

# The Effect of Children's Time in School on Mothers' Labor Supply: Evidence from Mexico's Full-Time Schools Program

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September 2018

**WORKING PAPER #2018-04**

WORKING PAPER SERIES  
DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS  
HASLAM COLLEGE OF BUSINESS  
<http://econ.bus.utk.edu>



The Effect of Children's Time in School on Mothers' Labor Supply:  
Evidence from Mexico's Full-Time Schools Program\*

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**Abstract**

This paper examines the effect of the time children spend in school on female labor supply. In particular, we investigate the degree to which extending the school day by three and a half hours, in elementary schools, affects labor force participation, the number of weekly hours worked, and the monthly earnings of females with elementary-school-age children. To do so, we exploit within-individual variation in access to full-time schools and a rotating panel of households that contains individual-level data on labor outcomes and sociodemographic characteristics. Results from long-difference models show that extending the school day increases mothers' labor supply, increasing mothers' labor force participation by 5.5 percentage points and the number of weekly hours worked by 1.8. Moreover, these increases are accompanied by an increase in monthly earnings.

Keywords: Female labor; Education; Childcare; Childrearing

*JEL* classification: I25, J13, J22.

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# 1 Introduction

Despite the growth in female labor force participation (LFP) in recent decades, female participation rates have remained lower than their male counterpart. Moreover, this gap is especially large in the developing world, where traditional gender roles assign women the primary responsibility of childrearing. As a result, women's labor supply in developing countries heavily depends on their fertility decisions, and specifically, on how much they are time- and budget- constrained due to childrearing and the alternative costs of childcare institutions. Thus, the availability and affordability of childcare centers are important for women to increase their labor market participation while their children are still growing up.<sup>1</sup>

Studies of the US have proposed that the absence of family-friendly policies, including parental leave and part-time work entitlements, explains 28-29 percent of the decrease in female labor force participation in the US, relative to other OECD countries, over the period from 1990 to 2010 ([Blau and Kahn, 2013](#)). Different governments around the globe have responded to the low female participation rates in the labor market with a variety of policies such as tax reliefs, child benefits, paid leaves and childcare subsidies. As different countries continue to consider these types of policies, it remains important to understand their costs and benefits. To this end, this paper studies the effect of an implicitly large childcare subsidy, through longer school-days in primary education, on mothers' labor supply.

When the public provision of regulated childcare institutions is low or absent, mothers' chances to participate in the labor market may decrease depending on the supply and qual-

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<sup>1</sup>For a discussion of such influences on female labor participation in the context of the countries in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), see [Jaumotte \(2003\)](#).

ity of the available alternatives for childcare. The option to take care of their children may range from a costly private institution with an uncertain quality to non-professional options, such as family members, close friends, and untrained babysitters (Bernal and Keane, 2011; Schady et al., 2015). In such contexts, Full-Time School (FTS) programs work as a childcare alternative provided by trained caregivers (i.e. teachers) in a controlled environment. Consequently, FTS programs have the potential to positively affect children’s outcomes along with mothers’ labor force participation (LFP).<sup>2</sup>

To provide evidence on the effects of extending the school-day in primary education on mothers’ labor supply, we take advantage of a natural experiment in Mexico where the government implemented a FTS program that extended the school-day from four and a half to eight hours in elementary schools (1st-6th grades) all over the country between 2007 and 2016. Our empirical strategy exploits within-individual variation in exposure to full-time schools—defined as the predicted share of FTS seats in a municipality—to estimate the effects on female labor force participation, the number of weekly hours worked, and the monthly earnings.

We use twelve years of data collected in the National Employment and Occupation Survey in Mexico (ENOE, for its abbreviation in Spanish). ENOE is a rotating panel of households that contains information on mothers’ labor force participation, number of weekly hours worked, earnings, and sociodemographic characteristics that allow us to identify the cumula-

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<sup>2</sup>However, despite the evidence showing that FTS programs can improve children’s academic performance (Bellei, 2009; Cabrera-Hernandez, 2015; Padilla-Romo, 2015), reduce high school dropout rates (Pires and Urzua, 2010), and reduce the probability of teenage pregnancy (Kruger and Berthelon, 2009), it is an open question whether other outcomes are affected favorable or unfavorable. Perhaps, longer days at school are detrimental to children’s behavior, emotional attachment to family or other psychological factors not observed in the data (see Kottelenberg and Lehrer, 2017, for a discussion).

tive effects of longer school days on mothers' labor supply, to identify heterogeneous effects by education level, by poverty level of the locality of residence, and by child's gender, and to provide evidence that the effects are not driven by changes in the propensity to participate in the labor force in municipalities with full-time schools.

The existing literature has focused on evaluating the impact of childcare institutions for preschool-age children (3 to 5 years old) in developed countries, showing some positive effects on mothers' labor supply.<sup>3</sup> However, the differences between richer and poorer countries in labor institutions and trends in female labor supply reduce the scope of such evidence to guide policies in developing countries where, additionally, mothers' low LFP is commonly attributed to cultural factors besides economic conditions.

Evidence for developing countries is scarce but shows a higher likelihood of mothers' employment after increases in childcare supply. [Berlinski and Galiani \(2007\)](#) estimate the effects of an 18 percent increase in preschool availability between 1994 and 2000 in Argentina and find that the likelihood of maternal employment increased between 6 and 16 percentage points depending on the model specification. Similarly, in the case of Mexico, [Ángeles et al. \(2011\)](#) use a time discontinuity in children's eligibility to *Estancias Infantiles*, a public childcare program for 265,415 preschool-age children (0-4 years old) all over the country and find an increase of 18 percent in mothers' probability of employment and an average effect of six more hours worked per week.

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<sup>3</sup>General results of free preschools on female LFP in the US and Canada show no impact for single mothers with younger children and positive effects on married mothers, both at the intensive and extensive margins ([Gelbach, 2002](#); [Baker et al., 2008](#)). Similarly, smaller but significant effects were found for childcare subsidies on mothers' labor supply in countries such as Belgium, France and the Netherlands, while no effects were found for Norway ([Dujardin et al., 2015](#); [Givord and Marbot, 2015](#); [Bettendorf et al., 2015](#); [Havnes and Mogstad, 2011](#)).

Few studies have focused on children aged 6 years and older who are still in need of parents' care. Even less so in developing countries.<sup>4</sup> This is an important omission because many children in developing countries are in school for only a few hours a day (typically 4 or 5 hours), which means they spend more time at home, potentially reducing mothers' availability for paid work. In this regard, [Contreras et al. \(2010\)](#) use repeated cross-sections from the Chilean socioeconomic household survey from 1990 to 2006 to offer evidence of a FTS Program that added 1.5 hours to high-school days. The authors estimate an average gain on single mothers' labor force participation of 5 percentage points (equivalent to 6 percent of the baseline) and they find no effect for married mothers. [Berthelon et al. \(2015\)](#) use a panel of 3,350 women from 2004 to 2009 to offer evidence of a more permanent effect on female participation, as the probability of staying more than six months in the labor market increases by 19 percentage points when FTS availability increases 45 percentage points. To the best of our knowledge, these studies are the only available on the relation between "childcare" for older pupils and female LFP in a developing country.

By focusing on the Mexican context, we contribute to the existing knowledge on the relationship between longer school days and mothers' labor supply in developing countries. Our work complements the evidence presented in [Contreras et al. \(2010\)](#) and [Berthelon et al. \(2015\)](#) by analyzing the effect of a sharp and larger increase in the time spent in elementary schools rather than in high-schools. This is important because younger children demand more parental care than older pupils. Furthermore, this work differentiates from previous

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<sup>4</sup>For example, [Nemitz \(2015\)](#) studies the effects of a sharp increase of more than 30 percentage points in full-time schools in Germany and finds effects close to zero. Similarly [Felfe et al. \(2013\)](#) find a positive effect on mothers' full-time employment, but a negative effect on fathers' employment at the intensive margin in Switzerland.

research by using a rotating panel of more than 200,000 women over a time span of 12 years that allows us to provide suggestive evidence for similar pre-trends on labor supply in “treatment” and “control” groups, supporting our identification strategy.<sup>5</sup> Finally, we offer evidence of the effects on labor force participation, on weekly hours worked, on earnings, by poverty levels and by offspring’s gender.

Our main results indicate that longer school-days increase mothers’ labor supply, increasing mothers’ labor force participation by 5.5 percentage points and the number of worked hours per week by 1.8. Moreover, these increases in labor supply are accompanied by a 22 percent average increase in earnings across the population of mothers as a whole, and a 36 percent increase in earnings in high poverty areas. The greater gains in high poverty communities would seem to reduce the income gap between the rich and the poor.

Overall, these results suggest that previous to the introduction of the FTS program, female LFP was certainly constrained by the absence of family friendly policies, particularly childcare institutions. Moreover, FTS policies have the potential not only to improve children’s welfare and school outcomes, but also mothers’ LFP and the available income at home, improving overall welfare, especially for the most vulnerable sectors of the population.

The rest of the paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 offers information on Mexico’s childcare policies, female labor force participation and the Full-Time Schools Program. Section 3 presents the details of the data used for the main analysis as well as some descriptive

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<sup>5</sup>Due to data limitations, [Berthelon et al. \(2015\)](#) are not able to show pre-trends on labor outcomes prior to the implementation for the FTS program in 1997.

statistics. Section 4 explains the main methodology to identify the effects of longer school days on mothers' labor supply. Section 5 presents the main results. Section 6 concludes.

## 2 Background

### 2.1 Female Labor Force Participation and Childcare in Mexico

In recent decades, female participation rates in Mexico have substantially increased. Diverse factors have pushed women into the labor force, including demographic and cultural shifts, the opening of the Mexican economy, a rise in the levels of formal education, the implementation of structural reforms and a series of economic crises (Orraca et al., 2016). According to information from Mexico's population censuses, the percentage of women between 18 and 65 years of age participating in the labor force grew from 19.4% in 1970, to 24.2% in 1990 and to 42.3% in 2010.

However, Mexican female LFP remains as one of the lowest among Latin-American countries with similar per-capita income. In 2015, only 44% of Mexican women participated in the labor market; this is comparable to a similar proportion in Chile but it is lower than the 53% registered in Argentina and Uruguay and the 59% observed in Brazil. Furthermore, considering the female to male LFP ratio, Mexico stands next to the lowest in the whole continent with women's labor force participation standing at only 55% that of men, above only Honduras (49%) and below the Latin American average of 66% (Martínez Gómez et al., 2013).

This low women's participation in the labor market potentially relates to the absence



of family oriented programs (Staab and Gerhard, 2010). Although some childcare policies have been applied in Mexico before, such as the Federal Daycare Program for Working Mothers which subsidizes community- and home-based daycare to facilitate employment of low-income mothers,<sup>6</sup> the country's spending on family benefits including childcare has not changed dramatically in the last decade and it is barely above 1% of the GDP. This is the worst average of the 33 countries in the OECD, including mid-income countries such as Israel (2.4%) and Chile (1.4%).<sup>7</sup>

Finally, Mexico's enrollment rates in preschool (children 3 to 5 years old) are relatively high (91%) and above the OECD average of 81%. Elementary school (for ages 6 to 12) is practically universal. However, all preschools and elementary schools, before FTS implementation, were part-time, having daily schedules of four to five hours. This plausibly discouraged mothers' full-time participation in the labor market, especially for the 88% of mothers who have no access to full-time childcare services at any given age. The FTS program therefore offers an important potential for the analysis of changes in labor supply in a context of low public investment and low female participation.

## 2.2 The Full-Time Schools Program

The FTS program started in 2007. Its aim was to improve learning opportunities in primary education by extending the school day from four-and-a-half to eight hours. Notably, from its inception, the FTS program identified two secondary objectives of the program: to help

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<sup>6</sup>For a thorough review of this program see (Staab and Gerhard, 2010).

<sup>7</sup>Data on family policies and school participation and childcare presented in this section are extracted from the OECD Family database downloaded in February 2016.

single mothers to participate in the labor market and to support mono-parental families (SEP, 2010, p.3). In total, the FTS program represented a public spending of approximately US\$460 millions from 2007 to 2013.<sup>8</sup>

Schools selected into the program generally have certain characteristics. The most relevant to this study are: (i) schools have minimum infrastructure requirements (e.g. space for the construction of a kitchen and computer classrooms, sports infrastructure, and basic services such as water and electricity), (ii) schools are working in one shift either in the morning or afternoon but not both (in Mexico, approximately 40% of primary schools offer two shifts), and (iii) schools are located in vulnerable areas. Nonetheless, these guidelines are only a suggestion provided by the Ministry of Education, not binding requirements, and, in the end, the states are the ones in charge of choosing the schools to be treated. We will discuss in Section 4 how this fact might bias our estimates.

The FTS program started in 500 schools in 15 states and by the 2015-2016 academic year it had reached 24,250 schools all over Mexico, representing about 25 percent of all primary schools. Figure 1 shows the geographic distribution of municipalities' predicted share of FTS seats from the 2007-2008 to the 2014-2015 academic years.<sup>9</sup> Note that by the 2014-2015 academic year, full-time schools were present in all 31 states and in Mexico City and in more than 68 percent of the municipalities in Mexico (1,670 out of 2,456). Furthermore, there were 85 municipalities in which all primary schools had entered the program. We take

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<sup>8</sup>For further details of the FTS program see (Cabrera-Hernandez, 2015) and (Padilla-Romo, 2015).

<sup>9</sup>To avoid concerns about endogeneity, we define the predicted number of seats in full-time schools as the average school enrollment before the FTS program began (2001-2006). Ideally, if we were able to observe schools' capacity, our treatment variable would be the share of FTS seats at a given year. However, we only observe school enrollment which, particularly in full-time schools, may be correlated with mothers' propensity to participate in the labor market.

advantage of this staggered implementation of the program, across and within states, in our identification strategy.

### 3 Data

Our analysis uses survey and administrative data from the National Institute of Statistics and Geography (*Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía*, INEGI), the Ministry of Education, and the National Population Council (*Consejo Nacional de Población*, CONAPO) that together brings a quarterly individual-level dataset covering the period from the first quarter of 2005 (2005:Q1) to the third quarter of 2016 (2016:Q3). Our primary outcome variables are labor force participation, number of weekly hours worked, and monthly earnings of females with elementary school-age children, while our treatment variable is the share of predicted FTS seats in a municipality at a given quarter.

The labor outcomes used in our analysis are based on the National Survey of Occupation and Employment (*Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo*, ENOE) from INEGI. ENOE is a rotating panel of households, in which each household remains in the survey for five consecutive quarters. That is, we observe whether household members change labor force participation status, number of weekly hours worked, or monthly earnings over five consecutive periods.<sup>10</sup> In addition, ENOE contains information on sociodemographic characteristics of the individuals, as well as the location of the household. These allow us to control for

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<sup>10</sup>In ENOE, labor force participation is defined as people over 15 years old that had a job or were looking for one during the week the survey was conducted, the number of weekly hours worked is defined as the average number of hours worked by an individual in the week of the survey, and the monthly earnings is defined as the income that the employed population received for the job they held in the week of the survey.

time-varying individual characteristics, and to match each individual with the share of FTS seats in the municipality every quarter. We also use the location information to match each mother to the poverty index of her locality of residence.<sup>11</sup> This allows us to consider heterogeneous effects of the extension of the school day on mothers' labor supply that reside in high- and low- poverty areas. The poverty index is estimated by CONAPO as a measure of social exclusion in the locality using information from the Census of Population and Housing on education, housing characteristics, population, and income.<sup>12</sup> To avoid concerns about endogeneity, we use the poverty index of the localities in 2005, which is two years prior to the extension of the school day.

The treatment variable is constructed using annual school-level census data on enrollment and participation in the FTS program from the Ministry of Education. Information on enrollment is based on *Estadísticas 911* from the Ministry of Education. To transform this information from academic years to quarters, we take the last and the first three quarters of the year. For example, the fraction of seats in full-time schools during the 2007-2008 academic year affects labor outcomes on 2007:Q4, 2008:Q1, 2008:Q2, and 2008:Q3.<sup>13</sup>

Our main analysis focuses on mothers who are the household's head and on wives over 15 years old whose children are studying elementary education, because for this group we can unambiguously match mothers to their children. Moreover, it is plausible to think

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<sup>11</sup>The term locality in Mexico refers to the smallest of the three levels of division (locality, municipality, and state) of the national geostatistical framework. It is a generic territorial division for a population center with its own identity. It can be small in size and population (country, or village) or large and highly populated (city). INEGI keeps control of the list of localities in Mexico.

<sup>12</sup>Mothers living in high- and low- poverty areas are defined as those living in a locality with poverty index above and below the sample median.

<sup>13</sup> In Mexico, an academic year begins the third Monday of August and ends in July after 200 days of instruction. We start treatment during the fourth quarter because the third quarter contains all summer vacation. So that mothers in our sample are exposed to the program at most 1.25 academic years.

that mothers are the group of females who are more affected by the policy.<sup>14</sup> Finally, to avoid concerns about the possibility of the effects being driven by increased demand in the education market, we drop from the main analysis women working in the education sector.<sup>15</sup>

## 4 Identification Strategy

We estimate the effects of extending the school day on female labor outcomes using a difference-in-differences research design that uses within-individual variation in access to full-time schools, which is defined as the share of predicted FTS seats in a municipality. The logic behind this approach is that mothers living in municipalities with a high share of predicted FTS seats are in a position to benefit from the extended school day, increasing their labor supply, while females in municipalities with a low share are not. Therefore, we compare changes in labor outcomes of females with school-age children in municipalities with full-time schools to the change observed in municipalities not affected by the policy extending the school day.

The predicted share of FTS seats in a municipality  $m$  at time  $t$  is defined as,

$$FTS_{mt} = \frac{\sum_{s \in m} \bar{e}_s FT_{st}}{\sum_{s \in m} \bar{e}_s} \quad (1)$$

where  $\bar{e}_s$  denotes the average enrollment of school  $s$  in the period from 2001 to 2006 and

$FT_{st}$  is an indicator of whether school  $s$  is in the FTS program at time  $t$ .

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<sup>14</sup>Note that, by using this approach we cannot identify the effect for females with elementary-school-age children that live in extended households.

<sup>15</sup>Including these women in our analysis does not affect our main results.

Because the fraction of predicted FTS seats changes only once within the range of the data for each individual, we use only the variation from the first and fifth periods with a long-difference regression model.<sup>16</sup> This specification allows us to estimate the longer-run effects of extending the school day. Our main results are based on the following model,

$$\Delta_4 Y_{imt} = \Delta_4 FTS_{mt} \delta + \gamma_t + \Delta_4 X_{imt} \beta + \Delta_4 u_{imt} \quad (2)$$

where  $Y_{imt}$  denotes either an indicator variable reflecting whether individual  $i$  in municipality  $m$  participated in the labor force at quarter  $t$ , the number of weekly hours worked, or monthly earnings of individual  $i$  in municipality  $m$  at quarter  $t$ ;  $FTS_{mt}$  is the fraction of predicted FTS seats in municipality  $m$  at quarter  $t$ ;  $X_{imt}$  include time-varying individual controls including years of schooling, age, number of children 15 and younger, and age of the youngest child;  $\gamma_t$  are year-by-quarter fixed effects;  $u_{imt}$  is an error term; and  $\Delta_4$  denotes the 4-period difference operator (e.g.,  $\Delta_4 FTS_{mt} = FTS_{mt} - FTS_{mt-4}$ ). This long-difference regression equation allows us to control for individual specific observed and unobserved characteristics that are constant over time, as well as, nationwide time-varying shocks to mothers' labor outcomes common to all municipalities. The coefficient of interest ( $\delta$ ) can be interpreted as the cumulative effect of the FTS program on the change in labor outcomes over the 5-quarter period that each individual is observed, instead of the average effect, as in fixed effects models.

Additionally, in some specifications we control for state-by-year-by-quarter fixed effects where we identify  $\delta$  by comparing changes in labor outcomes in municipalities with a high

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<sup>16</sup> Note that the number of full time seats varies only once a year, as the share of FTS students in each municipality can only change at the beginning of each academic year, when new schools fully incorporate the program, conversely, non-FTS schools remain as such during the whole academic year.

fraction of predicted FTS seats to the change observed in the remaining municipalities in the same state. We also control for additional birth cohort heterogeneity by including birth cohort-by-year-by-quarter fixed effects in the model. Robust standard errors are clustered at the municipality-level to account for potential error correlations within municipalities.

The identifying assumption underlying our research design is that in the absence of the extension of the school day, changes in mothers' labor supply in municipalities with a high fraction of predicted FTS seats would have been similar to those in municipalities with a lower fraction (in the same state). Even though we cannot prove that this assumption holds, we can argue that it is plausible in our setting. First, we are able to provide graphical evidence that mothers' labor outcomes in treatment and control municipalities do not diverge *prior* to the adoption of the FTS program. Second, we formally test for divergence by including lead terms of the change in fraction of predicted FTS seats a year and two years prior to treatment to Equation 2. In addition, we provide evidence showing that the time-varying factors that affect female labor outcomes are orthogonal to the within-municipality variation in the fraction of predicted FTS seats. Finally, we show that the extension of the school day does not affect labor supply for subgroups of the population that should not be (directly) affected by the intervention. In this case  $\delta$  would provide the causal effects of extending the school day on female labor supply.

Another concern about the validity of the estimated effects is that females with school-age children could select into or out of the municipality in quarters that increased the fraction of predicted FTS seats. For example, if females with school-age children that are more likely

to participate in the labor force move to municipalities with full-time schools, we would overestimate the effects of extending the school day. We address this potential selection bias problem by estimating the degree to which the change in the fraction of predicted FTS seats affects the probability of mothers staying in their municipality of residence during the first and fifth survey quarters.

It is important to note that our treatment variable is a measure of access to full-time schools, not an indicator of having a child enrolled in a full-time school. As such, we identify the effects of making full-time schools more available in a municipality instead of the effects of having a child enrolled in a full-time school. That is, our approach identifies *intent-to-treat* effects rather than *treatment-on-the-treated*. These intent-to-treat estimates can be thought of as lower bounds of the actual effects of the extension of the school day.

## 5 Results

We begin our analysis by providing graphical evidence on the effects of extending the school day and on the identifying assumption underlying our research design. Figure 2 panels (a) to (c) respectively show the state-by-year-by-quarter and birth cohort-by-year-by-quarter adjusted average mothers' LFP, number of weekly hours worked, and monthly earnings over time for municipalities with a fraction of predicted FTS seats that is in the top quartile (high-intensity of treatment) relative to those in the bottom quartile (low-intensity of treatment). While it is not easy to appreciate the size of the effects, the three panels show an increase on LFP, number of weekly hours worked, and monthly earnings for females with



elementary-school-age-children in municipalities with a high-intensity of treatment (relative to municipalities with low-intensity of treatment in the same state and birth cohort). Furthermore, mothers' LFP, number of weekly hours worked and monthly earnings for municipalities with a high and low intensity of treatment have similar trends *prior* to the introduction of the FTS program, providing support in favor of the identifying assumption needed for the difference-in-differences estimates to be valid.

Table 1 shows the estimated effects of extending the school day on female labor outcomes based on the long-difference model represented by Equation 2. Panel A shows the estimated effects on mothers' LFP, Panel B the number of weekly hours worked, and Panel C the monthly earnings. Particularly, estimates in Column 1 show the baseline model represented by Equation 2. In Column 2, we additionally control for state-by-year-by-quarter fixed effects. In Column 3, we include time-varying individual controls and birth cohort-by-year-by-quarter fixed effects. In Column 4, we present our preferred specification which also controls for other programs that might affect mothers' decision to participate in the labor market, these include the share of children enrolled in full-time preschools, the share of children enrolled in full-time middle schools, and the share of children in *Estancias Infantiles*.<sup>17</sup> Finally, in columns 4 and 5, we test for divergence prior to treatment by including the 4-period difference in the fraction of predicted FTS seats one year and two years *prior* to treatment.

The long-difference estimates show the cumulative effects of going from none to all schools

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<sup>17</sup>*Estancias Infantiles* is a federal daycare program for working mothers which subsidizes community- and home-based daycare to facilitate employment of low-income mothers. See [Ángeles et al. \(2011\)](#) for more details about the *Estancias Infantiles* program.

being full-time, which results in increases on mothers' LFP of 5.5 percentage points, number of weekly hours worked of 1.8, and monthly earnings of 410 Mexican pesos, or US\$24 of 2015. Alternatively, we consider the effects of a 25 percentage point increase in the predicted share of FTS seats—equivalent to increasing the intensity of treatment in a municipality from low to high. A 25 percentage point increase causes mothers' LFP to increase by 1.38 percentage points, the number of weekly hours worked by 0.45 hours, and monthly earnings by 103 Mexican pesos (or US\$6).<sup>18</sup> A back-of-the-envelope calculation based on our long-difference estimates suggests that by 2016, the FTS program increased the number of women participating in the labor market by 206,104, while the number of children in full-time schools grew to 3.4 million. In other words, in municipalities where the number of seats in full-day schools increased by 100, 6 women entered the labor market.<sup>19</sup> In addition, the coefficients for one year and two years prior to treatment are not significant and small in magnitude, providing support for our identification strategy.

It is important to note that mothers were linked to the fraction of predicted FTS seats based on their municipality of residence. Given this approach, non-random sample attrition could be a threat to identification if most of the mothers leaving the sample lived in municipalities that increase (decrease) the intensity of treatment.<sup>20</sup> In consideration of this potential differential attrition problem, we examine whether the change in the fraction of

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<sup>18</sup>That is,  $0.25 \times 0.055 \times 100$  for female LFP,  $0.25 \times 1.798$  for weekly hours worked, and  $0.25 \times 410.286 \times 100$  for monthly earnings.

<sup>19</sup>These numbers are calculated using the regression coefficient from our preferred specification in Table 1 Panel A, the 2016 population estimates from CONAPO, the share of women 15 and older that have school age children, and the share of schools participating in the FTS program. This is, 46.8 million women 15 and older, 32 percent of which have elementary school age children, and 1.375 percent of those women enter the labor market when the FTS program has been implemented in 25 percent of the schools in Mexico.

<sup>20</sup>[Cano-Urbina \(2016\)](#) highlights the attrition problem in the ENOE for the period 2005–2012; he finds that 84.19 percent of the individuals who started the sample are still in it during the fifth interview.

predicted FTS seats in a given quarter affects the likelihood that the mother will be in the sample during the first and last periods.

Table 2 shows the estimated effects of the share of predicted FTS seats on an indicator variable of whether or not the mother is in the sample during the first and fifth interviews. In Column 1, we present the baseline model represented by Equation 2; in Column 2, we additionally control for state-by-year-by-quarter fixed effects. The long-differences estimates indicate that changes in the share of predicted seats in full-time schools do not affect the probability of leaving the sample in the fifth interview. These results suggest that attrition is independent of changes in exposure to full-time schools.

## 5.1 Treatment Heterogeneity

We now explore the extent to which there are heterogeneous effects of extending the school day on mothers' labor supply. In particular, we consider heterogeneous effects by education, by poverty level of the locality of residence, and by children's gender, using our preferred specification.

### 5.1.1 Education

Motivated by the fact that education strengthens the connection of mothers to the labor force by increasing their potential earnings, or by reducing the range for specialization within the household (Eckstein and Lifshitz, 2011), in columns 2 and 3 of Table 3, we report separate estimates for mothers with levels of education below (0-9 years) and above (10 or more years)

the sample median.<sup>21</sup> The estimates in columns 2 and 3 indicate that the effects of extending the school day are concentrated among low educated mothers, who are less attached to the labor market.<sup>22</sup> Specifically, these results indicate that going from none to all schools being full-time increases mothers' LFP by 7 percentage points, the number of weekly hours worked by 2.1 hours, and the monthly earnings by 392 Mexican pesos (or US\$23) for low educated mothers. We find no evidence of significant effects on labor outcomes for higher educated mothers.

### 5.1.2 Poverty Level

Now we estimate the effects of extending the school day on labor supply separately for mothers with residence in localities with poverty levels below (low poverty) and above (high poverty) the sample median. This analysis is motivated by the fact that preference in FTS funding was given to schools located in vulnerable areas. Therefore, we expect our long-difference estimated effects to be mostly driven by mothers with residence in high poverty localities, as they are more likely to live closer to full-time schools.

Table 4 shows the estimated effects by poverty level of the locality of residence. The estimated coefficients indicate that increases in labor supply are mostly driven by mothers residing in high poverty communities, increasing LFP by 6.1 percentage points, weekly hours worked by 2.5, and monthly earnings by 390 Mexican pesos (nearly, US\$23). in high poverty areas. We find no effects on mothers residing in low poverty localities. These results sup-

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<sup>21</sup>Nine years of schooling translates into completed junior high school, which is also the sample median and the compulsory level of education in Mexico.

<sup>22</sup>In our sample, LFP for mothers with education levels between zero and nine years is 38.3 percent, compared to 57.1 percent for mothers with ten or more years of schooling.

port the notion that mothers living in vulnerable areas are the most likely to be affected. Moreover, the greater gains in high poverty communities would seem to reduce the income gap between the rich and the poor.<sup>23</sup>

### 5.1.3 Child's Gender

We estimate the effects of longer school days on mothers' labor supply by child's gender. This analysis is motivated by the increasing literature documenting differential effects of sons and daughters on parental time allocation and labor supply (e.g., [Lundberg and Rose, 2002](#); [Lundberg, 2005](#); [Pabilonia and Ward-Batts, 2007](#); [Lundberg et al., 2007a,b](#); [Barcellos et al., 2014](#)). In particular, we are interested in analyzing how mothers' labor supply responds to the availability of full-time schools when they have school-age daughters or sons; they might believe, especially in developing countries, that boys can take care of themselves but girls need adult supervision throughout the day, or vice-versa.

Table 5 shows the long-difference estimated effects on labor outcomes separately for three groups of mothers: those whose school-age children are (i) daughters only, (ii) daughters and sons, and (iii) sons only. The estimated coefficients indicate that the increases on labor supply are mostly driven by mothers whose school-age children are daughters; the estimated effects are about twice as big as those from the overall sample. For mothers with both sons and daughters or with sons only, the point estimates are positive but much less precise. This

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<sup>23</sup> Additionally, as informality in the labor market is a common phenomenon in the least developed countries, most of all in high poverty communities, we assess if the changes in female LFP are related to informality. We present such results in Table A.1, where each column follows the same specifications as in Table 1. Panel A shows the estimated effects on employment, Panel B on formal employment and Panel C on informal employment. Our estimates show that the estimated increase in employment (4.8 percentage points) strongly concentrates in the informal sector.

evidence is consistent with the findings of [Lundberg et al. \(2007a\)](#) which suggest that single mothers with only one child spend more time with their daughters relative to their sons and that this mother-daughter time comes from reduced labor force participation. That is, if daughters are at school most part of the day, mothers have more freedom to opt into the labor market.

## 5.2 Robustness Checks

In an effort to show that the main results are not driven by a simultaneous increase in the propensity to participate in the labor force due to the labor market characteristics in those municipalities with a higher share of predicted FTS seats, we explore the degree to which extending the school day differently affects labor supply of women and men with and without school-age children. If we find effects on subgroups of the population that should not be affected by the policy, our results might not be valid.<sup>24</sup> Although, it is possible that labor outcomes for some groups could be affected by the extension of the school day; we nonetheless argue that such effects must be second-order.

Table 6 shows the long-difference estimated effects on labor outcomes for women and men. In particular, in Column 2 we show the effects for women without school-age children; for this group of women, we find positive but smaller effects than for women with school-age children (Column 1) on LFP; however, for this same group we find no significant effects on number of weekly hours worked or on labor income. In columns 3 and 4, we show the estimated effects

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<sup>24</sup> Trends on labor force participation for women without children and men, before and after policy implementation, are presented in Figures [A.1](#), [A.2](#) and [A.3](#). For all groups labor outcomes' trends did not diverge prior to the intervention and for men the low and high penetration groups were trending similarly even after the intervention.

for men with and without school-age children. For both groups estimates for LFP, number of weekly hours worked, and monthly earnings are close to zero and statistically insignificant.

The effect on LFP for women without school-age children suggests positive spillovers from school day extensions, possibly driven by other family members who were taking care of children after school, prior to policy implementation.<sup>25</sup> Table A.4 presents evidence along these lines, considering the effects on labor supply for women without school age children and systematically excluding from the analysis groups of women potentially affected by the intervention. Particularly, we exclude from the analysis women with school-age grandchildren living in the same household (Column 2), and those with any school-age child living in the same household (Column 3).<sup>26</sup> The estimated effects for these subgroups are consistent with the notion that school-day extensions cause spillovers into women without school-age children: excluding potentially affected women from the analysis systematically reduces the size of the estimated effects on all three labor outcomes.

Figure 2 shows a sharp decrease in the labor outcomes of mothers with school-age children in low intensity of treatment municipalities. Thus, the effects we find might be driven by other changes in factors affecting the labor market that occurred simultaneously to school-day extensions.<sup>27</sup>

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<sup>25</sup>For example, [Rupert and Zanella \(2018\)](#) find that grandchildren decrease senior female workers' labor supply, particularly, among those who are less attached to the labor market. Moreover, according to the National Survey of Employment and Social Security (ENESS, 2013), 51 percent of children whose mother work are taken care of by their grandmothers.

<sup>26</sup>It is important to note that we cannot identify women with school-age grandchildren living in a different household. So, the estimated effects can be thought of as upper bounds of the true effect.

<sup>27</sup>One hypothesis explaining the aforementioned drop in outcomes for the low intensity of treatment municipalities, after observing males' trends in LFP and earnings as shown in Figures A.2 and A.3, is that men plausibly start to return to the labor market after the economic crisis of 2009, which possibly causes women who had entered the labor market, with no access to childcare, to return home for childrearing.

To address this concern, we restrict our sample to municipalities with a predicted share of FTS seats in the second, third, or fourth quartiles. That is, we drop all observations in low intensity of treatment municipalities. Table 7 shows the long-difference estimated effects for this restricted sample, following the same specifications as in Table 1. Even after using this alternative source of variation, for all labor outcomes, the estimated effects remain significant and are similar in magnitude, providing further support for our main results to be valid.<sup>28</sup>

Finally, the main results could be biased by mothers who are not affected by the FTS program, because they are attending school and are not fully committed to the labor market. To address this concern, Table 8 shows the results for a restricted sample of women of ages 25 onwards, who are less likely to be attending school. Note that the results remain robust and are not statistically different from the main results.

## 6 Conclusion

This paper examines whether the FTS program in Mexico, which substantially increased the length of the school day, increased mothers' labor supply. More broadly, it asked whether childrearing hinders women's participation in the labor market. We exploit the variation in the staggered implementation of the FTS program and the intensity of treatment across municipalities to measure the effects of the extension of the school day on mothers' labor supply. Using survey and administrative data, we estimate long-difference models which

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<sup>28</sup>Tables A.2 and A.3 respectively show the effects on female labor outcomes by education, and by poverty level for this restricted sample. The impacts on labor outcomes by education, and by poverty level are also robust to excluding the low intensity of treatment municipalities, lending support to our main results.



exploit differences in mothers' exposures to the FTS program. Our main results document positive and statistically significant effects on mothers' labor force participation, number or weekly hours worked, and monthly earnings. Mothers with fewer years of schooling, mothers living in high poverty localities, and mothers with daughters showed the strongest labor market response to the availability of full-time schools for their children. This evidence suggests that longer school days can be an effective policy to increase mothers' labor market participation while their children are still growing up and that the greater gains for low income mothers would seem to reduce the income gap between the rich and the poor. Our results also suggest positive spillovers of the FTS program onto grandmothers with school-age grandchildren. Understanding how grandmothers respond to the availability of full-time schools is an important area for future research.

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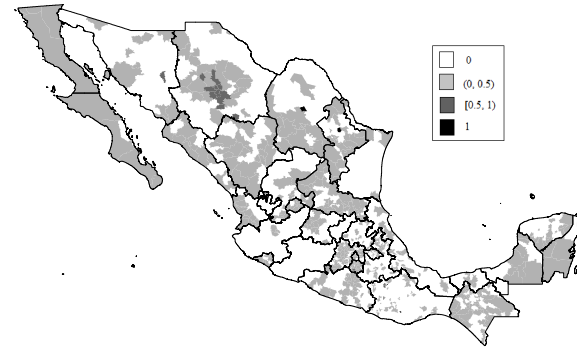
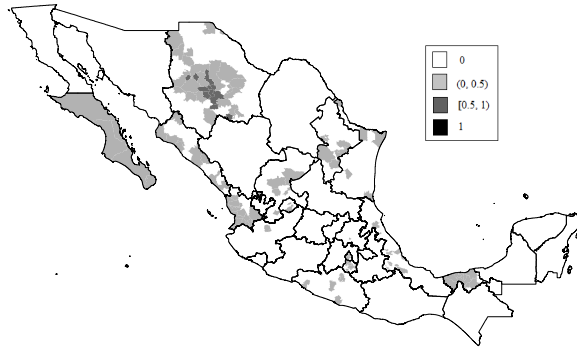
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**Figure 1:** Predicted Share of FTS Seats by Academic Year

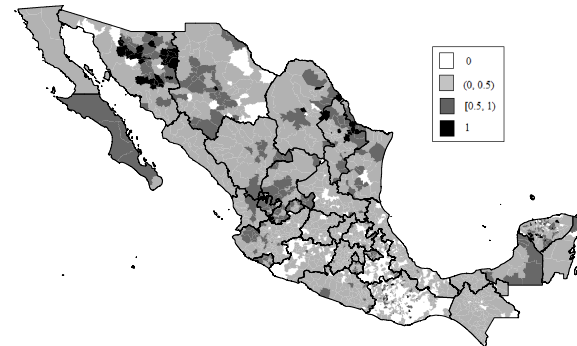
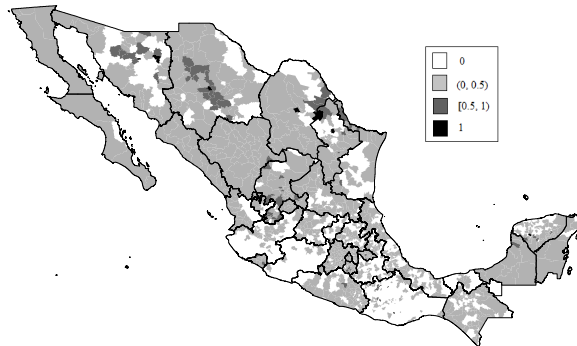
(a) 2007-2008

(b) 2009-2010



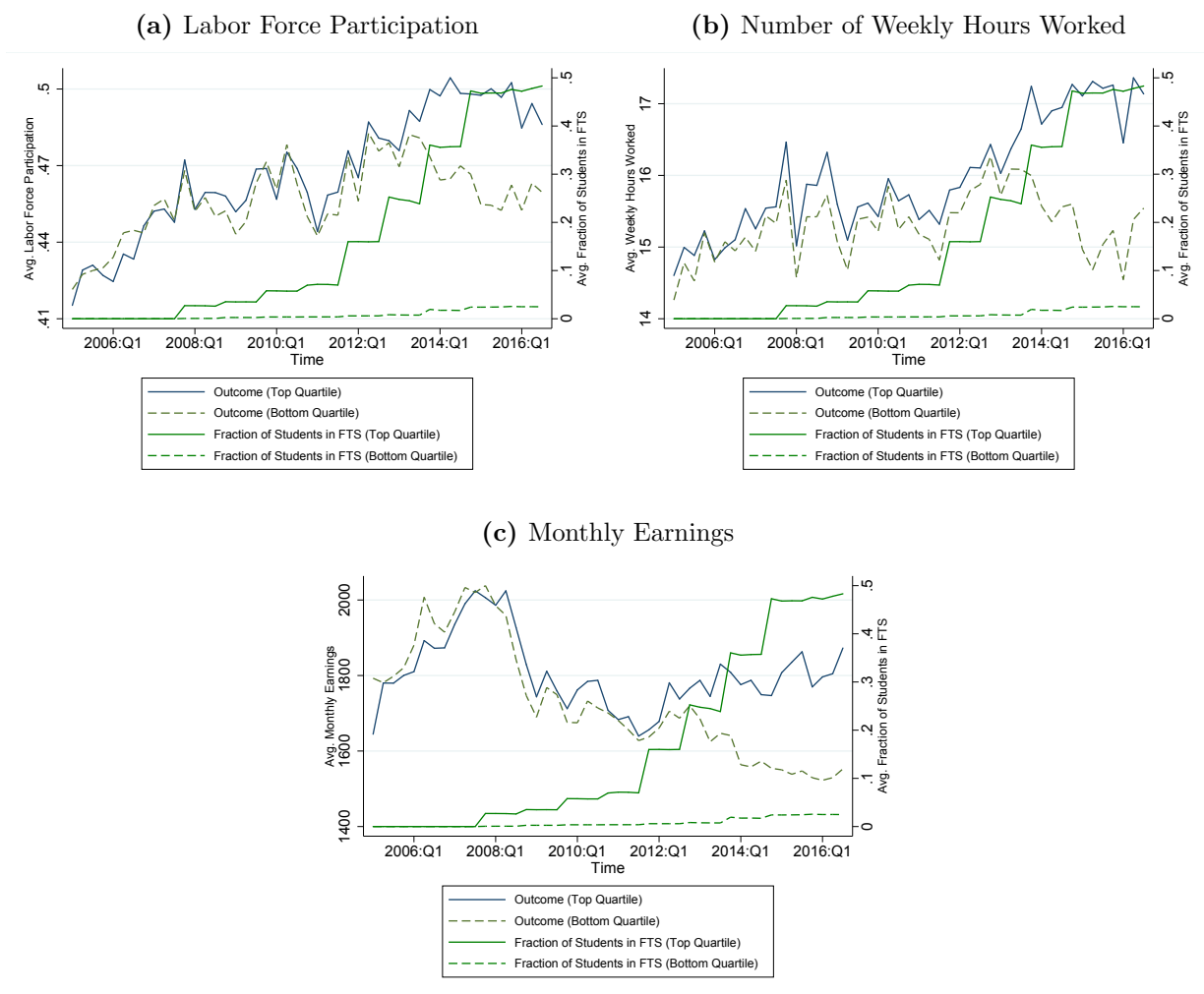
(c) 2012-2013

(d) 2014-2015



Notes: Each panel separately shows the geographic distribution of municipalities' predicted share of FTS seats in a given academic year. Predicted shares of FTS seats were constructed using annual school-level census data on enrollment and participation in the FTS program from the Ministry of Education.

**Figure 2:** Adjusted Female Labor Outcomes for Municipalities with High and Low Intensity of Treatment



Notes: Each panel separately shows female labor outcomes for municipalities with a high (top quartile) and low (bottom quartile) average fraction of predicted FTS seats. The left axis shows the state-by-year-by-quarter and birth cohort-by-year-by-quarter adjusted average of labor outcomes and the right axis the average fraction of predicted FTS seats. Female labor outcomes are calculated based on the National Survey of Occupation and Employment (ENOE) and the fraction of predicted seats in FTS is calculated based on census data from the Ministry of Education in Mexico. Monthly earnings are expressed in 2015 Mexican pesos.



**Table 1:** Long-Difference Estimated Effects of the Fraction of Seats in FTS on Female Labor Outcomes

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Labor Force Participation						
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.041** (0.019)	0.057** (0.023)	0.055** (0.023)	0.055** (0.023)	0.053** (0.023)	0.054** (0.024)
1 Year after					-0.022 (0.018)	-0.021 (0.018)
2 Years after						0.005 (0.017)
N	209476	209476	208909	208909	208909	208909
Panel B: Number of Weekly Hours Worked						
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.502 (0.738)	1.928** (0.826)	1.803** (0.827)	1.798** (0.826)	1.725** (0.828)	1.780** (0.855)
1 Year after					-0.750 (0.635)	-0.737 (0.641)
2 Years after						0.173 (0.606)
N	209476	209476	208909	208909	208909	208909
Panel C: Monthly Earnings						
Fraction of seats in FTS	213.632 (145.658)	396.936** (173.265)	407.856** (175.843)	410.286** (175.823)	414.064** (175.337)	458.686** (192.889)
1 Year after					38.832 (91.622)	49.663 (93.663)
2 Years after						139.745 (110.635)
N	209476	209476	208909	208909	208909	208909
State-by-time fixed effects	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Time-variant individual controls	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes
Other Programs	no	no	no	yes	yes	yes

Notes: Each column in each panel represents a different regression. Observations are at the individual level, spanning from 2005:Q1 to 2016:Q3. All specifications include year-by-quarter fixed effects. Estimated robust standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the municipality level. Individual controls include a quadratic function of age, a quadratic function of the age of the youngest child, a quadratic function of the number of children aged 15 and younger, and birth cohort-by-time fixed effects. Other programs include *Estancias Infantiles*, and Full-Time Schools for Kindergarten and middle school aged children. Monthly earnings are expressed in 2015 Mexican pesos.

\*, \*\*, \*\*\* Significant at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively.

**Table 2:** Long-Difference Estimated Effects of the Fraction of Seats in FTS on Attrition

	(1)	(2)
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.001 (0.047)	-0.009 (0.033)
N	375283	375283
Time fixed effects	yes	yes
State-by-time fixed effects	no	yes

Notes: Each column in each panel represents a different regression. Observations are at the individual level, spanning from 2005:Q1 to 2016:Q3. Estimated robust standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the municipality level.

\*, \*\*, \*\*\* Significant at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively.

**Table 3:** Long-Difference Estimated Effects of the Fraction of Seats in FTS on Female Labor Outcomes by Education

<i>Years of schooling:</i>	Overall	0–9	10+
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Panel A: Labor Force Participation			
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.055** (0.023)	0.070** (0.027)	-0.027 (0.042)
N	208909	141370	67356
Baseline	0.438	0.383	0.571
Panel B: Number of Weekly Hours Worked			
Fraction of seats in FTS	1.798** (0.826)	2.109** (0.943)	-0.334 (1.937)
N	208909	141370	67356
Baseline	15.034	12.832	20.306
Panel C: Monthly Earnings			
Fraction of seats in FTS	410.286** (175.823)	392.082** (164.895)	272.201 (505.529)
N	208909	141370	67356
Baseline	1852.760	1092.376	3671.221

Notes: Each column in each panel represents a different regression. Observations are at the individual level, spanning from 2005:Q1 to 2016:Q3. All specifications include year-by-quarter fixed effects, state-by-year-by-quarter fixed effects, individual controls, and other programs. Estimated robust standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the municipality level. Individual controls include a quadratic function of age, a quadratic function of the age of the youngest child, a quadratic function of the number of children aged 15 and younger, and birth cohort-by-time fixed effects. Other programs include *Estancias Infantiles*, and Full-Time Schools for Kindergarten and middle school aged children. Nine years of schooling translates into completed junior high school, which is the median education level and was the compulsory level of education in Mexico. Monthly earnings are expressed in 2015 Mexican pesos.

\*, \*\*, \*\*\* Significant at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively.

**Table 4:** Long-Difference Estimated Effects of the Fraction of Seats in FTS on Female Labor Outcomes by Poverty Level of the Locality of Residence

<i>Poverty level:</i>	Overall (1)	Low Poverty (2)	High Poverty (3)
Panel A: Labor Force Participation			
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.055** (0.023)	-0.012 (0.055)	0.061** (0.028)
N	208909	104409	102640
Baseline	0.438	0.488	0.385
Panel B: Number of Weekly Hours Worked			
Fraction of seats in FTS	1.798** (0.826)	0.747 (1.783)	2.514** (1.002)
N	208909	104409	102640
Baseline	15.034	16.905	13.037
Panel C: Monthly Earnings			
Fraction of seats in FTS	410.286** (175.823)	-60.119 (568.218)	390.123** (184.093)
N	208909	104409	102640
Baseline	1852.760	2473.229	1181.882

Notes: Each column in each panel represents a different regression. Observations are at the individual level, spanning from 2005:Q1 to 2016:Q3. All specifications include year-by-quarter fixed effects, state-by-year-by-quarter fixed effects, individual controls, and other programs. Estimated robust standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the municipality level. Individual controls include a quadratic function of age, a quadratic function of the age of the youngest child, a quadratic function of the number of children aged 15 and younger, and birth cohort-by-time fixed effects. Other programs include *Estancias Infantiles*, and Full-Time Schools for Kindergarten and middle school aged children. Low and high poverty localities are defined as those below and above the median poverty index, respectively. Monthly earnings are expressed in 2015 Mexican pesos.

\*, \*\*, \*\*\* Significant at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively.

**Table 5:** Long-Difference Estimated Effects of the Fraction of Seats in FTS on Female Labor Outcomes by Child's Gender

<i>Child's gender:</i>	Overall (1)	Girls Only (2)	Girls and Boys (3)	Boys Only (4)
Panel A: Labor Force Participation				
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.055** (0.023)	0.115** (0.047)	0.068** (0.030)	0.002 (0.047)
N	208909	48214	100395	52541
Baseline	0.438	0.501	0.426	0.491
Panel B: Number of Weekly Hours Worked				
Fraction of seats in FTS	1.798** (0.826)	4.677** (1.878)	1.707 (1.120)	-0.256 (1.709)
N	208909	48214	100395	52541
Baseline	15.034	17.290	14.019	17.043
Panel C: Monthly Earnings				
Fraction of seats in FTS	410.286** (175.823)	1094.699* (593.980)	278.242 (185.422)	196.749 (268.544)
N	208909	48214	100395	52541
Baseline	1852.760	1995.255	1483.205	1953.348

Notes: Each column in each panel represents a different regression. Observations are at the individual level, spanning from 2005:Q1 to 2016:Q3. All specifications include year-by-quarter fixed effects, state-by-year-by-quarter fixed effects, individual controls, and other programs. Estimated robust standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the municipality level. Individual controls include a quadratic function of age, a quadratic function of the age of the youngest child, a quadratic function of the number of children aged 15 and younger, and birth cohort-by-time fixed effects. Other programs include *Estancias Infantiles*, and Full-Time Schools for Kindergarten and middle school aged children. Monthly earnings are expressed in 2015 Mexican pesos.

\*, \*\*, \*\*\* Significant at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively.

**Table 6:** Heterogeneous Treatment Effects on Labor Outcomes

	Women		Men	
	w/ school-age children (1)	w/o school-age children (2)	w/ school-age children (3)	w/o school-age children (4)
Panel A: Labor Force Participation				
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.055** (0.023)	0.034** (0.014)	-0.019 (0.012)	0.010 (0.014)
N	208909	407281	180888	332900
Baseline	0.438	0.374	0.972	0.782
Panel B: Weekly Hours Worked				
Fraction of seats in FTS	1.798** (0.826)	0.860 (0.611)	0.072 (1.239)	0.164 (1.003)
N	208909	407281	180888	332900
Baseline	15.034	13.242	45.055	34.400
Panel C: Monthly Earnings				
Fraction of seats in FTS	410.286** (175.823)	154.331 (112.331)	467.697 (321.793)	298.306 (266.920)
N	208909	407281	180888	332900
Baseline	1852.760	1623.894	6784.334	5035.423

Notes: Each column in each panel represents a different regression. Observations are at the individual level, spanning from 2005:Q1 to 2016:Q3. All specifications include year-by-quarter fixed effects. Estimated robust standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the municipality level. Individual controls include a quadratic function of age, a quadratic function of the age of the youngest child, a quadratic function of the number of children aged 15 and younger, and birth cohort-by-time fixed effects. Other programs include *Estancias Infantiles*, and Full-Time Schools for Kindergarten and middle school aged children. Monthly earnings are expressed in 2015 Mexican pesos.

\*, \*\*, \*\*\* Significant at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively.

**Table 7:** Long-Difference Estimated Effects of the Fraction of Seats in FTS on Female Labor Outcomes  
*Restricted Sample:* Municipalities with predicted share of FTS seats in the 2nd-4th quartiles

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	
Panel A: Labor Force Participation						
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.044** (0.021)	0.055** (0.024)	0.050** (0.024)	0.050** (0.024)	0.048** (0.024)	0.050** (0.025)
1 Year after					-0.018 (0.019)	-0.018 (0.019)
2 Years after						0.005 (0.018)
N	156229	156229	155695	155695	155695	155695
Panel B: Number of Weekly Hours Worked						
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.879 (0.792)	1.754** (0.843)	1.517* (0.846)	1.513* (0.846)	1.428* (0.850)	1.450* (0.872)
1 Year after					-0.729 (0.702)	-0.721 (0.709)
2 Years after						0.072 (0.657)
N	156229	156229	155695	155695	155695	155695
Panel C: Monthly Earnings						
Fraction of seats in FTS	274.141* (154.704)	379.025** (185.986)	381.433** (189.808)	383.033** (189.845)	379.369** (189.577)	393.302* (207.645)
1 Year after					-31.543 (100.667)	-26.963 (103.680)
2 Years after						45.680 (122.962)
N	156229	156229	155695	155695	155695	155695
State-by-time fixed effects	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Time-variant individual controls	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes
Other Programs	no	no	no	yes	yes	yes

Notes: Each column in each panel represents a different regression. Observations are at the individual level, spanning from 2005:Q1 to 2016:Q3. All specifications include year-by-quarter fixed effects, state-by-year-by-quarter fixed effects, individual controls, and other programs. Estimated robust standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the municipality level. Individual controls include a quadratic function of age, a quadratic function of the age of the youngest child, a quadratic function of the number of children aged 15 and younger, and birth cohort-by-time fixed effects. Other programs include *Estancias Infantiles*, and Full-Time Schools for Kindergarten and middle school aged children. Monthly earnings are expressed in 2015 Mexican pesos.

\*, \*\*, \*\*\* Significant at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively.

**Table 8:** Long-Difference Estimated Effects of the Fraction of Seats in FTS on Female Labor Outcomes  
*Restricted Sample: Mothers aged 25 and older*

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Labor Force Participation						
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.043** (0.019)	0.059** (0.024)	0.055** (0.023)	0.055** (0.023)	0.053** (0.023)	0.055** (0.024)
1 Year after					-0.022 (0.018)	-0.022 (0.018)
2 Years after						0.006 (0.017)
N	205017	205017	204495	204495	204495	204495
Panel B: Number of Weekly Hours Worked						
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.649 (0.736)	2.094** (0.824)	1.961** (0.829)	1.949** (0.828)	1.883** (0.830)	1.947** (0.858)
1 Year after					-0.697 (0.639)	-0.681 (0.646)
2 Years after						0.201 (0.614)
N	205017	205017	204495	204495	204495	204495
Panel C: Monthly Earnings						
Fraction of seats in FTS	218.091 (149.646)	401.921** (177.487)	415.437** (180.150)	417.411** (180.134)	420.295** (179.520)	465.672** (197.477)
1 Year after					30.192 (94.493)	41.334 (96.471)
2 Years after						143.096 (113.627)
N	205017	205017	204495	204495	204495	204495
State-by-time fixed effects	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Time-variant individual controls	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes
Other Programs	no	no	no	yes	yes	yes

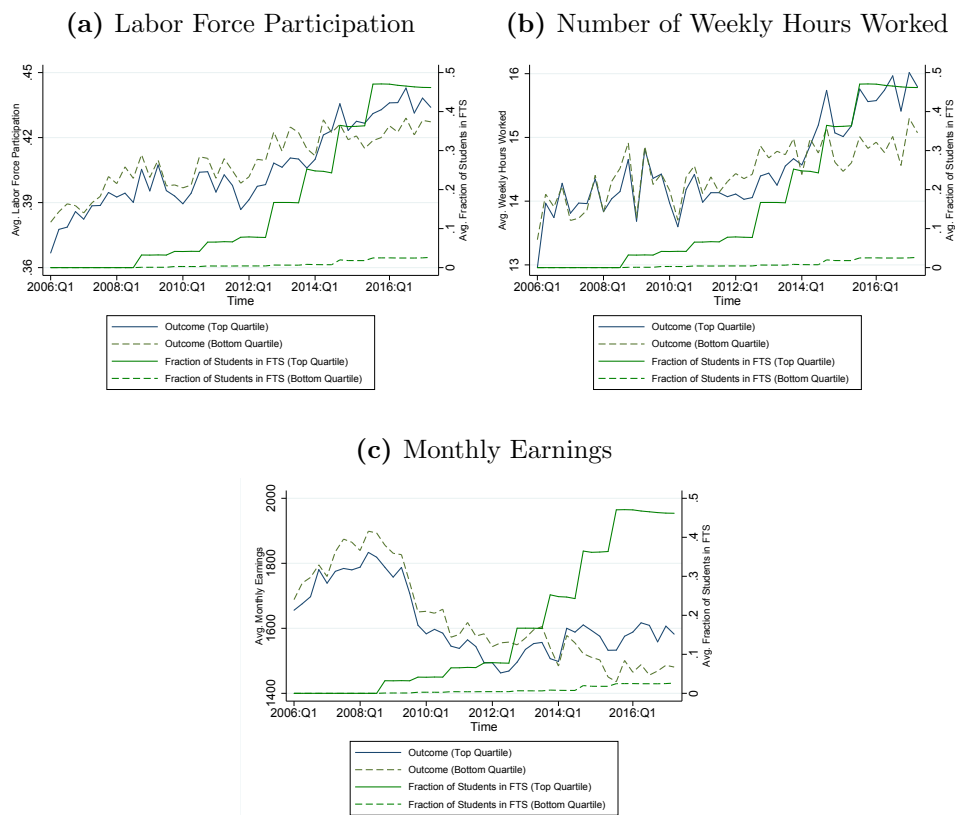
Notes: Each column in each panel represents a different regression. Observations are at the individual level, spanning from 2005:Q1 to 2016:Q3. All specifications include year-by-quarter fixed effects. Estimated robust standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the municipality level. Individual controls include a quadratic function of age, a quadratic function of the age of the youngest child, a quadratic function of the number of children aged 15 and younger, and birth cohort-by-time fixed effects. Other programs include *Estancias Infantiles*, and Full-Time Schools for Kindergarten and middle school aged children. Monthly earnings are expressed in 2015 Mexican pesos.

\*, \*\*, \*\*\* Significant at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively.



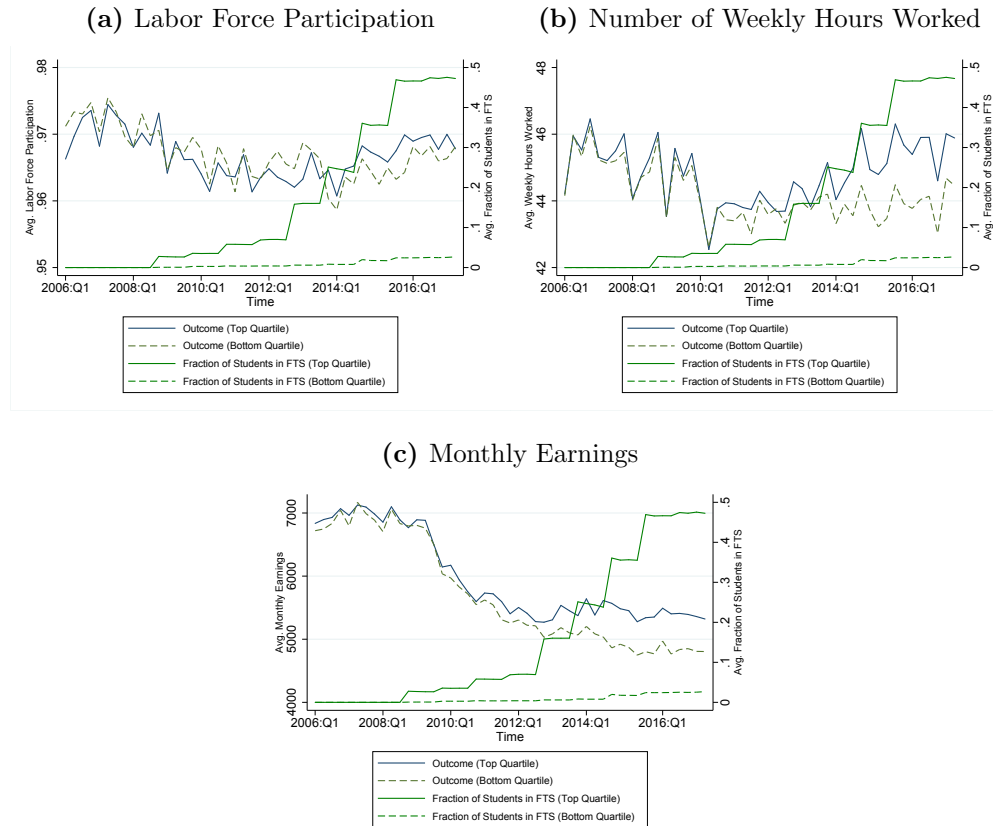
# Appendix A Robustness Checks

**Figure A.1:** Adjusted Female without School-Age-Children Labor Outcomes for Municipalities with High and Low Intensity of Treatment



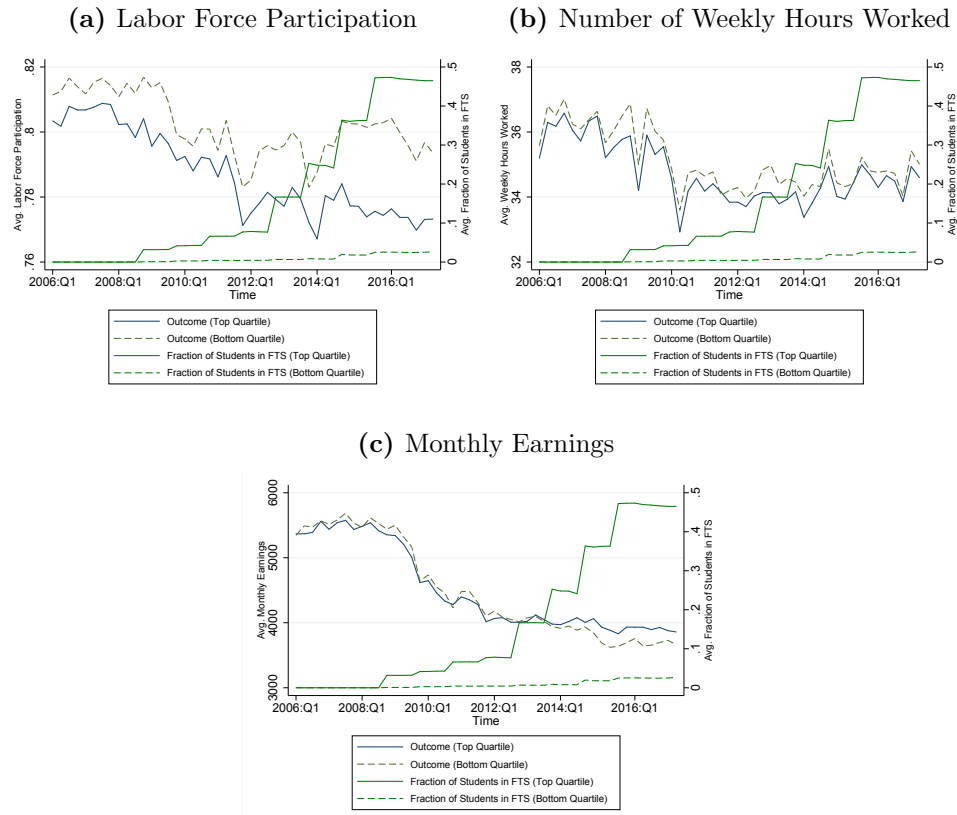
Notes: Each panel separately shows female labor outcomes for municipalities with a high (top quartile) and a low (bottom quartile) average fraction of predicted FTS seats. The left axis shows the state-by-year-by-quarter and birth cohort-by-year-by-quarter adjusted average of labor outcomes and the right axis the average fraction of predicted FTS seats. Female labor outcomes are calculated based on the National Survey of Occupation and Employment (ENOE) and the fraction of predicted seats in FTS is calculated based on census data from the Ministry of Education in Mexico. Monthly earnings are expressed in 2015 Mexican pesos.

**Figure A.2:** Adjusted Male with School-Age-Children Labor Outcomes for Municipalities with High and Low Intensity of Treatment



Notes: Each panel separately shows male labor outcomes for municipalities with a high (top quartile) and a low (bottom quartile) average fraction of predicted FTS seats. The left axis shows the state-by-year-by-quarter and birth cohort-by-year-by-quarter adjusted average of labor outcomes and the right axis the average fraction of predicted FTS seats. Male labor outcomes are calculated based on the National Survey of Occupation and Employment (ENOE) and the fraction of predicted seats in FTS is calculated based on census data from the Ministry of Education in Mexico. Monthly earnings are expressed in 2015 Mexican pesos.

**Figure A.3:** Adjusted Male without School-Age-Children Labor Outcomes for Municipalities with High and Low Intensity of Treatment



Notes: Each panel separately shows male labor outcomes for municipalities with a high (top quartile) and a low (bottom quartile) average fraction of predicted FTS seats. The left axis shows the state-by-year-by-quarter and birth cohort-by-year-by-quarter adjusted average of labor outcomes and the right axis the average fraction of predicted FTS seats. Male labor outcomes are calculated based on the National Survey of Occupation and Employment (ENOE) and the fraction of predicted seats in FTS is calculated based on census data from the Ministry of Education in Mexico. Monthly earnings are expressed in 2015 Mexican pesos.

**Table A.1:** Long-Difference Estimated Effects of the Fraction of Seats in FTS on Employment

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Employment						
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.035* (0.019)	0.052** (0.023)	0.048** (0.023)	0.048** (0.023)	0.047** (0.023)	0.047** (0.024)
1 Year after					-0.020 (0.018)	-0.020 (0.018)
2 Years after						0.001 (0.017)
N	209476	209476	208909	208909	208909	208909
Panel B: Formal Employment						
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.001 (0.011)	0.000 (0.013)	-0.002 (0.013)	-0.002 (0.013)	-0.002 (0.013)	-0.002 (0.013)
1 Year after					0.004 (0.008)	0.004 (0.008)
2 Years after						-0.002 (0.008)
N	209476	209476	208909	208909	208909	208909
Panel C: Informal Employment						
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.035* (0.021)	0.052** (0.024)	0.049** (0.023)	0.051** (0.023)	0.048** (0.023)	0.049** (0.024)
1 Year after					-0.024 (0.018)	-0.024 (0.018)
2 Years after						0.004 (0.016)
N	209476	209476	208909	208909	208909	208909
State-by-time fixed effects	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Time-variant individual controls	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes
Other Programs	no	no	no	yes	yes	yes

Notes: Each column in each panel represents a different regression. Observations are at the individual level, spanning from 2005:Q1 to 2016:Q3. All specifications include year-by-quarter fixed effects. Estimated robust standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the municipality level. Individual controls include a quadratic function of age, a quadratic function of the age of the youngest child, a quadratic function of the number of children aged 15 and younger, and birth cohort-by-time fixed effects. Other programs include *Estancias Infantiles*, and Full-Time Schools for kindergarten and middle school aged children. Monthly earnings are expressed in 2015 Mexican pesos.

\*, \*\*, \*\*\* Significant at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively.

**Table A.2:** Long-Difference Estimated Effects of the Fraction of Seats in FTS on Female Labor Outcomes by Education

*Restricted Sample:* Municipalities with a predicted share of FTS seats in the 2nd-4th quartiles

<i>Years of schooling:</i>	Overall	0–9	10+
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Panel A: Labor Force Participation			
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.050** (0.024)	0.067** (0.029)	-0.022 (0.044)
N	155695	103235	52286
Baseline	0.441	0.379	0.578
Panel B: Number of Weekly Hours Worked			
Fraction of seats in FTS	1.513* (0.846)	1.899** (0.960)	-0.125 (2.037)
N	155695	103235	52286
Baseline	15.159	12.693	20.579
Panel C: Monthly Earnings			
Fraction of seats in FTS	383.033** (189.845)	391.016** (176.440)	180.772 (542.668)
N	155695	103235	52286
Baseline	1937.051	1097.049	3777.719

Notes: Each column in each panel represents a different regression. Observations are at the individual level, spanning from 2005:Q1 to 2015:Q3. All specifications include year-by-quarter fixed effects. Estimated robust standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the municipality level. Individual controls include a quadratic function of age, a quadratic function of the age of the youngest child, a quadratic function of the number of children aged 15 and younger, and birth cohort-by-time fixed effects. Other programs include *Estancias Infantiles*, and Full-Time Schools for kindergarten and middle school aged children. Monthly earnings are expressed in 2015 Mexican pesos.

\*, \*\*, \*\*\* Significant at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively.

**Table A.3:** Long-Difference Estimated Effects of the Fraction of Seats in FTS on Female Labor Outcomes by Poverty Level of the Locality of Residence

*Restricted Sample:* Municipalities with a predicted share of FTS seats in the 2nd-4th quartiles

<i>Poverty level:</i>	Overall (1)	Low Poverty (2)	High Poverty (3)
Panel A: Labor Force Participation			
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.050** (0.024)	-0.046 (0.057)	0.051* (0.028)
N	155695	77246	77094
Baseline	0.441	0.496	0.372
Panel B: Number of Weekly Hours Worked			
Fraction of seats in FTS	1.513* (0.846)	1.327 (1.940)	1.924* (0.993)
N	155695	77246	77094
Baseline	15.159	17.211	12.519
Panel C: Log of Monthly Earnings			
Fraction of seats in FTS	383.033** (189.845)	63.189 (715.471)	401.849** (194.282)
N	155695	77246	77094
Baseline	1937.051	2593.805	1083.216

Notes: Each column in each panel represents a different regression. Observations are at the individual level, spanning from 2005:Q1 to 2015:Q3. All specifications include year-by-quarter fixed effects. Estimated robust standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the municipality level. Individual controls include a quadratic function of age, a quadratic function of the age of the youngest child, a quadratic function of the number of children aged 15 and younger, and birth cohort-by-time fixed effects. Other programs include *Estancias Infantiles*, and Full-Time Schools for kindergarten and middle school aged children. Low and high poverty localities are defined as those below and above the median poverty index, respectively. Monthly earnings are expressed in 2015 Mexican pesos.

\*, \*\*, \*\*\* Significant at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively.

**Table A.4:** Long-Difference Estimated Effects of the Fraction of Seats in FTS on Female Without School-Age Children Labor Outcomes

<i>Women omitted from analysis:</i>	None (1)	School-age grandchildren (2)	Any school-age children (3)
Panel A: Labor Force Participation			
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.034** (0.014)	0.022 (0.015)	0.018 (0.015)
N	407281	354855	347235
Baseline	0.374	0.385	0.384
Panel B: Number of Weekly Hours Worked			
Fraction of seats in FTS	0.860 (0.611)	0.782 (0.638)	0.685 (0.639)
N	407281	354855	347235
Baseline	13.242	13.672	13.621
Panel C: Monthly Earnings			
Fraction of seats in FTS	154.331 (112.331)	177.756 (130.885)	151.311 (133.284)
N	407281	354855	347235
Baseline	1623.894	1728.180	1729.049

Notes: Each column in each panel represents a different regression. Observations are at the individual level, spanning from 2005:Q1 to 2016:Q3. All specifications include year-by-quarter fixed effects. Estimated robust standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the municipality level. Individual controls include a quadratic function of age, a quadratic function of the number of children aged 15 and younger, and birth cohort-by-time fixed effects. Other programs include *Estancias Infantiles*, and Full-Time Schools for kindergarten and middle school aged children. Monthly earnings are expressed in 2015 Mexican pesos.

\*, \*\*, \*\*\* Significant at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively.