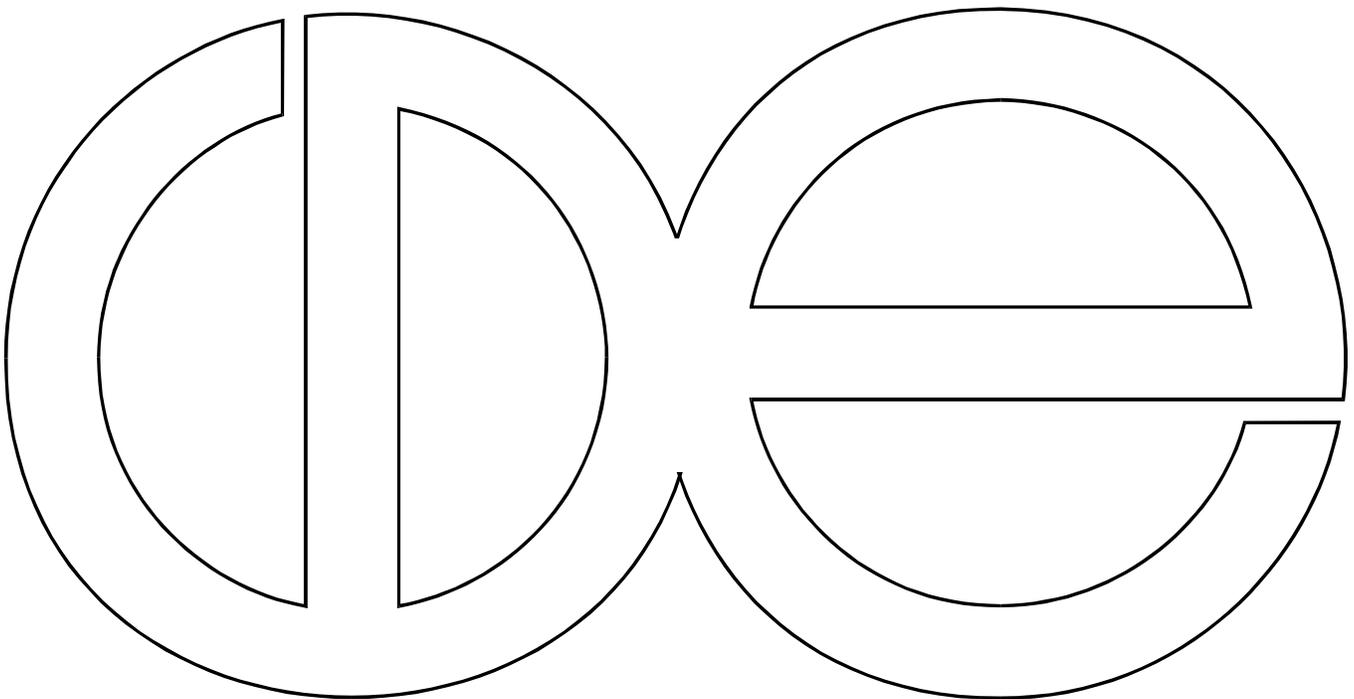


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**Stepfamilies and Childbearing
Desires in Europe**

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Stepfamilies and Childbearing Desires in Europe¹
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ABSTRACT

Increases in union stability and non-union childbearing during the latter half of the 20th century produced substantial increases in the prevalence of stepfamilies, most of which are formed during the partners' childbearing years. Recent analyses of stepfamily fertility in a limited number of European countries and the United States demonstrated that, net of a couple's combined number of children (hers, his and theirs), birth risks are elevated when the child will be the couple's first or second. These patterns have been interpreted in terms of the unique values of first and second shared children that overcome the costs of rearing larger numbers of children in stepfamilies. Inferences about motives based on births assume that all births are wanted or that stepfamily couples are no more or less likely to have unwanted births than are couples without stepchildren. Analyses presented in this paper show that the patterns of stepfamily birth risks are replicated in stepfamily desires for another child, providing stronger support for motivational explanations of childbearing patterns in stepfamilies. Particularly strong evidence is found for the commitment value of a first shared child.

Stepfamilies and Childbearing Desires in Europe

The fertility regime in many European countries is comprised of a substantial number of births to couples in stepfamilies. By age 35, the likelihood that a woman will enter a first or second union after having children ranges from a low of 4 percent in Italy to a high of 38 percent in the former German Democratic Republic¹ (Prskawetz et al. 2003). If stepfamilies were defined in terms of children born to either partner before their union, these percentages would be significantly higher.

Several recent studies of stepfamily fertility in Europe and the United States have shown that, net of a couple's combined number of children (hers, his and theirs), birth risks are elevated when the child will be the couple's first or second (Thomson 1997; Vikat, Thomson & Hoem 1999; Buber & Prskawetz 2000; Henz 2000; Olah 2001; Thomson et al. 2002; Thomson & Li 2002). These patterns have been interpreted in terms of the unique values of first and second shared children that overcome the costs of rearing larger numbers of children in stepfamilies. Inferences about motives based on parity progressions assume that all births are intended or that stepfamily couples are no more or less likely to have unintended births than are couples without stepchildren. Similar patterns have been found for birth intentions in a small number of studies (Thomson 1997; Toulemon & LaPierre-Adamchik 1995; Thomson & Li 2002).

¹Figures for the former GDR are likely inflated by counting all children born prior to a couple's coresidence as stepchildren; housing shortages often constrained a couple to live separately even when they were expecting a child. If children born within two years of a couple's coresidence are counted as shared children, estimates of stepfamily formation would remain as high as in other European countries with high rates of union dissolution and repartnering.

In this paper, I provide further evidence for the value of first and second births to couples by investigating prospective childbearing desires. Analyses are based on five countries – Austria, Finland, France, East and West Germany – in which effects of stepfamily parity on birth risks have been evaluated, along with Latvia and Slovenia. Although the selection of countries for comparison is based on data availability, they represent a reasonably wide spectrum of life course pathways to stepfamily formation (Prskawetz et al. 2003).

Values of Children and Stepfamily Childbearing

In low-fertility societies, unique values of first and second children are the primary mechanism for maintaining replacement-level fertility. Because children provide few economic benefits to their parents while requiring high expenditures of time and financial resources, the question arises: Why have children? Now classic studies of the ‘value of children’ demonstrated that first and second children provide unique social and psychological benefits that for most people outweigh the childrearing costs (Bulatao 1981; Fawcett 1983; see summary in Thomson 2002b). A first birth confers adult status and creates close ties to kin, community and society (parental status value). Many couples see the first child as establishing them as a family; the child represents the couple’s commitment to their relationship and to rearing the child together (commitment value). Second children are valued primarily as siblings for the first (sibling value). The unique benefits of first and second children are reflected in very high rates of first and second births, compared to third and higher-order births.

Stepfamilies present an interesting puzzle for fertility researchers. First births to stepfamily couples should also be valued as demonstrating the couple’s commitment and

creating a family. But at least one of the partners in a stepfamily has already achieved parental status. In addition, the stepfamily couple must weigh the value of a first shared birth against the cost of rearing at least two children. Similar issues arise for the decision to have a second shared child. In stepfamilies, the couple's first shared child is born with at least one half-sibling; if they produce a full sibling, stepfamily couples will end up with at least three children altogether.

Table 1 makes these points clearer by identifying hypothetical values of a prospective birth for couples with different combined numbers of children and different configurations of step- and shared children. Because the couple's combined parity is directly associated with childrearing costs, variations in childbearing desires or intentions associated with different combinations of shared and separate children tell us something about the values associated with the prospective birth. First births to couples without any children at all may arise from both commitment and parental status value. The interesting comparisons arise when couples have at least one child, hers, his or theirs. Among couples with one child, those with a shared child are considering the value of a sibling, while those with a separate (step) child are considering the commitment value of a first shared child and parental status for one of the partners. Thus, we may not expect differences in desires for another child between these two types of couples.

Table 1 about here

At higher combined parities, more information about childbearing motives is provided by comparisons between couples with different numbers of shared children. Couples with two or more shared children are the reference group, having acquired all of the unique benefits of first and second shared children. Couples with no shared children may be motivated by the commitment value of a first shared child; those with one shared child may be motivated by the

value of a full sibling to have another child. Note that at combined parity three or more, some stepfamily couples will also have acquired the unique values associated with first and second shared births.

The Evidence To Date

Most studies of stepfamily fertility have not attended carefully to parity, either the man's or the woman's. As I argued above, the number of children for which the couple has childrearing responsibilities is a key determinant of childrearing costs. Among couples without stepchildren, three-child families are unusual and larger families are rare. Thus, studies that find lower risks of childbearing among stepfamilies than among couples without stepchildren may simply be replicating well established parity progression ratios (e.g., Bumpass 1984; Wineberg 1990; Lillard & Waite 1993; Loomis & Landale 1994; Stewart 2002). Of course, when the number of stepchildren, especially two or more stepchildren, has no effect on the risk of a first shared birth (e.g., Griffith, Koo & Suchindran 1985; Toulemon 1997; Vikat et al. 1999), we have compelling evidence for that child's unique value to the couple.

A more fruitful model for understanding stepfamily fertility is found in two Swedish studies (Hoem 1995; Vikat et al. 1999). Parity-specific birth risks were specified as a function of the number of previous children born in the current union. Taken together, the parity-specific models test the interaction between shared parity and the respondent's parity. In both studies, the risk of women's and men's second and third births were significantly greater if the couple had no shared children, i.e., the birth was the first in the union. Vikat et al. (1999) found also that third birth risks were higher if the third birth was the second in the union. These results

provide some support for the commitment value of a first shared birth and mixed results relevant to the value of full siblings. But neither study included information on the partner's children, so the extra value of a first shared child may be overestimated, because the couple's childrearing costs are underestimated.

The ideal data for understanding stepfamily fertility include information on *both* partners' separate children. It is then possible to specify potential differences between each of the theoretically useful cells of Table 1. Thomson and her colleagues (2002) developed a model of combined parity and combinations of shared and separate children to test hypotheses about the commitment, parental status and sibling values of first and second shared births. As suggested earlier, these analyses exclude couples with no children or stepchildren because they provide no comparison that is theoretically relevant to the child values motivating stepfamily couples to have additional births. Their model pools all birth intervals and controls for the couple's combined parity. In Austria, Finland, France and West Germany, they found that stepfamily couples with no shared child or only one shared child had a higher birth risk than would be expected given their combined parity. They did not, however, find higher birth risks for couples in which one of the partners was not a parent before the stepfamily formed. Their results are consistent with commitment and sibling values of shared children but not with the value associated with parental status. It could be that non-parents entering stepfamilies have unobserved characteristics negatively associated with childbearing or that step-parenthood provides an adequate substitute for biological parenthood. (See also studies by Toulemon 1997; Buber & Prskawetz 2000; Henz 2000; Olah 2001).

Thomson & Li (2002) extended this model to deal with the association between

combined parity and stepfamily composition – if both partners are parents, or if the couple has shared and stepchildren, their combined parity must be two or more; if they have two or more shared children, their combined parity must be three or more. The model estimates stepfamily composition separately for couples with combined parity one, two, three or more. Because they have panel data and measures of birth intentions, they are also able to address the issue of intended versus unintended births. In the United States, they find further evidence of the extra value of first and second shared births in stepfamilies. They find not only that effects of stepfamily composition are similar for birth intentions and risks but also that birth intentions account for most effects of stepfamily composition on birth risks. Because birth intentions are the driving force, their theoretical claims about the underlying motivations for stepfamily childbearing are strengthened. (See also Toulemon & LaPierre-Adamchik 1995).

Further Evidence on Stepfamily Fertility in Europe: Data and Methods

In this study, I apply the Thomson-Li (2002) specification to childbearing desires in seven countries that participated in the recent European Fertility and Family Surveys: Austria, Finland, France, East Germany, West Germany, Latvia and Slovenia.² Together, they provide considerable variation in patterns of stepfamily formation. I used the Standard Recode File for each country, provided by the Population Activities Unit, United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (www.unece.org/pau/).

²One could argue that East and West Germany should be treated as a single country because desires for another child after reunification would reflect the future, not the past. By the time of the survey, however, differences between the two parts of Germany remained large, and considerable uncertainty remained about the length of time required to create truly equal life circumstances for residents of East and West Germany.

The European FFS focused on respondents of childbearing age, but age limits varied across countries. The two German samples were restricted to persons under 40, and several other samples excluded women over 40. I therefore selected couples – married and coresident or cohabiting – in which the *woman* (whether the respondent or the partner) was under 40 and not pregnant. Note that couples in which one or the other partner is sterilized are included in the analysis. The primary reason for this is theoretical – sterilized couples have made a clear decision not to have more children. Excluding them would introduce selectivity in motivation to avoid childbearing among those who intend no more children. Because countries included in the analysis have widely different levels and acceptability of contraceptive sterilization, the bias would not be uniform across countries. A secondary reason is to maintain comparability between analyses of desires for a child and birth risks based on retrospective histories; because few surveys have information on the date of sterilization, and none have information on former partners' sterilization, sterilized couples have been included in the risk pool.

In order to test hypotheses about motivations behind stepfamily childbearing, one must have sufficient numbers of stepfamilies of different configurations to estimate differences in childbearing desires. I excluded countries with extremely small proportions of stepfamilies (cf. Prskawetz et al. 2003). Among the remaining countries, data comparability determined which could be included. Although the European Fertility and Family Surveys were designed for comparative analysis, some of the surveys were conducted before the full protocol was developed and others varied in the degree to which modifications were made to the common interview schedule. In all countries, it is relatively straightforward to classify the respondent's children as shared or separate children based on their birth dates and the date of union formation.

I classified children as shared if they were born during the 12 months before the current union; only a handful of such children were born within 9 months of a previous union. This decision rule matches that used in analyses of birth and union histories (Thomson et al. 2002) and recognizes that children raised from infancy are highly likely to be viewed as shared children, even if one of the partners is not the child's biological parent.

The FFS contains two potential sources of information on partner's children: a question in the partner history about the number of children the partner had at time of union formation; and a child history that purports to include the respondent's stepchildren from current or former unions. Several countries that might have been included (Canada, Lithuania, New Zealand, Norway) did not ask the question about children in the partner history or asked it only about the first partner. In almost every country where information was available from both sources, the child history produced significantly smaller numbers of stepchildren than did the question on partner's children at union. In some surveys, respondents were instructed to include only children they had raised; in others, it appears that they may have interpreted the broader question to exclude children with whom they had little or no contact. I therefore used only the question on partner's children at union to determine the couple's combined parity and stepfamily composition.

Table 2 summarizes key features of pathways to stepfamily formation for each of the countries in the current analysis (Prskawetz et al. 2003). In the formerly socialist countries, stepfamilies arise from high rates of childbearing in first unions. Under these conditions, stepfamily formation should vary according to rates of union dissolution and repartnering -- lowest in Slovenia, highest in Latvia. The final column shows the percent of stepfamilies

identified in this analysis. The fact that East Germany surpasses Latvia in the proportion of families with stepchildren is due to high rates of pre-union childbearing among East German women.³ High rates of union dissolution and repartnering produce relatively high rates of stepfamilies in France, Finland and West Germany, as well. Unlike the formerly socialist countries, however, these countries have lower rates of childbearing in first unions; thus, repartnering is not as 'efficient' in producing stepfamilies as in the formerly socialist countries. Austria, like East Germany and Slovenia, produces a substantial number of stepfamilies through first partnerships formed by women with children and also exhibits high rates of union disruption and repartnering.

Table 2 about here

Before turning to measurement and analysis of childbearing desires, I want to emphasize the importance of stepfamily fertility for overall fertility and to foreshadow the specification of stepfamily effects by reviewing data on stepfamilies in Table 3. For each country, I present the percent of families with only stepchildren or with stepchildren and shared children, within couples' combined parity (one, two, three or more). Among couples with one child, between five (Slovenia) and sixteen (Austria) percent have only a stepchild, i.e., the child of one or the other partner. Among couples with two children, it is more or equally likely that the couple has one shared and one stepchild as that they have two stepchildren. The proportion of two-child couples that are stepfamilies is very similar to the proportion of one-child families, except in East Germany, Austria and Slovenia where childbearing before first union is relatively common. These 'extra' stepfamilies are likely to be comprised of one child born to a single mother and a

³See footnote 1.

shared child. Most interesting are the last two rows of the table; among couples with three or more children altogether, a substantial proportion -- in several countries nearly or more than half -- are stepfamilies. Most of these stepfamilies include a shared child. This means that a very common pathway to family sizes of three or more is through the formation of stepfamilies and stepfamily childbearing.⁴

Table 3 about here

In each of the surveys, respondents were asked whether they wanted to have any (more) children. Although the exact wording of the question varied somewhat across countries, most of the questions were phrased in terms of “want” rather than “intend” or “expect”. Desires are ideal for purposes of identifying parity-specific motivations because, unlike intentions or plans, they do not incorporate perceptions of constraints on one’s choice (Thomson 2002a). In most countries, the question implied an answer of *yes* or *no* and those few respondents who volunteered that they did not know or were unsure whether they wanted a child were coded as *don’t know*. In others, the question offered a response option reflecting uncertainty. High proportions of *don’t know* response were reported in Slovenia (12.6%), Latvia (14.8%), East (18.3%) and West (25.2%) Germany. I investigated the property of these responses by estimating thresholds for the ordered categories of *no*, *don’t know* and *yes*, in a model of parity-specific childbearing desires among couples with only shared children. In the two parts of Germany, *don’t know* responses appeared to fall midway between responses of *no* and *yes*; in

⁴Similar calculations can be made at the individual level; among men or women with three or more biological children and in a current union, up to a quarter (and in East Germany about 46 percent) have children from prior unions and the current union (data available on request).

Slovenia, *don't know* responses were closer to *yes*, in Latvia closer to *no*. (In social contexts where contraception is widespread, *don't know* responses produce birth outcomes similar to those for *no* responses.) I estimated all models with two alternative measures of childbearing desires: contrasting *yes* responses to combined *no* and *don't know*; and excluding *don't know* responses to contrast respondents who answered *yes* versus *no*. Although the effect size was generally larger for the latter contrast, patterns were essentially the same across specifications. I therefore report estimates of stepfamily effects on *yes* versus *no* responses.

As Table 1 demonstrates, key hypotheses about the relative value of motherhood and fatherhood require us to distinguish stepfamilies in which only the woman has children, only the man has children, or both partners have children from prior unions. In previous analyses of life histories, sufficient numbers of respondents have experienced time in each of these states to provide at least a minimal test of differences between them. When we observe couples at a particular point in time, however, the number who began their union with such combinations of children will have shrunk due to the decision to have one or two children together. Even in countries with high proportions of stepfamilies, we are unable to observe sufficient numbers without shared children to estimate different effects of the man or the woman or both already being a parent. Thus, my models include only the number of shared children, within combined parities one, two and three or more.

In all models, I controlled for the respondent's sex. Although men and women usually desire the same number of children on average, sex differences in timing of unions and births, selection into stepfamilies and reporting of children from prior unions could introduce associations between observed classifications of stepfamilies and the respondent's sex. Only

occasionally did sex have direct effects on childbearing desires, and these effects could be interpreted in relation to one or more of the sources just mentioned.

In addition to parity, a critical determinant of fertility desires, intentions or outcomes is age. One could argue that the older ages of partners in stepfamilies is part of the life course process that produces stepfamilies and subsequent births, and should not be controlled in analysis of parity effects on childbearing desires. Nevertheless, it may not be the particular configuration of partners' children in stepfamilies but the partners' ages that are the driving force in stepfamily fertility. In fact, if we control for age, we should find an even stronger effect of the underlying motivational force associated with having no or only one shared child. In most countries, this is in fact what I found; I therefore present models that control for the linear effects of the woman's age and two categorical variables representing non-normative differences between woman and man: the man is more than two years younger than the woman; or more than 5 years older. Note that I do not include the couple's marital status (cohabiting or married) in these models. Decisions about marriage are likely endogenous to decisions about having a child; it would therefore be inappropriate to attempt to 'explain' childbearing desires in terms of marital status.

Only two indicators of socioeconomic status or social context were comparable across all seven data sets: respondent's education and size of place. Respondent's education is represented in the FFS Standard Recode Files by three 'major' levels: less than secondary school, secondary school, post-secondary education.⁵ Size of place was categorized in five levels in France and

⁵Ideally, we would like to distinguish effects of woman's versus man's education; France did not, however, collect data on partner's education.

Austria: under 2,000, 2,000-9,999, 10,000-99,999, 100,000-999,999, 1,000,000+. In other countries, the number of levels was three or four – for example, no sizes of place were less than 2,000 in Belgium, and all countries other than France and Austria combined places of sizes 100,000 or more.

Woman's age had negative effects on birth intentions in almost every analysis. Where significant, effects of having a non-normatively older or younger husband were consistent with the general age effect – younger husbands increased the odds of desiring a child, older husbands decreased the odds. Size of place had virtually no effect on childbearing desires, net of other variables, but respondent's education was almost always associated with higher odds of desiring another child. The single exception was in West Germany, where respondents with post-secondary education were less likely to want a third child (partners' children combined) than were those with less education.

Results from models with and without controls for respondent's sex, woman's age, age differences, education and size of place were different to some degree. Most of the differences can be attributed to woman's age. What is particularly interesting is that woman's age *suppresses* effects of the couple's having no shared children – key evidence for the commitment value of a first shared child. That is, were it not for the older ages of women in stepfamilies, a larger number of couples without shared children would have a child together. On the other hand, higher odds of desiring a child among stepfamily couples with one shared child were occasionally accounted for by control variables. Because the essential story does not change with the introduction of controls for sex, age, education and size of place, I present logistic regression estimates from models with controls.

Table 4 presents the relative odds of desiring another child for respondents with different numbers of shared children, among stepfamilies, compared to couples with only shared children. Consistent with the theoretical comparisons shown in Table 1, analyses were conducted separately for couples with a combination of one, two and three or more children. Because of differences in the measurement of childbearing desires, differences in effect sizes are of less interest than are their direction and difference from zero.

Table 4 about here

Among couples with one child, desires for a second child do not depend on whether the first is a stepchild or a shared child, except in Latvia. Because second shared children produce sibling value (see Table 1), the result in most countries is not surprising. In Latvia, no significant differences were found in models without control variables. That is, the relative value of a first versus a second shared child is entirely counterbalanced by the older ages of women in stepfamilies.

Without exception, the odds of desiring a third child (combined parity) are higher when couples have no shared children than when they have two or one, among couples with two children altogether. The relative odds (compared to couples with two shared children) range from about two in West Germany – which has very low fertility and a high proportion of one-child families – to more than sixteen in East Germany. The lesser value of a full sibling is reflected in much smaller or non-significant relative odds for couples with one shared and one stepchild.

Among couples with three or more children combined, those without a shared child again have much higher odds of desiring another child. Only in France, are the odds of desiring a child

also higher when the couple has only one or even when they have two or more shared children. In general, the costs of raising four or more children are overcome only when the couple would be having their first shared child.

Discussion and Conclusions

Stepfamily experience is common across Europe and becoming more so as younger generations experience high rates of union dissolution and repartnering during the childbearing years (Prskawetz et al. 2003). In many European countries, stepfamily fertility is a critical component of overall fertility, comprising a substantial proportion of third and higher-order births. Thus, the study of stepfamily fertility has become increasingly important to understanding fertility variation and change.

The reason for the production of 'extra' births in stepfamilies is because several key benefits of having children are contingent on the partnership in which they are born. When partners remain together, at least through the childbearing years, they share the unique benefits of first (commitment, parental status values) and second (sibling value) shared children. Third and higher-order births provide no unique value and significantly increase childrearing costs; they are optional. But when parents dissolve a union and form new partnerships, their children no longer represent a shared commitment. Additional births are required to provide the same value for the new union. In addition, new partners may not yet have had children, creating further incentives to continue childbearing.

The evidence is overwhelming that couples are strongly motivated to have at least one shared child, even when they already have additional childrearing responsibilities. In every

country, among couples with two or more children altogether, the odds of wanting another child were at least twice as high for couples without shared children in comparison to couples with two or more shared children. Some of this difference may arise from the desires of a childless partner to have her/his own children, but most of it is likely to arise from the unique value of a first shared child for expressing the new couple's commitment, making them (and their child) a 'real family'.

Some evidence supports the sibling value of a second shared child. First is evidence from couples with one child; as predicted by Table 1, the sibling value of a second shared birth is sufficiently high to match the commitment and/or parental status value of a first shared birth when the first child is not shared. Second, in France, Finland, Slovenia and East Germany, couples with one shared child (among the two or more children they already have) are more likely than those with two or more shared children to want another child.

An important caveat to these results is that the couple's combined parity may overestimate their childrearing costs. When stepchildren do not live with the couple, they may require little or no attention and care. For example, a couple with one shared child and one nonresident stepchild could see themselves as having only one child to raise; if so, they should be included in the analysis with couples who have only one shared child. It is not, however, obvious that such shifts would produce smaller or larger differences than those estimated above. In addition, most stepchildren require some time and expenditure, even when they live elsewhere. Vikat, Thomson & Prskawetz (2003) showed that birth risks were reduced by the number of nonresident, as well as by the number of resident stepchildren in Austria and Finland.

I want to emphasize that the parity specification used in this analysis is critical for

understanding stepfamily fertility. Were I to predict childbearing desires as a function of shared children and stepchildren, the results would show negative effects of a second shared child as well as stepchildren. But all this would tell us is that parity progressions drop off steeply after a couple attains the normative two-child family, and that stepchildren add to the childrearing cost. By considering the couple's decision in the context of *all* of their children, as well as the number they share, we can test hypotheses about the unique values of first and second births, values that are key to maintaining replacement-level fertility in low-fertility societies.

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Table 1. Hypothesized Values of Next Birth by Stepfamily Parities

Parity Combinations	Combined (Her + His + Their) Parity			
	zero	one	two	three or more
No Stepchildren	commitment parenthood	sibling		
Only her child(ren)	n.a.	commitment fatherhood	commitment fatherhood	commitment fatherhood
Only his child(ren)	n.a.	commitment motherhood	commitment motherhood	commitment motherhood
Hers, his, no shared	n.a.	n.a.	commitment	commitment
Stepchild(ren) and one shared	n.a.	n.a.	(full) sibling	(full) sibling
Stepchild(ren) and two or more shared	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	

Table 2. Pathways to Stepfamily Formation, Women Born in 1952-1959

Country	Percent Experiencing Life Event by Age 35					Percent Stepfamilies
	1 st union	1st union end	2 nd union	Child at 1 st union	Child at 2 nd union	
France	94	20	13	4	58	17.6
Finland	95	24	16	4	48	17.2
West Germany	87	20	14	8	45	14.8
Austria	94	23	15	13	53	23.9
Slovenia	97	12	8	13	65	11.6
East Germany	94	22	15	32	83	32.3
Latvia	93	32	20	7	85	20.3

Source: Prskawetz, Vikat, Philipov & Engelhardt (2002) analysis of European FFS Fertility Surveys.

NOTE: Percent stepfamilies defines children born within one year prior to a union as shared children, while Prskawetz et al. do not.

Table 3. Family Type by Combined Parity by Country

Combined parity & family composition	Percent of Couples with Step- or Step & Shared Children						
	France	Finland	W. Germany	Austria	Slovenia	E. Germany	Latvia
One child							
Stepchild	8.4	10.2	9.1	15.9	5.1	11.4	11.2
Two children							
Step & shared	7.1	6.2	6.5	11.4	6.6	16.0	10.3
Both steps	3.1	6.6	4.2	7.2	1.8	8.4	4.4
Three + children							
Step & shared	27.3	24.1	24.0	34.9	27.3	60.7	34.0
All steps	7.3	6.7	10.0	13.2	8.2	13.0	12.1
# Couples	1424	1884	1270	1933	2306	2261	1667

Source: European Fertility and Family Surveys. N's are unweighted, percentages weighted.

Table 4. Relative Odds of Intending to Have Another Child by Combined Parity and Stepfamily Configuration

Combined & Shared Parity	Odds of Intending a Child Relative to Couples with Only Shared Children						
	France	Finland	W. Germany	Austria	Slovenia	E. Germany	Latvia
One child							
Not shared	1.23	0.69	0.55	1.10	1.52	2.18	2.41
Two children							
None shared	8.86	4.16	2.17	5.19	5.93	16.33	10.93
One shared	2.17	2.94	1.67	1.80	2.04	4.36	1.40
Three + children							
None shared	7.76	3.53	5.36	4.08	3.29	6.60	2.73
One shared	9.88	1.08	1.66	2.03	1.05	2.07	1.14
Two+ shared	2.55	0.59	0.57	1.91	0.76	0.79	0.82
# couples	1424	1884	1270	1933	2306	2261	1667

Source: European Fertility & Family Surveys.

NOTE: Models include respondent's sex, woman's age in single years, age difference (man >2 years younger, > 5 years older), respondent's education level, and size of place. Contrast is between *yes* and *no* responses, with *don't know* excluded. Relative odds in bold type are significantly different from 1 ($p < .05$).

Appendix 1

stepfamily type * total (her+his+their) parity * ISO country code
Crosstabulation Count

ISO country code			total (her+his+their) parity			Total
			1	2	three or more	
Finland	stepfamily type	only shared children	400	701	324	1425
		steps, none shared	43	55	35	133
		steps, one shared		49	50	99
		steps, two+ shared			60	60
	Total		443	805	469	1717
France	stepfamily type	only shared children	396	400	235	1031
		steps, none shared	50	36	67	153
		steps, one shared		63	90	15
		steps, two+ shared			87	87
	Total		446	499	479	1424
West Germany	stepfamily type	only shared children	289	368	125	782
		steps, none shared	39	24	24	87
		steps, one shared		27	23	50
		steps, two+ shared			31	31
	Total		328	419	203	950
Latvia	stepfamily type	only shared children	404	462	154	1020
		steps, none shared	54	19	36	109
		steps, one shared		57	27	84
		steps, two+ shared			62	62
	Total		458	538	279	1275
Slovenia	stepfamily type	only shared children	555	979	204	1738
		steps, none shared	35	19	27	81
		steps, one shared		70	45	115
		steps, two+ shared			51	51
	Total		590	1068	327	1985
Austria	stepfamily type	only shared children	480	737	211	1428
		steps, none shared	77	56	37	170
		steps, one shared		92	48	140
		steps, two+ shared			98	98
	Total		557	885	394	1836
East Germany	stepfamily type	only shared children	474	622	109	1205
		steps, none shared	70	64	73	207
		steps, one shared		139	106	245
		steps, two+ shared			169	169
	Total		544	825	457	1826

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