

**Cross-cultural study Brazil-Peru of parenting motivations
and its predictive variables****Estudio transcultural Brasil-Perú sobre las motivaciones
para la parentalidad y sus variables predictoras****Estudo transcultural Brasil-Peru sobre as motivações
para a parentalidade e suas variáveis preditoras**

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate the differences in levels of positive parenting motivations (PPM) between Brazilians and Peruvians and to determine whether nationality significantly moderates the effect of six socio-demographic variables and two individual variables on PPM. The sample was composed of 1,373 Peruvians and 1,464 Brazilians. Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 68 years ($M = 29.68$; $SD = 6.29$). Multi-group confirmatory factor analysis and multi-group structural equation analysis were performed. The results showed that the Peruvian sample had higher levels of general and specific PPM compared to the Brazilian sample. It was also found that the effect of the education variable on general PPM is not significantly moderated by nationality. On the other hand, the effects of the variables having or not having children, having or not having a partner, family income, positivity, and religiosity are influenced by the population they come from. The main contribution of the study is to present evidence that the influence of contextual and personal variables on motivations for parenting is conditioned to the context in which the subject is inserted.

Keywords: motivation; parenting; cross-cultural study; Brazil; Peru

Resumen

El objetivo de este estudio es investigar las diferencias en los niveles de motivaciones positivas para la parentalidad (MPP) entre brasileños y peruanos y determinar si la nacionalidad modera significativamente el efecto de seis variables sociodemográficas y dos variables individuales en estas. La muestra estuvo compuesta por 1373 peruanos y 1464 brasileños. Las edades de los participantes oscilaron entre 18 y 68 años ($M = 29.68$; $DE = 6.29$). Se realizaron análisis factorial confirmatorio multigrupo y de ecuaciones estructurales multigrupo. Los resultados evidencian que la muestra peruana presenta mayores niveles de MPP generales y específicas en comparación con la muestra brasileña. También se encontró que el efecto de la variable grado de instrucción sobre la MPP general no es moderada significativamente por la nacionalidad. Por otro lado, los efectos de las variables tener o no tener hijos, tener o no tener pareja, renta familiar, positividad y religiosidad son influenciadas por la población de la cual provienen. El principal aporte del estudio es presentar evidencias de que la influencia de variables contextuales y personales en las motivaciones para la parentalidad está supeditada al contexto en el cual el sujeto está incluido.

Palabras clave: motivación; parentalidad; estudio transcultural; Brasil; Perú



Resumo

O presente estudo tem como objetivo investigar as diferenças nos níveis de motivações parentais positivas (MPP) entre brasileiros e peruanos e determinar se a nacionalidade modera significativamente o efeito de seis variáveis sociodemográficas e duas variáveis individuais sobre o PPM. A amostra foi composta por 1.373 peruanos e 1.464 brasileiros. A idade dos participantes variou de 18 a 68 anos ($M = 29,68$; $DP = 6,29$). Análise fatorial confirmatória multigrupo e análise de equações estruturais multigrupo foram realizadas. Os resultados mostraram que a amostra peruana apresentou níveis mais elevados de MPP geral e específico em relação à amostra brasileira. Verificou-se também que o efeito do variável grau de escolaridade nas MPP geral não é significativamente moderado pela nacionalidade. Por outro lado, os efeitos das variáveis ter ou não ter filhos, ter ou não ter parceiro, renda familiar, positividade e religiosidade são influenciados pela população de onde provêm. A principal contribuição do estudo é apresentar evidências de que a influência de variáveis contextuais e pessoais nas motivações para a parentalidade está condicionada ao contexto em que o sujeito está inserido.

Palavras-chave: motivação; parentalidade; estudo transcultural; Brasil; Peru

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Brazil and Peru are two Latin American countries that have similarities in socioeconomic inequalities (Zarzalejos & Fernández, 2018). Both have similarities in the concentration of wealth in one sector of society and the difficulty of access to health, education, transportation, and security services in the poorest sectors of the population (Gonzaga & Aras, 2015).

Nevertheless, in recent years Peru has shown improvement in different socioeconomic indicators. For example, it presents more favorable indicators than Brazil in the reduction of the unemployment rate and a 12-point drop in the last 21 years of the Gini index, which measures the difference in income between those who have more and those who have less in the same country (from 56 points in 1999 to 44 points in 2020; World Bank, n. d.). Unfortunately, Brazil showed 53 points in 1990 and 49 points in 2020 (World Bank, n. d.). In the global gender gap ranking, Peru is 66th and Brazil is 92nd, evidencing that although there are large differences between men and women in both countries, Brazil needs to work harder for this gap to decrease (Datos Marco.com., n. d.-a).

In the field of health, both countries have similarities in the implementation of reproductive programs and policies that limit the achievement of reproductive goals for various segments of the population (Pérez et al., 2021). Similarly, there are similarities in the reproductive age of both countries, with a rapid increase in pregnancies between 20 and 35 years and a slow increase between 35 and 49 years. On the other hand, both countries have differences in the Total Fertility Rate (TFR), being in Peru 2.2 [higher than the population replacement rate (PRR)], while in Brazil it is 1.7 (lower than the PRR; Knoema, n. d.).

In the process of understanding changes in reproductive choices, the study of motivations for parenting has begun to become relevant (Miller, 1994; 1995). According to Miller (1994), motivations for parenting can be divided into positive and negative. The former provides the individual with an impetus to have children, while the latter provide

an impetus in the opposite direction. As part of a cross-cultural study on motivations for parenting in Brazil and Peru, Varas and Borsa (2020d; 2021), conducted studies on the predictive variables of positive and negative motivations for parenting in both countries separately. The authors tested in both contexts the impact of socio-demographic variables (age, gender, education, family income, labor market insertion, having or not having a partner, and having or not having children), childhood experiences (birth order, number of siblings, and sibling care), personal characteristics (positivity and religiosity), and couple relationship (dyadic consensus and dyadic cohesion).

In the study conducted in Peru (Varas & Borsa, 2020d), the variables proposed were mostly statistically significant and explained 18 % of the total variance of the positive motivation and 13 % of the negative motivation to have children. Religiosity was the variable with the highest predictive power for both motivations, followed by positivity. It was evident that there are differences between positive motivations according to the variable of having or not having children, having or not having a partner, and experiences of caring for younger siblings in childhood or adolescence. There were also differences in negative motivations according to gender, depending on whether the participants had children or not.

In the Brazilian population, Varas and Borsa (2021) found that the proposed variables were mostly statistically significant and explained 24 % of positive motivation and 10 % of negative motivation. Religiosity was the variable with the highest predictive power for positive motivations and having or not having children was the variable with the highest predictive power for negative motivations. Significant differences were found in the positive motivations according to insertion in the labor market, the type of relationship and having or not a partner, and for the negative motivations significant differences were found according to gender, with higher levels in women than in men.

Considering the similarities and differences in the impact of the predictor variables found in the studies conducted in Brazil and Peru separately, the present study seeks to: 1) investigate whether there are differences in the levels of motivation for parenthood between a sample of Brazilian and Peruvian participants and 2) determine whether belonging to one or the other group significantly moderates the effect on motivations for parenthood of six socio-demographic variables (gender, having or not having children, education, having or not having a partner, insertion in the labor market and family income) and two individual variables (religiosity and positivity).

Method

Methodological design

An empirical, quantitative, questionnaire-type, explanatory, cross-sectional study was conducted. The sample was non-probabilistic and by convenience.

Participants

The total sample was composed of 2,837 individuals, 1,373 Peruvians (71.9 % women) and 1,464 Brazilians (84.3 % women). In the Brazilian sample, data were collected from residents of 25 states of the country. The states where the largest number of participants was obtained were Rio de Janeiro ($n = 506$, 34.6 %) and São Paulo ($n = 315$, 21.5 %). The participants' ages ranged from 18 to 68 years ($M = 29.68$; $SD = 6.29$), most had no children ($n = 1323$, 90.4 %), were in the labor market ($n = 1043$, 71.2 %), and had some type of romantic relationship ($n = 1307$, 89.3 %). The most reported levels of education were complete graduate school ($n = 693$, 47.3 %) and incomplete college education ($n = 288$, 19.7 %), and the most reported family income

was three to five minimum wages ($n = 453$, 30.9 %) and more than 10 minimum wages ($n = 385$, 26.3 %).

The Peruvian sample consisted of 1,373 adults, residing in seven departments of Peru, with the majority residing in Cajamarca ($n = 430$, 31.3 %) and Lima ($n = 397$, 28.9 %). The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 70 years ($M = 24.5$; $SD = 5.8$). Most had incomplete higher education ($n = 820$, 54.7 %), were in a romantic relationship ($n = 872$, 63.5 %), had no children ($n = 1204$, 87.7 %), were inserted in the labor market ($n = 721$, 52.5 %), and monthly family income less than two minimum wages ($n = 739$, 53.8 %).

Instruments

Socio-demographic questionnaire. Socio-demographic and family information was collected, such as: biological sex, age, place of residence, family income, education, participation in the labor market, marital status, among others.

Positive Childbearing Motivation (PCM; Miller, 1995). The scale is composed of 27 items that give an overall positive motivations score (PMS) and five categories that describe different positive aspects of having children: 1) pleasures of pregnancy, birth, and childhood (PEN), 2) traditional education (TE), 3) satisfaction in raising a child (SR), 4) feeling needed and connected (FNC), and 5) instrumental values of children (IV). The translation and adaptation process of the PCM for Peru and Brazil was elaborated by Varas and Borsa (2020a; 2020b). The authors initially evaluated the factor structure of the Brazilian and Peruvian versions of the PCM through factor analyses in each country where both versions showed adequate fits to the data. The authors also performed multi-group confirmatory factor analysis (CFFAA) to determine the measurement invariance of the PCM in both countries (Varas & Borsa, 2020c) and the results show that the ΔCFI , $\Delta McDonald's$, and $\Delta Gamma$ indices between the configural and metric, metric and scalar, and scalar and residual models exhibit the values necessary to determine strict invariance of the PCM scale.

Positivity Scale (PS; Caprara et al., 2012). The instrument is composed of eight items referring to the respondent's positive opinion about himself/herself and the future. The PS was adapted for the Brazilian population by Borsa et al. (2013). For the present study, the PS was adapted for the Peruvian population by the authors following the guidelines of the International Test Commission (ITC), (2017) and the work of Borsa et al. (2012). To confirm the invariance of the PS measure for its use in Brazil and Peru, an AFCMG was performed. The results show that the ΔCFI , ΔMc and $\Delta Gamma$ indices between the configural and metric models are -0.006, -0.02 and -0.01 respectively. Similarly, the ΔCFI , ΔMc and $\Delta Gamma$ indices between the metric and scalar models are -0.01, -0.03 and -0.01 respectively, determining the strong scale invariance.

Questionnaire on religious experiences. Developed for this study based on the questions, posed in Miller's works (Miller, 1992; Miller & Pasta, 1993; 1994; 1995). The questionnaire presents a Spanish and Portuguese version and is composed of six items that inquire about participation in religious practices and the evaluation of religious precepts in daily life choices. For this study, the AFCMG was performed to determine the measurement invariance of the questionnaire in both countries. The results show that the ΔCFI , ΔMc and $\Delta Gamma$ indices between the configural and metric models are 0.001, 0.011 and 0.006, respectively. Similarly, the indexes ΔCFI , ΔMc and $\Delta Gamma$ between the metric and scalar models are -0.002, -0.022 and -0.014 respectively, evidencing the strong scale invariance.

Ethical procedures and data collection

Ethical issues were guaranteed in accordance with resolution no. 510/2016 and 466/2012 of the National Health Council and the Declaration of Helsinki. This study was approved by the Ethics and Research Committee of the Pontifical Catholic University of Rio de Janeiro (protocol no. 68/2918) and the Center for Philosophy and Human Sciences of the Federal University of Rio de Janeiro (CAEE no. 3.095.859).

Data collection was carried out online and in person. In the Brazilian sample, collection was mainly online (99.7 %), while in the Peruvian sample; collection was predominantly face-to-face (67.5 %). For the online collection, the Survey Monkey tool was used and the survey link was sent by email and published on social media between December 2018 and July 2019. The face-to-face collection was carried out in Peruvian universities between March and April 2019.

Data analysis

To evaluate the difference in means of positive parenting motivation overall and specific positive motivations between Brazilians and Peruvians, an AFCMG analysis was performed considering that one of the information that can be obtained through it is to determine whether there is structural invariance of the mean difference between groups (Wang & Wang, 2019). Since PCM follows a second-order structure, the part that corresponds to the mean structure of the model is usually not identified because the number of intercepts and means to estimate is larger than the number of observed variables and, as such, parameter restrictions are needed to solve identification problems (Wang & Wang, 2019). Two different parameter constraint analyses were used for this (Byrne, 2006). The first aimed to test the differences of the means of the first-order factors and the second tested the difference between the means of the second-order factor.

To test the differences in the betas of the predictor variables (sex, presence or absence of children, education, relationship with partner, insertion in the labor market, family income, religiosity, and positivity), multi-group structural equation modeling (MGSEM) was performed (Wang & Wang, 2019). For both analyses, the WLSMV estimator was used and data were analyzed using the Mplus program version 7.11.

Results

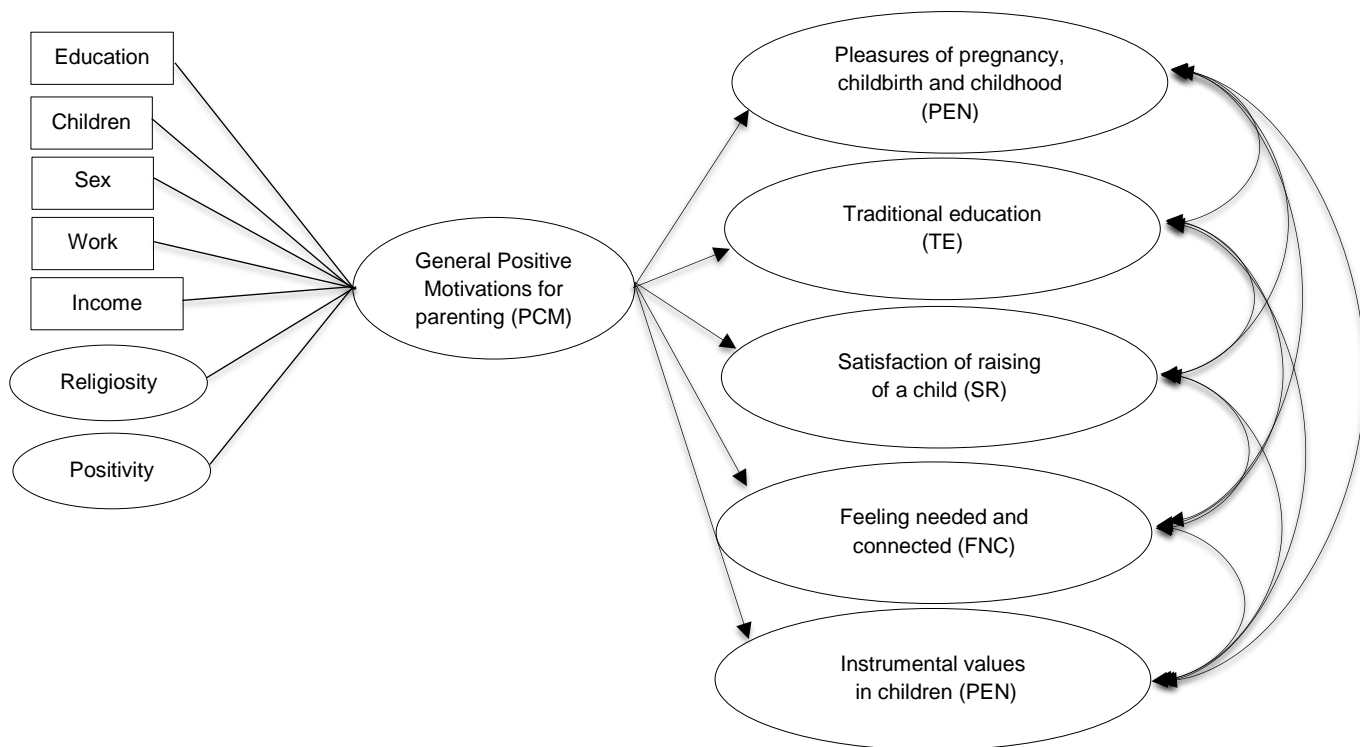
In the analysis aimed at testing the differences in the means of the first-order factors, it is evident that all the estimated intercepts of the first-order factors for Peru were significant (PEN: 0.170, $p = .000$; TE: 0.440, $p = .000$; SCN: 0.084, $p = .032$; SNC: 0.306, $p = .000$ and VI: 0.493, $p = .000$) which means that there are differences between the groups in the intercepts of the first-order factors or between the means of the first-order factors, corresponding to the zero value of the second-order factor. Consistent with the results, the scores for the five specific positive motivations for having children in Peru were significantly higher than those in Brazil. The first-order factors IV (0.493) and TE (0.440) showed the greatest differences between the countries.

In the analysis the aim was to test the difference between the means of the second-order factor; the model results show that the estimated mean MPG factor in Peru is 0.285 ($p < .001$), which describes the estimated difference in the mean of the second-order MPG factor between the two populations. In other words, the MPG score in the Peruvian sample was 0.285 points higher on average than in the Brazilian sample.

To determine whether the effect of the predictor variables: sex, having or not having children, education, having or not having a partner, labor market insertion, family

income, religiosity, and positivity in the MPG remain invariant between the two samples, an MGSEM was performed. The model initially tested is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1



Note. Structural equation model of the factors related to the motivations for parenthood, which include: level of education (schooling), having or not having children (children), gender, having or not having a partner (partner), insertion in the labor market (work), family income (income), religiosity and positivity.

It began by establishing a benchmark structural equation modeling (SEM) for Brazil and Peru that fit the data well, as can be seen in Table 1. In the initial analysis performed on the Brazilian sample, the variables with or without children (-0.289 ; $p < .001$) and having or not having a relationship (-0.2078 ; $p = .002$) have a significant negative effect on PCM and the variables religiosity (0.374 ; $p < .001$) and family income (0.094 ; $p = .001$) have a significant positive effect. The variables positivity, gender, schooling and labor market insertion have no effects on PCM'.

In the initial analysis performed in the Peruvian sample, as in the Brazilian sample, the variable having or not having children (-0.171 ; $p < .001$) showed a significant negative effect, but unlike what was found in Brazil, the variables level of education (-0.079 ; $p = .016$) and income (-0.093 ; $p = .001$) also showed this effect on the PCM. As in the Brazilian sample, the variable religiosity (0.330 ; $p < .001$) showed a significant positive effect, but unlike what was found in the Brazilian sample, positivity showed a significant positive effect in the Peruvian sample (0.107 ; $p < .001$). The variables sex, having or not having a partner and labor market insertion did not present effects on the PCM. It is noteworthy that the variables: sex and insertion in the labor market, did not show effects on the PCM in any sample, therefore, both variables were eliminated from the subsequent analyses.

With these preliminary analyses it was shown that both the benchmark SEM models for Brazil and Peru fit the data, but the estimated path coefficients differ between the two models, we went on to assess whether the variance in the structural path coefficients would imply that relevance in the population moderates the causal relationships in them. To do this, a Multi-group SEM Model of Configuration was estimated with the variables having or not having children, education, having or not having a partner, family income, religiosity, and positivity; where all model coefficients were released in both groups simultaneously. This Model Setting served as the base model for subsequent model comparisons. The fit indices of this base model were adequate (Table 1).

Table 1
Confirmatory factor analysis of PCM

Model	Suitability of fit ratios				
	χ^2 (df)	χ^2/df	RMSEA (95% CI)	CFI	TLI
Brazil reference model	4846,141 (1051)	4.61	.050 (.048-.051)	.964	.962
Peru reference model	3877,313 (1051)	3.68	.044 (.043-.046)	.976	.975
Multigroup Base Model	8759.001 (2176)	4.02	.046 (.045-.047)	.971	.972

Note. PCM = Positive Motivation to Breed; χ^2 = chi-square; *df* = degrees of freedom; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Mean Squared Error of Approximation; CI = Confidence Interval.

As a second step, a more restrictive model was analyzed that would be compared with the base model. In this model, equality restrictions were imposed on the effects on all the predictor variables tested previously. The results of the χ^2 difference test were: $\chi^2 = 745.664$; *df* = 20, $p < .001$, indicating that the effect of the variables tested together on PCM does not remain invariant between the Brazilian and Peruvian samples. Statistically speaking, population membership significantly moderates the effect of these ensemble variables on PCM.

Subsequently, to get a more specific view of the variance of the effect of each variable on the PCM, a separate analysis of each was performed (Table 2).

Table 2
 χ^2 test of difference in individually tested variables

Tested variable	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Presence/absence of children	30.573	6	.0000
Level of education	12.052	6	.0608
Marital Relationship	15.778	6	.0150
Family income	43.056	6	.0000
Positivity	14.575	6	.0238
Religiosity	14.368	6	.0258

Note. χ^2 difference results using the Difftest option of Mplus. χ^2 = chi-square; *df* = degrees of freedom; *p* = statistical significance.

As can be seen in Table 2, the positive and significant effect of the schooling variable on PCM in the Peruvian sample (-0.079 ; $p = .016$) and the non-significance of this variable on PCM in the Brazilian sample, is not moderated by belonging to one group or the other. On the other hand, the differences between countries regarding the negative

impact of the variable having or not having children (Brazil = -0.289, $p < .001$; Peru = -0.171; $p < .001$) and the positive impact of the variable religiosity (Brazil = 0.374, $p < .001$; Peru: 0.330, $p < .001$) if influenced by the population they come from. The same occurs with the differences found according to countries in the variables having or not having a partner (Brazil = -0.2078, $p = .002$; Peru: not significant), family income (Brazil = 0.094, $p = .001$; Peru = - 0.093, $p = .001$), and positivity (Brazil: not significant; Peru = 0.107, $p < .001$).

Discussion

The results show that the Peruvian sample has higher levels of positive motivations for parenthood, both general and specific, than the Brazilian sample. Considering that Peru is the country with the highest birth and fertility rates compared to Brazil, it seems important to highlight that several studies show that positive motivations for parenting are related to behaviors aimed at achieving conception (Miller, 2021; Mynarska & Raybould, 2020), care aimed at a favorable termination of pregnancy (Miller et al., 2004), and a higher number of children (Irani & Khadivzadeh, 2018).

This difference found can be analyzed considering two points: the socioeconomic situation of the two countries and the socio-demographic differences of the samples of this study. On the first point, Peru is a country that has been showing a steady socioeconomic improvement in recent years (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2015) that can generate in citizens a perception of improvement in their economic-family situation (Ipsos, 2020), including a favorable view of what it means to have children. On the other hand, Brazil is a country that has been going through a deep social crisis (Cueto & Lopes, 2020), which is reflected in less favorable social and economic indices than Peru (Datos Marco.com., n. d.-a) that we can relate to a less optimistic evaluation of what it takes to have children. Regarding the second point, although both samples are predominantly female, the Brazilian sample presents higher levels of family income, greater insertion in the labor market and higher education. Profiles of women with these characteristics are usually related to problems in reconciling work and family life (Rios-Neto et al., 2018) and greater reflection on the impact of having children on other personal goals (Alves & Cavenaghi, 2019), which can be seen in the lower levels of positive motivations, since these describe desired aspects of having children.

In relation to the variables tested as predictors of the motivations for parenthood, it can be seen that the impact on the PCM was mediated by the population from which they come from; with the exception of the educational level variable in which the difference found is not moderated by belonging to one country or another. This result corroborates what was proposed by Miller (1992, 2021) that the motivations for parenthood are influenced by the characteristics of the context in which the subject is inserted.

According to the results, religiosity has a greater positive impact on PCM in Brazil than in Peru, and this difference is influenced by nationality. Religion is a variable that transmits family-centered values (Miller et al., 2016) and its relationship with motivations for parenting is something previously found in other studies around the world (Ghazanfarpour et al., 2018; Kubicka et al., 1995; Miller, 1992; Miller et al., 2016).

Latin America has been characterized as a highly religious region (Camargo, 2019; Cipriani, 2015) and both Brazil and Peru do not escape this characteristic. The difference found can be analyzed considering their religious discrepancies. Brazil has more than 30 religious beliefs (Sistema IBGE de Recuperação Automática, n. d.) and

although its population remains predominantly Catholic (61 %), the percentage of Protestants has been systematically growing (26 %). On the other hand, Peru has a smaller number of religious beliefs (11) (Datos Marco.com, n. d.-b) and shows itself as a predominantly Catholic country (76 %) with a relatively low percentage of Protestants (17 %). Both Catholics and Protestants exhibit normative beliefs about family and reproductive aspects (Sahgal & Bell, 2014). Despite this, the study by Sahgal and Bell (2014) shows that Protestants are more empowered and accepting of the ideas that come with being part of a religious congregation and follow the precepts more faithfully than Catholics.

The results show that the PCM is higher in people who have a partner than in those who do not in the Brazilian sample, not the same with the Peruvian, and this difference was also influenced by the population. In the case of the Brazilian sample, it is evident that having a partner favors the desire to have children, similar to what has been found in studies conducted in other countries (Miller & Pasta, 1996; Miller et al., 2004; Mitchell & Gray, 2007). On the other hand, in Peru this factor is not evidenced as relevant. These results confirm the hypotheses of Heuveline and Timberlake (2004) and Mendes and Pereira (2019), who point out that the relationship between not having a stable partner and reproductive behavior differs between countries, as each context has a different evaluation of the importance of the partner in achieving reproductive goals.

Khadivzadeh et al. (2014) indicate the need for a satisfactory marital relationship for increased positive motivation to have children, while other studies mention that this increase may also be due to an attempt to improve a deteriorated marital relationship (Testa, 2012; Testa et al., 2012). In the present study, the variable satisfaction/dissatisfaction with partner was not measured in order to use it as a control variable, an aspect that could have given us a broader view of the reasons for the difference found between the countries.

Regarding the positivity variable, the results indicate that higher levels of positivity impact on higher levels of motivation for positive parenting in the Brazilian sample, which shows the need for a positive overall view of life for a positive view of parenting. On the other hand, in the Peruvian population this relationship is not found, showing that although the general evaluation of life is not positive, this is not related to a higher or lower positive motivation to have children, which may be a point to consider in the analysis that the Peruvian population shows higher levels of motivation for positive parenting, despite the fact that, like other countries in the region, it is going through economic and social crises. The relationship between both variables has not been previously studied in Brazilian and Peruvian samples (Varas & Borsa, 2019), so this paper presents the first evidence of the possible relationship between the two.

Family income was also presented as a variable whose impact on PCM is influenced by the sample it comes from. This variable presented opposite behaviors in each country, in the Brazilian sample it had a positive impact while in the Peruvian sample it had a negative impact. When analyzing this point, we consider it important to observe the cities of residence of the participants from both countries. In the case of Brazil, the cities with the highest number of respondents are Rio de Janeiro (34.6 %) and São Paulo (21.5 %), two important cities in Brazil with high cost of living, on the other hand, in the Peruvian sample, if well, 28.9 % of respondents are residents of Lima, considered a city with high cost of living (Mercer, 2020), most of the participants come from provinces such as Cajamarca (31.3 %) and Loreto (15.3 %), where the cost of living is considerably lower than in Lima, Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo.

Given the above, a more positive view of having children in high socioeconomic levels, which characterizes the Brazilian sample, may be related to the high cost that

having children entails in these cities. Thus, it becomes understandable that the economic factor is an incentive to consider parenthood in a positive way when one has a favorable socioeconomic level or has a more pessimistic view of parenthood when the economic factor is a problem.

Other aspects that we can consider when reflecting on this difference are the economic characteristics of both samples, where Brazilians present a considerable percentage of people with high socioeconomic levels (26 % of the sample received more than ten minimum wages) while in Peru the percentage of people with this income is minimal (5 %), being mostly composed of people of low socioeconomic level (54 % reported receiving less than two minimum wages), which may also have impacted the results.

Final considerations

This work is the first study comparing parental motivations and their predictive factors in two Latin American countries using structural equation modeling, but its main contribution is to present evidence that the influence of contextual and personal variables on parental motivations is subject to the context in which the subject is inserted. These findings pave the way for reflections on how identifying the impact of these factors can contribute to the development of interventions adjusted to each reality to achieve people's reproductive goals.

As for limitations, we report that the samples were of convenience and not random, as well as predominantly female and not homogeneous in their socio-demographic characteristics. Both limitations may prevent the generalization of the results. Likewise, the lack of studies on the subject in Latin America made it difficult to discuss the data in light of the literature.

New studies are recommended in Peru that consider relationship satisfaction as a control variable to corroborate (or reject) the lack of relationship between the variables having or not having a partner and PCM in this population. Studies with samples with greater income diversity in both countries are also recommended to corroborate whether the impact of the family income variable is opposite in Brazil and Peru. Finally, it is important to note that the data collection for this study was conducted before the pandemic of COVID-19, so future studies could test whether health and social constraints, as well as the economic consequences derived from the pandemic, had any interference on motivations for parenting.

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