence with children does not respond exclusively to the arithmetic of the monetary poverty indicator. If that were the case, the increased incidence of poverty with and without children would look like a rather uniform upward increase between the two types of households. And yet, it is not. On the contrary, the gap in poverty by sex is nuanced by age and household demographics (younger/older children, no children). This suggests the observed persistence of the gender poverty gap during specific years in the life cycle responds to underlying structural factors that continue to disadvantage women, including unequal distribution of unpaid care work, labor market discrimination against mothers, inadequate childcare infrastructure, and insufficient enforcement and/or amount of child support obligations that leaves single mothers vulnerable.

**Figure 2. Female and male poverty rates by presence of minors, circa 2021**




Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The poverty rate is calculated using household per capita income and the $6.85 USD international poverty line in 2017 PPP. Argentina has urban coverage only. The Circa 2021 includes 2019 data for Honduras and 2020 data for Chile and Mexico. The LAC aggregate is based on the pooled data of 15 countries for which microdata is available. For visual purposes, a simple moving average with a window size of 5 years was implemented to estimate the poverty rate for each age.
Areas in gray correspond to ages where the gender poverty gap is statistically significant at the 95% confidence level.

These patterns reflect that women in the LAC region are over-represented in more vulnerable household configurations, compared to men. Table 4 shows the position within the household for adults in the 23-50 age group, which comprises the full interval of the four age groups previously defined. Results clearly show that women are more likely to be the parent in lone-parent households ('single mothers') than men the same age, and the difference is particularly stark if looking at those who are poor: 11 percent of poor women age 23-50 are the adult in a single-adult parent household compared to 1.2 percent of poor men. Women in the 23-50 group are more likely than men to live in households with presence of children (71 and 59 percent, respectively), with the corresponding implications in terms of caregiving. Consistent with results shown in Figure 2, among poor individuals in this age group, the shares of poor women and men who co-reside with children are large, above 80 percent, although larger for women: 88 percent of poor women co-reside with children compared to 82 percent of poor men.

In the next sections, we further unpack the mechanisms behind these patterns, with a particular focus on household composition in shaping outcomes across the life cycle.

**Table 4. Position in the household and household type for prime-aged (23-50) individuals (%). By sex and poverty status. Circa 2021.**

| Position | Women 23-50 | | Men 23-50 | | All 23-50 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Non-poor | Poor | Non-poor | Poor | Women | Men |
| Member of the couple, household of couple with children | 30.0 | **38.3** | 29.1 | **47.8** | **32.4** | **33.5** |
| Adult, household of lone-adult with children | 5.3 | **11.5** | 0.9 | **1.2** | **7.0** | **1.0** |
| Adult (except child of head), extended family with children | 18.8 | **25.9** | 13.9 | **20.9** | **20.8** | **15.6** |
| Adult child of head, any type of household with children | 10.4 | 12.2 | 8.5 | 12.1 | 10.9 | 9.4 |
| Member, any household without children | 35.4 | 12.0 | 47.7 | 17.9 | 28.8 | 40.6 |
| Missing | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| | | | | | | |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP. Argentina has urban coverage only. The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years).

## Analyzing Gender Poverty Gaps

From Figure 2 it is noteworthy that, regardless of the presence and age of children at home, gender differences in poverty incidence against women are present in all groups of individuals. Some household compositions are more prevalent than others among the poor, e.g., households with children, and at the same time, poor households are more likely to include women in their reproductive years. These findings lead to a consideration of poverty gaps by individual characteristics and by household composition structure.

For each of the four restricted age groups outlined in the methodology, we construct the gender profile of the poor based on education, urban/rural location, marital status, and their household according to the demographic and economic composition. Detailed figures on descriptives for the four groups are presented in the Annex. Then, for each group, we compute KBO decompositions to assess the extent to which the gender poverty gap can be explained by individuals' and households' observable characteristics. This approach divides the average gender-poverty gap into three components: one attributable to differences in magnitudes of the determinants of the poverty rates (the explained or endowment), and a second one due to differences in the effects of these determinants (the unexplained or coefficient). Decomposition results across all the four groups considered indicate that the poverty penalty against women cannot be explained solely by the (individual and household) characteristics that are controlled for. It also suggests that controlling household composition matters as this increases the explained portion of the gender gap.

## Gender Profile of the Poor

In the Annex, we report descriptive statistics of poverty incidence and composition for the four groups of individuals outlined in the Methodology section, crossing gender with three key characteristics: education, location, and marital status.

The differences in poverty by education are worth noting. Across all four groups a double pattern is observed where most of the poor have lower education (no education or primary), and the poverty incidence reduces with education. While this is true for both poor men and women, poor women attain on average higher education levels than men. When assessing the gender poverty gap for all the age windows, the difference is statistically zero across all education groups (Annex, Figures A1, A8, A15, A22).

For both genders and locations, in all four age groups, we document a (relatively) recent global commonality of poverty analysis: while poverty incidence is higher in rural areas, the number of poor individuals is notoriously higher in urban ones. For instance, in group 4—individuals in the 31-50 age group without children—the rural poverty rates double those of urban zones, while the number of poor individuals in cities is more than double those in the countryside. This fact corresponds to the growing urbanization tendencies in Latin America (and the world). In group 1 (ages 23-28, with children ages 0-5), group 3 (ages 29-39, with children ages 0-12) and group 4 (ages 31-50, no children), rural women face a larger gender poverty gap compared to urban women, and the gap is the widest among individuals ages 31-50 living without children (5 percentage points). Focusing on individuals co-residing with younger children 0-5 (groups 1 and 2), differences by age are observed: among younger individuals (23-28), a gender gap against women is higher in rural areas, whereas for older individuals (41-45) a wider gap emerges in urban areas and a disadvantage against men in urban areas. (Annex, Figures A2, A9, A16, A23).

The marital status information from the household surveys distinguishes across five categories, as most surveys ask directly about such. However, Brazil is an exception, as the household survey does not collect specific marital status information for all individuals but for heads of households and partners only. Consequently, a significant share of observations for this country are reported as missing or unknown. Across the four age groups analyzed, poverty rates vary by marital status; nonetheless, the gender poverty gap persists, with women mostly experiencing higher poverty rates than men across most marital statuses. Among women 23-28 living with children, the highest incidence of poverty is found in widowed, divorced and married/living together, whereas among women 41-45 it is for the living together and divorced. Among women 29-39 living with older children and women living with no children (groups 3 and 4), poverty incidence across marital status is less heterogeneous. In general, across the four groups, difference in poverty rates between married men and married women remain relatively small (Annex, Figures A3, A10, A17, A24).

Through the demographic household typologies, poor younger individuals (23-28; 29-39) living with children (0-5, 6-12, respectively) are more likely to be found in couple headed households followed by lone-parent households, indicating that these adults are the parents of the children. Poor older individuals (41-45) living with children 0-5, on the other hand, are more likely to be found in extended and other types of households, signaling that these adults are possibly related to the children but not as parents (e.g., grandparents, aunts/uncles). Through the economic typology, poor individuals living with children are more likely to be found in households with only one income earner, whereas those poor prime-aged not living with children are more evenly split between households with one earner and households with no earners (Annex, Figures A4, A6, A11, A13, A18, A20, A25, and A27).

Importantly, across the four groups, certain household compositions are over-represented among the poor. (Annex, figures A5, A7, A12, A14, A19, A21, A26 and A28)

## Households with young children 0-5: Adults aged between 23 and 28

KBO decomposition results show that, on average, the (conditional) incidence of poverty among women in this group is 2.3 percentage points higher than that among men in the same age group (Table 5). Moreover, women this age living with the youngest children experience the smallest average poverty gap compared to women in the other three groups. Variability across specifications (columns 1 through 4) reveals interesting information. When household typology is added (specifications 3 and 4), the explained component becomes less negative, signaling that household structure partially offsets the poverty-reducing characteristics that pertain only to the individual. Including both individuals' and households' characteristics (compared to only individuals') shows that approximately 52 percent of the penalty is explained by differences in observables, with the remainder due to the unexplained component. The economic typology has higher explanatory power of the penalty, which is not surprising as the welfare aggregate employed in this analysis is based on the per-capita income of the household (income increases with more household earners).

**Table 5. Kitagawa-Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition of the gender difference in poverty rates of people 23-28 in households with minors aged 0-5. Circa 2021.**

| | Full sample (15 countries) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Women 23-28** | 0.440*** | | | |
| **Men 23-28** | 0.418*** | | | |
| **Gender-poverty gap** | 0.023*** | | | |
| | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** |
| **Endowments** | -0.027*** | -0.021*** | -0.013*** | 0.012*** |
| **Coefficients** | 0.050*** | 0.044*** | 0.036*** | 0.011 |
| **Observations** | 69,761 | 69,761 | 69,761 | 69,761 |
| **Controls** | | | | |
| Age | x | x | x | x |
| Education | x | x | x | x |
| Location | x | x | x | x |
| Marital status | | x | x | x |
| HH demographic type | | | x | |
| HH economic type | | | | x |

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

A coefficient of positive sign indicates an increase in the difference between women and men.

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).

Notes: For Brazil, ever partnered includes household heads and their partners, only. The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

## Households with young children 0-5: Adults aged between 41 and 45

For this second group, older adults also living with young children, results show that the (conditional) poverty rate for women is 38.5 percent, compared to 35.5 percent for men, resulting in a gender-poverty gap of 3.0 percentage points. The decomposition presented in Table 6 indicates that the explained

component turns positive once additional controls are introduced (specification 2) and remains positive when household typologies are included. In this group, the unexplained component accounts for most of the largest share of the gender-poverty gap across all four specifications.

The inclusion of household-level characteristics, both demographic and economic, increases the portion of the gap explained by observable factors, accounting for approximately 3 to 16 percent of the total difference. Notably, the model incorporating the demographic household typology (specification 3) explains the largest share (although still small in magnitude) of the observed gap within this age group.

**Table 6. Kitagawa-Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition of the gender difference in poverty rates people 41-45 in households with minors aged 0-5. Circa 2021.**

| | Full sample (15 countries) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Women 41-45** | 0.385*** | | | |
| **Men 41-45** | 0.355*** | | | |
| **Gender-poverty gap** | 0.030*** | | | |
| | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** |
| **Endowments** | -0.004 | 0.004 | 0.005 | 0.001 |
| **Coefficients** | 0.034*** | 0.026** | 0.026** | 0.029*** |
| **Observations** | 27,476 | 27,476 | 27,476 | 27,476 |
| **Controls** | | | | |
| Age | x | x | x | x |
| Education | x | x | x | x |
| Location | x | x | x | x |
| Marital status | | x | x | x |
| HH demographic type | | | x | |
| HH economic type | | | | x |

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

A coefficient of positive sign indicates an increase in the difference between women and men.

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).

Notes: For Brazil, ever partnered includes household heads and their partners, only. The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

## Households with children 6-12 (and no minors 0-5): Adults aged between 29 and 39

We turn now to individuals in prime years living in households with older children 6-12 years old. For this third set of individuals, the (conditional) incidence of poverty among women is 2.4 percentage points higher than that of men in the same age group (Table 7). In this and the next group (individuals living with no children), the addition of marital status adds very marginally to the explained portion of the gap, compared to the previous groups. As is the case with the other groups, accounting for the economic household typology (specification 4), increases the most the explained portion of the gap. Across all models, the unexplained component consistently accounts for most of the difference, with the magnitude decreasing as household-level characteristics are introduced. Unobserved factors continue to drive most of the observed poverty gap in this age group.

**Table 7. Kitagawa-Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition of the gender difference in poverty rates people 29-39 in households with minors aged 6-12 (no minors 0-5). Circa 2021.**

| | Full sample (15 countries) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Women 29-39** | 0.348*** | | | |
| **Men 29-39** | 0.324*** | | | |
| **Gender-poverty gap** | 0.024*** | | | |
| | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** |
| **Endowments** | -0.024*** | -0.017*** | -0.011*** | 0.002 |
| **Coefficients** | 0.048*** | 0.042*** | 0.035*** | 0.022*** |
| **Observations** | 83,891 | 83,891 | 83,891 | 83,891 |
| **Controls** | | | | |
| Age | x | X | x | x |
| Education | x | X | x | x |
| Location | x | X | x | x |
| Marital status | | X | x | x |
| HH demographic type | | | x | |
| HH economic type | | | | x |

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

A coefficient of positive sign indicates an increase in the difference between women and men.

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).

Notes: For Brazil, ever partnered includes household heads and their partners, only. The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

## Households with no children 0-12: Adults aged between 31 and 50

Among the last age group, the (conditional) poverty rate for women is 16.7 percent, compared to 13.2 percent for men, resulting in a gender-poverty gap of 3.4 percentage points (Table 8). Women in this group experience the largest poverty penalty signaling that, although the presence of children is a key driver of poverty, there is more to consider when it comes to the gendered poverty penalty. As with the three previous age groups, the decomposition shows that women's observed characteristics explain less of the gap than the unobservable ones do. Yet again, when the economic household typology is introduced (specification 4), the explained component turns positive, suggesting that differences in household economic profiles help account for a portion of the gap. Even with these additional controls, however, most of the difference remains unexplained, with the unexplained component contributing to no less than 70 percent of the gap. Yet, compared to the other groups, the relative contribution of observable factors increases slightly.

**Table 8. Kitagawa-Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition of the gender difference in poverty rates people 31-50 in households with no children 0-12. Circa 2021.**

| | Full sample (15 countries) |
|---|---|
| **Women 31-50** | 0.167*** |
| **Men 31-50** | 0.132*** |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Gender-poverty gap** | | 0.034*** | | |
| | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** |
| **Endowments** | -0.010*** | -0.009*** | -0.007*** | 0.010*** |
| **Coefficients** | 0.044*** | 0.043*** | 0.041*** | 0.024*** |
| **Observations** | 239,098 | 239,098 | 239,098 | 239,098 |
| **Controls** | | | | |
| Age | x | x | x | x |
| Education | x | x | x | x |
| Location | x | x | x | x |
| Marital status | | x | x | x |
| HH demographic type | | | x | |
| HH economic type | | | | x |

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

A coefficient of positive sign indicates an increase in the difference between women and men.

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).

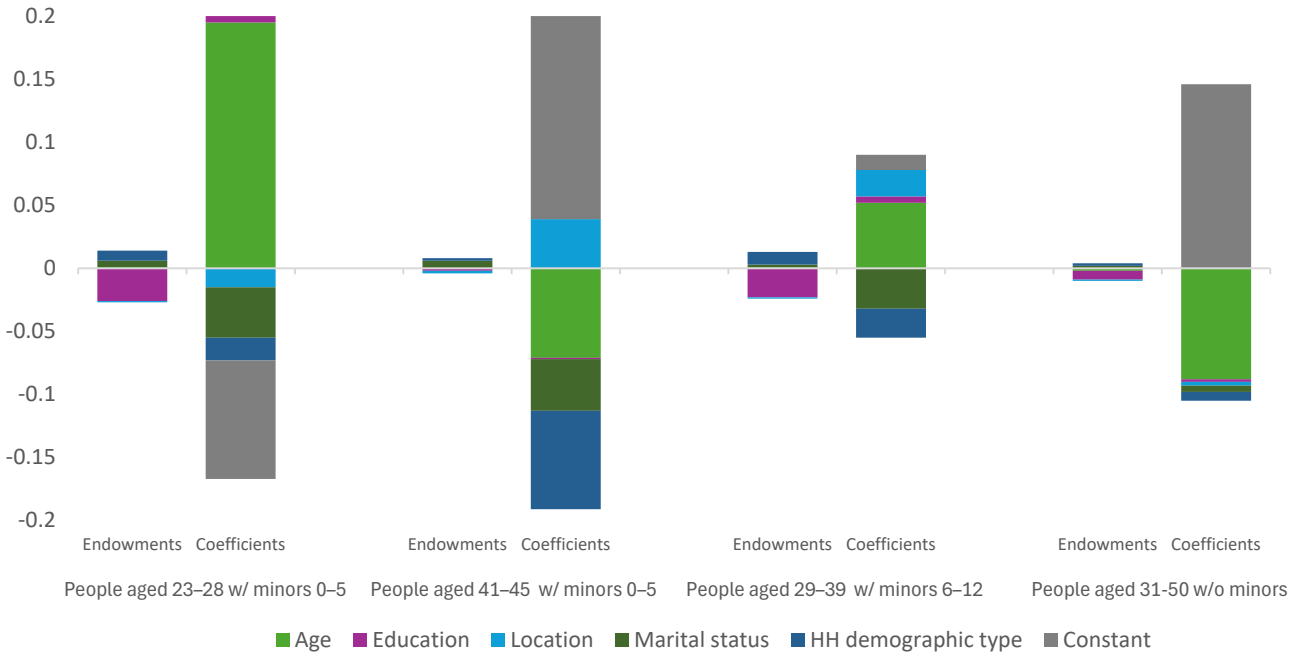
Notes: For Brazil, ever partnered includes household heads and their partners, only. The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

## How do the accounted variables explain the gendered gap across the four household types?

Figure 3 illustrates the decomposition of the gender-poverty gap into the contribution of observable factors (endowments) and unexplained factors (coefficients) across the four groups considered, accounting for individual characteristics and *demographic* household compositions. The bar charts present the disaggregated contributions to the observed gap. Consistent with the results from the KOB decomposition tables, results show that, for all groups, the unexplained component contributes more substantially to the gap than the (observed) endowments, underscoring the key role of unexplained factors in driving the female poverty penalty.

When examining endowments, individuals' education emerges as an important protective factor for women against the poverty penalty. This is the case across all groups, but particularly for younger women (23-28 and 29-39) living with children. However, this effect is partially offset by household demographics. The figure also highlights important differences in the composition of the unexplained component. In comparing households with children (age groups 1 to 3) to those without, three factors—age, marital status, household demographics, and to a lesser extent location—stand out as the largest contributors to the unexplained gender gap among individuals living with young children. These patterns confirm that, beyond individual characteristics, household structure and geographic factors play a relevant role in shaping gendered poverty differences, particularly in households with children.

**Figure 3. Decomposition of the gender poverty gap, using demographic household compositions, Circa 2021.**

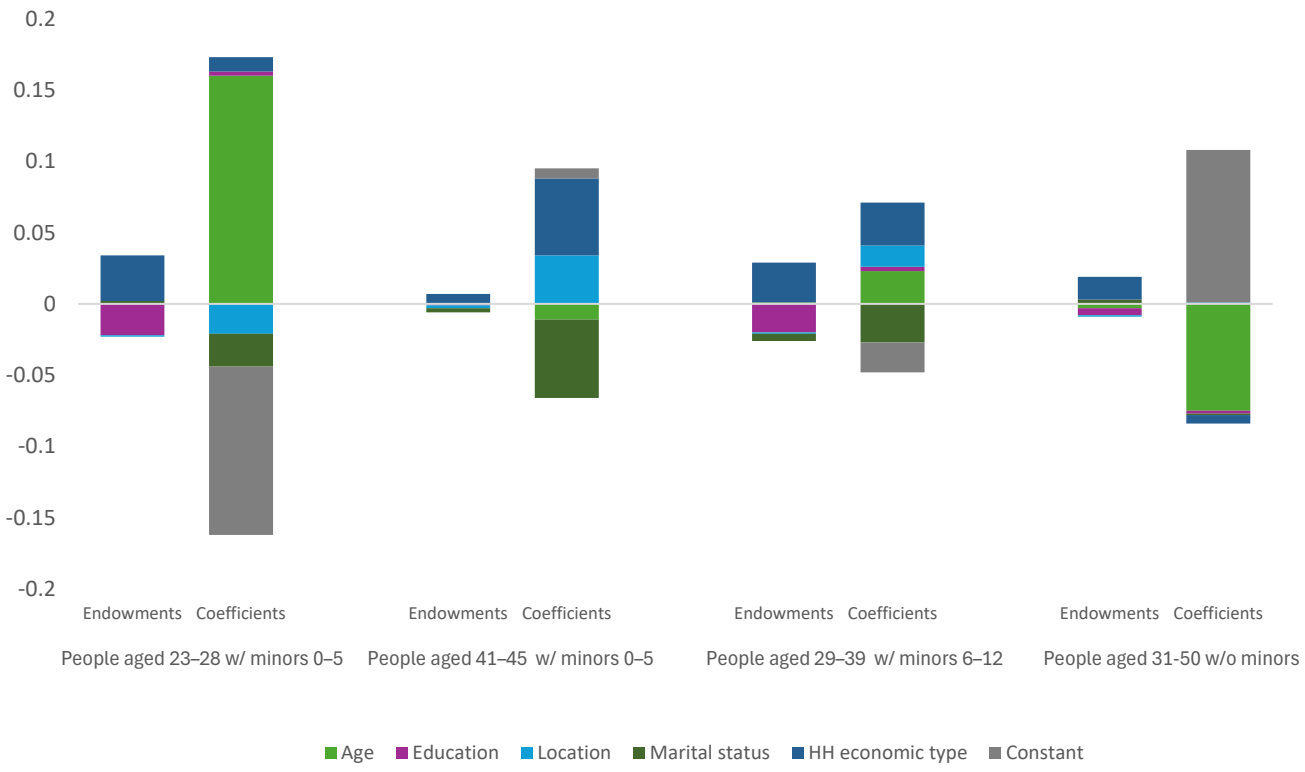



Note: The figure presents the results of Kitagawa-Oaxaca-Blinder decompositions. It shows the extent to which endowments and coefficients explain the gender poverty gap, and the disaggregation by the controlled characteristics. For Brazil, ever partnered includes household heads and their partners, only. The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

Figure 4 presents a similar decomposition for the KOB results that account for the economic household typology. As in the previous analysis, the figure confirms that unexplained factors (coefficients) contribute more significantly to the gender-poverty gap than observable characteristics (endowments) across all age groups considered. Nevertheless, distinct patterns emerge when considering the role of economic household structure.

Among the endowments, differences in the presence and number of earners in the household constitute the most significant factor explaining the observed gender gap. Once again, not surprisingly considering the definition of the poverty measure considered in this analysis, i.e., monetary poverty. This also suggests that women are disproportionately represented in households with weaker economic profiles—households without earners—which partially contributes to their higher poverty risk. On the side of the coefficients, individual age contributes notably to the unexplained portion of the gap across all age groups. Furthermore, when comparing individuals based on their co-residence with children, the decomposition reveals that for women living with children, additional variables—specifically marital status and geographic location—represent a larger share of the unexplained component contributing to the poverty penalty.

**Figure 4. Decomposition of the gender poverty gap, using economic household compositions, Circa 2021.**




Note: The figure presents the results of Kitagawa-Oaxaca-Blinder decompositions. It shows the extent to which endowments and coefficients explain the gender poverty gap, and the disaggregation by the controlled characteristics. For Brazil, ever partnered includes household heads and their partners, only. The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

## Concluding Remarks

In this paper we have documented a relatively unexplored issue in the analysis of poverty, namely gendered poverty gaps across the life cycle in LAC. An apparent reason behind the lack of attention to the topic is that poverty is traditionally measured at the household level, which leads to no intrahousehold gender differences in poverty by construction. Data on welfare at the individual level is rarely observed and there are important limitations in the 'equal sharing' assumption underlying monetary poverty estimates. Nonetheless, significant gender differences in poverty incidence exist. By adopting a life cycle approach to poverty measurement using household-level data, analyzing inter-household differences, and differentiating between co-residence with young children of different ages, we analyzed the gendered poverty penalty in the LAC region. Overall, our findings underscore the critical role of household composition and life cycle factors in shaping gender differences in poverty.

A gendered poverty gap occurs particularly during the prime productive and reproductive years. For individuals aged between 25 and 49, poverty among females can be up to 4 percentage points higher than that of males. More worrisome, this gap has increased over the last 15 years, and the presence of children appears to be a key driver of poverty that heavily influences when in the life cycle the gender gap emerges.

The care intensity of younger children (0-5) creates economic vulnerabilities for women, while the largest gender gap (3.4 percentage points) is found among women aged 31-50 without children at home, possibly reflecting the cumulative effects of earlier career interruptions and caregiving responsibilities.

Our Kitagawa-Blinder-Oaxaca decompositions reveal that observable characteristics explain relatively little of the gender poverty gap, typically less than 30 percent across age groups. The unexplained component, capturing unobserved factors and potential discrimination, accounts for most of the difference. Among the observable factors, household economic composition (presence of earners) explains more of the gap than demographic composition, highlighting how women's disproportionate representation in households with no earners or single earners contributes to their poverty risk.

Women's overrepresentation in lone-parent households and households with no earner places them at a higher risk of falling into poverty. Women living in households with younger children are likely to experience a poverty penalty as early as age 15 that can persist until age 60. The widening gender poverty gap and its persistence across a longer portion of the life cycle highlight the need for targeted policies that address the specific vulnerabilities faced by women in these disadvantaged household configurations.

The gendered lenses in poverty alleviation strategies continue to be necessary but may require an "extra mile" beyond traditional approaches. While targeting female household heads in cash transfer programs was fundamental progress, our findings suggest that policy interventions must now recognize the additional structural barriers women face. Targeted support for lone-parent households, often female-headed, can alleviate financial strain from inadequate child support through government subsidized childcare, housing assistance, and education grants. Labor market reforms can strengthen enforcement of equal pay provisions, provide training programs to increase women's participation in higher-wage sectors, and protect against workplace discrimination. Expanding social safety nets eligibility to better reach women affected by separation, divorce or widowhood, can prevent them from falling into poverty during vulnerable life transitions. For instance, existing evidence for LAC countries indicates that child maintenance payments reduce poverty and food insecurity among single-mother families. However, the effectiveness of these payments relies on non-resident parents' ability to pay consistently, and the costs associated with the process of pursuing a child maintenance arrangement from the parents' perspective.[4]

Future research could pursue alternative methodological approaches to deepen understanding and improve policy targeting. Latent class analysis could identify unobserved household vulnerability typologies that better capture the multidimensional nature of gendered poverty risk beyond traditional classifications. Structural models of household bargaining could exploit policy variations in women's economic empowerment to identify causal effects of female bargaining power on individual welfare outcomes. Quasi-experimental designs leveraging geographic discontinuities in social policies, such as childcare availability or divorce law enforcement, could provide cleaner identification of how institutional factors affect gendered poverty patterns. Finally, innovative data collection approaches, including smartphone-based expenditure tracking and time-use apps, could overcome traditional limitations in measuring individual-level consumption and time allocation, providing the evidence base needed for transformative policy approaches.

[4] See for instance Meyer, D.R., & Hu, M-C. (1999), Cuesta, L. (2014), Cuesta, L., Hakovirta, M., & Jokela, M. (2018).

# References


Altimir, Oscar. 1984. "Poverty, Income Distribution and Child Welfare in Latin America: A Comparison of Pre- and Post-Recession Data." World Development 12 (3): 261-282. DOI: 10.1016/0305-750X(84)90063-9.

Aminjonov, Ulugbek, Maira Colacce, Olivier Bargain, and Luca Tiberti. 2024. "Culture, Intrahousehold Distribution, and Individual Poverty." *Economic Development and Cultural Change* 73 (1): 127-165. DOI: 10.1086/726656

Aminjonov, Ulugbek, Olivier Bargain, and Maira Colacce. 2025. "Global Evidence on Gender Gaps and Child Poverty in Consumption." IZA Discussion Paper No. 17767, Institute of Labor Economics (IZA). https://www.iza.org/en/publications/dp/17767

Bargain, Olivier, Olivier Donni, and Prudence Kwenda. 2014. "Intra-Household Distribution and Poverty: Evidence from Côte d'Ivoire." Journal of Development Economics 107: 262-276. DOI: 10.1016/j.jdeveco.2013.12.008.

Bargain, Olivier. 2024. "Income Sources, Intrahousehold Allocation and Individual Poverty." *Review of Income and Wealth* 70 (2): 291-319. DOI: 10.1111/roiw.12642.

Beegle, Kathleen, Ana María Muñoz Boudet, Antra Bhatt, Ginette Azcona, and Jayne Yoo. 2021. "A Global View of Poverty, Gender, and Household Composition." Policy Research Working Paper 9555. Washington, DC: World Bank Group. http://hdl.handle.net/10986/35183

Brown, Caitlin, Martin Ravallion, and Dominique van de Walle. 2017. "Are Poor Individuals Mainly Found in Poor Households?" Policy Research Working Paper 8001. Washington, DC: World Bank. http://hdl.handle.net/10986/26342

Budlender, Debbie. 2008. "The Debate about Household Headship." *Social Dynamics* 29 (2): 48-72. DOI: 10.1080/02533950308628675.

Buvinic, Mayra, and Geeta Rao Gupta. 1997. "Female-Headed Households and Female-Maintained Families: Are They Worth Targeting to Reduce Poverty in Developing Countries?" *Economic Development and Cultural Change* 45 (2): 259-280. http://www.jstor.org/stable/1154535.

Calvi, Rossella, Jacob Penglase, Denni Tommasi, and Alexander Wolf. 2023. "The More the Poorer? Resource Sharing and Scale Economies in Large Families." *Journal of Development Economics* 160: 102986. DOI: 10.1016/j.jdeveco.2022.102986.

Cuesta, Laura. 2014. "Child Support and Food Insecurity among Custodial-Mother Families in Colombia." *Journal of Family Studies* 20 (3): 286-297. DOI: 10.1080/13229400.2014.11082012

Cuesta, Laura, Mia Hakovirta, and Merits Jokela. 2018. "The Antipoverty Effectiveness of Child Support: Empirical Evidence for Latin American Countries." *Social Policy & Administration* 52 (6): 1233-1251. DOI: 10.1111/spol.12437

Chant, Sylvia. 2003. "Female Household Headship and the Feminization of Poverty: Facts, Fictions and Forward Strategies." Working Paper. London: LSE Research Online. http://eprints.lse.ac.uk/archive/00000574

Chant, Sylvia. 2006. "Rethinking the 'Feminization of Poverty' in Relation to Aggregate Gender Indices." Journal of Human Development 7 (2): 201-220. DOI: 10.1080/14649880600768538.

Chant, Sylvia. 2008. "The Feminization of Poverty and the 'Feminization' of Anti-Poverty Programmes: Room for Revision?" Journal of Development Studies 44 (2): 165-197. DOI: 10.1080/00220380701789810.

Deere, Carmen Diana, Gina Alvarado, and Jennifer Twyman. 2012. "Gender Inequality in Asset Ownership in Latin America: Female Owners vs Household Heads." Development and Change 43 (2): 505-530. DOI: 10.1111/j.1467-7660.2012.01764.x.

Dercon, Stefan. 2012. "Understanding Child Poverty in Developing Countries: Measurement and Analysis." In Childhood Poverty, edited by Jo Boyden and Michael Bourdillon. Palgrave Studies on Children and Development. Palgrave Macmillan.

Dunbar, Geoffrey R., Arthur Lewbel, and Krishna Pendakur. 2013. "Children's Resources in Collective Households: Identification, Estimation, and an Application to Child Poverty in Malawi." American Economic Review 103 (1): 438-471. DOI: 10.1257/aer.103.1.438.

Gasparini, Leonardo, María Emma Santos, and Leopoldo Tornarolli. 2021. "Poverty in Latin America." CEDLAS Working Paper No. 0284. Universidad Nacional de La Plata. http://hdl.handle.net/10915/119547

Grown, Caren, and Imraan Valodia, eds. 2010. *Taxation and Gender Equity: A Comparative Analysis of Direct and Indirect Taxes in Developing and Developed Countries.* Routledge.

Haddad, Lawrence, and Ravi Kanbur. 1990. "How Serious Is the Neglect of Intra-household Inequality?" Economic Journal 100 (402): 866–881. DOI: 10.2307/2233663.

Iglesias, Wagner J., and Alexandre B. Coelho. 2020. "Poverty and Inequality within Brazilian Households: An Application of a Collective Consumption Model." Empirical Economics 58: 1923-1952. DOI: 10.1007/s00181-018-01598-1.

Meyer, Daniel R., and Mei-Chen Hu. 1999. "A Note on the Antipoverty Effectiveness of Child Support among Mother-Only Families." Journal of Human Resources 34 (1): 225-234. DOI: 10.2307/14630

Munoz Boudet, Ana María, Paola Buitrago, Bénédicte Leroy De La Brière, David Newhouse, Elizabeth Rubiano Matulevich, Kinnon Scott, and Pablo Suarez-Becerra. 2018. "Gender Differences in Poverty and Household Composition through the Life-Cycle: A Global Perspective." Policy Research Working Paper 8360. Washington, DC: World Bank. http://hdl.handle.net/10986/29426.

Nelson, Julie. 1993. "Household Equivalence Scales: Theory versus Policy?" *Journal of Labor Economics* 11 (3): 471-493. DOI: 10.1086/298304.

Newhouse, David, Pablo Suárez Becerra, and Martin Evans. 2017. "New Global Estimates of Child Poverty and Their Sensitivity to Alternative Equivalence Scales." *Economics Letters* 157: 125-128. DOI: 10.1016/j.econlet.2017.06.007.

Quisumbing, Agnes R., Lawrence Haddad, and Cristina Peña. 2001. "Are Women Overrepresented among the Poor? An Analysis of Poverty in Ten Developing Countries." *Journal of Development Economics* 66 (1): 225–269. DOI: 10.1016/S0304-3878(01)00152-3.

Rogan, Michael. 2013. "Alternative Definitions of Headship and the 'Feminization' of Income Poverty in Post-Apartheid South Africa." *Journal of Development Studies* 49 (10): 1344-1357. DOI: 10.1080/00220388.2013.812199.

Segretin, M. Soledad, M. Julia Hermida, Lucía Prats, Carolina Fracchia, Eliana Ruetti, and Sebastián Lipina. 2016**.** "Childhood Poverty and Cognitive Development in Latin America in the 21st Century." *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development* 152: 9–29. DOI: 10.1002/cad.20162.

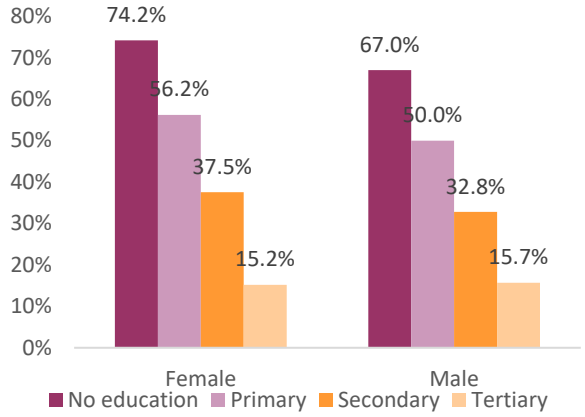
World Bank. 2018. *Poverty and Shared Prosperity 2018: Piecing Together the Poverty Puzzle.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

# Annex

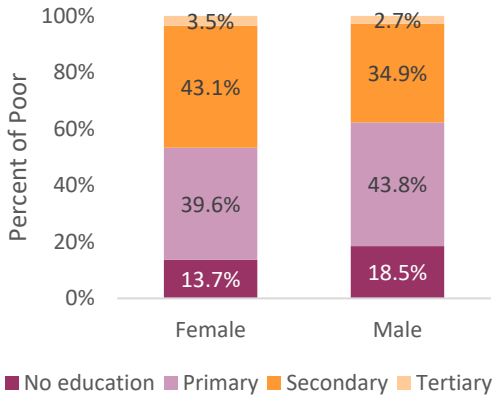
## Group 1 - Households with minors 0-5: Adults aged between 23 and 28

**Figure A1. Education and poverty, Circa 2021**

***Poverty rates by sex and educational level***



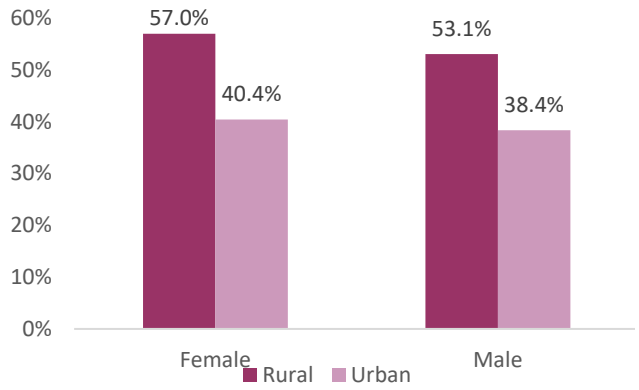

***Distribution of the poor by sex and educational level***



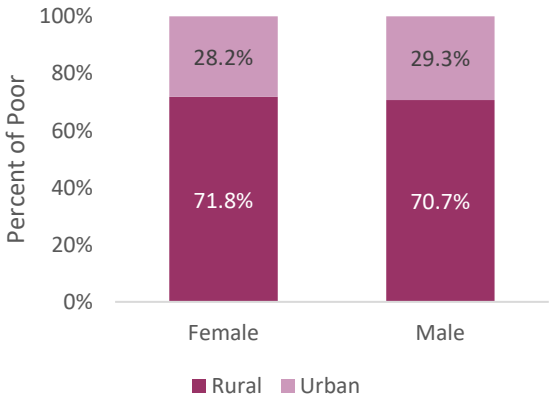

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**FigureA2. Location and poverty, Circa 2021**

***Poverty rates by sex and location***

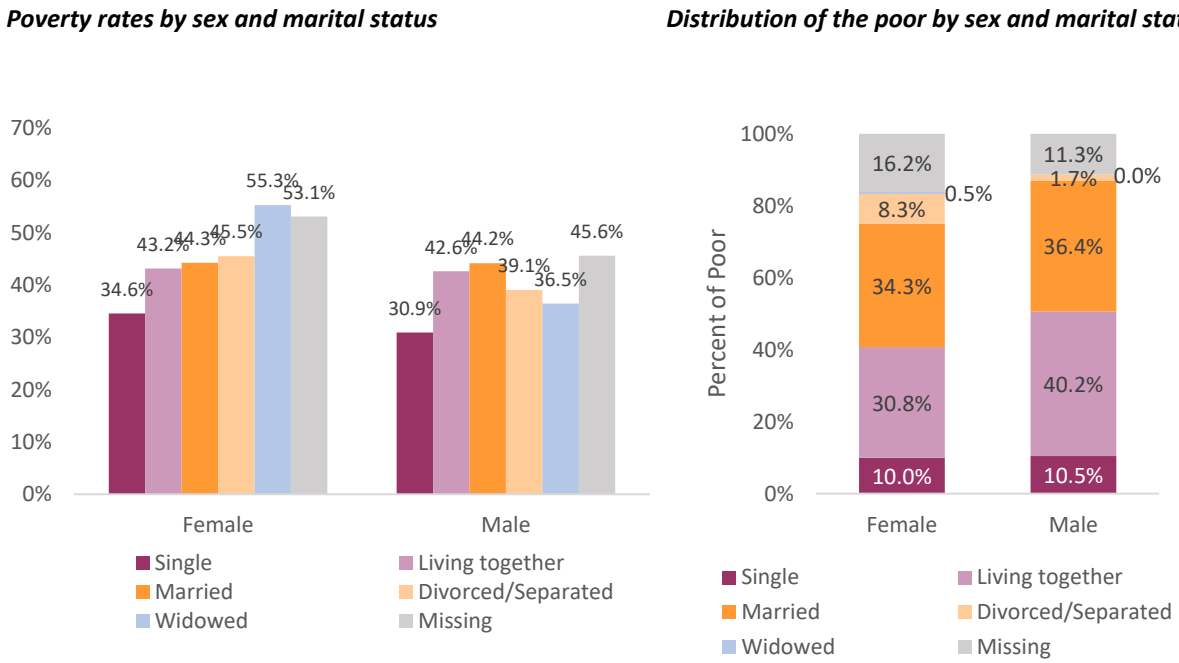



***Distribution of the poor by sex and location***



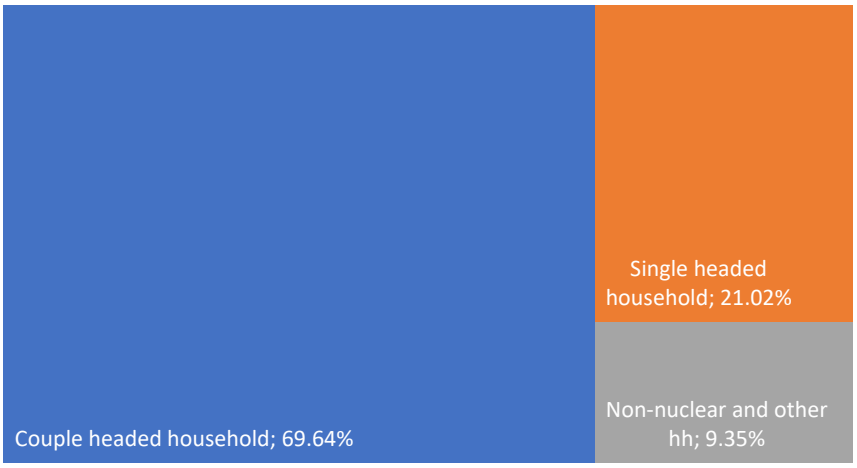

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A3. Marital Status and poverty, Circa 2021**



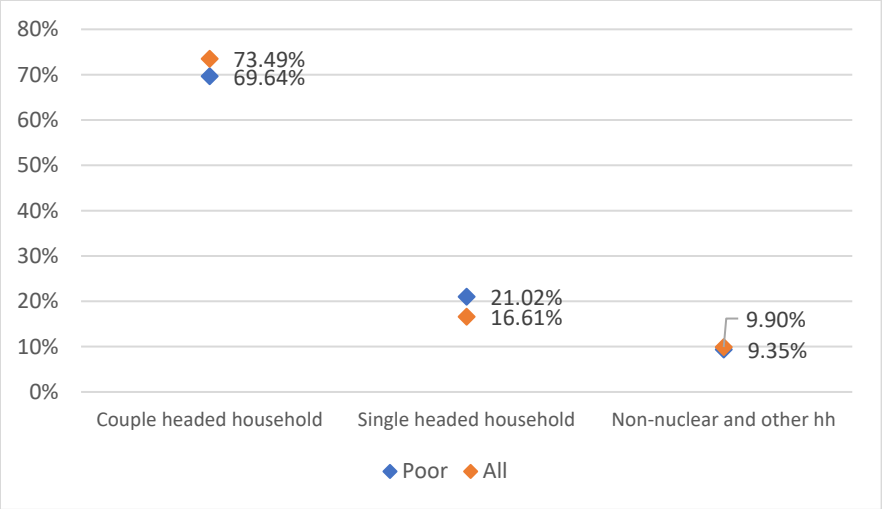

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP. For Brazil, ever partnered includes household heads and their partners, only.

**Figure A4. Distribution of poor households across demographic household typology, Circa 2021.**



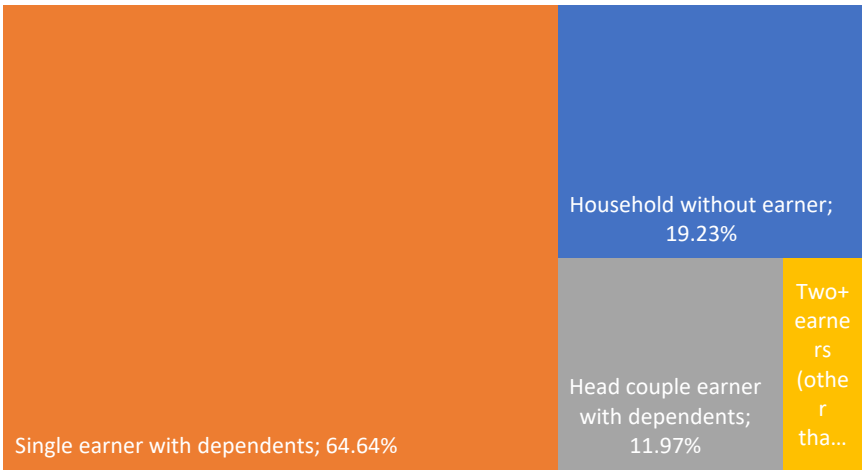

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A5. Share of household type among poor and total households according to the demographic composition, Circa 2021.**



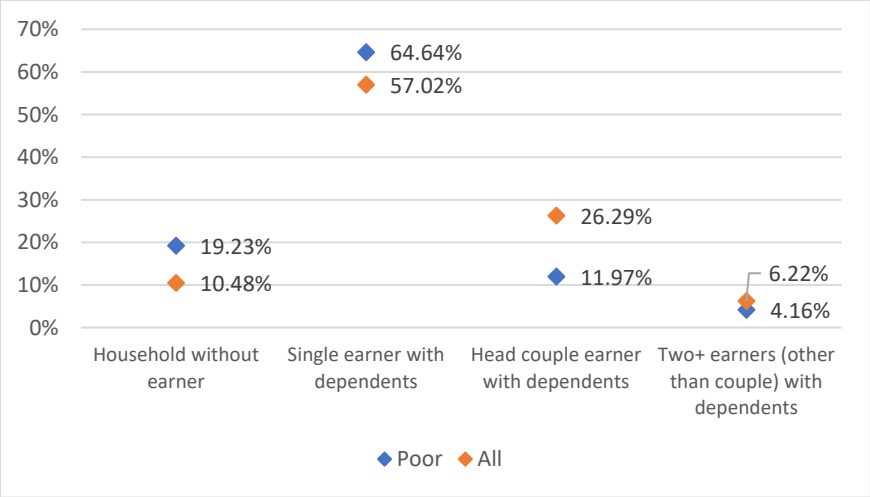

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A6. Distribution of poor households across economic household typology, Circa 2021**




Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A7. Share of household type among poor and total households according to the economic composition, Circa 2021.**

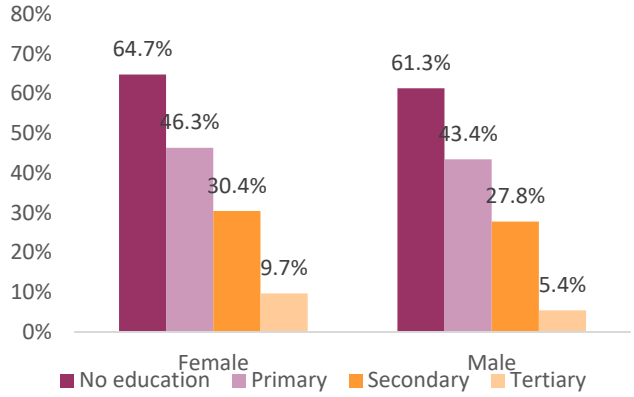



Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

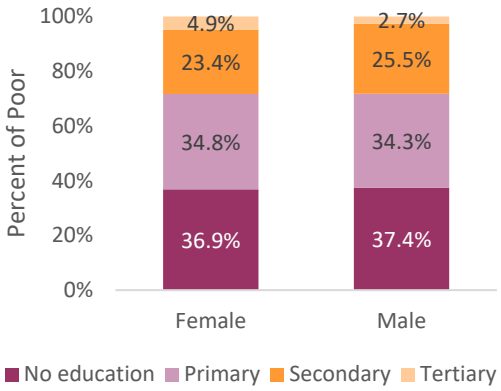
## Group 2 - Households with minors 0-5: Adults aged between 41 and 45

**Figure A8. Education and poverty, Circa 2021**

***Poverty rates by sex and educational level***



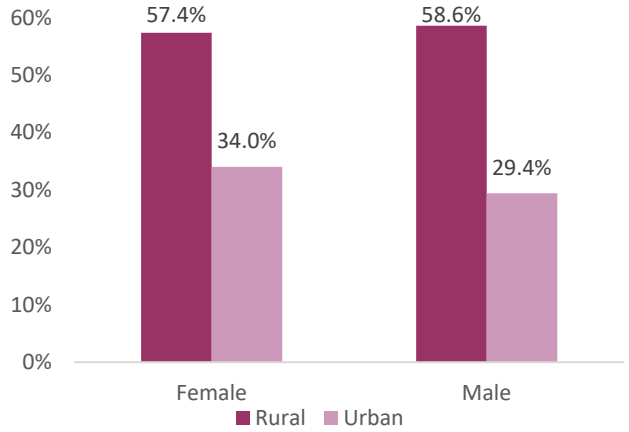

***Distribution of the poor by sex and educational level***



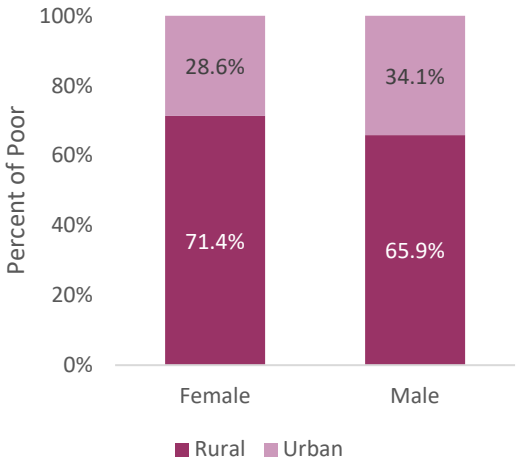

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A9. Location and poverty**

***Poverty rates by sex and location***



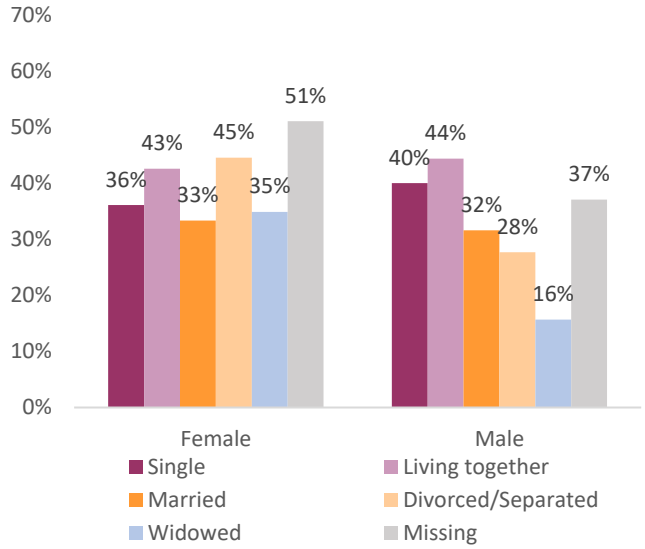

***Distribution of the poor by sex and location***



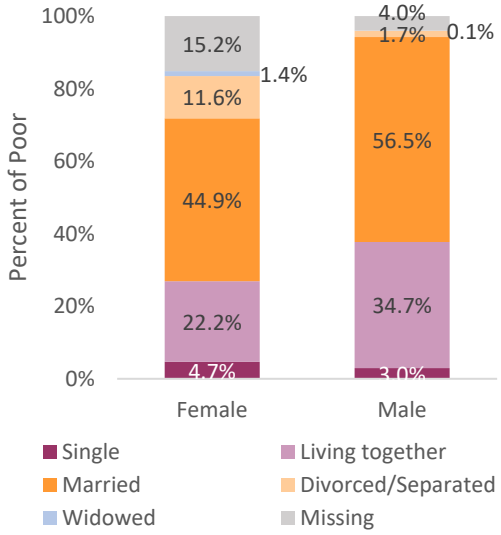

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A10. Marital Status and poverty, Circa 2021**

***Poverty rates by sex and marital status***

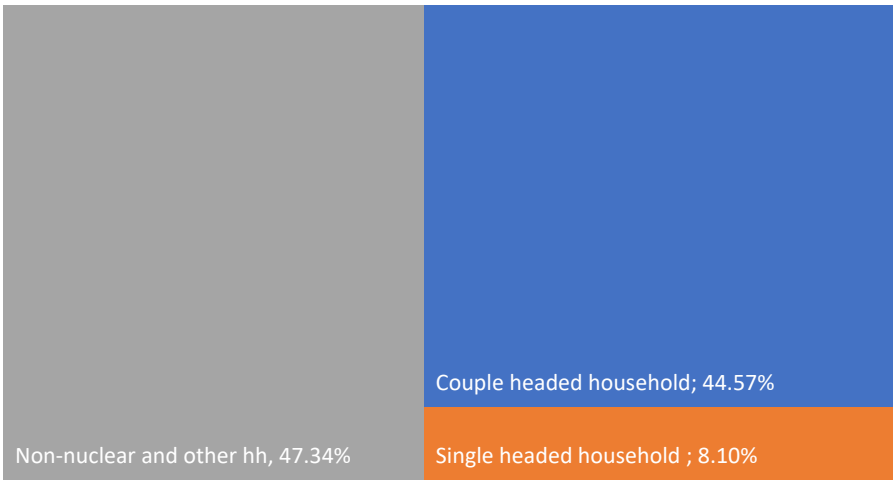



***Distribution of the poor by sex and marital status***



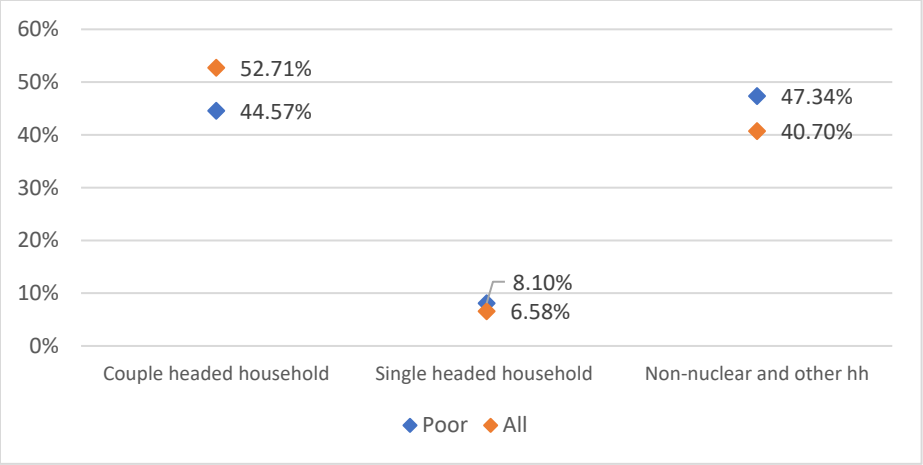

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP. For Brazil, ever partnered includes household heads and their partners, only.

**Figure A11. Distribution of poor households across demographic household typology, Circa 2021.**



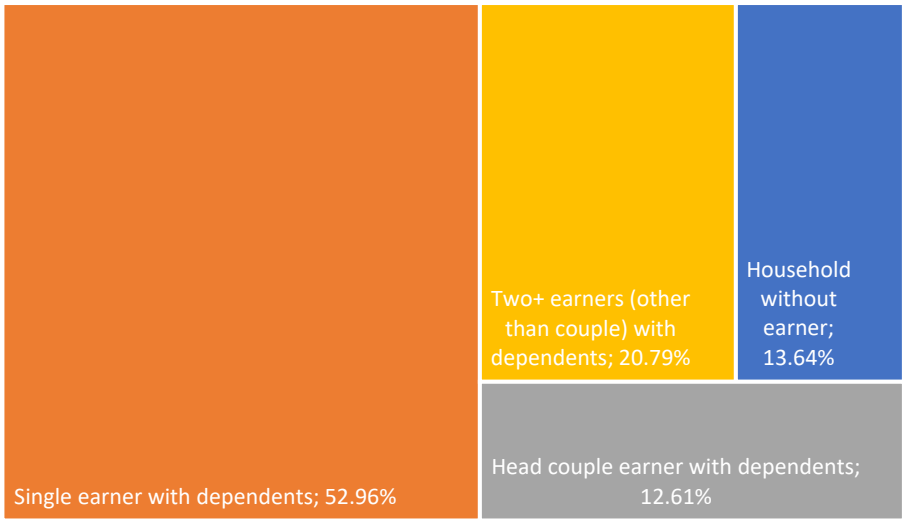

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A12. Share of household type among poor and total households according to the demographic composition. Circa 2021.**



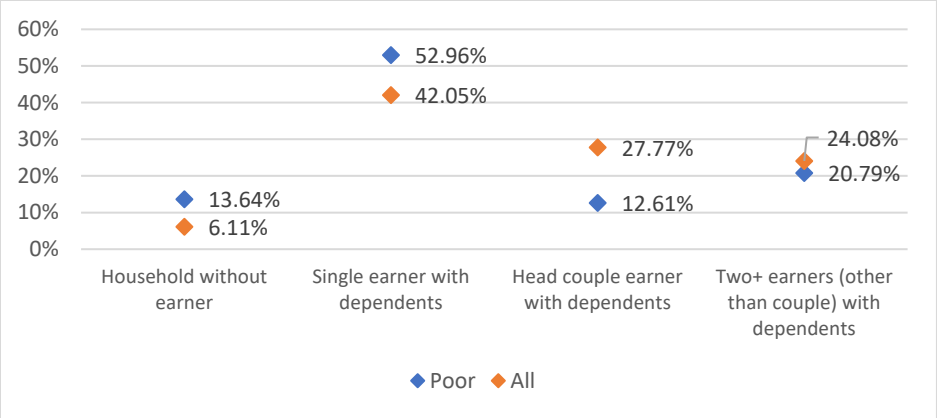

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A13. Distribution of poor households across economic household typology. Circa 2021.**




Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A14. Share of household type among poor and total households according to the economic composition. Circa 2021**



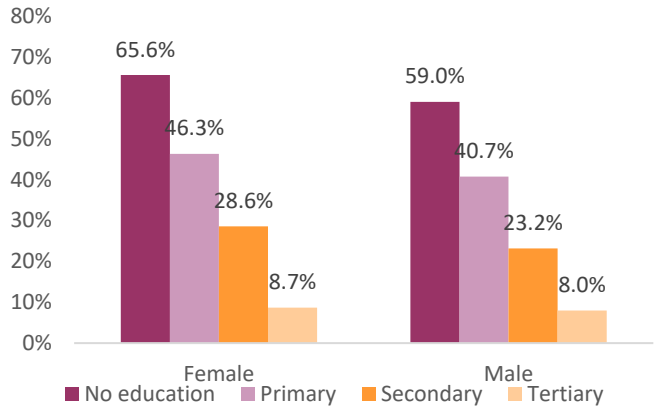

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).

Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

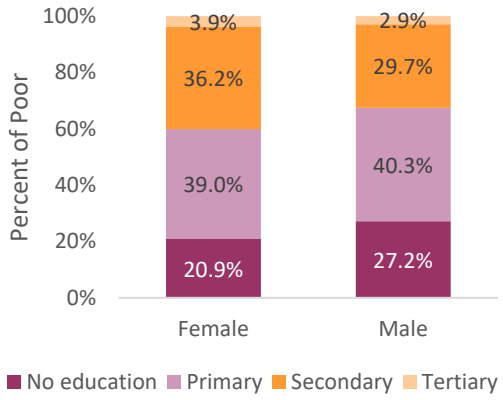
## Group 3 - Households with minors 6-12 (and no minors 0-5): Adults aged between 29 and 39

**Figure A15. Education and poverty, Circa 2021.**

***Poverty rates by sex and educational level***



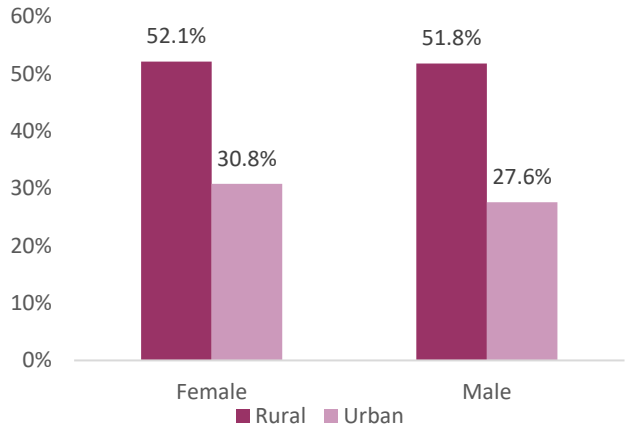

***Distribution of the poor by sex and educational level***



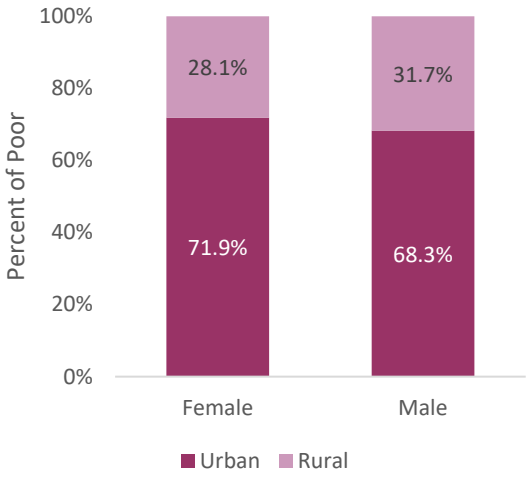

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A16. Location and poverty, Circa 2021.**

***Poverty rates by sex and location***

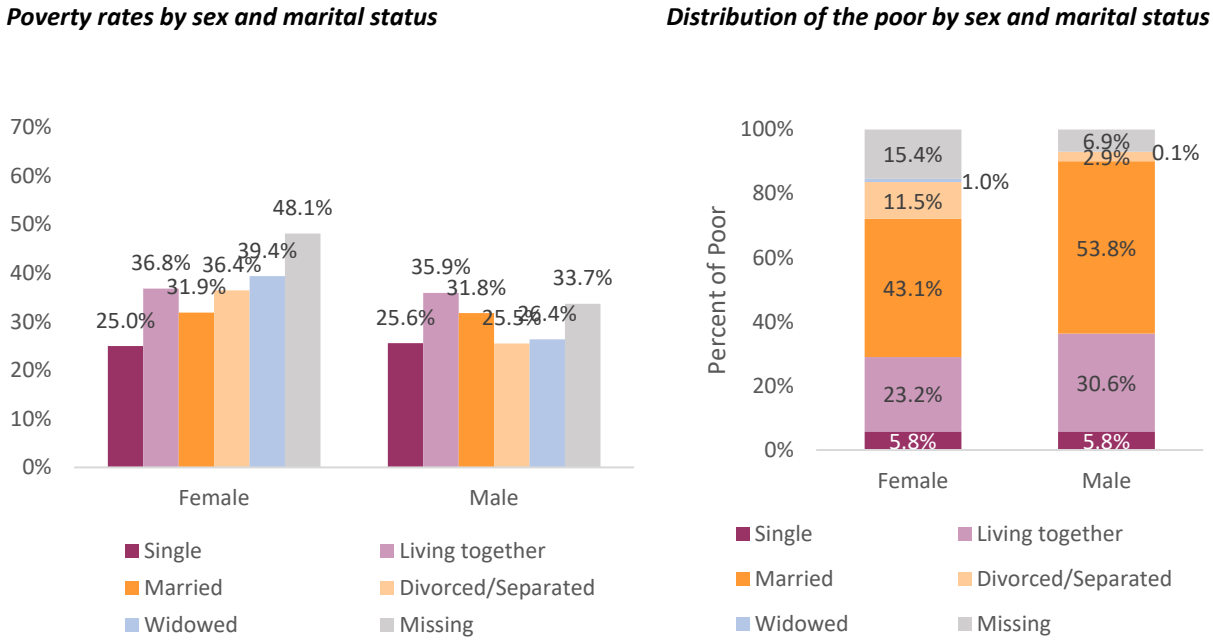



***Distribution of the poor by sex and location***



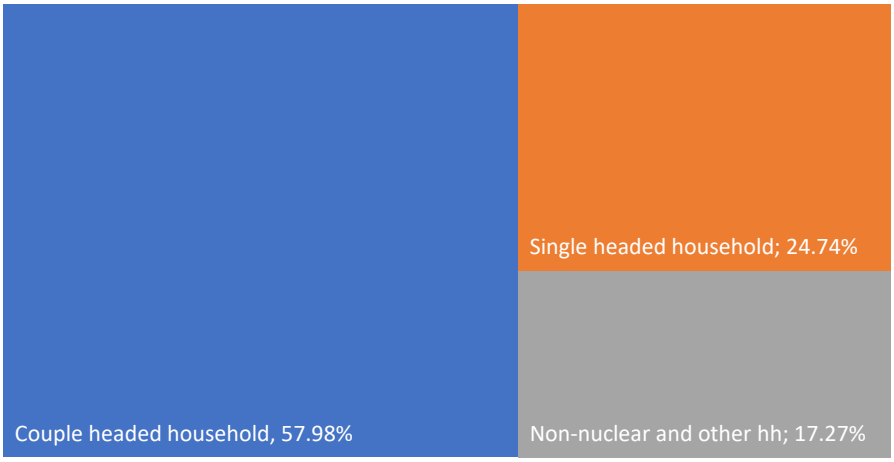

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A17. Marital Status and poverty, Circa 2021.**



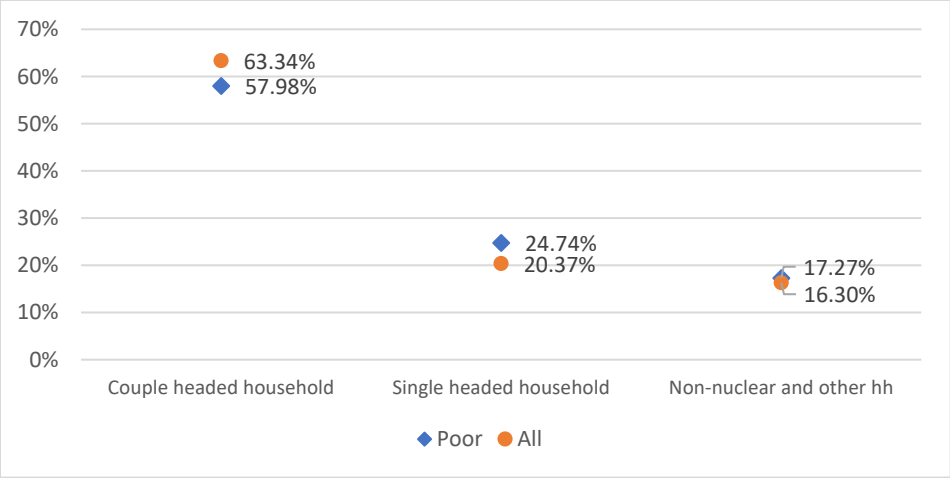

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP. For Brazil, ever partnered includes household heads and their partners, only.

**Figure A18. Distribution of poor households across demographic household typology, Circa 2021.**



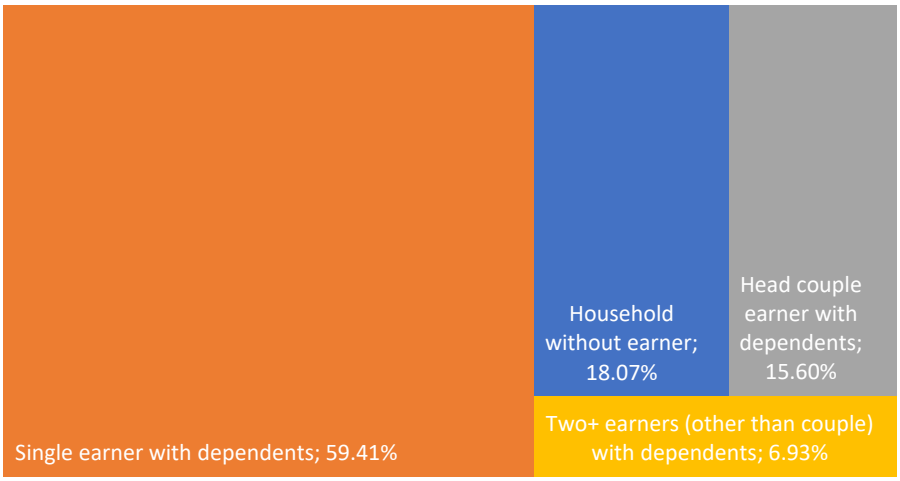

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A19. Share of household type among poor and total households according to the demographic composition, Circa 2021.**



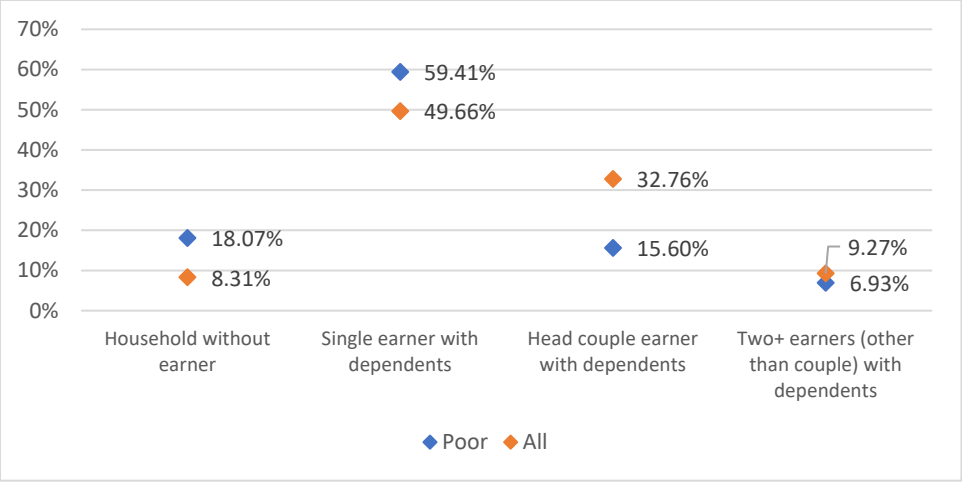

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A20. Distribution of poor households across economic household typology, Circa 2021.**




Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A21. Share of household type among poor and total households according to the economic composition, Circa 2021.**



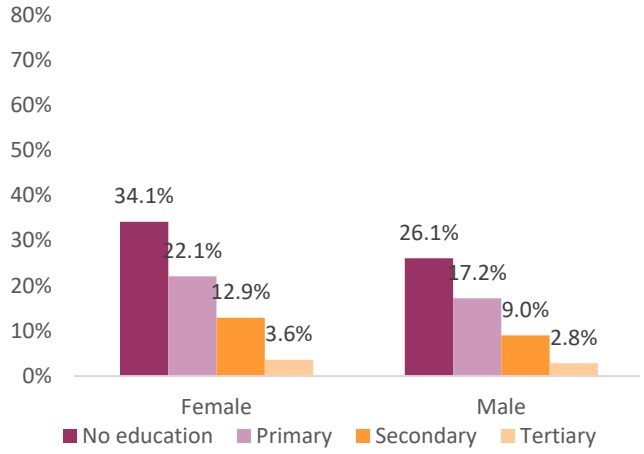

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).

Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

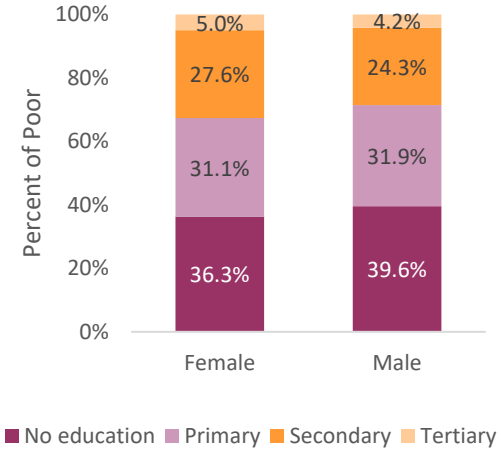
## Group 4 - Households with no minors: Adults aged between 31 and 50

**Figure A22. Education and poverty, Circa 2021.**

***Poverty rates by sex and educational level***



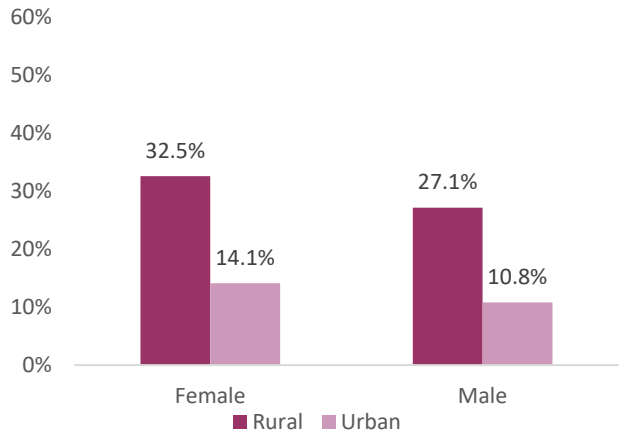

***Distribution of the poor by sex and educational level***



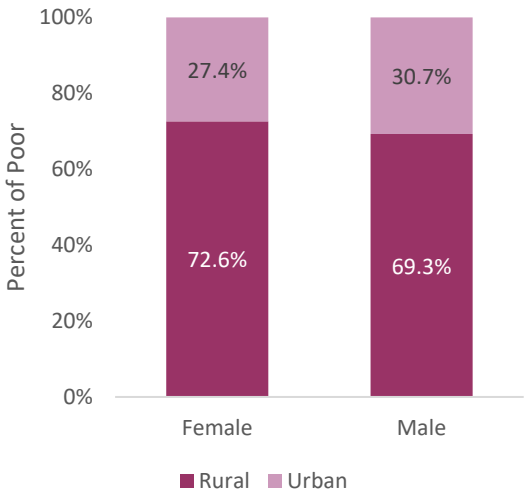

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A23. Location and poverty, Circa 2021.**

***Poverty rates by sex and location***

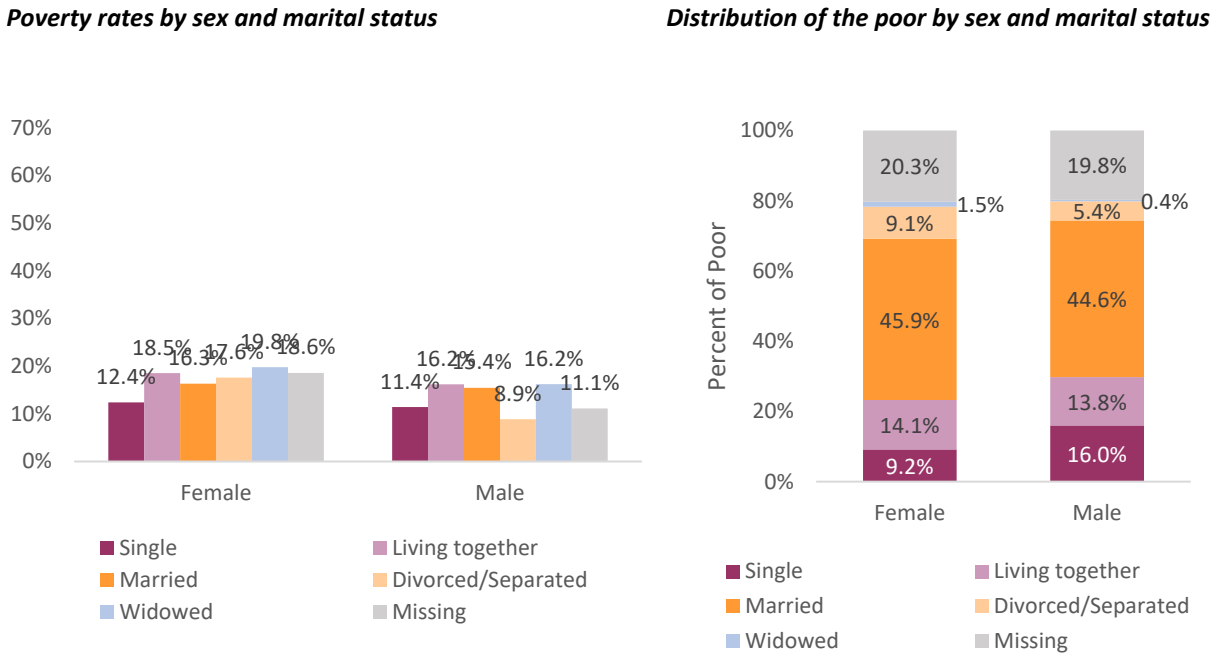



***Distribution of the poor by sex and location***



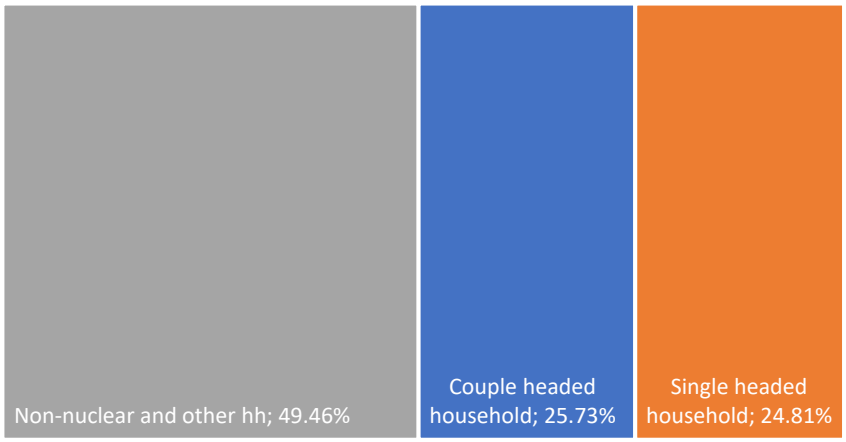

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A24. Marital Status and poverty, Circa 2021.**



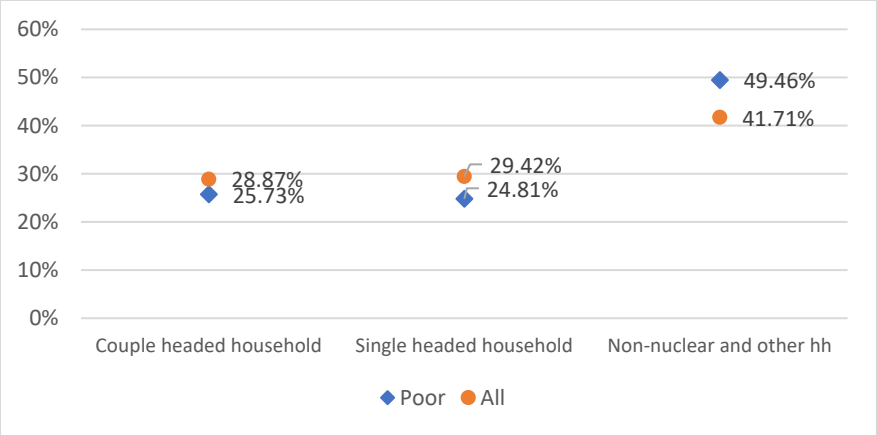

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP. For Brazil, ever partnered includes household heads and their partners, only.

**Figure A25. Distribution of poor households across demographic household typology, Circa 2021.**



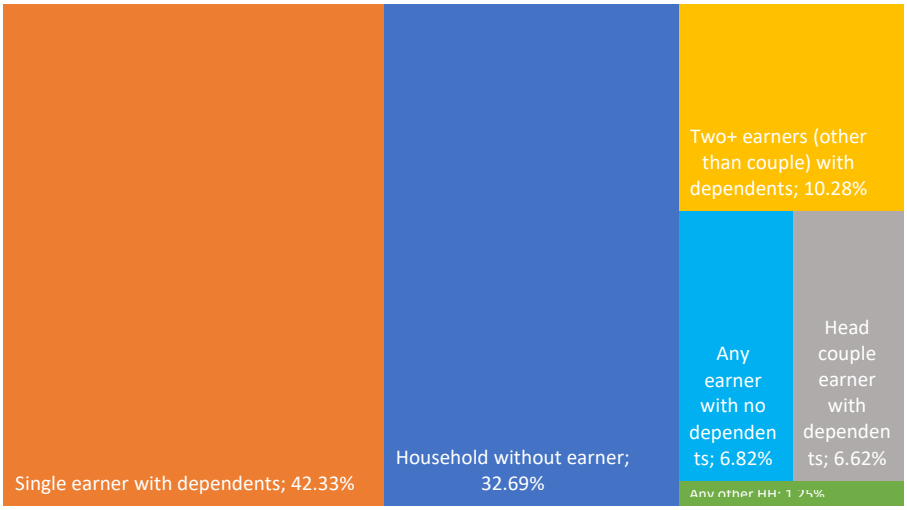

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A26. Share of household type among poor and total households according to the demographic composition, Circa 2021.**



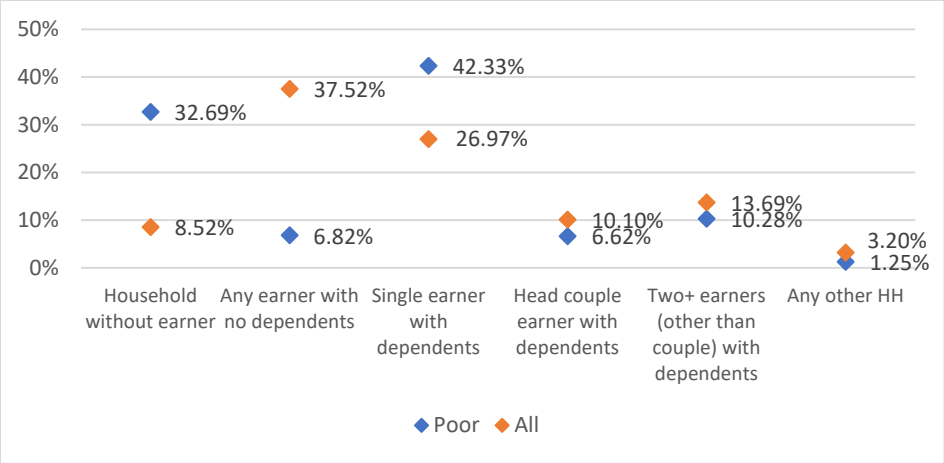

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A27. Distribution of poor households across economic household typology, Circa 2021.**




Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).
Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Figure A28. Share of household type among poor and total households according to the economic composition, Circa 2021.**




Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).

Note: The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

**Table A1. Descriptive statistics of women and men in the 23-28 age group, with minors aged 0-5, Circa 2021.**

| | Non-poor | | | Poor | | | Total | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Variable | Women | Men | Total | Women | Men | Total | Women | Men | Total |
| Age (years) | 25.6 | 25.73 | 25.65 | 25.52 | 25.63 | 25.56 | 25.56 | 25.69 | 25.61 |
| Lives in urban area | 83.3% | 81.4% | 82.5% | 71.8% | 70.7% | 71.4% | 78.2% | 76.9% | 77.7% |
| Education | | | | | | | | | |
| Less than primary | 3.8% | 6.5% | 4.9% | 13.7% | 18.5% | 15.5% | 8.1% | 11.5% | 9.5% |
| Primary (inc sec) | 24.3% | 31.5% | 27.2% | 39.6% | 43.8% | 41.2% | 31.1% | 36.6% | 33.2% |
| Secondary (inc tert) | 56.5% | 51.4% | 54.5% | 43.2% | 34.9% | 40.0% | 50.6% | 44.5% | 48.2% |
| Tertiary | 15.4% | 10.6% | 13.4% | 3.5% | 2.7% | 3.2% | 10.2% | 7.3% | 9.0% |
| Marital Status | | | | | | | | | |
| Single | 14.8% | 16.7% | 15.6% | 10.0% | 10.5% | 10.1% | 12.7% | 14.1% | 13.2% |
| Living together | 31.8% | 38.8% | 34.6% | 30.8% | 40.2% | 34.3% | 31.4% | 39.4% | 34.5% |
| Married | 33.9% | 33.0% | 33.6% | 34.3% | 36.4% | 35.1% | 34.1% | 34.4% | 34.2% |
| Divorced/separated | 7.8% | 1.9% | 5.4% | 8.3% | 1.7% | 5.8% | 8.0% | 1.8% | 5.6% |
| Widowed | 0.3% | 0.0% | 0.2% | 0.5% | 0.0% | 0.3% | 0.4% | 0.0% | 0.3% |
| Missing or unknown | 11.3% | 9.6% | 10.6% | 16.2% | 11.3% | 14.3% | 13.4% | 10.3% | 12.2% |
| HH type - according to demographic composition | | | | | | | | | |
| Couple | 48.3% | 49.3% | 48.7% | 50.4% | 54.2% | 51.9% | 49.2% | 51.3% | 50.1% |
| Single person hh | 6.0% | 1.0% | 4.0% | 11.1% | 1.7% | 7.5% | 8.2% | 1.3% | 5.5% |
| Non-nuclear and other hh | 45.7% | 49.7% | 47.3% | 38.5% | 44.1% | 40.6% | 42.5% | 47.4% | 44.4% |
| HH type - according to economic composition | | | | | | | | | |
| HH with no earner | 2.3% | 0.7% | 1.7% | 15.6% | 8.0% | 12.7% | 8.1% | 3.8% | 6.4% |
| Any earner w/o dependent | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% |
| Single earner w/ dependent | 36.1% | 28.8% | 33.2% | 54.4% | 53.7% | 54.1% | 44.2% | 39.2% | 42.2% |
| Head couple earner w/ dependent | 25.7% | 26.9% | 26.2% | 9.8% | 10.2% | 9.9% | 18.7% | 19.9% | 19.2% |
| Two+ earners (other than couple) w/ dependent | 35.9% | 43.5% | 39.0% | 20.2% | 28.2% | 23.2% | 29.0% | 37.1% | 32.2% |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Any other HH | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% |

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).

Notes: For Brazil, ever partnered includes household heads and their partners, only. The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

In the aggregated economic typology, 'Any other HH' refers to households with 'any earner type with senior(s) dependent' and the residual.

**Table A2. Descriptive statistics of women and men in the 41-45 age group, with minors aged 0-5, Circa 2021.**

| | Non-poor | | | Poor | | | Total | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Variable | Women | Men | Total | Women | Men | Total | Women | Men | Total |
| Age (years) | 42.7 | 42.8 | 42.8 | 42.8 | 42.8 | 42.8 | 42.8 | 42.8 | 42.8 |
| Lives in urban area | 86.7% | 86.7% | 86.7% | 71.4% | 65.9% | 68.6% | 80.8% | 79.3% | 80.0% |
| Education | | | | | | | | | |
| Less than primary | 12.6% | 13.0% | 12.8% | 36.9% | 37.4% | 37.1% | 21.9% | 21.6% | 21.8% |
| Primary (inc sec) | 25.3% | 24.6% | 24.9% | 34.8% | 34.4% | 34.6% | 29.0% | 28.1% | 28.5% |
| Secondary (inc tert) | 33.5% | 36.5% | 35.1% | 23.4% | 25.5% | 24.5% | 29.6% | 32.6% | 31.2% |
| Tertiary | 28.7% | 25.9% | 27.2% | 4.9% | 2.7% | 3.8% | 19.5% | 17.7% | 18.6% |
| Marital Status | | | | | | | | | |
| Single | 5.2% | 2.4% | 3.7% | 4.7% | 3.0% | 3.8% | 5.0% | 2.6% | 3.8% |
| Living together | 18.8% | 23.9% | 21.5% | 22.2% | 34.7% | 28.5% | 20.1% | 27.8% | 24.1% |
| Married | 56.2% | 67.3% | 62.1% | 44.9% | 56.5% | 50.7% | 51.9% | 63.4% | 57.9% |
| Divorced/separated | 9.1% | 2.5% | 5.6% | 11.6% | 1.7% | 6.7% | 10.1% | 2.2% | 6.0% |
| Widowed | 1.6% | 0.2% | 0.8% | 1.4% | 0.1% | 0.7% | 1.5% | 0.1% | 0.8% |
| Missing or unknown | 9.1% | 3.7% | 6.3% | 15.2% | 4.0% | 9.6% | 11.4% | 3.8% | 7.5% |
| HH type - according to demographic composition | | | | | | | | | |
| Couple | 38.8% | 63.9% | 52.1% | 23.9% | 57.7% | 40.7% | 33.1% | 61.7% | 47.9% |
| Single person hh | 6.7% | 1.5% | 3.9% | 9.3% | 0.7% | 5.0% | 7.7% | 1.2% | 4.3% |
| Non-nuclear and other hh | 54.5% | 34.6% | 44.0% | 66.9% | 41.5% | 54.2% | 59.3% | 37.1% | 47.8% |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| HH type - according to economic composition | | | | | | | | | |
| HH with no earner | 2.1% | 0.6% | 1.3% | 13.9% | 10.3% | 12.1% | 6.7% | 4.0% | 5.3% |
| Any earner w/o dependent | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% |
| Single earner w/ dependent | 30.0% | 32.7% | 31.5% | 44.8% | 52.9% | 48.8% | 35.7% | 39.9% | 37.9% |
| Head couple earner w/ dependent | 28.0% | 40.8% | 34.8% | 10.2% | 14.1% | 12.1% | 21.1% | 31.3% | 26.4% |
| Two+ earners (other than couple) w/ dependent | 39.8% | 25.8% | 32.4% | 31.1% | 22.8% | 26.9% | 36.5% | 24.8% | 30.4% |
| Any other HH | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% |

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).

Notes: For Brazil, ever partnered includes household heads and their partners, only. The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

In the aggregated economic typology, 'Any other HH' refers to households with 'any earner type with senior(s) dependent' and the residual.

**Table A3. Descriptive statistics of women and men in the 29-39 age group, with minors 6-12 (and no minors 0-5), Circa 2021.**

| | Non-poor | | | Poor | | | Total | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Variable | Women | Men | Total | Women | Men | Total | Women | Men | Total |
| Age (years) | 34.49 | 34.81 | 34.62 | 34.3 | 34.62 | 34.42 | 34.42 | 34.75 | 34.55 |
| Lives in urban area | 86.2% | 85.8% | 86.1% | 71.9% | 68.3% | 70.5% | 81.2% | 80.2% | 80.8% |
| Education | | | | | | | | | |
| Less than primary | 5.8% | 9.0% | 7.1% | 20.9% | 27.2% | 23.2% | 11.1% | 14.9% | 12.6% |
| Primary (inc sec) | 24.1% | 28.1% | 25.7% | 39.0% | 40.3% | 39.5% | 29.3% | 32.0% | 30.4% |
| Secondary (inc tert) | 48.3% | 47.1% | 47.8% | 36.2% | 29.7% | 33.8% | 44.1% | 41.5% | 43.1% |
| Tertiary | 21.7% | 15.8% | 19.4% | 3.9% | 2.9% | 3.5% | 15.5% | 11.6% | 14.0% |
| Marital Status | | | | | | | | | |
| Single | 9.3% | 8.0% | 8.8% | 5.8% | 5.8% | 5.8% | 8.1% | 7.3% | 7.8% |
| Living together | 21.2% | 26.1% | 23.2% | 23.2% | 30.6% | 26.0% | 21.9% | 27.5% | 24.1% |
| Married | 49.1% | 55.2% | 51.6% | 43.1% | 53.8% | 47.1% | 47.0% | 54.7% | 50.1% |
| Divorced/separated | 10.7% | 4.0% | 8.0% | 11.5% | 2.9% | 8.3% | 11.0% | 3.6% | 8.1% |
| Widowed | 0.8% | 0.2% | 0.5% | 1.0% | 0.1% | 0.7% | 0.9% | 0.2% | 0.6% |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Missing or unknown | 8.8% | 6.5% | 7.9% | 15.4% | 6.9% | 12.2% | 11.1% | 6.6% | 9.4% |
| HH type - according to demographic composition | | | | | | | | | |
| Couple | 55.5% | 66.3% | 59.8% | 51.0% | 68.6% | 57.6% | 53.9% | 67.0% | 59.1% |
| Single person hh | 12.8% | 2.7% | 8.8% | 19.3% | 2.4% | 13.0% | 15.0% | 2.6% | 10.2% |
| Non-nuclear and other hh | 31.7% | 30.9% | 31.4% | 29.7% | 29.0% | 29.4% | 31.0% | 30.3% | 30.7% |
| HH type - according to economic composition | | | | | | | | | |
| HH with no earner | 2.6% | 1.0% | 1.9% | 16.9% | 11.2% | 14.8% | 7.6% | 4.3% | 6.3% |
| Any earner w/o dependent | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% |
| Single earner w/ dependent | 38.1% | 32.3% | 35.8% | 55.0% | 55.2% | 55.1% | 44.0% | 39.7% | 42.3% |
| Head couple earner w/ dependent | 36.1% | 42.6% | 38.7% | 14.3% | 18.6% | 15.9% | 28.5% | 34.8% | 31.0% |
| Two+ earners (other than couple) w/ dependent | 23.2% | 24.1% | 23.6% | 13.7% | 15.0% | 14.2% | 19.9% | 21.2% | 20.4% |
| Any other HH | 0% | 0% | 0% | 0% | 0% | 0% | 0% | 0% | 0% |

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).

Notes: For Brazil, ever partnered includes household heads and their partners, only. The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

In the aggregated economic typology, 'Any other HH' refers to households with 'any earner type with senior(s) dependent' and the residual.

**Table A4. Descriptive statistics of women and men in the 31-50 age group, with no minors, Circa 2021.**

| | Non-poor | | | Poor | | | Total | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Variable | **Women** | **Men** | **Total** | **Women** | **Men** | **Total** | **Women** | **Men** | **Total** |
| Age (years) | 42.2 | 40.9 | 41.5 | 42.4 | 41.7 | 42.1 | 42.2 | 41. | 41.6 |
| Lives in urban area | 88.6% | 87.4% | 88.0% | 72.6% | 69.3% | 71.1% | 86.0% | 85.0% | 85.5% |
| Education | | | | | | | | | |
| Less than primary | 14.0% | 17.1% | 15.6% | 36.3% | 39.6% | 37.8% | 17.7% | 20.1% | 18.9% |
| Primary (inc sec) | 21.9% | 23.4% | 22.7% | 31.1% | 31.9% | 31.4% | 23.5% | 24.5% | 24.0% |
| Secondary (inc tert) | 37.3% | 37.5% | 37.5% | 27.7% | 24.4% | 26.2% | 35.7% | 35.8% | 35.8% |
| Tertiary | 26.7% | 22.0% | 24.3% | 5.0% | 4.2% | 4.6% | 23.1% | 19.6% | 21.3% |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Marital Status | | | | | | | | | |
| Single | 13.0% | 18.9% | 16.0% | 9.2% | 16.0% | 12.2% | 12.4% | 18.5% | 15.5% |
| Living together | 12.4% | 10.9% | 11.6% | 14.1% | 13.8% | 14.0% | 12.7% | 11.3% | 12.0% |
| Married | 47.1% | 37.3% | 42.0% | 45.9% | 44.6% | 45.3% | 46.9% | 38.2% | 42.5% |
| Divorced/separated | 8.5% | 8.5% | 8.5% | 9.1% | 5.4% | 7.5% | 8.6% | 8.1% | 8.4% |
| Widowed | 1.2% | 0.3% | 0.7% | 1.5% | 0.4% | 1.0% | 1.2% | 0.3% | 0.8% |
| Missing or unknown | 17.8% | 24.1% | 21.0% | 20.3% | 19.8% | 20.0% | 18.2% | 23.5% | 20.9% |
| HH type - according to demographic composition | | | | | | | | | |
| Couple | 28.7% | 26.7% | 27.7% | 25.1% | 27.1% | 26.0% | 28.1% | 26.7% | 27.4% |
| Single person hh | 14.4% | 25.4% | 20.1% | 14.2% | 16.9% | 15.4% | 14.4% | 24.3% | 19.4% |
| Non-nuclear and other hh | 56.9% | 47.9% | 52.2% | 60.6% | 56.0% | 58.5% | 57.5% | 48.9% | 53.2% |
| HH type - according to economic composition | | | | | | | | | |
| HH with no earner | 5.1% | 5.4% | 5.2% | 27.6% | 27.4% | 27.5% | 8.8% | 8.3% | 8.6% |
| Any earner w/o dependent | 26.1% | 35.6% | 31.0% | 4.1% | 6.1% | 5.0% | 22.4% | 31.7% | 27.1% |
| Single earner w/ dependent | 25.9% | 18.6% | 22.1% | 42.9% | 38.4% | 40.9% | 28.7% | 21.2% | 24.9% |
| Head couple earner w/ dependent | 12.3% | 9.5% | 10.8% | 7.4% | 7.3% | 7.3% | 11.5% | 9.2% | 10.3% |
| Two+ earners (other than couple) w/ dependent | 22.6% | 17.8% | 20.1% | 14.1% | 13.6% | 13.9% | 21.2% | 17.2% | 19.2% |
| Any other HH | 8.0% | 13.2% | 10.7% | 3.9% | 7.2% | 5.4% | 7.3% | 12.4% | 9.9% |

Source: SEDLAC (CEDLAS and the World Bank).

Notes: For Brazil, ever partnered includes household heads and their partners, only. The LAC aggregate pools data from 15 countries (see Table 1 for specific country-years). The poverty rate corresponds to the $6.85 USD international poverty line, measured in 2017 PPP.

In the aggregated economic typology, 'Any other HH' refers to households with 'any earner type with senior(s) dependent' and the residual.