人口問題研究（J. of Population Problems）67－2（2011. 6）pp. 40〜64

特集：少子化社会の成人期移行（その１）

Well-being and the Ideal Timing of Key Events in the Transition to Adulthood: A Pilot Analysis Based on European Social Survey Data (2006-2007)

Hideko MATSUO* and Henri DELANGHE**

The focus of this paper is on the relation between well-being and the ideal timing of the transition to adulthood. It analyses for women of 3 different age categories (15-25, 20-30 and 25-35) in 12 European countries the effect of 5 well-being variables (overall life satisfaction, paid work, health, social interaction, and education) on the perceived ideal timing of 3 key events in the transition to adulthood (living with a partner not married to, marriage, and childbearing). Use is made of micro-data available from two rotating modules (one on the life course, one on personal and social well-being) of the third round of the European Social Survey (ESS3, 2006-2007), which are analysed through multiple regression. Results show that well-being variables have an important effect on the perceived ideal timing of key events in the transition to adulthood. This effect differs substantially across events, age categories and countries. Well-being variables affect the ideal age for marriage most, followed by the ideal ages for childbearing and partnership. They are much more important for the age category 25-35 than for the other age categories. And they take on greater importance for some countries (e.g. Netherlands, Sweden) than for other countries (e.g. Spain). Education, paid work (with some interesting exceptions for higher age categories) and social interaction raise ideal ages while overall life satisfaction decreases them. The effects of health are mixed.

1. Background

The transition to adulthood comprises a series of key life events. There is no consensus in the literature on the precise number and definition of those events yet finishing school, leaving the parental home, finding a first job, union formation and childbearing are usually included (Arnett, 2001; Raymore, Barber and Eccles, 2001; Smith, 2004; Vogel, 2002).

The timing of the transition to adulthood is important. According to Mooney Marini (1985), the timing of the entry into adult roles has long-term consequences for individuals and for society. At the individual level, life course theory argues that connectivity exists across the life course and that the antecedents and consequences of life transitions vary depending on the timing of the transitions (Giele and Elder, 1998). At the social level, Graber and Dubas (1996) have argued that the poorly understood transition from adolescence to adulthood is of particular importance for society:

* Centre for Sociological Research, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven
** Department of Japanese Studies, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven

communities are strengthened when their young people are able to find meaningful work, establish mutually satisfying relationships with others, and begin participating in community affairs as responsible citizens.

Much descriptive research has been carried out on the timing of the transition to adulthood. In this respect, Elzinga and Liefbroer (2007) have argued that, over time, the pattern of the transition to adulthood has experienced substantial change. In the past, so for older birth cohorts, the transition to adulthood was relatively early (the transition to adulthood commenced at a relatively young age), short (the different events marking the transition to adulthood succeeded each other relatively quickly, the time lag between the first and the last event marking the transition to adulthood was relatively short), and standardized, conditional and 'clean' (events were clearly separate, the sequence of events marking the transition to adulthood was relatively fixed and the occurrence of one event was dependent on the occurrence of another, preceding event). For younger birth cohorts, the transition to adulthood starts later (the transition to adulthood commences at a later age) and takes longer (events succeed each other less quickly, the time lag between the first and the last event is longer). The transition to adulthood has also become less standardized and conditional (the sequence of events is less fixed and the occurrence of one event depends less on the occurrence of other events) (Liefbroer and de Jong, 1995): the transition to adulthood does not always take place in an orderly and prescribed fashion and we should not assume a smooth and sequential progression out of school and into a job (Cooksey and Rindfuss, 2001). In addition, the boundaries between key events in the transition to adulthood have become blurred. In this respect, Fitzpatrick and Turner (2006) found that students are juggling work and family, taking time out to work and save money, or beginning their college career later in life. Cooksey and Rindfuss (2001) noted that scholars had so far paid very little attention to the proper specification of potentially blurred transitions.

Substantial research has also been carried out on the determinants of the timing of the transition to adulthood. Part of the timing literature has focused on how the (intended) timing of entry into different roles interrelates. In this respect, Kokko et al. (2009), for instance, found that, for women, relatively early (<25 years) motherhood was associated with the early timing of all other transitions studied (move from parental home, intimate relationship, education, full-time job). And Philipov (2009) found important effects of intentions to start studying and to enter into employment (as well as actual study and employment) on the intended and actual timing of childbearing.

Another part of the timing literature has focused on the determinants of the timing of entry into a single role. In this respect, some attention has been paid to the effect on the timing of entry into adult roles by individuals' personal characteristics and by their relations with their parents. It has been found, for instance, that personality types based on teacher-assessments at ages 4 through 6 predict the timing of life transitions, in particular among males; that, for males, childhood shy behaviour is linked to a delayed entry into fatherhood while, for females, it is linked with the

adoption of a traditional female role as a housewife but not with the timing of it; and that behavioural, conduct, and school problems are associated with early mother- and fatherhood (Kokko et al., 2009). It has also been found that leaving home early is a result of behaviour problems in childhood and adjustment difficulties and conflictual parent-child relations in adolescence (Graber and Dubas, 1996); that relationships with parents and peers matter for the timing of leaving home (Graber and Dubas, 1996); and that attachment representation, adolescent autonomy, and parent-adolescent conflict are important predictors of the timing of leaving home (Seiffe-Krenke, 2006).

Some attention has also been paid to the predictive effect of parental (union formation) characteristics. In this respect, Gaughan (2002) found evidence of differential parental impact on marital timing (women's ability to delay marriage), with the father's effect operating through his own educational attainment and with the mother's effect operating through her expected marriage age of the respondent. Hofferth and Goldscheider (2010) found that growing up without two parents has intergenerational consequences and that, for instance, girls who had never lived with a father or who had lived with several father figures were more likely to transition to motherhood early, both to single and to married (but not cohabiting) motherhood. Hill, Yeung and Duncan (1996, in Graber and Dubas, 1996) found that parental divorce was a correlate of early household formation for boys, regardless of when in childhood the divorce occurred, whereas being born into a mother-only household mattered for females.

Most of the literature, however, has focused on the timing effects of education and economic factors on two key events: union formation and childbearing. The postponement effect of increasing levels of education has by now been well established (Gaughan, 2002). The role of economic factors in the extension of the path to adulthood is somewhat less clear, however. Curtis and Waldfogel (2009) found that labour markets, housing costs and availability, and welfare policies play a role in the fertility decisions of women in U.S. cities. At the macro-level, however, Hill and Holzer (2006) found that employment and wages explain actually very little of the trend toward living at home and delaying marriage among 20-22-year-olds. In the same vein, Danziger and Ratner (2010) found that changes in the labour market over the past thirty-five years[1] have made it more difficult for young adults to attain the economic stability and self-sufficiency that are important markers of the transition to adulthood, and that adverse changes in labour market outcomes are related to delays in other markers of the transition to adulthood but that these changes have not been shown to be the primary cause.

Education and economic security can be considered as two dimensions of well-being. Well-being is a concept rising rapidly to the top of the policy agenda. The reason is that well-being matters. It is, first of all, a valuable end in itself. There are also, however, practical reasons for promoting

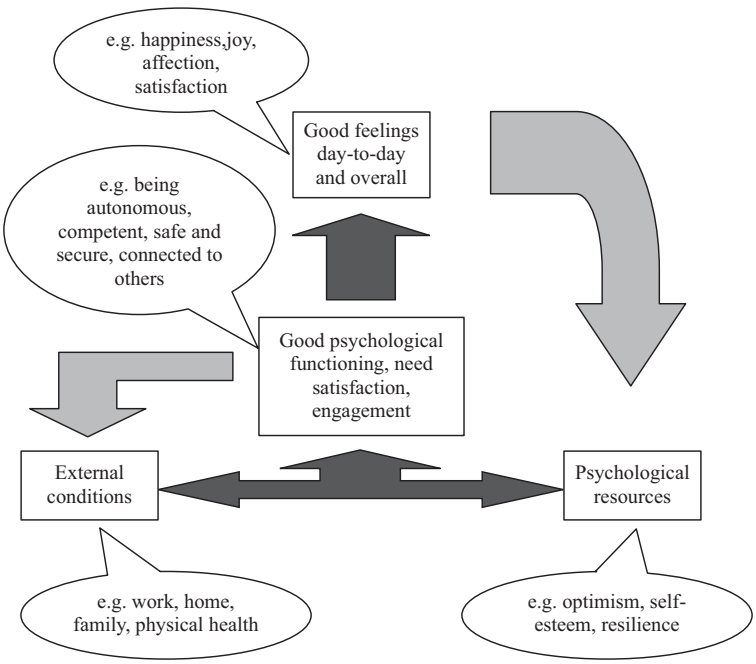
1) These are for instance, labour-saving technological changes, increased globalisation, declining unionization, and the failure of the minimum wage to keep up with inflation.

well-being. In this respect, Huppert et al. (2010) report on the basis of substantial national and cross-national survey evidence and longitudinal evidence that individuals with higher levels of well-being as evidenced by measures of happiness or life satisfaction tend to be more productive, have higher incomes, more stable marriages, better health, and higher life expectancy.

For a long time, the assumption in developed countries was that economic prosperity – increasing GDP and GDP per capita levels - would bring happiness. This assumption appears no longer tenable. In this respect, Huppert et al. (2010) report that while economic prosperity impacts upon well-being at low levels of income, the marginal utility of increasing income in developed countries is small or negligible. This emerging insight explains the increasing dissatisfaction with GDP indicators and the efforts being made to measure levels of well-being directly and to construct national accounts of well-being.

While some scholars define well-being in quite narrow psychological terms – Schulenberg et al. (2004), for instance, base their assessment of wellbeing on measured self-esteem, self-efficacy, and social support - it is the multi-dimensional approach to well-being that is gaining increasing acceptance. A good example of such a multi-dimensional approach is the one proposed by Thompson and Marks (2008). They view well-being as a dynamic process, in which (1) a person's external circumstances interact with (2) their psychological resources to satisfy – to a greater or lesser extent – (3) their psychological needs, and to give rise to (4) positive feelings of happiness and satisfaction (See Figure 1).

Figure 1. A Model of Well-Being (Based on Thompson and Marks, 2008)



The well-known September 2009 'Stiglitz Report'[2] similarly proposes a multi-dimensional approach, seemingly focused to a larger extent on what Thompson and Marks (2008) call material conditions. According to the Stiglitz report, the following key dimensions that shape people's well-being should be taken into account: material living standards (income, consumption and wealth); health; education; personal activities including work; political voice and governance; social connections and relationships; environment (present and future conditions); and insecurity, of an economic as well as a physical nature.

In relation to the timing of the transition to adulthood, well-being, both in the aggregate and in its specific dimensions, has been studied more as a dependent variable than as an independent one. Schulenberg et al. (2004), for instance, examined how the number and pattern of transitions that youth make affect their well-being and found that the more transitions older adolescents make after high school, the greater their well-being, that the level of well-being in high school may set the course for future well-being, and that the pattern of transitions the youth chooses also affects well-being. A direct link has also been found from early motherhood to problems in social functioning at age 36: young mothers are vulnerable to the accumulation of social functioning problems - such as financial standing, social relationships, and alcohol drinking. The consequences of early motherhood depend, however, on whether the women succeed in continuing their education and finding their places in working life. Conversely, early fatherhood is associated with a favourable career development. In addition, early motherhood (<20 years) exacerbates the problems women have in their mental health, interpersonal relations, and socio-economic situation (Kokko et al., 2009). Wolfe (2009) studied the effect of the age at first birth on alcohol abuse. Sacker and Cable (2010) found that delaying the transition to adulthood promoted psychological health but that a failure to transition to independent living was associated with psychological distress. Mullan Harris, Lee and Yang DeLeone (2010) examined the health effects of early marriage and cohabitation and Shapiro, Carle and Hayes (2009) examined the health trajectories of those who experience transitions into and out of marriage.

2. Research question, data, method

What seems to be lacking so far is an assessment of the role a broader concept of well-being plays in the timing of key events in the transition to adulthood. Against this background, we conceived an analysis focused on the relation between well-being and the timing of the transition to adulthood. The research question we defined was the following one: how do specific dimensions of well-being affect the perceived ideal timing of key life events in the transition to adulthood.

To answer this question, we used micro-data from the European Social Survey (ESS). ESS is an academically-driven survey with three linked aims: (1) to chart and explain the interaction between

2）Report by the Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress (http://www.stiglitz-sen-fitoussi.fr/documents/rapport_anglais.pdf)

Europe's changing institutions and the attitudes, beliefs and behaviour patterns of its diverse populations and to measure changes in public attitudes and behaviour patterns both over time and across nations; (2) to improve the quality of comparative quantitative measurement in Europe and beyond; and (3) to establish robust attitudinal indicators to stand alongside existing behavioural and factual indicators of national well-being. In an era of falling political participation and low electoral turnout, the objective of ESS is to become an ever more important aid to good government at both a national and European level enabling governments, policy analysts and scholars to keep up to date on social trends that affect how democracy is working and how European citizens perceive their lives, their nations and the world. Supplementing other reliable sources of official data which chart changes in people's social and economic circumstances or behaviour, ESS also provides rigorous cross-national data about shifts in people's long-term perceptions, preferences, preoccupations and concerns (e.g. Jowell et al., 2007).

Currently in its fifth round and preparing for a sixth, ESS covers more than 30 nations and employs the most rigorous methodologies. A repeat cross-sectional survey, it has been funded through the European Commission's Framework Programmes, the European Science Foundation and national funding bodies in each country.

ESS has swiftly become an authoritative source of reliable data about Europe's evolving social fabric and a key vehicle for knowledge transfer. In 2005, the ESS became the first social science project to win the Descartes Prize for 'excellence in scientific collaborative research'. In 2008, a top-level review commissioned by its 35 funders concluded that the ESS: '...has generated new insights and knowledge on key issues, problems, and topics within the social sciences' ... and... 'improved standards of methodological rigour and transparency, raising international standards of fieldwork, questionnaire design and sampling for other European social surveys and market research, especially in countries which lack accumulated expertise in survey research'.

ESS data have also been used to shed light on issues relating to ageing and financial security, the digital divide, trust, education and politics, families and work, religion, public responses to migration, citizenship, sex and sexuality, and training and education. ESS data have also already been used to assess well-being issues (e.g. Mencarini and Sironi, 2010).

Each round of ESS consists of a number of core modules stable across different rounds and allowing for the study of longer-term trends and a number of rotating modules on specific issues. The core modules target behavioural and attitudinal variables, and socio-economic background variables. The behavioural and attitudinal variables concern a wide range of issues. These include media, social trust, politics including political interest, efficacy, trust, electoral and other forms of participation, party allegiance, and socio and political orientations. They also include subjective well-being, social exclusion, religion, perceived discrimination, and national and ethnic identity. The socio-economic background variables concern the respondent's household composition, sex, age, education and occupation, partner, parents, union membership, income, and marital status.

The third round of ESS (ESS3, carried out in 2006-2007 in 25 European countries) included two rotating modules: one on the timing of the life course and one on personal and social well-being. The micro-data we use come from the core and rotating modules of this third round of ESS.

ESS3 collected interesting information on the timing of the life course, which concerned the dependent variable in our analysis. It first of all gathered much factual timing information. The ESS3 questionnaire included questions like 'year first started in paid employment or apprenticeship', 'year first left parents for living separately for 2 month or more', 'year first lived with spouse or partner for 3 months or more', 'year first married', 'year (first) child was born', 'year youngest child was born', and 'year first grandchild was born'.

It also compiled much subjective timing information, however. The ESS3 questionnaire included questions concerning the age at which according to the respondent a person becomes an adult, reaches middle age, and reaches old age; how important it is according to the respondent, in order to be considered as an adult, to have left the parental home, to have a full-time job, to have lived with a spouse or partner, and to have become a mother/father; how important it is according to the respondent, in order to be considered as old, to be physically frail, to be a grandmother/grandfather, and to need others to look after oneself; the ideal age according to the respondent to start living with a partner not married to, to get married and live with a husband/wife, to become a mother/father, and to retire permanently; what age according to the respondent is too young to leave full-time education, to have sexual intercourse, to start living with a partner not married to, to get married and live with a husband/wife, to become a mother/father, and to retire; and what age according to the respondent is too old to be still living with ones' parents, to consider having more children, or to be working 20 hours or more per week.

In this paper, we made use of the subjective timing information, in other words of respondent opinions on and perceptions of life course behaviour. The main reason for this was that, as explained in more detail below, ESS3 well-being information was current (at the time of the survey) and that it seemed most appropriate to relate current well-being information to current (at the time of the survey) opinions rather than to events that had already taken place, were taking place or still had to take place. We realise of course that there are important disadvantages to the use of subjective timing information, which relates more to intentions than to actual behaviour and which is strongly coloured by the cultural context (norms and values) in which the respondent operates. Yet for the purpose of this analysis, we were constrained by the set-up of the survey, in particular the absence of information on levels of well-being at the actual time of transitions.

For the purpose of our analysis, we decided to focus on the following subjective timing information: ideal age to start living with a partner not married to (partnership), ideal age to get married and live with a husband/wife (marriage), and ideal age to become a mother/father (childbearing). The reason was that we decided to focus not on the full life course but only on a limited number of key life events in the transition to adulthood and that we found answers to

questions on ideal age easier to interpret than for instance questions on too young or too old age.

We recognise that "ideal age" questions on union formation and childbearing are further removed from actual union formation and childbearing behaviour than questions on short-term intentions with regard to those events. With regard to the latter, Schoen et al. (1999) found that fertility intentions are strong and persistent predictors of fertility, even after controlling for background and life course variables. Ajzen (1985), for instance, found that there is a strong relation between behavioural intention and behaviour.

Turning to the independent variables of interest, Table 1 presents in more detail the well-being variables included in ESS3. They are classified according to the dimensions of well-being presented in the Stiglitz report. Note that several of those dimensions are not or insufficiently covered. On the other hand, useful overall, i.e. non-dimension-specific, well-being information is available.

For each dimension of well-being covered by ESS3 as well as for the overall well-being information, we selected one robust variable for inclusion in the analysis: LIFE SAT (how satisfied with life as a whole), PAID WORK (currently in paid work of any kind), HEALTH (subjective general health), SOC INT (how often socially meet with friends, relatives or colleagues), and EDULVL (highest level of education).

For each of these independent variables of interest, we formulated hypotheses. In line with the aforementioned literature, we hypothesized that higher levels of education would have a postponement effect and that having a job (which contributes to economic security) would have an age decreasing effect. We further hypothesized that higher overall levels of life satisfaction, higher levels of subjective general health and higher levels of social interaction would all bring down ideal ages.

As already mentioned, ESS3 included much socio-economic background information which supplied us with a number of control variables: partnership status, child status, and age (Table 2).

In order to maximise the comparative dimension of the analysis but at the same time keep it manageable, we focused on women of three age categories (15-25, 20-30, 25-35) in 12 EU Member States.

3. Results

The coding of the variables used in this analysis is presented in Table 3, while descriptive statistics have been presented in Tables 4a-d. As Table 4a shows, average ideal ages differ substantially across countries: average ideal ages to start living with a partner not married to range from 20.48 in Finland to 24.49 in Spain; average ideal ages to get married range from 24.77 in Finland to 26.77 in Ireland; and average ideal ages to get pregnant range from 25.87 in Finland to 28.34 in Spain. Average life satisfaction is highest in Denmark (8.55) and lowest in Portugal (6.05). The proportion of respondents in paid work is highest in Denmark (1.27) and lowest in Belgium

(1.54). On average, respondents' health is best in Ireland (1.69) and worst in Portugal (2.14); respondents have the most intense social interaction in Portugal (6.43) and the least intense social interaction in Ireland (5.00); levels of education are highest in France (3.85) and lowest in Portugal (2.61); the proportion of respondents with a partner is highest in France (1.59) and lowest in Belgium and Spain (1.90); the average respondent's age is highest in France (27.21) and lowest in Belgium (24.04); and the proportion of respondents with a child is highest in Great Britain (1.50) and lowest in Spain (1.70). Tables 4 a-c show that in each country the average ideal age for each of the three events considered increases across age categories, and so does the extent of paid work, education, partnership and birth; the extent of social interaction on the other hand decreases while for life satisfaction and health no clear trends can be determined.

Data were analysed through multiple regression and results are presented in Table 5. Taking the results for all countries together, we observe that well-being variables affect more the ideal age for marriage (38 significant coefficients) than the ideal ages for partnership (30) or childbearing (30). Well-being variables take on more importance for the age category 25-35 (40) than for the age categories 15-25 (29) or 20-30 (29). Related to this, for two out of three ideal ages (ideal age for marriage and ideal age for childbearing), the number of well-being variables for which significant coefficients are observed increases as age increases: for the ideal age for marriage, from 11 (15-25) to 12 (20-30) and 15 (25-35), and for the ideal age for childbearing, from 7 (15-25) to 8 (20-30) and 15 (25-35). For the most affected age category (25-35), well-being variables have the greatest impact on the ideal age for marriage (15) and the ideal age for childbearing (15).

Taking a more geographically defined look, we observe that the countries for which well-being variables are most important are the Netherlands (14) and Sweden (14), followed by Belgium (12), France (9), and the UK (8), Ireland (8) and Portugal (8). These are followed by Denmark (7), Germany (6), Finland (5), Norway (5), and Spain (2). It is not possible to detect clear differences between groups of countries (e.g. Scandinavian vs. continental vs. Anglo-Saxon vs. Southern European countries).

Taking a variable-by-variable look, we observe that overall life satisfaction (25), health (22) and social interaction (20) appear to be the most important well-being variables. They are followed by education (16) and paid work (15). For age category 25-35, health (4) is the well-being variable most affecting the ideal age for marriage, while paid work and education (both 4) are the well-being variables most affecting the ideal age for childbearing.

Taking a closer look at individual coefficients, we observe that strongly in line with our hypothesis, education increases ideal ages in 15 out of 16 instances. Contrary to our hypothesis, paid work increases ideal ages in 10 out of 15 instances (moving from 1 (being in paid work) to 2 (not being in paid work) produces a negative coefficient). Interesting exceptions in line with our hypothesis – countries where paid work decreases ideal ages (positive coefficients given coding) - are Belgium, the Netherlands and Norway. In all three countries, the age decreasing effects found

for paid work are situated exclusively in the highest age category (25-35). More or less in line with our hypothesis, overall life satisfaction brings down ideal ages in 17 out of 25 instances. In Great Britain and Ireland, however, overall life satisfaction has age increasing effects. Being in good health generally (15 out of 22 instances) increases (negative coefficients given coding) ideal ages. Age-decreasing effects (positive coefficients) are situated exclusively in the highest age category (25-35). Contrary to our hypothesis, social interaction generally (13 out of 20 instances) increases ideal ages.

4. Conclusions and discussion

The focus of this paper was on the relation between well-being and the timing of the transition to adulthood. It analysed for women of 3 different age categories (15-25, 20-30 and 25-35) in 12 European countries the effect of 5 well-being variables (overall life satisfaction, paid work, health, social interaction, and education) on the perceived ideal timing of 3 key events in the transition to adulthood (living with a partner not married to, marriage, and childbearing). Use was made of micro-data available from two rotating modules (one on the life course, one on personal and social well-being) of the third round of the European Social Survey (ESS3, 2006-2007), which were analysed through multiple regression.

The conclusion of this paper is that well-being variables have an important effect on the perceived ideal timing of key events in the transition to adulthood but that this effect differs substantially across countries, events and age categories. Well-being variables affect the ideal age for marriage most, followed by the ideal ages for childbearing and partnership. They are much more important for the age category 25-35 than for the other age categories. And they take on greater importance for some countries (e.g. Netherlands, Sweden) than for other countries (e.g. Spain). Overall life satisfaction, health and social interaction produce more significant effects than paid work and education. Education, paid work (with some interesting exceptions for higher age categories) and social interaction raise ideal ages while overall life satisfaction decreases them. The effects of health are mixed.

The importance of these findings on the impact of well-being relates to the increasing attention being paid to well-being in, for instance, Europe at both Member State and European Union level. A good illustration of this is provided by developments in the field of the measurement of societal progress. In the course of the past decade, the EU recognised to an increasing extent the weakness of GDP as a proxy indicator for overall societal development and progress in general: by design and purpose it cannot be relied upon to inform policy debates on all issues since it does not measure environmental sustainability or social inclusion. The EU therefore recognised to an increasing extent the need to improve data and indicators to complement GDP. In November 2007, this resulted in the conference "Beyond GDP" co-organised by the European Commission, the European Parliament, the Club of Rome, the WWF and the OECD, which revealed strong support

from policy-makers, experts and civil society for this endeavour[3].

In August 2009, the European Commission published in response to the outcome of the 2007 conference a Communication titled "GDP and beyond - Measuring progress in a changing world", which announced a number of actions to be taken in the short to medium term (European Commission, 2009). The objective was to develop more inclusive indicators providing a more reliable knowledge base for better public debate and policy-making. These actions included and concerned: (1) the development of a comprehensive environmental index and the improvement of quality-of-life indicators; (2) the increased timeliness of environmental and social data to better inform policy; (3) more accurate reporting on distribution and inequalities; (4) the development of a European sustainable development scoreboard; and (5) the extension of national accounts to environmental and social issues.

With respect to the improvement of quality-of-life indicators, the European Commission's statistical agency Eurostat published in March 2001 a feasibility study on well-being indicators with a suggested list of indicators[4]. A substantial number of the suggested indicators were based on the European Social Survey.

Of course much research remains to be done to underpin the robustness of the results presented in this paper. The concept of well-being needs to be further explored and a better insight has to be obtained in the various sub-dimensions it comprises. Alternatives for the operationalisation of those sub-dimensions need to be assessed. Information needs to be collected on levels of well-being at the time of an actual transition. In the absence of such information, the relation between opinions and perceptions on the one hand and actual behaviour on the other hand needs to be explored.

References

Ajzen, I. (1985). From Intentions to Actions: A Theory of Planned Behaviour, In: J. Kuhl and J. Beckmann (Eds), *Action Control: From Cognition to Behaviour*, Berlin, Heidelberg, New York: Springer-Verlag.

Arnett, J. J. (2001), Conceptions of the Transition to Adulthood: Perspectives from Adolescence through Midlife, In: *Journal of Adult Development*, Vol.8, No.2.

Cooksey, E. C. and R. R. Rindfuss (2001), Patterns of Work and Schooling in Young Adulthood, In: *Sociological Forum,* Vol.16, No.4, December.

Curtis, M. A. and J. Waldfogel (2009), Fertility Timing of Unmarried and Married Mothers: Evidence on Variation across US Cities from the Fragile Families and Child Wellbeing Study, In: *Population Research Policy Review*, Vol.28, 569-88.

Danziger, S. and D. Ratner (2010), Labour Market Outcomes and the Transition to Adulthood, In: *The Future of Children,* Vol.20, No.1, Spring, 133-158.

Elzinga, C. H. and A. C. Liefbroer (2007), De-standardization of Family-Life Trajectories of Young Adults: A Cross-National Comparison Using Sequence Analysis, In: *European Journal of Population*, 23, 225-250.

European Commission (2009), *GDP and Beyond – Measuring Progress in a Changing World*, Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament, COM(2009) 433 final, Brussels, 20 August.

European Social Survey website (http://ess.nsd.uib.no/ess/round3).

3）http://www.beyond-gdp.eu/

4）http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/gdp_and_beyond/achievements (consulted 11 May 2011).

Fitzpatrick, M. D. and S. E. Turner (2006), Blurring the Boundary: Changes in the Transition from College Participation to Adulthood, In: S. Danziger and C. Rouse (Eds), *The Price of Independence: The Economics of Early Adulthood.*

Gaughan, M. (2002), The Substitution Hypothesis: The Impact of Premarital Liaisons and Human Capital on Marital Timing, In: *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 64, May, 407-419.

Giele, J. Z. and G. H. Elder Jr. (1998), *Methods of Life Course Research: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Sage Publications.

Graber, J. A. and J. S. Dubas (1996), *Leaving Home: Understanding the Transition to Adulthood*, New Directions for Child Development, No.71, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hill, C. J. and H. Holzer (2006), Labour Market Experiences and Transitions to Adulthood, In: S. Danziger and C. Rouse (Eds), *The Price of Independence: The Economics of Early Adulthood.*

Hofferth, S. L. and F. Goldscheider (2010), Family Structure and the Transition to Early Parenthood, In: *Demography*, Vol.47, No.2, May, pp.415-437.

Huppert, F., N. Marks, J. Siegrist, C. Vazquez and J. Vitterso (2010), *ESS Round 6 Application Form for Repeat Modules.*

Jowell, R., C. Roberts, R. Fitzgerald and E. Gillian (2007), *Measuring Attitudes Cross-Nationally. Lessons from the European Social Survey*. London: Sage.

Kokko, K., L. Pulkkinen and P. Mesiäinen (2009), Timing of Parenthood in Relation to Other Life Transitions and Adult Social Functioning, In: *International Journal of Behavioural Development*, 33, 356.

Liefbroer, A. C. and J. G. de Jong (1995) Standardization and Individualization: The Transition from Youth to Adulthood among Cohorts Born between 1903 and 1965, In: J. C. van den Brekel and F. Deven (Eds), *Population and Family in the Low Countries 1994*, Dordrecht, Kluwer Academic Publishers, pp.57-80.

Mencarini, L. and M. Sironi (2010), Happiness, Housework and Gender Inequality in Europe, In: *European Sociological Review*.

Mooney Marini, M. (1985), Determinants of the Timing of Adult Role Entry, In: *Social Science Research*, Vol.14, Issue 4, December, 309-350.

Mullan Harris, K., H. Lee and F. Yang DeLeone (2010), Marriage and Health in the Transition to Adulthood: Evidence for African Americans in the Add Health Study, In: *Journal of Family Issues*, August, Vol.31, No.8, 1106-1143.

Philipov, D. (2009), The Effect of Competing Intentions and Behaviour on Short-term Childbearing Intentions and Subsequent Childbearing, In: *European Journal of Population*, Vol.25, 525-48.

Raymore, L. A., B. L. Barber and J. S. Eccles (2001), Leaving Home, Attending College, Partnership and Parenthood: The Role of Life Transition Events in Leisure Pattern Stability From Adolescence to Young Adulthood, In: *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, Vol.30, No.2.

Report by the Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress. (http://www.stiglitz-sen-fitoussi.fr/documents/rapport_anglais.pdf)

Sacker, A. and N. Cable (2010), Transitions to Adulthood and Psychological Distress in Young Adults Born 12 Years Apart: Constraints on and Resources for Development, In: *Psychological Medicine*, 40, 301-313.

Schoen, R., N. M. Astone, Y. J. Kim, C. A. Nathanson and J. M. Fields (1999), Do Fertility Intentions Affect Fertility Behaviour?, In: *Journal of Marriage and Family*, Vol.61, No.3, August, 790-799.

Schulenberg, J., P. O'Mally, J. Bachman and L. Johnston (2004), *Paths into Adulthood, Well-being, and Substance Use,* Network on Transitions to Adulthood Policy Brief, Issue 13.

Seiffe-Krenke, I. (2006), Leaving Home or Still in the Nest? Parent-Child Relationships and Psychological Health as Predictors of Different Leaving Home Patterns, In: *Developmental Psychology*, Vol.42(5), September, 864-876.

Shapiro, A.D., A. Carle and R. Hayes (2010), *Marital Transitions and Trajectories of Subjective Health*, Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Association Annual Meeting 2009.

Smith, T. W. (2004), Coming of Age in Twenty-First Century America: Public Attitudes towards the Importance and Timing of Transitions to Adulthood, In: *Ageing International*, Spring, Vol.29, No.2, pp.136-148.

Thompson, S. and N. Marks (2008), *Measuring Well-being in Policy: Issues and Applications*, NEF.

Vogel, J. (2002), European Welfare Regimes and the Transition to Adulthood: A Comparative and Longitudinal Perspective, In: *Social Indicators Research*, 59, 275-299.

Wolfe, J. D. (2009), Age at First Birth and Alcohol Use, In: *Journal of Health and Social Behaviour*, Vol.50, December, 395-409.

Table 1. Well-being variables in ESS3

Overall well-being	
LIFE SAT	How satisfied with life as a whole
HAPPY	How happy are you
OPTFTR	Always optimistic about my future
PSTVMS	In general feel very positive about myself
FLRMS	At times feel as if I am a failure
LFCLLK	On the whole life is close to how I would like it to be
STFLFSF	Satisfied with how life turned out so far
NHPFTR	Hard to be hopeful about the future of the world
LFWRS	For most people in country life is getting worse
Economic well-being	
STFECO	How satisfied with present state of economy in country
GINCDIF	Government should reduce differences in income levels
STFSDLV	Satisfied with standard of living
PAID WORK	Currently in paid work of any kind
UEMPNYR	Become unemployed in the next 12 months, how likely
UEMP3M	Ever unemployed and seeking work for a period more than three months
UEMP12M	Any period of unemployment and work seeking lasted 12 months or more
UEMP5YR	Any period of unemployment and work seeking within last 5 years
HINCFEL	Feeling about household's income nowadays
BRWMNY	Borrow money to make ends meet, difficult or easy
Physical well-being	
STFHLTH	State of health services in country nowadays
HEALTH	Subjective general health
HLTHHMP	Hampered in daily activities by illness/disability/infirmary/mental problem
Overall trust/social interaction	
PPLTRST	Most people can be trusted or you can't be too careful
PPLFAIR	Most people try to take advantage of you, or try to be fair
PPLHLP	Most of the time people helpful or mostly looking out for themselves
SCLMEET	How often socially meet with friends, relatives or colleagues
INMDISC	Anyone to discuss intimate and personal matters with
SCLACT	Take part in social activities compared to others of same age
WKVLORG	Involved in work for voluntary or charitable organisations, how often past 12 months
HLPOTH	Help others not counting family/work/voluntary organisations, how often past 12 months
ATNOACT	Help or attend activities organised in local area, how often past 12 months
Education	
EDULVL	Highest level of education

Table 2. Control variables

Partner status	
EVMAR	Are or ever been married
MARITALA	Legal marital status
LVGHWA	Currently living with husband/wife/civil partner
PARTNER	Currently living with partner
LVGPTNE	Ever lived with a partner without being married
DVRCDEV	Ever been divorced
Child status	
BTHCLD	Ever given birth to/ fathered a child
CHLDHHE	Ever had children living in household
Age	
YRBRN	Year of birth

Table 3. Coding

LIFE SAT (How satisfied with life as a whole)	0: Exc dissatisfied - 10: Exc satisfied
PDWRK (Currently in paid work of any kind)	1: Yes - 2: No
HEALTH (Subjective general health)	1: Very good - 5: Very bad
SOC INT[5] (How often socially meet with friends, relatives or colleagues)	1: Never - 7: Every day
EDULVL (Highest level of education)	0: Not completed - 6: 2nd Stage of tertiary
PARTNER (Lives with husband/wife/partner)	1: Yes - 2: No
BTHCLD (Ever given birth to/ fathered a child)	1: Yes - 2: No

5）Original variable label is SCLMEET.

Table 4a. Descriptive Statistics - 15-35 years

	N (15-35)	IAGLPTN		IAGLVMR		IAGPNT		LIFE SAT		PAID WORK		HEALTH		SOC INT		EDU		PARTNER		Age		Child	
		Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max
Belgium	293	23.17 (2.69)	17/36	25.81 (3.19)	19/40	27.05 (3.14)	18/37	7.52 (1.77)	0/10	1.54 (0.50)	1/2	1.88 (0.76)	1/5	5.73 (1.20)	2/7	3.40 (1.46)	0/6	1.90 (0.29)	1/2	24.04 (6.38)	15/35	1.68 (0.47)	1/2
Germany	376	22.24 (2.91)	15/34	26.12 (3.24)	18/36	27.02 (3.37)	18/38	6.95 (2.24)	0/10	1.48 (0.50)	1/2	1.95 (0.82)	1/5	5.32 (1.28)	1/7	3.37 (1.12)	1/5	1.78 (0.41)	1/2	25.54 (6.03)	15/35	1.66 (0.47)	1/2
Denmark	184	22.35 (2.63)	17/30	26.56 (2.73)	18/35	27.15 (2.70)	18/33	8.55 (1.11)	3/10	1.27 (0.45)	1/2	1.70 (0.75)	1/4	5.66 (1.04)	3/7	3.62 (1.17)	1/6	1.61 (0.49)	1/2	26.77 (5.89)	15/35	1.56 (0.50)	1/2
Spain	329	24.49 (3.19)	16/33	26.65 (3.29)	18/35	28.34 (3.31)	20/36	7.69 (1.60)	0/10	1.39 (0.49)	1/2	1.95 (0.74)	1/5	5.87 (1.22)	2/7	2.97 (1.39)	0/6	1.90 (0.31)	1/2	26.24 (5.83)	16/35	1.70 (0.46)	1/2
Finland	274	20.48 (2.46)	16/30	24.77 (3.41)	18/40	25.87 (3.34)	15/35	8.12 (1.30)	3/10	1.47 (0.50)	1/2	1.72 (0.64)	1/4	5.64 (1.14)	2/7	3.39 (1.34)	0/6	1.62 (0.49)	1/2	24.67 (6.22)	15/35	1.68 (0.47)	1/2
France	298	22.54 (2.68)	15/30	25.93 (3.48)	18/40	26.80 (3.19)	18/35	6.96 (2.29)	0/10	1.40 (0.49)	1/2	1.92 (0.82)	1/5	5.53 (1.34)	1/7	3.85 (1.73)	0/6	1.59 (0.49)	1/2	27.21 (6.01)	15/35	1.52 (0.50)	1/2
Great Britain	348	21.49 (3.29)	16/32	25.11 (4.46)	16/45	25.88 (4.32)	16/38	7.15 (1.83)	0/10	1.39 (0.49)	1/2	1.78 (0.77)	1/5	5.48 (1.51)	1/7	3.42 (1.32)	2/6	1.86 (0.35)	1/2	26.20 (6.08)	15/35	1.50 (0.50)	1/2
Ireland	315	23.04 (3.06)	17/30	26.77 (3.45)	18/37	27.08 (3.89)	18/35	7.30 (1.99)	0/10	1.43 (0.50)	1/2	1.69 (0.75)	1/4	5.00 (1.62)	1/7	3.46 (1.50)	0/6	1.77 (0.42)	1/2	26.28 (5.74)	15/35	1.54 (0.50)	1/2
Netherlands	263	23.76 (2.77)	17/35	26.49 (3.43)	18/40	28.25 (3.14)	18/40	7.69 (1.34)	2/10	1.28 (0.45)	1/2	2.02 (0.66)	1/5	5.98 (1.02)	1/7	3.21 (1.32)	0/6	1.73 (0.45)	1/2	27.03 (5.92)	15/35	1.63 (0.48)	1/2
Norway	278	21.88 (2.64)	16/30	25.91 (3.18)	18/40	26.42 (2.80)	18/35	7.80 (1.40)	2/10	1.30 (0.46)	1/2	1.70 (0.75)	1/5	6.12 (1.03)	2/7	3.67 (1.27)	0/5	1.71 (0.45)	1/2	25.24 (6.29)	15/35	1.65 (0.48)	1/2
Portugal	326	23.99 (3.67)	17/39	24.87 (3.68)	17/40	26.17 (3.55)	17/36	6.05 (2.13)	0/10	1.36 (0.48)	1/2	2.14 (0.76)	1/5	6.43 (1.07)	1/7	2.61 (1.36)	0/6	1.83 (0.38)	1/2	26.64 (5.74)	14/35	1.55 (0.50)	1/2
Sweden	292	21.46 (2.81)	15/30	26.37 (3.94)	18/39	26.99 (3.48)	18/39	7.86 (1.56)	1/10	1.38 (0.49)	1/2	1.80 (0.82)	1/5	5.83 (1.10)	1/7	3.49 (1.36)	0/5	1.60 (0.49)	1/2	25.23 (6.02)	15/35	1.65 (0.48)	1/2

Ideal age to start living with partner not married to (IAGLPTN)
Ideal age to get married and live with husband/wife (IAGLVMR)
Ideal age to become father/mother (IAGPNT)
See other variables in Table 1.

Table 4b. Descriptive Statistics - 15-25 years

	N (15-25)	IAGLPTN Mean (SD)	IAGLPTN Min/Max	IAGLVMR Mean (SD)	IAGLVMR Min/Max	IAGPNT Mean (SD)	IAGPNT Min/Max	LIFE SAT Mean (SD)	LIFE SAT Min/Max	PAID WORK Mean (SD)	PAID WORK Min/Max	HEALTH Mean (SD)	HEALTH Min/Max	SOC INT Mean (SD)	SOC INT Min/Max	EDU Mean (SD)	EDU Min/Max	PARTNER Mean (SD)	PARTNER Min/Max	Age Mean (SD)	Age Min/Max	Child Mean (SD)	Child Min/Max
Belgium	179	22.88 (2.33)	17/32	25.75 (2.96)	19/40	26.86 (2.89)	18/37	7.52 (1.72)	0/10	1.75 (0.43)	1/2	1.84 (0.74)	1/5	5.89 (1.13)	2/7	3.03 (1.41)	0/5	1.96 (0.21)	1/2	19.60 (3.16)	15/25	1.92 (0.27)	1/2
Germany	180	22.08 (2.58)	15/28	25.97 (3.24)	18/34	26.73 (3.34)	18/35	7.04 (2.24)	0/10	1.58 (0.49)	1/2	1.92 (0.84)	1/5	5.59 (1.17)	1/7	2.78 (0.96)	1/5	1.87 (0.33)	1/2	20.08 (3.00)	15/25	1.91 (0.29)	1/2
Denmark	74	21.55 (2.26)	17/28	26.08 (2.85)	18/32	26.82 (2.87)	20/33	8.62 (1.17)	3/10	1.41 (0.49)	1/2	1.72 (0.79)	1/4	5.92 (1.02)	3/7	2.82 (0.86)	1/5	1.75 (0.44)	1/2	20.53 (3.09)	15/25	1.89 (0.31)	1/2
Spain	146	23.90 (2.99)	18/33	26.19 (3.18)	18/35	27.67 (3.14)	20/36	7.78 (1.36)	0/10	1.51 (0.50)	1/2	1.93 (0.71)	1/4	6.07 (1.12)	2/7	2.62 (1.22)	0/5	1.95 (0.21)	1/2	20.66 (3.05)	16/25	1.88 (0.32)	1/2
Finland	147	19.96 (2.08)	16/27	24.49 (3.28)	18/35	25.33 (3.33)	15/33	8.04 (1.34)	3/10	1.59 (0.49)	1/2	1.73 (0.65)	1/3	5.88 (1.11)	2/7	2.61 (0.98)	0/5	1.74 (0.44)	1/2	19.70 (3.46)	15/25	1.90 (0.29)	1/2
France	104	21.82 (2.40)	15/27	25.66 (3.18)	18/33	26.30 (3.13)	19/35	6.96 (2.34)	0/10	1.67 (0.47)	1/2	1.85 (0.84)	1/4	5.84 (1.29)	1/7	3.42 (1.43)	0/6	1.79 (0.41)	1/2	20.09 (3.13)	15/25	1.90 (0.30)	1/2
Great Britain	163	21.19 (3.00)	16/30	24.93 (4.48)	18/45	25.14 (4.05)	16/35	7.23 (1.68)	0/10	1.45 (0.50)	1/2	1.76 (0.77)	1/4	5.83 (1.33)	1/7	3.04 (1.18)	2/5	1.88 (0.32)	1/2	20.53 (3.24)	15/25	1.75 (0.43)	1/2
Ireland	129	22.60 (3.09)	17/30	26.60 (2.95)	18/32	26.80 (3.93)	18/35	7.39 (2.04)	1/10	1.55 (0.50)	1/2	1.69 (0.74)	1/4	5.69 (1.30)	1/7	3.09 (1.32)	0/6	1.83 (0.38)	1/2	20.41 (3.24)	15/25	1.82 (0.39)	1/2
Netherlands	100	23.34 (2.22)	18/30	26.45 (3.19)	18/35	28.00 (2.82)	22/36	7.82 (1.28)	4/10	1.36 (0.48)	1/2	2.02 (0.55)	1/3	6.04 (1.09)	2/7	2.65 (1.07)	0/5	1.83 (0.38)	1/2	20.45 (3.04)	15/25	1.92 (0.27)	1/2
Norway	136	21.22 (2.56)	16/30	25.95 (3.18)	18/40	26.30 (2.74)	20/35	7.56 (1.50)	2/10	1.47 (0.50)	1/2	1.70 (0.76)	1/4	6.37 (0.96)	2/7	3.07 (1.23)	0/5	1.85 (0.35)	1/2	19.64 (3.17)	15/25	1.91 (0.28)	1/2
Portugal	135	24.06 (3.83)	18/39	24.84 (3.46)	18/35	26.12 (3.34)	18/33	6.42 (2.03)	0/10	1.63 (0.48)	1/2	1.89 (0.64)	1/3	6.52 (1.04)	1/7	2.57 (1.14)	0/5	1.91 (0.29)	1/2	20.69 (3.11)	14/25	1.83 (0.38)	1/2
Sweden	144	21.13 (2.53)	15/30	26.34 (3.84)	18/39	26.48 (3.43)	18/39	7.71 (1.64)	1/10	1.60 (0.49)	1/2	1.74 (0.83)	1/5	6.14 (0.91)	2/7	2.86 (1.31)	0/5	1.76 (0.43)	1/2	19.89 (2.95)	15/25	1.89 (0.32)	1/2

Ideal age to start living with partner not married to (IAGLPTN)
Ideal age to get married and live with husband/wife (IAGLVMR)
Ideal age to become father/mother (IAGPNT)
See other variables in Table 1.

Table 4c. Descriptive Statistics - 20-30 years

	N (20-30)	IAGLPTN		IAGLVMR		IAGPNT		LIFE SAT		PAID WORK		HEALTH		SOC INT		EDU		PARTNER		Age		Child	
		Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max	Mean (SD)	Min/ Max
Belgium	134	23.31 (2.56)	18/32	25.84 (3.00)	19/40	26.63 (2.65)	20/33	7.53 (1.73)	0/10	1.46 (0.50)	1/2	1.89 (0.75)	1/5	5.70 (1.24)	2/7	3.90 (1.26)	1/6	1.86 (0.35)	1/2	24.25 (2.98)	20/30	1.75 (0.43)	1/2
Germany	194	22.62 (2.86)	18/30	26.74 (3.03)	18/35	27.25 (3.34)	18/35	6.99 (2.26)	0/10	1.45 (0.50)	1/2	1.95 (0.81)	1/5	5.32 (1.27)	1/7	3.62 (1.04)	1/5	1.73 (0.44)	1/2	25.24 (3.16)	20/30	1.72 (0.45)	1/2
Denmark	89	22.32 (2.56)	18/28	26.42 (2.79)	18/32	26.94 (2.94)	18/33	8.56 (1.11)	3/10	1.27 (0.45)	1/2	1.82 (0.77)	1/4	5.61 (1.03)	3/7	3.79 (1.03)	2/5	1.48 (0.50)	1/2	25.58 (3.15)	20/30	1.70 (0.46)	1/2
Spain	173	24.48 (3.23)	16/33	26.41 (3.33)	18/35	28.08 (3.32)	20/36	7.48 (1.62)	0/10	1.27 (0.45)	1/2	2.01 (0.67)	1/4	5.87 (1.26)	2/7	3.17 (1.42)	0/6	1.87 (0.34)	1/2	25.69 (3.00)	20/30	1.78 (0.42)	1/2
Finland	139	20.36 (2.43)	17/30	24.83 (3.66)	18/40	25.90 (3.35)	18/35	8.08 (1.26)	3/10	1.35 (0.48)	1/2	1.71 (0.64)	1/3	5.46 (1.24)	2/7	3.74 (1.11)	0/6	1.51 (0.50)	1/2	25.31 (3.09)	20/30	1.68 (0.47)	1/2
France	140	22.44 (2.56)	18/30	25.81 (3.03)	20/40	26.72 (2.60)	20/35	6.85 (2.36)	0/10	1.34 (0.48)	1/2	1.96 (0.90)	1/5	5.69 (1.18)	2/7	4.29 (1.62)	0/6	1.49 (0.50)	1/2	25.85 (3.25)	20/30	1.65 (0.48)	1/2
Great Britain	174	21.50 (3.25)	16/32	24.84 (4.57)	16/45	25.55 (4.33)	16/36	7.30 (1.75)	0/10	1.33 (0.47)	1/2	1.71 (0.74)	1/4	5.51 (1.41)	1/7	3.56 (1.30)	2/6	1.84 (0.37)	1/2	25.02 (3.31)	20/30	1.53 (0.50)	1/2
Ireland	169	23.01 (3.04)	18/30	26.99 (3.48)	18/37	27.28 (3.98)	18/35	7.17 (2.00)	0/10	1.38 (0.49)	1/2	1.72 (0.76)	1/4	5.03 (1.58)	1/7	3.66 (1.42)	0/6	1.74 (0.44)	1/2	25.61 (3.06)	20/30	1.56 (0.50)	1/2
Netherlands	129	24.03 (2.76)	18/35	26.90 (3.36)	18/40	28.42 (3.21)	18/40	7.54 (1.29)	2/10	1.27 (0.45)	1/2	2.07 (0.60)	1/4	6.02 (0.96)	2/7	3.26 (1.26)	0/5	1.71 (0.46)	1/2	25.50 (3.26)	20/30	1.73 (0.45)	1/2
Norway	136	22.16 (2.62)	16/30	25.66 (3.36)	18/40	26.27 (2.78)	18/35	7.70 (1.43)	3/10	1.23 (0.42)	1/2	1.70 (0.70)	1/4	6.00 (1.07)	2/7	4.10 (0.99)	2/5	1.63 (0.49)	1/2	25.30 (3.08)	20/30	1.68 (0.47)	1/2
Portugal	173	24.34 (3.74)	17/35	25.03 (3.60)	17/35	25.97 (3.66)	17/36	6.09 (2.13)	0/10	1.35 (0.48)	1/2	2.07 (0.70)	1/4	6.45 (0.97)	3/7	2.83 (1.36)	0/6	1.81 (0.40)	1/2	25.53 (3.35)	20/30	1.59 (0.49)	1/2
Sweden	148	21.61 (2.71)	18/30	26.66 (3.72)	18/39	26.88 (3.42)	18/36	7.76 (1.74)	1/10	1.33 (0.47)	1/2	1.84 (0.87)	1/5	5.87 (1.03)	1/7	3.84 (1.13)	0/5	1.50 (0.50)	1/2	25.02 (3.20)	20/30	1.69 (0.46)	1/2

Ideal age to start living with partner not married to (IAGLPTN)
Ideal age to get married and live with husband/wife (IAGLVMR)
Ideal age to become father/mother (IAGPNT)
See other variables in Table 1.

Table 4d. Descriptive Statistics - 25-35 years

	N (25-35)	IAGLPTN Mean (SD)	IAGLPTN Min/Max	IAGLVMR Mean (SD)	IAGLVMR Min/Max	IAGPNT Mean (SD)	IAGPNT Min/Max	LIFE SAT Mean (SD)	LIFE SAT Min/Max	PAID WORK Mean (SD)	PAID WORK Min/Max	HEALTH Mean (SD)	HEALTH Min/Max	SOC INT Mean (SD)	SOC INT Min/Max	EDU Mean (SD)	EDU Min/Max	PARTNER Mean (SD)	PARTNER Min/Max	Age Mean (SD)	Age Min/Max	Child Mean (SD)	Child Min/Max
Belgium	123	23.64 (3.13)	18/36	25.93 (3.49)	20/37	27.20 (3.54)	20/37	7.47 (1.94)	0/10	1.24 (0.43)	1/2	1.96 (0.82)	1/5	5.47 (1.26)	2/7	3.94 (1.36)	1/6	1.71 (0.46)	1/2	30.56 (3.32)	25/35	1.32 (0.47)	1/2
Germany	212	22.36 (3.16)	17/34	26.31 (3.29)	18/36	27.25 (3.40)	18/38	6.78 (2.31)	0/10	1.39 (0.49)	1/2	2.00 (0.83)	1/5	5.13 (1.32)	1/7	3.87 (0.98)	2/5	1.62 (0.49)	1/2	30.14 (3.20)	25/35	1.47 (0.50)	1/2
Denmark	119	22.71 (2.77)	18/30	26.69 (2.76)	18/35	27.29 (2.59)	18/33	8.49 (1.06)	5/10	1.19 (0.40)	1/2	1.72 (0.73)	1/4	5.46 (1.05)	3/7	4.11 (1.07)	2/6	1.41 (0.50)	1/2	30.51 (3.11)	25/35	1.35 (0.48)	1/2
Spain	205	24.79 (3.27)	16/30	26.83 (3.35)	18/35	28.66 (3.37)	20/36	7.59 (1.70)	0/10	1.28 (0.45)	1/2	1.99 (0.75)	1/5	5.72 (1.26)	2/7	3.26 (1.46)	0/6	1.81 (0.39)	1/2	30.09 (3.31)	25/35	1.57 (0.50)	1/2
Finland	140	21.02 (2.70)	17/30	25.16 (3.54)	18/40	26.40 (3.25)	18/35	8.17 (1.32)	3/10	1.33 (0.47)	1/2	1.71 (0.65)	1/4	5.39 (1.10)	2/7	4.23 (1.12)	0/6	1.37 (0.49)	1/2	29.92 (3.10)	25/35	1.44 (0.50)	1/2
France	206	22.86 (2.74)	18/30	26.04 (3.61)	18/40	27.02 (3.24)	18/35	6.86 (2.37)	0/10	1.26 (0.44)	1/2	1.98 (0.81)	1/5	5.41 (1.32)	1/7	4.05 (1.82)	0/6	1.43 (0.50)	1/2	30.68 (3.13)	25/35	1.33 (0.47)	1/2
Great Britain	208	21.75 (3.56)	16/32	25.29 (4.47)	16/40	26.41 (4.50)	18/38	7.09 (1.93)	1/10	1.33 (0.47)	1/2	1.76 (0.75)	1/5	5.27 (1.55)	1/7	3.75 (1.36)	2/6	1.83 (0.38)	1/2	30.50 (3.18)	25/35	1.33 (0.47)	1/2
Ireland	205	23.32 (3.05)	18/30	26.84 (3.69)	18/37	27.16 (3.90)	18/35	7.21 (1.94)	0/10	1.34 (0.48)	1/2	1.69 (0.75)	1/4	4.59 (1.63)	1/7	3.75 (1.56)	0/6	1.68 (0.47)	1/2	29.85 (3.10)	25/35	1.38 (0.49)	1/2
Netherlands	173	23.99 (3.01)	17/35	26.53 (3.59)	18/40	28.45 (3.30)	18/40	7.61 (1.36)	2/10	1.23 (0.42)	1/2	2.03 (0.71)	1/5	5.94 (1.00)	1/7	3.50 (1.34)	0/6	1.63 (0.49)	1/2	30.71 (3.09)	25/35	1.48 (0.50)	1/2
Norway	149	22.44 (2.55)	18/28	25.86 (3.20)	18/35	26.52 (2.82)	18/35	7.99 (1.28)	3/10	1.13 (0.33)	1/2	1.73 (0.75)	1/5	5.85 (1.06)	2/7	4.26 (1.02)	0/5	1.49 (0.50)	1/2	30.34 (3.13)	25/35	1.43 (0.50)	1/2
Portugal	211	23.98 (3.59)	17/35	24.95 (3.86)	17/40	26.13 (3.75)	17/36	5.78 (2.16)	0/10	1.18 (0.39)	1/2	2.27 (0.78)	1/5	6.36 (1.07)	1/7	2.61 (1.45)	0/6	1.71 (0.46)	1/2	30.29 (2.98)	25/35	1.37 (0.48)	1/2
Sweden	154	21.78 (3.01)	15/30	26.46 (4.04)	18/35	27.55 (3.45)	18/36	8.02 (1.44)	2/10	1.18 (0.38)	1/2	1.84 (0.80)	1/5	5.55 (1.18)	1/7	4.10 (1.10)	0/5	1.38 (0.49)	1/2	30.21 (2.99)	25/35	1.44 (0.50)	1/2

Ideal age to start living with partner not married to (IAGLPTN)
Ideal age to get married and live with husband/wife (IAGLVMR)
Ideal age to become father/mother (IAGPNT)
See other variables in Table 1.

Table 5. Results

	Ideal age to start living with partner not married to (IAGLPTN)			Ideal age to get married and live with husband/wife (IAGLVMR)			Ideal age to become father/mother (IAGPNT)		
BELGIUM									
Age group	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35
N	153	87	43	155	86	43	155	89	48
Intercept	0***	0***		0***	0***		0***	0**	
life sat		0.19205*		-0.29653***					0.26333*
paid work						0.53802***			0.35202**
health		-0.21943**				0.26285*			0.25295*
soc int						0.42088***			0.32176**
edu		-0.26328**							0.31958*
partner		0.19004*							
child	0.17309*	0.27870**					0.15222*	0.50326***	
age	0.26843**	0.32367**						0.34687***	0.29390**
R^2	0.07	0.19	0.29	0.10	0.08	0.43	0.06	0.24	0.36
(*: p<0.1; **: p<0.05; ***: p<0.01)									
GERMANY									
Age group	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35
N	128	101	68	124	98	62	137	113	74
Intercept	0***	0***	0***	0***	0***	0***	0***	0***	0***
life sat	-0.19776**								
paid work				-0.17198*					-0.24557**
health	-0.25497***			-0.17621*			-0.16073*		
soc int									
edu									
partner	0.18709**			0.15570*		-0.30726**	0.20283**		
child							0.24876***	0.34034***	0.28172**
age	0.26065**			0.39459***	0.30773**	-0.31018**	0.31964***		
R^2	0.17	0.08	0.04	0.20	0.11	0.18	0.20	0.17	0.17
(*: p<0.1; **: p<0.05; ***: p<0.01)									

Table 5. Results (Continued)

	Ideal age to start living with partner not married to (IAGLPTN)			Ideal age to get married and live with husband/wife (IAGLVMR)			Ideal age to become father/mother (IAGPNT)		
DENMARK									
Age group	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35
N	59	56	52	61	58	53	63	61	56
Intercept	0*	0***	0**		0***	0*		0***	0***
life sat					-0.26868**			-0.23574*	
paid work	-0.28745**								
health									
soc int				0.30084*	0.25547*		0.27190*		
edu		0.32774*							
partner						-0.29976*		-0.30427*	
child				0.30674**	0.36559**		0.24902*		
age						0.32982*			
R^2	0.26	0.23	0.18	0.17	0.28	0.22	0.19	0.15	0.15
(*: p<0.1; **: p<0.05; ***: p<0.01)									
SPAIN									
Age group	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35
N	101	95	72	109	98	72	114	106	80
Intercept	0***	0***	0***	0***	0***	0**	0***	0***	0***
life sat									
paid work									
health									
soc int					0.28558**				
edu			0.21632*						
partner									
child		0.20990*						0.19435*	0.29476**
age					0.19131*			0.28334***	
R^2	0.11	0.10	0.12	0.05	0.11	0.12	0.08	0.17	0.11
(*: p<0.1; **: p<0.05; ***: p<0.01)									

Table 5. Results (Continued)

	Ideal age to start living with partner not married to (IAGLPTN)			Ideal age to get married and live with husband/wife (IAGLVMR)			Ideal age to become father/mother (IAGPNT)		
FINLAND									
Age group	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35
N	130	97	70	135	97	70	137	99	71
Intercept	0***	0**	0**	0***		0***	0***	0*	0**
life sat									
paid work									
health			0.21372*			0.21700*			
soc int				0.25796***					
edu								0.17891*	0.21391*
partner									
child			0.26056*		0.20528*	0.28725**		0.33990***	0.36747***
age		0.26270**			0.29412**			0.20612*	
R^2	0.02	0.13	0.16	0.10	0.11	0.16	0.06	0.18	0.20
(*: p<0.1; **: p<0.05; ***: p<0.01)									
FRANCE									
Age group	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35
N	84	90	106	82	86	101	84	89	106
Intercept	0***	0***	0***	0***	0**	0***	0**	0***	0***
life sat	0.25102**								
paid work		-0.25908**	-0.20002*	-0.21592*					
health						0.21128*			0.22272**
soc int		0.24205**			0.25672**				
edu							0.29640**		
partner	0.32337**	0.34995***							
child						0.19804*	0.26335**	0.40999***	0.42415***
age	0.32411*	0.33779***			0.26788**			0.38170***	0.28460***
R^2	0.15	0.26	0.07	0.13	0.14	0.11	0.20	0.21	0.27
(*: p<0.1; **: p<0.05; ***: p<0.01)									

Table 5. Results (Continued)

	Ideal age to start living with partner not married to (IAGLPTN)			Ideal age to get married and live with husband/wife (IAGLVMR)			Ideal age to become father/mother (IAGPNT)		
GREAT BRITAIN									
Age group	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35
N	123	106	93	132	112	94	134	113	95
Intercept	0***	0***	0**	0***	0***		0***	0***	
life sat			0.19739*			0.29010***			0.25773**
paid work									
health	-0.15720*						-0.16130*		
soc int									
edu			0.23145*		0.27925**	0.29221**			
partner									
child							0.19128*	0.30930***	0.38136***
age								0.16438*	0.29406***
R^2	0.07	0.09	0.12	0.04	0.11	0.20	0.10	0.21	0.24
(*: p<0.1; **: p<0.05; ***: p<0.01)									
IRELAND									
Age group	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35
N	81	79	70	82	80	70	89	87	79
Intercept	0**	0***	0***	0***	0***	0***	0**	0*	0***
life sat							0.28736**	0.17558*	
paid work									
health			-0.22926*						
soc int		-0.20672*			-0.21800*			-0.30430***	-0.23868*
edu				0.30127*					
partner									
child	0.30647**							0.35295**	0.28929**
age								0.24342*	
R^2	0.12	0.19	0.18	0.11	0.08	0.18	0.17	0.25	0.29
(*: p<0.1; **: p<0.05; ***: p<0.01)									

Table 5. Results (Continued)

	Ideal age to start living with partner not married to (IAGLPTN)			Ideal age to get married and live with husband/wife (IAGLVMR)			Ideal age to become father/mother (IAGPNT)		
NETHERLANDS									
Age group	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35
N	78	75	84	81	77	80	81	79	86
Intercept	0***	0***	0***	0***	0***	0***	0***	0**	0***
life sat				-0.23653**					
paid work					0.20172*				0.18283*
health	-0.25234**	-0.24771*		-0.20859*	-0.21963*				
soc int	0.19054*			0.23947**			0.21563**	0.25506**	
edu			0.26579**			0.21503*			0.33221***
partner							-0.22440*	-0.22423**	
child					0.20494*		0.20273*	0.25892**	
age		0,32059**			0.30057**			0.36631***	-0.19590*
R^2	0.13	0.17	0.08	0.19	0.21	0.07	0.18	0.42	0.22
(*: p<0.1; **: p<0.05; ***: p<0.01)									
NORWAY									
Age group	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35
N	125	100	74	127	100	71	129	102	74
Intercept	0***	0***	0**	0***	0***	0**	0***	0***	0***
life sat	-0.21386**			-0.29199***	-0.20659*				
paid work						0.27590**			
health								0.19717*	
soc int									
edu									
partner									
child	0.25176***	0.21271*					0.18117*		
age	0.32588**		0.39508***			0.27226**			0.24334*
R^2	0.17	0.09	0.23	0.09	0.12	0.26	0.08	0.13	0.15
(*: p<0.1; **: p<0.05; ***: p<0.01)									

Table 5. Results (Continued)

	Ideal age to start living with partner not married to (IAGLPTN)			Ideal age to get married and live with husband/wife (IAGLVMR)			Ideal age to become father/mother (IAGPNT)		
PORTUGAL									
Age group	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35
N	72	74	67	79	78	69	84	86	76
Intercept	0**	0***	0***	0***	0***	0***	0***	0***	0***
life sat	-0.32223**		-0.36845***			-0.26818**	-0.20325*		
paid work			-0.21523*		-0.28293*	-0.23488*			-0.39249***
health									
soc int									
edu									
partner									
child									
age					-0.27820*				
R^2	0.14	0.10	0.21	0.07	0.12	0.18	0.10	0.16	0.24
(*: p<0.1; **: p<0.05; ***: p<0.01)									
SWEDEN									
Age group	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35	15-25	20-30	25-35
N	118	106	87	119	98	78	123	104	79
Intercept	0***	0***	0***	0**	0***	0***		0***	0***
life sat		-0.19951*	-0.38484***		-0.29100**	-0.26597**		-0.20606**	
paid work									
health	-0.18989*				-0.32271***	-0.23048**		-0.20598**	
soc int	-0.19382*					-0.31527***			-0.20313*
edu						0.42637***			0.41863***
partner	0.30871***	0.26090**			0.17980*		0.25955**	0.27520***	
child							0.33920***	0.38688***	
age		0.26934**		0.29254*				0.44462***	
R^2	0.13	0.18	0.23	0.07	0.19	0.28	0.17	0.37	0.25
(*: p<0.1; **: p<0.05; ***: p<0.01)									

ウェルビーイングと成人期移行における主要ライフイベントの理想年齢について
―2006・2007年ヨーロッパ社会調査に基づく分析―

松尾英子，ヘンリ・デランゲ

本論文はウェルビーイングと成人期移行における理想年齢の関連について2006・2007年第三次ヨーロッパ社会調査を使って分析したものである．ヨーロッパ社会調査は2002年より２年ごとに，固定質問票と毎回替わるテーマ質問票により，ヨーロッパ諸国でデータ収集が行われてきた．本分析は2006・2007年第三次調査（テーマ質問票のライフコース，個人と社会のウェルビーイング）を使用した．本論文では，ヨーロッパの12か国（ベルギー，ドイツ，デンマーク，スペイン，フィンランド，フランス，英国，アイルランド，オランダ，ノルウェー，ポルトガル，スウェーデン）を対象に，３つの年齢層（15－25歳，20―30歳，25－35歳）の女性に対して，５つのウェルビーイング変数（全人生満足度，就労の有無，健康度，社会参加・社会相互作用，教育）の成人期移行における３つの理想年齢（理想同棲年齢，理想初婚年齢，理想第一子出生年齢）に及ぼす影響について分析した．分析結果として，ウェルビーイングの変数が成人期移行の理想年齢に重要な影響を与えること，特に，３つの主要ライフイベントの中で理想初婚年齢（続いて理想第一子出生年齢，そして理想同棲年齢），25－35歳年齢層，オランダやスウェーデンといった国で及ぼす影響が強いことを示した．５つのウェルビーイング変数の中では教育，就労，社会参加・社会相互作用が理想年齢を高めるのに対し，全人生満足度はこれを低めることも示した．また，本論文には関連文献の紹介，ウェルビーイングの観点からの政策提言も含めた．