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Trends in Children's Family Instability, 1995–2010

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Abstract

Using data from the 1995 and 2006–2010 National Survey of Family Growth, the authors study examined children's family instability from birth to age 12, emphasizing variation by racial and ethnic group. Period and cohort estimates revealed little change in children's experiences of family transitions during the past decade. Family instability levels were comparable for White and Hispanic children, and this pattern persisted over time. However, there was an increase in family instability among Black children, reflecting growth in the share of children born to single mothers who eventually formed partnerships. Indeed, children born to single mothers in the more recent cohort experienced more family transitions, on average, than did the earlier cohort, but family instability for children born to cohabiting mothers remained unchanged. This study elucidates the various family life course trajectories children experience, revealing how these patterns differ depending on family context at birth and by racial and ethnic group.

Keywords

children; cohabitation; ethnicity; family formation; marriage

The living arrangements of children are increasingly diverse. This variation is evident from birth, as a growing share of children are born outside of marriage. Today, over 40% of births are to unmarried mothers, and more than half of these births occur to cohabiting couples (Manning, Brown, & Stykes, 2015). Children born outside of marriage are at greater risk of family instability during childhood relative to children born to married parents (Manning, 2015; Raley & Wildsmith, 2004). In turn, family instability is consequential for children's development and well-being (Brown, 2010; Crosnoe & Cavanagh, 2010). Stable family living arrangements during childhood are associated with more beneficial outcomes for children.

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Recent family trends portend growth in family instability during childhood. In addition to the rise in unmarried births, the continued growth in cohabitation and serial cohabitation, as well as the decreasing tendency for cohabitation to culminate in marriage, point to more family transitions for children (Cohen & Manning, 2010; Guzzo, 2014a, 2014b; Lichter, Turner, & Sassler, 2010). Even children in married families may experience less stability today than in the past given new evidence that divorce has been climbing during the past few decades (Kennedy & Ruggles, 2014). Also, the growth in multiple-partner fertility coincides with the “marriage-go-round” of partnerships identified by Cherlin (2009) that translate into high levels of partnership formation and dissolution by parents. All of these changes in family behaviors suggest that children experience more family instability than they did a generation ago.

Moreover, today’s children are more racially and ethnically diverse (Johnson & Lichter, 2010). In 1990, one third of children were racial/ethnic minorities. By 2008, the share had climbed to 43% of all children. The two largest minority groups, Blacks and Hispanics, are characterized by higher shares of unmarried births, single parenthood, and cohabitation relative to Whites. In short, the changing racial and ethnic composition of children may contribute to rising family instability among U.S. children.

Both contemporary family patterns and the shifting racial and ethnic composition of children indicate that childhood family instability is likely on the rise. The most recent study documenting children’s family transitions was conducted by Raley and Wildsmith (2004) using data from the 1995 National Survey of Family Growth (NSFG; <http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/nsfg.htm>). Their research showed the importance of accounting not only for parental marital transitions but also for cohabitation transitions, which raised the estimates of the number of family transitions children experienced by 30% for Whites and 100% for Blacks. Their study did not include Hispanic children, who now constitute the largest racial/ethnic minority group (Lichter, 2013; U.S. Census Bureau, 2015). Given the numerous changes in family life over the past decade, in this study we updated and expanded on Raley and Wildsmith’s work by using data from the 1995 and 2006–2010 waves of the NSFG to chart both period and cohort trends in children’s family instability for White, Black, and Hispanic children from birth to age 12.

Background

The rapid rise in cohabitation in recent decades has fundamentally altered the childhood family experiences of a growing share of children. Roughly 40% of children will spend some part of their childhood in a cohabiting family. Cohabiting unions are much less stable than marriages, even when children are present. Roughly half of children born to cohabiting parents experience parental union dissolution by their third birthday versus about 11% of children born to married parents (Osborne, Manning, & Smock, 2007). By age 12, children born to cohabiting parents have experienced about twice as many family transitions as children born to married parents (Raley & Wildsmith, 2004).

The link between family structure at birth and family instability during childhood is well established (Graefe & Lichter, 1999; Manning, Smock, & Majumdar, 2004; Osborne et al.,

2007; Raley & Wildsmith, 2004). As growing shares of children are born outside of marriage, more children are poised to experience family trajectories that are marked by instability. In particular, cohabitation plays a larger role now in children's family transitions, reflecting both the rise in births to cohabiting mothers and the increased share of mothers who form cohabiting rather than marital unions. Raley and Wildsmith (2004) illustrated the necessity of examining cohabitation transitions in studies on family instability. More than half of the family transitions experienced by Black children are cohabiting transitions. Among White children, nearly one quarter of all family transitions are cohabiting rather than marital. Children's family instability clearly is not driven solely by marital transitions. Increasingly, family instability is the result of parental transitions into or out of cohabitation.

Family instability is often detrimental for child well-being, and the association is linear such that each additional family transition is related to further declines in child well-being (Cavanagh & Huston, 2008; Cherlin et al., 1991; Fomby & Cherlin, 2007; Osborne & McLanahan, 2007; Wu, 1996; Wu & Martinson, 1993). This pattern has been established for a range of child outcomes, including educational, social, and behavioral indicators of well-being. Family living arrangement transitions are stressful for children and adults alike, disrupting family routines and the flow of resources, which can compromise healthy development among children (McLanahan & Sandefur, 1994). The relationship between family instability and child well-being appears to differ across racial/ethnic groups. For White children, family instability is negatively associated with well-being, whereas for Black children the linkages tend to be weaker and often do not achieve statistical significance (Fomby & Cherlin, 2007). There is little empirical evidence on how Hispanic children fare (Brown, 2010; Fomby & Estacion, 2011).

Recent family trends suggest that children's family instability could be on the rise. A key factor is the growing share of births that occur to cohabiting mothers. At the time of the Raley and Wildsmith's (2004) study, which examined children born during the mid- to late 1980s and early 1990s, roughly 11% of all births were to cohabiting mothers (during 1990–1994). This figure has more than doubled, to 24%, for the 2005–2009 period (Manning et al., 2015). Given that children born to cohabiting mothers experience the highest average number of transitions (Raley & Wildsmith, 2004), we can expect that children's family instability has increased over the past decade.

At the same time, cohabitators' union outcomes are shifting such that they are less likely to eventuate in marriage and more likely to end through separation. During the late 1980s, about 60% of cohabiting unions culminated in marriage. Today, just 40% are expected to be formalized through marriage (Lamidi, Manning, & Brown, 2015). The rising instability of cohabiting unions sets the stage for additional family transitions; specifically, it presents opportunities for repartnering and multiple-partner fertility, exposing children to still more family transitions (Cherlin, 2009; Guzzo, 2014a).

Children's family instability differs by race, with Black children experiencing more family living arrangement transitions, on average, than White children (Raley & Wildsmith, 2004). This differential is consistent with higher shares of births to unpartnered single and cohabiting mothers among Blacks than Whites. Research on family instability among

Hispanic children is scant, although one study indicated that, for children born to either married or cohabiting parents, union dissolution is comparable for Whites and Hispanics during the first 3 years of life, whereas for Blacks it is notably higher, on average (Osborne et al., 2007). For Hispanics, the proportion of births that are to unmarried mothers is higher than Whites and lower than Blacks, suggesting that family instability levels for Hispanic children may lie in between those of White and Black children.

The current study was designed to examine whether and how children's family instability has changed over the past decade or so, tracking children according to family context at birth until age 12. Our approach addresses racial/ethnic group variation in children's family instability, expanding on prior research (Raley & Wildsmith, 2004) that documented Black–White differentials by incorporating Hispanic children. To be specific, our study proceeded in three steps. First, we conducted life table estimates of the cumulative number of family transitions children experience by each year of age through age 12 by cohort and racial/ethnic group. Second, we estimated the distribution of family life course trajectories by birth context for children according to cohort and racial/ethnic group. Third, we provide estimates of the number of transitions children are expected to experience between birth and age 12, emphasizing various trajectories based on birth context. We consider how these estimates have changed over time and how they differ across racial/ethnic groups.

Method

We used the 1995 and 2006–2010 cycles of the NSFG to document children's exposure to family transitions and examine whether children today experience more transitions than their counterparts did roughly one decade ago. The NSFG provides a nationally representative data source of women ages 15–44 and includes detailed fertility and relationship histories. Drawing on this information, we documented children's exposure to family transitions and identify trajectories of children's living arrangements through age 12. Inferring children's experiences from mothers' reports allows us to present more recent estimates than would be possible had we used a traditional cohort approach. However, it requires two important assumptions. One assumption is that either children live with their mothers for the majority of their lives or mothers' experiences are comparable with whomever the child resides, and the second assumption is that mothers and children report similar experiences with union formation and dissolution. Raley and Wildsmith (2004) concluded that both assumptions were reasonable and used mothers' fertility and relationship histories in the 1995 NSFG to indirectly estimate children's family transitions and exposure to instability. By merging the female pregnancy and respondent files of the NSFG we constructed a child-level data file in which each case corresponds to a respondent's completed pregnancy. Thus, women who reported more than one completed birth had a separate record for each child.

We conducted two sets of analyses to chart children's family instability over time. The first set of analyses drew on period estimates to document levels of family instability by counting the number of transitions children experienced. *Transitions* were defined as entering directly into a marital or cohabiting union or dissolving a marital/cohabiting union. The transition from cohabitation to marriage is not treated as a family transition (Raley & Wildsmith, 2004). Our measure of instability was downwardly biased because it does not account for

other changes in household composition (e.g., living with a grandparent, sibling, other family member, or nonrelative) or changes in a mother's dating relationships with nonresident boyfriends. Multistate period life tables estimate the average number of family transitions children are expected to experience by age 12. Estimates are produced by summing age-specific family transition rates for each month within an established risk period. For the 1995 cycle, the risk period ranges from January 1990 to December of 1994, consistent with the approach used by Raley and Wildsmith (2004). Given the 2006–2010 cycle's continuous interviewing strategy, we constructed a variable that detailed the number of months before the interview and censored all person-months occurring more than 60 months prior to the date of interview. In response to the NSFG's age restrictions, period estimates considered children's exposure to family transitions through age 11 and were limited to children born to mothers under age 30, consistent with Raley and Wildsmith. Considering children's experiences past age 12 would require a more stringent age cutoff for mothers (e.g., limiting births to women under age 29, 27, 25, etc.), a less desirable strategy given recent increases in mothers' median ages at first birth (Arroyo, Payne, Brown, & Manning, 2013). The 1995 NSFG cycle included 10,847 women, and the 2006–2010 cycle included 12,279 women. Period estimates for the 1995 analyses were derived from 11,140 children who were ages 0–12 for at least 1 month between 1990 and 1994. Ultimately, these 11,140 children contributed 519,194 person-months in the 5 years prior to the interview. Period estimates for 2006–2010 analyses were based on data from 12,462 eligible children who contributed 561,983 person-months in the 5 years prior to interview.

A second set of analyses focused on older children to document trajectories in children's family transitions through the first 12 years of their lives. This cohort approach complemented the period analyses described above by elucidating the specific types of family transitions children experience. Raley and Wildsmith (2004) identified a 1980–1984 birth cohort with the 1995 NSFG. At the time of the interview these children are ages 11–15. We used a similar strategy with the more recent NSFG panel, examining all children who were ages 11–15 at the time of the interview in the cohort sample because the continuous sampling design of the recent NSFG panels makes identifying a 5-year birth cohort more challenging. Cohort analyses for the 1995 cycle include 3,359 children born between 1980 and 1984 and congruent analyses for the 2006–2010 cycle include 2,389 children who were ages 11–15. Both our 1995 period and cohort samples include slightly more children (mainly because we included Hispanic children) than those in Raley and Wildsmith's study, but nevertheless we obtained results substantively similar to those from the 1995 NSFG.

All analyses were stratified according to mother's racial/ethnic status (i.e., White, Black, and Hispanic) and weighted to account for the complex survey design of the NSFG. Note that our analyses did not count dissolutions or formations for which the mother either refused to provide or did not know the month of occurrence, but instead we treated them as “no transition,” meaning that our estimates of family transitions are conservative. Appendix Table A1 shows the sociodemographic characteristics of the two period samples to illustrate how they have changed over time. Maternal education tended to be higher in the 2006–2010 cohort, at least for White and Black children. For White children, the share whose mother had a college degree rose from 21% to 31%. Similarly, among Black children this figure grew from 7% to 12%. In contrast, the percentage of Hispanic children's mothers with a

college degree remained stable, at about 6%. Poverty levels increased for White (from 11% to 17%) and Black (from 43% to 47%) children but were unchanged among Hispanic (43%) children. Mean age at mother's interview was about 7.5 years in 1995 and 8 years in 2006–2010. There were no appreciable racial/ethnic differences in child age over time.

Results

Period estimates of children's cumulative number of family transitions by age and time period for all children, and separately by racial/ethnic group, are presented in Table 1. The results showed there was a slight increase since 1995 in the number of family transitions children were expected to experience through age 12, rising from 0.89 to 1.01. This increase primarily reflected greater family instability for Black children, who were expected to experience 0.4 more family transitions in the 2000s than their counterparts did in the early 1990s. For White and Hispanic children the rises in family instability over time were negligible, at 0.05 and 0.06, respectively. The racial/ethnic gap in family instability widened over time. In the early 1990s, Black children were expected to experience approximately 0.4 more transitions by age 12 than either White or Hispanic children. A decade later, this gap stood at 0.7 transitions, which represented a roughly three quarters increase.

Additional analyses indicated the growth in family instability was due to a rise in the share of children who experienced family transitions rather than higher numbers of family transitions. As shown in Panel A of Table 2, the mean number of family transitions children experienced remained largely unchanged since the early 1990s; instead, decreasing shares of children born to married and cohabiting mothers ever experienced a family transition, whereas increasing shares of children born to single mothers ever experienced a transition, as shown in Panel B of Table 2. These patterns suggest that the increase in family instability for Black children might have reflected a rise in partnership formation among single mothers. Finally, declining shares of White and Hispanic children born to cohabiting mothers ever experienced a family transition, whereas increasing shares of their Black counterparts ever experienced a transition (results not shown, available on request).

Cohabitation transitions played a prominent role in children's family instability. Consistent with Raley and Wildsmith (2004), we found that the number of transitions children experienced rose by one third for Whites and more than doubled for Blacks in 1995. For Hispanics, including cohabitation increased the number of transitions by about three quarters (results not shown). Today, cohabitation transitions constitute a greater share of family instability experienced by White children but slightly less for Black and Hispanic children. Including cohabitation transitions increased the estimate of children's instability by nearly 80% for Whites. For Blacks, it still more than doubled the estimate, and for Hispanics the estimate increased by 50% during the 2006–2010 period (results not shown, available on request). Thus, cohabitation transitions were increasingly important for assessments of family instability among White children and responsible for substantial shares of family instability for Black and Hispanic children.

The distributions of children's family life course trajectories through age 12 are depicted in Table 3. Overall, the share of children born to marital unions that remained intact through

the child's 12th birthday dropped from 54% to 44%. Still, intact marital unions remained the modal trajectory for children at both time points. The decline in children born to married parents was largely offset by increases in the share of children born to single mothers who went on to form cohabiting unions (which rose from 7% to 12%) and children born to cohabiting parents who either separated (which tripled from 2% to 6%) or transitioned to marriage (which more than doubled from 5% to 12%). Similarly, as shown in the bottom panel of Table 3, the share of children whose mother reported cohabiting at some point before the child's 12th birthday increased from 28% in 1995 to 40% in 2006–2010, whereas the share of children whose mother was ever married dropped modestly, from 89% to 84%, during the time period. There was virtually no change in the share of children whose mother was ever single but never cohabited, which hovered around 16%.

We now turn to the estimates for each racial/ethnic group. Consistent with the pattern for all children, we found that at both time points the modal trajectory for White and Hispanic children was “married—intact through age 12.” Nonetheless, the share of White and Hispanic children in this group declined since the 1990s (from 63% to 52% and from 48% to 39%, respectively). This trend was largely offset by increases in the share of children who were born to (a) cohabiting parents who transitioned to marriage, which rose from 4% to 10% and from 5% to 14% for White and Hispanic children, respectively, and (b) single mothers who formed cohabiting unions, which rose from 4% to 10% for White children. In contrast, the modal trajectory for Black children was being born to a single mother who formed a cohabiting relationship after the birth, and this share increased slightly over time, from 23% to 26% of Black children, which provided additional evidence that this trajectory accounted for much of the increase in Black children's family transitions over time. There was also a considerable decline (from 17% to 10%) in the share of Black children born to single mothers who had not partnered by the child's 12th birthday and at the same time a doubling (from 6% to 12%) in the share of Black children who were born to cohabiting mothers who transitioned to marriage.

Although all racial/ethnic groups reported an increase in the share of children whose mothers ever cohabited, only Black children experienced a decline in the share of children whose mother was ever single but never cohabited, which fell from more than one third to just one quarter (see bottom panel of Table 3). Fewer White and Hispanic children had a mother who was ever married in the more recent cohort, but for Blacks there was a slight increase in the share of children whose mothers ever married. Still, Black children were least likely to have mothers who were ever married (about 60%) compared with White (over 90%) and Hispanic (over 80%) children.

The third goal of our study was to examine the average number of family transitions children experienced by birth context and racial/ethnic group for both cohorts. The data in Table 4 show that the average number of transitions a child was expected to experience by age 12 differed by family structure at birth, with children born to married mothers experiencing the fewest number of transitions, on average (0.6 in 1995 and 0.5 in 2006–2010). Although children born to unpartnered single mothers and cohabiting mothers experienced the same average number of transitions (1.4) in 1995, the number of transitions experienced by children of single mothers grew to 1.7 for the most recent cohort. The number of family

transitions for children born to cohabiting mothers was unchanged, at 1.4. Note that children whose mothers ever cohabited were expected to have 1.9 transitions today versus 2.3 in the earlier cohort, suggesting cohabitation was a more stable family context for children nowadays than a decade ago. Overall, though, the average number of family transitions children experienced did not change much over time. In the 1990s, the average was 0.8 transitions, and at the 2006–2010 cycle it was 0.9 transitions. Of course, this aggregate figure belies variation observed for some subgroups.

Among children born to married mothers there was no change in the number of transitions Black (0.7) and Hispanic (0.6) children experienced. However, their White counterparts experienced slightly fewer transitions, on average, in the recent cohort (falling from 0.7 to 0.5). Among children born to single mothers, Whites had more transitions, on average, than did Blacks and Hispanics at both time points. Over time, there was a slight uptick in the number of transitions experienced by Black (from 1.3 to 1.7) and White (from 1.8 to 2.1) children who were born to single mothers. In contrast, Hispanic children who were born to single mothers experienced fewer average transitions over time (falling from 1.5 to 1.2). The average number of family transitions rose from 1.1 to 1.6 for White children who were born to cohabiting mothers but declined ever so slightly for Black (1.9 to 1.7) and Hispanic (1.2 to 1.1) children.

For Black and Hispanic children the average number of family transitions was comparable for children born to unpartnered single mothers and those born to cohabiting mothers. In contrast, birth to a single mother translated into more family transitions compared with birth to a cohabiting mother for White children. Those born to single mothers experienced 2.1 transitions versus just 1.6 transitions for those born to cohabiting mothers in the recent cohort.

There was virtually no change in the number of transitions for children whose mother was ever single but never cohabited across racial/ethnic groups. However, White and Hispanic children whose mother had ever cohabited reported fewer transitions in the more recent sample, whereas Black children reported comparable levels of instability at both time points. Black children whose mothers were ever married exhibited slight increases in instability over time (from 1.0 to 1.2), whereas their White and Hispanic counterparts experienced either no change (Whites, at 0.7) or slight decreases (Hispanics, from 0.8 to 0.7) in instability, respectively. Consistent with period estimates, Black children experienced more transitions, on average, than did White and Hispanic children at both time points. For the recent cohort, Black children averaged 1.3 transitions versus 0.9 for White children and 0.8 for Hispanic children.

Discussion

Recent changes in U.S. family life portend greater family instability for today's children. The sustained rise in nonmarital births, in particular to cohabiting mothers, coupled with the drop in the share of cohabiting unions that eventuate in marriage suggest children may experience more family instability than they did a generation ago. Even marriages are arguably less stable today with the recent uptick in divorce (Kennedy & Ruggles, 2014). The

“marriage-go-round” of partnerships (Cherlin, 2009) and multiple-partner fertility that characterize a growing segment of the population also point to more instability for children. We extended and updated Raley and Wildsmith’s (2004) research to evaluate whether children’s experiences of family instability have changed since 1995. Their study established that family instability was highest among children born to cohabiting families. It also demonstrated that ignoring transitions into and out of cohabiting families resulted in severe underestimates of family instability, particularly for Black children. We found that these patterns persist today: Family instability remains high for children born to cohabiting versus married mothers, and transitions into and out of cohabitation continue to play a large role in estimates of family instability.

Our study reveals that despite the dramatic shifts in the family context of childbearing and parental union behaviors in recent years, levels of family instability among children have changed relatively little between 1995 and 2006–2010. Period estimates showed only a modest rise in the number of family transitions children can expect to experience by age 12, which stood at 0.9 in 1995 and 1.0 in 2006–2010. This pattern obscures racial/ethnic variation, though. Family instability has climbed more for Black than for White or Hispanic children. Among Black children, the number of transitions has risen by about one third from 1.2 to 1.6, whereas for other children the growth has been negligible, meaning that the racial/ethnic gap in family instability has widened among children. This gap seems to reflect growth in the share of children born to single mothers who transition to cohabitation, which has been more pronounced among Blacks.

The average number of transitions children experience continues to vary by family structure at birth. White and Black children born to single mothers experience more transitions today than in 1995, but Hispanic children experience fewer transitions than in the past. Family transitions among children born to cohabiting mothers have remained stable over time, at least for Hispanic and Black children (who have experienced slight decreases). For White children born to cohabiting parents, family transitions have increased by about 50% as these children experience more transitions today regardless of whether their parents separate or marry. Indeed, accounting for transitions into and out of cohabitation is even more important nowadays than a decade ago. In 1995, the inclusion of cohabitation transitions increased the estimate of family instability by 60%. Today, the estimate grows by 84% when cohabitation transitions are included.

Not only is cohabitation increasingly common as a birth context, but also a larger share of all children are experiencing the formalization of their parents’ cohabiting union through marriage. The shares among White and Black children doubled. For Hispanic children, the proportion born to a cohabiting mother who then married nearly tripled. These patterns suggest that cohabitation is now a more stable family form for children, which aligns with Second Demographic Transition theory (Lesthaeghe & Neidert, 2006). Indeed, children whose mother ever cohabited experience fewer average family transitions in 2006–2010 than in 1995. Single mothers are also embracing cohabitation, as the share of children who were born to a single mother and then transition into a cohabiting family have risen for all racial/ethnic groups. The share of children in continuously single-mother families has declined precipitously for White, Black, and Hispanics alike. Cohabitation plays a larger role in

children's family lives, in particular for those who in the past might have been raised by single mothers. Moreover, levels of family instability are underestimated without consideration of cohabitation, especially for Whites.

Although this study moves the field forward by documenting current patterns of family instability with particular attention to racial/ethnic variation, it also has some limitations. The upper age limit of the NSFG prevented us from considering family instability that children experience after age 15, and thus our estimates are conservative. Also, the NSFG measures up to four cohabitation partnership transitions. In the rare event that mothers experience more than four partnerships, our estimates may be downwardly biased. Also, there could be some error in retrospective reports of cohabitation start and end dates, but it is unlikely to substantially alter our estimates of children's exposure to new cohabiting partners. It would have been preferable to have a direct measure of the child's own race/ethnicity, although the mother's race/ethnicity is a good proxy for the child's. Last, our analyses were solely descriptive, and thus we did not explore the mechanisms underlying children's exposure to family instability. The next step is to consider why these patterns exist, in particular the racial and ethnic differences we documented (Raley, Sweeney, & Wondra, 2015).

At first blush, the family experiences of children appear to have changed little since 1995, yet the overall trend masks considerable racial/ethnic differences that underscore the increasingly divergent experiences of today's children (cf. McLanahan, 2004). White and Hispanic children have experienced little change in overall family instability levels, whereas Black children have seen an increase, which was largely due to union formation among single mothers. Furthermore, within racial/ethnic groups, family instability trends differ by family structure at birth. A notable theme that emerged from our study is the growing salience of cohabitation transitions for children's family experiences. Indeed, it strengthens the call from Raley and Wildsmith (2004) more than a decade ago that research should place cohabitation transitions front and center in work on family instability and child well-being.

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Table 1
Period Estimates of Cumulative Number of Transitions by Age, Race/Ethnicity, and Panel

Age of child	All children		White children		Black children		Hispanic children	
	1995	2006–2010	1995	2006–2010	1995	2006–2010	1995	2006–2010
1	0.07	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.11	0.13	0.07	0.08
2	0.15	0.17	0.14	0.14	0.23	0.27	0.13	0.15
3	0.23	0.24	0.21	0.21	0.35	0.40	0.20	0.21
4	0.32	0.34	0.30	0.30	0.47	0.53	0.28	0.28
5	0.40	0.43	0.38	0.38	0.59	0.69	0.34	0.36
6	0.48	0.52	0.45	0.46	0.70	0.83	0.43	0.44
7	0.55	0.61	0.52	0.54	0.81	0.99	0.50	0.52
8	0.62	0.69	0.58	0.61	0.91	1.12	0.57	0.59
9	0.69	0.77	0.63	0.67	0.99	1.25	0.65	0.68
10	0.75	0.86	0.69	0.75	1.08	1.37	0.73	0.77
11	0.82	0.93	0.75	0.81	1.17	1.48	0.78	0.84
12	0.89	1.01	0.82	0.87	1.23	1.63	0.87	0.93
N(children)	11,140	12,462	5,903	5,246	2,818	2,805	2,067	3,552
Nchild-months	519,194	561,983	275,087	239,059	132,716	125,126	94,971	159,198

Table 2

Period Changes in Family Instability

Variable	1995 (n = 2,253)				2006–2010 (n = 3,545)	
Mean number of transitions	1.5				1.5	
Panel A: Number of transitions among children who experienced at least one transition						
Age of child	Marital birth		Cohabiting birth		Single birth	
	1995 (n = 1,561)	2006–2010 (n = 979)	1995 (n = 222)	2006–2010 (n = 1,337)	1995 (n = 470)	2006–2010 (n = 1,229)
1	0.8	0.7	6.1	4.9	7.2	6.6
2	2.0	1.8	10.6	9.4	11.5	10.6
3	3.2	2.7	15.0	12.7	15.2	14.1
4	4.7	4.0	19.1	15.7	18.6	17.2
5	6.1	4.9	22.5	18.9	21.5	20.8
6	7.2	5.6	25.8	21.4	23.7	24.8
7	8.3	7.0	28.0	24.0	27.0	26.9
8	9.4	8.2	30.4	25.7	29.0	29.5
9	10.4	9.3	32.3	27.7	30.9	31.8
10	11.4	10.3	33.7	29.7	32.7	34.6
11	12.3	11.0	35.2	31.3	34.4	36.8
12	13.0	11.7	36.0	33.3	35.3	39.1

Table 3

Life Course Trajectories through age 12, by Race/Ethnicity and Cohort

Variable	All children						White children						Black children						Hispanic children					
	1995			2006-2010			1995			2006-2010			1995			2006-2010			1995			2006-2010		
	Full	%		Full	%		Full	%		Full	%		Full	%		Full	%		Full	%		Full	%	
Marital births																								
Intact through age 12	54	70		44	70		63	72		52	71		21	55		20	55		48	71		39	66	
Married, split, never repartner	8	10		9	14		7	8		9	12		11	29		11	31		8	12		9	15	
Married, split, cohabit	12	16		8	13		13	15		10	14		5	13		3	8		10	14		9	15	
Married, split, remarried	3	4		2	3		4	5		2	3		1	3		2	6		2	3		2	4	
Total	77	100		63	100		87	100		73	100		38	100		36	100		67	100		59	100	
Nonmarital births																								
Single births																								
Remain single through age 12	4	27		3	17		1	13		1	8		17	36		10	25		5	29		4	22	
Single to cohabiting	7	46		12	66		4	50		10	77		23	49		26	65		8	47		10	56	
Single to direct marriage	4	27		3	17		3	37		2	15		7	15		4	10		4	24		4	22	
Total	15	100		18	100		8	100		13	100		47	100		40	100		17	100		18	100	
Cohabiting births																								
Cohabiting through age 12	1	12		1	5		0			1	8		1	7		1	4		2	13		3	13	
Cohabiting to split	2	25		6	32		1	20		3	21		8	53		11	46		9	56		6	26	
Cohabiting to marriage	5	63		12	63		4	80		10	71		6	40		12	50		5	31		14	61	
Total	8	100		19	100		5	100		14	100		15	100		24	100		16	100		23	100	
Total	100			100			100			100			100			100			100			100		
Ever single, but never cohabited	17			16			14			13			35			24			16			17		
Ever cohabited	28			40			23			35			44			54			36			43		
Ever married	89			84			97			91			60			63			85			81		
Unweighted <i>n</i>	3,359			2,389			1,839			976			852			530			579			737		

Table 4

Average Number of Transitions, by Trajectory, Race/Ethnicity, and Cohort

Variable	All children		White children		Black children		Hispanic children	
	1995	2006–2010	1995	2006–2010	1995	2006–2010	1995	2006–2010
Marital births								
Intact through age 12	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Married, split, never repartner	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Married, split, cohabit	2.9	2.7	3.0	2.7	2.5	3.0	2.8	2.6
Married, split, remarried	2.4	2.1	2.4	2.0	2.6	2.6	2.0	2.1
Total	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6
Nonmarital births								
Single births								
Remain single through age 12	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Single to cohabiting	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.1	2.3	1.9	1.6
Single to direct marriage	1.8	1.8	1.7	2.0	1.7	2.0	2.3	1.4
Total	1.4	1.7	1.8	2.1	1.3	1.7	1.5	1.2
Cohabiting births								
Cohabiting through age 12	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Cohabiting to split	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.3	2.4	2.1	2.0	2.0
Cohabiting to marriage	1.1	1.3	1.0	1.4	1.7	1.4	1.0	1.0
Total	1.4	1.4	1.1	1.6	1.9	1.7	1.2	1.1
Total	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.3	0.8	0.8
Ever single, but never cohabited	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.0	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8
Ever cohabited	2.3	1.9	2.5	2.1	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.5
Ever married	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.2	0.8	0.7
Unweighted <i>n</i>	3,359	2,389	1,839	976	852	530	579	737

Table A1

Sample Characteristics in 1995 and 2006–2010

Characteristics	Total sample	White children	Black children	Hispanic children
Panel A: 1995 period sample ^a				
Mother's education				
Bachelor's or higher	17.4	21.3	7.2	6.6
Some college	22.2	23.5	21.7	17.7
High school/GED	42.3	44.3	44.0	32.7
Less than high school	18.1	10.9	27.1	43.0
Poverty status				
At least 200% of poverty line	53.0	64.1	28.3	27.9
100%–199% of poverty line	25.7	24.6	28.5	29.1
< 100% of poverty line	21.3	11.3	43.2	43.0
Mean age at time of interview (years)	7.4	7.5	7.5	7.2
Panel B: 2006–2010 Period Sample ^a				
Mother's education				
Bachelor's or higher	23.2	31.1	12.1	6.4
Some college	26.7	29.4	29.3	17.0
High school/GED	27.1	26.5	34.4	27.0
Less than high school	23.0	13.0	24.2	49.6
Poverty status				
At least 200% of poverty line	45.3	59.6	27.7	23.6
100%–199% of poverty line	26.9	23.6	25.3	33.4
< 100% of poverty line	27.8	16.8	47.0	43.0
Mean age at time of interview (years)	8.0	8.0	7.9	8.1

^aThe children in the period versus cohort estimate samples had similar characteristics in terms of maternal education and household poverty status.