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**Number of Children and their Education in Philippine
Households: Evidence from an Exogenous Change
in Family Size**

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1. Introduction

Education is well recognized as one of the more potent ways that hastens social mobility. Its importance in overall development of a country is also well recognized. This is clear from the sustained and widespread attention it has received in the development literature. One does need to dig deep to realize that what underlies education progress or retrogress is the decision of households to invest in the education of their children. It is, therefore, always important to contribute to the understanding of this process. This is the ultimate object of this paper.

Relative to countries with about the same level of development, the Philippines is known for high school attendance at all levels. Even with its relatively low per capita income, it has achieved attendance rates that approximate those found in high-income countries that led analysts to consider the performance of the Philippines in this area an outlier (see for instance Berhman, 1990, Behrman and Schneider, 1994). This advantage, however, is fast eroding in recent years. For instance, UNESCO data show that Thailand has surpassed the Philippines in attendance rates at the secondary and tertiary levels since the late 1990s². But what is even more alarming, as this paper will later show, is that this erosion is faster among larger and also poorer families. The segment of society that needs most higher education investment to hasten poverty alleviation is in fact investing lower than those who need it less.

The paper formulates and estimates a model of the determinants of the proportion of school-age children attending school considering the endogeneity of the number of children and using an instrument for it. As far as the author knows, this is the first paper that has taken into account the endogeneity of the number of children in the school attendance equation using Philippine data. The quantity-quality literature spawned by the seminal treatment in Becker and Lewis (1973) clearly argues for the endogeneity of the number of children in education equations. Under this framework, OLS estimates of the education equation will be biased and inconsistent. Instrumental variables estimation is needed to generate consistent estimates.

The paper is divided as follows. The next section presents a brief review of the previous literatures. Following that is the presentation of the methodology, instrument and data used. The results are provided next. The final section summarizes and identifies some implications for policy.

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² See Orbeta (2000) for a discussion on this.

2. Previous Studies

The literature on the impact of family size/number of children on the education of a child has a long history. It has produced results ranging from a negative effect, no impact, to a positive relationship. The methodology of quantification of the relationship has evolved from simple cross-tabulations to elaborate controls not only for other individual, household and community characteristics but more importantly for the likely endogeneity of the family size that has been spawned by the quantity-quality literature originally dealt with in Becker and Lewis (1973). The dependent variable used has also ranged from attendance, attainment, and even investment. This section provides a short review that will highlight some of the main results grouping the studies according to the methodologies used.

Controlling for the endogeneity of the family size or number of children in the education equation of children has been hampered by the lack of appropriate instruments. Almost all of the candidates, such as the education of parents or household income, have direct effects on the education of children rendering them inappropriate as instruments. The controls for the endogeneity of the number of children or family size in the education of children equations was pioneered by Rosenzweig and Wolpin (1980) with twins as the instrument using data from India. Since couples do not have control over their birth outcomes, the birth of a twin is considered a good instrument to control for the endogeneity of family size. The much more recent applications are for the US (Vere, 2005), for Romania (Glick, Marini and Sahn, 2005) and for Norway (Black, Devereux and Salvanes, 2004). Black et al. (2004). Black et al. (2004) also used sex-mix as an instrument that was introduced in Angrist and Evans (1998) to control for the number of children in a labor supply equation and an equation for earnings of their parents. A more different tack was adopted in Lee (2004). He used son's preference known to be prevalent in the Republic of Korea as an instrument using Korean data. Turning to the results, Rosenzweig and Wolpin (1980) found that an exogenous increase in fertility significantly decreased the level of schooling of all children measured as the age-standardized sum of the educational attainment of all children in the household. The outcomes for Romania (Glick et al., 2005) using the probability of primary school enrollment as the dependent variable also confirm the earlier Rosenzweig and Wolpin (1980) results. Black et al. (2004), however, found a more negligible result for Norway after controlling for birth order and attribute most of the effect on educational attainment of children to birth order rather than family size. They found that there is substantial differential impact between the first child and subsequent children, i.e., the first child has significantly higher educational attainment than the subsequent children. Black et al. (2004) results using sex-mix as an instrument found a positive relationship between family size and education, but they dismissed it with the argument that sex-mix may be an inappropriate instrument because it may have a direct impact on the child outcomes. Turning to the son preference instrument, Lee (2004) finds that each additional child has a significant negative impact on the monthly household expenditure for education in the Republic of Korea.

The next set of estimates we discuss are multivariate estimates that do not control for the endogeneity of the number of children. The studies in the preceding paragraph usually find that not controlling for the endogeneity of the number of children in the education equation would understate the impact (see for instance, Glick et al. (2005),

and Lee (2004)). The result in Lu and Treiman (2005) using data from the people's Republic of China and OLS regressions shows a negative impact of family size on the educational attainment of children, as well as on the family resources measured by the owning of a study desk at age 14. Patrinos and Psacharopoulos (1997) show that the greater number of children increases the probability of being delayed in schooling in Peru. In addition, they found that this effect increases as the number of siblings increase. In the case of Viet Nam, a negative relationship between school attendance and family size is found even after controlling for individual and household characteristics (Ahn, et al., 1998). But this is not true for educational attainment where there is no significant relationship except in large households (family size greater than 5), where a negative relationship is found.

The literature using multivariate analysis and Philippine data shows the preponderance of a negative impact of a higher number of children on the education of children although some studies show no significant relationship. Herrin (1993) using data from Misamis Oriental province show that while school participation and attainment of the 7-12 years old are not affected, school participation of children 13-17 years old group are negatively affected by the number of siblings. A similar negative impact of the number of siblings on the school participation of children 7-17 years old were found by DeGraff, Bilborrow and Herrin (1996) using the 1983 Bicol Multipurpose Survey data. Paqueo (1985) also found that the number of siblings negatively affect the highest grade completed of children using the 1982 Household School and Matching Survey. Bauer and Racelis (1992) using the 1985 Labor Force Survey (LFS) found that preschool children negatively affect the school attendance of older children (17-24) and primary school children (7-12 years old) and reduce the enrollment of older children (13-24 years old). Excess fertility or unwanted births were also found to negatively affect educational attainment (Montgomery et al. 1997). Finally, using the matched data from the 1994 Family Income and Expenditure Survey, LFS and Functional Literacy Education and Mass Media Survey, Orbeta (2000) found in a joint decision model for school attendance and labor force participation that household size did not significantly affect the school attendance decision but positively affects labor force participation of children 10-24 years old.

Turning to cross-tabulation evidence, Knodel, Havanon and Sittitrai (1990) found that the probability of attending lower secondary and upper secondary is negatively associated with family size among Thai children, using a small sample from two rural areas. This effect, though somewhat reduced, prevails even after controlling for the individual and household characteristics. These results are duplicated in a subsequent study using a nationally representative sample survey (Knodel, J. and M. Wongsith, 1991). In Kenya, however, Gomes (1984) found a positive relationship between completed family size and the educational attainment of children. This impact remains after controlling for household and individual characteristics.

The preceding paragraphs have shown that the results are not consistent across societies and sometimes even in studies using similar methodologies. The studies that control for the endogeneity of family size in the education equation seem to find negative relationships in developing and transition countries (India and Romania) but seem to find conflicting results in more developed countries (Norway and the Republic of Korea). Multivariate analyses that did not control for endogeneity appear to have consistently found negative relationships. Cross tabulation analysis also give conflicting results. In terms of outcomes, school attendance/enrollment were always found to be negatively correlated with family size (Glick, et al., 2005, Ahn et al. 1998); on educational

attainment there appears to be conflicting results (Rosenzweig and Wolpin 1980, Black 2004, Ahn et al. 1998, Gomes, 1984); on investments the impact is consistently negative (Lee, 2004; Lu and Treiman, 2005). The single study using delay in schooling, shows the negative impact of family size (Patrinos and Psacharopoulos, 1997).

3. Methodology, Instrument and Data

3.1 Methodology

To estimate the impact of the number on the education of children we follow Rosenzweig and Wolpin (1980) by estimating the following empirical model

$$E = \alpha_o + \alpha_1 n + X\alpha_2 + \varepsilon$$

$$n = \beta_o + \beta_1 z + X\beta_2 + \mu$$

E is the education variable, n is the number of children z is the instrument to control for the endogeneity of n and X is a vector of individual, household and community characteristics. The error terms ε and μ are, by implication, correlated. The implied subscripts are omitted for clarity. As shown in Rosenzweig and Wolpin (1980) this model is derived from the quantity-quality tradeoff framework originally introduced in Becker and Lewis (1973).

Estimating (1) with OLS will result in a biased and inconsistent estimate if indeed n is endogenous. We, therefore, test for the endogeneity of n in (1). If n is endogenous, we use as instruments, the sex of the first two children. The validity of this instrument is explained in the next section. Since we use cross-section data where heteroscedasticity is commonly present, we also test for heteroscedasticity and apply the GMM estimation³ if it exists.

The dependent variable we use in this paper is the proportion of school-age children that are attending school. Most other studies, except for Rosenzweig and Wolpin (1980) and Lee (2004), used individual outcomes⁴. A household outcome variable, rather an individualistic outcome, would be closer to the spirit of the Becker and Lewis (1973) framework. An individualistic schooling variable, by implication, adds the assumption of independence of the decision for each child in the same household, which the Becker and Lewis (1973) framework did not consider. Rosenzweig and Wolpin (1980) used an age-standardized aggregate of the years of education of the children in the household. Lee (2004), on the other hand, used household expenditures on education.

The estimation strategy is as follows. We first establish the endogeneity of the number of children using the sex of the first two children as instruments following Angrist and Evans (1998). We do this by various tests available in the `ivreg2` Stata routine described in Baum et al. (2003). We also check the relevance of the instruments by checking the first stage regression results, particularly, the partial R^2 for the instruments

³ We use `ivreg2` Stata routine (Baum et al. 2003) to test for the endogeneity.

⁴ Two of the previous works of the author on the issue used individual outcome variables (Alba and Orbeta 1999, and Orbeta 2000).

and check if we have a weak instrument problem (Bound, Jaeger and Baker, 1995). We also test for the presence of heteroscedasticity in the data because this is common in cross-section data. When endogeneity is established, it is well known that the OLS estimate will be biased and inconsistent and the 2SLS or GMM estimates would provide a consistent estimate and in the case of the GMM, an efficient estimate as well. When heteroscedasticity is present, GMM would provide a more efficient estimate. When a weak instrument is indicated, we present LIML estimates that are found to be more robust than the GMM in this case (Stock, Wright and Yogo, 2002). Finally, in the case of using a separate both male and both female instruments we check the overidentifying restrictions test results. This, of course, cannot be done when using the same sex as an instrument as the system is exactly identified.

It is worth noting that given that we are dealing with proportions data, Greene (2003) shows that this can be treated as separate responses for each individual child given common household explanatory variables, i.e., these are essentially replications of individual school attendance decisions within the household. Under this framework, the model can be estimated using the grouped probit using the `bprobit` routine in Stata. Since this is essentially a probit routine, the endogeneity of the number of children equation is corrected by estimating a two-stage probit using the sex of the first two children as instruments using the proposals discussed in Rivers and Vuong (1988). But then again, we are back to assuming independence of the decision for each individual child in a household, even if we consider that they are grouped.

Finally, to provide estimates of the varying impact of the number of children by socioeconomic class, models that include the interaction of the number of children and the per capita income quintile dummy variables are estimated. The differential impact across socioeconomic classes will be estimated by the sum of the coefficient of the base category and the coefficient of the corresponding interaction term. The estimator that we deem to give the most reliable estimate in the average equation is used here.

3.2 Balanced Sex-Mix as an Instrument

There are not too many instruments that one can find for the number children in household models. Most of the likely candidates such the household income, education of the parents or age of marriage are also related to the dependent variable of interest such as labor force participation of parents, savings or education of children, rendering these inappropriate as instruments. Recent research using US data such as Angrist and Evans (1998) has used the hypothesis that families prefer to have balanced sex-mix of children as an instrument for the number of children. The Philippines is one of the countries in Asia where a balanced sex-mix are found to have prevailed in contrast to countries in South and Eastern Asia where indications for son preference are often found (Wongboonsin and Ruffolo, 1995). Early literature that confirms the preference for a balanced sex-mix in the Philippines is found in Stinner and Mader (1975). The other instruments that are available are limited by their applicability only in very specific circumstances. The occurrence of twins also has been used as an instrument using US data first in Rosenzweig and Wolpin (1980a) and in subsequent studies such as Angrist and Evans (1998). A much more recent applications were for the US (Vere 2005), for Romania (Glick, Marini and Sahn, 2005) and for Norway (Black et al, 2004). Son-preference in the Republic of Korea was also used as an instrument for fertility, for instance in Lee (2004). Finally, another instrument would be an exogenous policy

change that could affect child bearing. Quian (2004), for instance, used the relaxation of the one-child policy in the People's Republic of China that allows rural households to have another child if the first child is a girl. Viitanen (2003), on the other hand, used the large-scale giving out of vouchers for privately provided childcare in Finland.

In the case of the balanced sex-mix hypothesis, the fact that families do not have control over the sex of their children makes same sex for the first two children virtually a random assignment. As argued in Angrist and Evans (1998) using same sex as an instrument will allow a causal interpretation. It should be noted, however, that the downside of this instrument is that it will render families that have less than two children unusable for analysis. While this maybe a serious problem in low fertility areas, this may not be in the case of the Philippines where the average number of children exceeds four.

To check the validity of this instrument, Table 7 provides a cross tabulation of the average proportion of families that have additional children and the average number of number of children by sex of their first two children for 24,000 families that have two or more children using the APIS 2002 dataset. The table shows that 67.4% families that had one male and one female for their first two children had another child, while 71.8% had another child when they have the same sex for their first two children or a difference of more than 4%. In terms of average number of children, this is 3.49 as against 3.61 or an average difference of a little over 0.12 children. These average differences are statistically significant under conventional levels of significance. Comparing this with Table 3 and 5 in Angrist and Evans (1998) one can observe several differences. The difference in the proportion of families having a third child for the two groups of families is smaller and the standard error is larger. In the case of the difference in the average number of children, the difference is larger, but so is the standard error. This is not unexpected given the larger family size in the Philippines and the expected larger dispersion of the distribution. Consequently, the implied t statistics in Table 7 are not as large as those in Angrist and Evans (1998), indicating that discrimination generated from the same-sex instrument may not be as strong as that obtained using US data.

3.3 Data Sources

The data on individual and household characteristics and location characteristics were taken from the 2002 Annual Poverty Indicator Survey (APIS). The APIS is a rider survey to the July round of the quarterly Labor Force Survey (LFS) conducted by the National Statistics Office (NSO). The 2002 round is the third of the APIS series conducted by the NSO. The other two were conducted in 1998 and 1999. It provides basic demographic information on all members of the household as well as household amenities. Income and expenditure for the past 6 month period preceding the survey are also gathered.

All monetary values such as wage and non-wage income are deflated using provincial consumer price indices compiled by the Price Division of the NSO. This is done to control for inter-provincial price variability.

The unemployment rate is computed as the domain level average unemployment rate using APIS data.

3.4 Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 provides the attendance rates by per capita income quintile and number of children of the total school-aged children (6-24) and also grouped into age groups corresponding to the elementary (6-12), secondary (13-16) and tertiary (17-24) levels. The disparity in school attendance proportion is not very clear in the total school age category but becomes more apparent as one goes up the education ladder. For instance, for the 6-24 age group, attendance proportion for the poorest is 74.2% while for the richest this is 76.8%. For the elementary level the corresponding attendance proportions are 89.6% for the poorest and 99.3% for the richest or about a 10-percentage point difference. But for the tertiary level, the attendance proportion is 28.3% for the poorest but 54.7% for the richest or about a 26-percentage point difference.

By number of children, the enrollment proportion appears to increase up to about 4 children then starts to go down as one goes to households with more children although this is not true for the elementary school age group. The initial rise for the secondary and tertiary group has to allow for the fact that smaller households may contain both young families that do not have yet children in this age category and old families whose children may no longer be with their parents. With this consideration in mind, one observes that the decline in school participation is mild as one moves from small households to large households. This can be explained the well-known attitude of Filipino parents to always keep their children in school as long as possible. This is main explanation of the relative high attendance rates one finds in the Philippines given its per capita income. De Dios (1993) succinctly describe this Filipino trait in the following statement: “*Makapagpatapos* (to let a son/daughter graduate) is still the standard by which successful parenting is measured; the stereotype of good parents, bordering caricature, is still those who scrimp and save to send their children to school and to college.”

Table 2 provides the descriptive statistics of the variables used in the estimation. The average number of children is about 3.5. The average number of years of education is slightly higher for mothers at 9.2 than for fathers at 9.0. This is not a surprising in the Philippine case. The proportion of barangays with an elementary school is about 76%, while those with a secondary school is substantially lower at 24%.

4. Estimation Results

Tables 3 provides the OLS, 2SLS, and GMM estimates of the determinants of the proportion of children 6-24 years old who are attending school using both male and both female or same sex for the first two births as instruments, respectively. The positive effects of the number of children on the proportion of children 6-24 years old coming out in the OLS regression is suspect, because of the expected endogeneity of the number of children in this equation as per the quantity-quality of children trade-off literature. The data set confirms this endogeneity with F-values for the Wu-Hausman Test and Chi-Square values for Durbin-Wu-Hausman Test, indicating high significance implying a rejection of the null hypothesis that the number of children variable is exogenous in this equation. Thus, more consistent estimates are either the 2SLS or GMM estimates. Given that the presence of heteroscedasticity as indicated by the Pagan-Hall Test, the GMM estimators would give efficient estimates although magnitude wise the estimates

are very similar. Given the z values of the estimates, the estimates using same sex as instruments are not as significant as the ones generated from using both male and both female as instruments. Thus, the more reliable estimate of the impact of the number of children on the proportion attending is the GMM estimate of about 15 percentage points average decline per additional child. The GMM estimate, however, also needs to be appreciated in the light of the significant over-identification statistic indicating some correlation between the instrument and the error term. Given the difference in the dependent variable used in this study and the other studies, the results cannot be compared directly.

The other results confirm most of the results from previous studies. The older the parents are, the lower is the proportion of children attending school. The higher the education of parents, the higher is the probability that children attend school. It is noteworthy that the impact of mother's education has about the same impact as father's education. Other studies have shown that the mother's education has higher impact on the education of children. Residing in urban areas has no distinct impact on school attendance. The availability of a school, indicated by the proportion of barangays with schools, has a positive impact on school attendance, although this is only true for elementary schools but not for secondary schools. The income variable is insignificant. The regional dummy variables are expected to pick-up whatever area-specific influences on school attendance are not contained in the availability of schools. The national capital region (NCR) is the reference area. The positive (negative) significant value would mean a higher (lower) proportion of children attending in that particular region compared to the NCR, on the average, after controlling for all the other variables.

The first stage results are given in Table 4. It shows the significance of the either both male, both female, and same sex as determinants of the number of children. Their usefulness as instruments is further validated by the significance of the partial R-square for the instruments, with F values of 14.8 for the both male and both female and 21.9 for the same sex instrument. It is worth noting that both male and both female have a slightly higher partial R-square of 0.0025 compared with same sex that has a partial R-square of 0.0018.

Estimation results of models that include the interaction of the number of children and per capita income quintiles are given in last three columns of Table 3. The interaction terms are all significant. The results highlight the regressive impact of the number of children on school attendance. For the poorest quintile, the impact of each additional child is a -18% reduction in the proportion of children 6-24 that are attending school, which is higher than the average impact mentioned earlier. The estimates for the other income quintiles are -11.8% (-17.8+6.0), -12.0% (-17.8+5.8), -12.1% (-17.8+5.7), -12.4% (-17.8+5.4) for the second to the fifth income quintile, respectively.

Finally, estimates for different age groups approximating the different grade levels, namely, elementary (6-12), secondary (13-16) and tertiary (17-24) are also done. The estimates for the 6-12 age groups show that the impact of the number of children is not significant, either on the average or across socioeconomic classes (Table 5). For the secondary and tertiary education age groups, however, the number of children has significant negative effects on school attendance. The results for the other variables are similar to the results for the total 6-24 age group so no further explanation will be provided. Again this GMM estimate has to be appreciated given the indication of

correlation between the instrument and the error term, as indicated by the significance of the over-identification statistic.

Table 6, summarizes the impacts and computes these as percentage changes relative to the current recorded proportion of children that are attending school. The table clearly shows the regressiveness of the impact of the number of children on school attendance. It is noteworthy that the regressiveness of the impact rises as one goes up the age groupings corresponding to the different levels of the education ladder. The poorest income quintile always has a higher negative impact compared with the other socioeconomic groups. For instance, for the poorest quintile in the 6-24 age group, each additional child will decrease the proportion of children attending school by -24%, while for the richest quintile this is only -16%. For the tertiary age group, the impact of the poorest quintile is -77%, while for the richest quintile this is only -22%.

5. Summary and Policy Implications

The paper presents what to the author's knowledge is the first attempt at considering the endogeneity of the number of children in the estimation of the education of children equation using Philippine data. The endogeneity of the number of children is argued in the quantity-quality literature spawned by the seminal treatment in Becker and Lewis (1973). The estimation framework in this study follows the pioneering test of this quantity-quality framework in Rosenzweig and Wolpin (1980), but instead of twins this study used the balanced sex-mix hypothesis and used the sex of the first two births as instruments for the number of children. This instrument was first used in the Angrist and Evans (1998) in a study on the effect of children on their parents labor supply and earnings. The use of this instrument was prompted by the observation of demographers that Philippines, unlike many countries in East and South Asia, has preference for a balance in the sex of their children (Wongboonsin and Ruffolo, 1995; Stinner and Mader, 1975). This was confirmed by a simple tabulation of the difference in the number of children by the sex of the first two children.

The estimation result shows that there is negative impact of the number of children on the proportion of school-age children attending school. The average effect for the children 6 to 24 years old is a 19% decline per additional child or almost 1 in every five children. Estimates considering per capita income quintile show that for the poorest quintile the impact is a 24% decline or almost 1 in 4, while for the richest quintile this is a 16% decline or around 4 in 25 per additional child. In addition, while this impact is not significant for the elementary school-age children, these effects are much bigger in magnitude and much more regressive at higher school-age groupings reaching as much as 77% for the poorest quintile for the tertiary school-age group, or 8 in 10 children for this age group.

These results have important implications for policy. Poverty alleviation efforts that address only the current needs of the poor may consign the next generation from poor and large households into poverty. Each additional child, by driving more school-age children out of school, pushes the succeeding generation also into poverty. Effectively, each additional child constitutes an inter-generational tax households impose upon themselves and this tax is highly regressive. There may be a need for targeted education subsidies for large households particularly those who have completed family

size and perhaps those who will effectively promise to bear no more additional children. Orbeta (2004) has shown that there is a high unmet need for family planning and that the desired family size is also higher among the poor. Given these, poverty alleviation packages should include assistance to enable poor families to achieve their desired family size. In addition, advocacy for smaller family size need to be intensified among the poor.

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Table 1. Proportion of children attending school by age per capita income quintile and number of children,

		Age			
		6-24	6-12	13-16	17-24
<i>Per Inc.</i>					
	Poorest	0.742	0.896	0.777	0.283
	Lower	0.734	0.936	0.834	0.333
	Middle	0.720	0.962	0.889	0.349
	Upper	0.726	0.976	0.946	0.437
	Richest	0.768	0.993	0.980	0.547
<i>No. of</i>					
	2	0.697	0.953	0.892	0.366
	3	0.748	0.950	0.896	0.399
	4	0.758	0.942	0.890	0.409
	5	0.752	0.938	0.842	0.389
	6	0.754	0.924	0.828	0.383
	7	0.734	0.916	0.789	0.342
	8	0.708	0.907	0.779	0.353
	9+	0.706	0.919	0.806	0.339
Philippine		0.737	0.942	0.866	0.386

Source of basic data: NSO APIS

Table 2. Descriptive statistics

Variables	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Prop. of children att school, 6-24 yrs.	22,190	0.74	0.34	0	1
Prop. of children att school, 6-12 yrs.	15,335	0.94	0.20	0	1
Prop. of children att school, 13-16 yrs.	11,317	0.87	0.32	0	1
Prop. of children att school, 17-24 yrs.	11,667	0.39	0.43	0	1
No. of children	24,931	3.55	1.55	2	12
Age, father	13,716	45.15	10.57	20	99
Age, mother	15,210	42.97	10.73	16	99
Years of education, mother	15,210	9.15	3.76	0	17
Years of education, father	13,716	9.01	3.75	0	17
Urban dummy	24,931	0.59	0.49	0	1
Deflated total household income, '0000 (1994=100)	24,931	4.63	6.59	0	270
Prop. of barangay with elementary school	24,931	0.76	0.16	0.20	1
Prop. of barangay with secondary school	24,931	0.24	0.14	0.07	0.89
Region 1 dummy	24,932	0.04	0.21	0	1
Region 2 dummy	24,932	0.04	0.19	0	1
Region 3 dummy	24,932	0.10	0.30	0	1
Region 4 dummy	24,932	0.16	0.37	0	1
Region 5 dummy	24,932	0.05	0.22	0	1
Region 6 dummy	24,932	0.07	0.26	0	1
Region 7 dummy	24,932	0.06	0.23	0	1
Region 8 dummy	24,932	0.05	0.21	0	1
Region 9 dummy	24,932	0.04	0.20	0	1
Region 10 dummy	24,932	0.05	0.22	0	1
Region 11 dummy	24,932	0.05	0.22	0	1
Region 12 dummy	24,932	0.05	0.21	0	1
NCR dummy	24,932	0.10	0.30	0	1
CAR dummy	24,932	0.04	0.20	0	1
ARMM dummy	24,932	0.06	0.23	0	1
Caraga dummy	24,932	0.04	0.19	0	1

Table 3. Determinants of the proportion of children 6-24 years old that are attending school, 2002

Explanatory Variables	OLS (Robust SE)			TSLS			GMM			GMM		
	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	Coef.	Std. Err.	z
No. of children*	0.0045	0.0015	3.02	-0.1483	0.0418	-3.55	-0.1460	0.0425	-3.44	-0.1783	0.0485	-3.68
No. of children x Quintile 2										0.0601	0.0154	3.91
No. of children x Quintile 3										0.0582	0.0157	3.70
No. of children x Quintile 4										0.0569	0.0161	3.54
No. of children x Quintile 5										0.0540	0.0151	3.58
Age, father	-0.0052	0.0006	-8.85	-0.0038	0.0008	-4.60	-0.0037	0.0008	-4.46	-0.0043	0.0008	-5.33
Age, mother	-0.0109	0.0006	-17.04	-0.0137	0.0011	-12.68	-0.0137	0.0011	-12.36	-0.0150	0.0014	-10.93
Year of schooling, mother	0.0148	0.0010	14.47	0.0072	0.0025	2.91	0.0072	0.0025	2.88	0.0043	0.0032	1.35
Year of schooling, father	0.0098	0.0010	9.90	0.0059	0.0017	3.46	0.0060	0.0017	3.49	0.0016	0.0026	0.60
Urban	0.0013	0.0058	0.22	-0.0044	0.0079	-0.55	-0.0044	0.0080	-0.55	-0.0348	0.0128	-2.71
Household income, (0000)	-0.0005	0.0004	-1.38	0.0004	0.0006	0.70	0.0003	0.0006	0.62	-0.0010	0.0007	-1.35
Prop. of bgy with elem. School	0.0859	0.0216	3.98	0.1225	0.0302	4.05	0.1196	0.0308	3.88	0.1648	0.0371	4.44
Prop. of bgy with sec. School	-0.0236	0.0239	-0.99	-0.0073	0.0339	-0.22	-0.0075	0.0329	-0.23	-0.1076	0.0403	-2.67
Region 1	-0.0046	0.0158	-0.29	0.0367	0.0243	1.51	0.0357	0.0246	1.45	0.0297	0.0243	1.22
Region 2	0.0350	0.0169	2.07	0.0141	0.0249	0.57	0.0160	0.0237	0.68	-0.0129	0.0266	-0.49
Region 3	-0.0452	0.0136	-3.32	-0.0348	0.0185	-1.88	-0.0344	0.0180	-1.91	-0.0737	0.0190	-3.87
Region 4	0.0157	0.0115	1.36	0.0331	0.0164	2.01	0.0321	0.0159	2.02	0.0189	0.0149	1.27
Region 5	0.0339	0.0151	2.25	0.1151	0.0307	3.75	0.1132	0.0312	3.63	0.1385	0.0363	3.82
Region 6	0.0743	0.0131	5.65	0.1252	0.0233	5.37	0.1246	0.0230	5.43	0.1324	0.0247	5.36
Region 7	0.0204	0.0144	1.42	0.0637	0.0225	2.83	0.0630	0.0224	2.81	0.0778	0.0248	3.13
Region 8	0.0612	0.0155	3.93	0.1391	0.0305	4.56	0.1381	0.0303	4.56	0.1621	0.0350	4.62
Region 9	0.0137	0.0173	0.80	0.0313	0.0229	1.37	0.0319	0.0234	1.37	0.0399	0.0248	1.61
Region 10	0.0365	0.0149	2.44	0.0552	0.0216	2.55	0.0558	0.0206	2.71	0.0785	0.0237	3.32
Region 11	0.0000	0.0151	0.00	0.0081	0.0211	0.39	0.0098	0.0204	0.48	0.0139	0.0212	0.66
Region 12	0.0553	0.0154	3.60	0.1097	0.0254	4.32	0.1088	0.0256	4.26	0.1428	0.0320	4.46
CAR	0.0735	0.0147	5.00	0.1496	0.0296	5.06	0.1502	0.0291	5.17	0.1505	0.0287	5.24
ARMM	0.0051	0.0172	0.29	0.0669	0.0268	2.50	0.0661	0.0285	2.32	0.0344	0.0244	1.41
Caraga	0.0709	0.0167	4.24	0.0888	0.0243	3.66	0.0896	0.0232	3.86	0.1182	0.0273	4.33
Constant	1.1199	0.0274	40.89	1.8107	0.1920	9.43	1.8019	0.1942	9.28	1.8710	0.2022	9.25
No. of Obs.	11,995											
R-Square	0.2757											
Overidentification test:												
Sargan (IV) J-Hansen (GMM) (P-value)				11.98 (0.0005)			12.52(0.0004)			8.74(0.003)		
Test for Heteroscedasticity												
Pagan-Hall Test Stat (P-value)	75.248 (0.000)											
Endogeneity of No. of Children												
Wu-Hausman F test: (P-value)	24.317 (0.000)											
Durbin-Wu-Hausman chi-sq test: (P-value)	24.320 (0.000)											

* For 2SLS and GMM estimates, instrumented with both male and both female for the first two births.

Table 4. First stage regression
(Dependent variable: No of children)

Explanatory Variable	Both Male & Both Female			Same Sex		
	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	Coef.	Std. Err.	t
Age, father	0.0089	0.0032	2.83	0.0091	0.0032	2.88
Age, mother	-0.0185	0.0033	-5.52	-0.0183	0.0033	-5.47
Year of schooling, mother	-0.0494	0.0059	-8.39	-0.0497	0.0059	-8.44
Year of schooling, father	-0.0253	0.0058	-4.38	-0.0256	0.0058	-4.42
Urban	-0.0367	0.0342	-1.07	-0.0364	0.0342	-1.06
Disp. Income, per cap (0000)	0.0064	0.0025	2.63	0.0063	0.0025	2.56
Prop. of bgy with elem. School	0.2541	0.1252	2.03	0.2519	0.1253	2.01
Prop. of bgy with sec. School	0.1065	0.1477	0.72	0.1047	0.1477	0.71
Region 1	0.2707	0.0945	2.86	0.2705	0.0945	2.86
Region 2	-0.1441	0.1065	-1.35	-0.1397	0.1065	-1.31
Region 3	0.0718	0.0801	0.90	0.0723	0.0801	0.90
Region 4	0.1158	0.0691	1.68	0.1165	0.0691	1.69
Region 5	0.5271	0.0932	5.65	0.5314	0.0932	5.70
Region 6	0.3305	0.0820	4.03	0.3311	0.0820	4.04
Region 7	0.2859	0.0838	3.41	0.2823	0.0839	3.37
Region 8	0.5137	0.0959	5.36	0.5138	0.0959	5.36
Region 9	0.1145	0.0981	1.17	0.1133	0.0982	1.15
Region 10	0.1211	0.0923	1.31	0.1226	0.0924	1.33
Region 11	0.0530	0.0920	0.58	0.0513	0.0920	0.56
Region 12	0.3595	0.0904	3.98	0.3620	0.0904	4.00
CAR	0.4974	0.0920	5.41	0.4942	0.0920	5.37
ARMM	0.4108	0.0911	4.51	0.4080	0.0911	4.48
Caraga	0.1159	0.1044	1.11	0.1160	0.1044	1.11
Both male	0.1871	0.0344	5.44			
Both female	0.0696	0.0386	1.80			
Same sex				0.1384	0.0296	4.68
Constant	4.4528	0.1449	30.73	4.4476	0.1449	30.69
Obs.	11,995					
R2	0.8599					
Partial R2 of excl. inst	0.0025			0.0018		
Test of excluded instruments						
F(P-value)	14.82 (0.000)			21.89 (0.000)		

Table 5. Determinants of the proportion of children are attending school by age groups, 2002
(GMM Estimates)

Explanatory Variables	Age 6-12						Age 13-16							
	Coef.	Model 1 Std. Err.	z	Coef.	Model 2 Std. Err.	z	Coef.	Model 1 Std. Err.	z	Coef.	Model 2 Std. Err.	z	Coef.	Model 1 Std. Err.
No. of children*	-0.0317	0.0228	-1.39	-0.0380	0.0240	-1.59	-0.2212	0.0729	-3.04	-0.2269	0.0694	-3.27	-0.2270	0.0795
No. of children x Quintile 2				0.0126	0.0061	2.07				0.0619	0.0188	3.29		
No. of children x Quintile 3				0.0143	0.0063	2.26				0.0672	0.0192	3.50		
No. of children x Quintile 4				0.0109	0.0061	1.80				0.0696	0.0190	3.67		
No. of children x Quintile 5				0.0056	0.0043	1.29				0.0588	0.0169	3.48		
Age, father	0.0002	0.0007	0.28	0.0001	0.0007	0.09	0.0007	0.0015	0.47	-0.0005	0.0013	-0.41	-0.0043	0.0017
Age, mother	0.0042	0.0007	6.03	0.0039	0.0006	6.51	-0.0076	0.0031	-2.42	-0.0087	0.0032	-2.74	-0.0210	0.0060
Year of schooling, mother	0.0050	0.0017	2.94	0.0045	0.0019	2.35	0.0014	0.0050	0.28	-0.0010	0.0051	-0.19	0.0094	0.0049
Year of schooling, father	0.0037	0.0011	3.52	0.0028	0.0014	2.06	0.0041	0.0032	1.27	-0.0011	0.0041	-0.26	0.0130	0.0034
Urban	0.0075	0.0047	1.59	0.0001	0.0059	0.01	0.0299	0.0135	2.21	-0.0093	0.0171	-0.54	0.0109	0.0167
Disp. Income, per cap (0000)	-0.0002	0.0002	-1.03	-0.0002	0.0002	-0.99	0.0020	0.0011	1.83	-0.0005	0.0008	-0.66	0.0054	0.0014
Prop. of bgy with elem. School	0.0827	0.0188	4.39	0.0944	0.0215	4.39	0.0177	0.0514	0.34	0.0571	0.0524	1.09	0.0876	0.0590
Prop. of bgy with sec. School	0.0236	0.0180	1.31	-0.0046	0.0201	-0.23	0.1313	0.0613	2.14	-0.0224	0.0589	-0.38	-0.0263	0.0797
Region 1	0.0021	0.0143	0.15	0.0002	0.0135	0.01	0.1066	0.0509	2.10	0.0845	0.0430	1.97	0.0994	0.0615
Region 2	0.0183	0.0098	1.88	0.0116	0.0106	1.10	-0.0019	0.0415	-0.05	-0.0385	0.0437	-0.88	0.0307	0.0488
Region 3	-0.0136	0.0099	-1.37	-0.0257	0.0091	-2.82	0.0065	0.0313	0.21	-0.0415	0.0282	-1.47	-0.0407	0.0389
Region 4	0.0018	0.0085	0.21	-0.0017	0.0076	-0.22	0.0407	0.0283	1.44	0.0206	0.0234	0.88	0.0413	0.0375
Region 5	0.0018	0.0192	0.1	0.0067	0.0203	0.33	0.1174	0.0547	2.15	0.1303	0.0526	2.48	0.1551	0.0633
Region 6	0.0113	0.0130	0.87	0.0123	0.0131	0.94	0.1089	0.0404	2.70	0.1147	0.0383	3.00	0.2240	0.0569
Region 7	-0.0191	0.0131	-1.46	-0.0161	0.0136	-1.18	0.0744	0.0418	1.78	0.0963	0.0416	2.32	0.1286	0.0520
Region 8	0.0052	0.0180	0.29	0.0093	0.0187	0.50	0.1122	0.0551	2.04	0.1277	0.0540	2.37	0.2122	0.0691
Region 9	-0.0519	0.0143	-3.64	-0.0512	0.0144	-3.57	0.0479	0.0428	1.12	0.0517	0.0407	1.27	0.2058	0.0611
Region 10	-0.0105	0.0111	-0.95	-0.0058	0.0122	-0.48	0.0391	0.0339	1.15	0.0757	0.0345	2.20	0.0668	0.0444
Region 11	-0.0277	0.0117	-2.38	-0.0272	0.0117	-2.33	0.0301	0.0364	0.83	0.0457	0.0346	1.32	0.0350	0.0461
Region 12	-0.0260	0.0156	-1.67	-0.0174	0.0180	-0.97	0.1059	0.0498	2.13	0.1421	0.0539	2.64	0.2761	0.0557
CAR	0.0254	0.0161	1.58	0.0245	0.0149	1.64	0.1767	0.0581	3.15	0.1598	0.0477	3.35	0.2886	0.0642
ARMM	-0.1451	0.0174	-8.35	-0.1542	0.0156	-9.91	0.1724	0.0459	3.75	0.1284	0.0353	3.58	0.4180	0.0746
Caraga	0.0018	0.0117	0.15	0.0067	0.0129	0.52	0.1078	0.0411	2.62	0.1467	0.0444	3.30	0.1522	0.0576
Constant	0.7835	0.0679	11.53	0.7941	0.0691	11.50	2.0323	0.4518	4.50	1.9998	0.4091	4.89	2.1660	0.6451
No. of Obs.	8,949						6,435						6,060	
Overidentification test:														
J-Hansen (GMM) (P-value)	1.83(0.176)			1.32(0.250)			10.48(0.0012)			9.81(0.0017)			10.69(0.001)	

* For 2SLS and GMM estimates, instrumented with both male and both female for the first two births.

Table 6. Impact on proportion of enrollment of per capita income

	Age			
	6-24	6-12	13-16	17-24
Average	-19.3	ns	-25.6	-57.4
Poorest	-23.6	ns	-29.1	-76.7
Lower	-15.5	ns	-16.0	-41.9
Middle	-16.0	ns	-16.5	-37.5
Upper	-16.0	ns	-16.5	-28.3
Richest	-16.1	ns	-17.1	-22.2
Curr.	73.7	94.2	86.7	38.6

ns - not statistically