

The Family Context as a Foundation for Romantic Relationships: A Person-Centered Multi-Informant Longitudinal Study

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This 8-wave person-centered multi-informant study tested whether the quality of parent–adolescent relationships predicted the romantic experiences of young adults and their partners ($N = 374$; 54.8% girls; $M_{\text{age}} = 13.08$ years, $SD_{\text{age}} = 0.48$ at the first measurement wave). Perceptions of parent–adolescent relationships were assessed using adolescent, mother, and father reports. Results show that both young adults and their partners reported the highest levels of support, intimacy, and passion when young adults had an authoritative relationship quality with their parents. A distant parent–adolescent relationship quality, however, predicted the lowest support, intimacy, and passion in romantic relationships. Interestingly, the association between parent–adolescent relationships with the experience of young adults' romantic partners was indirect. Parent–adolescent relationships predicted target young adults' romantic relationship experiences, which predicted partners' romantic relationship experiences. Parent–child relationship quality therefore has far-reaching, yet subtle, effects on later romantic relationships, affecting both young adults and their partners.

Keywords: person-centered, parent–adolescent relationships, romantic relationships

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Establishing satisfactory romantic relationships is a key developmental task in the transition from adolescence to young adulthood (e.g., Soller, 2014). Various influential developmental theories, including attachment theory (Bowlby, 1978) and social–cognitive theories (Bandura, 1977), predict how the family context lays the foundation for later social relationships (e.g., Collins, Welsh, & Furman, 2009). Studies have confirmed that close parent–adolescent relationships predict positive romantic relationships (for an overview, see Meeus, 2016). Current work is limited,

however, in that few studies capture both multiple relational dimensions and multiple perceptions of the parent–adolescent relationship system in predicting later romantic relationship quality (e.g., Scharf & Mayseless, 2001; Walper & Wendt, 2015). This limitation is important, as the nature of family relationships depends on the dynamic interaction and experience patterns of adolescents and their parents (e.g., Bowen, 1974). Family relationships further depend on the balance of different aspects of relationships, such as the levels of support and the levels of power, and how these relational aspects are associated with each other (e.g., Laursen, Furman, & Mooney, 2006). Using a person-centered parent–adolescent relationship typology that combines experiences of adolescents as well as their parents on multiple relational dimensions allows researchers to examine different perspectives and different aspects of the parent–adolescent relationship simultaneously. We use such a parent–adolescent relationship typology to predict later romantic relationship quality using a longitudinal multidimensional and multi-informant study design.

Adolescent Relationship Quality With Parents and Romantic Partners

Adolescents' relationships with parents and romantic partners are both typically conceptualized by some degree of 'support and warmth' and 'power and authority' (e.g., Furman & Buhrmester,

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Hana Hadiwijaya presented this study during her doctoral graduation ceremony and included this study in her dissertation.

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1992). *Intimacy* and *support* refer to the extent that adolescents can turn to their parents or romantic partners to discuss problems, feelings, and doubts. Relations with parents and with romantic partners differ, however, in their power-dynamics/authority. Adolescents' relationships with their parents are typically involuntarily and hierarchical, whereas adolescents' relationships with their romantic partners are typically voluntarily and egalitarian (Laursen, 1996). In addition, parent-adolescent and romantic relationships differ in their permanence and content. Adolescent and early adult romantic relationships are more voluntary and are thus more unstable than relations with parents. In addition, they are characterized by expressions of affection and sexual behavior (e.g., Laursen, 1996). Because of this, central dimensions of romantic relationships include intimacy, passion, and commitment (e.g., Lemieux & Hale, 1999; Madey & Rodgers, 2009).

Two major developmental theoretical perspectives illustrate how the family context lays the foundation for later social relationships. First, the attachment perspective (Bowlby, 1978) states that adolescents' mental representations of relationships (internal working models) predict the quality of romantic relationships during adolescence and young adulthood. These mental representations are built upon their relationship history with their parents during infancy and childhood. Second, the social-cognitive perspective (Bandura, 1977) states that adolescents' relationship history with parents during childhood shapes their future personal relationships through modeling and imitation. Both perspectives thus propose continuity of parent-adolescent relationships with later romantic relationships. For example, a tumultuous parent-adolescent relationship would predict difficulties in romantic relationships (e.g., Walper & Wendt, 2015), whereas a supportive parent-adolescent relationship would predict close romantic relationships (i.e., Seiffge-Krenke, Overbeek, & Vermulst, 2010). For example, adolescents perceiving a supportive relationship with their parents would also learn how to act supportively in a romantic relationship and would therefore be more likely to be supportive of their romantic partner. Partners of such adolescents are likely to perceive this supportive behavior as such and would be likely to reciprocate the support, thereby shaping their romantic relationship into a supportive one.

Evidence of the association between parent-adolescent relationships and adolescents' relationships with their romantic partners depends almost entirely on variable-centered research. Such research generally focuses on singular or multiple individual sources or relational dimensions separately (e.g., Laursen et al., 2006). For example, studies have shown that adolescents perceiving the relationship with their parents as supportive reported being more satisfied with, and committed to, their romantic relationship (e.g., Conger, Cui, Bryant, & Elder, 2000; Scharf & Maysless, 2001; Walper & Wendt, 2015).

However, most past studies have not included perceptions of adolescents, mothers, and fathers on multiple relational dimensions simultaneously in modeling the associations between parent-adolescent relationships and romantic relationships (e.g., Conger et al., 2000; Scharf & Maysless, 2001; Walper & Wendt, 2015). This is a limitation, as experiences in relationships may differ because of individual differences, such as personality (e.g., Robins, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2000) or psychopathology symptoms (for review, see De Los Reyes, Ohannessian, & Racz, 2019). Adolescent and parental perspectives are both relevant, and both should

ideally be included to assess family relationships. Singular self-reports present a limited view of relationships and may introduce several potential biases, such as leniency and social desirability bias (e.g., for review, see Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Additionally, similar to configurations of responsiveness and demandingness that define parenting typologies (e.g., Baumrind, 1991), the nature of parent-adolescent relationships depends on how adolescents and their parents perceive multiple relational aspects at the same time (e.g., Laursen et al., 2006). In relationship research, components of support and power seem to be the most crucial, as these are often used in conceptualizations of parent-adolescent relationships (e.g., De Goede, Branje, & Meeus, 2009; Steinberg & Silk, 2002) and the interpersonal circumplex model of character traits (e.g., Wiggins, 1996). These two components are also comparable with Baumrind's (1991) parenting typology, as the relational component of support is similar to the parenting dimension of responsiveness, and the relational component of power is similar to the parenting dimension of demandingness (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). These relational dimensions can also be configured in a similar manner. For example, a cooperative authoritative relationship is one in which adolescents report high levels of power exerted by parents and parents report low levels of power attributed to their adolescent child, combined with high levels of support as perceived by adolescents from their parents and high levels of support as attributed by parents to their child. A repressive hierarchical relationship is one in which adolescents report high levels of power exerted by parents and parents report low levels of power attributed to their child, combined with low levels of support perceived by adolescents from their parents and low levels of support by parents attributed to their child. Given this complexity, research on the linkages between parent-adolescent relationship quality and romantic relationship outcomes should ideally include different individuals' perspectives on several relationship dimensions simultaneously.

This complexity is most parsimoniously represented using person-centered approaches such as typologies (e.g., Laursen et al., 2006). Such a typology could reflect relationship quality profiles based on multiple relational dimensions reported on by adolescents and their parents. Longitudinal person-centered approaches could additionally capture potential developmental change in parent-adolescent relationship quality over time (e.g., De Goede et al., 2009; Hadiwijaya, Klimstra, Vermunt, Branje, & Meeus, 2017). Using a longitudinal person-centered approach to a multidimensional and multi-informant study design would be ideal to model parent-adolescent relationship associations with romantic relationships.

The few studies that used a longitudinal person-centered approach to study individual differences in parent-adolescent relationship quality have captured the multidimensional nature of such relationships but not different family members' perceptions. For example, Noack and Puschner (1999) derived a parent-adolescent relationship typology from adolescents' perceptions of connectedness and individuation. They identified profiles with (a) stable high levels of connectedness and increasing levels of individuation, (b) stable high levels of connectedness and moderately increasing levels of individuation, and (c) stable low levels of connectedness and an inverted u-shaped pattern of individuation. Another study (Seiffge-Krenke et al., 2010) examined the linkages between

parent–adolescent relationships and romantic relationships using adolescents’ perceptions of support-closeness and negative affect. That study identified (a) normative, (b) increasingly negative, and (c) decreasingly negative/distant mother–adolescent and father–adolescent relationship quality types. Normative parent–adolescent relationships positively predicted connectedness and sexual attraction in romantic relationships, thereby providing evidence for continuity from parent–adolescent relationships to later romantic relationships. Despite their importance, these studies lacked parental perspectives on the parent–adolescent relationship, thereby only modeling a subpart of this relationship’s complexity.

The current study builds on past work and extends it to include a systems approach to understanding family processes. In examining the associations between parent–adolescent relationships and romantic relationships, we examine the linkages between the patterning of the parent–adolescent relationship system and adolescents’ and romantic partners’ perception of their romantic relationship during early adulthood. There are several advantages to this approach. First, partner reports provide relevant additional views on the quality of the romantic relationship. Second, partner and target adolescent perceptions on their romantic relationship quality might differ from each other, as these perceptions relate to their own individual differences, such as the relationship quality with their own family (Bandura, 1977; Bowlby, 1978) or their personality traits (e.g., Robins et al., 2000).

We propose an indirect model in which parent–adolescent relationships predict adolescents’ perceived romantic relationship quality (see Figure 1). Parent–adolescent relationships shape adolescents’ perceptions of romantic relationship quality (i.e., Path *a* of Figure 1), which, in turn, positively relate to their partners’ perceptions of this relationship (i.e., Path *b* of Figure 1). Direct effects of the parent–adolescent relationship on the romantic partners’ perceptions seem unlikely (i.e., Path *c* in Figure 1), but the target adolescents’ relationships with parents likely relate to their partners’ romantic relationship perceptions via the target adolescents’ own romantic relationship perceptions (i.e., Path $a \times b$ of Figure 1). We are unaware of previous studies examining such

indirect effects and using multiple perspectives on both parent–adolescent and romantic relationships.

Study Goals and Hypotheses

The analyses used in this study proceeded in several steps. First, we applied a longitudinal multidimensional and multi-informant person-centered approach to identify parent–adolescent relationship types from a family system perspective (e.g., Bowen, 1974). Parent–adolescent relationships are *closed field* or involuntary relationships (Laursen, 1996) that are defined and constrained by kinship and encompass lengthy interaction histories. Therefore, we treated them as systems and combined parental and adolescent reports of relationship quality in one typology. Although the expected number and developmental patterns of the types was not predetermined, the parenting literature suggest four main types (e.g., Baumrind, 1991; Shucksmith, Hendry, & Glendinning, 1995). We expected to find (a) an authoritative type, with high levels of support in the parent–adolescent relationship and high parental power; (b) an authoritarian type, with low levels of support in the parent–adolescent relationship and high levels of parental power; (c) an indulgent type, with high levels of support and low levels of parental power; and (d) a distant type, with low levels of support and parental power.

Second, we examined how parent–adolescent relationship quality classes predicted the romantic partner’s perceptions of relationship quality through target adolescents’ perceptions of romantic relationship quality. Previous research suggests that an authoritative parenting style is the most beneficial for adolescents (e.g., Auslander, Short, Succop, & Rosenthal, 2009). Therefore, we expected that an authoritative relationship type would relate to higher romantic relationship quality as perceived by adolescents. We also expected adolescent-perceived romantic relationship quality to positively predict partner-perceived romantic relationship quality. Finally, we expected that parent–adolescent relationship quality would indirectly relate to partner-perceived romantic relationship quality through the target adolescents’ perceptions. We

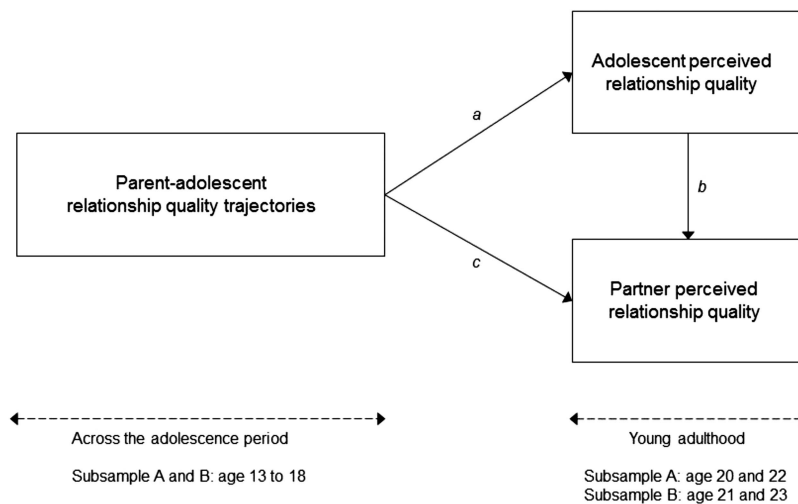


Figure 1. Illustration of the indirect effects of parent–adolescent relationship types predicting romantic partners’ perceived relationship quality through adolescents’ perceived relationship quality.

expected the authoritative relationship quality type to relate to the highest partner-perceived romantic relationship quality, through adolescent-perceived romantic relationship quality. This entails that, in contrast to the parent-adolescent relationship, we did not treat the romantic relationships as a stable system but rather as a system in formation. We tested whether adolescent perceptions of the romantic relationship would be predictive of partner perceptions. Consequently, the partner experience of the romantic relationship would be indirectly related to parent-adolescent relationship quality (e.g., Seiffge-Krenke et al., 2010).

Method

Procedure and Participants

This project is a secondary analysis of data from the Research on Adolescent Development and Relationships project (RADAR). RADAR is a longitudinal study in the Netherlands, approved by the local research institute ethics review board. Information regarding the recruitment procedure is described in the [online supplemental materials](#).

The sample consisted of two subsamples. Subsample A was recruited from the Utrecht province and surroundings in the Netherlands ($n = 237$). Subsample B was recruited from the urban areas in the central part of the Netherlands ($n = 522$). Participant recruitment of Subsample A started in 2001, and recruitment of Subsample B started in 2006. Both subsamples included eight waves: The first six waves included reports from adolescents and their families, and the last two waves included reports from adolescents and their romantic partners. More information about our sample can be found in the [online supplemental materials](#).

Adolescents and parents reported their relationship quality annually from the first to the sixth waves (Ages 13 to 18 years). On the first measurement occasion, adolescents from Subsample A ($M_{\text{age}} = 13.03$ years, $SD_{\text{age}} = 0.46$) were younger than adolescents from Subsample B ($M_{\text{age}} = 13.30$ years, $SD_{\text{age}} = 0.51$), $t(755) = 7.38$, $p > .001$, and included significantly more girls (53.2% v. 43.7%), $\chi^2(1, N = 759) = 5.89$, $p > .001$. The two subsamples did not differ in their romantic relationship status at the seventh or eighth waves, $\chi^2(2, N = 759) = 1.46$, $p = .481$. Girls were more likely than boys to be in a romantic relationship at both the seventh, $\chi^2(1, N = 759) = 9.95$, $p < .05$, and eighth, $\chi^2(1, N = 759) = 13.90$, $p < .001$, waves. We combined these two subsamples, as their differences were relatively small. The total family sample included adolescents ($n = 759$; 46.6% girls; $M_{\text{age}} = 13.11$ years, $SD_{\text{age}} = 0.49$), fathers ($n = 680$; $M_{\text{age}} = 46.67$ years, $SD_{\text{age}} = 5.10$), and mothers ($n = 728$; $M_{\text{age}} = 44.23$ years, $SD_{\text{age}} = 4.40$).

Adolescents and their romantic partners reported their relationship quality on two occasions, 2 years apart, at the seventh and eighth waves of data collection (Ages 20–21 and 22–23 for Subsamples A and B, respectively). At the seventh and eighth waves, 272 and 293, respectively, reported being in a romantic relationship. We only included adolescents who were in a romantic relationship in at least one of these waves ($n = 374$). Of these, 23.3% had the same romantic partner at both waves. Most of the contacted romantic partners agreed to participate in the project (seventh wave, $n = 245$, 91.8%, $M_{\text{age}} = 21.85$ years, $SD_{\text{age}} = 7.78$; eighth wave, $n = 274$, 93.2%, $M_{\text{age}} = 23.51$ years, $SD_{\text{age}} = 3.64$).

Across all waves, the average for missing data was 7.3%, 7.4%, 11.6%, and 9.9% of adolescents' reports on the relationship quality with their fathers and mothers on the Support and Power subscales, respectively. The average for missing data was 10.7% and 10.6% of maternal reports and 16.4% and 16.4% of paternal reports on the Support and Power subscales, respectively. Participants with missing family data were relatively similar to those with complete data (see the [online supplemental materials](#)). Therefore, we included participants with missing family data in the analyses using maximum likelihood estimation with incomplete data (Hox, 1999).

Measures

Adolescents' relationship with parents and romantic partners. The affective quality of parent-adolescent relationships was assessed using the Network of Relationships Inventory (NRI; Furman & Buhrmester, 1992). The Support scale included 12 items, and the Power scale included six items. Adolescents and parents reported on a 5-point Likert scale (i.e., 1, "A little or not at all", to 5, "More is not possible") the degree to which each of the items described their experience.¹

Adolescents reported the level of support they perceived from their fathers, mothers, and romantic partners, who also all reported on the level of support they perceived from the target adolescent (e.g., "How often do you share secrets and private feelings with this person?"). Cronbach's alphas across waves were .72 or greater for adolescents' reports on mother, .82 or greater on father, and .82 or greater on romantic partner; and .71 or greater for mother reports, .76 or greater for father reports, and .85 or greater for romantic partner reports.

Adolescents also reported the amount of relative power they attributed to their fathers, mothers, and romantic partners, who also all reported the amount of relative power they attributed to target adolescents. The Power scale included items such as "How often does your [child/father/mother/romantic partner] tell you what to do?" Note that adolescents who reported high levels of power basically reported having dominating parents (i.e., a hierarchical relationship). Parents who reported higher scores for power reported having dominating adolescent children. Cronbach's alphas across waves were .80 or greater for adolescents' reports on mother, .83 or greater on father, and .87 or greater on romantic partner; and .69 or greater for mother reports, .71 or greater for father reports, and .79 or greater for romantic partner reports.

Relationship intimacy, passion, and commitment. Intimacy, passion, and commitment in romantic relationships was measured using the Triangular Love Scale (TLS; Lemieux & Hale, 1999). This scale includes 20 items for which adolescents and their partners reported on a 5-point Likert scale (i.e., from 1 = *a little or not at all* to 5 = *more is not possible*). The Intimacy scale

¹ The research group of Adolescent Development of Utrecht University used NRI items to create our current version of the Support and Power scales. The Support scale consisted of twelve items from the NRI subscales Reassurance of Worth, Reliable Alliance, Companionship, Instrumental Aid, Intimate Disclosure, Nurture and Affection. The Power scale consisted of three original items of the relative Power scale of the NRI and an additional three items to make the scale more robust. Both scales have been extensively tested since then, and reliability and concurrent validity have been demonstrated in multiple studies (e.g., De Goede et al., 2009; Hadiwijaya et al., 2017).

included seven items (e.g., “I can tell everything to my partner”), the Passion scale included seven items (e.g., “Sex is important in our relationship”), and the Commitment scale included six items (e.g., “I would rather be with my partner than with anyone else”). The English-language version was translated into Dutch and then back-translated into English to control for equivalence of meaning. This translated version has demonstrated good convergent and divergent validity, and adequate construct validity (Overbeek, Ha, Scholte, de Kemp, & Engels, 2007). Cronbach’s alphas for all scales across waves were .72 or greater for adolescent reports and .76 or greater for partner reports.

We found significant correlations between adolescent reports on the relationship with parents and romantic partners. Table 1 presents the bivariate correlations among all relationship variables. We found significant correlations between adolescent perceptions and parental perceptions of support (i.e., range from $r = .23$ to $r = .42$). Target adolescents’ own perceptions and target adolescents’ partner perceptions of support were also significantly correlated with their perceptions of intimacy, passion, and commitment in the relationship (i.e., range from $r = .21$ to $r = .60$). Target adolescents’ own perceptions and target adolescents’ partner perceptions of intimacy, passion, and commitment also significantly correlated (i.e., range from $r = .11$ to $r = .51$). Target adolescents’ and parents’ perceptions of power were not significantly correlated, whereas adolescents’ perceptions of parental power and their partners’ power were significantly correlated.

Data Analyses

Main Analysis 1: Types of adolescent relationship development with parents. To identify types of parent–adolescent and adolescent–parent relationship quality, we performed latent class growth analysis (LCGA) in Latent GOLD Version 5.1 (Vermunt & Magidson, 2016), assuming linear growth curves within classes. This analysis identifies distinct homogeneous developmental classes (e.g., authoritative, distant) within a heterogeneous sample (i.e., our adolescent and parent total sample). Classes are based on the initial levels (i.e., intercepts) and growth rates (i.e., slopes) of individual scores on the parent–child relationship variables. Our LCGA model was based on a multivariate growth model on eight variables: adolescent–mother and adolescent–father reports for support and power (i.e., four variables), and mother–adolescent and father–adolescent reports for support and power (i.e., four variables).

We used three criteria to select the preferred model. First, the Akaike information criterion (AIC; Akaike, 1987) and Bayesian information criterion (BIC; Schwarz, 1978) should be the lowest. Second, the profile solution should be theoretically meaningful. Third, profiles should be statistically parsimonious and include at least 10% of the sample that is in a romantic relationship. After selecting the preferred solution, we compared the perceptions among adolescents, parents, and romantic partners across profiles using pairwise tests between classes.

Main Analysis 2: Parent–adolescent relationship types and romantic relationship quality. We performed mediation analyses in Latent GOLD Version 5.1 (Vermunt & Magidson, 2016) to test the indirect effects of parent–adolescent relationship quality classes on the perceptions of the romantic relationship quality by the target adolescents’ partner through the target adolescents’ own

perception of the quality of this romantic relationship. To obtain relational classes as an input for analyses, we saved the posterior probabilities of belonging to relational classes using the adolescent and parent scores for support and power. These classification probabilities served as input for the path analyses in which classification errors were taken into account using a bias-adjusted three-step procedure² (e.g., Bakk, Tekle, & Vermunt, 2013). We compared the parent–adolescent relationship quality classes with one another using pairwise tests. Generally, indirect effects cannot be assumed to be normally distributed. Therefore, the tests for the indirect effects were based on a simulation procedure similar to parametric bootstrapping, in which we approximated the effects’ distributions using 500 simulated sets of (direct effect) parameters. Gender, living situation, and relationship duration were used as control variables (e.g., Bech & Gyrd-Hansen, 2005). We used effect coding for the gender and living situation variables (e.g., Agresti, 2002). Information regarding effect coding for dichotomous variables can be found in the online supplemental materials.

We first examined the direct effects of the parent–adolescent relational classes on adolescent-perceived romantic relationship quality (i.e., Path *a* in Figure 1). Subsequently, we tested the direct effect of adolescent-perceived romantic relationship quality on partner-perceived romantic relationship quality (i.e., Path *b* in Figure 1). Next, we examined the direct effects of the parent–adolescent relational classes on partner-perceived romantic relationship quality (i.e., Path *c* in Figure 1). Finally, we estimated the indirect effects of parent–adolescent relational classes on partner-perceived relationship quality through adolescent-perceived romantic relationship quality (i.e., Path $a \times b$ in Figure 1).

Results

Research Aim 1: Classes of Parent–Adolescent Relationship Quality

Solutions from latent cluster growth analyses that included up to six latent profiles led to lower BIC and AIC values, suggesting that each additional class improved model fit (see Table 1 of the online supplemental materials). The four-profile solution seemed to provide the best balance of meaning and parsimonious. The five-profile solution included two similar classes, and the three-profile solution showed poorer model fit than the five-profile solution and missed a unique class that was in the four-profile solution. Thus, the four-profile solution was selected as our final model. The entropy value of this four-class model was good (.88) and similar to entropy values for solutions with both more and fewer classes.

Our relational classes were comparable with those obtained in parenting literature (e.g., Baumrind, 1991; Shucksmith et al., 1995). Adolescents and parents in the *authoritative relationship class* (28% of the sample; 58% males) were supportive of each other, but parents in this relationship exerted much power over their adolescent children, whereas children exerted little power over their parents. Adolescents and parents in the *indulgent relationship class* (26% of the sample; 46% males) provided much

² We used proportional class assignment and a modified Bolck, Croon, and Hagnaars (2004) bias adjustment procedure with robust standard errors.

Table 1
Correlations Between Relationship Quality Indicators

Relationship quality indicators	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Adolescent reports on father	—	.58*	-.02	.01	.24*	.04	.03	.05	.12*	.11*	.12*	.13*
2. Adolescent reports on mother	.61*	—	.01	-.05	.19*	-.01	-.01	.05	.07	.01	.11*	.06
3. Father reports on adolescents	.39*	.26*	—	.20*	.02	.04	-.01	.00	-.05	-.15*	-.10	-.10
4. Mother reports on adolescents	.23*	.42*	.37*	—	.05	.08	-.05	-.03	-.03	-.12*	-.10	-.12*
5. Adolescent reports on partner	.32*	.36*	.04	.20*	—	.02	-.06	.01	.08	-.08	.08	.03
6. Partner reports on adolescents	.10	.07	.01	.14*	.35*	—	.07	-.06	-.02	.06	-.02	.12*
7. Adolescent reports on intimacy partner	.29*	.25*	.06	.14*	.63*	.32*	—	.50*	.49*	.36*	.20*	.24*
8. Adolescent reports on passion partner	.28*	.21*	.14*	.20*	.41*	.26*	.50*	—	.30*	.19*	.40*	.11
9. Adolescent reports on commitment partner	.07	.14*	-.02	.10	.50*	.30*	.49*	.29*	—	.28*	.08	.51*
10. Partner reports on intimacy adolescent	.07	.05	-.09	.02	.29*	.60*	.36*	.19*	.28*	—	.54*	.48*
11. Partner reports on passion adolescent	.05	.02	-.06	.10	.21*	.49*	.20*	.40*	.08	.54*	—	.29*
12. Partner reports on commitment adolescent	.00	-.00	-.04	.05	.30*	.52*	.24*	.11*	.51*	.48*	.29*	—

Note. For support and power, we show the average correlations across six waves ($N = 759$); for intimacy, passion, and commitment, we show the average correlations across two waves ($N = 374$). Correlations below the diagonal line regard the support aspect. Correlations above the diagonal line regard the power aspect. The fact that we found significant, yet medium-sized, correlations between parent and child is in line with the literature indicating that correlations between adolescents' and parents' reports of family relationship often are not very strong (for review, see De Los Reyes et al., 2019). Medium-sized correlations between parent and child reports on relationship quality might hint at certain individual differences in these reports. Yet the person-centered approach that we employed did not detect profiles consisting of adolescents that showed such inconsistencies. This suggests that these discrepancies are likely subtle and not highly prevalent. Despite this, informant discrepancies may signal individual differences in adolescent adjustment (e.g., Lippold, Greenberg, & Collins, 2013) and therefore need to be considered in studies using multi-informant ratings.

* $p < .05$.

support of each other, whereas parents exerted little power over their adolescent children and adolescent children exerted much power over their parents. Those in the *distant class* (33% of the sample; 57% males) initially provided little support of each other as parents and adolescents exerted little power over each other. Adolescents and parents in the *authoritarian class* (13% of the sample; 51% males) were initially unsupportive of each other, while parents exerted much power over their adolescent children and children exerted much power over parents. Table 2 shows the intercepts and linear slopes of each class.³ The classes did not significantly differ in gender, $\chi^2(3, N = 759) = 7.77, p > .051$, age, $F(3, 753) = 2.32, p = .074$, or the likelihood of being in a romantic relationship at the seventh, $\chi^2(3, N = 759) = 3.71, p = .294$, or eighth, $\chi^2(3, N = 759) = 7.51, p = .057$, waves.

With regard to the intercepts (i.e., initial levels of relationship quality), the authoritative and indulgent classes showed the highest levels of support as perceived by adolescents and their parents. Both the authoritarian and distant classes showed the least support in the relationship as perceived by adolescents and their parents. The authoritative and authoritarian classes were characterized by the highest levels of parental power. In the authoritarian class, parental power was reciprocated by power assertion by the adolescent, suggesting power struggles between parents and adolescents. Adolescents and parents in the indulgent and distant classes exerted little power over each other, with those in the indulgent class perceiving the least parental power. Slope parameters (i.e., growth rates) did not significantly differ between the four classes, as they showed similar patterns of decreasing support and power over time.⁴ This indicates that parent-adolescent relationships tend to become less supportive and more egalitarian as adolescents grow older, irrespective of relational class. As the change patterns for support and power are relatively similar among the relational classes, we consistently refer to these as *relational classes* instead of *trajectories*.

Research Aim 2: Parent-Adolescent Relational Classes and Romantic Relationship Quality

We found comparable results between the mediation models for the seventh and eighth waves and therefore collapsed the relationship quality scores of these waves in the mediation models when scores were available for both waves.⁵ Otherwise, the scores from either the seventh or eighth wave were chosen. Table 3 displays the results of our mediation models. There were significant main effects for gender and living situation on romantic relationship quality experiences. Girls reported more commitment and intimacy in their romantic relationship. Partners in a romantic relationship with female target adolescents perceived less support and more power than partners who were in a romantic relationship with male target adolescents. The effects on power showed up in both target adolescents' and partners' reports. Adolescents who lived at home reported more supportive and committed romantic relationships. Romantic partners of these adolescents also reported having more supportive relationships than partners of

³ Table 2 of the online supplemental materials presents the means of relationship quality perceptions for each relational class. Table 3 of the online supplemental materials provides the number of adolescents of each parent-adolescent relationship quality class who are in a romantic relationship. This table also shows that adolescents in an authoritarian relationship with parents are less likely to be in a relationship with the same romantic partner at the seventh and eighth waves. It also shows that only 37.8% of the participants reported having a partner or a different partner and that 11.5% of our participants reported a similar partner across the seventh and eighth waves. Our sample size is thereby reduced to half, and this consequently limits the power for our main analyses.

⁴ There are still some notable differences in the slope parameters of the classes. Adolescent-reported maternal support decreased more in the authoritarian than in the indulgent relationship class. Maternal- and paternal-reported support from adolescents decreased most in the distant relationship quality class.

⁵ Table 3 of the online supplemental materials provides more detailed information about these results.

Table 2
Growth Factors of the Four Relational Classes

Growth factors	Adolescent reports on father		Adolescent reports on mother		Father reports on adolescent		Mother reports on adolescent	
	Support <i>M (SE)</i>	Parental power <i>M (SE)</i>	Support <i>M (SE)</i>	Parental power <i>M (SE)</i>	Support <i>M (SE)</i>	Child power <i>M (SE)</i>	Support <i>M (SE)</i>	Child power <i>M (SE)</i>
Mean intercept								
Authoritative	2.63 (1.03) ^{a*}	4.12 (.55) ^{a*}	3.65 (.92) ^{a*}	3.22 (.10) ^{a*}	2.98 (.74) ^{a*}	1.68 (.33) ^{ab*}	3.24 (.61) ^{a*}	1.39 (.04) ^{a*}
Indulgent	2.80 (.98) ^{b*}	3.38 (.55) ^{b*}	3.72 (.90) ^{a*}	2.43 (.06) ^{b*}	2.94 (.71) ^{a*}	1.78 (.33) ^{b*}	3.28 (.60) ^{a*}	1.61 (.05) ^{b*}
Distant	2.08 (1.04) ^{c*}	3.65 (.57) ^{c*}	3.09 (.97) ^{b*}	2.72 (.06) ^{c*}	2.50 (.70) ^{b*}	1.66 (.32) ^{a*}	2.94 (.60) ^{b*}	1.40 (.03) ^{a*}
Authoritarian	2.30 (1.11) ^{c*}	4.07 (.58) ^{a*}	3.30 (1.05) ^{ab*}	3.04 (.10) ^{d*}	2.61 (.75) ^{b*}	1.83 (.34) ^{ab*}	3.06 (.63) ^{b*}	2.03 (.05) ^{c*}
Mean linear slope								
Authoritative	-.04 (.01) ^{a*}	-.06 (.01) ^{a*}	-.03 (.01) ^{ab*}	-.08 (.02) ^{a*}	-.02 (.01) ^{ab*}	.00 (.01) ^a	-.01 (.01) ^b	-.00 (.00) ^a
Indulgent	-.04 (.01) ^{a*}	-.06 (.01) ^{a*}	-.02 (.01) ^a	-.06 (.01) ^{a*}	-.01 (.01) ^b	.01 (.01) ^{a*}	-.01 (.01) ^b	.02 (.01) ^{a*}
Distant	-.06 (.01) ^{a*}	-.06 (.01) ^{a*}	-.03 (.01) ^{ab*}	-.08 (.01) ^{a*}	-.04 (.01) ^{a*}	.00 (.01) ^a	-.05 (.01) ^{a*}	.01 (.00) ^a
Authoritarian	-.08 (.03) ^{a*}	-.10 (.02) ^{a*}	-.06 (.02) ^{b*}	-.11 (.02) ^{a*}	-.02 (.01) ^{ab}	.01 (.01) ^a	-.03 (.01) ^{ab*}	.04 (.01) ^{b*}

Note. Asterisks indicate a significant intercept or slope factor. Same superscripts indicate that the intercept or slope parameter does not differ significantly from each other across the parent-adolescent relationship quality classes concerned. *SE* = standard error.

* $p < .05$.

adolescents who had moved out of the parental home. We speculate that adolescents who moved out of their parental home might find themselves in a different developmental-contextual stage than those who are living at home. They might be more able to explore their sexual identity, are thus more interested in sexual exploration and therefore less willing to invest in their romantic relationship, and thus

report being less supportive and less committed. Adolescents living at home reported significantly less intimacy at the eighth wave than at the seventh wave (see Table 4 of the online supplemental materials).

Linkages between parent-adolescent relationships and adolescents' perceptions of romantic relationship. Findings generally confirmed that adolescents in an authoritative relationship

Table 3
Parent-Adolescent Relationship Effects on Romantic Relationships

Main analyses	Romantic relationship dimensions				
	Support β (<i>SE</i>)	Power β (<i>SE</i>)	Intimacy β (<i>SE</i>)	Passion β (<i>SE</i>)	Commitment β (<i>SE</i>)
Effects of control variables					
1. Gender on adolescent-perceived quality	.04 (.02)	-.07 (.03) [*]	.05 (.02) [*]	.00 (.03)	.17 (.04) [*]
2. Gender on partner-perceived quality	-.04 (.03) [*]	.11 (.03) [*]	-.01 (.03)	.04 (.03)	-.00 (.03)
1. Living situation on adolescent-perceived quality	.07 (.03) [*]	.05 (.03)	.03 (.03)	.04 (.03)	.08 (.03) [*]
2. Living situation on partner-perceived quality	.06 (.03) [*]	.05 (.03)	.01 (.03)	-.00 (.02)	.06 (.03)
1. Romantic relationship duration on adolescent-perceived quality	.00 (.00) [*]	.00 (.00)	.00 (.00) [*]	-.00 (.00) [*]	.00 (.00) [*]
2. Romantic relationship duration on partner-perceived quality	-.00 (.00)	.00 (.00) [*]	.00 (.00)	-.00 (.00) [*]	.00 (.00) [*]
A. Parent-adolescent relationship classes on adolescent-perceived quality					
Wald test multivariate effects	23.12 [*]	8.10 [*]	18.12 [*]	15.43 [*]	4.87
1. Authoritative	.14 (.04) ^a	.06 (.05) ^a	.07 (.04) ^a	.09 (.04) ^{ab}	.11 (.05) ^a
2. Indulgent	.07 (.04) ^{ab}	-.12 (.05) ^b	.12 (.04) ^a	.10 (.04) ^{ab}	-.05 (.05) ^b
3. Distant	-.13 (.04) ^c	-.01 (.04) ^a	-.09 (.04) ^b	-.12 (.04) ^c	.00 (.05) ^{ab}
4. Authoritarian	-.08 (.05) ^{bc}	.07 (.06) ^a	-.09 (.05) ^b	-.07 (.06) ^{ac}	-.05 (.07) ^{ab}
B. Adolescent-perceived quality on partner-perceived quality	.35 (.05) [*]	.01 (.05)	.40 (.05) [*]	.34 (.04) [*]	.47 (.04) [*]
C. Parent-adolescent relationship classes on partner-perceived quality					
Wald test multivariate effects	.35	4.68	1.88	4.45	3.44
1. Authoritative	.02 (.04) ^a	-.07 (.04) ^a	.03 (.04) ^a	.07 (.04) ^a	.04 (.04) ^a
2. Indulgent	-.00 (.04) ^a	-.05 (.04) ^a	-.03 (.04) ^a	-.02 (.04) ^a	-.06 (.04) ^a
3. Distant	.02 (.04) ^a	.04 (.04) ^a	.04 (.04) ^a	.02 (.04) ^a	-.02 (.04) ^a
4. Authoritarian	-.03 (.05) ^a	.09 (.06) ^a	-.04 (.06) ^a	-.07 (.05) ^a	.04 (.05) ^a
A × B. Indirect effects of parent-adolescent relationship classes					
Wald test multivariate effects	14.55 [*]	.04	12.84 [*]	11.45 [*]	4.61
1. Authoritative → Adolescent perceptions → Partner perceptions	.05 (.02) ^a	.02 (.00) ^a	.03 (.02) ^a	.03 (.02) ^a	.04 (.02) ^a
2. Indulgent → Adolescent perceptions → Partner perceptions	.03 (.01) ^{ab}	-.04 (.01) ^a	.04 (.02) ^{ab}	.04 (.02) ^{ab}	-.02 (.02) ^b
3. Distant → Adolescent perceptions → Partner perceptions	-.05 (.01) ^c	-.01 (.00) ^a	-.03 (.02) ^c	-.04 (.01) ^c	.00 (.02) ^{ab}
4. Authoritarian → Adolescent perceptions → Partner perceptions	-.03 (.02) ^b	.03 (.00) ^a	-.04 (.02) ^a	-.03 (.02) ^b	-.02 (.02) ^{ab}

Note. We compared pairs of relational classes to each other using the tests reported by the program Latent Gold Version 5.1. Same superscripts indicate no significant differences among the parent-adolescent relational classes concerned. Asterisks indicate a significant overall effect. We used effect coding in gender (i.e., girls) and living situation (i.e., living with family) variables. *SE* = standard error.

* $p < .05$.

with their parents reported the most optimal levels of romantic relationship quality. As shown in Table 3, adolescents in an authoritative or an indulgent relationship with parents perceived the most support ($\beta = 0.14, p < .05$ for authoritative; $\beta = 0.07, p < .05$ for indulgent) and intimacy ($\beta = 0.07, p < .05$ for authoritative; $\beta = 0.12, p < .05$ for indulgent) in their romantic relationship. Adolescents who had an authoritative relationship with their parents ($\beta = 0.11, p < .05$) reported being more committed to their romantic partner than those in an indulgent relationship with their parents ($\beta = -0.05, p < .05$). Adolescents in an authoritative relationship with parents thus experienced slightly higher romantic relationship quality than those in an indulgent relationship with parents. In contrast, adolescents in an authoritarian and distant relationship with parents perceived the least support ($\beta = -0.13, p < .05$ for authoritarian; $\beta = -0.08, p < .05$ for distant) and intimacy in their romantic relationship ($\beta = -0.09, p < .05$ for both types of relationships). Adolescents in a distant relationship with parents ($\beta = -0.12, p < .05$) also perceived less passion in their romantic relationship than those in the other parent-adolescent relationship quality classes.

Linkages between adolescents and their partners' relationship perceptions. Table 3 shows that partners' perceptions of relationship quality were generally associated with adolescents' own perceptions of relationship quality. Adolescents' own perceptions of support ($\beta = 0.35, p < .05$), intimacy ($\beta = 0.40, p < .05$), passion ($\beta = 0.34, p < .05$), and commitment ($\beta = 0.47, p < .05$) significantly predicted their partners' perceptions of these variables.

Linkages between parent-adolescent relationships and partners' relationship perceptions. As can be seen in Table 3, adolescents' own perceptions of the relationship with their parents did not directly predict their partners' perceptions of their romantic relationship. We found no significant differences between the direct effects of parent-adolescent relationship quality classes on partners' relationship perceptions of support (Wald $\chi^2 = 0.35, p > .05$), power (Wald $\chi^2 = 4.68, p > .05$), intimacy (Wald $\chi^2 = 1.88, p > .05$), passion (Wald $\chi^2 = 04.45, p > .05$), or commitment (Wald $\chi^2 = 3.44, p > .05$).

Indirect effects of parent-adolescent relationships on partners' relationship perceptions. Table 3 illustrates that partners of adolescents who had an authoritative relationship with their parents systematically reported perceiving the highest romantic relationship quality but that this effect was indirectly predicted by the target adolescents' own perceptions of their romantic relationship. These indirect effects showed that the partners of adolescents perceived more support ($\beta = 0.05, p < .05$) and passion ($\beta = 0.03, p < .05$) from target adolescents who had an authoritative relationship with their partners than from adolescents who had an authoritarian and distant relationship with their parents. They also perceived more intimacy ($\beta = 0.03, p < .05$) when compared with partners of adolescents in a distant relationship with parents.

Partners of adolescents in an indulgent relationship quality with parents were similar to partners of adolescents in an authoritarian relationship with parents in their perceptions of support ($\beta = 0.03, p < .05$), intimacy ($\beta = 0.04, p < .05$), and passion ($\beta = 0.04, p < .05$) in romantic relationship through the adolescent-perceived relationship. However, partners of adolescents in an authoritative relationship quality with parents perceived more commitment, through adolescent-perceived commitment, than adolescents in an

indulgent relationship with parents. Partners of adolescents in a distant relationship with parents experience the poorest romantic relationship. Partners of adolescents in such relationships perceived low levels of support ($\beta = -0.05, p < .05$), intimacy ($\beta = -0.03, p < .05$), and passion ($\beta = -0.04, p < .05$) in their romantic relationship, as target adolescents also perceived low levels on these relational aspects.

Discussion

The current study used a multidimensional, multi-informant perspective on parent-adolescent relationships to predict young adults' and their partners' perceptions of romantic relationship quality. We identified four classes reflecting parent-adolescent relationship quality development as reported by adolescents and their parents. An authoritative relationship with parents predicted the highest romantic relationship quality as perceived by adolescents and their romantic partners. A distant relationship with parents related to the poorest romantic relationship quality as perceived by adolescents and their romantic partners.

Individual Differences in Parent-Adolescent Relationship Quality Classes

We identified authoritative, indulgent, distant, and authoritarian parent-adolescent relationship quality classes. These classes are comparable with a previously identified parenting typology (Baumrind, 1991) and differed meaningfully in parent and adolescent perceptions of support and power. As a result, our typology provides a parsimonious summary of longitudinal multidimensional and multi-informant data on parent-adolescent relationships.

Two findings concerning our typology stood out. First, although some adolescents and parents continued to perceive more or less support and/or autonomy in their relationships when compared with others, they all generally experienced decreasing support and autonomy in their relationship over time. These findings are in line with literature indicating a universal decline in adolescent-perceived support and/or autonomy in parent-adolescent relationships (e.g., Darling, Cumsille, & Peña-Alampay, 2005). Unlike previous studies, we used multi-informant data to identify relationship quality classes and demonstrated that each member of the family system generally perceived a decrease in support and autonomy across adolescence. Our study thus replicated previous findings, albeit in a more comprehensive design that accounted for both parents' and adolescents' perceptions. Second, we found no domineering parent-adolescent relationship type. About 25% of the adolescents had an authoritative relationship with their parents, and another 25% had an indulgent relationship with their parents. One-third of the adolescents had a distant relationship with their parents, and 13% of the adolescents had an authoritarian relationship with their parents. These findings add to the accumulating evidence of heterogeneity in parent-adolescent relationships (e.g., Hollenstein & Loughheed, 2013).

However, almost half of our adolescent sample perceived low levels of support relative to the sample mean. Adolescents in authoritarian or distant relationship quality profiles had less supportive relationships with parents than those in an authoritative or indulgent relationship profiles. Adolescents' need for more inde-

pendence in the relationship with parents could predict conflicts and unsupportive behavior between adolescents and their parents. Studies have demonstrated a trend of less support during the adolescence period (e.g., McGue, Elkins, & Iacono, 2005). This may explain the high numbers of adolescents in relationship quality profiles with relatively low levels of support.

Continuity of Parent–Adolescent Relationship Quality With Adolescent-Perceived Relationships

In line with our hypotheses based on attachment (Bowlby, 1978) and social–cognitive (Bandura, 1977) theory, we demonstrated continuity from supportive parent–adolescent relationships to supportive romantic relationships. Adolescents in an authoritative or an indulgent relationship with their parents perceived more support and intimacy in the relationship with their romantic partner than adolescents in a distant or authoritarian relationship with their parents. Previous variable-centered and person-centered studies also revealed that adolescents who are in a supportive relationship with their parents tend to have supportive romantic relationships (e.g., Walper & Wendt, 2015). Our findings add to past studies by showing that particularly those in an authoritative or indulgent relationship with parents perceived their romantic relationships as more supportive and intimate. Those in an authoritative relationship with their parents experience slightly higher romantic relationships, as they were more committed to their romantic partner than those in an indulgent relationship with their parents. This is somewhat similar to parenting research, which suggests that an authoritative style of parenting relates to the most positive outcomes (e.g., Driscoll, Russell, & Crockett, 2008).

Partly in line with our hypotheses, we identified some continuity from hierarchical parent–adolescent relationships to adolescents' perceived hierarchical romantic relationships. Adolescents in an authoritative and authoritarian relationship with parents perceived more dominance from their romantic partner than those in an indulgent and a distant relationship with parents. Adolescents in an indulgent relationship with parents perceived less dominance from their romantic partner than those in other relationship quality types with parents. Unlike our hypotheses based on attachment (Bowlby, 1978) and social–cognitive (Bandura, 1977) theory, adolescents in a distant relationship with their parents did not perceive low, but normative, levels of dominance from their romantic partner. The mutual uninvolvedness between these adolescents and their parents may make these adolescents less likely to see their parents as role models. These adolescents may thus be less likely to imitate their parents' behavior and form mental representations based on the relationship with their parents. This could explain why the low levels of power in their relationship with parents did not continue to their romantic relationship.

Indirect Effects of Parent–Adolescent Relationships on Partner-Perceived Relationships

Parent–adolescent relationships appear to be linked to adolescent experiences of romantic relationships, which, consequently, were associated with their partners' experiences in this relationship. Therefore, not only adolescents in a supportive relationship with their parents (i.e., authoritative and indulgent relationships) perceived their romantic relationship as supportive, intimate, and

passionate—their partners also perceived this relationship as such. This, indeed, shows, as we suggested earlier, that the adolescent family system affects the formation of the later romantic relationship system. Our results thus show that the family system affects relationship perceptions held by others that are not directly part of this system. Thereby, our findings can be considered an illustration of a complex pattern that, in Bronfenbrenner's (1977) terminology, would be a meso-system-level phenomenon that involves two micro systems and connects two individuals' ecologies.

Second, a distant relationship with parents predicted low levels of support, intimacy, and passion in the romantic relationship as perceived by adolescents and their partners. A distant relationship with parents might stem from neglectful parenting, which is often linked to maladaptive outcomes (e.g., Schroeder, Bulanda, Giordano, & Cernkovich, 2010). Practitioners should target the family system of adolescents in a distant or uninvolved relationship with their parents, as these adolescents are susceptible for experiencing continuous interpersonal problems.

Lastly, the lack of a direct effect from parent–adolescent relationships on the romantic partner's relationship perceptions suggests that parent–adolescent relationship quality has far-reaching, yet limited, associations with romantic relationship experiences. Parent–adolescent relationships were only associated with adolescents' romantic partners' relationship quality perceptions via the target adolescents' own relationship perceptions. Romantic partners' relationship perceptions likely are more directly linked to their relationship with their own parents. Although the absence of direct effects is relatively uncommon in mediation models, it remains possible that independent (i.e., parent–adolescent relationships) and dependent (i.e., romantic partner perceptions) variables are linked through their mutual relationship with a mediator variable (i.e., adolescent relationship perceptions). In such cases, it is more fitting to refer to indirect effects rather than to mediation (e.g., Hayes, 2009).

Study Limitations

The first limitation is that we did not apply a person-centered approach to explore profiles based on support and power as perceived by adolescents and their romantic partner. This could have better captured the multidimensional and multi-informant nature of romantic relationships. However, the subsamples of adolescents with romantic partners was relatively small, which would have almost inevitably led to small numbers of participants within each profile. Combining romantic relationship profiles with parent–adolescent relationship profiles would have led to low cell counts, causing a further loss of predictive power. Moreover, a profile-based approach would have conflicted with our views on romantic relationships as emerging systems in this age group. Still, we do encourage applying person-centered approaches when examining the multidimensional and multi-informant nature of all relationships if the sample size allows so.

A second limitation is that we only covered romantic relationships in young adulthood (i.e., Ages 20 to 21 and 22 to 23). Age-graded normative events, such as leaving the parental home, may relate to romantic relationship quality. For instance, in our study, we found that those who lived with their family perceived less intimacy at Age 22 to 23 but not at Age 20 to 21. This suggests that living with family becomes less adaptive for romantic rela-

tionships once young adults grow older. The evolutionary perspective (Steinberg, 1989) emphasizes the importance of young adults' independence from parents for their romantic development. Young adults who live with their family could face challenges such as having parental overinvolvement, which may predict frictions in romantic relationships. Future studies should examine whether the quality of romantic relationships worsens when adults continue to live with their parents.

A final limitation is the generalizability of our parent-adolescent relationship quality profiles. Person-centered approaches are relatively sensitive to the sample population. Thus, a different adolescent sample could yield different relationship quality profiles. There is no reason to assume that there would not be heterogeneity in parent-adolescent relationships in other countries, but evidence for which of the particular types we found are replicable needs to be gathered in future studies.

Conclusion

Our study revealed that parent-adolescent relationships were associated with adolescents' perceptions of romantic relationships and that these were consequently associated with their partners' perceptions of their romantic relationship. Unsurprisingly, supportive parent-adolescent relationships related to supportive and intimate romantic relationships. However, supportive relationships that were additionally hierarchical related to more committed romantic relationships. Unsupportive relationships that were also distant related to the poorest quality of later romantic relationships. Altogether, these findings underscore the importance of promoting supportive parent-adolescent relationships and preventing distant-natured parent-adolescent relationships for developing adaptive romantic relationships in young adulthood.

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