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*Research Article*

# ‘Family-anchored’ transitions to adult life in Mexico

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# Contents

*Demographic Research*: Volume 54, Article 2
*Research Article*

# 'Family-anchored' transitions to adult life in Mexico

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## Abstract

**BACKGROUND**
It is common for young adults in Mexico to coreside with own parents or other extended family members when forming the first partnership or becoming a parent/single parent. This practice has scarcely been studied in the literature and yet plays a very relevant role in understanding transitions to adulthood in the Latin American context.

**OBJECTIVE**
This study explores whether young Mexicans realize family transitions (first partnership, parenthood, and single motherhood) within an extended household ('family-anchored' transitions), emphasizing the role of family support during life course transitions and its stability across cohorts.

**METHODS**
Leveraging longitudinal data from the 2017 Retrospective Demographic Survey (EDER) for cohorts born between 1962 and 1987 (N = 13,020), we analyze whether family transitions (first partnership, first parenthood within partnership, and first single motherhood) involve a shift from a nuclear to an extended household. Using multivariate logistic regressions, we assess the socioeconomic and demographic profile associated with family-anchored transitions.

**RESULTS**
Around 42% of women and 32% of men anchor their transition to first partnership and single motherhood in an extended household. Younger adults from recent cohorts, low-SES families, and with lower education have higher odds of experiencing family-anchored transitions to first partnership and parenthood, whereas anchored transitions to single motherhood is more likely for women from younger cohorts and high-SES backgrounds.

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**CONTRIBUTION**

This research contributes to the understanding of the critical role of family support during vulnerable life stages in Mexico, and how anchoring family transitions in extended households represents a common strategy across Mexican society.

## 1. Introduction

In Mexico, as in most Latin American countries, it is common for young people to live with their parents or other family members when they transition to first partnership and first child, or separate (Solís 2017). We define these transitions as 'family-anchored' transitions. Family-anchored transitions often lead to the formation of extended households, in which parents and other family members provide housing and other resources to the young (García and Rojas 2002). Despite the prevalence and social relevance of this practice, empirical work on the subject is scarce. Extended households are prevalent in societies with strong family ties and traditional marriage systems (Gruijters and Ermisch 2019), where early union formation, near-universal marriage, infrequent divorce, and established patterns of intergenerational coresidence transcend social strata. By contrast, we argue that in Mexico, family anchoring exists in a context of economic informality and inequality, where marriage is not universal (Castro-Martín et al. 2011), unions are highly unstable (Pérez Amador 2008), and intergenerational co-residence patterns are not based on rigid patrilocal systems like those observed in parts of South and East Asia (Therborn 2014). Anchoring allows young Mexicans transitioning to adulthood and family life to remain attached to their extended families (most commonly parents) rather than involving full residential independence, especially among the most vulnerable and youngest individuals.

Using data from the 2017 Retrospective Demographic Survey (*Encuesta Demográfica Retrospectiva*, from now on EDER), this article leverages its retrospective information to examine family anchoring at three key family transitions: first partnership (first time coresiding with a partner), first parenthood within partnership (first time coresiding with children and a partner), and first single motherhood (first time coresiding with children without a partner) among men and women born in Mexico between 1962 and 1987. We examine whether these family transitions involve a shift from a nuclear family (living alone, or coresiding only with partner, children, or one's own parents) to an extended household (including other family members). We study trends across birth cohorts and outline the sociodemographic profiles most likely associated with anchoring family transitions in extended households.

# 2. Background

## 2.1 About the relevance of the extended household for transitions to adult life

Leaving the parental home, entering a union, and becoming a parent for the first time constitute three frequent family transitions in people's lives. These events not only signify greater individual autonomy but also involve adopting new societal norms and responsibilities (Settersten Jr., Furstenberg, and Rumbaut 2005). Drawing from European and North American literature on the sequence of life course transitions (Aassve, Cottini, and Vitali 2013; Billari and Liefbroer 2010; Buchmann and Kriesi 2011), family transitions typically follow this order: leaving the parental home, forming a union, and then having children. Therefore, it is unexpected that young adults start cohabiting with a partner or have a child before becoming independent from their parents. The European and North American experience epitomizes what is known as 'neolocality' (Gruijters and Ermisch 2019), a family system in which union formation involves establishing a new, independent household. In this context, forming a union and having a child may be postponed until the couple (or one of its members) attains economic sufficiency, typically through secure employment, allowing them to leave their family of origin and set up an independent home (Becker 1998; Studer, Liefbroer, and Mooyaart 2018). As a result, intergenerational coresidence among partnered individuals is relatively low, particularly in Northern European countries (Esteve et al. 2024; Esteve and Reher 2024).

By contrast, in some societies, people marry or enter into cohabitation while continuing to live in the parental home, typically in the household of the husband's parents (Yasuda et al. 2011). This practice, known as 'patrilocality', is a widespread feature of Asian family systems, including in China, India, and the Middle East (Gruijters and Ermisch 2019). Intergenerational coresidence in East Asia reflects unique cultural norms (Won and Lee 1999) such as filial piety (Therborn 2014). The patrilocal model is rooted in the need to ensure family continuity and to provide support to aging parents. Individuals, especially women, often marry at young ages, and childbearing is nearly universal (Jones 2005). Marriage decisions, including whom and when to marry, are influenced by the economic potential of both the future spouse and their respective families (Goody 1996). Although divorce is legally recognized, union dissolution rates in these societies are relatively low compared to other regions (Dommaraju and Jones 2011). Furthermore, extended coresidence is common across all social classes (Efron Pimentel and Liu 2004), as it is deeply tied to traditional values and caregiving responsibilities (Yasuda et al. 2011).

## 2.2 The Mexican family system: A hybrid model

Although the Mexican family system shares elements with both neolocal and patrilocal models, it does not fully align with either (Therborn 2004). While Mexican couples typically reside in nuclear households, entering a first union does not always entail residential independence from the family of origin (Coubès, Solís, and Zavala de Cosío 2017; Solís 2017). Extended coresidence with one's own parents, other relatives, or in-laws is rather common. The Mexican family model also diverges in key ways from the classic patrilocal structure seen in East Asian countries. First, marriage is not universal (Castro-Martin 2002), and is not the only pathway to starting life as a couple, as unmarried cohabitation has long been rooted in Latin American and Caribbean societies (Esteve and Lesthaeghe 2016). Second, union instability is high both in marriages and cohabiting unions, though more so in the latter (Ojeda and González 2024). Third, parental authority and influence on the timing of union formation and the choice of spouse are considerably weaker than in strong patriarchal and patrilocal societies (Therborn 2004). Fourth, the timing and sequence of family transitions are largely stratified by class and social background, a pattern that has remained stable over time (Zavala De Cosío and Sebille 2023).

The persistent stability of early family transitions in Mexico is a salient feature of its family system. Previous studies link early transitions, especially among lower socioeconomic groups, to adaptive strategies for navigating economic informality and precarity (Fussell 2005; Latapí and González De La Rocha 1995). Across generations, women continue to have children at relatively young ages but gradually reduce their family size and shorten birth intervals, and complete their reproductive period at a young age (Castro Torres 2021; Mier y Terán 1992). This earlier completion enables them to enter the labor market sooner, thereby contributing economically to their families and reducing the household dependency ratio (Fussell 2005; Mier y Terán 1992). More recent works, however, argue that early family trajectories are associated with lower labor force participation among women (Videgain Martínez 2023), especially when coresiding with in-laws (Páez Domínguez 2017), due to increased responsibilities related to protection and care needs.

In family systems such as Mexico's, kin support networks are fundamental providers of social and economic protection. For young adults in particular, the family operates as a reliable safety net that may facilitate transitions in educational, labor market, and family domains, especially when family transitions occur at early ages (Pérez Amador and Giorguli Saucedo 2014). Besides, Mexico's persistent structural inequality makes transitions to adulthood less responsive to economic fluctuations (Attanasio et al. 2025; Clark and Agnant 2025; Pesando et al. 2021), contributing to stability in early trajectories to family life.

Within this context, we aim to study the practice of family anchoring for the main family transitions to adulthood among the Mexican population. Family anchoring can be understood as a coping strategy to strengthen intra-family solidarity in a highly unequal context. We argue that a significant portion of extended households in Mexico are formed around family transitions of young adults, especially among the lower social classes. Family transitions, such as forming unions and having children, imply a whole new array of responsibilities and roles for young people (Conger and Conger 2002), making this period highly subject to social and economic vulnerability. Anchoring family transitions in extended households might serve as an adaptive strategy for coping with economic uncertainty and precarity (Fussell and Palloni 2004).

### 2.3 Trends in family transitions and the interplay with social stratification in Mexico

Family transitions in Mexico, and more broadly in Latin America, cannot be understood without considering the differences that exist between social groups (Biehl et al. 2024). The coexistence of early patterns of union formation and childbearing together with stratified behaviors by social groups has remained unchanged throughout the decades (Ariza and De Oliveira 2007). Young adults often form unions and become parents at relatively young ages, with women displaying a mean age at first partnership of around 22 years old and a mean age at first motherhood of around 23 years old (Páez and Zavala De Cosío 2023). Marriage still remains the predominant type of union, but non-marital cohabitation has expanded dramatically in recent years (Pérez Amador 2016). The type of union is stratified by social group. Non-marital cohabitation (*unión libre*) has been historically more prevalent among lower social groups, but has gradually spread to the more educated sectors (Covre-Sussai et al. 2015; Esteve, Lesthaeghe, and López-Gay 2012; Solís 2013). The nature of cohabiting unions has also changed. Whereas before the 2000s cohabitation was a stage leading to formal marriage, contemporary cohabitation is less likely to result in marriage and more likely to end in dissolution (Pérez Amador 2016). Some literature interprets this recent trend as a response to the increasing economic uncertainty experienced during transitions to adult life (Marcos, García, and Módenes 2022; Rodriguez Vignoli 2004).

Beyond the rise of cohabitation, union dissolution, whether among married or cohabiting partnerships, has risen steadily (Rojas López 2021). The risk of dissolution is higher among non-married cohabiting couples formed at younger ages (Quilodrán Salgado and Arrieta-Arrieta 2022; Ruiz-Vallejo and Solsona i Pairó 2020). Studies on separation and divorce suggest that dimensions related to cultural norms, institutional context, and gender inequalities affect decision-making regarding union dissolution,

especially for women (Allen and Hawkins 2017). Because women often bear the primary caregiving responsibilities for children (Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía (INEGI) 2022), it is widely known that women face higher challenges than men when experiencing separation or divorce (Luna-Santos 2007). After union dissolution, the role of extended families as caregivers, in particular maternal grandparents (Zegers and Reynolds 2022), is critical in reducing the childcare burden of single mothers (Presser 1989).

In Mexico, the age at union, the type of union, and the propensity to divorce are strongly stratified by education and social class (Castro Torres 2021). Individuals with lower levels of education and from lower social strata tend to form partnerships and have children at younger ages, often through non-marital cohabitation, and experience higher rates of dissolution (Esteve, Castro-Martín, and Castro Torres 2022). Conversely, those with higher education levels typically postpone union formation (Juárez and Gayet 2014), experience less union instability, and tend to access partnership through formal marriage at later ages (Esteve, Castro-Martín, and Castro Torres 2022). Previous studies have attempted to disentangle the relationship between the widespread educational expansion in Latin America and the Caribbean and the stable early pattern of family transitions (Esteve, López-Ruiz, and Spijker 2013). The expectation that universal access to primary and secondary education alone would bring about widespread changes in family behaviors has not been realized (Castro Torres et al. 2022). Structural inequality, economic uncertainty, and the uneven returns of education across social groups have reproduced disparities in the patterns of life course events (Rodríguez-Vignoli and Cavenaghi 2014). Although education influences family transitions, it alone cannot offset the broader economic and social disadvantages that contribute to the polarization of trajectories to adult life in Mexico (Fussell 2005).

### 2.4 The role of the extended household in the Mexican context

Research on adaptive strategies for navigating vulnerable life stages and economic crises has highlighted the role of extended families as crucial safety nets during these periods (Fussell 2005; Fussell and Palloni 2004; García and Rojas 2002; Hays and Mindel 1973; Solís 2017). Extended households in Mexico serve as key resource for families to provide both economic and social support to their members (Garay Villegas, Montes de Oca, and Arroyo 2019). This practice has likely helped maintain the stable and early patterns of family transitions, particularly among disadvantaged groups. Historically, 'familism' has provided crucial support to young adults, resulting in little change in the age of union formation and childbearing across generations (De Vos 1995; Fussell and Palloni 2004). Research shows that extended coresidence also functions as a safety net for single

mothers in high-SES families, where greater financial and social support is more readily available (Esteve, García-Román, and Lesthaeghe 2012).

Although the literature on Mexican family transitions is broad and diverse (Salas and de Oliveira 2009; Zavala et al. 2021), empirical research on family anchoring is scarce and has only addressed the topic tangentially. There is research focused on specific sub-populations groups (Coubès, Solís, and Zavala de Cosío 2017; Fussell 2005), particular family transitions (Echarri Cánovas and Pérez Amador 2007; Solís 2017), the interaction between transitions (Blanco and Pacheco 2003), and the postponement of family transitions (Menezes Dos Santos, Lanza Queiroz, and De Andrade Verona 2021). Despite these works providing valuable insights on the topic, little attention has been paid to the household context in which these transitions occur. We argue that family-anchored transitions in extended households are an inherent part of Mexican society, and that familial support likely increases the probability of these transitions occurring. We also contend that given the persistent inequalities in family formation, family anchoring constitutes yet another expression of such inequality and will therefore be more prevalent among the most disadvantaged social groups.

## 3. Data

Compared to other Latin American countries, Mexico has a repertoire of survey data that allows for the investigation of family transitions to adulthood (Coubès, Solís, and Zavala de Cosío 2017; Zavala De Cosío and Sebille 2023). In this paper, we draw on retrospective data from Encuesta Demográfica Retrospectiva 2017 (EDER), a nationally representative survey that provides time-varying information on migration, education, union formation, childbearing, and living arrangement trajectories in Mexico (Zavala De Cosío and Sebille 2023). EDER includes retrospective information on 23,831 individuals, aged 20 to 54, from birth to age at survey.

We examine the household context in which specific family transitions occur. We focus on transitions to first partnership, first parenthood within partnership, and first single motherhood. First partnership refers to the first year an individual resides with a partner; first parenthood within partnership refers to the first time a person has a child while residing with a partner; and first single motherhood refers to the first time a woman resides with a child, without a coresidential partner. We investigate family anchoring by examining if these transitions involve a change from a nuclear to an extended household. This requires identifying the time of the transition, as well as the household context one year before ($t–1$) and at the time of the transition ($t$). We use retrospective information to examine transitions that occur between ages 15 and 30 among individuals born between 1962 and 1987 (N = 13,923). We group these individuals into five birth cohorts: 1962–

1967, 1968–1972, 1973–1977, 1978–1982, and 1983–1987. There are three main reasons for the selected age range. First, in Mexico, most men and women experience key family transitions within this life stage (Fussell 2005). Second, it provides a consistent observation window for both sexes that effectively captures patterns of family transitions across the five birth cohorts analyzed. Third, because the data are retrospective, selecting a wider age range would have reduced both the sample size and the number of cohorts available for analysis.

We focus on three transitions and treat them separately: first partnership (T1), first parenthood within partnership (T2), and first single motherhood (T3). All these transitions involve a change in living arrangements. A conceptual map showing the three transitions of interest (T1, T2, T3) at time *t* and the possible lagged statuses (*t–1*) is displayed in Figure A-1. We then identify the household contexts in which these transitions occur. EDER provides retrospective information on living arrangements. This allows examining if ego resides with his/her mother, father, siblings, partner, offspring, parents-in-law, other biological relatives (grandparents, etc.), and political family (in-laws). Coresidence with non-family members cannot be identified. For analytical purposes, we combine parents-in-law, other biological relatives, and in-laws under 'other relatives.' We start with 32 living arrangement types (see Table A-1), which we then divide into three groups: unipersonal, nuclear, and extended. Table 1 shows the total number of cases for each family transition, classified according to the type of household before and after the transition. We restrict our analysis to family transitions that originate in a nuclear household (columns 3 and 4), while transitions originating in extended households (columns 1 and 2) are excluded. This is because our aim is to assess whether these family events are associated with household extension at time *t*. In all cases, transitions originating from a nuclear household are the most common, especially at the moment of first partnership. Around 90% of women and men who transition to first partnership within an extended household come from a nuclear household. The total number of unique individuals who experience at least one transition originating from a nuclear household is 12,993. Among these, 9,267 experience a transition to first partnership, 7,659 experience a transition to first parenthood within partnership, and 1,800 experience a transition to first single motherhood. In principle, some individuals may appear in more than one transition if they experience multiple transitions between ages 15 and 30. However, only those who lived in a nuclear household prior to the transition are included. Each transition is treated independently in order to identify which ones show higher levels of anchoring in extended households.

**Table 1: Distribution of individuals by household trajectory based on household type the year before the transition (t–1) and the household type at the time of transition (t)**

| | | N | Ext. to Ext. (1) | Ext. to Nuc. (2) | Nuc. to Ext. (3) | Nuc. to Nuc. (4) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| T1. | First partnership | | | | | |
| | Women | 5,510 | 4.4 | 3.7 | 36.5 | 55.4 |
| | Men | 4,607 | 3.4 | 2.7 | 30.0 | 63.9 |
| T2. | First parenthood within partnership | | | | | |
| | Women | 6,257 | 24.1 | 6.6 | 10.6 | 58.6 |
| | Men | 4,056 | 18.9 | 4.6 | 6.8 | 69.6 |
| T3. | First single motherhood | | | | | |
| | Women | 2,558 | 20.6 | 7.7 | 27.4 | 44.3 |
| Total (unique individuals) | | 13,923 | | | | |
| | Women | 8,115 | | | | |
| | Men | 5,808 | | | | |

*Note:* Ext. to Ext. (1) = from extended to extended household; Ext. to Nuc. (2) = from extended to nuclear household; Nuc. to Ext. (3) = from nuclear to extended household; Nuc. to Nuc. (4) = from nuclear to nuclear household.
*Source*: EDER 2017.

## 4. Analytical approach

First, we estimate the proportion of women and men who anchor T1, T2, or T3 transitions in an extended household after previously living in a nuclear household. Second, we examine the socioeconomic profile of these populations using multivariate logistic regression. Models are run separately by type of transition (T1, T2, T3) and sex.[3] We treat transitions as separated events to examine their association with the household context, rather than their sequence or order. This approach enables a narrower analysis of the underlying characteristics associated with family-anchoring.

The dependent variables are dummy variables that take the value of 1 when the transition to partnership, partnered parenthood, or single motherhood involves a change from a nuclear to extended household (anchored), and 0 when the transition occurs within a nuclear household (not anchored). As independent variables, we use *birth cohort, age at transition, marital status*, *educational attainment*, an indicator of *social origin* as a proxy for socioeconomic status, *union duration* (only for T2), and *lagged union status* (only for T3). All models control for *urban/rural* residence.

[3] Transitions to single parenthood (T3) are analyzed only for women, due to the small sample size for men (N = 474).

*Birth cohort* is a categorical variable that groups individuals into five cohorts: 1962–1967, 1968–1972, 1973–1977, 1978–1982, and 1983–1987. *Age at transition* refers to the age at which the individual experiences the transition, and it is treated as a continuous variable ranging from 15 to 30.

*Marital status* classifies the type of union at the time of transition, distinguishing between *marriage*, *consensual union,* and *not in union*. *Union duration* – included only in transitions to parenthood – captures the length of the partnership in years (0, 1–2, >2) based on the reported marital status at the time of parenthood. In model T3 we include *lagged union status*, which reports a woman's union status one year prior to the transition to single motherhood. This variable takes the values *not in union* (proxy for out-of-union birth), and *in union* (proxy for union dissolution, widowhood, or partner's out-migration).

At each age, *educational attainment* reflects the last level of schooling attended for at least one year and is treated as a time-varying variable. The level recorded corresponds to the last level attended at the time of the transition, rather than the highest level completed over the life course. Following Páez and Zavala (2023), we recode education into three categories: *low*, *middle*, and *high*. *Low education* includes no schooling, pre-school and primary school; *middle education* corresponds to high school, post-secondary and vocational education; *high education* comprises all tertiary studies from bachelor to doctoral degree.

As a proxy for socioeconomic status, we use the *indicator of social origin* (IOS – *Indicador de Orígenes Sociales*), a multidimensional measure of an individual's family social class at age 15 (Coubès, Solís, and Zavala de Cosío 2017; Zavala De Cosío and Sebille 2023). IOS captures both the household's economic conditions and a combination of parental education and occupational status (see Annex 2, p. 191, in Blanco, Solís, and Robles 2014). IOS is a cohort-relative measure expressed as a continuous scale, where higher values indicate a higher position in social stratification within the respondent's birth cohort. For our analysis we use the IOS classification in quartiles, as provided by the EDER dataset.

Although educational attainment and IOS may be correlated, in practice they measure distinct aspects of an individual's characteristics. Education refers to the level achieved by the time of the transition, and IOS is a proxy for parental background relative to ego's cohort. We conducted robustness checks on the three samples separately to assess whether including both educational attainment and IOS improves model performance. The results show that education enhances the model's goodness-of-fit and positively contributes to explaining the outcome variable.

**Table 2: Analytic sample characteristics by sex and type of transition**

| | Women | | | Men | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Partnership (T1) | Parenthood (T2) | Single motherhood (T3) | Partnership (T1) | Parenthood (T2) |
| N (*unique individuals*) | 4,998 | 4,274 | 1,800 | 4,269 | 3,385 |
| *Cohort (%)* | | | | | |
| 1962–1967 | 17.9 | 18.1 | 15.9 | 19.4 | 18.5 |
| 1968–1972 | 19.9 | 20.3 | 16.1 | 19.2 | 19.8 |
| 1973–1977 | 22 | 20.9 | 20.6 | 22.5 | 20.8 |
| 1978–1982 | 21.3 | 20.4 | 22.8 | 19.3 | 19.1 |
| 1983–1987 | 19 | 20.2 | 24.6 | 19.7 | 21.8 |
| *Mean age at transition* | 20.8 | 21.7 | 23.1 | 22.4 | 23.6 |
| *Urban residence (%)* | 77.8 | 80.1 | 81.1 | 76.2 | 75.6 |
| *Social origin — IOS (%)* | | | | | |
| Quartile 1 (bottom) | 26.4 | 23.9 | 26.6 | 27.2 | 27.5 |
| Quartile 2 | 25.7 | 26.6 | 24.3 | 25.4 | 25.3 |
| Quartile 3 | 24.7 | 25.2 | 26.9 | 23.3 | 25.7 |
| Quartile 4 (top) | 23.2 | 24.3 | 22.1 | 24 | 21.5 |
| *Educational att. (%)* | | | | | |
| Low | 32.5 | 30.4 | 33 | 28.5 | 29.2 |
| Middle | 52 | 54.9 | 53.3 | 53.9 | 54.4 |
| High | 15.5 | 14.8 | 13.6 | 17.6 | 16.4 |
| *Marital status (%)* | | | | | |
| Not in union | 0 | 0 | 84.4 | 0 | 0 |
| Consensual union | 34.5 | 31.3 | 5.3 | 38 | 31.2 |
| Marriage | 65.5 | 68.7 | 10.3 | 62 | 68.8 |
| *Union duration (in years, %)* | | | | | |
| 0 | – | 0 | 83.7 | – | 0 |
| 1–2 | – | 67.9 | 3.8 | – | 61.3 |
| >2 | – | 32.1 | 12.5 | – | 38.7 |
| *Lagged union status (%)* | | | | | |
| Not in union | – | 32.9 | 49.2 | – | 26 |
| In union | – | 67.1 | 50.8 | – | 74 |

*Source*: EDER 2017.

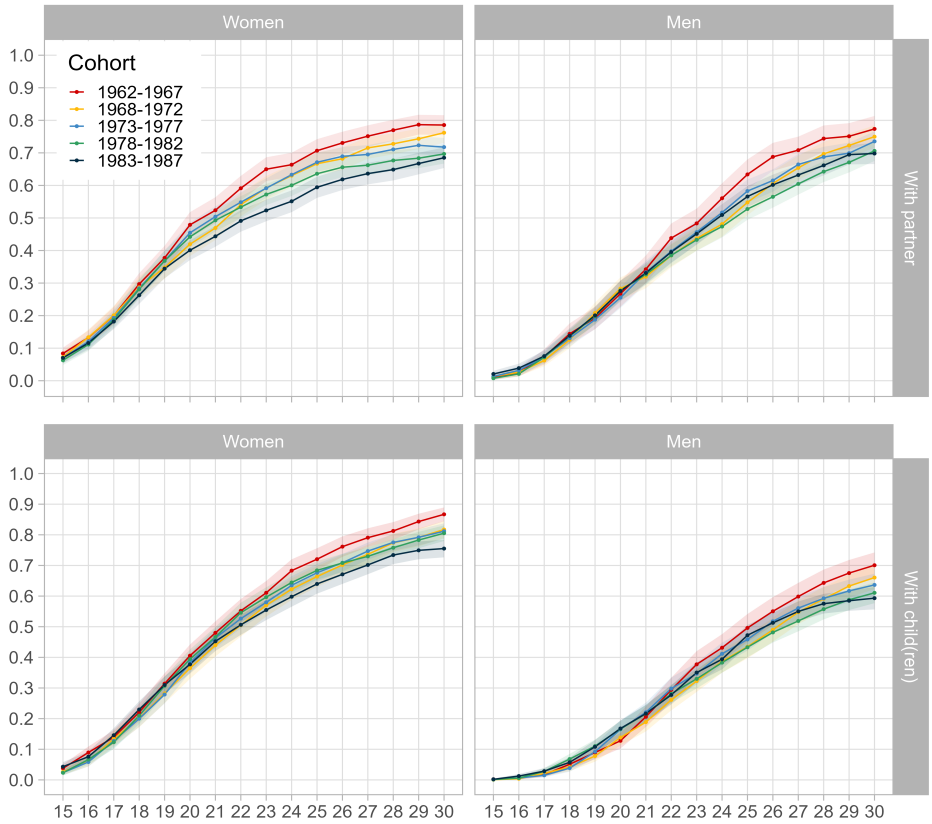
Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics of the three samples used in the logistic analysis, one for each type of family transition. Individuals who experience more than one transition are included in more than one sample. All results are weighted, and all the calculations are made using the Survey Package in R for complex survey designs. Our approach cannot establish causal relationships but merely associations that might align with the interpretative framework we presented in the background section.

# 5. Results

## 5.1 Intensity and timing of transitions to family formation in Mexico

Figure 1 depicts the proportion of women (left panels) and men (right panels) who live with a partner (panels a and b) and with children (panels c and d), by age and birth cohort. Regardless of the birth cohort, more than 50% of women are in union by the age of 23. For men, this occurs at age 25. By age 30, more than 70% of the population live with a partner. There is a decline in the proportion of partnered women and men across cohorts. This might be due to either postponement or to an increase in union dissolution. In the bottom panel, we show the proportion of men and women who coreside with their own children, irrespective of their marital status. Regardless of age, women are always more likely to live with children than men. We observe little change across cohorts. By age 23 and later, the proportion of women coresiding with children exceeds that of those living with their partner, suggesting the influence of union dissolution. By age 30, an average 80% of women and 65% of men live with their children. The few differences we observe between cohorts, as illustrated by the overlapping confidence intervals, are consistent with the pattern of stability in union formation and family calendars that characterizes the country.

**Figure 1: Proportion of Mexican women and men living with a partner (top panel) and children (bottom panel) by age and cohort**




*Source*: EDER 2017.
*Note*: 95% confidence intervals are shown.

## 5.2 Family-anchored transitions in Mexico across cohorts

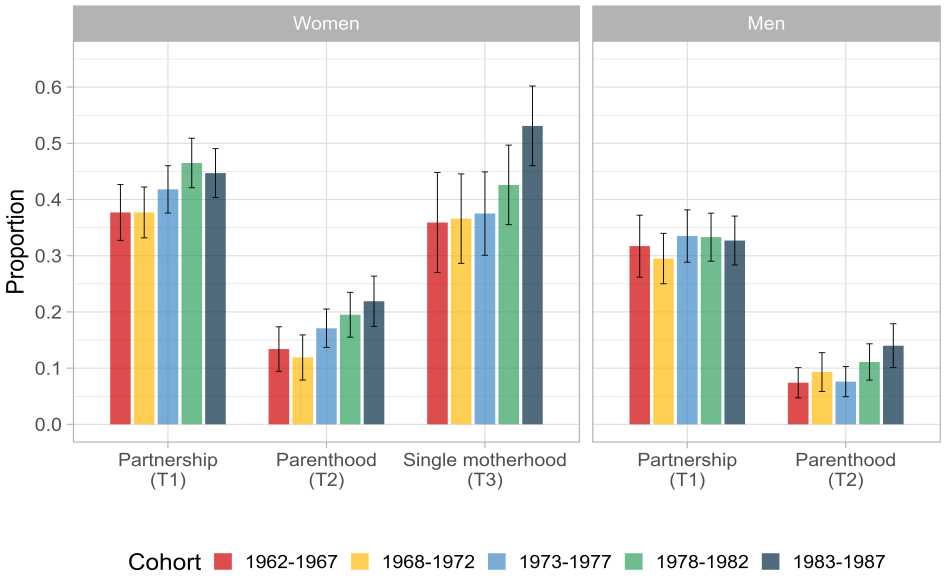
Figure 2 shows the proportion of women (left panel) and men (right panel) by birth cohort who move to an extended household at the time of first partnership (T1), first parenthood within partnership (T2), and first single motherhood (T3). As a reminder, only individuals who were living in a nuclear household the year before the family transitions are considered.

Findings show that, across cohorts, 42% of women and 32% of men anchor the transition to first partnership (T1) in an extended household. When first parenthood occurs within a partnership, approximately 17% of women and 10% of men transition from a nuclear to an extended household (T2). Several factors may explain gender differences in the prevalence of family anchoring shown in Figure 2. A likely explanation involves patrilocal patterns, whereby women more often move to their male partner's parental household.

Lastly, 42% of women who become a single mother (T3) during the study period anchor this transition in an extended household. In all transitions the prevalence of family-anchoring is always higher among young cohorts of women than the oldest cohort. This does not apply to men, who display similar levels across cohorts and transitions.

Overall, we observe that family-anchored transitions in extended households are common among both Mexican women and men. This finding confirms that neolocal residence is far from universal, particularly among individuals entering a union for the first time.

**Figure 2: Proportion of family-anchored transitions in extended households, by cohort and sex**




*Source*: EDER 2017.

Table 3 presents details about the types of extended family members with whom women and men live at the times of transition, based on their kinship tie.[4] Partnered women are more likely than men to live with in-laws. Among those entering first partnership, 70.9% of men live with their parents compared to 30.7% of women. A similar pattern emerges during the transition to first parenthood within a partnership, with 57.3% of men and 32.1% of women residing with their own parents. Conversely, the proportion of women living with parents-in-law at the time of first partnership is twice that of men. These gender differences also appear during the transition to first parenthood within partnership. These gendered patterns are not surprising in the Mexican context, which is still characterized by patriarchal norms and patrilocality. As expected, the pattern reverses in the case of single motherhood: over 90% of first-time single mothers move in with or remain living with their own parents.

**Table 3: Distribution (%) of the types of extended family members present in the household at the moment of family-anchoring (t), by sex**

| | Women | | | Men | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Partnership (T1) | Parenthood (T2) | Single motherhood (T3) | Partnership (T1) | Parenthood (T2) |
| Parents | 11.4 | 13.7 | 29.4 | 25.8 | 20.5 |
| Parents + parents-in-law | 1.1 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.4 | 1.0 |
| Parents + other relatives | 18.3 | 18.2 | 63.3 | 44.7 | 35.8 |
| Parents-in-law | 27.6 | 30.1 | 1.5 | 12.9 | 21.5 |
| Parents-in-law + other relatives | 33.5 | 27.8 | 1.0 | 9.3 | 11.9 |
| Other relatives | 5.7 | 8.8 | 4.0 | 5.6 | 7.0 |
| Parents + parents-in-law + other relatives | 2.5 | 1.2 | 0.7 | 1.4 | 2.3 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

*Source*: EDER 2017.

## 5.3 Demographic and socioeconomic profiles linked to anchored family transitions in extended households

In this section, we profile individual characteristics associated with extended coresidence at first partnership, parenthood, and single motherhood. We employ multivariate logistic regression models, and report results as odds ratios (OR) for ease of interpretation.

Table 4 displays the odds ratios for women and men regarding the transition to first partnership (T1). The corresponding probabilities are higher for the two youngest cohorts of women compared to those born in the 1960s and 1970s. Age is strongly associated

[4] Details on household composition based on ego's kinship relationship with household members can be found in Table A-1

with anchoring: each additional year of age decreases the odds of transitions to first partnership within an extended household by 6% for women and 8% for men. Educational attainment and socioeconomic background influence the likelihood for women but not for men. Highly educated women and those in the top quartile of the socioeconomic distribution (IOS) have about half the odds of anchoring their first partnership, compared to women from poorer backgrounds with middle or low education. Married individuals are less likely than unmarried ones to anchor transitions to first partnership in an extended household.

**Table 4: Summary of logistic regression analysis for variables predicting anchoring transition to first partnership in an extended household for women (N = 4,998) and men (N = 4,269)**

| | *Women* | | | *Men* | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *B* | OR | *95% CI* | *B* | OR | *95% CI* |
| (Intercept) | 1.21 | 3.36 | (1.96–5.74) | 1.30 | 3.67 | (1.88–7.16) |
| Birth cohort | | | | | | |
| 1962–1967 *(ref.)* | | | | | | |
| 1968–1972 | –0.01 | 0.99 | (0.75–1.31) | –0.13 | 0.88 | (0.63–1.24) |
| 1973–1977 | 0.11 | 1.12 | (0.85–1.47) | 0.04 | 1.04 | (0.74–1.45) |
| 1978–1982 | 0.33 | 1.39 | (1.05–1.84) | –0.01 | 0.99 | (0.71–1.38) |
| 1983–1987 | 0.29 | 1.33 | (1.00–1.77) | –0.10 | 0.91 | (0.65–1.26) |
| Age at transition (*cont.*) | –0.06 | 0.94 | (0.92–0.97) | –0.08 | 0.92 | (0.89–0.94) |
| Residence | | | | | | |
| Rural *(ref.)* | | | | | | |
| Urban | –0.13 | 0.88 | (0.71–1.09) | –0.03 | 0.97 | (0.76–1.23) |
| Social origin – IOS | | | | | | |
| Quartile 1 (*ref.*) | | | | | | |
| Quartile 2 | –0.03 | 0.97 | (0.78–1.20) | 0.03 | 1.03 | (0.80–1.34) |
| Quartile 3 | –0.12 | 0.89 | (0.69–1.14) | –0.12 | 0.89 | (0.67–1.17) |
| Quartile 4 | –0.65 | 0.52 | (0.39–0.70) | 0.01 | 1.01 | (0.73–1.40) |
| Educational attainment | | | | | | |
| Low *(ref.)* | | | | | | |
| Middle | –0.01 | 0.99 | (0.80–1.22) | 0.27 | 1.31 | (1.03–1.67) |
| High | –0.42 | 0.66 | (0.46–0.93) | –0.26 | 0.77 | (0.51–1.18) |
| Marital status | | | | | | |
| Consensual union *(ref.)* | | | | | | |
| Marriage | –0.16 | 0.85 | (0.72–1.01) | –0.35 | 0.70 | (0.58–0.86) |
| N | 4,998 | | | 4,269 | | |

*Note*: B (coefficients); OR (odds ratios); 95% confidence intervals in parentheses.
*Source*: EDER 2017.

Table 5 presents results for transitions to first parenthood within a partnership (T2). A strong age effect persists for both women and men, whereas the cohort effect disappears. For both sexes, education-related variables and socioeconomic distribution (IOS) show no clear association with family anchoring at first parenthood, suggesting the

practice is common across social strata. By contrast, the odds of anchoring in an extended household decline sharply among married couples who have been together for more than two years before the first birth. Overall, family-anchored transitions to first parenthood within partnership appear to be related to the stability of the couple rather than to individual and socioeconomic factors.

**Table 5: Summary of logistic regression analysis for variables predicting anchoring transition to first parenthood within partnership in an extended household for women (N = 4,274) and men (N = 3,385)**

| | *Women* | | | *Men* | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *B* | OR | *95% CI* | *B* | OR | *95% CI* |
| (Intercept) | 0.09 | 1.09 | (0.43–2.78) | 0.15 | 1.16 | (0.31–4.30) |
| Birth cohort | | | | | | |
| 1962–1967 *(ref.)* | | | | | | |
| 1968–1972 | –0.10 | 0.90 | (0.53–1.54) | 0.24 | 1.27 | (0.72–2.26) |
| 1973–1977 | 0.26 | 1.30 | (0.82–2.04) | –0.09 | 0.91 | (0.51–1.63) |
| 1978–1982 | 0.33 | 1.39 | (0.89–2.19) | 0.23 | 1.26 | (0.73–2.17) |
| 1983–1987 | 0.36 | 1.44 | (0.89–2.32) | 0.38 | 1.47 | (0.87–2.48) |
| Age at transition (*cont.*) | –0.07 | 0.94 | (0.90–0.98) | –0.10 | 0.91 | (0.86–0.96) |
| Residence | | | | | | |
| Rural *(ref.)* | | | | | | |
| Urban | 0.16 | 1.17 | (0.77–1.77) | 0.04 | 1.04 | (0.69–1.57) |
| Social origin – IOS | | | | | | |
| Quartile 1 (*ref.*) | | | | | | |
| Quartile 2 | 0.29 | 1.34 | (0.86–2.09) | 0.110 | 1.11 | (0.72–1.74) |
| Quartile 3 | 0.00 | 1.00 | (0.64–1.58) | 0.36 | 1.43 | (0.90–2.28) |
| Quartile 4 | 0.02 | 1.02 | (0.61–1.69) | –0.07 | 0.94 | (0.56–1.57) |
| Educational attainment | | | | | | |
| Low *(ref.)* | | | | | | |
| Middle | 0.15 | 1.16 | (0.82–1.63) | 0.25 | 1.28 | (0.86–1.90) |
| High | –0.06 | 0.94 | (0.53–1.65) | 0.52 | 1.68 | (0.87–3.24) |
| Marital status | | | | | | |
| Consensual union *(ref.)* | | | | | | |
| Marriage | –0.58 | 0.56 | (0.42–0.74) | –0.34 | 0.71 | (0.50–1.01) |
| Union duration (*in years*) | | | | | | |
| 1–2 *(ref.)* | | | | | | |
| >2 | –2.52 | 0.08 | (0.05–0.13) | –2.40 | 0.09 | (0.05–0.15) |
| N | 4,274 | | | 3,385 | | |

*Note*: B (coefficients); OR (odds ratios); 95% confidence intervals in parentheses.
*Source*: EDER 2017.

Table 6 shows results for transition to first single motherhood (T3) among women. Before interpreting the findings, a few remarks on this transition are necessary. Single motherhood can arise through various pathways. Women can become single mothers from a union dissolution or widowhood, which means they were previously in union; after the out-migration of the partner, meaning they are still in union but not living

together; or from an out-of-union pregnancy, which infers that they are not in union (neither previously nor now).

**Table 6: Summary of logistic regression analysis for variables predicting anchoring transition to first single motherhood in an extended household, for women (N = 1,800)**

| | *Women* | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | *B* | OR | *95% CI* |
| (Intercept) | –0.14 | 0.87 | (0.25–3.09) |
| Birth cohort | | | |
| 1962–1967 *(ref.)* | | | |
| 1968–1972 | 0.04 | 1.04 | (0.52–2.06) |
| 1973–1977 | –0.14 | 0.87 | (0.47–1.62) |
| 1978–1982 | 0.54 | 1.72 | (0.99–2.98) |
| 1983–1987 | 0.86 | 2.36 | (1.23–4.53) |
| Age at transition (*cont.*) | 0.03 | 1.04 | (0.98–1.09) |
| Residence | | | |
| Rural *(ref.)* | | | |
| Urban | –0.68 | 0.51 | (0.30–0.85) |
| Social origin – IOS | | | |
| Quartile 1 (*ref.*) | | | |
| Quartile 2 | 0.41 | 1.51 | (0.89–2.58) |
| Quartile 3 | 1.14 | 3.11 | (1.87–5.18) |
| Quartile 4 | 1.14 | 3.12 | (1.65–5.88) |
| Educational attainment | | | |
| Low *(ref.)* | | | |
| Middle | 0.13 | 1.13 | (0.70–1.83) |
| High | 0.01 | 1.01 | (0.54–1.91) |
| Marital status | | | |
| Not in union (*ref.*) | | | |
| In union (*any type*) | –0.74 | 0.48 | (0.28–0.82) |
| Lagged union status | | | |
| Not in union *(ref.)* | | | |
| In union | –3.13 | 0.04 | (0.03–0.07) |
| N | | 1,800 | |

*Note*: B (coefficients); OR (odds ratios); 95% confidence intervals in parentheses.
*Source*: EDER 2017.

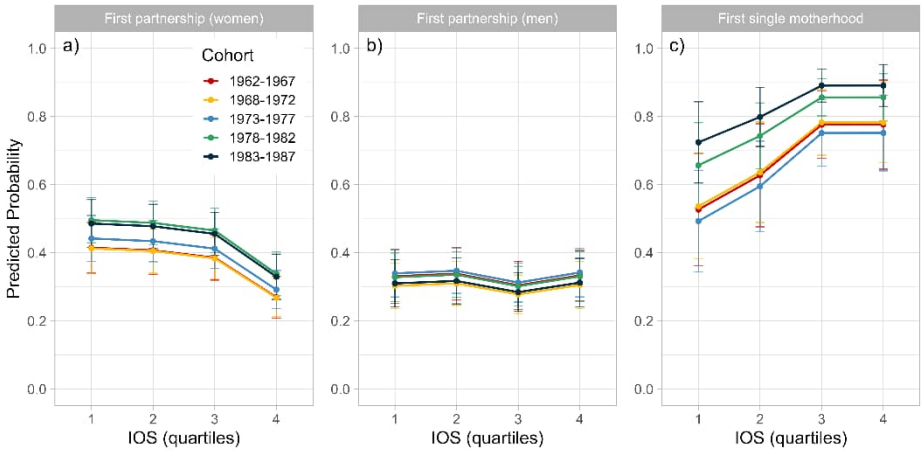
We are aware these mechanisms are not comparable and imply different preconditions and consequences. Experiencing an out-of-union birth and having a child while living with a partner and then separating describe two different transitions to single motherhood, with different implications for the mother and the child. For this reason, we include two variables to account for these different paths to single motherhood. The first variable is *lagged union status*, which indicates whether or not the woman was in union the year before becoming a single mother, at *t–1*. The latter case likely indicates a probable out-of-union birth; otherwise it may indicate separation, widowhood, or

partner's out-migration. The second variable is *marital status*, grouped here into two categories: women not currently in a union versus those who are in any type of union at the time of transition (*t*). The former suggests a separation or out-of-union birth, while the latter points to a probable partner migration. The combined interpretation of these variables can offer some insight into the diverse paths to single motherhood.

Anchoring the transition to single motherhood in an extended household (Table 6) is much more common among the two youngest cohorts. The age at the transition appears to have no effect. Single mothers from the top quartiles of the socioeconomic distribution (IOS), that is, those from a high-SES background, have more than triple the odds of anchoring this transition compared to those from the bottom quartile. This finding aligns with the notion that high-SES families have greater available resources to economically and emotionally support single mothers and their children (Esteve, García-Román, and Lesthaeghe 2012). Women who are in union at the time of transition (proxy for partner's migration) display lower odds of anchoring in an extended household. Women who were in union one year before (proxy for separation/divorce/widowhood) have even lower odds. In conclusion, women who experience out-of-union pregnancies, relative to single mothers who were already living independently with a partner or those whose partner is non-coresident but with whom they remain in union, are more likely to anchor in the parental home, establishing intergenerational households. In the scenarios of a previous or current union, single mothers are likely receiving some economic support from the non-residential father, especially when remittances are sent by a migrated partner.

To aid interpretation, Figure 3 plots model-based predicted probabilities of family anchoring across IOS and cohort, with other covariates fixed at the reference profile specified in the caption. The y-axis shows probabilities (0–1); vertical bars denote 95% confidence intervals. Two patterns stand out. First, cohort and IOS effects at the transition to first partnership differ by sex: women (panel a) show increasing family anchoring across cohorts, whereas men (panel b) show little or no cohort change. A similar pattern holds across IOS quartiles: women in the top quartile have a lower predicted probability of family anchoring, whereas men show no meaningful differences across groups. Second, among women the association with IOS reverses by transition type. At entry into a new partnership, greater economic advantage is associated with a higher likelihood of living independently rather than with parents or parents-in-law. By contrast, transition to single motherhood (panel c) reflects a family system in which intergenerational support cuts across socioeconomic groups, and is particularly pronounced when parental backgrounds have the financial resources to provide support and care.

**Figure 3: Model-based predicted probabilities of family-anchoring across IOS quartiles, stratified by birth cohort. Panels show: a) first partnership (women), b) first partnership (men), and c) first single motherhood**




*Note*: Predicted probabilities for transition to first partnership are calculated for an individual who is married, resides in an urban area, and has a medium level of education. Age is set at its mean: 20.8 for women and 22.4 for men; Predicted probabilities for transition to single motherhood are calculated for a woman who is not in a union, was not in a union the prior year, resides in urban area, and has a medium level of education. Her mean age is 23.1.
*Source*: EDER 2017.

## 6. Discussion

In this study we shed light on the association between family transitions and extended households in Mexico among young women and men aged 15 to 30, a period when most transitions to adult life are concentrated (Fussell 2005). We examine family transitions to first partnership (T1), first parenthood within partnership (T2), and first single motherhood (T3), and whether these involve a change from a nuclear to an extended household. Our focus is on family-anchored transitions, referring to young women and men who residentially bind to extended family members at the time of transitions to adult life.

Our findings show that, in Mexico, anchoring family transitions in the parental household or with other extended members is a widespread practice (Giorguli Saucedo 2016; Solís 2017). We estimate that 42% of women and 32% of men transition from a nuclear to an extended household when they form their first partnership, and similar figures are found for transition to single motherhood among young Mexican women. The

analysis of kinship ties between ego and extended household members highlights patrilocal tendencies: young women are more likely to move to the partner's parental home at first partnership, whereas young men stay with their parents, bringing the female partner to live with them. A similar pattern is found for transition to first parenthood. These trends reaffirm the continuity of patrilocality in the country, resulting in gendered patterns of family formation. Historically, and starting from the precolonial period, indigenous women would spend some years living in the male partner's household when forming unions and having children (Esteinou 2005). By contrast, single mothers coresiding with their own parents is much more common than coresiding with any other extended family member.

The analysis of this practice highlights three key dimensions associated with it: age at transition, couple stability, and social origin. First, the earlier the age at which the family transition occurs, the higher the odds that it involves anchoring in an extended household. Younger individuals have fewer economic resources to achieve residential independence, they have not yet or have just entered the labor market, and they may need care and financial support from the extended family to complete their education. Additionally, the incidence level of this practice among the population, and the increase among younger cohorts, underscores the persistent role of the family network in shaping and reproducing the early pattern of family formation in Mexico. Second, more consolidated married couples, who have achieved residential independence and who are already living in a nuclear household, are much less likely to anchor in an extended household upon the arrival of a child. Third, the socioeconomic gradient plays different roles, according to the type of transition. For first partnerships, the socioeconomic background relates to economic constraints, hindering couples from emancipating and establishing a new household. Thus, individuals from lower social strata and with lower levels of education more often anchor the first partnership in extended households. Conversely, the socioeconomic gradient reverses for transitions to single motherhood. Indeed, single mothers from high-SES families are most associated with family-anchoring.

Although previous empirical studies are scarce, some untested mechanisms may help explain this finding. It likely reflects the greater capacity of high-SES parents to provide financial, social, and emotional support. By contrast, families of single mothers at the lower end of the social hierarchy may lack sufficient resources to facilitate household extension (Esteve, García-Román, and Lesthaeghe 2012). Also, low-SES families typically have more children, which increases competing demands for parental support while reducing the resources available for each child (Lawson and Mace 2009).

The increasing prevalence of family-anchored transitions across cohorts, particularly pronounced among young women, can be attributed to both demographic and social factors. These include the decline in rural–urban migration and the aging

population's growing care needs (Solís 2017). The former increases the likelihood that younger individuals, from recent cohorts, remain in close proximity to their parents, making family-anchoring more feasible. The latter reflects a broader social trend: aging parents, in a context of limited pension systems, increasingly rely on their children for care and economic support, reducing the incentive for younger adults to leave the parental household (Latapí and González De La Rocha 1995). Other mechanisms at play may include increasing constraints in accessing affordable housing, persistent social inequality, and labor market instability, all of which especially affect the youngest cohort (Marcos, García, and Módenes 2022). These patterns may also reflect a stronger selection of individuals who form unions at younger ages in a context of emerging delays in union formation (Batyra and Kohler 2022). Finally, the substantial increase in family-anchoring at first single motherhood among the youngest cohort is largely attributable to the rising number of single mothers, who typically live in extended families (~70%), in Mexico and Latin America more broadly (Esteve, García-Román, and Lesthaeghe 2012), alongside the increasing numbers of out-of-union births (Castro-Martín et al. 2011).

Family-anchored transitions among young adults may also reflect a bidirectional dynamic, whereby intergenerational support networks benefit all household members rather than solely facilitating young peoples' transitions to adulthood. Household extension among young adults can be a functional response at the family level to preserve economies of scale, and to prevent adverse economic consequences for other family members. This mechanism is likely more common among young sons than daughters, given their higher average labor market participation (Parrado and Zenteno 2002). Although our data do not allow us to test these mechanisms directly, they point to a promising avenue for future research on the link between transitions to adulthood and extended households.

Our study contributes to multiple research areas. As mentioned, the analysis adds to the literature on transitions to adult life in Mexico (Echarri Cánovas and Pérez Amador 2007; Giorguli Saucedo 2016; Solís 2017), exploiting recent survey data and its longitudinal component. This work also reaffirms the well-known dynamics of family formation in Mexico (Coubès, Solís, and Zavala de Cosío 2017), such as the trend of early and stable patterns in unions and childbearing. Our findings provide a complementary explanation for early trends in family life, based not only on the events themselves but also on the household context in which the events take place. Extended family networks facilitate these transitions, when conditions such as residential independence are not achievable or desirable.

This work also offers insights on the topic of extended and complex household structures in Latin America and the Caribbean, which are important features of this region's family systems (Becca, Esteve, and Castro Torres 2025; De Vos 1995). From a broader perspective and returning to the initial idea of large family systems, our study

contributes to the identification of the particularities of complex households in Latin America. Some of these households emerge as part of young people's transitions to adulthood, driven more by necessity and informality than by a rigid patrilocal system based on universal and indissoluble marriage. Family systems in Mexico, likely as in many other Latin American countries, have often been difficult to classify within the dominant European and Asian models, which have been extensively studied (Goody 1996). This uniqueness is reflected in the coexistence of elements associated with the modern family in western countries – declining fertility, increasing union dissolution, non-marital unions, and single mothers (Lesthaeghe 2010) – alongside strong family networks and intra-family solidarity. Although research on the relationship between family transitions and household context remains limited, we believe that family-anchored transitions are likely prevalent across much of Latin America and the Caribbean. Life course trajectories in the region are marked by high levels of informality and instability, combined with minimal state support (Biehl et al. 2024). In the absence of robust welfare systems and amid persistent structural inequality (Torche 2014), extended families often serve as informal safety nets for young adults (Fussell and Palloni 2004), the elderly (De Vos 1995) and household economies more broadly (Latapí and González De La Rocha 1995; Marcos, García, and Módenes 2022). As a result, reliance on family-anchored transition may represent a widespread and adaptive practice among young people in the region. Future research, using longitudinal data, could address this topic with additional case studies in Latin America and the Caribbean.

Our analysis has some limitations, which introduce research questions for future work. Compared to a panel perspective, the longitudinal perspective using retrospective data has certain limitations, although the former is also subject to the limitations of attrition. The fact that the study focuses on young people and that the survey is based on a nationally representative household survey in Mexico provides guarantees regarding the representativeness of the data. Another point that needs to be addressed in future work is the temporal nature of family-anchored transitions in extended households. We do not answer the question of whether this anchoring is temporary or whether it lasts over time. This is a topic that could be analyzed using the same data source. Finally, our work underscores the need for further empirical investigation of the association between family transitions and living arrangements, and how it can explain the existing heterogeneities in the timing of transitions to adult life, especially given the relative scarcity of research on this topic.

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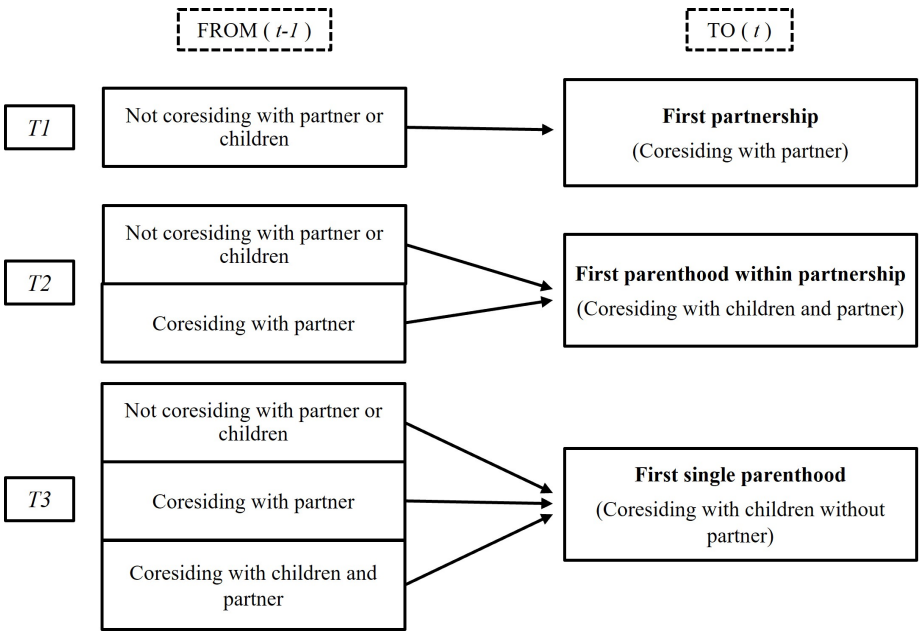
# Appendix

**Figure A-1: Conceptual map: Family transitions (*t*) and lagged coresidence status (*t–1*)**




*Source*: EDER 2017.

## Table A-1: Household type and detailed living arrangements

| Household type | Living arrangement | |
|---|---|---|
| a. Unipersonal | 1 | Ego lives alone |
| b. Nuclear | 2 | Ego lives with partner |
| | 3 | Ego lives with child(ren) |
| | 4 | Ego lives with parent/s |
| | 5 | Ego lives with siblings |
| | 6 | Ego lives with parent/s and siblings |
| | 7 | Ego lives with partner and child(ren) |
| c. Extended | 8 | Ego lives with other relatives |
| | 9 | Ego lives with partner and parents |
| | 10 | Ego lives with partner and siblings |
| | 11 | Ego lives with partner and other relatives |
| | 12 | Ego lives with child(ren) and parents |
| | 13 | Ego lives with child(ren) and siblings |
| | 14 | Ego lives with child(ren) and other relatives |
| | 15 | Ego lives with parents and other relatives |
| | 16 | Ego lives with siblings and other relatives |
| | 17 | Ego lives with child(ren), partner, and parents |
| | 18 | Ego lives with child(ren), partner, and siblings |
| | 19 | Ego lives with child(ren), partner, and other relatives |
| | 20 | Ego lives with partner, parents, and siblings |
| | 21 | Ego lives with partner, parents, and other relatives |
| | 22 | Ego lives with partner, siblings, and other relatives |
| | 23 | Ego lives with child(ren), parents, and siblings |
| | 24 | Ego lives with child(ren), parents, and other relatives |
| | 25 | Ego lives with child(ren), siblings, and other relatives |
| | 26 | Ego lives with parents, siblings, and other relatives |
| | 27 | Ego lives with child(ren), partner, parents, and siblings |
| | 28 | Ego lives with child(ren), partner, parents, and other relatives |
| | 29 | Ego lives with child(ren), partner, siblings, and other relatives |
| | 30 | Ego lives with partner, parents, siblings, and other relatives |
| | 31 | Ego lives with child(ren), parents, siblings, and other relatives |
| | 32 | Ego lives with child(ren), partner, parents, siblings, and other relatives |

*Source*: EDER 2017.