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Co-residential Partnering among LGB people in Colombia, Germany, and Norway: Prevalence, Partner's Gender, and Parenthood.

Gioia Geremia
Centre d'Estudis Demogràfics, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (Barcelona)

Diederik Boertien
Centre d'Estudis Demogràfics (Barcelona)

Clara Cortina Trilla
Universitat Pompeu Fabra (Barcelona)

Abstract

How do partnership trajectories among the LGB population vary across contexts? This study examines changes in the gender composition (having a same-gender or different-gender partner) of co-residential relationships and parenthood among LGB individuals across three distinct sociocultural and legal contexts: Colombia, Germany, and Norway. Using representative survey data (DHS for Colombia, FReDA for Germany and GGS for Norway), we reconstruct respondents' co-residential and parenthood trajectories across two birth cohorts (1970-1979 and 1980-1996).

First, our findings align with previous research, showing lower rates of co-residential relationships and parenthood among LGB individuals compared to the general population. Second, different-gender co-residential relationships and parenthood within them remain widespread in Colombia, whereas in Germany and Norway same-gender relationships – particularly among lesbian and gay individuals – are more prevalent. These patterns, alongside higher levels of singlehood in Colombia, support the idea that same-gender relationships are more common in contexts with greater social acceptance and lower stigma and discrimination against LGBTQ* identities.

Interestingly, we observe relatively few *mixed* trajectories (having had both same- and different-gender partners), even among bisexual individuals. Lastly, despite substantial legal across cohorts (especially in Colombia and Germany) we do not find significant cohort variations in in the gender composition of couples in any of the three countries.

Overall, this study provides novel insights on LGB partnership and parenthood dynamics and highlights the central role of social acceptance and evolving legal frameworks in shaping partnership and family formation patterns among LGB people.

Introduction

Family trajectories are central to understanding different spheres of life, from well-being to social support (Umberson et al. 2010). Even though Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and people with other non-heterosexual identities[1] (LGB*) have been historically excluded from partnering and parenthood, we know very little about their family trajectories, limiting our knowledge about the disadvantages and challenges that LGB* people experience in their lives. While the interest for sexual and gender diversity in population studies is growing, research on partnership has mostly focused on heteronormative benchmarks of family formation, namely cohabitation, marriage/civil union and the timing of these events (Caprinali et al. 2023; Evertsson and Boye 2018; Kolk and Andersson 2020). A key aspect that remains understudied is the gender of the partners that LGB* people have throughout their lives, and the gender of the partners with whom they have children. In other words, there has been little attention to whether LGB* people's family trajectories consist of same-gender relationships, different-gender relationships, or both. We use the term *gender composition of couples* to refer to the gender of partner(s) people have. Studying family formation trajectories of the LGB* population – with a focus on the gender composition of couples – is relevant for several reasons.

First of all, documenting how the gender composition of LGB* people's relationships varies across contexts could help us understand the impact of heteronormative pressures on partnering behaviour. If few LGB people partner with someone of the same gender, this could be indicative of heteronormative pressures to partner with someone of a different gender or to stay single. Previous research has documented how LGB people experience pressures to partner someone of a different gender (Higgins 2002; Zhu et al. 2022), but because most research uses data on same-gender couples, we know very little about how common it is for LGB* people to have a different gender partner or to stay single. A question that arises is whether gay and lesbian people, who mostly report attraction only to someone of the same gender (Lejbowicz et al. 2025), partner with someone of a different-gender or remain single in time periods or countries where attitudes towards same-gender relationships are more negative. For bisexual people, more acceptance makes same-gender partnering more available, even though less normativity around sexual identities and partnering can also enable bisexual people to partner more in general, or to have trajectories that include both different-gender and same-gender partners. The main research question of this paper is therefore: *How do co-residential relationship trajectories among the LGB* population vary across different contexts, in particular in relation to the gender composition of couples?*

[1] This study primarily examines Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual (LGB) identities, with additional considerations on *Other* sexual identities, marked with an asterisk (*). Throughout the paper, *LGB** is used to refer to the broader group, and LGB when referring specifically to Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual identities.

A second reason to study the gender composition of couples is that it shapes the routes through which LGB* people become parents. Some scholars have speculated about cohort changes in how same-gender parent families are formed (Gates 2012a, 2012b, 2015), but empirical evidence remains scarce. It has been suggested that same-gender families used to be formed primarily after the dissolution of different-gender relationships within which people had children. With the increasing acceptance of same-gender parenting, and increased access to medically assisted reproduction and adoption, younger cohorts are expected to increasingly become parents within same-gender relationships (Gates 2015). Even though we know that childbearing within same-gender relationships is increasing (Kolk and Andersson, 2020), we know much less about how common it is for LGB* parents to have had children within different-gender relationships. A secondary question we aim to answer is therefore: *How do co-residential relationship trajectories of LGB* people relate to levels of parenthood?*

Finally, the gender composition of couples has an impact on dynamics within relationships, influencing dimensions such as the division of labour (Moberg 2016) and partner support (Thomeer et al. 2020). Previous research suggested that the sequence of relationships – for instance forming a different-gender partnership prior to a same-gender one – could be related to levels of parenthood and dissolution rates of same-gender unions (Reczek 2020). These are issues that we will not study, but underline the relevance of understanding the gender composition of relationships. Despite this relevance, existing evidence on LGB* relationships is mostly cross-sectional and used samples of same-gender couples (Bohr and Lengerer 2024; Kolk and Andersson 2020; Manning and Payne 2021), offering only a partial view of LGB* partnership and parenthood trajectories. To fill this gap, we innovate by using data on sexual identity that allows us to document relationship trajectories that include spells of singlehood and different-gender relationships. An important limitation remains that our analysis focuses on co-residential relationships and we do not have sufficient information on non-heterosexual identities other than LGB.

We explore partnership trajectories of LGB* people in Colombia, Germany, and Norway, with a particular focus on the gender composition of couples. These three countries were selected for their distinct and contrasting sociocultural and legal contexts in terms of LGBTQ* social acceptance and rights, as well as in access to various pathways to parenthood. In addition, these are the only three countries that, to our knowledge, have large-scale surveys that include self-identified LGB* respondents and collect information on partnership histories, including the gender of current and former partners. These surveys are: the 2015 Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) for Colombia, the Family Research and Demographic Analysis (FReDA) for Germany (2021-2023), and the Generation and Gender Survey (GGS) for Norway (2020-2024). We will document differences across contexts in two ways. On the one hand, we highlight cross-country variation to understand whether varying socio-legal frameworks might impact partnering dynamics among LGB* people. On the other hand, where data allows for it, we will

explore cohort changes within countries to investigate whether increasingly favourable legal and social conditions might have shaped these dynamics over time.

Overview of Partnering and Parenthood among the LGB* Population

Partnering

Previous literature has generally found that LGB people are less likely to be in a co-residential relationship than heterosexual individuals (Black et al. 2000; Gates 2015; Badgett et al. 2021). Nonetheless, differences are found across sexual identities and genders. LGB men have lower partnership rates than heterosexual men, while LGB women's rates are closer to the ones of their heterosexual counterparts (Badgett et al. 2021). Differences are found also in the timing of entering the first relationship, where LGB people – bisexual people to a lesser extent – enter the first co-residential union later compared to heterosexual people (Bohr and Lengerer 2024). Nonetheless, the desire for long-term relationships appears to be consistent across different sexual identities (Tate et al. 2019). More recent research shows that partnering has become more common across cohorts of LGB individuals in the UK (Ophir et al. 2023). Moreover, same-gender cohabitation is increasing over time in Germany (Bohr and Lengerer 2024).

Little is still known about the gender composition of co-residential relationships, and in particular about trajectories: how common is for people to ever have a different-gender partner, and how many people have had both different-gender and same-gender partners throughout their lives? Cross-sectional analyses and reports focusing on partner gender found that bisexual individuals were less likely to be in a same-gender relationship compared to different-gender ones, whereas lesbian and gay individuals were predominantly (but not exclusively) in same-gender relationships (Hsieh 2019; ILGA-Europe, 2023). Looking at life courses, Gates (2012a) found that about half of GSS respondents identifying as lesbian or gay had experienced both same-gender and different-gender sexual partners, while only less than half (42%) reported having exclusively same-gender ones. Among bisexual individuals, the vast majority (71%) had both same-gender and different-gender sexual partners, whereas only 22% had exclusively different-gender partners. Furthermore, only few LGB individuals reported never having had a sexual partner. Gates (2012a) highlights also important gender differences: for instance, bisexual women were less likely to report exclusively different-gender partners than bisexual men (16% vs 29%). Australian research indicates that exclusive same-gender sexual experiences are less common among women, even though they are more likely than men to identify as LGB* (Richters et al. 2014). In France, Lejbowicz and others (2025) found that among bisexual young adults (18-29 years old) less than 60% experience both same- and different-gender relationships. Once again, a non-negligible percentage of LG people (44% for women 39% for men) experienced relationships with both same- and different-gender partners.

In sum, the few studies on this topic focus mostly on sexual partners, while we still do not have a comprehensive understanding of relationship trajectories, especially co-residential ones. Moreover, we know even less about how the gender composition of LGB* individuals' couples varies across national contexts, across time, but also across genders and sexual identities. Are there different patterns in different contexts?

Parenthood

LGB* people are less likely to become parents and face comparatively greater obstacles in doing so than heterosexual individuals (Badgett et al. 2021; Ophir et al. 2023). Nonetheless, LGB* individuals express desires for parenthood similar or slightly lower than their heterosexual counterparts (Tate et al. 2019). The presence of children among LGB* men, and gay men in particular, is far lower than for heterosexual men. At the same time, shares among lesbian women are lower than for heterosexual women, but no great difference is found between heterosexual and bisexual women (Badgett et al. 2021).

Recent research shows that general levels of parenthood might be declining for LGB* individuals (Ophir et al., 2023), although childbearing within same-gender marriages and the number of same-gender households with children are increasing (Gates 2012b; Kolk and Andersson, 2020). One reason for these opposite trends could be the change in the gender composition of relationships. As indicated by previous research, up until recent times LGB* individuals mostly became parents in the context of (previous) different-gender relationships (Gates 2013, 2015; Goldberg et al. 2014; Lelleri et al. 2008). A possible decline in this route into parenthood could lead to an overall reduction in parenthood among LGB* people. At the same time, increased access to assisted reproduction and adoption could increase the number of children who are born within same-gender relationships (Goldberg et al., 2014). However, we still lack solid empirical evidence on how common it is for LGB* parents to have had both different-gender and same-gender relationships, and whether this varies across contexts.

Differences across countries and cohorts

While previous research has primarily relied on cross-sectional data and has been limited to a handful of single-country studies, theoretical arguments suggest that partnership and parenthood trajectories and, in this case, the gender composition of couples, may vary across national contexts and over time (Gates 2012a, 2012b, 2015; Moore and Stambolis-Ruhstorfer 2013). What might lead to such variation across contexts? In the following section, we focus on two contextual dimensions that may shape the gender composition of couples: changes in the legal framework, as well as social attitudes and discrimination.

Differences in legal context and structural stigma

In several high-income countries, relatively recent legal reforms have enabled LGB* people to formalise their relationships through registered partnerships, civil unions or marriage. Previous research has shown how legal recognition of same-sex marriage can foster union formation among LGB people (Carpenter 2020). However, legal advancements not only grant access to fundamental legal rights and benefits (e.g. inheritance), but have also broader social and psychological implications that can increase same-gender partnering. For instance, previous research indicates that residing in states with discriminatory laws and policies might be associated with adverse mental health outcomes among LGB individuals (Hatzenbuehler 2010). LGB* people that live in countries that only recently underwent these transformations (or that are still missing such legal framework) might experience higher degrees of *structural stigma* (Hatzenbuehler et al. 2009, 2010), as discrimination and exclusion of LGB* individuals from various family formation milestones may have negatively affected relationships' outcomes, among other things. In other words, legal recognition expands same-gender relationship forms, and also likely increases the benefits related to entering same-gender relationships. It is less clear whether such increases in same-gender partnering relate to lower levels of singlehood or less different-gender partnering among LGB* people.

Countries' legal frameworks and policies also differ in the extent to which they facilitate access to parenthood for single individuals and same-gender couples. Several countries still lack access to Assisted Reproductive Technologies (ART) and, when available, they often entail high costs (Präg & Mills 2017). However, increased and widespread access to adoption and to ART in some contexts might have favoured parenthood desires, and expanded opportunities for same-gender couples to become parents (Boertien et al. 2024). Indeed, parenthood through medically assisted reproduction is more likely to happen in younger cohorts of LGB* parents (Tornello and Patterson 2015; Goldberg and Allen 2020). Previous research has shown that in US states with inclusive policies for LGB* parents (e.g. access to adoption, medically assisted reproduction), these were less likely to become parents in the context of a different-gender relationship (Meslay and Russell 2025). Similarly, parenthood following same-gender union formation has become more common in Sweden over time, especially for women (Kolk and Andersson 2020). This suggests that, even if the overall number of LGB* individuals with children may be declining, parenthood within same-gender couples may be rising over time. As a consequence, trajectories where LGB* people become parents within different-gender relationships are likely to be less common in contexts where legal frameworks and policies facilitate becoming a parent within same-gender relationships.

Social Attitudes and Discrimination: the Role of Minority Stress

Along with legal changes, the social context for LGB* rights has evolved rapidly over the past two decades. In many high-income countries, social acceptance of LGBTQ* individuals has increased significantly over time (Halman and van Ingen 2015; Dotti Sani and Quaranta 2022). Even in contexts where discrimination remained widespread until recently, particularly in Europe, there are signs of improvement, albeit uneven and

sometimes unstable (ILGA 2024). In times or places of heightened social stigma, LGB* individuals may feel compelled to pursue different-gender relationships or stay single as a strategy to mitigate risk and avoid marginalization (Gates 2015; Frost et al. 2017; Lau 2012). Indeed, from a *minority stress* perspective, entering a same-gender relationship heightens the visibility of one's sexual identity, which can also increase exposure to discrimination.

However, the increasingly positive societal attitudes towards LGBTQ* identities – along with the expansion of legal rights – particularly in high-income countries (Abou-Chadi and Finnigan 2019; Rosenfeld 2017), has likely encouraged individuals to be more open about their sexual identity, and to align personal life accordingly. These changes might indeed reflect reduced experiences of discrimination and less heightened presence of minority stressors in such contexts. Consequently, more LGB* individuals may feel freer to form same-gender relationships rather than concealing their identity through different-gender partnerships or staying single. Similarly, bisexual individuals might feel freer to have both different-gender and same-gender relationships in more accepting contexts. Therefore, we expect to find less gay and lesbian people reporting different-gender relationships in less stigmatised contexts, where we also expect to find more mixed trajectories for bisexual people.

Just as minority stress influences how LGB* people navigate relationships, it also plays a critical role in shaping parenthood trajectories. Support for equal parenting rights does not always align with the extensive support for same-gender marriage. In Norway, research indicated that while support for same-gender marriage equality is strong, approval of equal parenting rights for same-gender couples remains comparatively lower (Hollekim et al. 2012). Previous research has investigated the relationship between LGB* parenthood and minority stress finding that lesbian mothers who reported higher levels of rejection also experienced greater parental stress (Bos et al. 2004).

Importantly, minority stressors can shape the parenting experience even before it begins – at the level of desires. Prospective LGB* parents might internalise societal inputs suggesting they are unfit for parenthood due to heterosexist norms and stigma surrounding same-gender parenting. This internalised stigma can undermine their confidence and willingness to pursue parenthood (Scandurra et al. 2019, Goldberg 2010). However, social attitudes toward LGB* parenthood have evolved considerably. For instance, in just a decade, support for same-gender parenting has grown markedly in the USA (Manning and Gustafson 2024). We hence argue that in more supportive contexts, a greater number of LGB* people will have the opportunity to pursue parenthood within same-gender relationships, as has been shown by previous research (Meslay and Russell 2025).

Country context: where do Colombia, Germany and Norway stand?

We focus on Colombia, Germany, and Norway, as these countries differ substantially in their legal frameworks and social attitudes toward sexual diversity, providing a valuable gradient of socio-legal contexts. In addition, they also show notable differences in family

formation dynamics within the general population, thus offering an insightful comparative backdrop.

Across Europe, marriage rates have declined over recent decades (Sobotka and Berghammer 2021). In Norway, cohabitation as an alternative to marriage is prevalent, whereas in Germany, despite relatively high cohabitation rates, it is viewed as a "trial marriage" or a "prelude to marriage" (Hiekel et al. 2014). In Colombia, cohabitation has been historically widespread and increased significantly over time (Covre-Sussai et al. 2015; Esteve et al. 2012; Esteve and Castro-Martin 2022).

Differences among these countries become even more pronounced when considering parenthood. In Norway – a country that initially resisted the widespread European fertility decline – fertility rates began to significantly drop following the 2008 economic recession and have since converged with the European average (Comolli et al. 2021). In Germany, fertility rates have been among the lowest in Europe (Sobotka 2011). More broadly, delayed childbearing has become a common trend across Europe (Beaujouan 2020). In Latin America, – and in Colombia specifically – total fertility rates have been consistently declining since the 1960s. However, early transition into parenthood, especially among women, remain relatively common (Esteve and Castro-Martin 2022).

Differences are also emerging when considering the legal framework for LGBTQ* rights. Colombia, while legally progressive within Latin American, lags behind in broader social acceptance. Civil unions have been legal since 2011 and same-sex marriage since 2016; adoption rights were extended to same-gender couples in 2015. In vitro fertilisation (IVF) is available to women in same-gender couples, and altruistic gestational surrogacy is available under the condition that at least one parent is genetically linked to the child.

In Germany some legal changes occurred earlier than in Colombia, but parenthood rights are still quite behind compared to other high-income European countries. Civil unions were introduced in 2001 and replaced by marriage equality in 2017, which also marked the legalization of joint adoption. Stepchild adoption has been allowed since 2005, and successive adoption (adopting a partner's adopted child) since 2013. Women in same-gender couples can access in-vitro fertilisation, although the costs are covered by public health system only in a few states, while all forms of egg donation and surrogacy are prohibited, regardless of the gender composition of the couple.

Norway stands out as the most inclusive context, at least on paper: civil partnerships have been available since 1993, with marriage equality and joint adoption legalized in 2009 (stepchild adoption has been available since 2003). Women in same-gender couples have had access to IVF since 2009, although both altruistic and commercial gestational surrogacy remain prohibited, regardless of the gender composition of the couple.

Anti-discrimination laws are in place in all of the three countries, although with some differences on the timing and on the degree to which these apply. Social attitudes towards

LGB* people mirror these legal frameworks. According to the World Values Survey, fewer than 10% of Norwegians believe homosexuality is never justified, compared to 20% in Germany and over 40% in Colombia (Adamczyk and Liao 2019). The overall low acceptance in Colombia may also reflect the country's colonial history, as same-sex relations were not condemned in many Indigenous societies prior to colonisation – a pattern observed across other colonialised contexts (Cavgias et al. 2025).

Hence, if social acceptance drives the extent to which LGB* people have same-gender partners, and experience pressures to partner with different-gender people, we would expect different-gender partnering to be more common among gay and lesbian people in Colombia, followed by Germany, and Norway. If social acceptance makes it easier for bisexual people to have both different-gender and same-gender partners, we could see more mixed trajectories in Norway, followed by Germany and Colombia. However, if the legal possibilities to form relationships are more important than social acceptance, relationship trajectories of LGB* people might be similar across countries, in particular, in Germany and Colombia. In all countries, we would expect same-gender partnering to increase, and different-gender partnering to decrease across cohorts for gay and lesbian people, and mixed trajectories to increase across cohorts for bisexual people. Regarding parenthood, we might expect similar results as for partnering, in other words, we might expect an increase in gay and lesbian parents who only had same-gender relationships (and higher levels in Norway, than in the other countries), and a decrease in other trajectories across cohorts. For bisexual parents, mixed trajectories are likely to remain prevalent, or might even increase if mixed trajectories become more prevalent among bisexual people more generally.

Data and Methods

We use data from three different nationally representative data sources which all collect retrospective relationship histories, as well as information on sexual identity and the gender of current and former partners. For Colombia, we rely on the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) from 2015, which collected information from 38,718 women between 15-49 years old and 35,783 men 15-59 years old. Out of a random sample of Colombian households, one eligible adult (based on age criteria) was selected for an individual interview.

For Germany we rely on the FReDA panel, a nationally representative longitudinal study focused on family formation stages of individuals aged 18-49 years old living in Germany (see Hank et al. 2025). Started in 2021, FReDA comprises the German Generation and Gender Survey (GGS) and the Pairfam study. For this study we focus on the FReDA-GGS sample which has information on retrospective union histories and sexual identity. Respondents (and partners) are interviewed twice a year, and, as of today, for three complete waves. Sexual identity was collected only in the second wave. To maximise the available data, we reconstruct partnership and parenthood histories using all information available until the wave where sexual identity was asked (W2B, 2023).

For Norway, we use Gender and Generation Survey (GGS) data from Round II. The GGS is a longitudinal study on life-course and family dynamics focused on individuals aged 18-79 years old. The GGS round has two waves, and we take partnership and parenthood history data from Wave 1, collected in 2020, and sexual identity information from Wave 2, collected in 2024.

For all countries, we include respondents born between 1970 and 1995 in order to have sufficient information on partnerships across all countries for the same birth cohorts: FReDa collects data of respondents born from 1970 onwards, and Colombian respondents born in 1995 were 20 years old when data was collected. When feasible, we conduct analysis on two separate birth cohorts: 1970-1979 and 1980-1995.

Initial samples comprise 74,501 observations for Colombia, 5,368 for Norway, and 18,143 for Germany. We initially lose 39.54% (*n*=29,462) of the initial sample for Colombia, 19.14% (*n*=3,473) for Germany, and 29.52% (*n*=1,585) for Norway because of the cohort selection. Because of missing values for sexual identity, we lose 1 observation for Colombia (default missing), 1.57% (n=231) for Germany (4 observation because of Invalid/Multiple answer and 227 observations because of *No answer*), and 27.72% (*n*=1,049) for Norway. In the case of Norway, the large amount of missing information on sexual identity is related to changes in the sample across the two different waves for which information is used[2]. Lastly, we lose 3.3% (*n*=1469) of observations in Colombia, 0.55% (*n*=80) in Germany, and 1.28% (*n*=35) for Norway for missing information on all previous and current relationships. Finally, in the case of Germany and Norway, we also drop respectively 0.21% (*n*=30) and 0.18% (*n*=5) of remaining observations with *Other* or *Non-binary* gender identities[3], although we provide some basic descriptive statistics of these groups in the Appendix (Table A).

After dropping observations with missing information on the main variables used for the analysis, the final analytical samples comprise 43,569 observations for Colombia, 466 of which are LGB (1.07%); 14,329 for Germany, 941 of which are LGB* (6.57%); and 2,694 for Norway, 145 of which are LGB* (5.38%), distributed as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Distribution of sample by sexual identity, gender and cohort for Colombia (*n* = 43,569), Germany (*n* = 14,329), and Norway (*n* = 2,694). Absolute numbers in parentheses.

	Lesbian/Gay	Bisexual	Other Sexual Identity	Heterosexual	Total

[2] In the original wave where sexual identity was asked (Wave 1 Round II), we only found 27 *Don't know* observations, 64 *Refusal* and 50 *Incomplete survey*.

[3] Before accounting for missing information on the main variables of interest, Other/Non-binary respondents amounted to 47 observations for Germany and 8 for Norway.

Colombia	Cohort 1970-79					
	Women	0.3% (29)	0.2% (15)	*NA*	99.5% (8,318)	100% (8,362)
	Men	0.6% (35)	0.2% (16)	*NA*	99.2% (6,121)	100% (6,172)
	Cohort 1980-95					
	Women	0.5% (81)	0.6% (94)	*NA*	98.9% (16,230)	100% (16,405)
	Men	0.9% (119)	0.6% (77)	*NA*	98.5% (12,434)	100% (12,623)
	Total	0.6% (264)	0.5% (202)	*NA*	98.9% (43,103)	100% (43,569)
Germany	Cohort 1970-79					
	Women	1.1% (27)	2.5% (63)	0.6% (15)	95.9% (2,443)	100% (2,548)
	Men	3.7% (78)	2.0% (42)	0.6% (13)	93.7% (1,973)	100% (2,106)
	Cohort 1980-95					
	Women	1.5% (82)	5.4% (288)	0.7% (35)	92.5% (4,960)	100% (5,365)
	Men	4.1% (175)	2.5% (109)	0.3% (14)	93.1% (4,012)	100% (4,310)
	Total	2.5% (362)	3.5% (502)	0.5% (77)	93.1% (13,338)	100% (14,329)
Norway	Cohort 1970-79					
	Women	1.4% (9)	2.2% (14)	0.2% (1)	96.2% (609)	100% (633)
	Men	1.7% (8)	1.0% (5)	0	97.3% (468)	100% (481)
	Cohort 1980-95					
	Women	1.6% (15)	5.3% (50)	0.9% (8)	92.2% (864)	100% (937)
	Men	2.6% (17)	2.4% (16)	0.3% (2)	94.6% (619)	100% (654)
	Total	1.8% (49)	3.2% (85)	0.4% (11)	95.0% (2,560)	100% (2,694)

Measures

We measure sexual orientation through the self-reported sexual identity of respondents. In Colombia, response options are limited to *Lesbian*/G*ay* (or *Homosexual*), *Bisexual* and *Heterosexual* identities, whereas the German and Norwegian surveys also include an *Other* category, which we denote with "*". Unluckily, previous research underlines the complexities behind this answer option: it often comprises many heterosexual people who did not understand the question (Elliott et al. 2019; Ridolfo et al 2012), complicating the interpretation of this group as non-heterosexual. Nonetheless, when feasible, we include it in additional analysis to try to understand underlying patterns of partnership and parenthood trajectories.

Regarding gender, German and Norwegian datasets provide response options for *Women* and *Men*, along with *Other* (Norway) and *Non-binary/Intersex* (Germany). Due to the small number of respondents identifying as non-binary or other[4], and the high proportion of missing data on key variables for these groups, we exclude them from the main

[4] $n = 46$ for Germany and $n = 8$ for Norway, before accounting for missing information in the most relevant variables.

analysis. DHS Colombia administers two separate individual questionnaires only to women and men[5].

In addition, each survey includes information on the gender of respondents' current and previous partners (retrospective), the month and year cohabitation began and ended with each of the partners. In the case of Colombia, we have information of date of start of cohabitation with partners with whom the respondents were married or in a registered partnership (*Casado/a* or *Unión libre*). However, in practice, the interpretation of *Unión libre* also includes non-registered cohabitation, as shown by previous research (Brigeiro et al., 2009).

We focus on cohabiting relationships starting from age 15 to account for the early transition into cohabitation (and parenthood) of women in Colombia, while these cases are rare in Germany and Norway – two countries characterised by delayed family formation.

We reconstruct current and previous co-residential union using the years of the beginning of cohabitation and the end of relationships, when applicable. To provide descriptive trajectories of the gender composition of couples, we indicate whether each respondent has cohabited only with same-gender partners (every reported cohabiting relationship is same-gender), only with different-gender partners (every reported cohabiting relationship is different-gender), both with same and different-gender partners or if they have never been in a cohabiting relationship. Although we do not consider respondents with completely unavailable partnership trajectories (e.g., all relationships' dates or all gender of partners are missing information), we consider those with partial information (e.g., they have full information on a/some relationships, but they miss the gender of partners in some others).

In particular, regarding gender of partners, in the DHS there are four possible answer options: *man*, *woman*, *transgender man* (n = 104) and *transgender woman* (n = 18). We consider woman and transgender women together, as well as men and transgender men together. In the case of Germany, gender of partner can be *Woman*, *Man* or *Other/Non-binary*, although we do not consider this last category because of the small number of observations (n = 29 of current and previous partners, considering the final LGB sample) and the impossibility of comparison with the other two countries. We provide some descriptive statistics of respondents with a Other/Non-binary partner in Appendix (Table B).

To account for the presence of children, we look at the total number of children ever had, and, at the reported years of birth of children. In the case of men in Colombia, years of birth of children are not provided (only year of birth of last child), preventing us from

[5] Respondents could additionally select the options *Transgender woman* or *Transgender man* (n=38). Given the low number of observations, and the impossibility to conduct a separate analysis, we exclude these observations.

looking at parenthood among LGB* men in Colombia in some models. We set the age at which individuals become at risk of first birth at 15 years old, to account for early transitions into parenthood expected especially in Colombia.

We additionally use the *urban* vs. *rural* area of residence as control variable in the models. In the case of Norway, this variable was not available, and we therefore group the regions following the January 2025 classification of Statistics Norway[6].

Analytical Strategy

To understand the prevalence of singlehood across countries, we first look at the cumulative probability of transitioning into cohabitation among LGB individuals with Kaplan-Meier estimates, and compare these with the ones of heterosexual respondents. Respondents were at risk of entering a same- or different-gender cohabitation starting from age 15, and censored at their age at the time of the survey if they did not form a cohabiting union. Secondly, we provide a description of co-residential unions trajectories and gender composition of couples of LGB people by reconstructing whether respondents have only been in same-gender or different-gender cohabiting relationships, or both, or none. Thirdly, we use competing risks event history models, named Fine-Grey models (Fine and Grey 1999), to estimate whether the risk of entering a same-gender or different-gender union has changed across cohorts within countries. We focus on cumulative incidence curves (from the Cumulative Incidence Function) in the main text and report Fine-Grey competing risk regressions in the Appendix to account for statistical significance.

For parenthood, we first look at Kaplan-Meier models for transition to parenthood. Subsequently, we look at the distribution of LGB respondents with children across the different co-residential trajectories.

Throughout the paper we do not apply sample weights, as the use of sample weights in studies on sexual identity is underdeveloped. None of the datasets provides specific weights for SOGI (Sexual Orientation Gender Identity) questions or accounts for sexual identity when constructing the weights. Instead, we control for the main socio-demographic characteristics in our analysis, namely gender, age, cohort, urban/rural or region of residence.

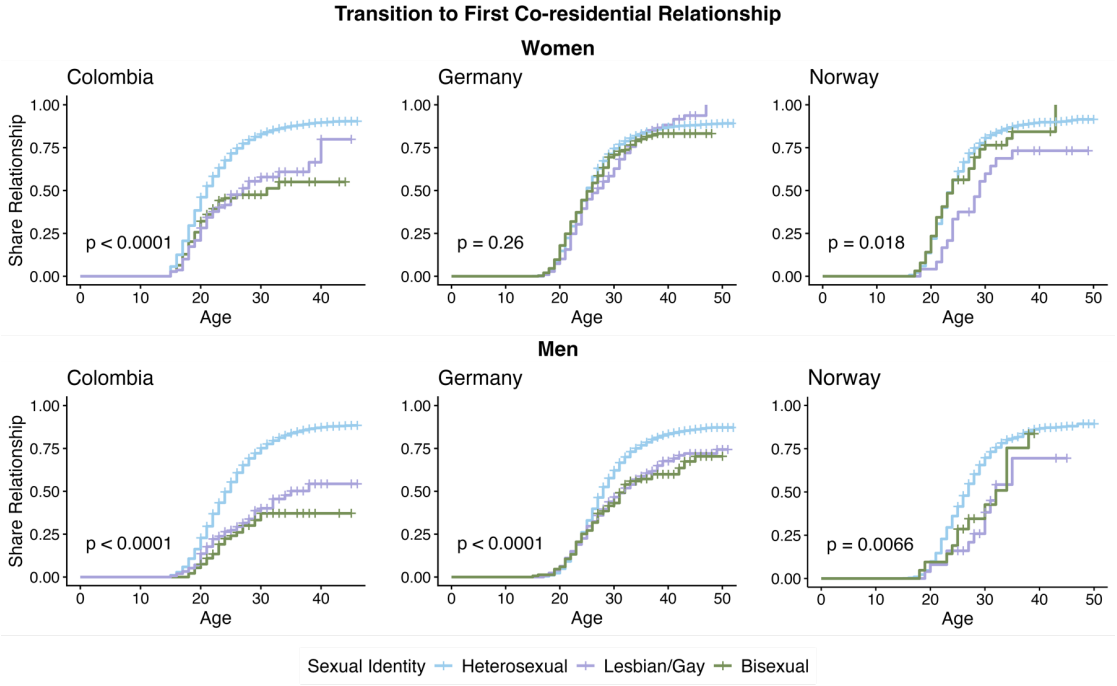
Results

Partnership

[6] Northern Norway (Troms og Finnmark, Nordland), Trøndelag, Western Norway (Møre og Romsdal, Vestland), Agder and Rogaland, Oslo and Akershus (where we also include Viken, a county that existed from 2020 to 2024), Eastern Norway (Innlandet, Østfold, Buskerud, Vestfold og Telemark). https://www.ssb.no/klass/klassifikasjoner/106 Last visited: 02/07/2025.

We start the result section by looking at the cumulative probability of transitioning into a co-residential union by sexual identity and gender (Figure 1). In each country, LGB men show lower cumulative probabilities of cohabiting compared to heterosexual men, with a particularly pronounced gap in Colombia. Among women, the cumulative probabilities of transitioning into a co-residential relationship are overall similar – though slightly lower – than the ones of heterosexual women in Germany and Norway. Once again, Colombia stands out: bisexual women report significantly lower shares of co-residential union at age 45, followed by lesbian/gay women. These results align partially with previous literature, which finds that LGB people are generally less likely to enter co-residential union than their heterosexual counterparts. However, the similarities in co-residential union patterns between LGB and heterosexual women in Germany and Norway – despite not always statistically significant according to the log-rank test – mirror the findings of Badgett et al. (2021) for the USA and point to the need for further investigation.

Figure 1. Kaplan-Meier for transition into a co-residential union for women and men in Colombia (*n*=43,569), Germany (*n*=14,329) and Norway (*n*=2,694), by sexual identity.



Note: maximum age in Colombia is lower than the other countries because at the time of interview (2015) older respondents (born in 1970) were 45 years old.

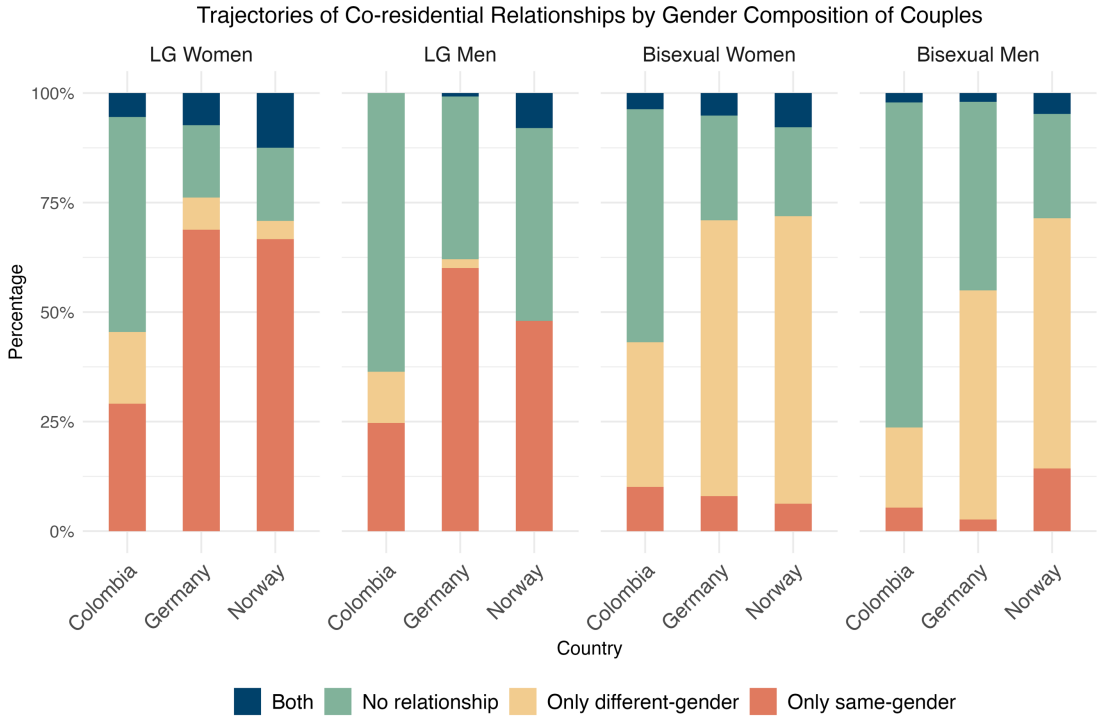
Figure 2 summarizes the relationship trajectories of LGB* people in terms of the gender of the partner(s) they had. This includes all co-residential relationships until the time of interview (see Appendix Tables C, D and E for detailed percentages and absolute numbers). Mixed trajectories, where people co-resided with both different-gender and same-gender partners represent a minority across all countries, although these appear relatively more common among women and in Germany and Norway. These proportions

are relatively low across gay, lesbian, and bisexual people, even though shares are relatively higher among lesbian women.

Having only different-gender co-residential partners is observed for a small but non-negligible share of gay and lesbian people in Colombia but rare for gay and lesbian people in Germany, and especially Norway. Having only co-resided with same-gender partners is experienced by a minority of gay and lesbian people in Colombia, but dominant in this group elsewhere. Most variation across countries is observed for trajectories where people had no co-residential partner at all in their lives so far, and it is particularly prevalent among gay and lesbian people in Colombia. For bisexual people, the results turn around: relatively high shares of people who only lived with different-gender partners or remained single, and a small share having only had same-gender partners.

From this figure, it is difficult to see how mixed trajectories relate to bisexual respondents, where we would expect them to be most common. In Appendix (Figure A), we show co-residential union trajectories by cohort. In the older cohort, mixed trajectories are concentrated primarily among bisexual women in Germany and Norway. In contrast, in the younger cohort, these trajectories appear to be more evenly distributed among bisexual women and men.

Figure 2. Trajectories of co-residential union among LGB people in Colombia (*n*=466), Germany (*n*= 864), and Norway (*n*= 134).



However, the results of Figure 2 are hard to interpret directly as there are important differences in the average age of the different groups compared. The most important takeaway from Figure 2 is that mixed trajectories are relatively uncommon. This also

allows us to focus on first co-residential relationships, as the gender of the first partner will be indicative of a person's trajectory in terms of gender composition, and use event-history models to account for differences in age in timing. Figure 3 to 5 present results from competing risks models of entering a same- or different-gender co-residential union for different groups and countries. Results are split by cohort to see if same-gender partnering became more common across cohorts, and if so, if this reduced different-gender partnering or singlehood trajectories. Variation across countries and cohorts is relatively similar for men and women (Appendix, Figures B, C and D), hence, we show results for men and women together in the main text.

Several observations stand out. First of all, same-gender partnering is more common than different-gender partnering for gay and lesbian people across countries, even though in Colombia both types of trajectories are equally prevalent. Secondly, the prevalence of same-gender partnering appears relatively stable across cohorts, but we do see a reduction across cohorts in different-gender co-residential relationships among gay and lesbian people in Colombia and Norway, but note that these cohort differences are not statistically significant in a Fine-Grey regression models[7] presented in the Appendix Tables F, G and H. For bisexual people, we see the opposite: high levels of co-residential relationships with different-gender partners, and relatively low levels of same-gender partnering, across groups and cohorts.

Figure 3. Competing risk of entering a same-gender or different-gender co-residential relationship in two cohorts of LGB respondents in Colombia (*n*=466).

[7] Using different sets of Kaplan-Meier estimates (or Cox regressions) to estimate each competing cause tends to overstate the incidence rates of a specific cause when other competing causes are present (Klein 2010). Instead, Fine-Grey sub distribution hazard model allows for modelling the effect of covariates on the Cumulative Incidence Function. Additionally, these models assume that all covariates have constant effects over time and give more weight to the event of entering a same/different-gender couples than to the event of censoring.

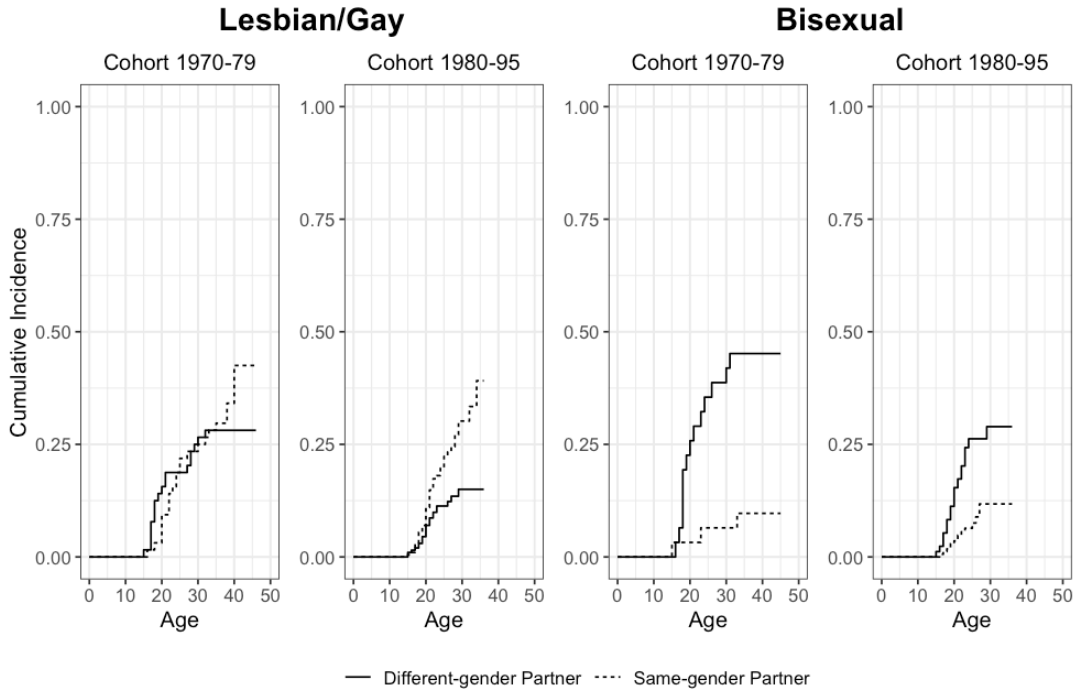


Figure 4. Competing risks of entering a same-gender or different-gender co-residential relationship in two cohorts of LG respondents in Germany (n=864).

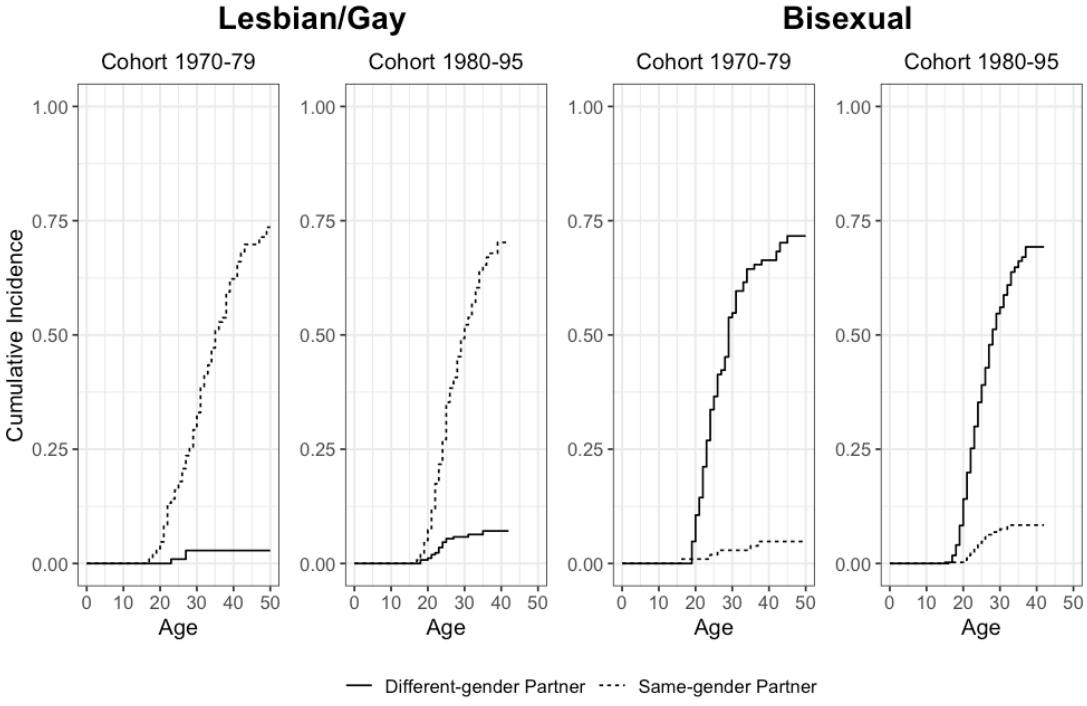
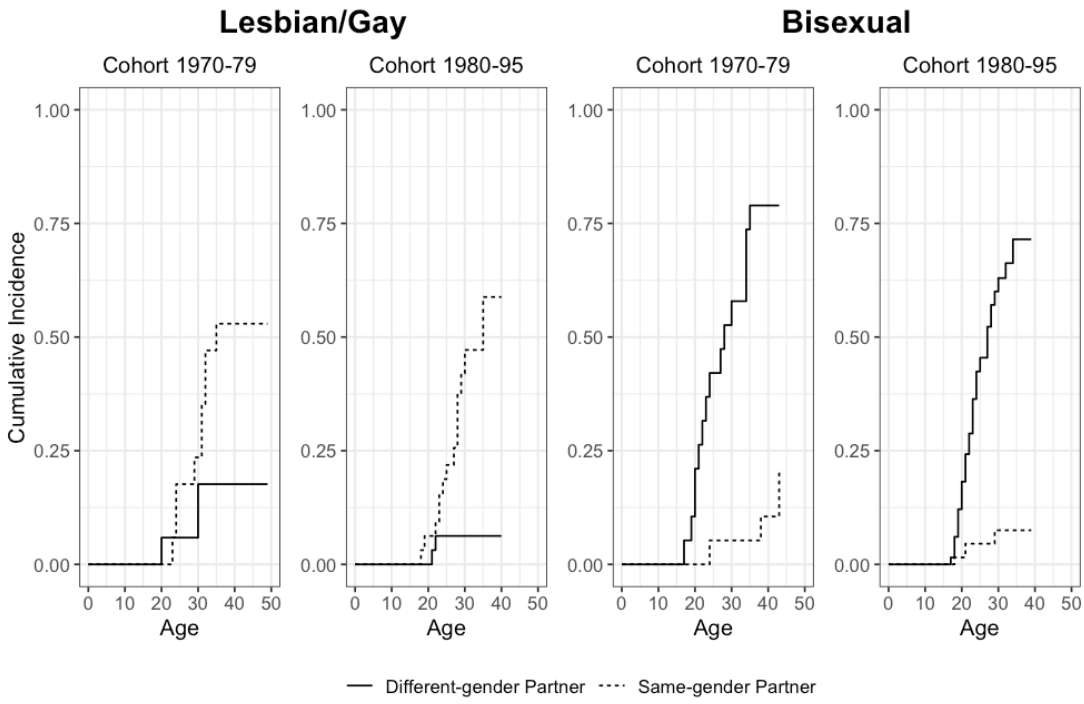


Figure 5. Competing risks of entering a same-gender or different-gender co-residential relationship in two cohorts of LG respondents in Norway (*n*=134).

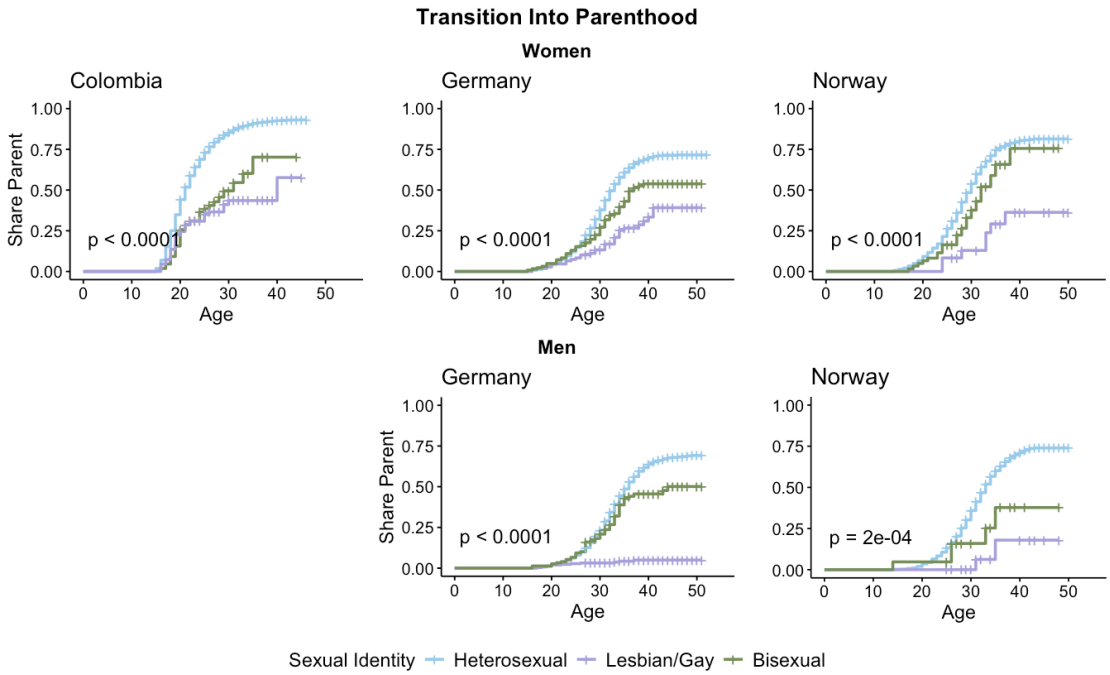


Parenthood

Figure 6 show Kaplan-Meier estimates of the cumulative probability of transitioning into parenthood by country and gender. We exclude men in Colombia from this analysis, as it was not possible to reconstruct their first transition into parenthood with the available data.

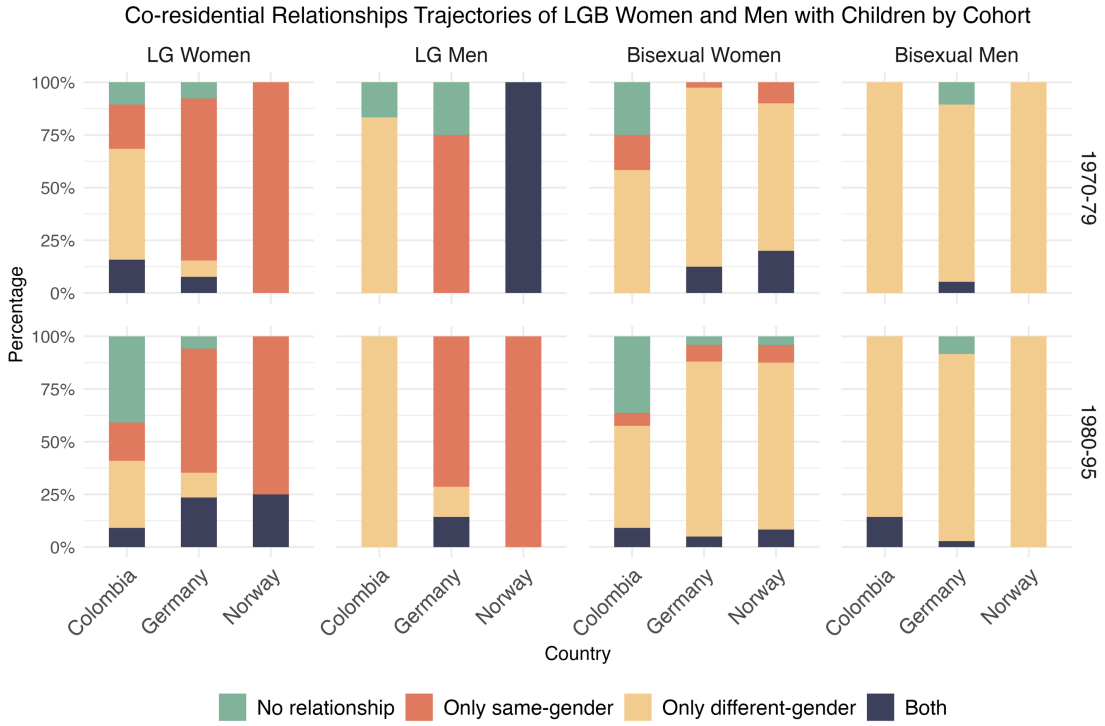
Bisexual women show cumulative probabilities of parenthood above 50%, and in some cases, their shares are close (Germany) or very close (Norway) to the ones of heterosexual women. As expected, LG women display lower probabilities of transitioning into parenthood. In Colombia, over a half of LG women become a parent, while in the other two countries, the cumulative incidence falls below the 50% threshold. Instead, LG men show consistently low probabilities of transitioning into parenthood (below 20%), in line with previous research. It is particularly low in Germany (nearly zero), highlighting the persistent obstacles to parenthood faced by LGB men, even in socially and legally progressive contexts. Bisexual men in Germany exhibit patterns more similar to bisexual women in the same country, with cumulative probabilities lower than heterosexual counterparts but still around 50%. In Norway, however, bisexual men show significant lower probabilities of transitioning into parenthood compared to heterosexual men.

Fig 6. Kaplan-Meier estimates of transition into parenthood in Colombia, Germany, and Norway, by sexual identity and gender. Colombian men excluded.



We next examine co-residential trajectories (no relationships, only same-gender, only different-gender, both) across cohorts among respondents with children (Figure 7; see also Appendix Table I). Across countries and cohorts, childlessness is prevalent in the younger cohort for each combination of gender and sexual identity. Beyond this, trajectories across cohorts are largely stable in all of the countries. Most bisexual respondents with children had only ever been in different-gender co-residential relationships, a pattern also seen among LG respondents in Colombia – especially for men in the older cohort. In contrast, LG women with children in Germany and Norway report in most cases only same-gender cohabitations. Some cohort variations emerge: in Colombia, more LG women in the younger cohort have children without any history of cohabitation, while in Norway, LG men with children shift from exclusively mixed trajectories in the older cohort, to only same-gender co-residential unions in the younger ones. Notably, in Colombia a non-negligible share of women with children report never having entered a co-residential union across all cohorts.

Figure 7. Trajectories of co-residential unions by gender composition of couples by cohort (1970-79, 1980-95) for LGB respondents with children in Colombia (*n*=466), Germany (*n*= 864), and Norway (*n*= 134). Respondents without children (*No children*) are included for comparison.



Note: Colombia Cohort 1970-79 (16 LG women, 6 LG men, 12 bisexual women, 6 bisexual men), Colombia Cohort 1980-85 (22 LG women, 8 LG men, 43 bisexual women, 7 bisexual men), Germany Cohort 1970-79 (13 LG women, 4 LG men, 40 bisexual women, 19 bisexual men), Germany Cohort 80-85 (17 LG women, 7 LG men, 100 bisexual women, 36 bisexual men), Norway Cohort 1970-79 (3 LG women, 2 LG men, 10 bisexual women, 3 bisexual men), Norway Cohort 1980-95 (4 LG women, 1 LG men, 24 bisexual women, 2 bisexual men).

Robustness analysis

We conducted some additional analysis that include the category *Other* sexual identity for Germany and Norway. We refrained to do so in the main analysis, as the surveys offer limited information about what this category represents, there are several possibilities for misinterpretation, and the sample sizes are small. In Appendix, we provide Kaplan-Meier curves for transition into first co-residential union (Figure E), co-residential trajectories (Tables J and K), and Kaplan-Meier estimates for transition into parenthood (Figure F).

Always regarding parenthood, the datasets of Germany and Norway include a variable that help better frame the parenthood trajectories of LGB people: who the other parent of each reported child is (current partner, one of the reported former partners, a non-reported former partner, or other). Therefore, for these two countries, we can look at the parenthood trajectories by gender composition of couples, trying to understand whether LGB people exclusively had children with same-gender, different-gender or both partners (Appendix, Tables L and M). Interestingly, we find no mixed trajectories. We therefore focus on the first reported child only, as a mirror of the parenthood trajectories (Figure G in Appendix). We confirm once again the low number of transitions into parenthood for all the groups analysed, in particular LG men (over 90% in both countries). Becoming first time parent with a different-gender partner is prevalent among bisexual respondents

in both countries. LG respondents in Germany present more variety in trajectories, although missing information (e.g., incomplete entry, invalid answer) is not negligible. For LG women in Norway, instead, we see the prevalence of same-gender parenting trajectories.

Finally, we explore the gender composition of cohabiting couples only among LGB respondents who reported at least two co-residential relationships. This decision serves two purposes. First, the main analysis of co-residential trajectories also includes respondents with incomplete trajectories (e.g., those with full data on some relationships but missing partner gender in others). Second, this restriction helps account for the age-related compositional issues by including only respondents who had the opportunity to experience mixed trajectories. In Appendix, Figure H displays the distribution of gender composition of couples (only same-gender, only different-gender, both) for respondents in the three countries, while Tables N, O and P report the absolute numbers. We do not find substantial differences with the trajectories of our main analysis: a prevalence of same-gender cohabitations among LG people, and a prevalence of different-gender one among bisexual women and men.

Discussion

Family formation dynamics of LGB* people have been long overlooked at in demographic research. This study tried to provide new insights on the cohabitation trajectories and on the gender composition of couples among the LGB population in Colombia, Germany and Norway. In general, we found co-residential relationships and parenthood rates in line with those reported by previous literature on the LGB population (Bohr & Lengerer 2024; Carpenter & Gates 2008; Waite et al. 2021), and lower to the ones found for the general one (Bellani et al. 2017). We tried to understand the possible impact that social acceptance and evolving legal frameworks may have on LGB* family formation dynamics, within and between these countries. As previous research has highlighted, the decision to form established relationships is shaped both by individual characteristics and by broader contextual constraints (Cortina and Festy 2020). The similarities in the results of Germany and Norway, contrasted with the consistently different pattern in Colombia where LGB people (especially men) are consistently at lower risk of entering co-residential unions, underscores the important role of contextual constraints. Indeed, our results provide several points for discussion.

First, our findings indicate that trajectories involving only *same-gender co-residential relationships* among lesbian and gay individuals are most prevalent in countries with higher social acceptance of LGBTQ* identities, namely Germany and Norway. In contrast, Colombia shows the highest proportion of different-gender co-residential relationships among LG individuals. This pattern suggests that in more supportive social contexts – where discrimination is relatively low – individuals are more likely to openly form same-gender partnerships. In these contexts, the perceived "costs" of entering a

same-gender relationships may be lower than those associated with remaining single or engaging in unwanted different-gender relationships, given the reduced risk of stigma and discrimination.
Related to this first point, among bisexual individuals we observed a higher prevalence of *mixed* co-residential trajectories in Germany and Norway compared to Colombia. This further supports the idea that greater social acceptance fosters broader a wider diversity of partnership pathways, highlighting the broader role of social context and discrimination in shaping LGB family formation and relationship dynamics.

Finally, when turning to singlehood – which is most common among LGB individuals in Colombia – our findings again highlight the influence of social acceptance on partnership dynamics. Along with the comparatively higher share of different-gender partnerships in Colombia, this pattern suggests that in less supportive contexts, remaining single or partnering only with different-gender partner may serve as strategies to mitigate stigma and avoid discrimination. However, it remains difficult to disentangle whether lower levels of same-gender partnering reflect a substitution toward singlehood or toward different-gender relationships, especially considering that LGB individuals, on average, report similar desires and expectations for (long-term) relationships as heterosexual individuals (Frost 2011; Hank and Wetzel 2018).

For bisexual individuals, our results suggest that singlehood is especially prevalent – echoing findings from the UK (Ophir et al. 2023) and the USA, where bisexual men are more likely to be single than gay men, though bisexual women are less likely to be single than lesbian women (Badgett et al. 2021). In our study, this result maty partly reflect the younger age composition of bisexual respondents, many of whom might not have yet experienced co-residential relationships. Additionally, as suggested by previous research (Ophir et al. 2023), experiences of biphobia and double marginalisation – from both lesbian and gay, and heterosexual people – may impose further constraints, leading some bisexual individuals to either remain single or form different-gender unions only as a strategy to mitigate exposure to discrimination.

These dynamics – the younger age composition and the double marginalisation – could also explain why *mixed* trajectories appear more common among lesbian and gay respondents than among bisexual ones. As for the younger age of bisexual individuals, it might be that older cohorts of lesbian and gay people might have cohabited with different-gender partners earlier in life due to stigma and heteronormative pressures, whereas bisexuality is more common among younger cohorts (England et al., 2016; Twenge et al., 2024), that may not yet have had opportunities to co-reside with partners of different genders. With respect to stigma and double marginalisation, it is noteworthy that mixed trajectories are relatively uncommon among bisexual people across *all* three countries. This finding raises important questions on the partnership dynamics of bisexual people. Are bisexual individuals disproportionately affected by stigma – even in socio-legal and culturally supportive contexts – or could this pattern reflect differences in relationship stability? If co-residential partnerships tend to be more stable and longer lasting, we might

observe fewer serial cohabitation trajectories. Further research should therefore investigate relationship stability and patterns of serial cohabitation within the LGB* population, as these factors are likely central to understanding broader family formation dynamics.

A second key finding concerns evolving legal frameworks and cohort changes. Unexpectedly, across all three countries, we find no substantial or statistically significant increase in first same-gender partnering across cohorts among lesbian and gay individuals. In Colombia, however, despite the relative stability in same-gender partnering, our results indicate a decrease in the risk of entering different-gender co-residential relationships across cohorts. This trend is not observed in Norway and Germany, where lesbian and gay individuals remain considerably at higher risk of first transitioning into same-gender relationships.

Given the notable legal advancements in these countries – particularly the extension of heteronormative family formation milestones such as same-gender marriage in Germany and Colombia – we expected to observe a greater increase in having a *first* co-residing same-gender partner over time. The absence of significant cohort change in Norway appears more understandable, as legal recognition of same-gender unions and parenting rights were already established when the older cohort was still within their prime family formation years. In contrast, Germany shows no evidence of cohort change despite substantial legal progress and despite earlier research documenting increases in overall same-gender cohabitation (Bohr and Lengerer 2024), while Colombia exhibits only limited variation across cohorts.

One possible explanation is that greater legal recognition and increasing social acceptance may not necessarily directly translate into higher rates of same-gender partnering. Instead, these developments might reduce the social pressure for LGB individuals to conform to cis-heteronormative trajectories, enabling a broader diversity of relationship and family forms to emerge.

Finally, we turn to considerations on parenthood. We find that parenthood is most prevalent among individuals with only different-gender trajectories, particularly among bisexual people and lesbian and gay individuals in Colombia. In contrast, in Germany and Norway, parenthood among lesbian and gay individuals is primarily observed within same-gender cohabitations or within mixed trajectories.

Previous research has suggested that many LGB people – especially those from older cohorts – became parents through earlier different-gender relationships and later re-partnered with someone of the same gender (Gates 2013, 2015). They further suggested that this pattern may be changing among younger cohorts (Gates 2015). Yet, our data reveal very few LGB individuals with children who reported mixed co-residential trajectories – except for LG men in Norway – regardless of the cohort. These findings raise important questions about the pathways to parenthood within the LGB* population,

including the role of step-families, co-parenting arrangements, and other less visible and understudied family arrangements. Future research should further explore this diversity to better understand family formation processes among LGB* individuals.

For bisexual people, the higher prevalence of parenthood in different-gender only trajectories is unsurprising, as access to parenthood through this route remains more straightforward across contexts. Among lesbian and gay individuals, however, the contrast between Colombia and the two European countries is more revealing. Although same-gender parenthood is in principle legally accessible in all three countries, the actual accessibility of specific pathways to parenthood – such as IVF, adoption, gestational surrogacy – remains uneven. In Colombia, legal and social recognition of same-gender parenthood is relatively recent compared to Germany and Norway. Moreover, Colombia continues to exhibit higher levels of discrimination and stigmatisation toward non-heterosexual identities (Choi et al 2020; Nieves 2018; Nieves-Lugo et al. 2020). As a result, parenthood in Colombia may still be more easily attainable through different-gender unions, reflecting persistent structural and cultural barriers.

Economic resources might also play an important role here, particularly for LG men. In Germany and Norway, access to gestational surrogacy is prohibited, and adoption remains complex and relatively uncommon. One might therefore expect parenthood among LG men to occur primarily within different-gender trajectories; yet, our data show no such cases. This absence may indicate that some LG men pursued parenthood abroad, where gestational surrogacy is permitted. By contrast, Colombian LG men report children exclusively within different-gender cohabitation trajectories, likely reflecting more limited access to alternative routes to parenthood.

Among the limitations of this study, we highlight the relatively young age composition of our sample – particularly within the younger cohort – which may have limited our ability to capture individuals who have not yet had the opportunity to enter a co-residential relationship. Although we partly address this issue through an additional analysis restricted to respondents with at least two co-residential unions, future research including cohorts with complete family formation histories would help to strengthen our findings and uncover potential variation across cohorts that we were not able to capture.

Moreover, this study focused exclusively on co-residential relationships. Considering the trajectories and gender composition of *non-co-residential* relationships could reveal a different picture – perhaps showing lower levels of singlehood or greater diversity in the gender composition of couples and in relationships forms, as LGB individuals may pursue alternative, less conservative partnership trajectories. Future research should therefore broaden the focus to include *non-co-residential* relationships, in order to better capture a more extensive spectrum of LGB relationship trajectories and family formation dynamics.

In addition, we were only partially able to look at the actual gender composition of couple of parents, and understand whether LGB people had children only with same-gender, only with different-gender or with both partners. Collocating each child within a relationship through the years of birth would have prevented us to correctly account for step and adopted children or more complex family compositions, for instance. However, relying on the presence of children only proved to be a more robust choice for this study, since it allowed us to account for parenthood across all the countries analysed. Future research with more suitable data should address these issues to advance research on LGB parenthood and answer unanswered longstanding questions, such as whether we see an increase of same-gender parenthood in the younger cohorts (Gates 2012b).

Despite these and other limitations, we were able to provide a thorough description of the gender composition of LGB people's cohabitation trajectories across three different contexts. This paper encompasses one of the first evidence of co-residential relationships (and parenthood) dynamics among the LGB population across countries and cohorts. Our results underline that contextual constraints are relevant elements to account for when looking at partnership dynamics among the LGB* population.

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Appendix

Descriptive Tables of Other/Non-binary respondents and of Respondents with Other/Non-binary partners

Table A. Respondents with Other gender identity: shares in a relationship, and shares with children for LGB respondents in Germany (*n*=30) and Norway (*n*=5).

	% not in a relationship	% in a relationship	% with children	Total
Norway				
Other gender identity	20% (1)	80% (4)	20% (1)	100% (5)
Germany				
Other gender identity/Non-binary	47% (14)	53% (16)	23% (7)	100% (30)

Table B. Respondents' sexual identities if the **current** partner was labelled as *Other gender identity*. Germany (*n*=14).

	Respondents Sexual Identity				
	Lesbian/Gay	Bisexual	Other sexual identity	Heterosexual	Total
Non-binary/Other gender identity partner	7% (1)	50% (7)	7% (1)	36% (5)	100% (14)

Trajectories of co-residential relationships

Table C. Partnership. Gender composition of cohabiting couples among LGB people in Colombia (*n*= 466).

	LG W	LG M	BI W	BI M
No relationship	49.1% (54)	63.6% (98)	53.2% (58)	74.2% (69)
Only same-gender	29.1% (32)	24.7% (38)	10.1% (11)	5.4% (5)
Only different-gender	16.4% (18)	11.7% (18)	33.0% (36)	18.3% (17)
Both	5.5% (6)	0	3.7% (4)	2.2% (2)
Total	100% (110)	100% (154)	100% (109)	100% (93)

Table D. Gender composition of cohabiting couples among LGB* people in Germany (*n*= 864).

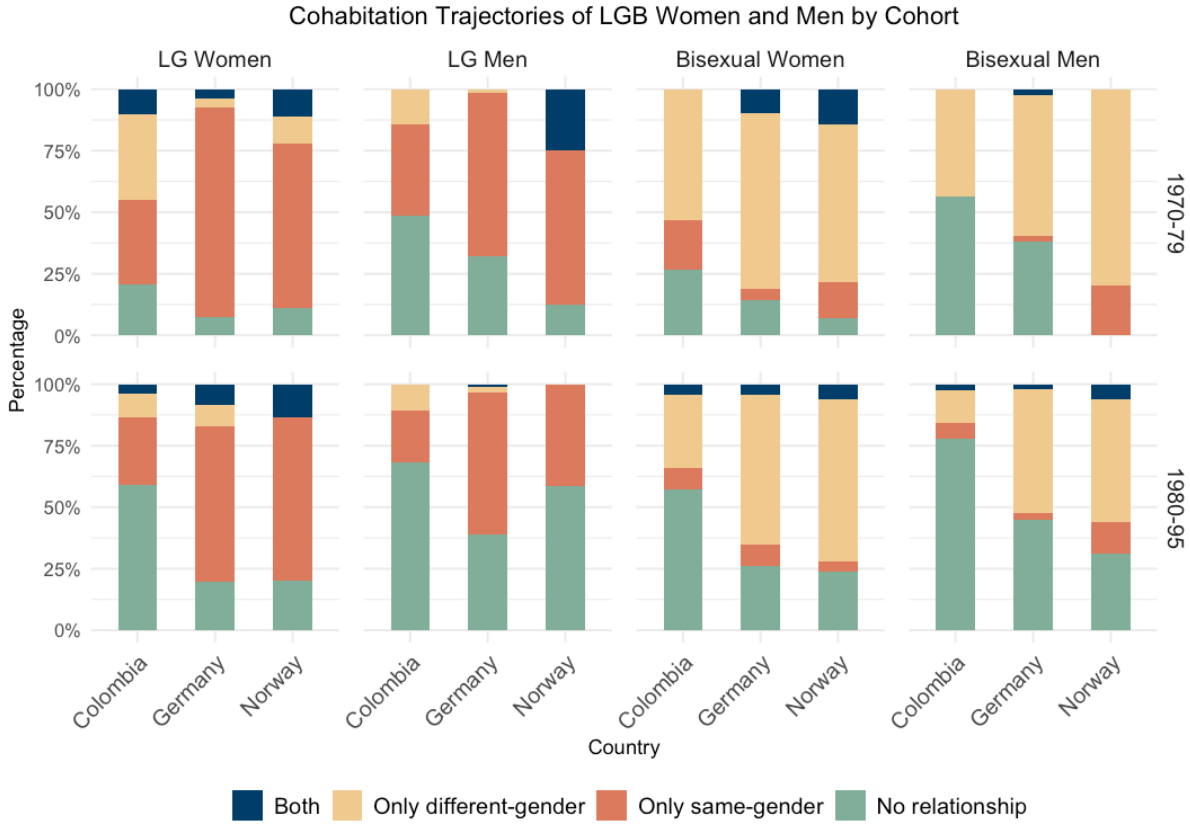
	LG W	LG M	BI W	BI M
No relationship	16.5% (18)	37.1% (94)	23.9% (84)	43.1% (65)
Only same-gender	68.8% (75)	60.1% (152)	8.0% (28)	2.6% (4)
Only different-gender	7.3% (8)	2.0% (5)	63.0% (221)	52.3% (79)
Both	7.3% (8)	0.8% (2)	5.1% (18)	2.0% (3)
Total	100% (109)	100% (253)	100% (351)	100% (151)

Table E. Gender composition of cohabiting couples among LGB* people in Norway (*n*= 134).

	LG W	LG M	BI W	BI M
No relationship	16.7% (4)	44.0% (11)	20.3% (13)	23.8% (5)
Only same-gender	66.7% (16)	48.0% (12)	6.3% (4)	14.3% (3)
Only different-gender	4.2% (1)	0	65.6% (42)	57.1% (12)
Both	12.5% (3)	8.0% (2)	7.8% (5)	4.8% (1)
Total	100% (24)	100% (25)	100% (64)	100% (21)

Partnership Trajectories by Cohort

Figure A. Cohabitation trajectories among LGB people in Colombia (*n*=466), Germany (*n*= 864), and Norway (*n*= 134) by cohort.



Note: **Colombia**: cohort 1970-79 (29 LG women, 35 LG men, 15 bisexual women, 16 bisexual men), cohort 1980-95 (81 LG women, 119 LG men, 94 bisexual women, 77 bisexual men). **Germany**: cohort 1970-79 (27 LG women, 78 LG men, 63 bisexual women, 42 bisexual men), cohort 1980-95 (82 LG women, 175 LG men, 288 bisexual women, 109 bisexual men). **Norway**: cohort 1970-79 (9 LG women, 8 LG men, 14 bisexual women, 5 bisexual men), cohort 1980-95 (15 LG women, 17 LG men, 50 bisexual women, 16 bisexual men).

Competing Risks Cumulative Incidences by Gender

Figure B. Competing risks of entering a same-gender or different-gender co-residential relationship in two cohorts of LG respondents by gender in Colombia (*n*=466).

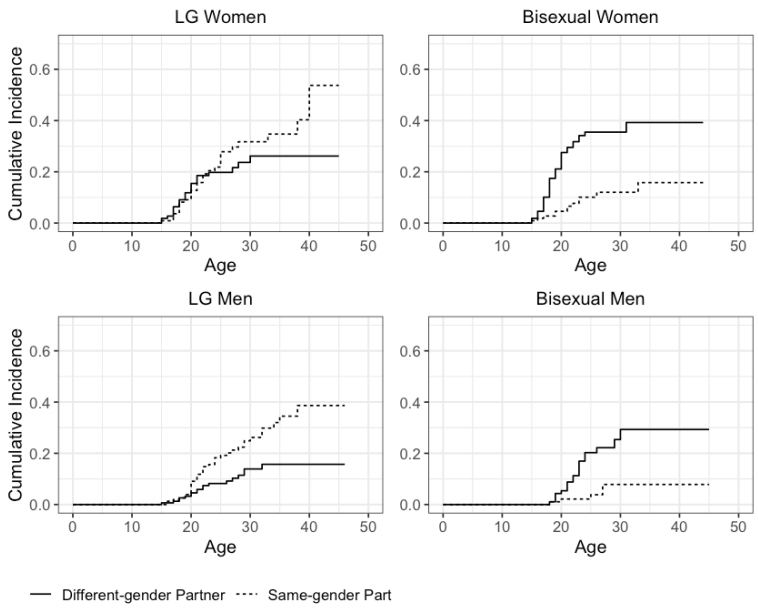


Figure C. Competing risks of entering a same-gender or different-gender co-residential relationship in two cohorts of LG respondents by gender in Germany (*n*=864).

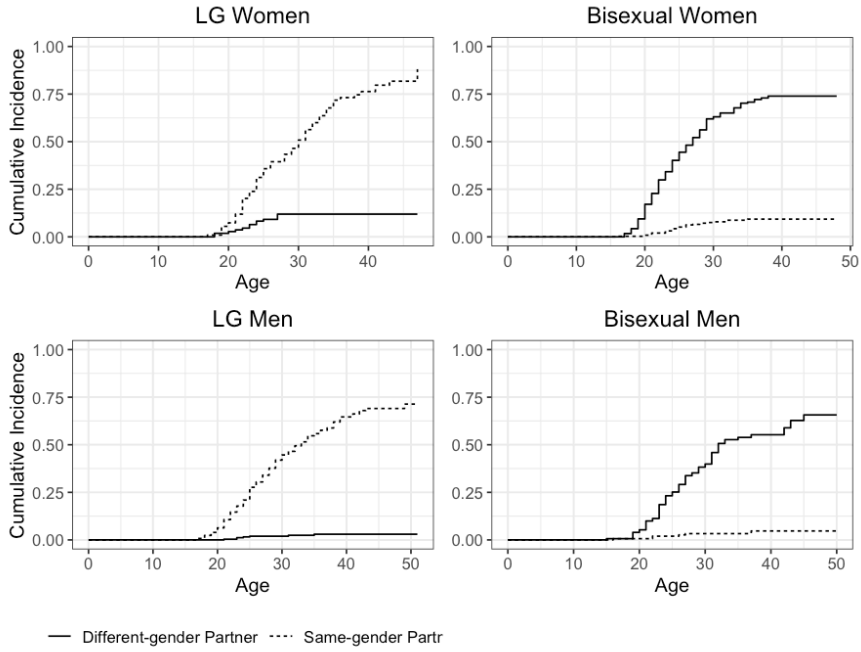
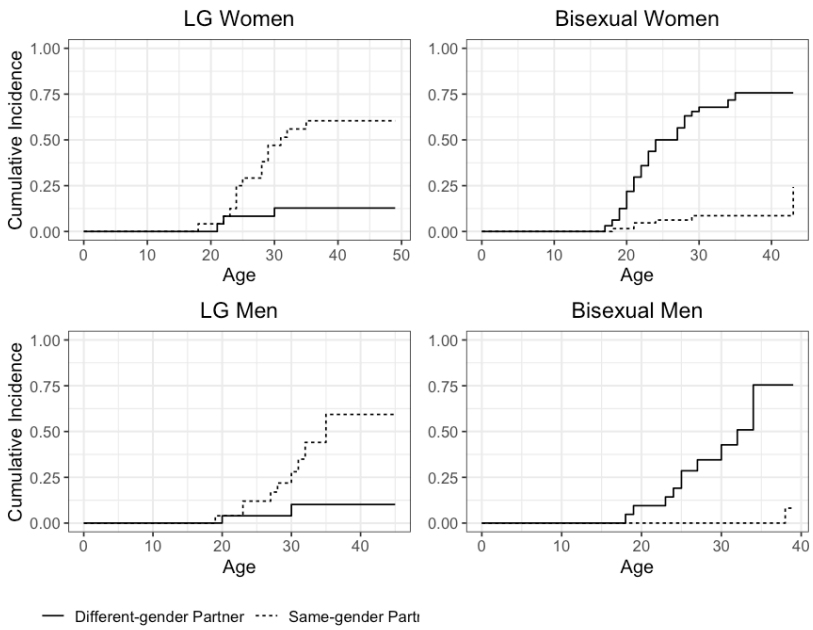


Figure D. Competing risks of entering a same-gender or different-gender co-residential relationship in two cohorts of LG respondents by gender in Norway (*n*=134).



Fine-Grey Competing Risks Models for Partnership

Table F. Subhazard ratios from Fine-Grey competing risks models of entering a (1) same-gender cohabitation, and (2) different-gender cohabitation. DHS Colombia 2015 (standard errors in parentheses).

SHR Colombia

	Same-gender		Different-gender	
	Model 0	Model 1	Model 0	Model 1
LG (ref)				
Bisexual	0.29*** (0.27)	0.27* (0.61)	1.84*** (0.20)	1.43*** (0.37)
Cohort 70-79 (ref)				
Cohort 80-95	0.71 (0.41)	0.70 (0.41)	1.07 (0.38)	0.87 (0.41)
Age	0.96 (0.02)	0.96 (0.02)	1.04 (0.02)	1.04 (0.02)
Men (ref)				
Women	1.44 (0.21)	1.44 (0.21)	2.04 (0.20)	2.03*** (0.23)
Urban (ref)				
Rural	0.26* (0.60)	0.26 (0.60)	3.03 (0.24)	3.09*** (0.23)
Interaction Sexid#Cohort				
Bisexual#Cohort 80-95		1.10 (0.69)		1.47 (0.44)

Log-Pseudo Likelihood	-475	-475	-555	-555
Pseudo Likelihood Ratio Test (df)	36.4 (5)	36.4 (6)	53.6 (5)	54.4 (6)
Number of Events	87	87	99	99
Number of Competing Events	99	99	87	87
Number of Censored cases			280	
Number of Observations			466	

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

Table G. Subhazard ratios from Fine-Grey competing risks models of entering a (1) same-gender cohabitation, and (2) different-gender cohabitation. Germany (standard errors in parentheses).

SHR Germany

	Same-gender		Different-gender	
	Model 0	Model 1	Model 0	Model 1
LG (ref)				
Bisexual	0.06*** (0.19)	0.045*** (0.46)	15.13*** (0.24)	33.18*** (0.59)
Cohort 70-79 (ref)				
Cohort 80-95	0.79 (0.21)	0.76 (0.21)	1.69** (0.02)	4.39* (0.66)
Age	0.96** (0.01)	0.96** (0.01)	1.05** (0.01)	1.04** (0.01)
Men (ref)				
Women	1.39** (0.12)	1.38** (0.12)	1.82*** (0.12)	1.82*** (0.12)
Urban (ref)				
Rural	0.68* (0.19)	0.68* (0.19)	1.04 (0.14)	1.04 (0.14)
Interaction Sexid#Cohort				
Bisexual#Cohort 80-95		1.52 (0.5)		0.36 (0.64)
Log-Pseudo Likelihood	-1548	-1548	-1995	-1993
Pseudo Likelihood Ratio Test (df)	336 (5)	337 (6)	376 (5)	379 (6)
Number of Events	267	267	337	337
Number of Competing Events	337	337	267	267
Number of Censored cases			260	
Number of Observations			864	

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

Table H. Subhazard ratios from Fine-Grey competing risks models of entering a (1) same-gender cohabitation, and (2) different-gender cohabitation. Norway (standard errors in parentheses).

SHR Norway

	Same-gender		Different-gender	
	Model 0	Model 1	Model 0	Model 1
LG (ref)				
Bisexual	0.12*** (0.44)	0.16** (0.60)	10.31*** (0.46)	7.56** (0.61)
Cohort 70-79 (ref)				
Cohort 80-95	0.75 (0.69)	0.85 (0.69)	1.31 (0.43)	0.75 (1.05)
Age	0.99 (0.05)	0.99 (0.05)	1.03 (0.03)	1.03 (0.03)
Men (ref)				
Women	1.39** (0.12)	1.44 (0.41)	1.63* (0.27)	1.61* (0.27)
Region: Agder and Rogaland (ref.)				
Eastern Norway	1.21 (0.97)	1.15 (0.99)	1.40 (0.39)	1.45 (0.39)
Northern Norway	3.63 (0.94)	3.36 (0.95)	0.40* (0.53)	0.42 (0.54)
Oslo and Akershus	3.57 (0.82)	3.38 (0.82)	0.95 (0.36)	0.98 (0.36)
Trøndelag	11.02** (0.92)	9.99 (0.94)	0.21 (1.09)	0.22 (1.09)
Western Norway	1.23 (1.07)	1.20 (1.06)	0.93 (0.51)	0.94 (0.51)
Interaction Sexid#Cohort				
Bisexual#Cohort 80-95		0.62 (0.87)		1.87 (0.98)
Log-Pseudo Likelihood	-117	-116	-239	-239
Pseudo Likelihood Ratio Test (df)	37.7 (9)	38 (10)	56.4 (9)	56.8 (10)
Number of Events	30	30	59	59
Number of Competing Events	59	59	30	30
Number of Censored cases	45			
Number of Observations	134			

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

Parenthood Trajectories

Table I. LGB respondents with and without children by co-residential trajectory.

	No relationship		Only same-gender		Only different-gender		Both		Total
	No children	With children	No children	With children	No children	With children	No children	With children	
Colombia									
LG W	39.1% (43)	10.0% (11)	21.8% (24)	7.3% (8)	0.9% (1)	15.5% (17)	0.9% (1)	4.5% 85)	100% (110)
BI W	39.4% (43)	13.8% (15)	6.4% (7)	3.7% (4)	11.9% (13)	21.1% (23)	0.9% (1)	2.8% (3)	100% (109)
LG M	63.0% (97)	0.6% (1)	24.7% (38)	0	3.2% (5)	8.4% (13)	0	0	100% (154)
BI M	74.2% (69)	0	5.4% (5)	0	5.4% (5)	12.9% (12)	1.1% (1)	1.1% (1)	100% (93)
Germany									
LG W	14.7% (16)	1.8% (2)	50.5% (55)	18.3% (20)	4.6% (5)	2.8% (3)	2.8% (3)	4.6% (5)	100% (109)
BI W	22.8% (80)	1.1% (4)	5.4% (19)	2.6% (9)	29.6% (104)	33.3% (117)	2.3% (8)	2.8% (10)	100% (351)
LG M	36.4% (92)	0.4% (1)	57.3% (145)	3.2% (8)	1.6% (4)	0.4% (1)	0.4% (1)	0.4% (1)	100% (253)
BI M	39.7% (60)	3.3% (5)	2.6% (4)	0	20.5% (31)	31.8% (48)	0.7% (1)	1.3% (2)	100% (151)
Norway									
LG W	16.7% (4)	0	41.7% (10)	25.0% (6)	4.2% (1)	0	8.3% (2)	4.2% (1)	100% (24)
BI W	18.7% (12)	1.6% (1)	1.6% (1)	4.7% (3)	25.0% (16)	40.6% (26)	1.6% (1)	6.3% (4)	100% (64)
LG M	44.0% (11)	0	44.0% (11)	4.0% (1)	0	0	0	8.0% (2)	100% (25)
BI M	23.8% (5)	0	14.3% (3)	0	33.3% (7)	23.8% (5)	4.8% (1)	0	100% (21)

Additional analysis: Other sexual identities

Figure E. Kaplan-Meier estimates for transition into co-residential union for women and men in Colombia (), Germany () and Norway (), by sexual identity (including Other sexual identities).

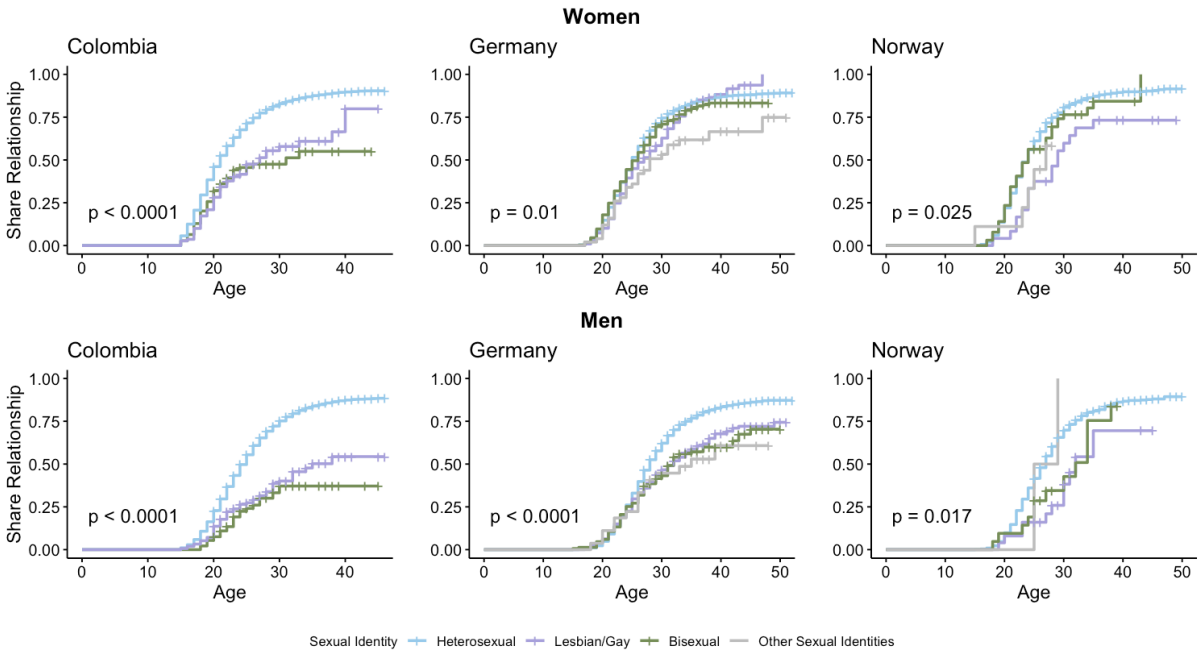


Table J. Gender composition of couples for LGB* people in Germany (*n*= 941). Other sexual identities included.

	LG W	LG M	BI W	BI M	OTHER W	OTHER M
No relationship	16.5% (18)	37.1% (94)	23.9% (84)	43.1% (65)	38.0% (19)	44.4% (12)
Only same-gender	68.8% (75)	60.1% (152)	8.0% (28)	2.6% (4)	4.0% (2)	0
Only different-gender	7.3% (8)	2.0% (5)	63.0% (221)	52.3% (79)	56.0% (28)	55.6% (15)
Both	7.3% (8)	0.8% (2)	5.1% (18)	2.0% (3)	2.0% (1)	0
Total	100% (109)	100% (253)	100% (351)	100% (151)	100% (50)	100% (27)

Table K. Gender composition of couples for LGB* people in Norway (*n*= 145). Other sexual identities included.

	LG W	LG M	BI W	BI M	OTHER W	OTHER M
No relationship	16.7% (4)	44.0% (11)	20.3% (13)	23.8% (5)	44.4% (4)	0
Only same-gender	66.7% (16)	48.0% (12)	6.3% (4)	14.3% (3)	11.1% (1)	0
Only different-gender	4.2% (1)	0	65.6% (42)	57.1% (12)	44.4% (4)	100% (2)
Both	12.5% (3)	8.0% (2)	7.8% (5)	4.8% (1)	0	0
Total	100% (24)	100% (25)	100% (64)	100% (21)	100% (9)	100% (2)

Figure F. Kaplan-Meier transition into parenthood with Other sexual identities. Germany and Norway.

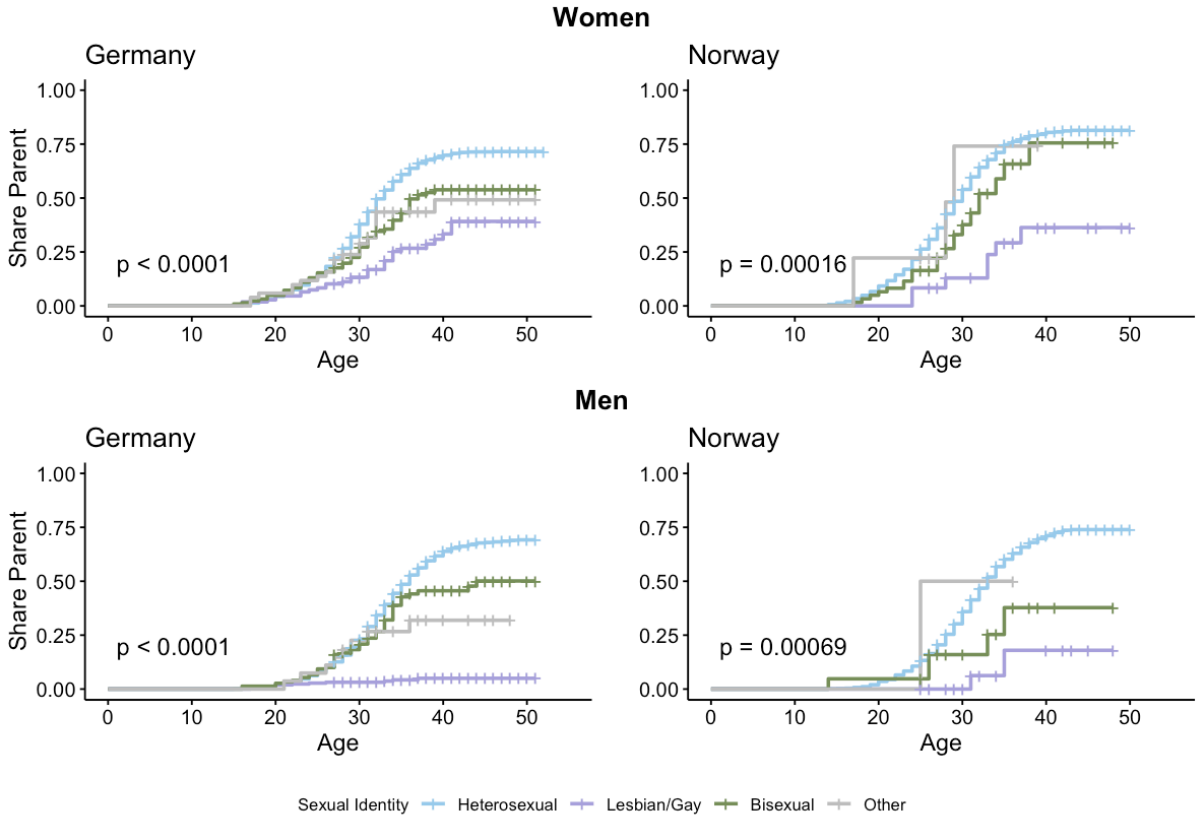


Table L. Parenthood trajectories by gender composition of couples for Germany (*n*=852).

	No children	Only same-gender partners	Only different-gender partners	Both	Other	SGP/Other	DGP/Other	No info	Total
LG W	73.8% (79)	0.9% (1)	4.7% (5)	0	3.7% (4)	0.9% (1)	0	15.9% (17)	100% (107)
BI W	61.7% (211)	0	28.7% (98)	0	4.7% (16)	0	1.5% (5)	3.5% (12)	100% (342)
LG M	95.7% (242)	0.4% (1)	0.8% (2)	0	1.2% (3)	0	0	2.0% (5)	100% (253)
BI M	64.0% (96)	0	26.7% (40)	0	2.7% (4)	0.7% (1)	0.7% (1)	5.3% (8)	100% (150)

*Note: smaller total sample size because of filter for age at first child >14.

Table M. Parenthood trajectories by gender composition of couples for Norway (*n*=130).

	No children	Only same-gender partners	Only different-gender partners	Both	Other	SGP/Other	DGP/Other	No info	Total
LG W	70.8% (17)	29.2% (7)	0	0	0	0	0	0	100% (24)

BI W	48.4% (30)	3.2% (2)	37.1% (23)	0	3.2% (2)	1.6% (1)	3.2% (2)	3.2% (2)	100% (62)
LG M	91.7% (22)	4.2% (1)	4.2% (1)	0	0	0	0	0	100% (24)
BI M	80.0% (16)	0	15.0% (3)	0	0	0	5.0% (1)	0	100% (20)

*Note: smaller total sample size because of filter for age at first child >14.

Figure G. Gender composition of couples at first child of LGB people in Germany (n = 852) and Norway (n = 130).

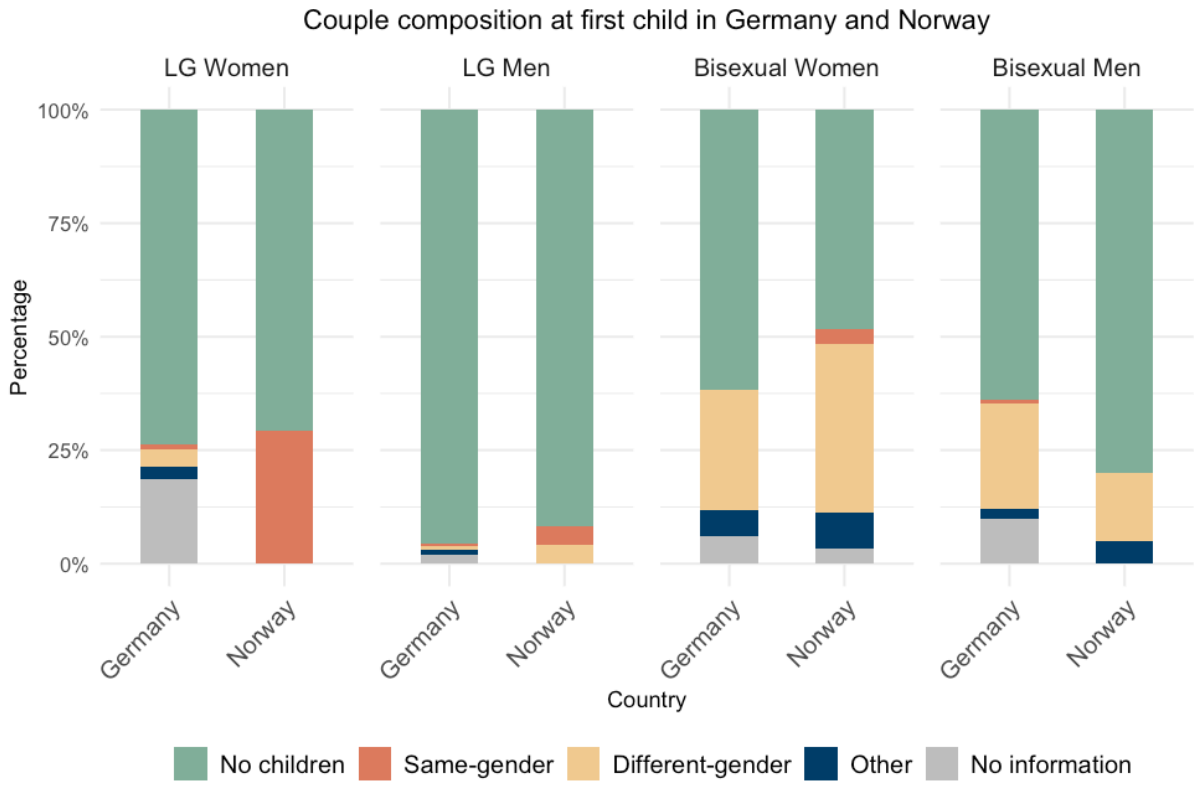


Table N. Partnership trajectories by gender composition of couples for LGB respondents in Colombia with at least two cohabiting relationships (n=72).

	LG W	LG M	BI W	BI M
Only same-gender	57,7% (15)	85,7% (18)	11,8% (2)	0
Only different-gender	19,2% (5)	14,3% (3)	64,7% (11)	75,0% (6)
Both	23,1% (6)	0	23,5% (4)	25,0% (2)
Total	100% (26)	100% (21)	100% (17)	100% (8)

Table O. Partnership trajectories by gender composition of couples for LGB respondents in Germany with at least two cohabiting relationships (n=195).

	LG W	LG M	BI W	BI M
Only same-gender	57,7% (22)	85,7% (18)	11,8% (2)	0
Only different-gender	19,2% (3)	14,3% (3)	64,7% (11)	75,0% (6)
Both	23,1% (8)	0	23,5% (4)	25,0% (2)

Total	100% (33)	100% (40)	100% (98)	100% (24)

Table P. Partnership trajectories by gender composition of couples for LGB respondents in Norway with at least two cohabiting (n=41)

	LG W	LG M	BI W	BI M
Only same-gender	71,4% (5)	66,7% (4)	4,3% (1)	0
Only different-gender	0	0	73,9% (17)	80,0% (4)
Both	28,6% (2)	33,3% (2)	21,7% (5)	20,0% (1)
Total	100% (7)	100% (6)	100% (23)	100% (5)

Figure H. Cohabitation trajectories of LGB respondents with at least two cohabiting partners by gender composition of couples in Colombia (n=72), Germany (n=195), and Norway (n=41).