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The Impact of Implicit Theories of Willpower on the Desire to have Children

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Table of Contents

Introduction	3
Theoretical Background	4
Desire to have Children	4
Implicit Theories of Willpower	5
Gender	7
Age.....	8
Socio-economic Status.....	8
Resources	9
Study Design & Methods	11
Sample.....	11
Measures	13
Results	16
Exploratory Results	19
Discussion	30
Theoretical implications.....	32
Limitations & Future directions.....	33
Practical implications	35
Conclusion	36
References.....	37
List of Figures	42
List of Tables	43
Appendix A – Abstract	46
Appendix B – List of Items	48
Appendix C – Reliability Analyses	54
Appendix D – CFA of Childbearing Desire.....	59
Appendix E – EFA of Childbearing Desire.....	63
Appendix F – EFA of Resources.....	66
Appendix G – Correlation Table	68
Appendix H – Linear Regression Analyses	70

Introduction

Parenthood is a foundational element of societal structure. The development of every generation depends not only on people's decision to become parents, but also on how they decide to raise their children. However, in modern societies, a growing number of people choose to remain childless. Given the recently published 2023 population statistics for Austria, this topic remains highly relevant since the country is currently experiencing its highest birth deficit since World War II (Statistik Austria, 2023). This problem is of course not unique to Austria, as a 2024 published OECD report reveal that birth rates have declined by half in OECD countries over the past 60 years, posing the risk of population decline and serious economic and social challenges for future generations. According to the 2024 edition of *Society at a Glance*, the total fertility rate in OECD countries declined from an average of 3.3 children per woman in 1960 to only 1.5 in 2022. This number is significantly lower than that of the replacement level (2.1 children per woman), which is required to sustain population levels. If the current trend of low birth rates continues it could lead to a population decline starting in the coming decade. In other words, the number of deaths is likely to surpass births for the first time in at least fifty years.

The impacts of a decreasing birth rate are various. When it comes to the labor market, fewer younger and more older workers means that people may remain in the workforce for longer, not by choice but out of necessity. Some suggest that birthrate decline may result in a smaller workforce contributing to the economy, which would reduce economic growth in terms of gross domestic product (GDP) per person and lead to a decline in living standards. Beyond its potential impact on economic growth, a lower fertility rate also has potential fiscal implications. Public assistance programs such as Social Security are funded by taxes on workers. If the workforce decreases, it could threaten the fiscal sustainability of many countries (Levine & Kearney, 2022).

Although OECD member states have introduced a variety of policies to support families, financial uncertainty and the economic costs of childbearing remain central factors shaping individuals' decisions about whether to have children (OECD, 2024). Furthermore, the decision to have children is increasingly influenced by broader societal and cultural shifts, access to healthcare and changing social norms surrounding gender roles and family structures (OECD et al., 2023). As the issue of low fertility rates become increasingly urgent, researchers must consider the psychological and social drivers that influence an individual's motivation to have children. This study therefore aims to examine one such understudied factor: implicit theories of willpower.

Theoretical Background

Desire to have Children

The terms “childbearing desire” or “fertility intention” are both used in the literature to define an individuals’ or couples’ expressed wish or plan to have children within their lifetime. However, there is a slight but important difference: while “desire” captures a person’s general wish to have children, “fertility intentions” usually denotes a more concrete commitment or plan regarding whether and when to bear children (Liu et al., 2023). This study focuses on childbearing desire, as the central question is about whether an individual wants to have a child at all, rather than how far their reproductive planning may have already progressed.

The Traits-Desires-Intentions-Behavior (T-D-I-B) framework is a psychosocial model that explains how motivational dispositions, desires, intentions and behaviors lead to actions related to childbearing. The central idea of the T-D-I-B model is that fertility-related behavior emerges from a sequential motivational process beginning with relatively stable and often unconscious dispositions to have children (Miller, 2011). These dispositions shape desires, which in turn shape intentions and ultimately influence behavior. Empirical evidence supports this sequential structure as the more strongly individuals desire to have children, the sooner they tend to desire or intend the next birth. For example, a longitudinal study in Nairobi found that women’s baseline desires strongly predicted subsequent reproduction: those expressing a desire for children were more likely to become pregnant than women without such desire (Machiyama et al., 2019). Thus, childbearing desire represents a robust predictor of actual fertility behavior.

A recent systematic scoping review by Ranjbar et al. (2024) highlights that the formation of a person’s childbearing desire is shaped by a variety of individual, interpersonal, socio-economic, cultural and structural factors. On an individual level, psychological dispositions, attitudes toward parenthood, personal values and beliefs about family life play an important role. Demographic characteristics such as age and gender also influence childbearing decisions. On the interpersonal level, factors such as partnership status, relationship stability and perceived social support have been shown to influence whether individuals express a stronger or weaker desire to have children. For example, people in stable relationships generally report higher levels of childbearing desire. On the socio-economic level, financial security, employment opportunities, housing circumstances and overall economic stability affect how desirable the prospect of becoming a parent appears. In addition, cultural norms, gender role expectations and religious beliefs have been shown to

explain the variability when it comes to childbearing desire. Finally, structural and policy-related conditions, such as access to healthcare, childcare provisions and family policies shape the environment in a way that can either support or hinder people's reproductive choices. All of these conditions can shape the perceived opportunities and costs associated with parenthood and can therefore either strengthen or weaken childbearing desires.

Furthermore, childbearing desires have undergone significant changes over time. Research indicates that having children is increasingly seen not as a societal duty but as a means of personal fulfillment and self-extension (Frejka et al., 2008). At the same time, having a child is associated with a set of responsibilities that often imposes constraints on partnerships, lifestyles and economic stability. While many parents consider parenthood to be one of the most rewarding jobs of their lives, it is often also described as “living on the edge of one's capacities” (Martins, 2019). Research has shown that the subjective evaluation of one's resources, such as energy, endurance, self-regulation and resilience, plays a substantial role in how individuals approach demanding life goals (Job et al., 2010). Since childbearing and parenting are demanding tasks that require a substantial amount of resources, individuals' beliefs about their ability to handle such challenges may directly shape their desire to become parents. These different perceptions about one's ability to withstand difficult tasks are described as implicit theories of willpower.

Implicit Theories of Willpower

People hold different implicit beliefs about the nature of willpower, which influence their ability to exert self-control, pursue goals and can also influence their life satisfaction (Bernecker et al., 2017). Research into those implicit theories of willpower showed that people endorse either the idea that their willpower is limited or unlimited. According to the limited-resource theory, willpower functions like a finite resource. For an individual who endorses this idea, participating in a strenuous task and exerting self-control diminishes this resource, subsequently making it more difficult to sustain effort on further tasks. This phenomenon is also known as the ego-depletion effect and explains why some individuals after engaging in mentally demanding activities experience a temporary reduction in their self-control capacity, hence losing persistence in their goal-directed behavior (Bernecker et al., 2017).

In contrast, individuals who endorse the unlimited-resource theory believe that willpower is an infinite or in other words self-renewing resource. Individuals with a unlimited belief show more resilience when faced with demanding tasks and can maintain a

high level of self-control even after exerting effort on prior tasks. As a result, they make greater progress toward personal goals (Bernecker et al., 2017).

Different studies show that the belief in willpower as a limited resource has detrimental effects on self-control, personal goal pursuit and subjective well-being. In a study on ego-depletion and self-control, Carol, Dweck & Walton (2010) found that theories about willpower predict changes in eating behavior, procrastination and self-regulated goal striving under depleting circumstances. A study conducted by Job et al (2015) showed that a nonlimited theory predicted better self-regulation (including improved time management and reduced procrastination, unhealthy eating, and impulsive spending) for students who faced high self-regulatory demands.

Further research suggests that these different willpower beliefs shape how individuals perceive mental effort and exhaustion. According to the literature individuals who view willpower as limited become more sensitive to cues indicating mental fatigue, which can trigger a sense of depletion and reduce their motivation to persist in challenging tasks. When they experience a task as particularly exhausting, their self-efficacy declines, further reinforcing the need to rest and conserve resources rather than continue exerting effort. On the other hand, individuals with a nonlimited theory of willpower interpret fatigue differently, often seeing it as a signal to push forward rather than a constraint (Francis & Job, 2018). Since childbearing and parenthood come with high demands and an increased general stress level for an extended period, this study aims to focus on the relationship between implicit theories of willpower and a person's desire to have children. Since people with a limited theory of willpower might think they do not have the necessary strength to become parents, they might show less desire to have children, and vice versa. Knowing about the different struggles that come with being parents, adults might base the decision of wanting or not wanting to have children on their implicit theory of willpower, whether they feel capable of dealing with these struggles or not.

To investigate the relation between implicit theories of willpower and the desire to have children the following hypothesis was postulated:

- (1) People with a nonlimited theory of willpower have a higher childbearing desire than people with a limited theory of willpower.

Beyond individual differences in implicit theories of willpower, childbearing desire is also influenced by various social and demographic factors. Moreover, the relationship

between implicit theories of willpower and childbearing desire may be influenced by several potential confounders. Therefore, the following sections focus on gender, age, socioeconomic status and resources, all of which have been shown to be relevant for reproductive motivations.

Gender

Gender has consistently been identified as an important factor in shaping childbearing desire, as traditionally women and men experienced parenthood under very different social roles and expectations. Even today, women face the challenge of balancing parenthood with pursuing a career, a difficulty that men typically do not encounter in the same way. The responsibility for household tasks and raising children still falls primarily on women's shoulders. Even in societies that are perceived as gender-equal, reproductive costs are still not equally distributed. Women continue to face more challenges regarding childbearing than men. For instance, even if childcare responsibilities are shared equally within a partnership, women still must bear the physical burden of pregnancy (Duvander et al., 2020). This inequality might also influence attitudes towards childbearing and parenthood, as a study by Kim and Kim (2023) concluded that female students exhibited a lower willingness for future parenthood compared to male students. Additionally, women placed significantly less value on motherhood than men did on fatherhood, suggesting that perceived costs and benefits of having children are evaluated differently by gender. Furthermore, understanding the role gender plays in the formation of childbearing desires might be necessary for developing policies tackling the declining birth rate, as those policies might be perceived differently by men and women. Taking together these findings highlight the necessity of studying gender differences in the formation of childbearing desire. This becomes even more evident as a study conducted by Duvander et al. (2020) concluded that women have greater decision-making power than men when it comes to having a child.

Previous research on implicit theories of willpower has not found any gender differences in the endorsement of limited versus unlimited willpower beliefs. Instead, these beliefs appear to function similarly across men and women, as evidenced by strong measurement invariance (Napolitano & Job, 2018). However, given that the present study examines the relationship between implicit theories of willpower and childbearing desire, gender may still play an important role, as women are more likely than men to anticipate higher workload and greater responsibility when it comes to parenthood. In other words, implicit theories of willpower may be more relevant for women when it comes to the

evaluation of their capacity to face the challenges of having a child. Therefore, gender is included in the analyses as a control variable.

Age

Age is an important demographic factor when it comes to childbearing desire because it relates to biological and social changes that shape people's priorities and opportunities. Research shows that the desire to have children tends to follow a pattern across the lifespan: it usually increases in early adulthood, peaks at the 26-36 age group for both women and men and then gradually declines as biological limits and changing life circumstances come into play (Natividade et al., 2020). While childbearing desires are the lowest for old age cohorts, postponement of parenthood has become a trend, as the average age of women at childbirth increased from 28.6 in 2000 to 30.9 in 2022 (OECD, 2024). Nowadays younger adults prioritize their careers and interests over starting a family. Additionally, fear of environmental issues and a lack of affordability are often cited as key reasons not to have kids, for individuals that are just entering adulthood (Powdthavee et al., 2024).

According to the literature, age also has an impact on how individuals perceive their own willpower. For example, studies on implicit theories of willpower suggest that older adults are more likely to believe that their own willpower is a nonlimited resource compared to younger adults (Job et al., 2018). This belief is linked to a greater sense of autonomy in demanding tasks, hence making older adults less susceptible to ego-depletion effects.

For the current study, age is important for two reasons. First, it is well documented that childbearing desire changes with age, therefore, not controlling it could lead to statistical artifacts. Second, since an individual's implicit theories of willpower also seem to be influenced by their age, it could influence both the outcome and the predictor. That is why age was included as a control variable, making sure that any observed association between implicit theories of willpower and childbearing desire is not simply due to age differences.

Socio-economic Status

When it comes to the reasoning why some people have children while others do not, one cannot ignore the influence of an individual's social economic status (SES), which is defined by the position of an individual in society, based on a combination of occupational, economic and educational criteria (Porta & Last, 2007). A large body of research has shown that an individual's SES influences how costs and benefits of childbearing are perceived. For instance, several studies have found that women with a higher socio-economic status are less likely to desire larger families or additional children (Kim, 2016), suggesting that higher levels of income, education and occupational status might lead to a lower level of

childbearing desire. One possible explanation of this is discussed in a study by Channon & Harper (2019) as they look into educational differentials in the realization of fertility intentions. The authors came to the conclusion that highly educated women face challenges balancing multiple children with career goals, especially in managerial roles with limited maternity leave. The relationship between SES and childbearing desire is also discussed in Caldwell's (1980) wealth flow hypothesis. According to this hypothesis individuals with a higher socio-economic status view children as a burden, while those with a lower socio-economic status see them as a form of security.

At the same time, low levels of income can also reduce childbearing desire, as financial insecurity, unstable employment and limited access to resources limit an individual's opportunity to have a child (Ranjbar et al., 2024). Taken together, these findings indicate that both high and low levels of SES can be associated with reduced childbearing desire, highlighting the need to be controlled for in the upcoming multiple linear regression models.

There are many different schools of thought when it comes to measuring an individual's SES. As previously described, SES encompasses various dimensions, including prestige, education and economic well-being (Hoff et al., 2002). Most researchers agree that three quantitative indicators, namely parental education, parental occupation and income provide a comprehensive representation of this multifaceted construct (Schulz 2005). Among these, income and occupational status are often described as unstable variables due to their dependency on the economic environment (Mueller & Parcel, 1981). Furthermore, income has been shown to be vulnerable to response errors (Kim & Tamborini, 2012). Therefore, this study is using a participants' parents educational level to assess their socioeconomic status (SES).

Resources

Lastly, in this section I want to discuss the role of resources regarding childbearing desire. The literature frequently distinguishes between three main dimensions of resources: material resources, which refer to financial security, social resources like perceived social support and personal resources, which include physical and psychological well-being, fitness and energy (Miller, 2011). Together these three dimensions influence how individuals evaluate their odds in overcoming a difficult situation. Applied to childbearing desires, the level of perceived resources could influence if an individual feels ready to become a parent and therefore could influence their desire.

A study by Zhao et al. (2024) revealed that perceived stress has a significant negative effect on childbearing desires. More interestingly, a mediating effect was observed involving

perceived stress, family communication, subjective well-being and the desire to have children. This means that perceived stress not only directly suppressed the desire to have children but also indirectly affected it while good communication and high subjective well-being were able to positively affect childbearing intentions, by mediating the effect of perceived stress.

Furthermore, an overwhelming body of research highlights the crucial role social support plays in coping with parental challenges. For example, the results of a cohort study by Fierlos et al. (2023) show that increasing levels of perceived social support were associated with higher levels of parenting self-efficacy and vice-versa. Consistent with this argument, other empirical studies demonstrate that the greater the social capital, the higher the probability to have a child (Bühler & Fratzcak, 2007; Philipov et al., 2006).

Beyond social support, a growing number of studies indicate that other resources, for example cognitive and physical wellbeing could all have an impact on a person's decision to become a parent. For instance, a recent study among migrants and non-migrants demonstrated that good perceived health was associated with stronger fertility intentions in both men and women (Mondal, 2024). Additionally, longitudinal data indicates that declines in self-assessed physical or mental health are associated with reduced expectations regarding future parenthood (Lazzari & Beaujouan, 2025). These findings further show that individuals adjust their childbearing plans strongly in response to physical health changes. Interestingly, mental health appears particularly relevant for men's fertility intentions at younger ages. Overall, these results make it obvious that physical and mental health are important determinants when it comes to the desire to have children.

Moreover, economic resources like money, material goods and support through public institutions have been identified as a central determinant of childbearing decisions (Ranjbar et al., 2024). For instance, instability in women's employment significantly delays motherhood among medium- to high-income households and low household wealth is associated with lower probabilities of entering parenthood (Modena & Sabatini, 2012). Evidence that further supports the role of financial resources: Using large-scale administrative data from over 400,000 lottery winners in Taiwan, Tsai et al. (2022) demonstrate that exogenous wealth shocks like a lottery win increase fertility. Institutional support also plays a crucial role when it comes to childbearing desire. Comparative studies show that family policies, such as subsidized childcare and paid parental leave significantly increase the desire to have children, especially among women balancing employment and caregiving demands (Balbo et al., 2013).

Taking all of this into account, it becomes clear that gender, age, SES as well as various resources like financial security, health and perceived social support could all play a

significant role when it comes to the relationship between a person's willpower and their desire to have children, hence it is important to control them in the regression analysis.

Methods

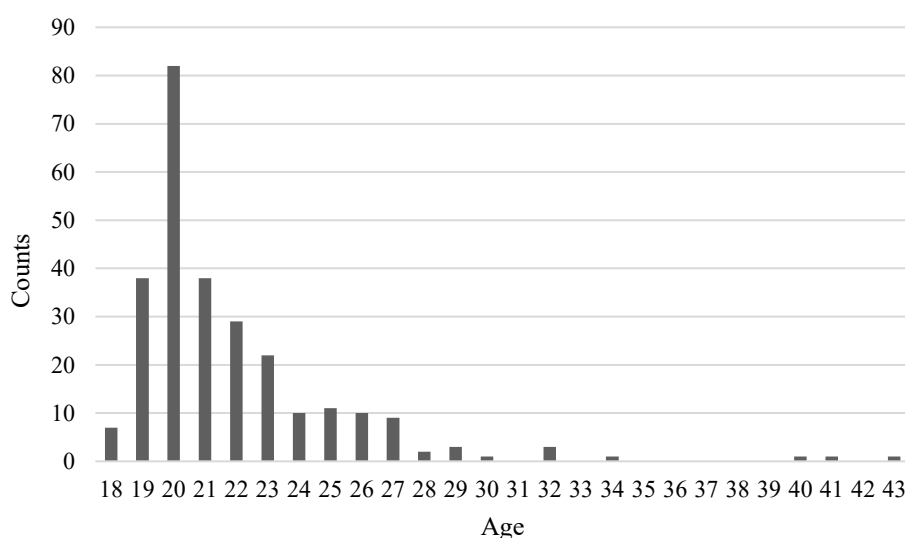
Sample

The sampling method used for this study is homogenous sampling and was gathered from a bachelor's program at the University of Vienna. Participants received bonus credit for their course in exchange for their participation. However, it is unlikely that this incentive had any influence on their responses. The data collection period spanned one full month, from mid-May 2025 to mid-June 2025 and a total of 293 individuals participated. Participants were included in the following analyses if they completed the questionnaire in full and did not show any signs of systematic response patterns, such as straight lining (selecting the same response option across multiple items). In this way a total of 24 participants were excluded, which resulted in a final sample consisting of 269 participants. Of these, 71% ($n = 181$) of the participants identify as female, 27% ($n = 73$) as male, and 2% ($n = 3$) as another gender.

The mean age is relatively young at $M = 21.84$ years old ($SD = 3.45$). When we look at the distribution plot for the age (Figure 1), we can see that most of the sample is clustered around the age of 20, which could lead to unwanted statistical artifacts. This will be further discussed in the limitation section.

Figure 1

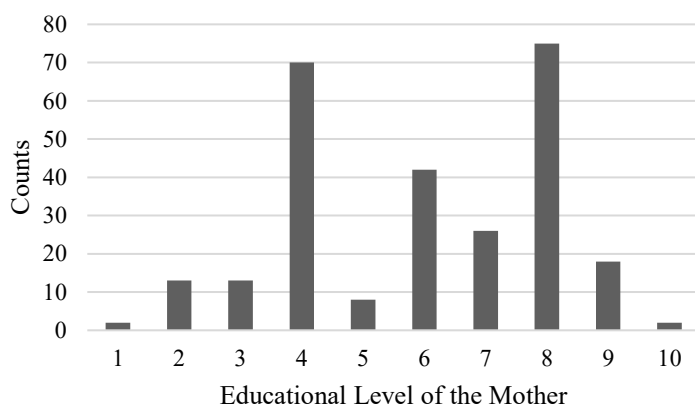
Distribution of Age



The distribution plots for the educational level for both parents (Figure 2 & Figure 3) are very similar to each other. Most participants reported that the highest educational attainment of their parents was a university degree (8), which applied to both mothers and fathers. The second and third most frequently selected options were high school diplomas (4) and apprenticeships (6). However, there was a gender difference in this distribution. Among fathers apprenticeships (18.2%) were more common closely followed by a high school diploma (15.2%), whereas among mothers high school diploma (26%) ranked second and apprenticeships (15.6%) ranked third.

Figure 2

Distribution of the Educational Level of the Mother

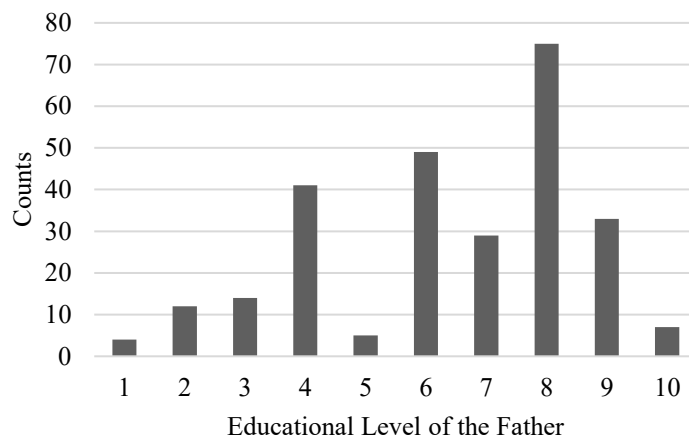


Note. 1 = No formal education; 2 = Compulsory schooling completed; 3 = Lower secondary education completed; 4 = Upper secondary education (high school diploma); 5 = Upper secondary education (vocational qualification); 6 = Apprenticeship; 7 = Bachelor's degree; 8 = Master's degree; 9 = Doctoral degree; 10 = Don't know.

When it comes to the current relationship status only four out of the seven options were selected by at least one participant. Which means out of the 269 participants in the sample no one was either in a registered partnership, divorced or widowed. Out of all the participants 49.4% ($n = 133$) reported being single and 50.6% ($n = 136$) were in a relationship, of whom 32.3% ($n = 87$) lived without their partner and 17.1% ($n = 46$) lived with their partner in the same household and 3 participants were married.

Figure 3

Distribution of the Educational Level of the Father



Note. 1 = No formal education; 2 = Compulsory schooling completed; 3 = Lower secondary education completed; 4 = Upper secondary education (high school diploma); 5 = Upper secondary education (vocational qualification); 6 = Apprenticeship; 7 = Bachelor's degree; 8 = Master's degree; 9 = Doctoral degree; 10 = Don't know.

Measures

Childbearing Desire

In the literature, there are many different scales that could be used to investigate a person's desire to have a child. Since it is such a complex construct, it was decided to not use only one scale, but three different scales in order to operationalize a person's childbearing desire. In this next section a quick overview of these different scales is provided.

The Leipzig Questionnaire on Motives for Wanting Children (LKM) comprises 20 items (Brähler et al., 2001). It features a wide range of items (e.g., "Having a child gives my life true meaning."), as its aim is to capture the full scope of childbearing desire in all its facets. The complete list of the items can be viewed in Appendix B. Each item was rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Validation based on a representative German sample of 1,129 individuals (466 men and 663 women) aged 16 to 45 years confirmed the LKM as a reliable, valid, and economical instrument for assessing motives related to the desire to have children (Brähler et al., 2001). The Cronbach's α of the Leipzig Questionnaire on Motives for Wanting Children was .804 (Table C1 in Appendix C), indicating a very high internal consistency.

The Attitude Toward Babies Scale (ABS) (Brase & Brase, 2012) is a 34-item instrument developed to assess individuals' attitudes and affective responses toward infants, particularly in the context of reproductive decision-making and emotional regulation. The scale is composed of five subscales: Positive Exposure (capturing positive emotions

associated with infants), Negative Exposure (reflecting concerns or aversive feelings), Tradeoffs (measuring anticipated sacrifices such as career or lifestyle changes), Nurturance (assessing the desire to care for and protect infants) and Female Role Beliefs (examining the alignment of parenting attitudes with traditional gender roles). The scale was developed and validated through empirical studies involving both undergraduate and broader online samples and is widely used to investigate individual differences in attitudes relevant to fertility-related outcomes. In this study only one subscale, namely the Negative Exposure subscale, was used. This subscale consists of 8 items (e.g., “Dealing with the needs and wants of children is annoying”) and each item was rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A complete list of all items can be viewed in Appendix B. The subscale showed a very high internal consistency with a Cronbach’s α of .879 (Table C3 in Appendix C).

Finally, a third scale was developed for the purpose of the present study. This scale consists of three subscales that capture different aspects of the childbearing desire: Commitment scale (8 items; e.g., “I fully identify with my desire to have children”), Control scale (3 items; e.g., “Whether I will have children depends on circumstances that I can hardly influence”) and Conflict scale (2 items; e.g., “I have often found myself seriously conflicted about whether I want to have children”). All the items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A complete list of the items can be viewed in Appendix B. The results of the reliability analysis were mixed. The Commitment scale showed a very high reliability (Cronbach’s α = .924; Table C5 in Appendix C), while the Conflict scale demonstrated acceptable reliability (Cronbach’s α = .726; Table C7 in Appendix C). However, the Control scale showed a very low Cronbach’s α ($< .2$) (Table C8 in Appendix C), suggesting extremely poor internal consistency. Such a low α indicates that the items on this scale are not measuring the same underlying construct. This scale was therefore removed from further analysis and was not included in the measurement of the desire to have children index.

Developing a Childbearing Desire Index

In order to develop a childbearing desire index a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to test the factor structure of the childbearing desire construct based on the previously presented scales. Initially, four scales were considered (LKW, Negative Exposure, Commitment and Conflict), however the Conflict subscale was excluded since it consisted of only two items. Two-item factors are statistically problematic in CFA as they often lead to identification issues and unstable parameter estimates (Brown, 2015). Consequently, the CFA

was conducted with three remaining scales comprising a total of 36 items. The three-factor model showed a statistically significant chi-square test (χ^2), $p < .001$ (Table D2 in Appendix D). It is important to note that in the context of CFA, especially with moderate to large sample sizes, the chi-square test is almost always significant and therefore not considered the most relevant indicator of model fit (Shi et al., 2018). Hence additional fit measures were examined with CFI = 0.968 and TLI = 0.965 (Table D3 in Appendix D), indicating an excellent model fit. Regarding the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test two items were excluded due to low sampling adequacy (KMO < .60) (Table D1 in Appendix D). Additionally, the results of the CFA (Table D4 in Appendix D) indicated that five items of the LKM showed factor loadings below 0.40. These items were therefore removed from further analysis.

The factor covariances ranged between .701 and .886 (as seen in Table D5 in Appendix D), indicating high correlations between the three factors. Given these high correlations, a one-factor CFA was also tested to evaluate whether a single, overarching factor could adequately represent the construct. This model, however, demonstrated a poorer overall fit (CFI = 0.951, TLI = 0.948; Table D6 in Appendix D) in comparison to the three-factor model, indicating that the original three-factor structure should be kept. Based on these findings, the three-factor model is both theoretically justified and statistically robust. Therefore, it is appropriate to create a composite index representing overall childbearing desire for use in subsequent analyses. Finally, a childbearing desire index was calculated for every participant as the mean of their responses to the 29 remaining items.

Implicit Theories of Willpower

To measure whether participants hold a limited-resource theory or a nonlimited resource theory, a scale comprising 16 items was used (Job et al., 2010). The scale consists of four subscales assessing different dimensions of implicit theories of willpower. Those four subscales are: Mental Activities, Temptation, Physical Activities and Emotions. After careful consideration, it was decided to exclude the Temptation subscale in order to reduce the overall length of the questionnaire. As a result, the scale consisted of 12 items, with 4 items each assigned to the three subscales: Mental Activities (e.g., “After a strenuous mental activity your energy is depleted and you must rest to get it refueled again”), Physical Activities (e.g., “After physically demanding activity, I feel full of energy and able to continue with something challenging right away”) and Emotions (e.g., “Strong emotions cannot really be suppressed for long. After a while, it becomes increasingly difficult to keep them under control”). A complete list of the items can be viewed in Appendix B. Each item is rated on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 6 (strongly disagree). Items are scored

so that higher values represent agreement with an unlimited-resource theory. The reliability of the scale proved to be robust (Cronbach's $\alpha = .803$; Table C9 in Appendix C). Furthermore, it did not improve when any individual items were removed (Table C10 in Appendix C).

Socio-economic status

Participants were asked to report the highest level of education attained by each parent. For measurement, a categorical classification of parental education levels based on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) was applied (UNESCO, 2012).

Resources

Resources were assessed using a self-developed scale consisting of 16 items. Participants rated their level of each resource in comparison to a person of the same age on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (clearly below) to 5 (clearly above). The list of items include material resources ("material goods", "money", "time" and "support through public institutions"), social resources ("close friends", "influential connections", "family support" and "strong romantic relationship") as well as personal resources ("health", "social skills", "speaking skills", "energy", "physical fitness", "charm", "intelligence" and "assertiveness"). A reliability analysis indicated that two items ("time" and "strong romantic relationship") reduced the internal consistency of the scale and were therefore removed (Table C in Appendix C12). After item removal, the internal consistency of the scale improved to an acceptable level (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.76$; Table C11). The resources score was calculated as the mean of the remaining 14 items, with higher values indicating higher perceived resources.

Results

A correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationships between the study variables (see Table 1). Implicit theories of willpower showed a small but statistically significant positive correlation with the childbearing desire index ($r = .133, p < .05$). Moreover, the childbearing desire index was correlated significantly with the educational level of the mother ($r = .138, p < .05$) and resources ($r = .302, p < .001$), but not with the age, gender, educational level of the father or relationship status of the participant.

Additionally, implicit theories of willpower showed significant correlations with gender ($r = .186, p < .01$) and resources ($r = .149, p < .05$), indicating that these variables are relevant covariates for subsequent analyses.

Table 1*Pearson's Correlation of all Variables*

Variable		CDI	ITW	AGE	GEN	RST	EM	EF	RES
CDI	<i>r</i>	-							
	<i>p</i>	-							
ITW	<i>r</i>	.133	-						
	<i>p</i>	.029	-						
AGE	<i>r</i>	-.099	-.057	-					
	<i>p</i>	.107	.349	-					
GEN	<i>r</i>	.024	.186	.113	-				
	<i>p</i>	.690	.002	.063	-				
RST	<i>r</i>	-.008	-.065	.223	-.061	-			
	<i>p</i>	.891	.291	< .001	.316	-			
EM	<i>r</i>	.138	.102	-.152	-.005	-.080	-		
	<i>p</i>	.024	.096	.012	.930	.193	-		
EF	<i>r</i>	.048	.031	-.125	-.056	-.048	.475	-	
	<i>p</i>	.431	.608	.040	.359	.433	< .001	-	
RES	<i>r</i>	.302	.149	-.128	.056	-.068	.198	.251	-
	<i>p</i>	< .001	0.015	.036	.363	.263	.001	< .001	-

Note. CDI = Childbearing Desire Index; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower; AGE = age; GEN = Gender; RST = Relationship Status; EM = Education level of the mother; EF = Education level of the father; RES = Resources.

When it comes to the control variables, some noteworthy associations can be seen. Age was significantly correlated with the educational level of the mother ($r = -.152, p < .05$), educational level of the father ($r = -.125, p < .05$) and the relationship status ($r = .223, p < .001$), however it showed no significant correlation to either childbearing desire or implicit theories of willpower. Another significant correlation emerged between the educational level of the mother and the father ($r = .475, p < .001$), which is consistent with the notion that people tend to form romantic partnerships with others who have similar levels of education (Kalmijn, 1998).

To explore whether the main predictor implicit theories of willpower can predict childbearing desire, a series of linear regression analyses were conducted. In the first analysis (Table 2), which included no control variables, implicit theories of willpower significantly predicted childbearing desire ($\beta = 0.133, p = .029$). As the sole predictor, implicit theories of willpower explained 1.8% of the variance in childbearing desire ($R^2 = .018$, adjusted $R^2 = .014$; Table H1 in Appendix H).

Table 2*Simple Regression Analyses Predicting Childbearing Desire*

Model	Coefficients	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₀	Intercept	2.795	0.043		65.694	< .001
M ₁	Intercept	2.357	0.204		11.529	< .001
	ITW	0.145	0.066	0.133	2.189	.029

Note. B = unstandardized regression coefficient; SE = standard error; β = standardized regression coefficient; ITW = Implicit theories of willpower.

In the next step a hierarchical multiple linear regression was conducted which featured additional covariates. When it came to the selection of covariates, variables were included if they (a) were significantly correlated with the dependent variable, or (b) showed significant correlation with the main predictor. Accordingly, educational level of the mother and resources were included because both were significantly related to childbearing desire. Gender was also included as a covariate, as it correlated with implicit theories of willpower and represents a theoretically relevant demographic factor that may influence both outcome and main predictor, as well as their relationship. The variables age, relationship status and the educational level of the father were excluded because they showed no significant correlation to both the outcome and the main predictor.

Table 3 presents the results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis predicting childbearing desire. In Model 0, which included gender, educational level of the mother and resources as control variables, resources was the only variable that significantly predicted childbearing desire ($\beta = 0.285$, $p < .001$), whereas neither gender nor maternal education contributed significantly to the model. Model 0 significantly explained 9.8% of the variance in childbearing desire ($R^2 = .098$, adjusted $R^2 = .087$; Table H2 in Appendix H).

In Model 1, implicit theories of willpower was added to the regression model. The inclusion of implicit theories of willpower resulted in only a small increase in explained variance ($\Delta R^2 = .007$), with the total explained variance rising to 10.5% ($R^2 = .105$, adjusted $R^2 = .091$; Table H2 in Appendix H). This increase in explained variance was not statistically significant and implicit theories of willpower did not significantly predict childbearing desire in the final model ($\beta = 0.085$, $p = .156$). However, resources remained a significant predictor even after the inclusion of implicit theories of willpower ($\beta = 0.275$, $p < .001$). The reduction of the predictive power between implicit theories of willpower once resources were included as a covariate suggests that resources may function not only as a covariate but potentially as a mediating variable, which will be examined in detail in the following section.

Table 3*Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Childbearing Desire*

Model	Coefficients	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₀	Intercept	1.158	0.319		3.631	< .001
	GEN	0.012	0.079	0.009	0.154	.878
	EM	0.027	0.020	0.081	1.364	.174
	RES	0.457	0.095	0.285	4.788	< .001
M ₁	Intercept	0.971	0.345		2.817	.005
	GEN	-0.009	0.080	-0.006	0.107	.915
	EM	0.025	0.020	0.075	1.250	.212
	RES	0.440	0.096	0.275	4.585	< .001
	ITW	0.145	0.066	0.133	2.189	.029

Note. *B* = unstandardized regression coefficient; *SE* = standard error; β = standardized regression coefficient; ITW = Implicit theories of willpower.

Exploratory Results*Mediation Analysis*

A mediation analysis was conducted to examine whether resources mediate the relationship between implicit theories of willpower and childbearing desire. The analysis was performed using nonparametric bootstrapping with 5,000 samples to account for the non-normality of indirect effects in medium-sized samples (Lunneborg, 1985).

The results in table 4 show that the main predictor implicit theories of willpower significantly predicted the mediator, resources ($B = 0.233$, $p = .014$), which in turn was able to significantly predict the outcome childbearing desire ($B = 0.289$, $p < .001$). When controlling for resources, the direct effect of implicit theories of willpower on childbearing desire was reduced and became statistically non-significant ($B = 0.141$, $p = .125$). This reduction suggests that part of the relationship between implicit theories of willpower and childbearing desire may be mediated by resources.

Table 5 provides the results of the total and indirect effects. Accordingly, the indirect effect of implicit theories of willpower on childbearing desire via resources was positive and statistically significant ($B = 0.067$, $p = .027$) based on the bootstrap estimate. The total effect of implicit theories of willpower on childbearing desire was statistically significant ($B = 0.208$, $p = .028$). Regarding explained variance (see Table 6), implicit theories of willpower accounted for 2.2% of the variance in resources ($R^2 = .022$) and the full mediation model explained 9.9% of the variance in childbearing desire ($R^2 = .099$). Overall, the results provide

evidence that resources may fully mediate the relationship between implicit theories of willpower and childbearing desire.

Table 4

Path Coefficients of the Mediation Model

Path	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
ITW → RES	0.233	0.094	2.469	.014	0.017	0.444
RES → CDI	0.289	0.059	4.933	< .001	0.172	0.407
ITW → CDI	0.141	0.092	1.534	.125	-0.040	0.322

Note. ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower; RES = Resources; CDI = Childbearing Desire Index.

Table 5

Bootstrapped Total, Direct and Indirect Effects

Effect	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
Total effect	0.208	0.095	2.197	.028	0.017	0.398
Direct effect	0.141	0.092	1.534	.125	-0.040	0.322
Indirect effect	0.067	0.030	2.208	.027	0.008	0.152

Note. Bootstrap based on 5,000 bias-corrected resamples.

Table 6

R² Values for Dependent Variables in the Mediation Model

	R ²
CDI	0.099
RES	0.022

Note. CDI = Childbearing Desire Index;
RES = Resources.

Exploratory Factor Analysis of childbearing desire

To further investigate the structure of the childbearing desire construct, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted. Given the theoretical complexity of the construct, the analysis aimed to explore the underlying dimensions of childbearing desire. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test (Table E1 in Abstract E) indicated that all items were suitable for factor analysis, with values above .57 (all but one exceeding .60). Furthermore, Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ($\chi(820) = 5626.574, p < .001$; Table E2 in Appendix E), indicating that

correlations among items were sufficient for factor analysis. In contrast to the initial assumption of a single-factor solution, the exploratory factor analysis suggested a five-factor structure (Table E3 in Appendix E). Together, these five factors accounted for 45.3% of the total variance (Table E4 in Appendix E). Based on the thematic content of the items loading onto each factor, the factors were labeled desire (e.g., “I can hardly wait to have children”), aversion (e.g., “When I see a child having a tantrum, I want to get as far away from the noise as possible”), sacrifice (e.g., “A child costs time. I have to give up many things I enjoy”), social recognition (e.g., “A child is necessary for me to be recognized as an adult”), and doubt (e.g., “I have seriously been in conflict about whether I should have children”). Items that did not load sufficiently on any factor (factor loading < .40) were excluded. Table 7 shows the intercorrelations among the five factors. While most factors showed significant positive correlations, the strength varied. The strongest correlation was shown between desire and aversion ($r = .682, p < .001$). In contrast, social recognition showed only weak correlations with the other factors.

Table 7

Pearson's Correlation Among the Five Factors of Childbearing Desire

Variable		DES	AVE	SAC	SOC	DOUB
DES	<i>r</i>	-				
	<i>p</i>	-				
AVE	<i>r</i>	.682	-			
	<i>p</i>	< .001	-			
SAC	<i>r</i>	.426	.414	-		
	<i>p</i>	< .001	< .001	-		
SOC	<i>r</i>	.296	.116	.044	-	
	<i>p</i>	< .001	.058	.476	-	
DOUB	<i>r</i>	.389	.292	.210	.072	-
	<i>p</i>	< .001	< .001	< .001	.237	-

Note. DES = Desire, AVE = Aversion, SAC = Sacrifice, SOC = Social Recognition, DOUB = Doubt.

In this next section each factor was examined separately using hierarchical multiple regression analyses. In step one, models were estimated with the same control variables that were used in the regression model depicted in the chapter main results. In step two, implicit theories of willpower were entered as an additional predictor. Note that aversion, sacrifice and

doubt were all measured with reverse-coded items, hence higher values reflect lower levels of the respective factors.

The factor desire, measured with 14 items such as “I can hardly wait to have children,” includes statements that capture a general wish for children and parenthood without reference to specific consequences. When we look at the results (Table 8) we can see that in the baseline model including only the control variables, resources was the sole variable that significantly predicted desire ($\beta = 0.290, p < .001$). Furthermore, Model 0 explained 9.5% of the variance in desire ($R^2 = .095$, adjusted $R^2 = .085$; Table H3 in Appendix H). In Model 1, implicit theories of willpower was added to the regression model. The inclusion of implicit theories of willpower did not increase the explained variance ($\Delta R^2 = .000, p = .850$; Table H3) and implicit theories of willpower did not significantly predict desire in the final model ($\beta = 0.029, p = .747$). Resources remained a significant predictor even after including implicit theories of willpower ($\beta = 0.288, p < .001$), whereas gender and education level of the mother showed no significant effects.

Table 8

Multiple Regression Coefficients Predicting Desire

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₀	Intercept	0.980	0.418		2.345	.020
	GEN	-0.069	0.103	-0.039	-0.665	.507
	EM	0.026	0.026	0.061	1.018	.310
	RES	0.608	0.125	0.290	4.859	< .001
M ₁	Intercept	0.924	0.453		2.040	.042
	GEN	-0.075	0.105	-0.042	-0.712	.477
	EM	0.026	0.026	0.059	0.987	.324
	RES	0.603	0.126	0.288	4.774	< .001
	ITW	0.028	0.086	0.020	0.323	.747

Note. GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother; RES = Resources; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower.

The factor aversion, measured with four items such as “When I see a child having a tantrum, I want to get as far away from the noise as possible”, reflects negative emotional reactions and avoidance tendencies toward children in everyday situations. When we look at the results of the multiple regression analysis (Table 9) we can see that in the baseline model (Model 0) including the control variables perceived resources was the only variable that

significantly predicted aversion ($\beta = 0.146, p < .05$). Additionally, this model explained 3.9% of the variance in aversion ($R^2 = 0.039$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.028$; Table H4 in Appendix H). When implicit theories of willpower were added in Model 1, the explained variance increased to 6.9% ($R^2 = 0.069$, Adjusted $R^2 = .055$). This represented a statistically significant improvement in the model fit ($\Delta R^2 = 0.030, p = .004$; Table H4). Consistent with this, the regression coefficients (Table 9) showed that implicit theories of willpower were able to significantly predict aversion ($\beta = 0.180, p = .004$), while resources remained a significant predictor ($\beta = 0.124, p = .044$).

Table 9

Multiple Regression Coefficients Predicting Aversion

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₀	Intercept	1.735	0.486		3.570	< .001
	GEN	0.133	0.120	0.067	1.108	.269
	EM	0.042	0.030	0.085	1.391	.165
	RES	0.345	0.145	0.146	2.370	.018
M ₁	Intercept	1.152	0.519		2.222	.027
	GEN	0.069	0.120	0.035	0.570	.569
	EM	0.035	0.030	0.071	1.175	.241
	RES	0.292	0.144	0.124	2.023	.044
	ITW	0.290	0.099	0.180	2.936	.004

Note. GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother; RES = Resources; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower.

The factor sacrifice was measured with seven items addressing the perceived opportunity costs of having children, such as “A child costs time. I have to give up many things I enjoy.” Table 10 displays the results for the multiple regression analysis with sacrifice as the outcome. In Model 0 which included only the control variables, gender ($\beta = 0.142, p < .05$) and resources ($\beta = 0.164, p < .01$) emerged as significant predictors of sacrifice. Furthermore, Model 0 explained 5.7% of the variance in aversion ($R^2 = 0.057$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.046$; Table H5 in Appendix H). In Model 1, implicit theories of willpower were added to the regression model. The inclusion of implicit theories of willpower led to a statistically significant increase in explained variance ($\Delta R^2 = .044, p < .001$; Table H5), with the total variance explained rising to 10.1% ($R^2 = 0.101$, adjusted $R^2 = .087$; Table H5). Implicit theories of willpower significantly predicted sacrifice ($\beta = 0.217, p < .001$), while resources

remained a significant predictor in the extended model ($\beta = 0.137, p < .05$). In contrast, gender did not contribute significantly to the prediction of sacrifice anymore ($\beta = 0.103, p = .84$). Resources remained a significant predictor even after including implicit theories of willpower ($\beta = 0.288, p < .001$), whereas gender and education level of the mother showed no significant effects.

Table 10

Multiple Regression Coefficients Predicting Sacrifice

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₀	Intercept	1.396	0.317		4.396	< .001
	GEN	0.186	0.078	0.142	2.376	.018
	EM	0.018	0.020	0.057	0.931	.353
	RES	0.256	0.095	0.164	2.693	.008
M ₁	Intercept	0.932	0.336		2.772	.006
	GEN	0.135	0.078	0.103	1.732	.084
	EM	0.013	0.019	0.040	0.664	.508
	RES	0.214	0.094	0.137	2.287	.023
	ITW	0.231	0.064	0.217	3.610	< .001

Note. GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother; RES = Resources; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower.

The factor social recognition, measured with three items (e.g., “A child is necessary for me to be recognized as an adult”), reflects perceived societal expectations regarding parenthood. When we look at the results (Table 11) we can see that in the baseline model including only the control variables, resources was the sole variable that significantly predicted social recognition ($\beta = 0.150, p < .05$). Model 0 explained 2.6% of the variance in desire ($R^2 = .026$, adjusted $R^2 = .015$; Table H6 in Appendix H) and showed no statistical significance ($p = .076$). In Model 1, implicit theories of willpower was added to the regression model. The inclusion of implicit theories of willpower did increase the explained variance by a small margin. This increase in explained variance, however, was not statistically significant ($\Delta R^2 = .011, p = .810$; Table H6). When we take a closer look at Table 11 we can see that implicit theories of willpower did not significantly predict social recognition in the final model ($\beta = -0.109, p = .081$). Resources remained a significant positive predictor even after including implicit theories of willpower ($\beta = 0.164, p < .01$), whereas gender and education level of the mother showed no significant effects.

Table 11*Multiple Regression Coefficients Predicting Social Recognition*

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₀	Intercept	0.850	0.297		2.857	.005
	GEN	-0.024	0.073	-0.020	-0.329	.742
	EM	0.010	0.018	0.032	0.521	.603
	RES	0.216	0.089	0.150	2.422	.016
M ₁	Intercept	1.064	0.321		3.320	.001
	GEN	-0.001	0.074	-0.001	-0.007	.995
	EM	0.012	0.018	0.041	0.660	.510
	RES	0.235	0.089	0.164	2.629	.009
	ITW	-0.107	0.061	-0.109	-1.751	.081

Note. GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother; RES = Resources; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Finally, the factor doubt, measured with two items (e.g., “I have seriously been in conflict about whether I should have children”), captures uncertainty and ambivalence regarding childbearing decisions. Table 12 displays the results for the multiple regression analysis with doubt as the outcome. In Model 0 including only the control variables, educational level of the mother ($\beta = 0.148$, $p < .05$) and resources ($\beta = 0.128$, $p < .01$) emerged as significant predictors of doubt. Model 0 explained 5.7% of the variance in doubt ($R^2 = 0.057$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.046$; Table H7 in Appendix H). In Model 1, implicit theories of willpower were added to the regression model. The inclusion of implicit theories of willpower did not contribute significantly to the explained variance of doubt ($\Delta R^2 = .000$, $p < .854$; Table H7). Consistent with this, implicit theories of willpower did not emerge as a significant predictor of doubt ($\beta = -0.011$, $p < .854$), while educational level of the mother and resources remained significant predictors even after the inclusion of implicit theories of willpower.

Table 12*Multiple Regression Coefficients Predicting Doubt*

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₀	Intercept	1.084	0.594		1.825	.069
	GEN	0.244	0.147	0.099	1.659	.098
	EM	0.090	0.037	0.148	2.437	.015
	RES	0.375	0.178	0.128	2.107	.036
M ₁	Intercept	1.130	0.644		1.754	.081

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	GEN	0.249	0.150	0.101	1.662	.098
	EM	0.090	0.037	0.149	2.440	.015
	RES	0.379	0.180	0.130	2.109	.036
	ITW	-0.023	0.123	-0.011	-0.184	.854

Note. GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother; RES = Resources; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Exploratory Factor Analysis of Resources

Since the results of the prior analyses suggests that resources not only play a central role in shaping childbearing desires but also in mediating the relationship between implicit theories of willpower and childbearing desires, an exploratory factor analysis based on principal components with oblique (oblimin) rotation was conducted in order to examine which specific dimensions of resources predict the different dimensions of childbearing desire. The number of factors to retain was determined using parallel analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test (Table F1 in Abstract F) indicated that all items except two were suitable for factor analysis, with values above .60 (items below this threshold were excluded). Furthermore, Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ($\chi(120) = 899.490, p < .001$; Table F2 in Appendix F), indicating that correlations among items were sufficient for factor analysis. Contrary to the theoretical assumption of three distinct dimensions (material, social, and personal resources), the analysis indicated a four-factor solution (Table F3 in Appendix F). The items "money," "influential connections," and "material goods" loaded strongly on a factor that can be interpreted as status-related resources. The items "energy," "physical fitness," and "health" loaded strongly on a factor that can be interpreted as vitality-related resources. A third factor, comprising "social skills" and "charm," can be interpreted as social-related resources. Lastly, "intelligence" and "speaking skills" loaded on a fourth factor, which was labeled cognitive-related resources. Items that did not load clearly on any of the four factors including "time," "support through public institutions," "family support," "strong romantic relationship," "close friends," and "assertiveness" were excluded from further analyses. In the next step, a hierarchical multiple regression was conducted for each of the five childbearing desire factors (desire, aversion, sacrifice, social recognition, and doubt). In Step 1, control variables were entered into the model. In Steps 2-5, the four resource dimensions (status-related, vitality-related, social-related, and cognitive-related) were added one at a time, in descending order of their bivariate correlation with the respective outcome. This approach made it possible to see the unique contribution of each resource dimension on

childbearing desire while taking into account the other resources, implicit theories of willpower, and demographic variables. Finally, implicit theories of willpower were added in the last step to examine whether the main predictor of this study contributes further variance beyond the control and resource variables. Multiple linear regression models were estimated separately for each dimension of childbearing desire. Full regression tables for all following models are presented in Appendix H.

Table 13 shows us the results of the multiple regression analysis with desire as the outcome. We can see that social-related resources ($\beta = 0.247, p < .001$) and vitality-related resources ($\beta = 0.193, p = .003$) significantly predicted desire, explaining an additional 7.1% ($\Delta R^2 = .071, p < .001$; Table H8 in Appendix) and 3.3% ($\Delta R^2 = .033, p < .01$; Table H8) of the variance. Cognitive- and status-related resources were not significant predictors. Finally, adding implicit theories of willpower did not contribute additional variance ($\beta = 0.007, p = .902$) as this variable did not emerge as a significant predictor for desire.

Table 13

Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Desire

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₅	Intercept	1.565	0.453		3.452	< .001
	GEN	-0.082	0.105	-0.047	-0.785	.433
	EM	0.037	0.027	0.086	1.407	.161
	RSOC	0.309	0.080	0.247	3.861	< .001
	RVIT	0.254	0.085	0.193	2.989	.003
	RSTAT	0.002	0.076	0.002	0.024	.981
	RCOG	-0.143	0.085	-0.103	-1.679	.094
	ITW	0.011	0.087	0.007	0.123	.902

Note. GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother; RSOC = Social-related Resources; RVIT = Vitality-related Resources; RSTAT = Status-related Resources; RCOG = Cognitive-related Resources; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table 14 presents the results of the multiple regression analysis with aversion as the outcome. In the final model (Model 5) social-related resources was the only resource factor that significantly predicted aversion, explaining a total of 3% ($\Delta R^2 = 0.030, p < .01$; Table H10 in Appendix H) of the variance in the outcome. In contrast, vitality-, cognitive- and status-related resources did not show significant association with aversion. Finally, the inclusion of implicit theories of willpower did contribute to an additional variance of 2.4%

($\Delta R^2 = 0.024$, $p < .01$; Table H10) as it was identified as a significant predictor of aversion ($\beta = 0.165$, $p < .01$).

Table 14

Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Aversion

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₅	Intercept	1.560	0.518		3.009	.003
	GEN	0.068	0.120	0.034	0.570	.569
	EM	0.056	0.030	0.114	1.835	.068
	RSOC	0.269	0.091	0.191	2.945	.004
	RVIT	0.150	0.097	0.101	1.542	.124
	RSTAT	-0.153	0.087	-0.114	-1.762	.079
	RCOG	-0.114	0.097	-0.073	-1.169	.244
	ITW	0.265	0.100	0.165	2.661	.008

Note. GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother; RSOC = Social-related Resources; RVIT = Vitality-related Resources; RSTAT = Status-related Resources; RCOG = Cognitive-related Resources; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table 15 presents the results of the multiple regression analysis with sacrifice as the outcome. We can see that vitality-related resources was the only resource factor that significantly predicted sacrifice, explaining a total of 3.6% ($\Delta R^2 = 0.036$, $p < .01$; Table H12 in Appendix H) of the variance in the outcome. In contrast, social-, status- and cognitive-related resources did not show significant association with sacrifice. Finally, the inclusion of implicit theories of willpower did contribute to an additional variance of 3.7% ($\Delta R^2 = 0.037$, $p < .001$; Table H12) as it was identified as a significant predictor of aversion ($\beta = 0.203$, $p < .01$).

Table 15

Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Sacrifice

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₅	Intercept	1.277	0.341		3.741	< .001
	GEN	0.127	0.079	0.097	1.609	.109
	EM	0.017	0.020	0.053	0.854	.394
	RVIT	0.132	0.064	0.135	2.068	.040
	RSOC	0.065	0.060	0.070	1.085	.279
	RSTAT	-0.008	0.057	-0.009	-0.139	.889
	RCOG	-0.061	0.064	-0.059	-0.948	.344

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	ITW	0.216	0.066	0.203	3.283	.001

Note. GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother; RVIT= Vitality-related Resources; RSOC = Social-related Resources; RSTAT = Status-related Resources; RCOG = Cognitive-related Resources; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table 16 shows us the results of the multiple regression analysis with social recognition as the outcome. In the final model (Model 5) status-related resources was the only resource factor that significantly predicted social recognition ($\beta = 0.199, p < .01$), explaining 3.9% ($\Delta R^2 = 0.039$; Table H14 in Appendix H) of the variance in the outcome. In contrast, social-, cognitive- and vitality-related resources did not show significant association with social recognition. Finally, adding implicit theories of willpower did not contribute additional variance as this variable did not emerge as a significant predictor for social recognition ($\beta = -0.066, p = .299$).

Table 16

Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Social Recognition

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₅	Intercept	1.046	0.323		3.242	.001
	GEN	0.010	0.075	0.008	0.132	.895
	EM	0.005	0.019	0.016	0.251	.802
	RSTAT	0.162	0.054	0.199	3.005	.003
	RSOC	0.061	0.057	0.071	1.065	.288
	RCOG	0.057	0.060	0.060	0.941	.347
	RVIT	-0.072	0.060	-0.080	-1.191	.235
	ITW	-0.065	0.062	-0.066	-1.041	.299

Note. GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother; RSTAT = Status-related Resource; RSOC = Social-related Resources; RCOG = Cognitive-related Resources; RVIT= Vitality-related Resources; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table 17 shows us the results of the multiple regression analysis with doubt as the outcome. As we can see neither of the four factors measuring different aspects of resources showed any significant relationship with the outcome. Furthermore, adding implicit theories of willpower did not contribute additional variance (Table H16 in Appendix H) as this variable did not emerge as a significant predictor for doubt ($\beta = -0.027, p = .674$). Among the control variables, only the educational level of the mother emerged as a statistically significant predictor of doubt ($\beta = 0.179, p < .01$). Taken together, these findings indicate that the role of resources was not consistent across the different dimensions of childbearing desire.

Table 17*Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Doubt*

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₅	Intercept	1.529	0.655		2.336	.020
	GEN	0.229	0.151	0.093	1.516	.131
	EM	0.109	0.038	0.179	2.831	.005
	RVIT	0.217	0.122	0.118	1.769	.078
	RSOC	0.140	0.115	0.081	1.217	.225
	RSTAT	-0.106	0.110	-0.064	-0.968	.334
	RCOG	0.003	0.123	0.002	0.027	.979
	ITW	-0.053	0.126	-0.027	-0.421	.674

Note. GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower; RVIT= Vitality-related Resources; RSOC = Social-related Resources; RSTAT = Status-related Resources; RCOG = Cognitive-related Resources.

Discussion

The regression analyses showed that implicit theories of willpower did not significantly contribute to predicting overall childbearing desire once relevant control variables, most notably resources, were included. Although implicit theories of willpower were initially correlated with childbearing desire and predicted the childbearing desire index in the simple linear regression, this effect became non-significant after controlling for resources. This may indicate that willpower beliefs are not a direct driver of the childbearing desire but may affect childbearing desire indirectly through the mediation of other factors such as resources. The mediation analysis provided further evidence for this, showing that resources partially mediate the relationship between implicit theories of willpower and childbearing desire, with both the indirect and total effects reaching statistical significance. Implicit theories of willpower were associated with higher perceived resources, which in turn predicted stronger childbearing desire, while the direct effect of willpower beliefs was reduced. This finding is consistent with prior research showing that the effects of willpower beliefs often operate through intermediate psychological processes rather than solely through direct associations (Job et al., 2015).

In order to further investigate potential influences on the childbearing desire, a series of exploratory analyses were conducted. The following sections focus on the discussion of these analyses, which examine how implicit theories of willpower and various dimensions of resources relate to the multidimensional structure of childbearing desire.

First, an exploratory factor analyses of the outcome variable revealed a multidimensional structure of childbearing desire, which consists of five distinguishable

factors: desire, aversion, sacrifice social recognition and doubt, allowing the possibility to further explore how implicit theories of willpower might influence this multifactorial construct.

In the present study, implicit theories of willpower were able to significantly predict two dimensions of the childbearing desire, namely aversion and sacrifice. Participants who believed that willpower is a nonlimited resource showed lower levels of aversion towards children and lower perceived costs in terms of sacrifice. This could mean that seeing willpower as a nonlimited resource might make people more responsive to the unpleasant aspects of parenting. It might also indicate that they can think about daily stressors without feeling overwhelmed by them. Similarly, they may be more willing to accept opportunity costs such as reduced leisure time or career-related sacrifices. These findings align with prior research showing that a nonlimited view of willpower can help people regulate themselves better, pursue their goals more effectively and function well in situations that require a lot of effort (Job et al., 2015). Applied to the context of childbearing, individuals who believe that their willpower is an nonlimited resource may anticipate fewer negative affective reactions towards the negative aspects of parenting, since they feel more capable of sustaining effort and self-regulation. Taken together, these findings suggest that even though implicit theories of willpower might not directly influence a person's desire to have children it might affect how a person evaluates trade-offs and the psychological costs of childbearing. However, it should be emphasized that the findings are only exploratory and would need to be replicated in future studies before any conclusions can be drawn.

Additionally, resources have shown to influence various aspects of the childbearing desire. The results highlight that resources affect the different dimensions of childbearing desire in unique ways rather than having the same effect on all of them.

According to the results, vitality-related resources including energy, health and physical fitness significantly predicted desire and sacrifice. This suggests that individuals with higher levels of vitality experience higher desire toward having a child. On the other hand, individuals who experience and perceive lower levels of vitality-related resources are more susceptible to the potential opportunity costs of having a child. Limited vitality can make daily demands feel more challenging, so additional responsibilities like caring for a child could be perceived as even more taxing. These findings are consistent with previous literature that a couple's physical health plays a crucial role in their decision-making about parenthood. In their 2018 study, Boivin and colleagues identified health as a key factor shaping an individuals' desire to have children, with individuals experiencing poor health or specific medical conditions less likely to express readiness for parenthood.

Status-related resources including money, influential connections, and material goods significantly predicted social recognition. In other words, people with a higher perceived status are more likely to agree with the idea of parenthood being an important part of a desired adult life. These findings are also consistent with Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943). According to that, financial security represents one of the most fundamental layers of human motivation. When financial concerns are less prevalent, people tend to shift their focus toward self-actualization needs. This means that children may be perceived less as an economic burden and more as a means of fulfilling status-related aspirations, whereas individuals with fewer status-related resources are more likely to be discouraged by the costs associated with raising children.

Social-related resources such as social skills and charm were associated with higher levels of desire and lower levels of aversion toward parenthood. Individuals who perceive themselves as socially competent may anticipate greater social support and fewer challenges regarding parenthood. Additionally, individuals who possess high levels of social skills and charm might be more likely to benefit from bigger and more supportive social networks that offer help and emotional support in challenging situations. Therefore, they might view parenthood as a less isolating and demanding task, as social support is frequently cited as a key determinant of childbearing desire, especially for women (Najafabadi et al., 2025).

In contrast, cognitive-related resources, such as intelligence and speaking skills, did not show significant associations with any dimension of childbearing desire. This suggests that cognitive resources may be less relevant for reproductive motivations compared to vitality, social, or status-related resources.

However, the findings regarding the association between dimensions of childbearing desire and resources should be interpreted with caution, as they are based on exploratory analyses. While they might provide valuable insights into multiple aspects of childbearing desire, future research is needed to replicate and extend these results.

Theoretical implications

The findings of this study contribute significantly to multiple areas of psychological research. First, the factorial analysis might offer important insights into the complexity of childbearing desire, consisting of at least five underlying factors: desire, aversion, sacrifice, social recognition and doubt. This finding may offer future research a different approach in researching matters regarding a person's childbearing desire.

Additionally, this study expands on the literature regarding implicit theories of willpower by applying them to a new domain: the desire to have a child. While previous

research has primarily examined willpower theories in relation to self-control, academic performance and general life satisfaction (Bernecker et al., 2017; Job et al., 2010), this study extends these findings by demonstrating their relevance to life's most fundamental choice, whether to have children or not. As discussed, implicit theories of willpower were able to predict two of the five dimensions of childbearing desire, namely aversion and sacrifice. More importantly, a mediating relationship between implicit theories of willpower, resources and childbearing desire was found, emphasizing the role of implicit theories of willpower as a psychological construct that heavily influences the perception of other latent variables and exerts not only direct but also indirect effects. Additionally, these results indicate that individuals do not see willpower as another resource but instead view it as a separate construct that shapes how their resources are perceived.

Furthermore, this study provides new and important insights into the psychological determinants of declining birth rates, which is a phenomenon often explained solely by economic, cultural and policy-related factors. By focusing on the psychological perspective, this study offers a more thorough understanding of the topic. While the effect of implicit theories of willpower on childbearing desire was not significant, resources emerged as a significant predictor of childbearing desire. This means that the wish to become a parent is strongly shaped by an individual's perception of their material, social and health-related conditions, which solidifies the need to include resources as a confounder when conducting regression analysis on childbearing desire.

Lastly, since implicit theories of willpower as a research topic are still very novel, especially when it comes to their possible influence on social topics like childbearing, this study seeks to contribute an important step towards future research.

Limitations & Future directions

As with all empirical studies, it is important to interpret the results with limitations in mind. In this next section I want to highlight some of the limitations I faced while conducting this study. First and foremost, I want to address the biggest limitation of this study, which is that a big portion of it relies on explorative analyses. While these analyses provide valuable initial insights, they should be evaluated, interpreted and discussed with caution. The findings regarding the multidimensionality of childbearing desires as well as the role of resources in mediating the relationship between childbearing desires and implicit theories of willpower, must be replicated with different samples in order to validate them.

Another important limitation is regarding the homogeneity of the sample. Since the sample consisted exclusively of psychology students with similar demographic features like

age and SES, the generalizability of this studies result is highly limited (Jager et al., 2017). As discussed, an individual's childbearing desire and their implicit theories of willpower might differ substantially across different age and socio-economic groups. The mean age of this study was relatively young ($M = 21.8$ years), hence for many participants the childbearing desire may still be an abstract thought. Future studies should therefore aim to include a more representative sample, by using probability-based sampling methods, instead of homogeneity sampling.

Furthermore, since this study has used a cross-sectional design, no causal conclusions can be drawn. For instance, the results of the mediation analysis suggested that resources partially mediate the relationship between implicit theories of willpower and childbearing desire, however, the temporal order of these variables cannot be verified. Due to this limitation, it is also possible that perceived resources precede implicit theories of willpower or that both are influenced by an underlying third variable. Longitudinal designs are needed to clarify the directionality of these relationships.

Another limitation of this study is its reliance on purely self-report measures, which in itself brings a lot of potential disadvantages such as biases and measurement artifacts. Even when carefully constructed, self-reports are influenced by the respondent's accuracy and their motives such as consistency seeking, self-enhancement and self-presentation (Paulhus & Vazire, 2007). In the context of this study, since variables like childbearing desire and implicit theories of willpower are purely subjective, they might be susceptible to response patterns and biases. For example, a participant may exaggerate their willpower beliefs or downplay their aversion towards children in order to present themselves in a more societal accepted way. Future studies should tackle these limitations by using alternative measurement approaches, such as behavioral indicators instead of relying solely on subjective self-reports.

Lastly, social and cultural norms can heavily influence both the desire to have children (Mayer & Trommsdorff, 2010) and the respective beliefs about willpower (Sun et al., 2019). Different cultures may have varying expectations and attitudes towards childbearing, which could confound the relationship. Since this study used homogenous sampling, the majority of participants were Austrian residents. This could influence the results since policies regarding parenthood, which have a big impact on a person's ability to be able to even afford having a child, differ among different countries. Future studies should therefore look into how cross-cultural differences moderate the relationship between childbearing desire and implicit theories of willpower.

Practical implications

The results of this study suggest that implicit theories of willpower do not directly predict the overall childbearing desire but that they can still play a role in how individuals perceive parenthood. As we have seen, participants who endorse the idea that their willpower is an unlimited resource showed lower levels of aversion towards children. Moreover, those participants were also less intimidated by the possible sacrifices that encompass parenthood than participants who endorse a limited idea. From a practical perspective, this implies that interventions aimed at supporting individuals in family planning and parenting could benefit from focusing on how individuals perceive their own self-regulatory capacities. In other words, helping individuals to recognize how their own willpower beliefs might affect their perceived resources regarding parenthood.

The findings also highlight the importance of vitality-related resources such as energy, health, and physical fitness. This underlines the value of promoting physical well-being in individuals. Programs that encourage a healthy lifestyle and provide accessible healthcare could therefore increase a person's readiness for parenthood, as better vitality appears to enhance both the motivation to have children and the capacity to cope with the sacrifices that come with them. In this regard, public health initiatives may serve not only to improve general well-being but also to create a better environment for childbearing.

From a policy making perspective, the insights from this research can help shape interventions aimed at addressing the declining birth rates observed in many countries. As we have seen, status-related resources such as money increase the recognition of parenthood as a meaningful life goal. Consequently, reducing economic insecurity and strengthening social support systems may lower barriers of parenthood. Policies that tackle affordable childcare, parental leave, or financial incentives for families could help decrease the perceived costs of childbearing. The empirical evidence on the relationship between monetary child policies and the childbearing desire is mixed. However, overall, it indicates that policies directly subsidizing childbirth may result in a modest increase in fertility. For instance, González (2021) analyzes the introduction of a universal child benefit in Spain in 2007, which provided parents with a one-time payment of roughly US\$3,900. Her findings show that the policy led to a 6 percent rise in annual births. Taken together, the findings of this study suggest that promoting childbearing desire might require a multidimensional approach that includes addressing health, economic security and social resources rather than solely focusing on individual beliefs such as willpower theories.

Conclusion

This study examined the relationship between implicit theories of willpower and childbearing desire. This relationship was, however, only found in a single linear regression analysis that featured no control variables. Once control variables, most notably resources, were included in the regression model, implicit theories of willpower lost its statistically significant association with childbearing desire, hinting at a possible mediating effect that resources have when it comes to the relationship between this studies outcome and main predictor. Consistent with this assumption, a mediation analysis conducted as part of the exploratory analyses revealed a full mediating effect of resources, in a way where individuals who endorsed a nonlimited theory of willpower reported higher levels of perceived resources, which in turn were associated with stronger childbearing desire.

Additional exploratory analyses revealed that childbearing desire might be a multidimensional construct consisting of five related dimensions: desire, aversion, sacrifice, social recognition, and doubt. Interestingly, implicit theories of willpower significantly predicted two of these dimensions, aversion and sacrifice, even after controlling for resources. And lastly, another exploratory factor analysis showed that resources could be divided into four dimensions, vitality-, status-, social- and cognitive-related resources, with the former three impacting different aspects of childbearing desire. Nevertheless, it is important to note that these findings are preliminary and require replication in future research before reliable conclusions can be drawn.

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List of Figures

Figure 1 <i>Distribution of Age</i>	11
Figure 2 <i>Distribution of the Educational Level of the Mother</i>	12
Figure 3 <i>Distribution of the Educational Level of the Father</i>	13

List of Tables

Table 1 <i>Pearson's Correlation of all Variables</i>	17
Table 2 <i>Simple Regression Analyses Predicting Childbearing Desire</i>	18
Table 3 <i>Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Childbearing Desire</i>	19
Table 4 <i>Path Coefficients of the Mediation Model</i>	20
Table 5 <i>Bootstrapped Total, Direct and Indirect Effects</i>	20
Table 6 <i>R² Values for Dependent Variables in the Mediation Model</i>	20
Table 7 <i>Pearson's Correlation Among the Five Factors of Childbearing Desire</i>	21
Table 8 <i>Multiple Regression Coefficients Predicting Desire</i>	22
Table 9 <i>Multiple Regression Coefficients Predicting Aversion</i>	23
Table 10 <i>Multiple Regression Coefficients Predicting Sacrifice</i>	24
Table 11 <i>Multiple Regression Coefficients Predicting Social Recognition</i>	25
Table 12 <i>Multiple Regression Coefficients Predicting Doubt</i>	25
Table 13 <i>Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Desire</i>	27
Table 14 <i>Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Aversion</i>	28
Table 15 <i>Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Sacrifice</i>	28
Table 16 <i>Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Social Recognition</i>	29
Table 17 <i>Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Doubt</i>	30
Table C1 <i>Reliability Analyses Leipziger Fragebogen zu Kinderwunschmotiven</i>	54
Table C2 <i>Internal Consistency of the Leipziger Fragebogen zu Kinderwunschmotive</i>	54
Table C3 <i>Reliability Analyses Negative Exposure Subscale</i>	55
Table C4 <i>Internal Consistency of the Negative Exposure Subscale</i>	55
Table C5 <i>Reliability Analyses Commitment</i>	55
Table C6 <i>Internal Consistency Commitment</i>	56
Table C7 <i>Reliability Analyses Conflict</i>	56
Table C8 <i>Reliability Analyses Control</i>	56
Table C9 <i>Reliability Analyses Implicit Theories of Willpower</i>	56
Table C10 <i>Internal Consistency Implicit Theories of Willpower</i>	57
Table C11 <i>Reliability Analyses Resources</i>	57
Table C12 <i>Internal Consistency Resources</i>	57
Table D1 <i>Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin Test for the CFA</i>	59

Table D2 <i>Chi-Square Test of the CFA</i>	60
Table D3 <i>Additional Model Fit Indices of the CFA</i>	60
Table D4 <i>Standardized Factor Loadings of the CFA</i>	60
Table D5 <i>Factor Covariances of the CFA</i>	61
Table D6 <i>Additional Model Fit Indices of the CFA (1 Factor)</i>	62
Table E1 <i>Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin Test for the EFA of Childbearing Desire</i>	63
Table E2 <i>Bartlett’s Test for the EFA of Childbearing Desire</i>	64
Table E3 <i>Standardized Factor Loadings for the EFA of Childbearing Desire</i>	64
Table E4 <i>Eigenvalues for the EFA of Childbearing Desire</i>	65
Table F1 <i>Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin Test for the EFA of Resources</i>	66
Table F2 <i>Bartlett’s Test for the EFA of Childbearing Resources</i>	66
Table F3 <i>Standardized Factor Loadings for the EFA of Resources</i>	66
Table F4 <i>Eigenvalues for the EFA of Resources</i>	67
Table G1 <i>Pearson’s Correlation of the Dimensions of Childbearing Desire, Resources and Implicit Theories of Willpower</i>	68
Table H1 <i>Model Summary for the Simple Regression Predicting Childbearing Desire Index</i>	70
Table H2 <i>Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Childbearing Desire Index</i>	70
Table H3 <i>Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Desire</i>	70
Table H4 <i>Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Aversion</i>	70
Table H5 <i>Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Sacrifice</i>	71
Table H6 <i>Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Social Recognition</i>	71
Table H7 <i>Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Doubt</i>	71
Table H8 <i>Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Desire with Resource Dimensions</i>	71
Table H9 <i>Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Desire</i>	72
Table H10 <i>Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Aversion with Resource Dimensions</i>	73
Table H11 <i>Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Aversion</i>	73

Table H12 <i>Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Sacrifice with Resource Dimensions</i>	74
Table H13 <i>Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Sacrifice</i>	75
Table H14 <i>Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Social Recognition with Resource Dimensions</i>	76
Table H15 <i>Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Social Recognition</i>	76
Table H16 <i>Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Doubt with Resource Dimensions</i>	77
Table H17 <i>Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Doubt</i>	78

Appendix A – Abstract

Abstract (English)

Parenthood plays a fundamental role in shaping societies, yet an increasing number of individuals are choosing to remain childless, a trend reflected in Austria's historically low birth rates. This study explores a psychological variable that has been overlooked when it comes to its impact on desire to have children: implicit theories of willpower (ITW). Implicit theories of willpower refer to individuals' beliefs about whether willpower is a limited resource that diminishes with effort or a nonlimited resource that remains stable. Research suggests that those with a nonlimited theory of willpower demonstrate greater persistence in goal-directed behavior, which may influence their willingness to take on the challenges of parenthood and therefore their desire to have children. Using a quantitative approach, 269 students from the University of Vienna completed a questionnaire assessing ITW, childbearing desires and control variables (e.g. resources). Results showed that ITW were positively correlated with childbearing desire and predicted it in a simple regression model. However, this effect became non-significant once resources were included as a control variable. Mediation analyses indicated that resources fully mediated the relationship between ITW and childbearing desire, suggesting that individuals with a nonlimited theory of willpower perceive themselves as having greater resources, which in turn strengthens their desire to have children. Exploratory factor analyses further revealed that childbearing desire is a multidimensional construct comprising five factors: desire, aversion, sacrifice, social recognition, and doubt. Implicit theories of willpower significantly predicted the dimensions of aversion and sacrifice. Overall, the findings suggest that ITW do not directly influence childbearing desire but might impact how individuals evaluate the costs of parenthood through perceived resources.

Abstract (Deutsch):

Immer mehr Menschen in Österreich entscheiden sich bewusst gegen Kinder, was sich vor allem in der historisch geringen Geburtenrate widerspiegelt. Diese Studie untersucht die Auswirkungen von einem bislang wenig beachteten psychologischen Faktor: implizite Theorien der Willenskraft (ITW) auf den Kinderwunsch. Darunter versteht man Überzeugungen darüber, ob Willenskraft eine begrenzte Ressource ist, die durch Anstrengung abnimmt, oder eine unlimitierte Fähigkeit. Die Literatur legt nahe, dass Personen mit einer unlimitierten Sichtweise mehr Durchhaltevermögen zeigen, was darauf schließen könnte, dass

sie sich der Aufgabe der Elternschaft besser gewappnet fühlen und dadurch einen höheren Kinderwunsch haben.

In einer quantitativen Studie beantworteten 269 Studierende der Universität Wien einen Fragebogen zu ITW, Kinderwunsch und relevanten Kontrollvariablen (u. a. Ressourcen). Die Ergebnisse zeigten einen positiven Zusammenhang zwischen ITW und dem Kinderwunsch, der in einer einfachen Regressionsanalyse signifikant war. Dieser Effekt verlor jedoch seine Signifikanz, sobald Ressourcen als Kontrollvariable in das Modell aufgenommen wurden. Eine Mediationsanalyse ergab, dass Ressourcen den Zusammenhang vollständig mediieren. Mit anderen Worten, Personen, die ihre Willenskraft als unlimitiert wahrnehmen, berichteten höhere wahrgenommene Ressourcen, die wiederum mit einem stärkeren Kinderwunsch einhergingen. Explorative Faktorenanalysen zeigten zudem, dass Kinderwunsch ein multidimensionales Konstrukt ist, bestehend aus den Dimensionen Wunsch, Aversion, Opferbereitschaft, soziale Anerkennung und Zweifel. ITW konnten zwei dieser Dimensionen, nämlich Aversion und Opferbereitschaft signifikant vorhersagen. Insgesamt deuten die Ergebnisse darauf hin, dass implizite Theorien der Willenskraft den Kinderwunsch nicht direkt beeinflussen, aber einen Einfluss darauf haben könnten, wie die Kosten von Elternschaft im Bezug zu den wahrgenommenen Ressourcen bewertet werden.

Appendix B – List of Items

Full list of Items of the Implicit Theories About Willpower Scale:

Instructions: Der folgende Fragebogen wurde entwickelt, um zu untersuchen, was Menschen über verschiedene Themen, wie Intelligenz oder körperliche Aktivitäten, denken. Es gibt keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten. Uns interessiert Ihre Meinung. Bitte geben Sie jeweils an, wie stark Sie den einzelnen Aussagen zustimmen. (The following questionnaire was developed to examine people's beliefs about various topics, such as intelligence or physical activities. There are no right or wrong answers. We are interested in your personal opinion. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement.)

Response options: 1 = stimme ausgesprochen zu (strongly agree), 2 = stimme überwiegend zu (mostly agree), 3 = stimme etwas zu (somewhat agree), 4 = stimme eher nicht zu (somewhat disagree), 5 = stimme überwiegend nicht zu (mostly disagree), 6 = stimme überhaupt nicht zu (strongly disagree).

1. Anstrengende mentale Tätigkeiten (z.B. Nachdenken über eine schwierige Fragestellung, sich stark auf Etwas konzentrieren) erschöpfen meine Kraftressourcen, welche ich im Anschluss wieder auftanken muss (z.B. durch Pausen, Nichtstun, Fernsehen oder Essen). (Strenuous mental activity (e.g., thinking about a difficult problem or concentrating intensely on something) exhausts your resources, which you need to refuel afterwards (e.g. through taking breaks, doing nothing, watching television, eating snacks).)
2. Nach einer anstrengenden geistigen Tätigkeit ist meine Energie erschöpft und ich muss mich erholen, um sie wieder aufzutanken. (After a strenuous mental activity, your energy is depleted and you must rest to get it refueled again.)
3. Wenn ich mich stark auf etwas konzentriert habe, fühle ich mich voller Kraft und bin im Stande, sofort eine neue herausfordernde Aufgabe anzupacken. (When I have strongly concentrated on something, I feel energized and am able to immediately take on a new challenging task.)
4. Anstrengende geistige Tätigkeiten aktivieren meine Kraftressourcen und ich bin noch besser in der Lage, mit etwas anspruchsvollem fortzufahren. (Mentally demanding activities activate my energy resources, enabling me to continue with something challenging even more effectively.)

5. Nach einer körperlichen Anstrengung brauche ich erst etwas Angenehmes (z.B. eine Pause, Essen, Fernsehen) bevor ich mit einer weiteren Aufgabe fortfahren kann. (After physical exertion, I first need something pleasant (e.g., a break, food, watching television) before continuing with another task.)
6. Wenn ich mich körperlich angestrengt habe, ist meine Energie aufgebraucht und ich muss mich erholen, um sie wieder aufzutanken. (When I have exerted myself physically, my energy is depleted and I need to recover in order to replenish it.)
7. Nach einer körperlich anstrengenden Tätigkeit fühle ich mich voller Energie und kann gleich mit etwas Anspruchsvollem fortfahren. (After a physically demanding activity, I feel full of energy and can immediately continue with something challenging.)
8. Tätigkeiten, bei denen ich mich körperlich anstrengen muss, stärken meine Willenskraft, und ich bin im Stande, sofort eine weitere Herausforderung anzugehen. (Activities that require physical exertion strengthen my willpower, enabling me to immediately take on another challenge.)
9. Nachdem ich eine starke Emotion (z.B. Wut, Freude, Enttäuschung) empfunden habe, ohne sie jemandem zu zeigen, fühle ich mich erschöpft und weniger fähig, mich in neuen Situationen im Griff zu haben. (After experiencing a strong emotion (e.g., anger, joy, disappointment) without expressing it to anyone, I feel exhausted and less able to maintain self-control in new situations.)
10. Selbst wenn ich an einem Tag häufig die Ruhe bewahren und meine Emotionen kontrollieren musste, beeinflusst das nicht meine Fähigkeit meine Gefühle weiterhin unter Kontrolle zu haben. (Even if I have had to remain calm and control my emotions frequently during a day, this does not affect my ability to continue regulating my emotions.)
11. Man kann starke Gefühle nicht wirklich lange unterdrücken. Schon nach einer Weile wird es immer schwieriger, sie unter Kontrolle zu haben. (It is not possible to suppress strong emotions for a long time; after a while, it becomes increasingly difficult to keep them under control.)
12. Meine Fähigkeit Gefühle zu kontrollieren verändert sich nicht. Selbst wenn ich mich gerade in einer bestimmten Situation im Griff haben musste, kann ich auch danach „cool“ bleiben. (My ability to control my emotions does not change. Even if I had to exert self-control in a particular situation, I can remain “cool” afterward.)

Full list of Items of the Leipziger Fragebogen zu Kinderwunschmotiven (LKM)

Response options: 1 = Stimme überhaupt nicht zu (strongly disagree), 2 = Stimme eher nicht zu (moderately disagree), 3 = Teils/teils (to some extent), 4 = Stimme eher zu (moderately agree), 5 = Stimme voll und ganz zu (strongly agree).

1. Ein Kind gibt meinem Leben erst den wahren Sinn. (Having a child gives my life true meaning.)
2. Mit einem Kind schaffe ich selbst neues Leben. (By having a child, I create new life myself.)
3. Ich möchte die Entwicklung eines eigenen Kindes miterleben. (I would like to experience the development of my own child.)
4. Ein Kind gibt mir das Gefühl, ein richtiges Zuhause zu haben. (Having a child gives me the feeling of having a real home.)
5. Die Liebe zum eigenen Kind ist für mich durch nichts anderes zu ersetzen. (For me, the love for one's own child cannot be replaced by anything else.)
6. Ich möchte kein eigenes Kind, um mir später keine Vorwürfe über eine falsche Erziehung anhören zu müssen. (I do not want to have my own child in order to avoid being reproached later for mistakes in upbringing.)
7. Ich habe Angst, dass sich durch ein eigenes Kind die sexuelle Beziehung zu meinem/r Partner/in verändern würde. (I am afraid that having a child would change the sexual relationship with my partner.)
8. Mit einem eigenen Kind haben mein/e Partner/in und ich nicht mehr genug Zeit füreinander. (With a child of our own, my partner and I would no longer have enough time for each other.)
9. Ich bin zu ungeduldig, um ein eigenes Kind zu erziehen. (I am too impatient to raise a child of my own.)
10. Mit einem eigenen Kind könnte ich meine Freundschaften nicht mehr so pflegen wie bisher. (With a child of my own, I would no longer be able to maintain my friendships as I do now.)
11. Mit einem Kind kann ich meine Fruchtbarkeit beweisen. (Having a child allows me to prove my fertility.)
12. Ein Kind ist für mich notwendig, um als Erwachsener anerkannt zu werden. (For me, having a child is necessary in order to be recognized as an adult.)

13. Zu einer/m erfolgreichen Frau/Mann gehören auch Kinder. (Being a successful woman/man also includes having children.)
14. Mit einem Kind habe ich in unserer Gesellschaft einen höheren Status. (Having a child gives me a higher status in our society.)
15. Kinderlosigkeit bedeutet für mich gesellschaftliche Abwertung. (For me, childlessness means social devaluation.)
16. Es fehlt die nötige staatliche Unterstützung für Familien mit Kind. (There is insufficient governmental support for families with children.)
17. Ein Kind zu haben, bedeutet in unserer Gesellschaft ein Handicap. (In our society, having a child represents a disadvantage.)
18. Es gibt zu wenig Tagesunterbringungsmöglichkeiten für Kinder. (There are too few childcare facilities available.)
19. Ohne Kind kann ich meine Freizeit besser genießen. (Without a child, I can enjoy my leisure time better.)
20. Ein Kind kostet Zeit, ich muss auf vieles andere verzichten, was ich gern tue. (Having a child takes time, and I would have to give up many other things I enjoy doing.)

Full list of Items of the Negative Exposure Subscale

Response options: 1 = Stimme überhaupt nicht zu (strongly disagree), 2 = Stimme eher nicht zu (moderately disagree), 3 = Neutral (neutral), 4 = Stimme eher zu (moderately agree), 5 = Stimme voll und ganz zu (strongly agree).

1. Sich mit den Bedürfnissen und Wünschen von Kindern auseinanderzusetzen, ist lästig. (Dealing with the needs and wants of children is annoying.)
2. Ich verspüre im Allgemeinen kein beschützendes oder fürsorgliches Gefühl gegenüber Kindern. (I generally do not feel protective and nurturing towards children.)
3. Wenn ich auf die Babys oder Kinder anderer Menschen aufpasse, möchte ich selbst keine eigenen Kinder haben. (Looking after other people's babies or children makes me want to never have children of my own.)
4. Die unangenehmen Seiten von Babys (z. B. schmutzige Windeln, Spucke usw.) lassen mich keinen eigenen Kinderwunsch verspüren. (The disgusting aspects of babies (dirty diapers, spit-up, etc.) make me not want to have a baby.)

5. Wenn ich ein Kind einen Wutanfall haben sehe, möchte ich so weit wie möglich vom Lärm weg. (When I see a child having a tantrum, I want to get as far away from the noise as possible.)
6. Wenn ich ein schreiendes Baby sehe, möchte ich so weit wie möglich vom Lärm weg. (When I see an infant crying, I want to get as far away from the noise as possible.)
7. Wenn ich Babys schreien und einen Wutanfall haben sehe, weiß ich, dass ich niemals eigene Kinder haben möchte. (When I see babies having a tantrum and crying, I know I will never have children of my own.)
8. Ich kümmere mich nicht gerne um Kinder. (I do not like looking after children.)

Full list of Items of the Commitment Scale

Response options: 1 = Gar nicht zutreffend (not at all true), 2 = Wenig zutreffend (slightly true), 3 = Teilweise zutreffend (partly true), 4 = Überwiegend zutreffend (mostly true), 5 = Völlig zutreffend (completely true).

1. Mit dem Wunsch ein Kind zu bekommen, identifiziere ich mich voll und ganz. (I fully identify with the wish to have a child.)
2. Meinen Wunsch ein Kind zu bekommen, will ich unter keinen Umständen aufgeben. (I would not give up my wish to have a child under any circumstances.)
3. Koste es was es wolle, ich möchte auf jedem Fall Kinder haben. (Whatever it takes, I definitely want to have children.)
4. Ich kann es kaum erwarten, Kinder zu bekommen. (I can hardly wait to have children.)
5. Auch wenn es mich sehr viel Anstrengung kosten sollte, werde ich alles tun, um irgendwann ein Kind zu bekommen. (Even if it requires a great deal of effort, I will do everything to have a child someday.)
6. Ich kann mir mein Leben auch ohne Kinder vorstellen. (I can imagine my life without children.)
7. Auch wenn ich kein Kind bekommen sollte, wird mein Leben „lebenswert“ sein. (Even if I do not have a child, my life will be worth living.)
8. Mir würde es nicht sehr viel ausmachen, wenn ich keine Kinder bekommen sollte. (It would not bother me very much if I did not have children.)

Full list of Items of the Conflict Scale

Response options: 1 = Gar nicht zutreffend (not at all true), 2 = Wenig zutreffend (slightly true), 3 = Teilweise zutreffend (partly true), 4 = Überwiegend zutreffend (mostly true), 5 = Völlig zutreffend (completely true).

1. Ob ich einmal Kinder haben sollte, hängt von Umständen ab, die ich kaum beeinflussen kann. (Whether I will have children depends on circumstances I can hardly influence.)
2. Ich kann meine Lebenssituation so gestalten, dass sie für ein Kind sehr günstig ist. (I can shape my life in a way that creates favorable conditions for a child.)
3. Andere Menschen ermutigen mich, Kinder zu bekommen. (Other people encourage me to have children.)

Full list of Items of the Control Scale

Response options: 1 = Gar nicht zutreffend (not at all true), 2 = Wenig zutreffend (slightly true), 3 = Teilweise zutreffend (partly true), 4 = Überwiegend zutreffend (mostly true), 5 = Völlig zutreffend (completely true).

1. Ich befand mich schon einmal ernsthaft im Zwiespalt darüber, ob ich Kinder bekommen soll. (I have seriously felt conflicted about whether I should have children.)
2. Ich grübele immer wieder darüber nach, ob ich überhaupt Kinder haben möchte. (I repeatedly wonder whether I really want to have children.)

Appendix C – Reliability Analyses

Table C1

Reliability Analyses Leipziger Fragebogen zu Kinderwunschmotiven

Estimate	Cronbach's α
Point estimate	0.804
95% CI lower bound	0.769
95% CI upper bound	0.835

Table C2

Internal Consistency of the Leipziger Fragebogen zu Kinderwunschmotive

Item	If item dropped Cronbach's α
LKW1	0.786
LKW2	0.804
LKW3	0.782
LKW4	0.787
LKW5	0.784
LKW6	0.790
LKW7	0.805
LKW8	0.787
LKW9	0.783
LKW10	0.796
LKW11	0.810
LKW12	0.799
LKW13	0.796
LKW14	0.812
LKW15	0.815
LKW16	0.796
LKW17	0.796
LKW18	0.807
LKW19	0.784

	If item dropped
Item	Cronbach's α
LKW20	0.791

Note. Values indicate Cronbach's alpha of the scale if the respective item is removed.

Table C3

Reliability Analyses Negative Exposure Subscale

Estimate	Cronbach's α
Point estimate	0.879
95% CI lower bound	0.856
95% CI upper bound	0.900

Table C4

Internal Consistency of the Negative Exposure Subscale

	If item dropped
Item	Cronbach's α
NKW1	0.869
NKW 2	0.874
NKW 3	0.855
NKW 4	0.862
NKW 5	0.863
NKW 6	0.861
NKW 7	0.851
NKW 8	0.878

Note. Values indicate Cronbach's alpha of the scale if the respective item is removed.

Table C5

Reliability Analyses Commitment

Estimate	Cronbach's α
Point estimate	0.924
95% CI lower bound	0.910
95% CI upper bound	0.936

Table C6*Internal Consistency Commitment*

Item	If item dropped Cronbach's α
CCC1	0.909
CCC2	0.905
CCC3	0.907
CCC4	0.916
CCC5	0.906
CCC11	0.910
CCC12	0.936
CCC13	0.918

Note. Values indicate Cronbach's alpha of the scale if the respective item is removed.

Table C7*Reliability Analyses Conflict*

Estimate	Cronbach's α
Point estimate	0.726
95% CI lower bound	0.653
95% CI upper bound	0.785

Table C8*Reliability Analyses Control*

Estimate	Cronbach's α
Point estimate	0.098
95% CI lower bound	-0.108
95% CI upper bound	0.271

Table C9*Reliability Analyses Implicit Theories of Willpower*

Estimate	Cronbach's α
Point estimate	0.803
95% CI lower bound	0.764
95% CI upper bound	0.836

Table C10

*Internal Consistency Implicit
Theories of Willpower*

Item	If item dropped
	Cronbach's α
ITW1	0.782
ITW2	0.780
ITW3	0.778
ITW4	0.784
ITW5	0.787
ITW6	0.780
ITW7	0.788
ITW8	0.790
ITW9	0.806
ITW10	0.802
ITW11	0.797
ITW12	0.787

Note. Values indicate Cronbach's alpha of the scale if the respective item is removed.

Table C11

Reliability Analyses Resources

Estimate	Cronbach's α
Point estimate	0.760
95% CI lower bound	0.716
95% CI upper bound	0.800

Table C12

Internal Consistency Resources

Item	If item dropped
	Cronbach's α
RES1	0.749
RES2	0.746
RES3	0.737
RES4	0.760
RES5	0.764

Item	If item dropped
	Cronbach's α
RES6	0.743
RES7	0.737
RES8	0.732
RES9	0.739
RES10	0.754
RES11	0.738
RES12	0.747
RES13	0.759
RES14	0.743

Note. Values indicate Cronbach's alpha of the scale if the respective item is removed. Items RES15 and RES16 were excluded from the final scale.

Appendix D – CFA of Childbearing Desire

Table D1

*Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin Test
for the CFA*

	MSA
Overall MSA	0.889
LKW1	0.944
LKW2	0.758
LKW3	0.925
LKW4	0.905
LKW5	0.943
LKW6	0.881
LKW7	0.661
LKW8	0.902
LKW9	0.930
LKW10	0.863
LKW11	0.662
LKW12	0.816
LKW13	0.879
LKW14	0.670
LKW15	0.512
LKW16	0.751
LKW17	0.857
LKW18	0.536
LKW19	0.889
LKW20	0.854
NKW1	0.911
NKW2	0.899
NKW3	0.928
NKW4	0.895
NKW5	0.815
NKW6	0.775
NKW7	0.953
NKW8	0.881
CCC1	0.910

	MSA
CCC2	0.965
CCC3	0.911
CCC4	0.909
CCC5	0.943
CCC11	0.895
CCC12	0.754
CCC13	0.944

Note. The following items were removed: CCC6, CCC7, CCC8, CCC9, CCC10.

Table D2

Chi-Square Test of the CFA

Model	X^2	df	p
Baseline model	50252.009	630	
Factor model	2197.769	591	< .001

Note. χ^2 = chi-square test of model fit.

Table D3

Additional Model Fit Indices of the CFA

Model	Value
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.968
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	0.965

Table D4

Standardized Factor Loadings of the CFA

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
LKW1	0.739		
LKW2	0.341		
LKW3	0.897		
LKW4	0.612		
LKW5	0.698		
LKW6	0.697		
LKW7	0.248		
LKW8	0.610		

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
LKW9	0.748		
LKW10	0.409		
LKW11	0.152		
LKW12	0.449		
LKW13	0.467		
LKW14	0.096		
LKW15	-0.024		
LKW16	0.309		
LKW17	0.456		
LKW18	0.123		
LKW19	0.658		
LKW20	0.591		
NKW1		0.634	
NKW2		0.626	
NKW3		0.886	
NKW4		0.799	
NKW5		0.852	
NKW6		0.831	
NKW7		0.948	
NKW8		0.594	
CCC1			0.913
CCC2			0.927
CCC3			0.888
CCC4			0.815
CCC5			0.900
CCC11			0.841
CCC12			0.501
CCC13			0.786

Note. Factor loadings $\geq .40$ are reported.

Table D5

Factor Covariances of the CFA

	Estimate	SE	<i>z</i>	<i>P</i>
Factor 1 ↔ Factor 2	0.734	0.013	56.660	< .001
Factor 1 ↔ Factor 3	0.886	0.012	74.541	< .001

	Estimate	SE	<i>z</i>	<i>P</i>
Factor 2 ↔ Factor 3	0.701	0.011	63.989	< .001

Table D6

Additional Model Fit Indices of the CFA (1 Factor)

Model	Value
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.951
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	0.948

Appendix E – EFA of Childbearing Desire

Table E1

*Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin Test for the
EFA of Childbearing Desire*

	MSA
Overall MSA	0.917
LKW1	0.948
LKW2	0.819
LKW3	0.940
LKW4	0.927
LKW5	0.947
LKW6	0.930
LKW7	0.776
LKW8	0.931
LKW9	0.940
LKW10	0.883
LKW11	0.684
LKW12	0.868
LKW13	0.866
LKW14	0.709
LKW15	0.909
LKW16	0.620
LKW17	0.785
LKW18	0.909
LKW19	0.670
LKW20	0.948
NKW1	0.932
NKW2	0.906
NKW3	0.950
NKW4	0.951
NKW5	0.836
NKW6	0.826
NKW7	0.955
NKW8	0.905
CCC1	0.958

	MSA
CCC2	0.964
CCC3	0.943
CCC4	0.957
CCC5	0.956
CCC6	0.674
CCC7	0.907
CCC8	0.616
CCC9	0.713
CCC10	0.885
CCC11	0.955
CCC12	0.868
CCC13	0.957

Table E2

Bartlett's Test for the EFA of Childbearing Desire

X^2	df	p
5626.574	8200.000	< .001

Table E3

Standardized Factor Loadings for the EFA of Childbearing Desire

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
CCC5	0.855				
CCC2	0.818				
CCC3	0.804				
CCC11	0.795				
CCC13	0.733				
LKW3	0.731				
CCC1	0.707				
CCC4	0.665				
LKW4	0.622				
LKW1	0.597				
LKW5	0.592				
NKW3	0.534	0.401			
NKW7	0.493	0.412			
LKW2	0.479				

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
NKW6		0.867			
NKW5		0.858			
LKW10			0.634		
LKW20			0.622		
LKW8			0.568		
LKW7			0.531		
LKW19			0.497		
LKW16			0.458		
LKW18			0.401		
LKW15				0.505	
LKW12				0.504	
LKW13				0.401	
CCC9					0.678
CCC10					0.661

Note. Factor loadings $\geq .40$ are reported. Applied rotation method is oblimin.

Table E4

Eigenvalues of the EFA of Childbearing Desire

Factor	Eigenvalue	Proportion of Variance	Cumulative Proportion
1	12.275	0.289	0.289
2	3.204	0.064	0.353
3	2.240	0.041	0.394
4	1.894	0.031	0.426
5	1.609	0.027	0.453

Note. Values represent eigenvalues and variance proportions from the unrotated factor solution.

Appendix F – EFA of Resources

Table F1

*Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin Test
for the EFA of Resources*

	MSA
Overall MSA	0.736
RES1	0.761
RES2	0.737
RES3	0.766
RES4	0.639
RES5	0.772
RES6	0.789
RES7	0.742
RES8	0.877
RES9	0.757
RES10	0.677
RES11	0.671
RES12	0.812
RES13	0.815
RES14	0.663
RES15	0.592
RES16	0.554

Table F2

Bartlett's test for the EFA of Resources

χ^2	df	p
899.490	120.000	< .001

Table F3

Standardized Factor Loadings for the EFA of Resources

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
RES14	0.858			
RES11	0.846			
RES8	0.423			
RES2		0.779		

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
RES3		0.703		
RES6		0.566		
RES9			0.709	
RES1			0.543	
RES4				0.691
RES10				0.489

Note. Factor loadings $\geq .40$ are reported. Applied rotation method is oblimin.

Table F4

Eigenvalues for the EFA of Resources

Factor	Eigenvalue	Proportion of Variance	Cumulative Proportion
1	3.589	0.190	0.190
2	1.693	0.078	0.268
3	1.558	0.064	0.332
4	1.246	0.033	0.365

Note. Values represent eigenvalues and variance proportions from the unrotated factor solution.

Appendix G – Correlation Table

Table G1

Pearson's Correlation of the Dimensions of Childbearing Desire, Resources and Implicit Theories of Willpower

Variable		DES	AVE	SAC	SOC	DOUB	ITW	RSTAT	RVIT	RSOC	RCOG	GEN	EM
DES	<i>r</i>	-											
	<i>p</i>	-											
AVE	<i>r</i>	.682	-										
	<i>p</i>	< .001	-										
SAC	<i>r</i>	.426	.414	-									
	<i>p</i>	< .001	< .001	-									
SOC	<i>r</i>	.296	.116	.044	-								
	<i>p</i>	< .001	.058	.476	-								
DOUB	<i>r</i>	.389	.292	.210	.072	-							
	<i>p</i>	< .001	< .001	< .001	.237	-							
ITW	<i>r</i>	.060	.212	.261	-.081	.042	-						
	<i>p</i>	.323	< .001	< .001	.187	.492	-						
RSTAT	<i>r</i>	.118	-.022	.049	.207	.039	-.006	-					
	<i>p</i>	.053	.720	.425	< .001	.520	.928	-					
RVIT	<i>r</i>	.255	.177	.219	-.016	.152	.259	.262	-				
	<i>p</i>	< .001	.004	< .001	.797	.013	< .001	< .001	-				
RSOC	<i>r</i>	.270	.178	.093	.111	.104	.026	.221	.274	-			
		< .001	.003	.128	.069	.087	.669	< .001	< .001	-			

Variable		DES	AVE	SAC	SOC	DOUB	ITW	RSTAT	RVIT	RSOC	RCOG	GEN	EM
RCOG	<i>r</i>	-.006	-.009	-.011	.100	.036	.032	.137	.105	.322	-		
	<i>p</i>	.917	.882	.864	.102	.554	.599	.025	.087	< .001	-		
GEN	<i>r</i>	-.023	.074	.151	-.012	.105	.186	.003	.154	-.004	.067	-	
	<i>p</i>	.706	.223	.013	.847	.084	.002	.957	.011	.994	.270	-	
EM	<i>r</i>	.118	.114	.088	.062	.137	.102	.302	.117	.033	-.002	-.005	-
	<i>p</i>	.053	.062	.148	.311	.004	.096	< .001	.055	.592	.969	.930	-

Note. DES = Desire, AVE = Aversion, SAC = Sacrifice, SOC = Social Recognition, DOUB = Doubt; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower; RSTAT = Status-related Resources; RVIT= Vitality-related Resources; RSOC = Social-related Resources; RCOG = Cognitive-related Resources; GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother.

Appendix H – Linear Regression Analyses

This chapter features model summaries and complete multiple regression tables featured in the results section.

Table H1

Model Summary for the Simple Regression Predicting Childbearing Desire Index

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	RMSE
M ₀	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.698
M ₁	0.133	0.018	0.014	0.693

Note. M₁ includes Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H2

Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Childbearing Desire Index

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	RMSE	ΔR^2	<i>p</i>
M ₀	0.312	0.098	0.087	0.667	0.098	< .001
M ₁	0.323	0.105	0.091	0.665	0.007	.156

Note. M₀ includes Gender, Education level of the mother, Resources.

M₁ includes Gender, Education level of the mother, Resources, Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H3

Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Desire

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	RMSE	ΔR^2	<i>p</i>
M ₀	0.308	0.095	0.085	0.873	0.095	< .001
M ₁	0.309	0.095	0.082	0.875	0.000	.850

Note. M₀ includes Gender, Education level of the mother, Resources.

M₁ includes Gender, Education level of the mother, Resources, Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H4

Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Aversion

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	RMSE	ΔR^2	<i>p</i>
M ₀	0.198	0.039	0.028	1.016	0.039	.014
M ₁	0.263	0.069	0.055	1.001	0.030	.004

Note. M₀ includes Gender, Education level of the mother, Resources.

M₁ includes Gender, Education level of the mother, Resources, Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H5*Model Summary for the Regression Predicting Sacrifice*

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	RMSE	ΔR^2	<i>p</i>
M ₀	0.238	0.057	0.046	0.664	0.057	.001
M ₁	0.318	0.101	0.087	0.649	0.044	< .001

Note. M₀ includes Gender, Education level of the mother, Resources.

M₁ includes Gender, Education level of the mother, Resources, Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H6*Model Summary for the Regression Predicting Social Recognition*

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	RMSE	ΔR^2	<i>p</i>
M ₀	0.160	0.026	0.015	0.621	0.026	.076
M ₁	0.192	0.037	0.022	0.619	0.011	.081

Note. M₀ includes Gender, Education level of the mother, Resources.

M₁ includes Gender, Education level of the mother, Resources, Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H7*Model Summary for the Regression Predicting Doubt*

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	RMSE	ΔR^2	<i>p</i>
M ₀	0.239	0.057	0.046	1.242	0.057	.001
M ₁	0.239	0.057	0.043	1.244	0.000	.854

Note. M₀ includes Gender, Education level of the mother, Resources.

M₁ includes Gender, Education level of the mother, Resources, Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H8*Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Desire with Resource Dimensions*

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	RMSE	ΔR^2	<i>p</i>
M ₀	0.120	0.015	0.007	0.910	0.015	.143
M ₁	0.292	0.085	0.075	0.878	0.071	< .001
M ₂	0.344	0.119	0.105	0.863	0.033	.002
M ₃	0.344	0.119	0.102	0.865	0.000	.905
M ₄	0.358	0.128	0.108	0.862	0.009	.094
M ₅	0.358	0.128	0.105	0.864	0.000	.902

Note. M₀ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother.

M₁ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Social-related Resources.

M₂ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Social-related Resources, Vitality-related Resources.

M₃ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Social-related Resources, Vitality-related Resources, Status-related Resources.

M₄ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Social-related Resources, Vitality-related Resources, Status-related Resources, Cognitive-related Resources.

M₅ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Social-related Resources, Vitality-related Resources, Status-related Resources, Cognitive-related Resources, Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H9

Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Desire

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₀	Intercept	2.734	0.219		12.478	< .001
	GEN	-0.040	0.107	-0.022	-0.369	.712
	EM	0.051	0.026	0.118	1.942	.053
M ₁	Intercept	1.653	0.319		5.179	< .001
	GEN	-0.040	0.104	-0.022	-0.381	.703
	EM	0.048	0.026	0.109	1.862	.064
	RSOC	0.333	0.074	0.266	4.526	< .001
M ₂	Intercept	1.222	0.342		3.571	< .001
	GEN	-0.092	0.103	-0.052	-0.895	.372
	EM	0.038	0.025	0.088	1.518	.130
	RSOC	0.267	0.075	0.214	3.552	< .001
	RVIT	0.255	0.081	0.194	3.162	.002
M ₃	Intercept	1.233	0.355		3.473	< .001
	GEN	-0.093	0.104	-0.053	-0.896	.371
	EM	0.039	0.026	0.090	1.487	.138
	RSOC	0.269	0.076	0.215	3.516	< .001
	RVIT	0.257	0.082	0.195	3.120	.002
	RSTAT	-0.009	0.075	-0.008	-0.120	.905
M ₄	Intercept	1.588	0.412		3.853	< .001
	GEN	-0.080	0.103	-0.046	-0.777	.438
	EM	0.038	0.026	0.087	1.430	.154
	RSOC	0.308	0.080	0.246	3.867	< .001
	RVIT	0.256	0.082	0.194	3.119	.002
	RSTAT	0.001	0.075	0.001	0.012	.990
	RCOG	-0.143	0.085	-0.103	-1.680	.094
M ₅	Intercept	1.565	0.453		3.452	< .001
	GEN	-0.082	0.105	-0.047	-0.785	.433
	EM	0.037	0.027	0.086	1.407	.161
	RSOC	0.309	0.080	0.247	3.861	< .001

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	RVIT	0.254	0.085	0.193	2.989	.003
	RSTAT	0.002	0.076	0.002	0.024	.981
	RCOG	-0.143	0.085	-0.103	-1.679	.094
	ITW	0.011	0.087	0.007	0.123	.902

Note. GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother; RSOC = Social-related Resources; RVIT = Vitality-related Resources; RSTAT = Status-related Resources; RCOG = Cognitive-related Resources; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H10

Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Aversion with Resource Dimensions

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	RMSE	ΔR^2	<i>p</i>
M ₀	0.137	0.019	0.011	1.024	0.019	.082
M ₁	0.221	0.049	0.038	1.010	0.030	.004
M ₂	0.247	0.061	0.047	1.006	0.012	.064
M ₃	0.277	0.077	0.059	0.999	0.015	.037
M ₄	0.284	0.081	0.060	0.999	0.004	.270
M ₅	0.324	0.105	0.081	0.987	0.024	.008

Note. M₀ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother.

M₁ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Social-related Resources.

M₂ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Social-related Resources, Vitality-related Resources.

M₃ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Social-related Resources, Vitality-related Resources, Status-related Resources.

M₄ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Social-related Resources, Vitality-related Resources, Status-related Resources, Cognitive-related Resources.

M₅ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Social-related Resources, Vitality-related Resources, Status-related Resources, Cognitive-related Resources, Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H11

Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Aversion

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₀	Intercept	2.730	0.247		11.062	< .001
	GEN	0.149	0.121	0.075	1.236	.217
	EM	0.056	0.030	0.114	1.883	.061
M ₁	Intercept	1.932	0.367		5.260	< .001
	GEN	0.150	0.119	0.075	1.254	.211
	EM	0.053	0.029	0.109	1.813	.071
	RSOC	0.246	0.085	0.174	2.903	.004
M ₂	Intercept	1.636	0.398		4.107	< .001
	GEN	0.113	0.120	0.057	0.942	.347
	EM	0.047	0.029	0.096	1.596	.112

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₃	RSOC	0.201	0.088	0.142	2.291	.023
	RVIT	0.175	0.094	0.118	1.859	.064
	Intercept	1.860	0.410		4.535	< .001
	GEN	0.107	0.120	0.054	0.893	.373
	EM	0.065	0.031	0.133	2.139	.033
M ₄	RSOC	0.232	0.088	0.164	2.622	.009
	RVIT	0.213	0.095	0.143	2.239	.026
	RSTAT	-0.183	0.087	-0.136	-2.096	.037
	Intercept	2.130	0.478		4.461	< .001
	GEN	0.116	0.120	0.058	0.969	.333
	EM	0.064	0.031	0.131	2.098	.037
	RSOC	0.262	0.092	0.185	2.833	.005
	RVIT	0.212	0.095	0.143	2.232	.026
M ₅	RSTAT	-0.175	0.087	-0.130	-2.003	.046
	RCOG	-0.109	0.098	-0.069	-1.104	.270
	Intercept	1.560	0.518		3.009	.003
	GEN	0.068	0.120	0.034	0.570	.569
	EM	0.056	0.030	0.114	1.835	.068
	RSOC	0.269	0.091	0.191	2.945	.004
	RVIT	0.150	0.097	0.101	1.542	.124
	RSTAT	-0.153	0.087	-0.114	-1.762	.079
	RCOG	-0.114	0.097	-0.073	-1.169	.244
	ITW	0.265	0.100	0.165	2.661	.008

Note. GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother; RSOC = Social-related Resources; RVIT = Vitality-related Resources; RSTAT = Status-related Resources; RCOG = Cognitive-related Resources; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H12

Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Sacrifice with Resource Dimensions

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	RMSE	ΔR^2	<i>p</i>
M ₀	0.175	0.031	0.023	0.671	0.031	.016
M ₁	0.258	0.066	0.056	0.660	0.036	.002
M ₂	0.261	0.068	0.054	0.661	0.002	.504
M ₃	0.262	0.069	0.051	0.662	0.001	.605
M ₄	0.267	0.072	0.050	0.662	0.003	.386
M ₅	0.329	0.108	0.084	0.650	0.037	.001

Note. M₀ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother.

M₁ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Vitality-related Resources.

M₂ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Vitality-related Resources, Social-related Resources.

M₃ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Vitality-related Resources, Social-related Resources, Status-related Resources.

M₄ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Vitality-related Resources, Social-related Resources, Status-related Resources, Cognitive-related Resources.

M₅ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Vitality-related Resources, Social-related Resources, Status-related Resources, Cognitive-related Resources, Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H13

Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Sacrifice

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₀	Intercept	2.135	0.162		13.199	< .001
	GEN	0.199	0.079	0.151	2.507	.013
	EM	0.029	0.020	0.089	1.478	.141
M ₁	Intercept	1.659	0.218		7.596	< .001
	GEN	0.160	0.079	0.122	2.023	.044
	EM	0.022	0.019	0.067	1.113	.267
	RVIT	0.189	0.059	0.192	3.179	.002
M ₂	Intercept	1.562	0.262		5.967	< .001
	GEN	0.162	0.079	0.123	2.049	.041
	EM	0.022	0.019	0.067	1.112	.267
	RVIT	0.177	0.062	0.181	2.868	.004
	RSOC	0.039	0.058	0.041	0.670	.504
M ₃	Intercept	1.599	0.272		5.889	< .001
	GEN	0.161	0.079	0.123	2.032	.043
	EM	0.025	0.020	0.076	1.213	.226
	RVIT	0.183	0.063	0.187	2.910	.004
	RSOC	0.044	0.058	0.047	0.746	.457
	RSTAT	-0.030	0.058	-0.034	-0.518	.605
M ₄	Intercept	1.740	0.316		5.497	< .001
	GEN	0.166	0.079	0.126	2.088	.038
	EM	0.024	0.020	0.074	1.180	.239
	RVIT	0.183	0.063	0.187	2.902	.004
	RSOC	0.059	0.061	0.064	0.968	.334
	RSTAT	-0.026	0.058	-0.029	-0.448	.655
	RCOG	-0.057	0.065	-0.055	-0.868	.386
M ₅	Intercept	1.277	0.341		3.741	< .001
	GEN	0.127	0.079	0.097	1.609	.109
	EM	0.017	0.020	0.053	0.854	.394

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	RVIT	0.132	0.064	0.135	2.068	.040
	RSOC	0.065	0.060	0.070	1.085	.279
	RSTAT	-0.008	0.057	-0.009	-0.139	.889
	RCOG	-0.061	0.064	-0.059	-0.948	.344
	ITW	0.216	0.066	0.203	3.283	.001

Note. GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother; RVIT= Vitality-related Resources; RSOC = Social-related Resources; RSTAT = Status-related Resources; RCOG = Cognitive-related Resources; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H14

Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Social Recognition with Resource Dimensions

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	RMSE	ΔR^2	<i>p</i>
M ₀	0.063	0.004	-0.004	0.627	0.004	.588
M ₁	0.208	0.043	0.032	0.616	0.039	.001
M ₂	0.218	0.048	0.033	0.616	0.004	.268
M ₃	0.225	0.051	0.033	0.616	0.003	.353
M ₄	0.242	0.059	0.037	0.614	0.008	.138
M ₅	0.250	0.063	0.037	0.614	0.004	.299

Note. M₀ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother.

M₁ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Status-related Resources.

M₂ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Status-related Resources, Social-related Resources.

M₃ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Status-related Resources, Social-related Resources, Cognitive-related Resources.

M₄ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Status-related Resources, Social-related Resources, Cognitive-related Resources, Vitality-related Resources.

M₅ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Status-related Resources, Social-related Resources, Cognitive-related Resources, Vitality-related Resources, Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H15

Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Social Recognition

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₀	Intercept	1.472	0.151		9.743	< .001
	GEN	-0.014	0.074	-0.011	-0.188	.851
	EM	0.018	0.018	0.062	1.013	.312
M ₁	Intercept	1.083	0.190		5.710	< .001
	GEN	-0.015	0.073	-0.013	-0.208	.835
	EM	-0.001	0.019	-0.001	-0.009	.993
	RSTAT	0.169	0.051	0.207	3.291	.001
M ₂	Intercept	0.922	0.239		3.864	< .001

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₃	GEN	-0.015	0.073	-0.012	-0.207	.836
	EM	0.001	0.019	0.002	0.031	.975
	RSTAT	0.156	0.053	0.191	2.964	.003
	RSOC	0.059	0.053	0.068	1.110	.268
	Intercept	0.782	0.282		2.772	.006
	GEN	-0.020	0.073	-0.016	-0.272	.786
	EM	0.001	0.019	0.004	0.066	.948
	RSTAT	0.152	0.053	0.187	2.880	.004
	RSOC	0.043	0.055	0.050	0.778	.437
	RCOG	0.056	0.061	0.059	0.930	.353
M ₄	Intercept	0.907	0.294		3.087	.002
	GEN	-0.002	0.074	-0.002	-0.025	.980
	EM	0.003	0.019	0.009	0.144	.886
	RSTAT	0.168	0.054	0.206	3.119	.002
	RSOC	0.062	0.057	0.073	1.096	.274
	RCOG	0.056	0.060	0.059	0.921	.358
	RVIT	-0.087	0.059	-0.096	-1.489	.138
M ₅	Intercept	1.046	0.323		3.242	.001
	GEN	0.010	0.075	0.008	0.132	.895
	EM	0.005	0.019	0.016	0.251	.802
	RSTAT	0.162	0.054	0.199	3.005	.003
	RSOC	0.061	0.057	0.071	1.065	.288
	RCOG	0.057	0.060	0.060	0.941	.347
	RVIT	-0.072	0.060	-0.080	-1.191	.235
	ITW	-0.065	0.062	-0.066	-1.041	.299

Note. GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother; RSTAT = Status-related Resource; RSOC = Social-related Resources; RCOG = Cognitive-related Resources; RVIT= Vitality-related Resources; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H16

Model Summary for the Multiple Regression Predicting Doubt with Resource Dimensions

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	RMSE	ΔR^2	<i>p</i>
M ₀	0.203	0.041	0.034	1.250	0.041	.004
M ₁	0.235	0.055	0.044	1.243	0.014	.050
M ₂	0.245	0.060	0.046	1.242	0.005	.248
M ₃	0.251	0.063	0.045	1.242	0.003	.350
M ₄	0.251	0.063	0.042	1.245	0.000	.985

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	RMSE	ΔR^2	<i>p</i>
M ₅	0.252	0.064	0.039	1.247	0.001	.674

Note. M₀ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother.

M₁ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Vitality-related Resources.

M₂ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Vitality-related Resources, Social-related Resources.

M₃ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Vitality-related Resources, Social-related Resources, Status-related Resources.

M₄ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Vitality-related Resources, Social-related Resources, Status-related Resources, Cognitive-related Resources.

M₅ includes Gender, Educational level of the mother, Vitality-related Resources, Social-related Resources, Status-related Resources, Cognitive-related Resources, Implicit Theories of Willpower.

Table H17

Regression Model Examining Resource Factors as Predictors of Doubt

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₀	Intercept	2.166	0.301		7.194	< .001
	GEN	0.261	0.148	0.106	1.773	.077
	EM	0.105	0.036	0.174	2.895	.004
M ₁	Intercept	1.611	0.411		3.918	< .001
	GEN	0.216	0.149	0.088	1.454	.147
	EM	0.097	0.036	0.160	2.655	.008
	RVIT	0.220	0.122	0.120	1.968	.050
M ₂	Intercept	1.297	0.492		2.636	.009
	GEN	0.224	0.149	0.091	1.505	.133
	EM	0.097	0.036	0.160	2.657	.008
	RVIT	0.183	0.116	0.100	1.574	.117
	RSOC	0.125	0.108	0.072	1.158	.248
M ₃	Intercept	1.421	0.510		2.788	.006
	GEN	0.220	0.149	0.090	1.480	.140
	EM	0.107	0.038	0.176	2.813	.005
	RVIT	0.204	0.118	0.111	1.724	.086
	RSOC	0.143	0.110	0.083	1.298	.195
	RSTAT	-0.102	0.108	-0.061	-0.937	.350
M ₄	Intercept	1.415	0.595		2.378	.018
	GEN	0.220	0.149	0.089	1.472	.142
	EM	0.107	0.038	0.177	2.807	.005
	RVIT	0.204	0.119	0.111	1.720	.087
	RSOC	0.142	0.115	0.081	1.232	.219
	RSTAT	-0.102	0.109	-0.061	-0.933	.351
	RCOG	0.002	0.123	0.001	0.019	.985

Model	Coefficient	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
M ₅	Intercept	1.529	0.655		2.336	.020
	GEN	0.229	0.151	0.093	1.516	.131
	EM	0.109	0.038	0.179	2.831	.005
	RVIT	0.217	0.122	0.118	1.769	.078
	RSOC	0.140	0.115	0.081	1.217	.225
	RSTAT	-0.106	0.110	-0.064	-0.968	.334
	RCOG	0.003	0.123	0.002	0.027	.979
	ITW	-0.053	0.126	-0.027	-0.421	.674

Note. GEN = Gender; EM = Education level of the mother; RVIT= Vitality-related Resources; RSOC = Social-related Resources; RSTAT = Status-related Resources; RCOG = Cognitive-related Resources; ITW = Implicit Theories of Willpower.