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Honorata Bogusz

University of Warsaw

Jan Gromadzki

Vienna University of Economics and Business and IZA

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IZA – Institute of Labor Economics

Schaumburg-Lippe-Straße 5–9
53113 Bonn, Germany

Phone: +49-228-3894-0
Email: publications@iza.org

www.iza.org

ABSTRACT

Labor Market Outcomes of Same-Sex Couples in Countries with Legalized Same-Sex Marriage*

We study the labor market outcomes of same-sex couples using data from large household surveys that represent more than two-thirds of the world's population with access to same-sex marriage on three continents. Same-sex couples are less likely to be inactive and work more hours than different-sex couples, largely due to the differences in the probability of having a child. Men in same-sex couples are up to 60 percent more likely to be unemployed than men in different-sex couples. These unemployment gaps cannot be explained by occupational sorting or other observable characteristics.

JEL Classification: J15, J16, J22, J23

Keywords: labor supply, unemployment, same-sex couples, discrimination, LGBTQ, parenthood

Corresponding author:

Honorata Bogusz
University of Warsaw
Krakowskie Przedmieście 26/28
00-927 Warsaw
Poland
E-mail: h.bogusz@uw.edu.pl

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1 Introduction

In 2001, the Netherlands became the first country to legalize same-sex marriage, setting a landmark precedent for equality and recognition of the rights of same-sex couples. Since then, the movement toward legalizing same-sex marriage has gained significant traction worldwide. By 2017, 15 percent of the world’s population lived in countries that had introduced same-sex marriage legislation. These countries included not only some of the wealthiest nations, but also several middle-income countries (South Africa and the majority of Latin America’s population). Although people in same-sex couples remain a small minority group, the number of observations of same-sex couples in large representative household surveys has been increasing steadily, facilitating comprehensive analysis of their labor market experiences.

How do the labor market outcomes of same-sex couples differ from those of different-sex couples? How do these gaps vary across continents? This paper compares the labor market outcomes of same-sex couples and different-sex couples in countries that have introduced same-sex marriage legislation. Unlike previous studies, we do not focus on one country only, but instead we present a cross-country analysis in which we harmonize data from countries covering nearly 70 percent of the global population with access to same-sex marriage (see Figure 1).

We focus on countries that have legalized same-sex marriage. The main reason for this choice is that the incidence of same-sex couples (both formal and informal relationships) in surveys from countries without legal recognition of same-sex couples is equal or close to zero, which indicates either underreporting of the relationship status by individuals in same-sex couples or recoding of the relationship status by statistical offices in these countries. We pool the data from the 2015-2019 period in order to obtain a sufficient number of observations and outcomes that are not affected by the Covid-19 pandemic. We assess the quality of the data on same-sex couples in each country, and our final sample includes two Latin American countries (Brazil and Uruguay), five European countries (Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom), and the United States. We analyze three main labor market outcomes that are available in all surveys: labor force participation, hours worked, and unemployment.

We find that same-sex couples have a higher joint labor supply than different-sex couples in all three world regions. These differences largely disappear when we control for the presence

of children in the household. Hence, this overall labor supply advantage of same-sex couples is almost entirely driven by large differences in the probability of having children. Consequently, we find that the within-household inequality in hours worked is only slightly smaller among same-sex couples than among different-sex couples once we account for having children.

In Latin America and the U.S., men in same-sex couples have a substantially higher risk of unemployment than men in different-sex couples: the risk of unemployment for men in same-sex couples is over 60 percent higher in Latin America and is almost 40 percent higher in the U.S. than it is for men in different-sex couples. Unlike labor supply differences, gaps in unemployment rates are not driven by the differences in the presence of children. Moreover, these gaps cannot be explained by occupational sorting or employment type. We find no sizable unemployment gaps for women.

This paper makes three contributions. First, it contributes to the literature on the role of partners' gender pairings in labor supply decisions. A few country-specific studies have found significant labor supply gaps between same-sex couples and different-sex couples prior to the legalization of same-sex marriage (Brown et al., 2019; Schneebaum & Badgett, 2019): the labor supply of women in same-sex couples tends to be higher than that of women in different-sex couples, whereas the labor supply of men in same-sex couples tends to be lower than that of men in different-sex couples.¹ Since the labor supply decisions in couples are made jointly by the partners, we focus on the joint labor supply, and find that the joint couple labor supply of same-sex couples is higher than that of different-sex couples. However, these gaps largely disappear once we control for having children. Even when both partners are of the same gender, parenthood is associated with a reduction in couple's labor supply and more unequal division of work. This result is consistent with recent findings showing that in high-income countries, the remaining gender gaps in the labor supply are driven by child penalties (Kleven et al., 2023). These penalties, although smaller, can also be found among same-sex couples (Andresen & Nix, 2022; Downs et al., 2023; van der Vleuten et al., 2023).

This paper is also closely related to the literature on labor market discrimination against same-sex couples. Correspondence studies on discrimination against gay men in hiring have yielded mixed results (Lippens et al., 2023). By contrast, observational data studies have consistently

¹See Table A.1 for the list of all EconLit articles investigating gaps in labor supply between same-sex couples and different-sex couples.

found that men in same-sex couples earn lower wages than men in different-sex couples with similar demographic characteristics (Aksoy et al., 2018; Aksoy et al., 2019; Carpenter, 2005). Despite improvements in the legal situations of same-sex couples, these wage gaps between men in same-sex couples and men in different-sex couples seem to persist (Badgett et al., 2021). The existing observational studies on such gaps have been largely limited to a few high-income countries (Badgett et al., forthcoming; Drydakis, 2022). Moreover, unemployment is a largely overlooked dimension of discrimination, with two studies showing significant unemployment gaps before the legalization of same-sex marriage in France and the U.S. (Laurent & Mihoubi, 2017; Leppel, 2009). We show that men in same-sex couples face a substantially higher risk of unemployment compared to men in different-sex couples. While we cannot explicitly attribute this finding to discrimination, we rule out some major alternative channels through which these gaps might have occurred, including differences in observable characteristics or occupational sorting.

Finally, since we find that the labor supply gaps between same-sex and different-sex couples are largely driven by differences in the probability of having children, we additionally seek to shed light on the selection into parenthood. Recently, parenthood has become more associated with higher socioeconomic status (Bratsberg et al., 2023; Nitsche et al., 2018). We present novel evidence on the selection into parenthood and the nature of parenthood among same-sex couples. In all countries, same-sex couples are much less likely to have children than different-sex couples, and women in same-sex couples are much more likely to have children than men in same-sex couples. The patterns of the selection into parenthood vary depending on the relationship type. In line with the existing literature, we find that different-sex parents are younger and better educated than childless different-sex couples. By contrast, we observe that same-sex parents are generally less educated and are only slightly younger than childless same-sex couples. This is partly due to the fact that a relatively large share of children raised by same-sex couples are the biological children of the couple's relatives.

2 Data

In our data collection process, we consider all countries that had introduced same-sex marriage legislation by the end 2017, the middle of our study period. We focus on countries with

legalized same-sex marriage, as the incidence of same-sex couples in surveys from countries without legal recognition of same-sex couples is equal or close to zero (see Figure D.2). This may indicate severe underreporting of the relationship status by individuals in same-sex couples, low response rates among individuals in same-sex couples, or recoding of the relationship status by statistical offices in these countries.

A total of 25 countries had legalized same-sex marriage by 2017 (see Figure D.4), and we have been able to collect household survey data from 22 of those countries. For each country, we have chosen the largest openly available household survey with data on the labor market situations of individuals that is conducted annually (see Table D.2 for the list of surveys). Data from Australia, Canada, and New Zealand are not available to us. In four countries (Denmark, Iceland, Finland, and Sweden), the household survey does not contain a household head partner identifier which makes it impossible to derive the relationship type.

Since our aim is to study labor market outcomes, we restrict our sample to couples in which both partners are aged 20-64.² In addition, we exclude couples residing in rural areas, as the measurement of labor supply in agriculture is challenging, and same-sex couples are more likely than different-sex couples to live in urban areas (see Figure A.1). We pool data spanning the years 2015-2019, and show all results separately for each of the three regions: Latin America, Europe, and the U.S.

We follow the standard approach and derive the relationship type from two variables: the type of relationship with the household head and the sex of an individual (Badgett et al., 2021). We define a different-sex couple as a couple in which the household head and the household head's partner are of a different sex. We define a same-sex couple as a couple in which the household head and the household head's partner are of the same sex. This approach is associated with several important limitations. First, we only capture couples in which at least one person is a household head. Additional checks show that such couples account for over 95 percent of partnered cohabiting individuals in all studied countries (Figure D.3).³ Second, in our data, we cannot identify couples who live in separate households. Third, we rely on a binary sex variable. While all of the studied surveys ask respondents to identify

²We exclude working-age individuals living with a partner who is 65 years or older because previous studies have shown significant differences in assortative mating on age between different-sex couples and same-sex couples (Ciscato et al., 2020; Muñoz & Sansone, 2024). Such differences could affect our labor supply analysis.

³The remaining ones live in households headed by other members, e.g., one of the partner's parent.

their sex as either male or female, it is not clear whether such a variable measures the sex or the gender identity of an individual. Moreover, the sex variable does not capture non-binary gender identities and fails to recognize intersex individuals. Finally, we only analyze relationships formed by two individuals, excluding a few observations of relationships that are formed by more than two people. However, in most studied countries, we find no multi-partner relationships. We acknowledge that the sex of the partners does not indicate the sexual orientation of individuals. Although the majority of individuals in same-sex couples identify as either homosexual or bisexual (Aksoy et al., 2018), we refrain from using the term "sexual orientation" in the paper.

As a prerequisite for conducting a reliable study, we assess the quality of the data on same-sex couples in 18 countries. We exclude countries with small samples of same-sex couples, large year-to-year volatility in demographic characteristics, and unrealistically high percentage of same-sex couples among old-age population indicating coding errors in the sex variable (see Appendix D for the detailed description of the quality checks). Our final sample includes two Latin American countries: Brazil and Uruguay; five European countries: Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom; and the United States.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for our sample. While same-sex couples are a small minority in all regions, the share of couples formed by individuals of the same sex varies substantially, from 0.5 percent in Latin America to 1.7 percent in the U.S. This variation may be caused by differences in the norms regarding couple formation, the probability of forming a couple without living together, and the incidence of concealing the same-sex relationship status in surveys. Interestingly, in Europe, men are more likely to live in a same-sex couple than women. By contrast, in Latin America, there are more women than men in same-sex couples. We observe no such gender differences in the U.S.

In all world regions, individuals in same-sex couples are younger and better educated than individuals in different-sex couples. These age and education differences are largest in Latin America and are smallest in the U.S. One of the clearest differences between couple types is the gap in the probability of having an underage member of the household. The parenthood

rates among different-sex couples are equal to approximately 50 percent in all world regions. By contrast, the parenthood rates for women in same-sex couples are equal to around 25 percent. Men in same-sex couples have by far the lowest parenthood rates, ranging from four percent in Europe to 10 percent in the U.S.

There are large gaps in labor market outcomes between different-sex and same-sex couples. To investigate these gaps, we use two labor supply measures. First, we analyze the probability of both partners being in the labor force (either working or actively looking for a job). Joint couple labor force participation rates are much higher for same-sex couples than for different-sex couples. These differences exceed 20 percentage points in Latin America, and are equal to around 10 percentage points in Europe and the U.S. Second, we analyze the sum of hours worked by both partners. Same-sex couples tend to work more hours than different-sex couples, but these gaps are much smaller than the gaps in the labor force participation rates. On the demand side, men in same-sex couples are at higher risk of unemployment than men in different-sex couples in Latin America and the U.S. We find no such differences for women.

3 Results

In our analysis, we study both household-level outcomes (the probability of both partners being in the labor force, total hours worked) and individual-level outcomes (the probability of unemployment). Unfortunately, data on labor income are not available for the European countries, so we decided not to include this outcome in our study.⁴ In the case of household-level outcomes, we estimate the following equation:

$$(1) \quad Y_i = \beta + \theta_1 SSH_i^W + \theta_2 SSH_i^M + \kappa X_i + \varepsilon_i$$

where Y_i is the outcome of interest, binary variables SSH_i^W and SSH_i^M denote the type of the couple, and X_i denotes a set of control variables. Depending on the specification, we control for individual characteristics (age and education), the presence of children in the household, as well as region- and year-fixed effects. In the case of age and education, we control for

⁴The EU-LFS only includes information about the decile of the individual labor income. While detailed representative data on household incomes for European countries are available in the EU Survey of Income and Living Conditions, the sample size of this survey is too small to allow for a meaningful analysis of same-sex couples.

the within-couple maximum and minimum values of these variables. The coefficient θ_1 measures the difference in average outcomes between the residual category (different-sex couples) and woman-woman couples conditional on control variables. The coefficient θ_2 measures the difference between different-sex couples and man-man couples.

At the individual level, we estimate the following equation:

$$(2) \quad Y_i = \beta + \theta SSH_i + \kappa X_i + \varepsilon_i$$

where Y_i is the outcome of interest, the binary variable SSH_i denotes the type of the couple (same-sex couple), and X_i denotes a set of control variables. We estimate this equation separately for women and men. Thus, we compare women in different-sex couples to women in same-sex couples, and men in different-sex couples to men in same-sex couples. We perform all regressions separately for each of the three world regions. In all household- and individual-level regressions, we use weights that account for both the survey weights and the country's population. In all regressions, we cluster standard errors at the level of the household.

Labor Supply

First, we investigate gaps in the labor supply on the extensive margin: i.e., the probability that both partners are in the labor force (either working or actively looking for a job). In all regions, same-sex couples are characterized by much higher labor force participation rates than different-sex couples (Table 2). Importantly, men and women in same-sex couples have virtually identical labor force participation rates. The unadjusted gaps in labor force participation are largest in Latin America, where they are equal to 20 percentage points. In Europe and the U.S., the unadjusted gaps are equal to around 10 percentage points.

The gaps in labor force participation drop significantly once we control for individual and household characteristics. In particular, it seems that the differences in the probability of having children drive a large portion of the gaps in labor force participation. In Europe, we find no gaps in the labor supply after controlling for individual and household characteristics. In the U.S., the adjusted gap is equal to around five percentage points. In Latin America, the labor force participation of same-sex couples is substantially higher than that of different-sex couples, even conditional on individual and household characteristics. Interestingly, once we

account for the differences in these characteristics, we find that women in same-sex couples have higher labor force participation rates than men in same-sex couples.

We also investigate the gaps in total hours worked: i.e., the sum of hours worked by the partners during a week (Table 3). These gaps largely mirror the gaps in the labor force participation rates. On average, same-sex couples work more hours than different-sex couples. Man-man couples work around eight hours per week more than different-sex couples (15 percent of average hours worked). The unadjusted gap in hours worked for woman-woman couples is equal to approximately four hours or 7.5 percent of average hours worked.

Once we control for the individual and household characteristics, we find zero gaps in hours worked between different-sex couples and woman-woman couples in all world regions. We also observe that men in same-sex couples work slightly more hours than different-sex couples in all world regions, with gaps ranging from two percent in Latin America to four percent in the United States.

We analyze the share of hours worked by the secondary worker (the person with fewer hours worked in a couple) to study how hours worked are divided between partners (Table 4). On average, secondary workers work from 25 to 30 percent of the total hours worked, or over 20 percentage points below the equal division of work. We consistently find lower levels of specialization among same-sex couples than among different-sex couples, and this gap is again driven to a large extent by differences in the probability of having a child. Once we account for the observable characteristics, the gap shrinks to around two percentage points. The only exception is in Latin America, where the share of hours worked by the secondary worker is around four percentage points higher among woman-woman couples than among different-sex couples (almost 20 percent of the mean).

Since women have much lower labor force participation rates than men among different-sex couples, small household-level gaps imply that men in same-sex couples are less active than men in different-sex couples, and that women in same-sex couples are more active than women in different-sex couples. In all world regions, these individual-level labor supply gaps are much larger for women than for men (Tables A.5-A.7). When we restrict our sample to individuals in same-sex couples, there are virtually no gender gaps in the labor supply (Table A.8).

We conduct a number of sensitivity tests (see Appendix B for results). First, same-sex couples are generally younger than different-sex couples. Hence, the results could be driven by the overrepresentation of different-sex couples of pre-retirement age. We restrict the sample to individuals aged 25-39 and find that the labor supply gaps do not change. Second, same-sex couples are better educated than different-sex couples. We estimate the results separately for couples in which at least one partner has tertiary education and for couples in which neither of the partners has tertiary education. Again, we find that the gaps are similar to those in the baseline. If anything, it seems that the labor supply gaps are slightly larger for lower educated couples. This may be related to the relatively conservative norms regarding gender roles among individuals without tertiary education (Du et al., 2021). Finally, we analyze the labor supply gaps for married couples only, and find that the gaps are very similar to those observed for the whole sample.

Unemployment

Next, we investigate the demand-side gaps. Unlike the labor supply, unemployment is to a large extent driven by employers' hiring and firing decisions and not by joint labor supply decisions. Hence, in the unemployment analysis, we analyze individual-level outcomes. We compare men in same-sex couples to men in different-sex couples and women in same-sex couples to women in different-sex couples. We restrict our sample to individuals in the labor force, and analyze gaps in the probability of being unemployed.

In all world regions, we find that men in same-sex couples are more likely to be unemployed than men in different-sex couples (Table 5). Importantly, in contrast to the labor supply gaps, the unemployment gaps do not change after controlling for individual and household characteristics, except in Europe. The adjusted gaps range from 0.7 percentage points in Europe (25 percent of the average probability) to three percentage points in Latin America (60 percent of the average probability). In the U.S., men in same-sex couples are nearly 40 percent more likely to be unemployed than men in different-sex couples. We find no sizable gaps in the risk of unemployment for women in same-sex couples (Table 6). In Europe, women in same-sex couples are slightly less likely to be unemployed than women in different-sex couples but this difference is equal to less than 20 percent of the average probability.

There are several potential explanations for these large unemployment gaps among men. First, they may be driven by labor supply factors. For example, men in same-sex couples may have higher reservation wages or lower job search costs than men in different-sex couples. However, the existing research suggests that men in same-sex couples have lower wages than men in different-sex couples, which is inconsistent with this channel (Badgett et al., 2021). Moreover, the observed labor supply gaps decrease after accounting for individual and household characteristics, but the unemployment gaps do not.

Second, the unemployment gaps may arise due to labor supply choices driven by anticipated discrimination. For example, men in same-sex couples may choose jobs in which they face lower levels of prejudice but have higher levels of job insecurity. Plug et al. (2014) found that homosexual workers tend to sort into occupations with low levels of prejudice. We investigate this channel by comparing the unemployment rates predicted by the occupation-related risk of unemployment and the actual unemployment rates. We obtain counterfactual unemployment rates in a scenario in which individuals in same-sex couples would have exactly the same occupation-specific unemployment rates as individuals in different-sex couples.

In the first step, we calculate the occupation-related risk of unemployment, $UnempRisk_o^{EU}$ for each three-digit level ISCO occupation group. We use the information about the occupation in the most recent workplace, which is available in the EU-LFS, to obtain the unemployment risk.⁵ Next, we calculate the predicted unemployment rates for each group:

$$(3) \quad UnempRate_{r,s,c}^{Occupation} = \sum_{o \in O} \omega_{r,s,c}^o \cdot UnempRisk_o^{EU}$$

where $UnempRate_{r,s,c}^{Occupation}$ is the predicted unemployment rate for individuals of sex s in a couple type c in the world region r , and $\omega_{r,s,c}^o$ is the share of occupation o in total employment of a given group. We adjust the predicted unemployment rates for a given sex in a given world region by a factor so that the predicted and the actual unemployment rates are equal for individuals in different-sex couples. Hence, the gap in the predicted unemployment rates between individuals in same-sex couples and different-sex couples is explained by differences in sorting

⁵See the details in Appendix D.

to occupations. The difference between the predicted and the actual unemployment rates for individuals in same-sex couples is determined by the within-occupation gaps in unemployment risk between individuals in same-sex couples and individuals in different-sex couples.

In all countries, men in same-sex couples tend to sort into occupations associated with a relatively low risk of unemployment. Hence, if the within-occupation probabilities of unemployment were equal for the two relationship types, men in same-sex couples would have lower unemployment rates than men in different-sex couples (Figure 2). However, as mentioned above, men in same-sex couples have a substantially higher risk of unemployment than men in different-sex couples. This implies that these unemployment gaps are not driven by occupational segregation. In addition, we find that the unemployment gaps cannot be explained by the differences in the probability of being self-employed, as we find no large gaps in the incidence of self-employment (Table A.11).

Finally, the unemployment gaps between men in same-sex couples and different-sex couples may be driven by employers discriminating against men in same-sex couples in their hiring and firing decisions. This explanation is in line with some experimental and observational studies, e.g. Carpenter (2005) and Drydakis (2009). The size of the unemployment gaps is correlated with the support for same-sex marriage: the unemployment gaps are largest in Latin America and are smallest in Europe.⁶ This suggests that discrimination based on sexual orientation may contribute to the observed unemployment gaps.

We conduct the same sensitivity tests for the unemployment gaps as we did for the labor supply gaps (Appendix B). Restricting the sample to individuals aged 25-39 does not change the results. In the U.S., the unemployment gaps among men are larger for better educated couples. In Brazil, we observe the opposite pattern. Nevertheless, in both regions, the unemployment gaps among men are statistically significant and economically large for both education groups. The unemployment gaps for married men are virtually identical to the baseline gaps. Married women in same-sex couples have a lower probability of unemployment than married women in

⁶In the study period, there were substantial differences in the attitudes towards same-sex couples across countries. The level of support for same-sex marriage was highest in Europe, with over 75 percent of adults supporting same-sex marriage (Pew Research Center, 2018). In the U.S., around 60 percent of adults supported access to same-sex marriage, with large political and geographical differences (Pew Research Center, 2019). In Latin America, the share of adults supporting same-sex marriage was 62 percent in Uruguay and only 45 percent in Brazil (Pew Research Center, 2014).

different-sex couples. Nevertheless, except in Europe, these unemployment gaps for married women are much smaller than those for men.

One additional concern is that the OLS regression cannot measure differences outside the mean, and neglects the common support problem (Goraus et al., 2017). Indeed, the populations of same-sex and different-sex couples might have different characteristics. Hence, we conduct a non-parametric decomposition of unemployment gaps following Ñopo (2008). Ñopo (2008) developed a decomposition that identifies parts of the total gap attributable to differences in observable characteristics within the common support, differences in unobservable characteristics (discrimination), and two components attributable to the "unmatched" characteristics of the populations of same-sex couples and different-sex couples. The latter is done by constructing a counterfactual population of same-sex couples with the characteristics of different-sex couples and vice versa. We obtain results consistent with the OLS estimates with stepwise controls of observables (Table B.5).

Selection into Parenthood

Since we find that gaps in the labor supply between same-sex and different-sex couples are largely driven by differences in the probability of having children, we investigate the patterns of selection into parenthood of all gender pairings.

As noted earlier, same-sex couples are much less likely to have children than different-sex couples (Table 7). Such a low incidence of parenthood among same-sex couples might be a result of the economic barriers they face. Same-sex couples might parent a child who was brought to their family from a previous, different-sex relationship of one of the partners. They might also resort to adoption, an assisted reproduction procedure in the case of women, and surrogacy in the case of men. All of the latter three options are more costly than a biological conception in a different-sex couple.

Patterns of selection into parenthood diverge between different-sex couples and same-sex couples. Among different-sex couples, those with children under age 15 are about eight years younger than childless couples. Among same-sex couples, there are no large age differences between childless couples and parents. Different-sex couples with children are slightly more likely to have a college degree than childless different-sex couples. By contrast, same-sex

parents are less likely to have a college degree than childless same-sex couples (except for women in same-sex couples in Europe), and this difference is larger compared to that among different-sex couples.

This negative selection on education is surprising given the disadvantage in the cost of having children same-sex couples face. One potential explanation is that same-sex parents often act as guardians of their relatives' biological children (Table A.12). In the U.S., almost 20 percent of individuals under age 15 living in a household headed by a same-sex couple are recorded as neither the children (whether biological or adopted) nor the stepchildren of the household head (for different-sex parents, this percentage is equal to approximately seven percent). In most such cases, they are relatives of the household head. While this situation is not as common in other countries as it is in the U.S., in all world regions, same-sex parents are much more likely than different-sex parents to care for their relatives' children. Since family stability is related to socioeconomic background (Conger et al., 2010), the incidence of caring for relatives' children is higher among individuals with lower levels of education (see Table A.13). Caring for relatives' children explains a large fraction of the negative selection into parenthood among same-sex couples.

In addition, Appendix C describes selection into marriage. While same-sex couples are much less likely to be formally married than different-sex couples, the patterns of selection within world regions are similar for all couple types: there is a positive selection on education in Latin America and in the U.S., and there is virtually no relationship between education and marriage in Europe. Hence, although studies that use administrative data omit approximately 50 percent of same-sex couples, these married couples are similarly selected with regard to their education.

4 Conclusion

In this study, we presented novel evidence from household survey data representing two-thirds of the world's population in countries that have legalized same-sex marriage. We assessed the gaps between same-sex couples and different-sex couples in selected labor market outcomes, and we examined the differences in the patterns of selection into parenthood. Here, we offer

three key observations from our findings, which indicate that gaps between same-sex couples and different-sex couples are largely consistent across three continents.

First, the joint labor supply of same-sex couples is higher than that of different-sex couples. The labor force participation rates of same-sex couples are higher, and they work more hours. However, these disparities can be largely attributed to differences in the likelihood of having children, and, to a lesser extent, variations in demographic characteristics.

Second, men in same-sex couples face a higher risk of unemployment than men in different-sex couples. These unemployment gaps are large, at 60 percent of the average unemployment rate in Latin America and 40 percent of the average unemployment rate in the U.S. Unlike the labor supply gaps, the disparities in unemployment cannot be explained by differences in observable factors or occupational sorting. We find no differences in unemployment rates among women.

Third, same-sex couples are significantly less likely to have children than different-sex couples, which may reflect the differences in the costs of having a child. Patterns of selection into parenthood differ substantially between different-sex couples and same-sex couples. Among different-sex couples, parenthood is associated with better education. By contrast, same-sex parents are less likely to have a college degree than their childless counterparts. This negative selection into parenthood among same-sex couples is largely due to the differences in the nature of parenthood: while parenthood for different-sex couples usually means raising their own children, parenthood for same-sex couples often means acting as guardians of their relatives' biological children.

We acknowledge some important limitations of this study. First, we studied countries that have legalized same-sex marriage. These countries offer a higher level of institutional protection for same-sex couples, and generally have more open social attitudes toward sexual minorities. Unfortunately, we found that it is virtually impossible to study same-sex couples in countries without legalized same-sex marriage, as very few same-sex couples are identified in the household surveys in those countries. We believe that the estimated unemployment gaps are likely a lower bound for the gaps in countries without formal recognition of same-sex couples, as the level of labor market discrimination is likely to be correlated with the legal status of same-sex couples. Second, we faced a trade-off between harmonizing data for a large

number of countries and including additional variables. For instance, the European data lack information on the income or the race of individuals, and the identification of immigrants is not possible in the Brazilian data. Future country-specific survey studies or cross-country administrative data studies may fill this gap.

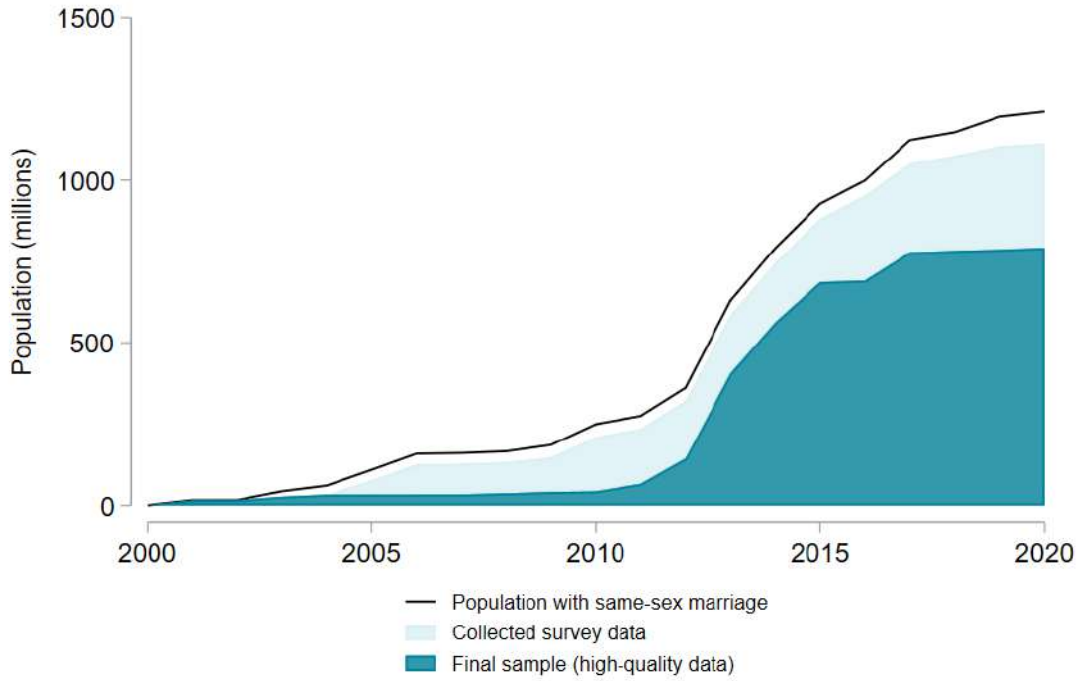
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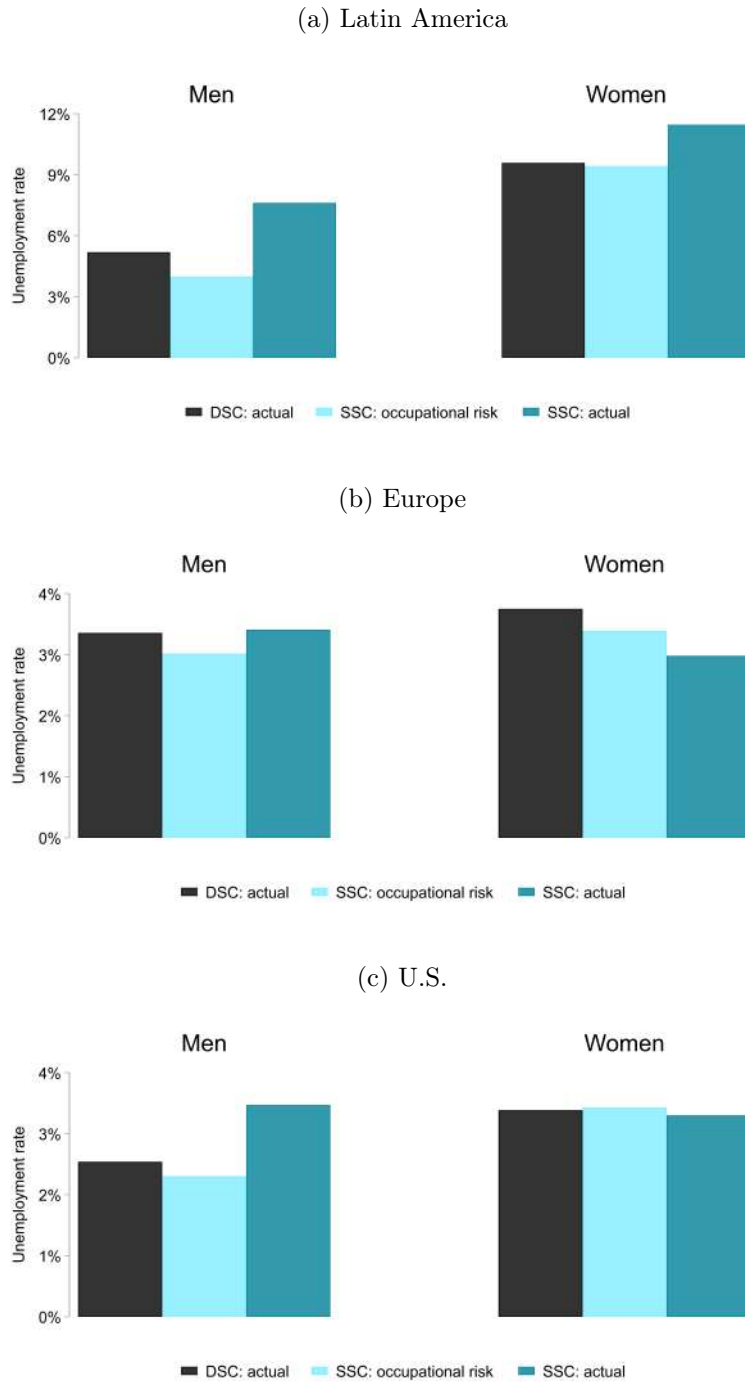
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Figure 1: Population of countries with access to same-sex marriage



Note: Figure shows the population in countries that have legalized same-sex marriage. The black solid line shows the population of countries with access to same-sex marriage in a given year. We account for gradual state-level legalization in federal states (Brazil, Canada, Mexico, United Kingdom, and the U.S.). The light-shaded area represents the population for which we collected data but decided to exclude from our final sample due to low data quality (see Appendix D). The dark-shaded area represents the population in countries with high-quality data that we included in our final sample. Our final sample comprised eight countries, which together accounted for 69 percent of the total population in countries with same-sex marriage in 2017.

Figure 2: Unemployment rate, accounting for occupational segregation



Note: Figure shows the actual unemployment rates for individuals in different-sex couples (black bars), the unemployment rate for individuals in same-sex couples predicted by occupational risk (bright blue bars), and the actual unemployment rates for individuals in same-sex couples (dark blue bars). The unemployment rate predicted by occupational risk is equal to the unemployment rate if there were no within-occupation gaps in the unemployment rates between individuals in same-sex couples and individuals in different-sex couples. The difference between the predicted and the actual unemployment rate for individuals in same-sex couples is due to within-occupation unemployment gaps.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics

	Latin America			Europe			USA		
	DSC	SSC Men	SSC Women	DSC	SSC Men	SSC Women	DSC	SSC Men	SSC Women
Household-level									
Labor Force Participation (both)	61.25%	82.55%	82.27%	72.91%	84.25%	80.30%	68.12%	79.49%	77.54%
Hours Worked	60.34	70.27	66.29	58.54	67.38	62.86	68.78	75.13	71.59
Children (dummy)	53.30%	4.82%	26.43%	44.83%	4.03%	23.29%	47.68%	9.56%	26.35%
Individual-level: Men									
Unemployment	5.19%	7.61%		3.36%	3.41%		2.54%	3.47%	
Age	43.80	36.23		45.23	41.23		44.87	42.79	
Secondary Education	41.69%	43.68%		44.26%	35.19%		52.85%	45.25%	
Tertiary Education	19.70%	48.91%		38.00%	53.67%		39.95%	52.34%	
Individual-level: Women									
Unemployment	9.58%		11.45%	3.75%		2.99%	3.39%		3.30%
Age	41.01		35.82	43.04		40.68	42.95		41.44
Secondary Education	45.11%		53.28%	43.81%		38.05%	50.49%		50.21%
Tertiary Education	23.58%		31.22%	38.09%		51.52%	43.55%		46.95%
Observations	2,490,484	4,984	6,670	1,518,646	9,782	7,370	3,625,698	34,028	33,704
Share	99.50%	0.23%	0.27%	98.77%	0.72%	0.51%	98.29%	0.85%	0.86%

Note: Table shows the averages of household- and individual-level variables in each region for each couple type. DSC denotes different-sex couples, SSC Men denotes men in same-sex couples, SSC Women denotes women in same-sex couples. In the "Observations" row, we present the number of individuals in a given couple type (the number of households is half of the number). In the "Share" row, we present the within-region population share of a given couple type. See the description of all variables in Table D.1.

Table 2: Labor force participation: both partners active

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Panel A. Latin America			
Same-sex couple: men	0.211*** (0.011)	0.106*** (0.011)	0.101*** (0.011)	0.051*** (0.011)
Same-sex couple: women	0.207*** (0.008)	0.139*** (0.008)	0.143*** (0.008)	0.110*** (0.008)
Adj. R-Squared	0.00	0.11	0.12	0.12
Mean of outcome	0.61	0.61	0.61	0.61
Observations (same-sex couples)	5,827	5,827	5,827	5,827
Observations	1,251,069	1,251,069	1,251,069	1,251,069
	Panel B. Europe			
Same-sex couple: men	0.111*** (0.008)	0.084*** (0.007)	0.090*** (0.008)	0.021*** (0.007)
Same-sex couple: women	0.075*** (0.009)	0.045*** (0.009)	0.046*** (0.009)	0.007 (0.009)
Adj. R-Squared	0.00	0.11	0.12	0.14
Mean of outcome	0.73	0.73	0.73	0.73
Observations (same-sex couples)	8,555	8,555	8,555	8,555
Observations	762,941	762,941	762,941	762,941
	Panel C. U.S.			
Same-sex couple: men	0.113*** (0.004)	0.099*** (0.004)	0.100*** (0.004)	0.048*** (0.004)
Same-sex couple: women	0.094*** (0.004)	0.079*** (0.004)	0.078*** (0.004)	0.048*** (0.004)
Adj. R-Squared	0.00	0.05	0.06	0.07
Mean of outcome	0.68	0.68	0.68	0.68
Observations (same-sex couples)	33,866	33,866	33,866	33,866
Observations	1,846,715	1,846,715	1,846,715	1,846,715
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education		✓	✓	✓
Region FE			✓	✓
Children				✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in labor force participation between same-sex couples and different-sex couples. The reference group consists of different-sex couples. The outcome variable is equal to one if both partners are in the labor force and to zero otherwise. In all regressions, we control for year fixed effects. In the case of age and education, we control for both maximum and minimum values for the couple. Standard errors are clustered at the household level. Table A.2 shows regression results by country.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table 3: Total hours worked

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Panel A. Latin America			
Same-sex couple: men	9.944*** (0.752)	4.093*** (0.741)	3.810*** (0.730)	1.390* (0.733)
Same-sex couple: women	5.894*** (0.760)	2.317*** (0.751)	2.495*** (0.748)	0.943 (0.752)
Adj. R-Squared	0.00	0.11	0.12	0.13
Mean of outcome	60.37	60.37	60.37	60.37
Observations (same-sex couples)	5,827	5,827	5,827	5,827
Observations	1,251,069	1,251,069	1,251,069	1,251,069
	Panel B. Europe			
Same-sex couple: men	8.728*** (0.577)	6.316*** (0.554)	6.671*** (0.547)	1.752*** (0.544)
Same-sex couple: women	4.279*** (0.662)	1.829*** (0.637)	2.173*** (0.631)	-0.608 (0.620)
Adj. R-Squared	0.00	0.15	0.16	0.18
Mean of outcome	58.65	58.65	58.65	58.65
Observations (same-sex couples)	8,555	8,555	8,555	8,555
Observations	762,941	762,941	762,941	762,941
	Panel C. U.S.			
Same-sex couple: men	6.319*** (0.234)	5.357*** (0.225)	5.543*** (0.226)	2.843*** (0.226)
Same-sex couple: women	2.780*** (0.239)	1.930*** (0.230)	1.949*** (0.229)	0.387* (0.229)
Adj. R-Squared	0.00	0.08	0.08	0.10
Mean of outcome	68.86	68.86	68.86	68.86
Observations (same-sex couples)	33,866	33,866	33,866	33,866
Observations	1,846,715	1,846,715	1,846,715	1,846,715
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education		✓	✓	✓
Region FE			✓	✓
Children				✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in total hours worked between same-sex couples and different-sex couples. The reference group consists of different-sex couples. The outcome variable is the sum of hours worked by the partners. In all regressions, we control for year fixed effects. In the case of age and education, we control for both maximum and minimum values for the couple. Standard errors are clustered at the household level. Table A.3 shows regression results by country.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table 4: Hours worked by secondary worker (% of total hours worked)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Panel A. Latin America			
Same-sex couple: men	0.079*** (0.006)	0.045*** (0.006)	0.044*** (0.006)	0.020*** (0.006)
Same-sex couple: women	0.072*** (0.005)	0.055*** (0.005)	0.057*** (0.005)	0.041*** (0.005)
Adj. R-Squared	0.00	0.06	0.07	0.08
Mean of outcome	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25
Observations (same-sex couples)	5,499	5,499	5,499	5,499
Observations	1,156,160	1,156,160	1,156,160	1,156,160
	Panel B. Europe			
Same-sex couple: men	0.068*** (0.004)	0.058*** (0.004)	0.061*** (0.004)	0.021*** (0.004)
Same-sex couple: women	0.053*** (0.004)	0.041*** (0.004)	0.042*** (0.004)	0.020*** (0.004)
Adj. R-Squared	0.00	0.07	0.07	0.10
Mean of outcome	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29
Observations (same-sex couples)	8,010	8,010	8,010	8,010
Observations	704,988	704,988	704,988	704,988
	Panel C. U.S.			
Same-sex couple: men	0.055*** (0.002)	0.049*** (0.002)	0.050*** (0.002)	0.023*** (0.002)
Same-sex couple: women	0.050*** (0.002)	0.043*** (0.002)	0.043*** (0.002)	0.027*** (0.002)
Adj. R-Squared	0.00	0.04	0.04	0.06
Mean of outcome	0.31	0.31	0.31	0.31
Observations (same-sex couples)	32,850	32,850	32,850	32,850
Observations	1,793,666	1,793,666	1,793,666	1,793,666
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education		✓	✓	✓
Region FE			✓	✓
Children				✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in hours worked by secondary worker as a share of total hours worked between same-sex couples and different-sex couples. The secondary worker is defined as one of the two partners who works the least hours. Hence, the outcome variable is the within-couple minimum hours worked by a partner divided by the sum of hours worked by both partners. The reference group consists of different-sex couples. In all regressions, we control for year fixed effects. In the case of age and education, we control for both maximum and minimum values for the couple. Standard errors are clustered at the household level. Table A.4 shows regression results by country.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table 5: Unemployment: men

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Panel A. Latin America			
Same-sex couple: men	0.023*** (0.006)	0.031*** (0.006)	0.030*** (0.006)	0.030*** (0.006)
Adj. R-Squared	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01
Mean of outcome	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05
Observations (same-sex couples)	4,522	4,522	4,522	4,522
Observations	1,127,645	1,127,645	1,127,645	1,127,645
	Panel B. Europe			
Same-sex couple: men	0.002 (0.003)	0.004 (0.003)	0.002 (0.003)	0.007** (0.003)
Adj. R-Squared	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.03
Mean of outcome	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03
Observations (same-sex couples)	8,698	8,698	8,698	8,698
Observations	681,769	681,769	681,769	681,769
	Panel C. U.S.			
Same-sex couple: men	0.010*** (0.001)	0.012*** (0.001)	0.011*** (0.001)	0.011*** (0.001)
Adj. R-Squared	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Mean of outcome	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03
Observations (same-sex couples)	29,864	29,864	29,864	29,864
Observations	1,672,157	1,672,157	1,672,157	1,672,157
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education		✓	✓	✓
Region FE			✓	✓
Children				✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in the individual probability of being unemployed between men in same-sex couples and men in different-sex couples. The sample is restricted to individuals in labor force (either employed or unemployed). The reference group consists of men in different-sex couples. The outcome variable is equal to one for unemployed individuals and to zero for employed individuals. In all regressions, we control for year fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the household level. Table A.9 shows the regression results by country.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table 6: Unemployment: women

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Panel A. Latin America			
Same-sex couple: women	0.017*** (0.006)	0.002 (0.006)	-0.001 (0.006)	0.003 (0.006)
Adj. R-Squared	0.00	0.03	0.03	0.03
Mean of outcome	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10
Observations (same-sex couples)	5,878	5,878	5,878	5,878
Observations	808,106	808,106	808,106	808,106
	Panel B. Europe			
Same-sex couple: women	-0.007** (0.003)	-0.007** (0.003)	-0.008*** (0.003)	-0.005* (0.003)
Adj. R-Squared	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.03
Mean of outcome	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04
Observations (same-sex couples)	6,448	6,448	6,448	6,448
Observations	594,304	594,304	594,304	594,304
	Panel C. U.S.			
Same-sex couple: women	-0.001 (0.001)	-0.001 (0.001)	-0.001 (0.001)	-0.000 (0.001)
Adj. R-Squared	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01
Mean of outcome	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03
Observations (same-sex couples)	29,187	29,187	29,187	29,187
Observations	1,372,322	1,372,322	1,372,322	1,372,322
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education		✓	✓	✓
Region FE			✓	✓
Children				✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in the individual probability of being unemployed between women in same-sex couples and women in different-sex couples. The sample is restricted to individuals in labor force (either employed or unemployed). The reference group consists of women in different-sex couples. The outcome variable is equal to one for unemployed individuals and to zero for employed individuals. In all regressions, we control for year fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the household level. Table A.10 shows the regression results by country.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

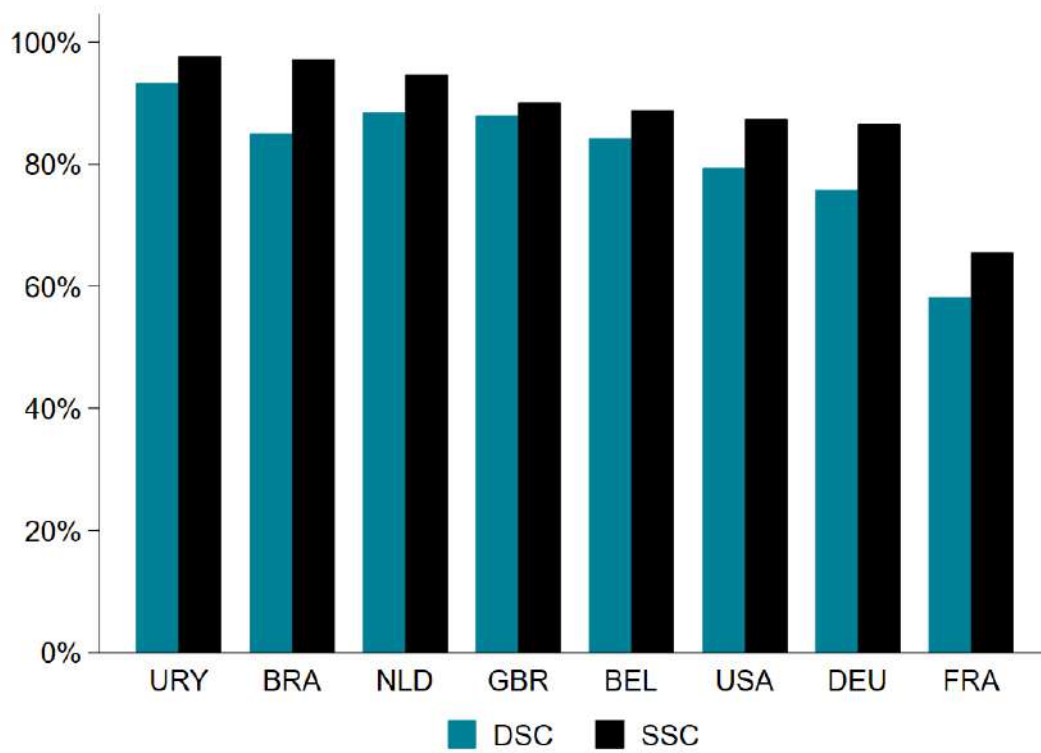
Table 7: Selection into parenthood

	DSC		SSC Men		SSC Women	
	Parents	Childless	Parents	Childless	Parents	Childless
Panel A. Latin America						
Primary Education	32.17%	38.14%	22.61%	6.64%	23.44%	12.64%
Secondary Education	46.96%	39.34%	45.88%	43.57%	56.65%	52.07%
Tertiary Education	20.87%	22.52%	31.51%	49.79%	19.91%	35.29%
Age	38.42	46.95	36.54	36.21	34.93	36.14
Observations	1,345,778	1,144,706	292	4,692	1,888	4,782
Share	53.30%	46.70%	4.82%	95.18%	26.43%	73.57%
Panel B. Europe						
Primary Education	17.29%	18.42%	15.04%	11.02%	11.00%	10.32%
Secondary Education	41.09%	46.41%	37.59%	35.03%	33.38%	39.48%
Tertiary Education	41.62%	35.18%	47.37%	53.95%	55.62%	50.21%
Age	39.36	48.03	40.40	41.27	39.30	41.12
Observations	654,730	854,042	556	9,202	1,776	5,576
Share	44.86%	55.14%	3.95%	96.05%	23.11%	76.89%
Panel C. U.S.						
Primary Education	8.22%	5.10%	7.22%	1.90%	4.70%	2.17%
Secondary Education	48.97%	54.15%	46.73%	45.10%	53.41%	49.07%
Tertiary Education	42.81%	40.76%	46.05%	53.00%	41.89%	48.76%
Age	39.53	47.92	41.03	42.98	38.80	42.39
Observations	1,628,638	1,997,060	2,872	31,156	8,142	25,562
Share	47.68%	52.32%	9.56%	90.44%	26.35%	73.65%

Note: Table shows the averages of individual characteristics by individuals' parental status and couple type. DSC denotes different-sex couples, SSC Men denotes men in same-sex couples, SSC Women denotes women in same-sex couples. Parenthood is defined as the presence of an individual aged 0-14 in the household.

Appendix A Additional Figures and Tables

Figure A.1: Number of individuals living in urban areas as % of individuals living in all areas by couple type



Note: Figure shows the percentage of individuals living in urban areas by country and couple type.

Table A.1: Literature on labor supply and unemployment among same-sex couples

Article	Countries	Variables	Years
Brown et al. (2019)	Chile, Uruguay	Labor force participation	2011-2012
Dillender (2015)	U.S.	Labor force participation	1996-2011
Jepsen and Jepsen (2015)	U.S.	Labor force participation, hours worked	2000
Laurent and Mihoubi (2017)	France	Labor force participation, hours worked, unemployment	1996-2009
Leppel (2009)	U.S.	Labor force participation, unemployment	2000
Schneebaum and Badgett (2019)	U.S.	Labor force participation	2010-2014

Note: Table shows the exhaustive list of all articles which study labor supply or unemployment gaps between same-sex couples and different-sex couples in the EconLit database (accessed on 2024-06-15). In the first step, we searched for articles, which contain the phrase "same-sex couples" and at the same time at least one of the following phrases: "labor force participation", "labour force participation", "hours worked", "unemployment". In the second step, we restricted the list to the articles which present gaps in these variables.

Table A.2: Labor force participation: both partners active, countries

	(1) Brazil	(2) Uruguay	(3) Belgium	(4) France	(5) Germany	(6) Netherlands	(7) United Kingdom	(8) United States
Same-sex couple: women	0.111*** (0.008)	0.040 (0.025)	-0.064*** (0.022)	0.003 (0.011)	0.049*** (0.010)	-0.016 (0.022)	0.015 (0.020)	0.048*** (0.004)
Same-sex couple: men	0.051*** (0.011)	0.033 (0.021)	-0.019 (0.019)	0.014* (0.008)	0.018** (0.009)	0.023 (0.017)	0.037** (0.018)	0.048*** (0.004)
Adj. R-Squared	0.12	0.15	0.26	0.22	0.12	0.11	0.10	0.07
Mean of outcome	0.61	0.70	0.69	0.68	0.74	0.78	0.75	0.68
Observations (same-sex couples)	5,315	512	926	3,267	2,640	1,003	719	33,866
Observations	1,167,603	83,466	48,055	246,955	340,580	70,089	57,262	1,846,715
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Region FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in labor force participation between same-sex couples and different-sex couples, estimated separately for each country. The reference group consists of different-sex couples. The outcome variable is equal to one if both partners are in the labor force and to zero otherwise. In all regressions, we control for year fixed effects, age, age squared, education level, and the presence of children. In the case of age and education, we control for both maximum and minimum values for the couple. Standard errors are clustered at the household level.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table A.3: Total hours worked, countries

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	Brazil	Uruguay	Belgium	France	Germany	Netherlands	United Kingdom	United States
Same-sex couple: women	0.956 (0.765)	-0.096 (1.779)	-3.163** (1.473)	-1.114 (0.705)	1.255** (0.624)	-3.711*** (1.311)	0.813 (1.524)	0.387* (0.229)
Same-sex couple: men	1.419* (0.753)	0.345 (1.595)	-2.049 (1.399)	0.742 (0.588)	2.959*** (0.634)	4.181*** (1.283)	1.956 (1.273)	2.843*** (0.226)
Adj. R-Squared	0.13	0.15	0.23	0.27	0.18	0.15	0.14	0.10
Mean of outcome	60.27	65.74	53.93	56.16	58.72	55.40	61.79	68.86
Observations (same-sex couples)	5,315	512	926	3,267	2,640	1,003	719	33,866
Observations	1,167,603	83,466	48,055	246,955	340,580	70,089	57,262	1,846,715
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Region FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in total hours worked between same-sex couples and different-sex couples, estimated separately for each country. The reference group consists of different-sex couples. The outcome variable is the sum of hours worked by the partners. In all regressions, we control for year fixed effects, age, age squared, education level, and the presence of children. In the case of age and education, we control for both maximum and minimum values for the couple. Standard errors are clustered at the household level.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table A.4: Hours worked by secondary worker (% of total hours worked), countries

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	Brazil	Uruguay	Belgium	France	Germany	Netherlands	United Kingdom	United States
Same-sex couple: women	0.041*** (0.005)	0.039*** (0.013)	0.011 (0.011)	0.004 (0.006)	0.046*** (0.005)	0.023** (0.011)	0.017* (0.010)	0.027*** (0.002)
Same-sex couple: men	0.020*** (0.006)	0.011 (0.011)	-0.011 (0.012)	0.020*** (0.004)	0.030*** (0.005)	0.021** (0.010)	0.026*** (0.010)	0.023*** (0.002)
Adj. R-Squared	0.08	0.12	0.12	0.13	0.13	0.12	0.09	0.06
Mean of outcome	0.25	0.26	0.27	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.30	0.31
Observations (same-sex couples)	4,996	503	819	2,995	2,546	969	681	32,850
Observations	1,075,962	80,198	41,649	219,327	323,432	67,344	53,236	1,793,666
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Region FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in hours worked by secondary worker as a share of total hours worked between same-sex couples and different-sex couples, estimated separately for each country. The secondary worker is defined as one of the two partners who works the least hours. Hence, the outcome variable is the within-couple minimum hours worked by a partner divided by the sum of hours worked by both partners. The reference group consists of different-sex couples. In all regressions, we control for year fixed effects. In the case of age and education, we control for both maximum and minimum values for the couple. Standard errors are clustered at the household level.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table A.5: Labor force participation, individual level

	Latin America		Europe		U.S.	
	Men (1)	Women (2)	Men (3)	Women (4)	Men (5)	Women (6)
Same-sex couple: women		0.168*** (0.005)		0.047*** (0.005)		0.092*** (0.002)
Same-sex couple: men	-0.052*** (0.006)		-0.031*** (0.005)		-0.043*** (0.002)	
Adj. R-Squared	0.12	0.11	0.14	0.11	0.08	0.07
Mean of outcome	0.91	0.66	0.90	0.78	0.91	0.74
Observations (same-sex couples)	4,984	6,670	9,758	7,352	34,028	33,704
Observations	1,250,226	1,251,912	764,144	761,738	1,846,877	1,846,553
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Region FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in the individual probability of being in labor force (employed or unemployed) between same-sex couples and different-sex couples. Regressions are run separately for men and women in each world region. For men in same-sex couples, the reference group consists of men in different-sex couples. For women in same-sex couples, the reference group consists of women in different-sex couples. The outcome variable is equal to one for individuals in labor force and to zero for inactive individuals. In all regressions, we control for year fixed effects, age, age squared, education level, and the presence of children. Standard errors are clustered at the household level.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table A.6: Hours worked, individual level

	Latin America		Europe		U.S.	
	Men (1)	Women (2)	Men (3)	Women (4)	Men (5)	Women (6)
Same-sex couple: women		7.578*** (0.377)		4.631*** (0.310)		5.415*** (0.118)
Same-sex couple: men	-4.724*** (0.369)		-3.211*** (0.272)		-3.471*** (0.114)	
Adj. R-Squared	0.08	0.09	0.12	0.15	0.07	0.08
Mean of outcome	37.51	22.87	35.22	23.47	40.28	28.60
Observations (same-sex couples)	4,984	6,670	9,758	7,352	34,028	33,704
Observations	1,250,226	1,251,912	764,144	761,738	1,846,877	1,846,553
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Region FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in individual hours worked between same-sex couples and different-sex couples. Regressions are run separately for men and women in each world region. For men in same-sex couples, the reference group consists of men in different-sex couples. For women in same-sex couples, the reference group consists of women in different-sex couples. In all regressions, we control for year fixed effects, age, age squared, education level, and the presence of children. Standard errors are clustered at the household level.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table A.7: Hours worked, individual level (non-zero hours worked only)

	Latin America		Europe		U.S.	
	Men (1)	Women (2)	Men (3)	Women (4)	Men (5)	Women (6)
Same-sex couple: women		2.825*** (0.306)		3.597*** (0.231)		2.568*** (0.082)
Same-sex couple: men	-1.828*** (0.273)		-1.953*** (0.192)		-1.885*** (0.083)	
Adj. R-Squared	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.14	0.02	0.03
Mean of outcome	43.62	37.83	41.00	31.47	43.85	37.54
Observations (same-sex couples)	4,239	5,242	8,168	6,127	30,273	29,700
Observations	1,071,309	749,243	647,968	564,894	1,690,649	1,416,058
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Region FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table shows intensive margin gaps in individual hours worked between same-sex couples and different-sex couples. Regressions are run separately for men and women in each world region. The sample is restricted to individuals with non-zero hours worked. For men in same-sex couples, the reference group consists of men in different-sex couples. For women in same-sex couples, the reference group consists of women in different-sex couples. In all regressions, we control for year fixed effects, age, age squared, education level, and the presence of children. Standard errors are clustered at the household level.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table A.8: Gender gaps in the labor supply: same-sex couples vs. different-sex couples

	Same-sex couples		Different-sex couples	
	Labor Force Participation (1)	Hours Worked (2)	Labor Force Participation (3)	Hours Worked (4)
	Panel A. Latin America			
Gender: woman	0.017** (0.008)	-0.292 (0.571)	-0.281*** (0.001)	-15.883*** (0.032)
Adj. R-Squared	0.05	0.06	0.18	0.19
Mean of outcome	0.90	34.05	0.78	30.17
Observations	11,654	11,654	2,490,484	2,490,484
	Panel B. Europe			
Gender: woman	-0.005 (0.007)	-1.207*** (0.428)	-0.132*** (0.001)	-12.367*** (0.036)
Adj. R-Squared	0.11	0.12	0.13	0.21
Mean of outcome	0.90	32.81	0.84	29.39
Observations	17,110	17,110	1,508,772	1,508,772
	Panel C. U.S.			
Gender: woman	-0.008** (0.003)	-1.263*** (0.164)	-0.187*** (0.000)	-12.523*** (0.022)
Adj. R-Squared	0.07	0.07	0.10	0.16
Mean of outcome	0.88	36.66	0.83	34.45
Observations	67,732	67,732	3,625,698	3,625,698
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education	✓	✓	✓	✓
Region FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table shows gender gaps in the labor supply outcomes for same-sex couples and different-sex couples. Columns 1 and 2 show the results for the subsample of men and women in same-sex couples. Columns 3 and 4 show the results for the subsample of men and women in different-sex couples. In all regressions, we control for year fixed effects, age, age squared, education level, and the presence of children. Standard errors are clustered at the household level.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table A.9: Unemployment: men, countries

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	Brazil	Uruguay	Belgium	France	Germany	Netherlands	United Kingdom	United States
Same-sex couple: men	0.030*** (0.006)	0.029*** (0.010)	0.008 (0.008)	0.019*** (0.005)	0.002 (0.004)	0.010 (0.007)	0.002 (0.006)	0.011*** (0.001)
Adj. R-Squared	0.01	0.00	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.00
Mean of outcome	0.07	0.04	0.04	0.07	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.03
Observations (same-sex couples)	3,979	543	844	3,520	2,667	953	714	29,864
Observations	1,050,199	77,446	41,106	211,384	311,984	65,379	51,916	1,672,157
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Region FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in the probability of unemployment between men in same-sex couples and men in different-sex couples, estimated separately for each country. The reference group consists of men in different-sex couples. The sample is restricted to individuals in labor force (either employed or unemployed). The outcome variable is equal to one for unemployed individuals and to zero for employed individuals. In all regressions, we control for year fixed effects, age, age squared, education level, and the presence of children. In the case of age and education, we control for both maximum and minimum values for the couple. Standard errors are clustered at the household level.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table A.10: Unemployment: women, countries

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	Brazil	Uruguay	Belgium	France	Germany	Netherlands	United Kingdom	United States
Same-sex couple: women	0.004 (0.006)	-0.037*** (0.009)	-0.019** (0.008)	-0.003 (0.005)	0.004 (0.004)	-0.003 (0.009)	-0.011* (0.006)	-0.000 (0.001)
Adj. R-Squared	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Mean of outcome	0.07	0.04	0.04	0.07	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.03
Observations (same-sex couples)	5,482	396	670	2,141	2,186	860	591	29,187
Observations	746,392	61,714	35,821	185,898	269,212	58,525	44,848	1,372,322
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Region FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in the probability of unemployment between women in same-sex couples and women in different-sex couples, estimated separately for each country. The reference group consists of women in different-sex couples. The sample is restricted to individuals in labor force (either employed or unemployed). The outcome variable is equal to one for unemployed individuals and to zero for employed individuals. In all regressions, we control for year fixed effects, age, age squared, education level, and the presence of children. In the case of age and education, we control for both maximum and minimum values for the couple. Standard errors are clustered at the household level.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table A.11: Self-employment

	Latin America		Europe		U.S.	
	Men (1)	Women (2)	Men (3)	Women (4)	Men (5)	Women (6)
Same-sex couple: women		0.007 (0.010)		0.004 (0.006)		0.001 (0.002)
Same-sex couple: men	0.013 (0.012)		-0.005 (0.007)		-0.005** (0.002)	
Adj. R-Squared	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01
Mean of outcome	0.35	0.25	0.16	0.09	0.12	0.08
Observations (same-sex couples)	4,222	5,205	8,288	6,190	28,833	28,279
Observations	1,068,220	731,586	653,360	565,850	1,630,972	1,328,316
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Region FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in the individual probability of being self-employed between same-sex couples and different-sex couples. The sample is restricted to employed individuals (employees and self-employed individuals). Regressions are run separately for men and women in each world region. For men in same-sex couples, the reference group consists of men in different-sex couples. For women in same-sex couples, the reference group consists of women in different-sex couples. The outcome variable is equal to one for self-employed individuals and to zero for employees. In all regressions, we control for year fixed effects, age, age squared, education level, and the presence of children. Standard errors are clustered at the household level.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table A.12: Individuals under 15 years old by their relationship to the household head

	DSC			SSC Men			SSC Women		
	Children	Other Relatives	Other	Children	Other Relatives	Other	Children	Other Relatives	Other
Belgium	98.50%	1.50%	0.00%	87.51%	12.49%	0.00%	92.19%	7.81%	0.00%
Brazil	91.48%	8.35%	0.17%	90.50%	8.26%	1.25%	87.39%	10.48%	2.13%
Germany	99.50%	0.38%	0.12%	72.43%	16.87%	10.70%	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%
France	99.09%	0.58%	0.33%	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%	98.07%	0.98%	0.95%
United Kingdom	96.63%	2.47%	0.90%	87.56%	12.44%	0.00%	92.98%	5.54%	1.48%
Netherlands	99.56%	0.36%	0.08%	91.00%	0.00%	9.00%	97.94%	0.00%	2.06%
Uruguay	93.53%	5.90%	0.57%	93.67%	6.33%	0.00%	84.31%	11.62%	4.08%
United States	93.48%	5.12%	1.40%	84.66%	10.04%	5.29%	82.13%	10.26%	7.61%

Note: Table shows the shares of individuals under age 15 by their relationship to the households head: children, other relative, other non-relative. DSC denotes different-sex couples, SSC Men denotes men in same-sex couples, SSC Women denotes women in same-sex couples. The "Children" category includes the children of at least one of the partners, adopted children, and stepchildren. The "Other Relatives" category includes grandchildren, siblings, and other unspecified relatives. The "Other" category includes foster children, roommates, and other unspecified non-relatives (e.g., relatives of the household head's partner).

Table A.13: Selection into parenthood: households with own children vs. households with children of relatives

	DSC			SSC Men			SSC Women		
	Other minors	Own children	Childless	Other minors	Own children	Childless	Other minors	Own children	Childless
Panel A. Latin America									
Primary Education	62.26%	29.22%	38.14%	53.79%	18.89%	6.64%	34.20%	21.59%	12.64%
Secondary Education	30.62%	48.56%	39.34%	39.72%	46.61%	43.57%	50.27%	57.75%	52.07%
Tertiary Education	7.12%	22.22%	22.52%	6.49%	34.50%	49.79%	15.53%	20.66%	35.29%
Age	50.18	37.27	46.95	40.56	36.06	36.21	38.78	34.26	36.14
Observations	133,150	1,212,628	1,144,706	48	244	4,692	324	1,564	4,782
Share	4.77%	48.54%	46.70%	0.51%	4.30%	95.18%	3.89%	22.53%	73.57%
Panel B. Europe									
Primary Education	35.03%	16.92%	18.42%	39.53%	13.70%	11.02%	28.39%	10.18%	10.32%
Secondary Education	40.91%	41.09%	46.41%	47.81%	37.03%	35.03%	45.86%	32.79%	39.48%
Tertiary Education	24.06%	41.99%	35.18%	12.66%	49.27%	53.95%	25.75%	57.04%	50.21%
Age	45.25	39.24	48.03	41.80	40.33	41.27	42.33	39.16	41.12
Observations	7,882	646,848	854,042	20	536	9,202	60	1,716	5,576
Share	0.92%	43.94%	55.14%	0.21%	3.74%	96.05%	1.04%	22.07%	76.89%
Panel C. U.S.									
Primary Education	17.56%	7.48%	5.10%	12.43%	6.12%	1.90%	8.63%	3.76%	2.17%
Secondary Education	65.68%	47.66%	54.15%	61.20%	43.68%	45.10%	64.27%	50.81%	49.07%
Tertiary Education	16.76%	44.87%	40.76%	26.37%	50.20%	53.00%	27.10%	45.44%	48.76%
Age	47.83	38.88	47.92	42.12	40.80	42.98	41.45	38.17	42.39
Observations	118,454	1,510,184	1,997,060	500	2,372	31,156	1,624	6,518	25,562
Share	3.49%	44.19%	52.32%	1.66%	7.89%	90.44%	5.10%	21.25%	73.65%

Note: Table shows the averages of individual characteristics by individuals' guardianship over their own children vs. other minors and couple type. DSC denotes different-sex couples, SSC Men denotes men in same-sex couples, SSC Women denotes women in same-sex couples. Own children denotes household head's children, adopted children, or stepchildren. Social parenthood ("other minors") is defined as the presence in the household of at least one individual aged 0-14 who is not the household head's child, adopted child, or stepchild.

Appendix B Sensitivity Tests

Table B.1: Robustness: 25-39 years old

	Labor Force Participation (1)	Hours Worked (2)	Unemployment (men) (3)	Unemployment (women) (4)
Panel A. Latin America				
Same-sex couple: men	-0.012 (0.018)	-0.907 (1.189)	0.033*** (0.009)	
Same-sex couple: women	0.099*** (0.012)	-0.206 (0.947)		-0.005 (0.009)
Adj. R-Squared	0.08	0.09	0.01	0.03
Mean of outcome	0.71	65.48	0.05	0.11
Observations (same-sex couples)	2,273	2,273	1,766	2,445
Observations	351,267	351,267	340,242	249,412
Panel B. Europe				
Same-sex couple: men	0.015 (0.012)	-0.913 (0.888)	0.010 (0.006)	
Same-sex couple: women	0.008 (0.014)	-1.247 (1.038)		-0.003 (0.007)
Adj. R-Squared	0.12	0.18	0.03	0.03
Mean of outcome	0.78	62.71	0.03	0.04
Observations (same-sex couples)	2,369	2,369	2,337	2,101
Observations	187,094	187,094	179,386	149,230
Panel C. U.S.				
Same-sex couple: men	0.056*** (0.006)	3.032*** (0.402)	0.005** (0.002)	
Same-sex couple: women	0.062*** (0.006)	0.532 (0.380)		-0.001 (0.003)
Adj. R-Squared	0.08	0.09	0.01	0.01
Mean of outcome	0.73	72.13	0.02	0.04
Observations (same-sex couples)	9,136	9,136	7,910	9,174
Observations	490,012	490,012	470,120	379,114
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education	✓	✓	✓	✓
Region FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in the main outcomes between same-sex couples and different-sex couples. The sample is restricted to couples in which both partners are aged 25-39. In columns 3 and 4, the sample is additionally restricted to individuals in the labor force. Columns 1 and 2 show the results for household-level outcomes, in which the reference group consists of different-sex couples. Columns 3 and 4 show the results for individual-level outcomes, in which the reference groups consist of men in different-sex couples (column 3) and women in different-sex couples (column 4). We control for age, education, presence of children, region fixed effects, and year fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the household level.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table B.2: Robustness: at least one partner with tertiary education

	Labor Force Participation (1)	Hours Worked (2)	Unemployment (men) (3)	Unemployment (women) (4)
Panel A. Latin America				
Same-sex couple: men	0.047*** (0.013)	2.419*** (0.875)	0.020*** (0.006)	
Same-sex couple: women	0.098*** (0.012)	3.453*** (1.172)		-0.008 (0.007)
Adj. R-Squared	0.10	0.10	0.00	0.01
Mean of outcome	0.74	67.71	0.03	0.06
Observations (same-sex couples)	2,896	2,896	2,852	2,484
Observations	359,536	359,536	334,700	280,062
Panel B. Europe				
Same-sex couple: men	0.018* (0.009)	0.946 (0.640)	0.006* (0.003)	
Same-sex couple: women	0.016 (0.011)	-0.365 (0.811)		-0.004 (0.004)
Adj. R-Squared	0.08	0.11	0.01	0.01
Mean of outcome	0.80	64.41	0.02	0.03
Observations (same-sex couples)	5,465	5,465	5,886	4,120
Observations	378,277	378,277	354,947	317,764
Panel C. U.S.				
Same-sex couple: men	0.049*** (0.004)	2.798*** (0.253)	0.011*** (0.002)	
Same-sex couple: women	0.052*** (0.004)	0.862*** (0.258)		-0.003* (0.001)
Adj. R-Squared	0.06	0.07	0.00	0.00
Mean of outcome	0.73	72.58	0.02	0.02
Observations (same-sex couples)	22,913	22,913	21,633	19,297
Observations	1,052,977	1,052,977	979,221	819,507
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education	✓	✓	✓	✓
Region FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in the main outcomes between same-sex couples and different-sex couples. The sample is restricted to couples in which at least one partner has tertiary education. In columns 3 and 4, the sample is additionally restricted to individuals in the labor force. Columns 1 and 2 show the results for household-level outcomes, in which the reference group consists of different-sex couples. Columns 3 and 4 show the results for individual-level outcomes, in which the reference groups consist of men in different-sex couples (column 3) and women in different-sex couples (column 4). We control for age, education, presence of children, region fixed effects, and year fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the household level.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table B.3: Robustness: none of the partners with tertiary education

	Labor Force Participation (1)	Hours Worked (2)	Unemployment (men) (3)	Unemployment (women) (4)
Panel A. Latin America				
Same-sex couple: men	0.074*** (0.020)	0.254 (1.351)	0.052*** (0.012)	
Same-sex couple: women	0.122*** (0.011)	-0.799 (0.974)		0.012 (0.010)
Adj. R-Squared	0.10	0.11	0.01	0.03
Mean of outcome	0.56	57.22	0.06	0.12
Observations (same-sex couples)	2,931	2,931	1,670	3,394
Observations	891,533	891,533	792,945	528,044
Panel B. Europe				
Same-sex couple: men	0.037*** (0.013)	3.678*** (0.970)	0.007 (0.005)	
Same-sex couple: women	-0.007 (0.015)	-0.803 (0.924)		-0.013*** (0.004)
Adj. R-Squared	0.14	0.18	0.04	0.04
Mean of outcome	0.65	52.56	0.05	0.05
Observations (same-sex couples)	3,090	3,090	2,812	2,328
Observations	384,664	384,664	326,822	276,540
Panel C. U.S.				
Same-sex couple: men	0.041*** (0.008)	2.036*** (0.457)	0.007** (0.003)	
Same-sex couple: women	0.039*** (0.007)	-0.750* (0.424)		0.002 (0.003)
Adj. R-Squared	0.07	0.08	0.00	0.01
Mean of outcome	0.62	64.47	0.03	0.05
Observations (same-sex couples)	10,953	10,953	8,231	9,890
Observations	793,738	793,738	692,936	552,815
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education	✓	✓	✓	✓
Region FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in the main outcomes between same-sex couples and different-sex couples. The sample is restricted to couples in which none of the partners has tertiary education. In columns 3 and 4, the sample is additionally restricted to individuals in the labor force. Columns 1 and 2 show the results for household-level outcomes, in which the reference group consists of different-sex couples. Columns 3 and 4 show the results for individual-level outcomes, in which the reference groups consist of men in different-sex couples (column 3) and women in different-sex couples (column 4). We control for age, education, presence of children, region fixed effects, and year fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the household level.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table B.4: Robustness: married couples

	Labor Force Participation (1)	Hours Worked (2)	Unemployment (men) (3)	Unemployment (women) (4)
Panel A. Latin America				
Same-sex couple: men	0.001 (0.039)	-4.082 (2.529)	0.036** (0.016)	
Same-sex couple: women	0.043 (0.046)	2.900 (3.472)		-0.017 (0.017)
Adj. R-Squared	0.16	0.17	0.00	0.02
Mean of outcome	0.67	64.73	0.02	0.05
Observations (same-sex couples)	179	179	193	123
Observations	51,094	51,094	46,275	37,063
Panel B. Europe				
Same-sex couple: men	0.017 (0.012)	3.513*** (0.896)	0.007* (0.004)	
Same-sex couple: women	0.013 (0.014)	0.132 (0.954)		-0.009** (0.005)
Adj. R-Squared	0.14	0.19	0.02	0.02
Mean of outcome	0.70	57.09	0.03	0.03
Observations (same-sex couples)	3,822	3,822	3,651	2,953
Observations	573,836	573,836	506,311	433,120
Panel C. U.S.				
Same-sex couple: men	0.047*** (0.005)	3.543*** (0.328)	0.011*** (0.002)	
Same-sex couple: women	0.046*** (0.005)	0.500 (0.307)		-0.004*** (0.002)
Adj. R-Squared	0.07	0.09	0.00	0.01
Mean of outcome	0.67	68.48	0.02	0.03
Observations (same-sex couples)	18,330	18,330	15,296	16,169
Observations	1,613,276	1,613,276	1,460,388	1,177,260
Year FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education	✓	✓	✓	✓
Region FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table shows the gaps in the main outcomes between same-sex couples and different-sex couples. The sample is restricted to married couples. Data on marital status is not available in Brazil so the results for Latin America are based on the data from Uruguay only. In columns 3 and 4, the sample is additionally restricted to individuals in the labor force. Columns 1 and 2 show the results for household-level outcomes, in which the reference group consists of different-sex couples. Columns 3 and 4 show the results for individual-level outcomes, in which the reference groups consist of men in different-sex couples (column 3) and women in different-sex couples (column 4). We control for age, education, presence of children, region fixed effects, and year fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the household level.

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Table B.5: Nopo decomposition of gaps in labor market outcomes between different-sex (A) and same-sex (B) couples

	Labor Force Participation (men) (1)	Labor Force Participation (women) (2)	Hours Worked (men) (3)	Hours Worked (women) (4)	Unemployment (men) (5)	Unemployment (women) (6)
Panel A. Latin America						
D	0.005 (0.004)	0.237*** (0.004)	-1.647*** (0.266)	9.675*** (0.245)	0.016*** (0.004)	0.022*** (0.004)
D0	-0.046*** (0.004)	0.145*** (0.005)	-4.138*** (0.291)	6.289*** (0.256)	0.025*** (0.004)	0.003 (0.005)
DX	0.018*** (0.002)	0.027*** (0.003)	0.407*** (0.128)	0.895*** (0.130)	-0.003* (0.001)	0.009*** (0.002)
DA	0.034*** (0.002)	0.065*** (0.002)	2.144*** (0.098)	2.543*** (0.089)	-0.007*** (0.001)	0.008*** (0.001)
DB	-0.001 (0.001)	-0.000 (0.001)	-0.060 (0.048)	-0.052 (0.035)	0.000 (0.001)	0.001 (0.001)
Observations (same-sex couples)	4,984	6,670	4,984	6,670	4,522	5,878
Observations	1,250,226	1,251,912	1,250,226	1,251,912	1,127,645	808,106
Panel B. Europe						
D	-0.001 (0.003)	0.098*** (0.004)	-1.789*** (0.175)	7.322*** (0.193)	0.005** (0.002)	-0.004 (0.002)
D0	-0.023*** (0.003)	0.048*** (0.004)	-2.683*** (0.176)	4.323*** (0.194)	0.007*** (0.002)	-0.005* (0.003)
DX	0.022*** (0.002)	0.010*** (0.002)	0.589*** (0.103)	1.903*** (0.113)	0.008*** (0.001)	0.012*** (0.001)
DA	-0.000 (0.001)	0.041*** (0.001)	0.323*** (0.067)	1.159*** (0.069)	-0.010*** (0.000)	-0.011*** (0.000)
DB	-0.001 (0.000)	-0.001** (0.001)	-0.018 (0.022)	-0.063** (0.026)	0.000 (0.000)	0.001 (0.000)
Observations (same-sex couples)	9,758	7,352	9,758	7,352	8,698	6,448
Observations	764,144	761,738	764,144	761,738	681,769	594,304
Panel C. U.S.						
D	-0.028*** (0.002)	0.125*** (0.002)	-2.800*** (0.091)	7.179*** (0.093)	0.010*** (0.001)	-0.001 (0.001)
D0	-0.044*** (0.002)	0.083*** (0.002)	-3.474*** (0.095)	5.046*** (0.093)	0.010*** (0.001)	-0.001 (0.001)
DX	0.022*** (0.001)	0.030*** (0.001)	0.924*** (0.035)	1.530*** (0.040)	-0.000 (0.000)	0.001*** (0.000)
DA	-0.006*** (0.001)	0.013*** (0.000)	-0.237*** (0.026)	0.646*** (0.022)	-0.000 (0.000)	-0.001*** (0.000)
DB	-0.000 (0.000)	-0.001*** (0.000)	-0.013 (0.010)	-0.042*** (0.013)	0.000 (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)
Observations (same-sex couples)	34,028	33,704	34,028	33,704	29,864	29,187
Observations	1,846,877	1,846,553	1,846,877	1,846,553	1,672,157	1,372,322
Year	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Age & Education	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Region	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table shows the no-po decomposition of gaps in the labor supply, hours worked, and unemployment between different-sex (DSC) and same-sex couples (SSC). $D = D0 + DX + DA + DB$, where D – total gap, $D0$ – unexplained gap component, DX – gap component explained by the observable characteristics in the matched populations of DSC and SSC, DA and DB – gap components attributed to DSC (SSC, respectively) populations without a match. Individuals are matched by region, parenthood status, education, and year, using exact matching. Standard errors are determined by bootstrap (with 1000 repetitions).

* $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Appendix C Selection into Marriage

This section describes the selection into marriage. Unfortunately, data on the civil status are not available in Brazil. Hence, all Latin American results shown in this section are based on the data from Uruguay only. Same-sex couples are significantly less likely to be formally married than different-sex couples (Table C.1). In the U.S., over 86 percent of different-sex couples are married, compared to only 52 percent of men and 57 percent of women in same-sex couples. In Europe, 74 percent of different-sex couples are married, compared to just 40 percent of men and 49 percent of women in same-sex couples. Latin America has the lowest rates of marriage, at 61 percent for different-sex couples, 37 percent for men in same-sex couples, and 32 percent for women in same-sex couples.

The patterns of selection into marriage are similar for different-sex and same-sex couples. Married couples are older than cohabiting couples. In Latin America and the U.S., there is a positive selection into marriage based on education, although the selection on education is somewhat weaker for same-sex couples.

The differences in selection into parenthood are driven almost entirely by unmarried couples (Tables C.3-C.4). Overall, unmarried same-sex couples are much less likely to be parents than their married counterparts. This observation underscores that parenthood largely coincides with marriage, even among same-sex couples. However, we do not see a clear pattern of educational selection into parenthood for married couples (Table C.3). Conversely, unmarried childless couples are much more likely to be tertiary educated than unmarried parents, and this difference is much larger for same-sex couples than for different-sex couples (Table C.3).

Table C.1: Selection into marriage

	DSC		SSC Men		SSC Women	
	Married	Cohabiting	Married	Cohabiting	Married	Cohabiting
Panel A. Latin America (excl. Brazil)						
Primary Education	20.42%	23.42%	14.36%	11.00%	6.63%	11.03%
Secondary Education	54.79%	60.67%	52.10%	51.37%	57.00%	60.90%
Tertiary Education	24.79%	15.91%	33.55%	37.62%	36.37%	28.08%
Age	46.83	38.07	42.86	38.50	38.53	36.02
Observations	101,830	64,078	222	370	136	296
Share	61.33%	38.67%	37.46%	62.54%	31.62%	68.38%
Panel B. Europe						
Primary Education	19.77%	16.95%	13.68%	10.53%	11.69%	10.07%
Secondary Education	40.46%	42.61%	34.27%	32.07%	33.73%	37.30%
Tertiary Education	39.77%	40.45%	52.05%	57.40%	54.57%	52.63%
Age	46.32	37.43	46.19	37.74	43.30	38.36
Observations	816,870	293,302	3,540	4,684	2,830	3,252
Share	73.74%	26.26%	39.90%	60.10%	48.42%	51.58%
Panel C. U.S.						
Primary Education	6.10%	8.58%	2.35%	2.60%	2.85%	3.05%
Secondary Education	49.72%	61.84%	43.01%	47.37%	46.61%	54.65%
Tertiary Education	44.18%	29.58%	54.64%	50.03%	50.54%	42.30%
Age	45.07	36.64	44.92	40.02	43.53	38.43
Observations	2,549,908	351,884	14,932	12,844	15,840	11,534
Share	86.40%	13.60%	52.49%	47.51%	56.57%	43.43%

Note: Table shows weighted averages of educational attainment and age by individuals' marital status and couple type. DSC denotes different-sex couples, SSC Men denotes men in same-sex couples, SSC Women denotes women in same-sex couples. Information on marital status is unavailable in the data for Brazil. Hence, Panel A shows the results for Uruguay only.

Table C.2: Selection into parenthood, excluding Brazil

	DSC		SSC Men		SSC Women	
	Parents	Childless	Parents	Childless	Parents	Childless
	Panel A. Latin America (excl. Brazil)					
Primary Education	21.14%	22.11%	22.82%	10.25%	14.25%	7.75%
Secondary Education	58.08%	55.84%	56.40%	50.74%	63.44%	58.12%
Tertiary Education	20.79%	22.05%	20.78%	39.02%	22.30%	34.13%
Age	39.24	48.52	40.91	39.99	35.75	37.25
Observations	90,860	75,048	96	496	126	306
Share	54.72%	45.28%	16.01%	83.99%	29.00%	71.00%
	Panel B. Europe					
Primary Education	17.29%	18.42%	15.04%	11.02%	11.00%	10.32%
Secondary Education	41.09%	46.41%	37.59%	35.03%	33.38%	39.48%
Tertiary Education	41.62%	35.18%	47.37%	53.95%	55.62%	50.21%
Age	39.36	48.03	40.40	41.27	39.30	41.12
Observations	654,730	854,042	556	9,202	1,776	5,576
Share	44.86%	55.14%	3.95%	96.05%	23.11%	76.89%
	Panel C. U.S.					
Primary Education	8.22%	5.10%	7.22%	1.90%	4.70%	2.17%
Secondary Education	48.97%	54.15%	46.73%	45.10%	53.41%	49.07%
Tertiary Education	42.81%	40.76%	46.05%	53.00%	41.89%	48.76%
Age	39.53	47.92	41.03	42.98	38.80	42.39
Observations	1,628,638	1,997,060	2,872	31,156	8,142	25,562
Share	47.68%	52.32%	9.56%	90.44%	26.35%	73.65%

Note: Table shows the averages of individual characteristics by individuals' parental status and couple type. Parenthood is defined as the presence of an individual aged 0-14 within a household. This table includes results without Brazil, as in the next tables, we analyze selection into parenthood by marital status and that variable is unavailable in data for Brazil.

Table C.3: Selection into parenthood, married couples

	DSC		SSC Men		SSC Women	
	Parents	Childless	Parents	Childless	Parents	Childless
	Panel A. Latin America (excl. Brazil)					
Primary Education	18.26%	22.48%	19.80%	12.81%	2.26%	8.88%
Secondary Education	54.34%	55.22%	50.06%	52.67%	56.13%	57.45%
Tertiary Education	27.40%	22.31%	30.13%	34.52%	41.61%	33.67%
Age	41.74	51.68	42.85	42.86	35.94	39.87
Observations	49,774	52,056	50	172	46	90
Share	48.82%	51.18%	22.10%	77.90%	33.96%	66.04%
	Panel B. Europe					
Primary Education	16.82%	20.15%	11.02%	12.95%	9.14%	12.20%
Secondary Education	39.73%	46.92%	37.20%	36.09%	29.69%	37.92%
Tertiary Education	43.44%	32.93%	51.78%	50.96%	61.17%	49.88%
Age	40.19	51.65	42.15	46.34	39.82	44.93
Observations	497,474	642,554	356	3,884	1,068	2,336
Share	46.06%	53.94%	5.94%	94.06%	31.64%	68.36%
	Panel C. U.S.					
Primary Education	7.41%	5.06%	5.19%	1.85%	4.18%	2.10%
Secondary Education	46.36%	53.60%	42.34%	43.15%	46.50%	46.33%
Tertiary Education	46.23%	41.34%	52.47%	55.00%	49.32%	51.57%
Age	40.09	49.86	42.27	45.58	39.63	45.34
Observations	1,478,002	1,711,890	2,136	15,570	5,292	13,662
Share	49.09%	50.91%	13.33%	86.67%	30.35%	69.65%

Note: Table shows the averages of individual characteristics by married individuals' parental status and couple type. Parenthood is defined as the presence of an individual aged 0-14 within a household. Marital status is unavailable in data for Brazil. Hence, we do not show the results for Brazil.

Table C.4: Selection into parenthood, unmarried couples

	DSC		SSC Men		SSC Women	
	Parents	Childless	Parents	Childless	Parents	Childless
	Panel A. Latin America (excl. Brazil)					
Primary Education	24.62%	21.27%	26.06%	8.88%	21.31%	7.28%
Secondary Education	62.59%	57.25%	63.19%	49.71%	67.75%	58.40%
Tertiary Education	12.79%	21.48%	10.75%	41.41%	10.94%	34.32%
Age	36.22	41.36	38.83	38.46	35.64	36.15
Observations	41,086	22,992	46	324	80	216
Share	64.08%	35.92%	12.36%	87.64%	26.70%	73.30%
	Panel B. Europe					
Primary Education	18.86%	13.59%	21.28%	9.75%	14.56%	8.92%
Secondary Education	45.67%	44.98%	38.19%	34.34%	40.44%	40.64%
Tertiary Education	35.47%	41.43%	40.52%	55.91%	45.00%	50.45%
Age	36.55	37.95	37.68	37.94	38.31	38.28
Observations	157,254	211,474	200	5,318	708	3,240
Share	41.23%	58.77%	2.60%	97.40%	15.25%	84.75%
	Panel C. U.S.					
Primary Education	14.78%	5.31%	12.11%	1.95%	5.59%	2.25%
Secondary Education	70.17%	57.04%	57.37%	46.94%	65.21%	52.00%
Tertiary Education	15.05%	37.65%	30.52%	51.11%	29.21%	45.75%
Age	35.02	37.61	38.02	40.52	37.38	39.22
Observations	150,636	285,170	736	15,586	2,850	11,900
Share	38.65%	61.35%	5.67%	94.33%	21.50%	78.50%

Note: Table shows the averages of individual characteristics by unmarried individuals' parental status and couple type. Parenthood is defined as the presence of an individual aged 0-14 within a household. Marital status is unavailable in data for Brazil. Hence, we do not show the results for Brazil.

Appendix D Data Appendix

Table D.1: Variable descriptions

Variable	Description
<i>Household Level Variables</i>	
Different-sex couple	dummy variable, 1: household head is of a different sex than the household head's partner, 0: household head is of the same sex as the household head's partner
Same-sex couple: men	dummy variable, 1: household head is a man and his partner is a man as well, 0: household head is a woman or the household head's partner is a woman
Same-sex couple: women	dummy variable, 1: household head is a woman and her partner is a woman as well, 0: household head is a man or the household head's partner is a man
Labor Force Participation	dummy variable, 1: both partners work or actively seek employment, 0: at least one partner neither works nor seeks employment
Hours Worked	total number of usual hours worked per week by both partners
Hours Worked by secondary worker	the within-couple minimum usual hours worked per week by a partner divided by the sum of usual hours worked per week by both partners.
Children	dummy variable, 1: household members include at least one individual aged 0-14, 0: household members include no individuals aged 0-14.
Married	dummy variable, 1: both partners are married, 0: at least one partner is unmarried.
Cohabiting	dummy variable, 1: at least one partner is unmarried, 0: both partners are married.
Region FE	dummy variables for states in Brazil and the U.S., departments in Uruguay, and NUTS-2 level regions in Europe.
<i>Individual Level Variables</i>	
Unemployment	dummy variable, 1: individual does not work and actively seeks employment, 0: individual works.
Labor Force Participation, individual	dummy variable, 1: works or actively seeks employment, 0: neither works nor seeks employment
Hours Worked, individual	number of usual hours worked per week
Self-employment	dummy variable, 1: individual is self-employed, 0: individual is an employee.
Age	age in years; continuous in the U.S. and Latin America, five-year age groups in Europe (we assign the midpoint of the interval to each individual within a particular age group)
Primary Education	dummy variable, 1: the highest level of education that a person has successfully completed: lower secondary education, elementary education or no education
Secondary Education	dummy variable, 1: the highest level of education that a person has successfully completed: upper secondary education (general or vocational)
Tertiary Education	dummy variable, 1: the highest level of education that a person has successfully completed: college degree

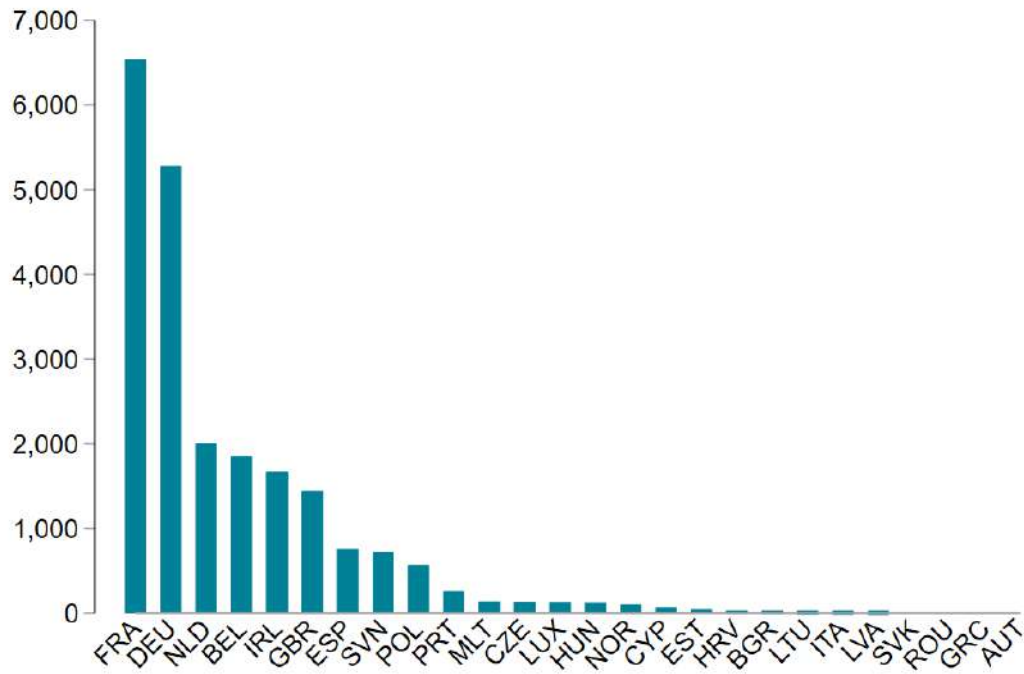
Note: Table presents the description of the variables used in the analysis.

Table D.2: Countries initially taken into consideration and data availability

Country	Largest Household Survey	Access	Legalization Year
Argentina	Encuesta Permanente de Hogares (EPH)	✓	2010
Australia	Labour Force Survey	✗	2017
Belgium	European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)	✓	2003
Brazil	Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicílios (PNAD)	✓	2011-2013
Canada	Labour Force Survey	✗	2003-2005
Colombia	Gran Encuesta Integrada de Hogares (GEIH)	✓	2016
Denmark	European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)	✓	2012
Finland	European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)	✓	2017
France	European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)	✓	2013
Germany	European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)	✓	2017
Iceland	European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)	✓	2010
Ireland	European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)	✓	2015
Luxembourg	European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)	✓	2015
Malta	European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)	✓	2017
Mexico	Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo (ENOE)	✓	2010-2022
Netherlands	European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)	✓	2001
New Zealand	Integrated Data Infrastructure	✗	2013
Norway	European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)	✓	2009
Portugal	European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)	✓	2010
South Africa	Quarterly Labour Force Survey	✓	2006
Spain	European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)	✓	2005
Sweden	European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)	✓	2009
United Kingdom	European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)	✓	2013-2020
United States	American Community Survey (ACS)	✓	2004-2015
Uruguay	Encuesta Continua de Hogares (ECH)	✓	2013

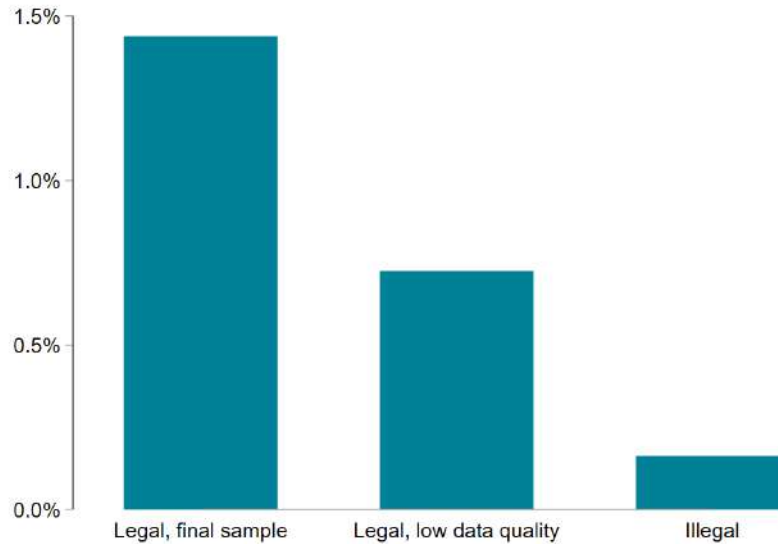
Note: Table presents the list of countries that had legalized same-sex marriage by the end of 2017. In the second column, we show the data availability. The third column shows the year of legalization. In several federal states, same-sex marriage has been gradually legalized at the state level. In Mexico and the United Kingdom, we include only those states that had introduced same-sex marriage by the end of 2017. Mexico: Baja California, Campeche, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Colima, Jalisco, Mexico City, Michoacán, Morelos, Nayarit, and Quintana Roo; United Kingdom: England, Scotland, and Wales.

Figure D.1: Number of survey respondents in same-sex couples in European countries



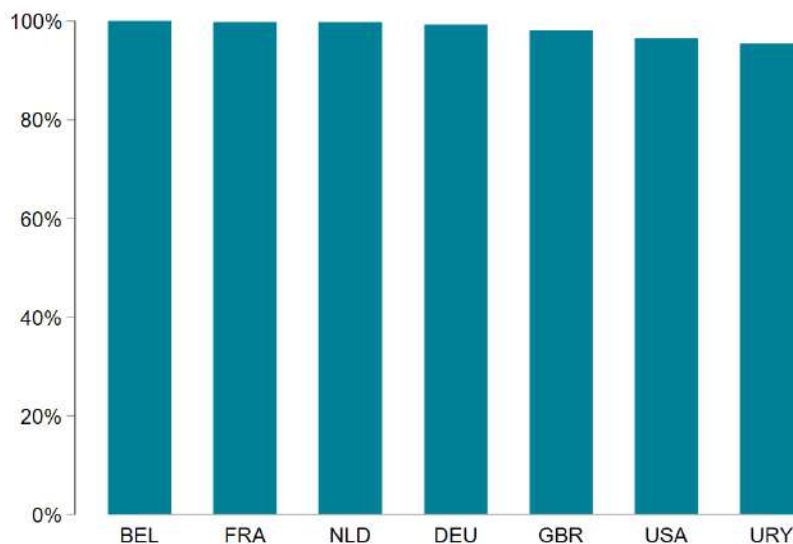
Note: Figure shows the number of respondents in same-sex couples in EU countries. Calculation includes household heads and their partners, aged 20-64, living in urban areas, 2015-2019 sum. Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Sweden, and Switzerland are not included as the EU LFS data have no variable describing the relationship of individuals to the household head.

Figure D.2: Number of individuals in same-sex couples as % of all partnered individuals by the legal status of same-sex marriage, Europe



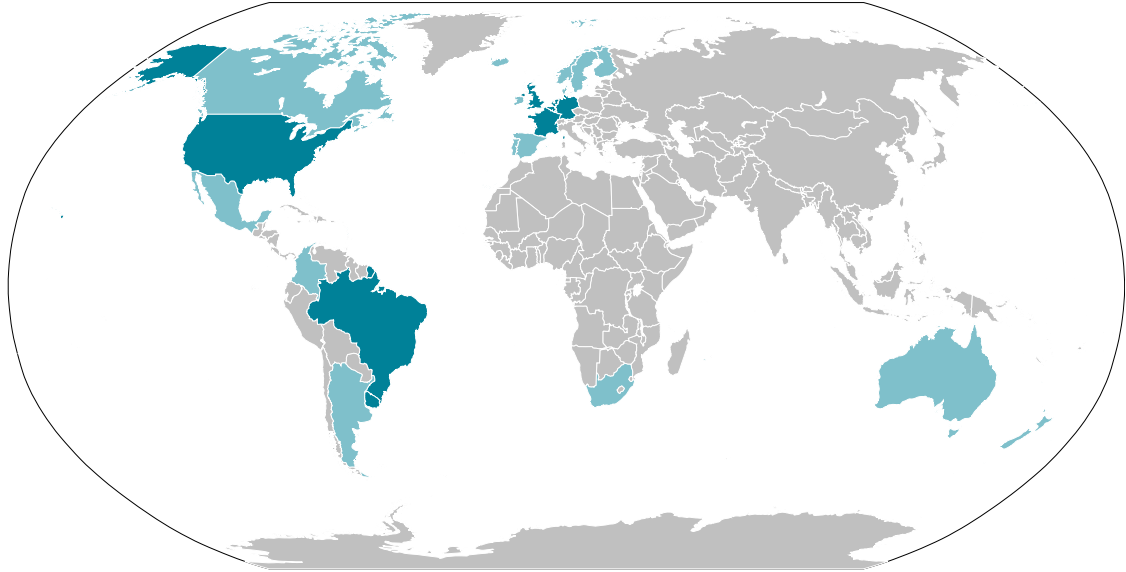
Note: Figure shows the number of individuals in same-sex couples divided by the number of all partnered individuals. **Legal, final sample** includes five countries that had legalized same-sex marriage by 2017 and that passed our data quality checks: Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands, and the UK. **Legal, low data quality** includes the rest of the EU countries that had legalized same-sex marriage by 2017: Ireland, Luxembourg, Malta, Norway, Portugal, and Spain. **Illegal** includes countries that had not legalized same-sex marriage by the end of 2017. See Figure D.1 for the list of countries included in the analysis.

Figure D.3: Number of household head couples as % of all couples.



Note: Figure shows the number of couples in which one of the partners is the household head divided by the number of all couples.

Figure D.4: Countries that had legalized same-sex marriage by the end of 2017



Note: Map shows countries that had legalized same-sex marriage by the end of 2017 (all colored). Countries in dark blue are included in the final analysis.

Data quality checks

Same-sex couples are a small minority. This creates two major data challenges. First, this may lead to a very small number of observations in survey data in some countries. As a consequence, survey data may be not representative of the population of same-sex couples in these countries. Second, our couple type variable may suffer from measurement error: even a small rate of coding error in sex variable could severely bias our results, since misclassified different-sex couples would make up a large share of same-sex couples. Therefore, we perform three data quality checks described below. Table D.3 presents the summary of data quality checks.

In data quality checks, we need to impose universal thresholds for evaluated statistics, and the choice of the levels of thresholds is arbitrary. Hence, for transparency, we provide detailed discussion for four countries that almost passed our data quality checks.

I. Sample size

We include countries with at least 1,000 respondents in same-sex couples in our dataset pooled over five years. This condition is not satisfied by small countries (Luxembourg, Malta, Norway), but also by two large countries: Portugal and Spain (Table D.4). This is primarily due to small sample sizes in these countries (e.g., population of France is larger than the population of Spain by approximately 40 percent, but its LFS survey has a sample size of 500,000 respondents per year, while the Spanish LFS has a sample size of 100,000 respondents per year).

II. Stability of demographic characteristics

We study the changes in the averages of demographic characteristics for same-sex couples over our five-year period to assess the representativeness of the data. It is unlikely that population averages of age and education binary variables among same-sex couples vary substantially from year to year. Hence, we would like our sample averages to be relatively stable as well. However, in some countries, we observe large changes in demographic characteristics (Figures D.5-D.7). We calculate maximum year-to-year absolute changes in averages divided by the standard deviation, and we include countries, where that ratio does not exceed 25 percent. Three countries fail to satisfy this condition: Argentina, Ireland, and Mexico. As a reference

point, in the United States, a country with the largest sample of same-sex couples, these ratios do not exceed 2 percent.

III. Working-age vs. old-age shares of all couples

It is impossible to directly assess the extent of the measurement error in the couple type variable. Studies in various countries consistently find that same-sex couples are substantially younger than different-sex couples (Fisher et al., 2018; Laurent & Mihoubi, 2017). Homosexual and bisexual identity is highest among young individuals (Bohr & Lengerer, 2024; Gallup Poll, 2022; Muñoz et al., 2024). We also see this pattern in three countries, where the relationship to the household head includes separate answers for same-sex and different-sex partners or spouses (Figure D.8).⁷ In most studied countries, the percentage of same-sex couples in all couples for working-age population is more than ten times higher than that for old-age population (Table D.6).

If a survey would suffer from a serious coding error in the sex variable, misclassified different-sex couples would constitute a large share of the sample of same-sex couples. This would in turn reduce the difference in the percentage of same-sex couples between working-age and old-age populations. We include countries, where the share of individuals in same-sex couples among individuals aged 65 or older does not exceed 75 percent of the share among individuals in same-sex couples aged 20-64. Only one country, Colombia, does not satisfy this condition.

We provide a detailed discussion of the data quality checks in four countries that have large samples but fail one of the two additional data checks.

Argentina

Argentina is removed from the sample because it recorded a large change in the share of tertiary educated individuals between 2015 and 2016 (Figure D.7). The ratio is equal to 0.27 so it only slightly exceeds the threshold. On the other hand, Argentina only barely passes the old-age population check, and it is the country with the highest percentage of same-sex couples in old-age population among studied countries. This suggests that the survey suffers both from instability of demographic characteristics and measurement error.

⁷Including separate answers for same-sex and different-sex partners is an effective way to reduce measurement error in survey questionnaires. However, we do not use this information in our main analysis, since separate answers are not available in all countries which would reduce the comparability of the results. Moreover, in the U.S., separate answers are available for married couples only.

Colombia

Colombia is removed from the sample because its percentage of same-sex couples among old-age population is very close to the percentage among working-age population, suggesting a large measurement error. Moreover, Colombia is the only country where the percentage of same-sex couples in all couples have declined over time, and it declined substantially (Figure D.9). We believe that this may indicate improvements in the accuracy of coding of the sex variable over time (the evolution of average age and the share of tertiary education is consistent with this view). However, in our study period, the measurement error is likely too large for a meaningful study.

Ireland

Ireland is removed from the sample because it recorded a large change in the average age between 2016 and 2017 (Figure D.5). It only nearly fails the data check (ratio is equal to 0.28). Moreover, we detect no further issues unlike in other removed countries. Nevertheless, we remove Ireland from the sample for consistency.

Mexico

Mexico is removed from the sample, as it failed the quality check regarding the stability of demographic characteristics. Figures D.5-D.7 clearly show that the data suffers from large year-to-year changes. For example, the share of tertiary education increases from 25 percent in 2018 to 50 percent in 2019. It is unlikely that it reflects changes in educational attainment in the population of same-sex couples. Unlike in Argentina and Colombia, we believe that the low quality of the data on same-sex couples is not due to measurement error but rather due to the interaction of the relatively small size of the LFS sample and a small population share of same-sex couples in Mexico.

Table D.3: Summary of data quality checks

Country	Data Available	Large Sample	Low Measurement Error	Stable Demographics	Final Sample
Argentina	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
Australia	✗				✗
Belgium	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Brazil	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Canada	✗				✗
Colombia	✓	✓	✗	✓	✗
Denmark	✗				✗
Finland	✗				✗
France	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Germany	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Iceland	✗				✗
Ireland	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗
Luxembourg	✓	✗			✗
Malta	✓	✗			✗
Mexico	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗
Netherlands	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
New Zeland	✗				✗
Norway	✓	✗			✗
Portugal	✓	✗			✗
South Africa	✓	✗			✗
Spain	✓	✗			✗
Sweden	✗				✗
United Kingdom	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
United States	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Uruguay	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Table presents the results of data quality checks for countries with same-sex marriage. The first column shows data availability. The second column indicates whether the number of individuals in same-sex couples exceeded 1,000 observations. The third column shows whether the share of same-sex couples among adults aged 65 or older was at least 25 percent smaller as that among prime-age adults (aged 20-64). The fourth column shows whether the maximum year-to-year difference in demographic characteristic averages was below 25 percent of the standard deviation. The fifth column indicates whether the country is included in the final analysis, which depends on whether all four conditions are satisfied.

Data sources: DANE, Eurostat, IBGE, INDEC, INE, IPUMS (Minnesota Population Center, 2020; Ruggles et al., 2024), Statistics South Africa.

Table D.4: Number of survey respondents in same-sex couples by country

Country	Observations
Argentina	3,446
Belgium	1,852
Brazil	10,630
Colombia	13,922
France	6,534
Germany	5,280
Ireland	1,664
Luxembourg	126
Malta	136
Mexico	1,096
Netherlands	2,006
Norway	98
Portugal	258
Spain	756
United Kingdom	1,438
United States	67,732
Uruguay	1,024

Note: Table shows the number of survey respondents in same-sex couples by country for all countries that had legalized same-sex marriage by 2017 and for which we had household data. See Table D.2 for the list of data sources.

Table D.5: Maximum year-to-year change in demographic characteristics of same-sex couples

Country	Age		Secondary Education		Tertiary Education	
	Max	Max % SD	Max	Max % SD	Max	Max % SD
Argentina	1.65	0.15	0.07	0.14	0.12	0.27
Belgium	1.62	0.14	0.09	0.19	0.10	0.20
Brazil	0.62	0.06	0.05	0.10	0.07	0.14
Colombia	1.68	0.14	0.05	0.11	0.07	0.14
France	1.44	0.13	0.05	0.10	0.09	0.18
Germany	0.98	0.09	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.04
Ireland	2.62	0.28	0.04	0.09	0.02	0.04
Mexico	2.55	0.28	0.21	0.47	0.25	0.50
Netherlands	1.48	0.13	0.03	0.06	0.05	0.10
United Kingdom	1.79	0.16	0.06	0.14	0.06	0.12
United States	0.54	0.05	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02
Uruguay	2.14	0.21	0.07	0.14	0.11	0.23

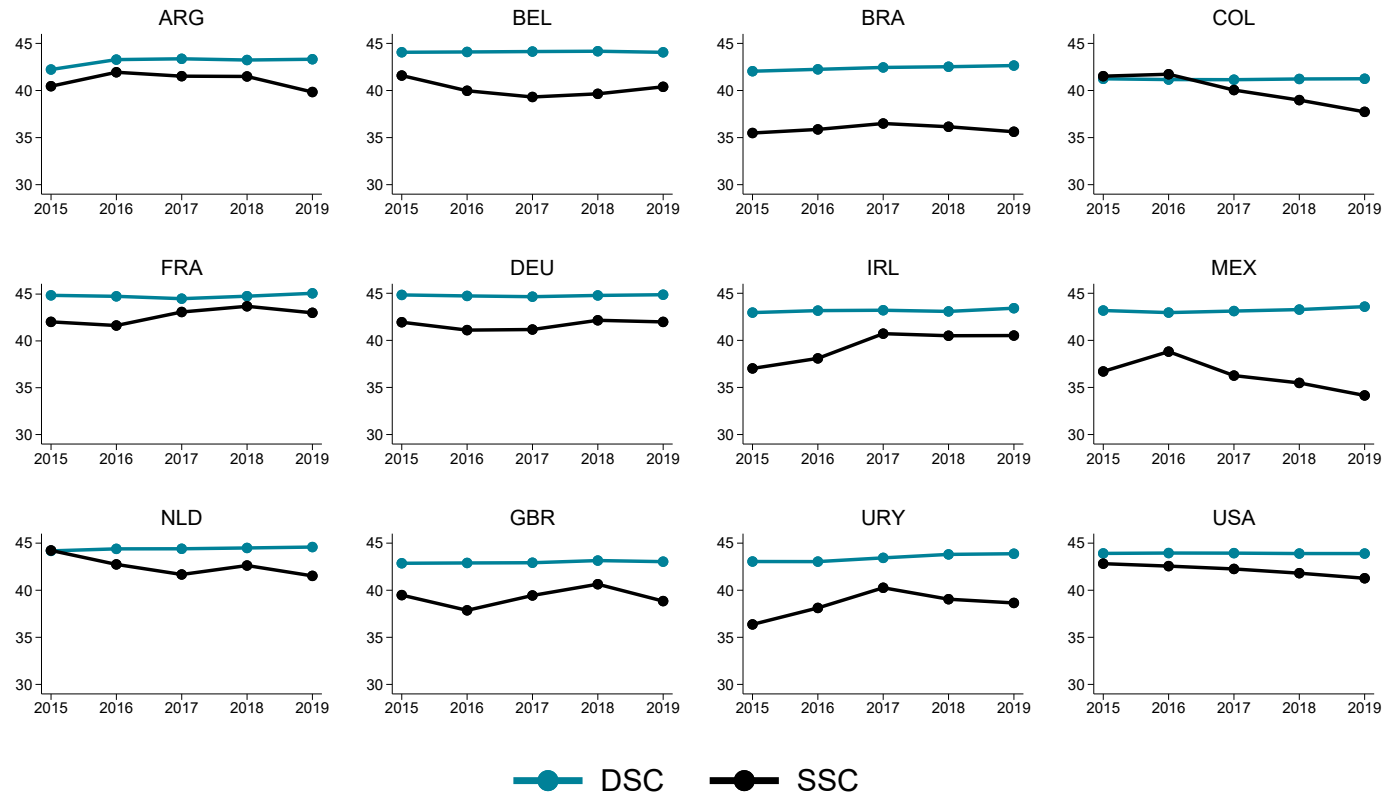
Note: Table summarizes the stability of the demographic characteristics of same-sex couples. The first column shows the maximum year to year absolute change in the average age that occurred in the period of our study (2015-2019). The second column shows the maximum absolute change divided by the standard deviation of age in the pooled sample. Columns 3 and 4 show the results for the share of the population with secondary education, while Columns 5 and 6 display the results for the share of the population with tertiary education.

Table D.6: Number of individuals in same-sex couples as % of all partnered individuals, by country and age

Country	Age: 20-64	Age: 65 and above
Argentina	1.49%	1.06%
Belgium	1.98%	0.22%
Brazil	0.50%	0.02%
Colombia	1.07%	0.83%
France	1.34%	0.08%
Germany	0.78%	0.04%
Ireland	1.34%	0.04%
Mexico	0.28%	0.01%
Netherlands	1.69%	0.17%
United Kingdom	1.41%	0.09%
United States	1.71%	0.84%
Uruguay	0.62%	0.11%

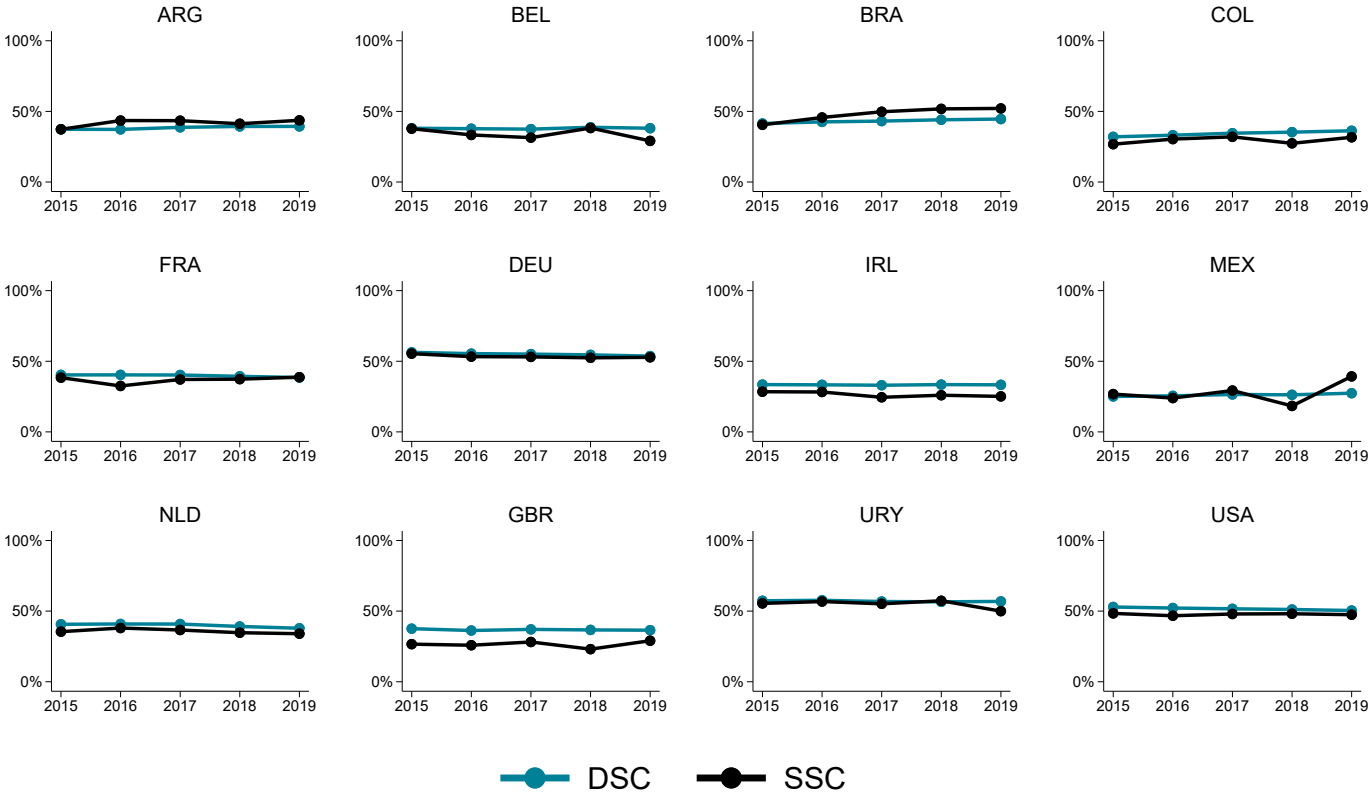
Note: Table summarizes our assessment of the coding error of gender with regard to couple status in household surveys. Columns "Age: 20-64" and "Age: 65 and above" present the number of individuals in same-sex couples divided by the number of all partnered individuals for respondents aged 20-64 and aged 65 or older, respectively.

Figure D.5: Average age by couple type, country, and year



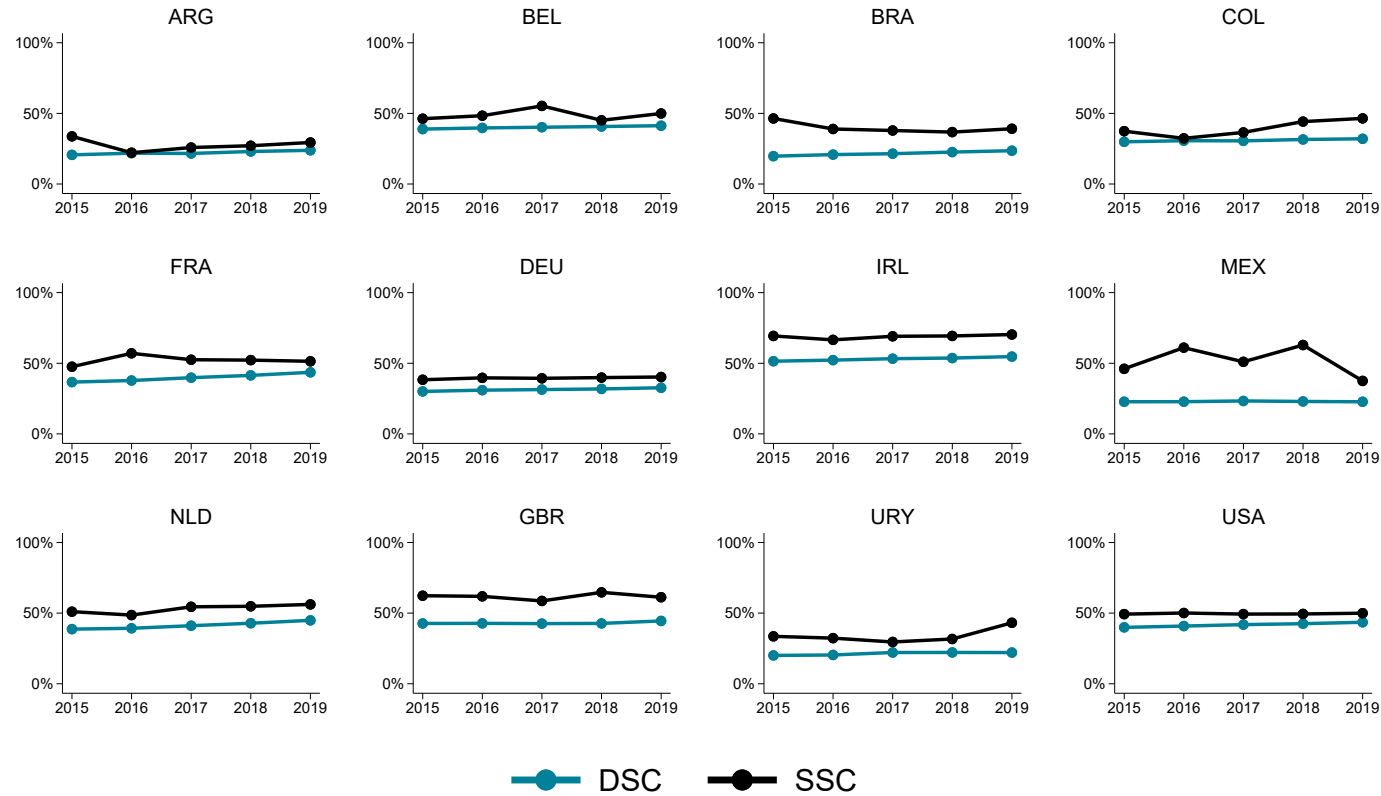
Note: Figure shows weighted average age by couple type, country, and year for countries with at least 1000 people in same-sex couples in 2015-2019.

Figure D.6: Share of people with secondary education by couple type, country, and year



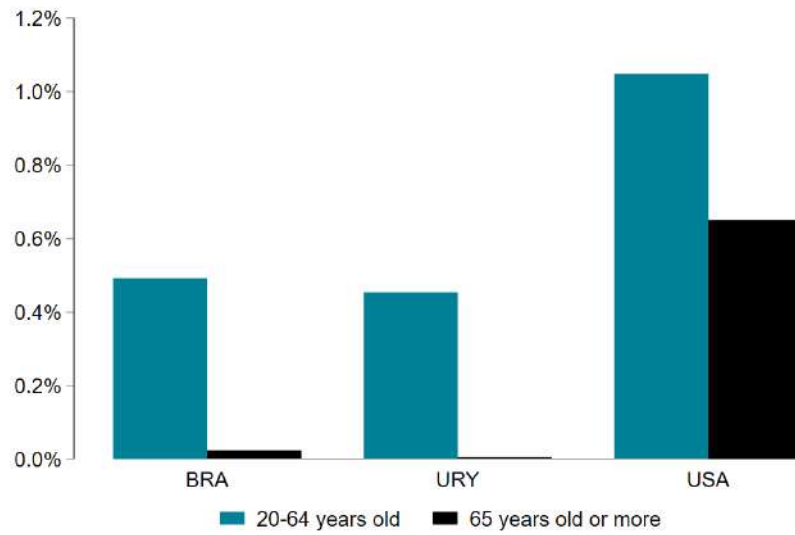
Note: Figure shows weighted share of people with secondary education (highest obtained) by couple type, country, and year for countries with at least 1000 people in same-sex couples in 2015-2019.

Figure D.7: Share of people with tertiary education by couple type, country, and year



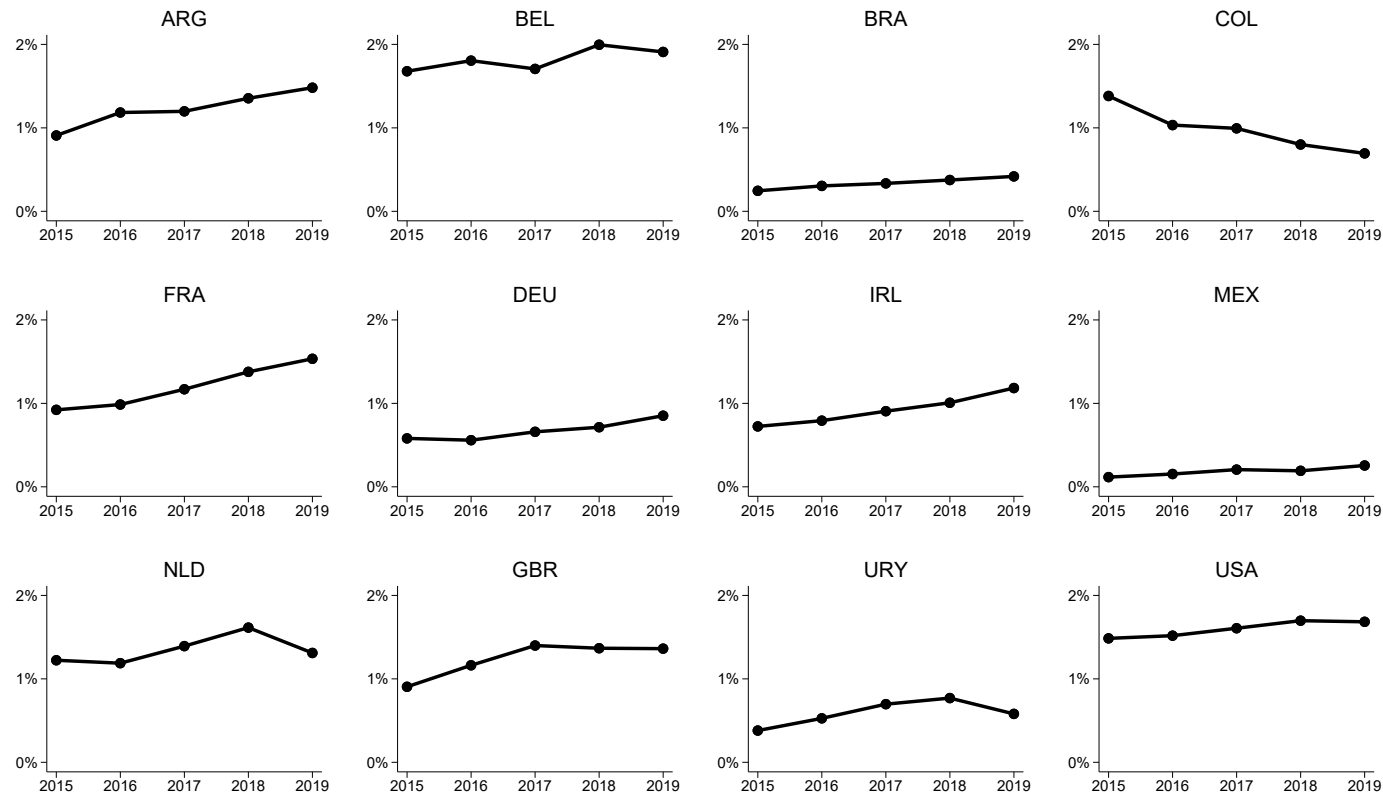
Note: Figure shows weighted share of people with tertiary education (highest obtained) by couple type, country, and year for countries with at least 1000 people in same-sex couples in 2015-2019.

Figure D.8: Directly identified same-sex couples as % of all couples by age group



Note: Figure shows the share of same-sex couples in all couples for the given age group. We include couples directly identified as a same-sex couples (based on a questionnaire that include questions that differentiate between same-sex relationships and different-sex relationships). In the U.S., the sample is limited to married couples. In Europe, it is impossible to directly identify same-sex couples. We exclude couples in which the partners belong to two different age groups.

Figure D.9: Share of same-sex couples in all couples by country and year



Note: Figure shows weighted share of same-sex couples in all couples by country and year for countries with at least 1000 people in same-sex couples in 2015-2019.

Occupational segregation

Information about the occupation in the previous workplace for non-employed individuals is available only in the EU LFS. This information is not available in the data for Latin America (Brazil and Uruguay) or for the U.S. Hence, we calculate the occupation-specific unemployment rates using the European data. Unemployment rate in occupation o , $UnempRisk_o^{EU}$, is equal to the number of unemployed individuals who were employed in the occupation o in their last workplace divided by the sum of unemployed and employed individuals in the occupation o .

We calculate occupation-specific risks for three-digit occupational groups according to the ISCO-08 classification⁸. In addition to the EU-LFS, surveys in Brazil and Uruguay also use harmonized ISCO codes. Hence, we can assign occupation-related codes directly to individuals in the Latin American sample.

Unfortunately, the U.S. ACS data do not provide information on the occupation according to the ISCO classification. Instead, the ACS uses the SOC classification for the occupation variable. There exists no direct crosswalk between the ISCO and the SOC classifications. We therefore rely on a one-to-many crosswalk between the ISCO and the SOC classifications (Hardy et al., 2018). This means that a given SOC code may be mapped to more than one ISCO code. In such cases, we assign the simple average of occupation-related unemployment rates for mapped ISCO codes to the individuals with a given SOC code.

We calculate the unemployment rates and the predicted unemployment rates for 24 demographic groups in each world region (groups defined by sex, 10-year age groups, and education) to assess the prediction power of EU-based measures of occupation-specific unemployment risk. Figure D.10 shows that there is a significant positive relationship between the predicted and the actual unemployment rates in all world regions. The relationship is strongest in the U.S., where more than 50 percent of variation in unemployment rates across demographic groups is explained by the between-occupation differences in unemployment rates (assigned using the EU-LFS data). The relationship between the two variables is weakest in Latin America, but it is also clearly positive.

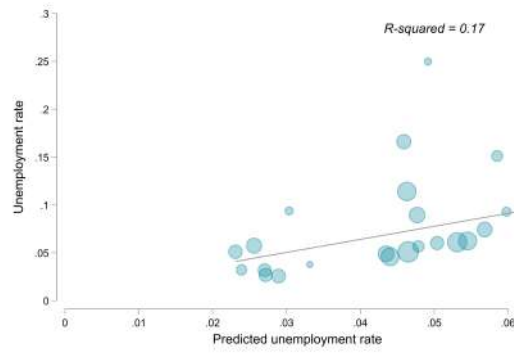
⁸See <https://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco/isco08/>

Additionally, we show the extent of occupational sorting measured by Duncan's dissimilarity index. For comparison, we also show the levels of occupational segregation by gender. While the levels of occupational segregation by gender are quite similar in all three world regions, we see large variation in occupational segregation by relationship type among men. Occupational segregation is highest in Latin America, where the levels of occupational segregation by relationship type are comparable to the levels of occupational segregation by gender. In Europe and the U.S., the levels of occupational segregation by relationship type are equal to approximately 70 percent of the levels of occupational segregation by gender. The levels of occupational segregation by relationship type are much lower for women than for men, as they are equal to approximately 40 percent of occupational segregation by gender in all world regions.

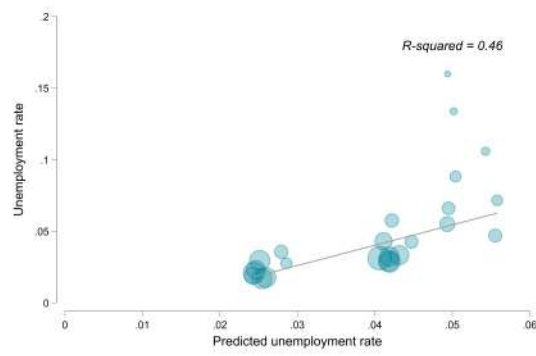
Finally, we can compare the levels of occupational segregation by gender for two subsamples: different-sex couples and same-sex couples. The levels of occupational segregation by gender are twice as high among different-sex couples as among same-sex couples.

Figure D.10: Unemployment rate and predicted unemployment rate

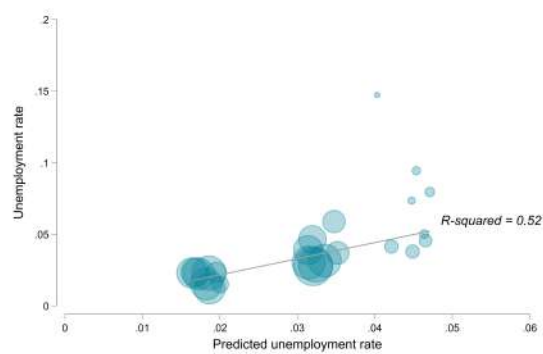
(a) Latin America



(b) Europe



(c) U.S.



Note: Figure shows the relationship between the unemployment rate predicted by occupational risk (horizontal axis) and the actual unemployment rates (vertical axis) for demographic groups. Demographic groups are defined by sex, age group, and education. The size of the marker corresponds to the demographic group's population share.

Table D.7: Occupational segregation by relationship type

	Latin America	Europe	U.S.
Occupational segregation by gender	0.560	0.484	0.500
Occupational segregation by relationship type: men	0.492	0.347	0.330
Occupational segregation by relationship type: women	0.237	0.221	0.202

Note: Table shows occupational segregation by relationship type for men and women. There are two types of the relationship: different-sex relationship and same-sex relationship. For comparison, occupational segregation by gender is shown. The segregation is measured by Duncan's dissimilarity index.

Table D.8: Occupational segregation by gender: different-sex couples vs. same-sex couples

	Latin America	Europe	U.S.
Occupational segregation by gender: different-sex couples	0.558	0.492	0.509
Occupational segregation by gender: same-sex couples	0.313	0.234	0.234

Note: Table shows occupational segregation by gender for different-sex couples and same-sex couples. For comparison, occupational segregation by gender is shown. The segregation is measured by Duncan's dissimilarity index.