

YOUNG ADULTS' COMMITTED ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS:
A LONGITUDINAL STUDY ON THE DYNAMICS AMONG PARENTAL DIVORCE,
RELATIONSHIPS WITH MOTHERS AND FATHERS, AND CHILDREN'S
COMMITTED ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my mom, who has only an elementary school education due to illiteracy and ignorance of education for women in my mom's generation in Korea, but who is the smartest person that I have ever met, and has three children with Ph.D's.

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ABSTRACT

Romantic relationship qualities are important for individuals' psychosocial adjustment. This dissertation focuses on how young adults' committed romantic relationships are related to experience of parental divorce and relationships with parents during adolescence. Also, how this relationship may be different by four dyads of parents and children – father/daughter, father/son, mother/daughter, and mother/son – is examined.

The conceptual paper proposes parent-child relationships as a main family process affecting children's romantic relationships. Social learning theoretical perspectives is used as a guide that children observe, model, learn, and then apply the behaviors or patterns of relationships with parents to their own romantic relationships. Two potential roles of parent-child relationships are addressed in the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships. The first role of parent-child relationships is a mediation role between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships. The second role of parent-child relationships is a moderation role between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships. How one variable, parent-child relationships, can be a mediator as well as moderator is addressed in the conceptual paper. Also, the need to examine four dyads of parents and children in these models is addressed.

Two empirical studies examine a potential mediation and a moderation model respectively. The data for these studies were taken from Wave 6 (high school senior) and Wave 8 (age 24) of the Michigan Study of Adolescent Life Transitions (MSALT). The mediation model is tested using a multi-group mediation model using SEM. The results

suggest that there is indirect effect of parental divorce on children's romantic relationships, specifically for father-daughter dyads. The moderation model is tested using hierarchical regression analyses and the results show that there is interaction between parental divorce and relationships with parents. For example, relationships with fathers in always-married families are significantly related to children's satisfaction in their romantic relationships.

In the conclusion chapter, implications of the findings, limitations and contribution of the studies, and direction for future research are addressed.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation examines how the experience of parental divorce in earlier life and parent-child relationships during adolescence are related to children's committed romantic relationship qualities in young adulthood. The achievement of interpersonal intimacy through romantic relationships is generally regarded as a central developmental task of young adults (Feldman, Gowen, & Fisher, 1998). The qualities of romantic relationships, such as satisfaction, are important to examine because these qualities predict both physical and emotional health in young adults, such as emotional distress and feeling of self-worth (Kuttler, LaGreca, Prinstein, 1999; Wickrama, Lorenz, Conger, & Elder, 1997).

Specifically, this dissertation examines young adults' perception of partners' behaviors toward them, satisfaction in committed relationships, and the stability of their committed relationships. Conceptually, these three aspects of romantic relationships can be argued to be sequentially related. Positive perception of partners' behaviors can lead to individual's satisfaction in relationships, which in turn may enhance stability of relationships. More importantly, each aspect of these qualities of romantic relationships is generally known as an important predictor for an individual's psychological well-being.

In committed romantic relationships, partner's supportive behaviors may reduce emotional withdrawal, discourage depression, prevent conflict from escalating, and increase emotional intimacy in the relationships, which in turn increases relationship

satisfaction (Cutrona, 1996). Also, it has been argued that satisfaction in romantic relationships is the most important source of happiness and well-being (e.g., Russell & Wells, 1994). In contrast, unsatisfied and distressful relationships with romantic partners have been found to be a major risk factor for individuals' mental health (Pielage, Luteijn, & Arrindell, 2005). Satisfaction in romantic relationships also can be a protector for mental health of individuals at risk due to any negative life events. For example, Segrin and colleagues found that having partners diagnosed with breast cancer was negatively related to men's mental health; however, mental health of men with higher satisfaction with their spouses was found to be less affected by partners' breast cancer (Segrin, Badger, Sieger, Meek, & Lopez, 2006). In addition, instability in committed romantic relationships, such as divorce and breaking up with a partner, is related to mood or substance disorders (Overbeek, Vollebergh, Engels, & Meeus, 2003). Hence, it is important to understand the precursors or factors related to positive qualities of committed romantic relationships, especially in young adulthood.

Many studies of young adult romantic relationships have assumed parental divorce as a precursor to understanding quality of romantic relationships. Specifically it is assumed that divorce is transmitted to offspring and has negative influences on many aspects of their romantic relationships. However, it is likely that experiencing parental divorce is not the only influence on young adults' romantic relationship qualities since various processes of families, both divorced and non-divorced, influence those relationship qualities.

This dissertation focuses on parent-child relationships as a main family process affecting children's romantic relationship qualities based on a social learning theoretical perspective. Usually, social learning theory has been used to support the link between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships. In other words, social learning theory has been used as the guide of the intergenerational transmission of negative qualities of romantic relationships, such as poor qualities of relationships and instability of relationships. The main idea is that children from divorced families are more likely to be exposed to negative or poor relationships of parents, such as interparental conflict, inefficient communication skills between parents, or hostility toward each other. Children observe and learn these behaviors, and then apply these negative relationship patterns to their own romantic relationships.

However, this dissertation focuses on parent-child relationships as a context in which children can learn relationship skills, patterns, and behaviors rather than focusing primarily on parent's influence on children's romantic relationships through exposure to interparental conflict. Indeed, some studies have argued and found that the parent-child relationship is an important and strong predictor of children's romantic relationship qualities (e.g., Booth, Brinkerhoff, & White, 1984; Coleman & Ganong, 1984; Conger, Cui, Bryant, & Elder, 2000; Riggio, 2004). However, few studies have examined the possible roles of parent-child relationships in the dynamics among earlier parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships in later lives employing a theoretical perspective and using longitudinal data.

Hence, Chapter II in this dissertation argues that parent-child relationships are an important family process that can help explain the association between the earlier experience of parental divorce and children's romantic relationship qualities in young adulthood. Particularly, two potential different roles of parent-child relationships in the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationship qualities are suggested. The first suggested function is that parent-child relationships serves as a mediator between the impact of parental divorce and children's romantic relationships. This model suggests that parental divorce is linked to negative parent-child relationships, which in turn is related to negative romantic relationship qualities of children in young adulthood. The second suggested function is that parent-child relationships serve as a moderator between the impact of parental divorce and children's romantic relationships. This model suggests that parent-child relationships can make a difference in the degree of association between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships. Unlike the mediation model, this moderation model of parent-child relationships focuses on the diversity within divorced families. Specifically, this model suggests that not all parent-child relationships are negatively affected by parental divorce and that this difference can make account for differences in romantic relationship qualities of children from divorced families.

Importantly, this dissertation also sheds light on the potentially unique role of four different dyads of parents and children in children's romantic relationships, including the importance of including non-residential fathers. Even though researchers are aware of the need for the examination of different dyads of parents and children based on the gender

of parents and children, few studies have examined all four dyads of parents and children. For example, even though some studies have examined the role of parent-child relationships in children's romantic relationships, those studies mainly have focused on mother-child interactions (King & Heard, 1999; Videon, 2005). Studies of fathers' contributions to children's romantic relationship qualities are even fewer compared to those of mothers' contributions. In addition, even though many scholars (e.g., Amato & Gilbreth, 1999; Hetherington, Bridges, & Insabella, 1998) suggest that gender of child should be considered in research on parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and their effects on children's well-being, such as romantic relationships, not many studies have examined the role of gender of child. Hence, the possible role of different dyads of parents and children in the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships is addressed in Chapter II.

Chapter III and IV test empirically the dynamics suggested in Chapter II. The first study, "Mother and father-adolescent relationships as mediators between parental divorce and adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood," is found in Chapter III. This study, as the title implies, examines whether earlier parental divorce affects children's relationships with mothers and fathers during adolescence, which in turn influence children's romantic relationship qualities in young adulthood and whether father- and mother-child relationships interact on influencing children's romantic relationships. This study uses Structural Equation Modeling for testing this mediation model separately for female and male adolescents.

The study reported in Chapter IV, “The dynamics of family structure, mother and father-adolescent relationships, and adolescent gender for predicting adolescents’ committed romantic relationships in young adulthood,” examines whether the influence of parental divorce would interact with mother-child relationships and father-child relationships. In other words, the study in Chapter IV tests whether the strength of the link between parental divorce and children’s romantic relationships in young adulthood is moderated by mother and father-child relationship qualities using hierarchical regression analysis.

Chapter V integrates the two studies and examines their relation to the framework proposed in Chapter II. Then, future directions for research are discussed.

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CHAPTER II
UNDERSTANDING PARENTAL DIVORCE, MOTHER AND FATHER-CHILD
RELATIONSHIPS, AND CHILDREN'S ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS

Parental Divorce and Children's Romantic Relationships

In the United States, the number of one-parent families has been increasing. More than 25% of American families are single-parent families, and researchers expect that children born in the 1990s have at least a 50% chance of being in a single-parent family, especially in a single-mother family, sometime in their lives (Amato, 1999; Hetherington, Bridges, & Insabella, 1998). Divorce is a major contributor to these rates; there are about six million divorced families in the United States and 60% of those divorced families have children (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2003). This has led to a large body of research on how children are affected by parental marital dissolution. Typically, researchers have compared children from divorced families with those from always-married families in order to examine what kind of adjustment difficulties the children might have after their parents have divorced. One commonly studied domain is adolescents' psychosocial adjustment after their parents divorce (e.g., Amato, 1993; 1999, 2000, 2005; Aquilino, 2006; Barber & Eccles, 1992; Buchanan, 2005; Buchanan, Maccoby, & Dornbusch, 1996; Hetherington & Kelly, 2002; Hetherington & Stanley-Hagan, 1997; King, 2006; Manning & Lamb, 2003; Stewart, 2003).

One domain of psychosocial adjustment explored by researchers is the romantic relationship quality of adolescents and young adults (e.g., Amato & Booth, 1991; Amato,

1996; Booth, Brinkerhoff, & White, 1984; Conger, Cui, Bryant, & Elder, 2000; Gabardi & Rosen, 1991; Jacquet & Surra, 2001; King, 2002). Adolescence and young adulthood are the developmental periods in which individuals begin to make commitments to pathways that will potentially have long-term implications for their future life course. It is also a time when adolescents construct a vision of the future for themselves in areas such as occupation or family formation (Grotevant, 1998; Peterson & Leffert, 1995). During those periods especially, the relationship with a romantic partner and commitment to a romantic partner are important developmental tasks (Allen & Land, 1999; Feldman, Gowen, & Fisher, 1998; Lerner & Castellino, 2002; Magnusson & Bergman, 1990; Peterson & Leffert, 1995).

Romantic relationships have been defined as on-going voluntary interactions that are mutually acknowledged and have “peculiar intensity” marked by expressions of affection (Collins, 2003). Developing positive and intimate romantic relationships with partners are important because the qualities of romantic relationships predict both physical and emotional distress (Wickrama, Lorenz, Conger, & Elder, 1997) and feelings of self-worth (Kuttler, LaGreca, Prinstein, 1999). Hence, it is important to understand the precursors or factors related to developing positive and healthy romantic relationships, especially in young adulthood. One important factor to be examined is the influence of parental divorce.

Association between Parental Divorce and Children’s Romantic Relationships

A number of studies of adolescents and young adult children from divorced families have focused on the negative effects of parental divorce on children’s romantic

relationships, such as feeling less satisfaction in their relationships, holding negative views toward committed relationships, or their own divorce (e.g., Gabardi & Rosen, 1991; Tasker, 1992; Webster, Orbuch, & House, 1995). This may be due to the dominating assumption that parental divorce negatively affects offspring's psychosocial adjustment and development, including romantic relationships (see Figure 1). Indeed, a majority of the studies of romantic relationships of children from divorced families have had the basic assumption that parental divorce and discord are transmitted to children and have negative influences on multiple aspects of children's romantic relationships.

Figure 1. The Possible Negative Impact of Parental Divorce on Children's Romantic Relationships



Attitudes toward committed romantic relationships. Studies have found that female young adults from divorced families hold more negative views about marriage or committed romantic relationship than those from always-married families (e.g., Amato, 1993; Booth et al., 1984; Gabardi & Rosen, 1991; Glenn & Kramer, 1987; Sprecher, Cate, & Levin, 1998). For example, Tasker (1992) investigated attitudes toward marriage among adolescents, aged 17-18, from divorced families and always-married families. Generally, adolescents who experienced parental divorce showed a lower expectation for marriage and more strongly preferred to cohabit in the future rather than be married, as

compared to adolescents from always-married families. More recent studies also found similar findings for adult children (e.g., Amato, 1993; Jacquet & Surra, 2001; Seiffge-Krenke, Shulman, & Klessinger, 2001; Sprecher et al., 1998).

In addition, some studies found that unmarried young adults from divorced families have different attitudes toward divorce than those from always-married families. For example, Coleman and Ganong (1984) found that high school and college students from divorced families held more favorable attitudes toward divorce as compared with those from always-married families. Amato (1996) found similar results for adult children from divorced families. In addition, Kirk (2002) found that students from divorced families were more afraid of divorce because they believed that their future marriage may end in divorce than those students from always-married families.

Premarital relationships. Individuals from divorced families begin to date and have sex earlier (Emery, 1999; Sprecher et al., 1998), have a greater number of sexual partners (Sprague & Kinney, 1997), and are less likely to marry than those from always-married families (Emery, 1999; Sprecher et al., 1998), and when they marry, they marry at an earlier age than those from always-married families (Amato, 1996; Emery, 1999; Webster et al., 1995). Also, children from divorced families are more likely to be involved in premarital sexual activities and cohabitation (Booth, Brinkerhoff, & White, 1984).

Intimacy and attachment. Generally, it has been found that children from divorced families have less securely attached romantic partnerships (e.g., Sprecher et al., 1998) and have less intimacy with romantic partners than those from always-married families

(e.g., Ensign, Scherman, & Clark, 1998). For example, Hazan and Shaver (1987) and Summers and colleagues (1998) found that individuals from divorced families were less likely to be securely attached to their romantic partners than those from always-married families (Summers, Forehand, Armistead, & Tannenbaum, 1998). Also, several studies on college students' romantic relationships found that students from divorced families were less securely attached to their romantic partners (Sprecher et al., 1998), showed lower intimacy levels in romantic relationships (Ensign et al., 1998), and reported less trust in their romantic partners (Sprague & Kinney, 1997) than college students from always-married families.

Relationship quality and stability. It has generally been found that adult children from divorced families were less happy and reported less stable relationship quality in their current relationships (e.g., Amato, 1993, 1999). Amato and Booth (1991) found that adult children from divorced families report more disagreements between spouses, more marital problems, such as love affairs, and more marital instability, such as considering divorce or taking actions to divorce, than those from always-married families. Amato (1996) also found that if both individuals from a married couple came from divorced families, they are more likely to divorce than married couples where only one spouse came from a divorced family. When both individuals from a married couple came from always-married families, they were the least likely to divorce.

Why is experience of parental divorce related to marital instability? This may be related to attitudes toward committed relationships addressed above. For example, Glenn and Kramer (1987) argue that this instability in marriage can be attributed to less

committed attitudes toward marriage. In other words, because children from divorced families perceive how fragile marriage is, they marry without high expectation of success in marriage, which in turn leads them to invest less time, energy, and effort to maintain their marriages. Indeed, Webster and colleagues (1995) found that the experience of parental divorce was not significantly related to overall happiness in marriage and appreciation of spouses. However, those from divorced families were more likely to show the fear of marital problems in the past year even after their current marital happiness was controlled.

In summary, parental divorce has been generally regarded as an event negatively affecting children's psychosocial adjustment including romantic relationships, which led to studies on the potential negative impact of parental divorce on children's romantic relationships. As illustrated above, many studies have found that there is a negative impact of parental divorce on children's romantic relationship qualities.

However, divorce is not a single independent event, which means that negative family dynamics or processes are likely to accompany divorce, such as increased interparental conflict, decreased economic resources, and poor parent-child relationships or poor parenting behaviors. Thus, those other family processes can be factors influencing children's romantic relationship qualities in a negative way rather than divorce per se. In addition, there is diversity within divorced families. Not every divorced family experiences the same possibly negative events or has the same degree of negativity. Hence, to understand better young adults' romantic relationships, in addition to examination of the impact of parental divorce, it is important to examine family processes

and how they may vary within divorced families, which in turn, may differentially affect children's romantic relationships.

Beyond the Simple Association between Parental Divorce and Children's Romantic Relationships

More recently, many researchers have considered factors other than family structure that can affect children's romantic relationship qualities. These factors include interparental/family conflict (e.g., Amato & Booth, 1991; Amato & DeBoer, 2001; Booth et al., 1984; Conger et al., 2000; Ensign et al., 1998; Kirk, 2002; Martin, 1990; Shulman, Scharf, Lumer, & Maurer, 2001; Sprague & Kinney, 1997), economic disadvantage (e.g., Amato, 1996, 2000; Amato & DeBoer, 2001; Amato & Sobolewski, 2001; Webster et al., 1995), parent (residential or/and non-residential)-child relationships (e.g., Amato, 1993, 2000; Amato & Sobolewski, 2001; Booth et al., 1984; Buchanan, Maccoby, & Dornbusch, 1991; Coleman & Ganong, 1984; Emery, 1999; Emery & Dillon, 1994; Furman, Simon, Shaffer, & Bouchey, 2002; Kim, Conger, Lorenz, & Elder, 2001; King, 2002; Martin, 1990; Reese-Webser & Kahn, 2005; Seiffge-Krenke, 2003; Seiffge-Krenke et al., 2001), individual characteristics of children (e.g., Amato, 1996; Amato & DeBoer, 2001; Ensign et al., 1998; Jacquet & Surra, 2001; King, 2002; Kirk, 2002; Mahl, 2001; Seiffge-Krenke, 2003; Seiffge-Krenke et al., 2001; Sprague & Kinney, 1997; Sprecher et al., 1998), children's socialization (parenting or/and problem solving skills) (e.g., Amato, 1996; Conger et al., 2000), and parent's characteristics (e.g., Amato & DeBoer, 2001; Booth et al., 1984; King, 2002; Glenn & Kramer, 1987).

As illustrated above, there are many possible factors that can affect children's romantic relationships, and furthermore, children in divorced families may or may not experience every factor (e.g., parental conflict or poor parent-child relationships). Even if they experience those factors (e.g., parental conflict or poor parent-child relationships), the degree of parental conflict or poor parent-child relationships will vary from family to family, which in turn can account for diversity in outcomes of children from divorced families. For example, as illustrated above, Sprecher and colleagues (1998) found that female young adults from divorced families were less securely attached to their romantic partners than those from always-married families and that male young adults from divorced families showed less idealism in their romantic beliefs than those from always-married families. However, when parents' marital happiness was considered, those differences no longer existed between young adults from divorced and unhappily married families.

Kirk (2002) found that family process – family conflict – interacted with parental divorce in predicting the expectation of future divorce among young adults from divorced families. Young adults from divorced families with low family conflict were not different from those in always-married families; however, young adults from divorced families with high family conflict were more likely to have an expectation of divorce than those from always-married families. In short, in researching children's romantic relationships from divorced families, in addition to examining the direct and simple association between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships, it should be examined how parental divorce influences other family processes, which in turn influence

children's romantic relationships or which buffer the negative effect of parental divorce on children's romantic relationships.

Examination of parent-child relationships. Parent-child relationships are one important family process. Generally, parent-child relationships have been found as the strongest predictor of many aspects of children's psychosocial adjustment, such as self-esteem and depression. Parent-child relationships may also be a strong influence on children's romantic relationships. It can be argued that parents are the most significant people in children's lives, and the interaction or relationship patterns with parents can be a guide to children's interaction with other significant people. Hence, parent-child relationships are important in influencing children's romantic relationships. Indeed, some studies have found that parent-child relationships are significantly related to children's romantic relationships (e.g., Amato, 2000; Amato & Sobolewski, 2001; Booth et al., 1984; Coleman & Ganong, 1984; Conger et al., 2000; Dalton, Frick-Horbury, & Kitzmann, 2006; King, 2002; Linder & Collins, 2005; Williams & Kelly, 2005). However, studies on the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships have not been extensively conducted. Hence, this current study focuses on how parent-child relationships are related to children's romantic relationship qualities and their role in the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships.

Examination of four dyads of parents and children. In the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships, there can be uniqueness or potential different roles by different dyads of parents and children.

Sons and daughters may be differentially influenced by parental divorce, which in turn differentially affects relationships with parents and/or with their romantic relationships. In addition, fathers and mothers may have different relationships with their children, which in turn may differentially influence children's romantic relationships. However, when research has examined the relationships among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships, the uniqueness or potential different roles by different dyads of parents and children have seldom been examined. Hence, this current study conceptualizes how four different dyads of parents and children are unique and different from each other in the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships.

Parent-Child Relationships

Defining Parent-Child Relationships

Some studies have pointed out parent-child relationships are a critical factor for children's psychosocial adjustment, including the quality of romantic relationships in young adulthood (e.g., Amato, 2000; Amato & Sobolewski, 2001; Booth et al., 1984; Coleman & Ganong, 1984; Conger et al., 2000; Dalton, Frick-Horbury, & Kitzmann, 2006; King, 2002; Linder & Collins, 2005; Williams & Kelly, 2005). However, when parent-child relationships are discussed, many times the definition of parent-child relationships is not clearly structured, or the elements/aspects of parent-child relationships are not as well-identified as parenting styles are.

In general, when discussing parent-child relationships, terms such as 'healthy,' (e.g., Buchanan, 2005; Hines, 1997) or 'attached/bonded' (e.g., Booth et al., 1984; Pettit

& Clawson, 1996) have been used. Empirical studies have defined the quality of parent-child relationship as follows: feeling close between parents and children (e.g., Amato & Booth, 1991; 1996; Amato & Gilbreth, 1999; Booth et al., 1984; Buchanan et al., 1991; Coleman & Ganong, 1984), the degree of open-communication/discussion (e.g., Barber, 1994; Buchanan et al., 1991; Coleman & Ganong, 1984; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1982), perceived problem/conflict between parents and children (e.g., Amato & Booth, 1996; Neiderhiser, Reiss, Hetherington, & Plomin, 1999; Seiffge-Krenke, 2003), feeling rejected by parents (Booth et al., 1984), hostility/aggression between parents and children (e.g., Linder & Collins, 2005), satisfaction in relationship between parents and children (e.g., Amato & Booth, 1996; Barber, 1994; Joyner & Campa, 2006; Seiffge-Krenke, 2003), overall happiness in relationship between parents and children (e.g., Amato & Booth, 1991; 1996), the degree of affection shown by parents (e.g., Buchanan et al., 1991; Seiffge-Krenke, 2003), and time spent with parents (e.g., Joyner & Campa, 2006). Hence, parent-child relationships may have multiple domains based on what researchers aim to examine and operationalize.

Meanwhile, parenting styles, which are often used as an indicator of parent-child relationships by researchers, have been usually defined by two categories: warmth (or support or responsiveness) and control (or demandingness). Through a combination of these two categories, four different styles of parenting have been derived. Authoritative parents are both warm and controlling. They monitor and set clear standards for children's behavior; however, they are persuasive, not intrusive or restrictive. Also, they

use supportive disciplinary methods, not punitive methods (Baumrind, 1968; 1971; 1991; Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Steinberg & Silk, 2002).

Authoritarian parents are less warm, but are highly controlling. They are obedience-oriented and want their children to obey their rules or orders without explanation or persuasion. Rather than being responsive or supportive to their children's needs, they set an orderly environment and rules and monitor children's behavior very closely and carefully. Permissive or indulgent parenting is another parenting style. These parents are very supportive and responsive to children's needs; however, they lack demandingness or control of children's behavior. They are less likely to expect mature behavior from children and are more likely to allow children's self-regulation. Baumrind (1991) suggested these parents are more likely to avoid confrontation with their children. The fourth parenting style is an indifferent or neglectful style. These parents are neither responsive to children's needs nor are they demanding or controlling (Baumrind, 1968; 1971; 1991; Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Steinberg & Silk, 2002). These parents do not monitor their children, and at the same time, they are not supportive, but actively reject and/or neglect their childrearing responsibilities all together (Baumrind, 1991).

In addition to parenting styles illustrated above, Darling and Steinberg (2003) argued that parenting can be divided into two elements – parenting practices and parenting styles. They argued that parents hold different goals toward children's socialization that affect parenting practices and styles. According to Darling and Steinberg (2003), parenting practices are parent's behaviors defined by their specific socialization goals, such as being involved in children's school works, and discipline

strategies (i.e., spanking). In other words, if parents are interested in enhancing children's academic achievement, they would show more interest in activities to enhance children's academic achievement. Meanwhile, parenting styles are parent's attitudes and "emotional climate" in which parent's behaviors are expressed, such as conversational tone, body language, and inattention. In short, Darling and Steinberg (2003) argued that parenting styles are not related to or independent from parent's socialization goals toward their children, but represent a general emotional atmosphere between parents and children.

One may raise the question if parenting styles are conceptually compatible to the concept of parent-child relationships. Indeed, here is the potential difference between parenting and parent-child relationships. As illustrated above, parenting styles or behaviors focus on how parents show their affection and control and engage in specific behaviors, such as strategies to enhance their goals toward children. Meanwhile, parent-child relationships focus on how parents and children communicate with each other, perceive closeness, warmth, rejection, and conflict between them, and are aggressive to each other. In other words, parenting has been conceptualized as more of a one-way process from parents to children, while parent-child relationships are conceptualized as mutual interactions between parents and children. This may lead to subjective and/or evaluative feeling about relationships, such as feeling close, satisfied, or conflicted, and can be influenced by parenting. However, many studies have combined and used parenting and parent-child relationship aspects illustrated above together in order to examine parent-child relationships (e.g., Amato & Gilbreth, 1999; Hetherington, 1988; Bank et al., 2004).

The potential differences between parent-child relationships and parenting styles/behaviors were suggested; parent-child relationships are rather mutual process while parenting styles/behaviors are one-way process. However, parenting style/behaviors still have important components of parent-child relationships, such as warmth, support, and rejection. In addition, mutual parent-child relationship may not be able to be fully separate from one-way parenting style/behaviors because parent-child interactions happen many times under parents' parenting their children. Thus, it may be understandable and/or acceptable to examine parenting styles or behaviors for understanding parent-child relationships. Nevertheless, in future studies, parent-child relationships and parenting styles/behaviors should be used in more clearly defined, operationalized, and structured way.

Theoretical Perspective on Parent-Child Relationships and Children's Romantic Relationships: Social Learning Theory

Social Learning theory offers a framework for understanding the impact of on-going parent-child relationships on children's romantic relationship qualities. In short, children learn how to interact in close relationships through observing and modeling parents' behaviors toward them as well as through interaction with parents. The main tenet of social learning theory is that most human behavior is learned by observation through modeling (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Crosbie-Burnett & Lewis, 1993). Individuals observe a certain behavior, and they also observe information about which behavior is good for a certain situation. Hence, based on this information, people select certain behaviors, and the information serves as a guide for future action. This observation and

selection of a certain behavior can be parent-child relationships. In other words, a child observes how his/her father and mother react and behave toward him/her when they are interacting with each other, select behaviors, and use those behaviors as a guide for their other close and intimate relationships, such as their romantic relationships.

This process is largely based on cognitive processes, so if people are not aware of this information, learning new behavior hardly happens (Bandura, 1977). Modeling means “psychological matching process” since modeling influences have much broader psychological effects than just simple mimicry and learning takes various forms, such as behavior patterns, judgment, and general rules of (re)acting in a certain situation. Bandura (1977, 1986) illustrated how this observational learning is processed for individuals to create their own behaviors.

Four different processes are suggested in regards to observational learning (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Crosbie-Burnett & Lewis, 1993). The first process is ‘attention process.’ This process refers to the idea that people cannot imitate unless they pay attention to the model. There are various determinants of attention such as attractiveness of a model to an observer, relationship between a model and an observer (regularly or hardly contacted to an observer), a model’s distinctiveness or power to an observer, or the observers’ capacity to receive information from models. Parents are obviously distinctive and powerful models to children and children interact and model their parents on daily basis. Thus, parent-child relationships can be argued to meet the need of attracting children’s attention to model.

The second process is 'retention process.' This second major process involved in observational learning is the retention of activities modeled in their symbolic form. In other words, even though individuals pay attention to a certain behavior, since imitating models frequently happens somewhat later after observing. If individuals do not remember observed behaviors, they fail to be influenced by their observation. Hence, delayed modeling requires more cognitive abilities than immediate modeling. Regarding symbolic forms of information, there are two forms – verbal and visual. After modeled activities have been transformed into images and verbal symbols, these memory codes serve as guides for performance.

The third process is 'motor reproduction process.' After information and retention processes, individuals convert symbolic representations into actual appropriate actions. Acting out those modeled behaviors successfully depends on an individuals' availability of component/motor skills. The last process is 'reinforcement and motivational process.' Social learning theory distinguishes acquisition and actual performance since individuals do not enact every behavior they learn. Various reinforcements determine whether behavior models are actually acted out or kept from being enacted. In other words, people are more likely to enact behaviors modeled when a model has a positive consequence. Further, if individuals observe a modeled behavior that results in punishment to a model, they are less likely to enact the modeled behavior. Also, individuals are more likely to adopt modeled behavior if the behavior produces outcomes they value than if the behavior results in unrewarding or punishing effects.

However, based on ‘reinforcement and motivational process, one might ask the question would parents reinforce their ineffective communication skills intentionally, particularly since children’s certain behaviors are strengthened by reinforcement? This question can be answered by how parents react to their children’s misbehaviors in order to correct them. If parents have ineffective communication and parenting behaviors with children, such as less affective, less responsive, less consistent, and harsh behavior, children will learn these parents’ poor interpersonal relationship or response skills. Again, children observe and learn how to communicate with other people through their parent’s behavior, which in turn results in poor relationships with their romantic partners.

Indeed, Crain (2000) argued that most parents overlook how parenting behavior can serve as models to their children even when they try to correct misbehavior of children. In other words, when parents discipline their children using ineffective parenting, the children may learn ineffective responses from parents, and they enact these responses with their partners in their romantic relationship.

In summary, according to social learning theory, learning a certain behavior by observation is not limited to that behavior (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Davis & Cummings, 1994). Individuals – active agents – also generate the general rules or principles underlying particular behaviors, and they then use these rules to create new behaviors in their own way, which goes beyond what they observed and learned. Hence, it can be explained how qualities of parent-child relationship can be expanded into their romantic relationship qualities.

Modeling parent-child relationships into romantic relationships. There are some studies that directly used social learning theory perspectives as a framework to examine the association between parent-child relationships and children's romantic relationships. For example, Conger and his colleagues (2000) examined the connection between parenting behavior toward young adults and young adults competence in their ongoing romantic relationships, using social learning theory to understand this connection. They hypothesized that if children observe ineffective interaction/parenting behavior from parents, they model those ineffective interpersonal behaviors and enact these behaviors in their romantic relationship. Indeed, they found that 'nurturant-involving' parenting predicted young adults' affective behaviors toward their romantic partners, which in turn predicted their happiness, satisfaction, and commitment in their relationships.

Also, based on social learning theory, Coleman and Ganong (1984) argued that modeling by parents is most effective when children feels close to parents since models attract children's attention when they are distinctive and favorable figures. Hence, they hypothesized that family integration predicts attitudes toward marriage, marriage role expectations, and attitudes toward divorce. They found closeness to parents is significantly related to positive attitudes toward marriage. They also found the connection between closeness to parents and positive attitudes toward marriage regardless of family structure – always married, divorced, and step families.

Similarly, other studies show the link between qualities of parent-child relationships and children's romantic relationship qualities. It has been found that children who had poor relationships with parents, such as feeling distant (e.g, Booth et al,

1984), experiencing aggressive behaviors (e.g., Capaldi & Clark, 1998; Martin, 1990), ineffective conflict resolution (e.g., Reese-Weber & Kahn, 2005), expression of negative affect, including hostility and angry coercion (e.g., Kim et al., 2001), are likely to have similar qualities in their romantic relationships with their partners. In summary, research has found support for the social learning theory premise that children's close and positive relationships with parents are critical for developing positive romantic relationships with partners.

Parental divorce and parent-child relationships. Social learning theory can be used to explain the importance of parent-child relationships for understanding children's romantic relationships qualities. A social learning theoretical perspective may also help explain the link between parental divorce and parent-child relationships and divorce and romantic relationship qualities through two family processes: lower quality parent-child relationships and interparental conflict.

The link between parental divorce and negative parent-child relationships can be attributed to existing negative relationships with parents even before parental divorce. According to studies (e.g., Lindahl, Clements, & Markman, 1998; Rogge & Bradbury, 1999), individuals who have poor communication skills or interaction patterns are more likely to end up experiencing divorce. Thus, children from divorced families may be more likely to have parents who have poor communication patterns, which may not only be limited to their spouses, but also expanded to relationships with their children. Thus, children in divorced families may have more chance to learn poor relationship interaction

skills with their parents even before divorce, which can continue into parent-child relationships after parental divorce.

Indeed, there are some studies showing that qualities of parent-child relationships in divorced families were lower than those in always-married families even before the divorce (e.g., Block, Block, & Gjerde, 1988). This may be because children learn negative relationship patterns through modeling interparental conflict and/or through negative interactions with parents even before parental divorce.

In addition, children in divorced families are more likely to be exposed to interparental conflict before and/or after parental divorce than children in always-married families. Based on social learning theory, it can be argued that children can observe, learn, model, and apply their parents' negative interpersonal skills, such as inefficient problem solving and negative communication skills, into relationships with their parents. In short, children can learn ineffective interpersonal behaviors by observing and modeling their parents, and applying those behaviors to relationships with parents. Indeed, existing studies (e.g., Amato & DeBoer, 2001; Booth et al., 1984; Conger et al., 2000; Ensign et al., 1998; Kirk, 2002; Shulman et al., 2001) support that interparental conflict is linked to children's lower quality romantic relationships.

In this section, social learning theory was used for understanding the importance of parent-child relationships for children's romantic relationships. Also, it was addressed how parental divorce can be linked to lower qualities of children's relationships with parents. However, there is diversity within divorced families and all children from divorced families do not have lower quality parent-child relationships, which may

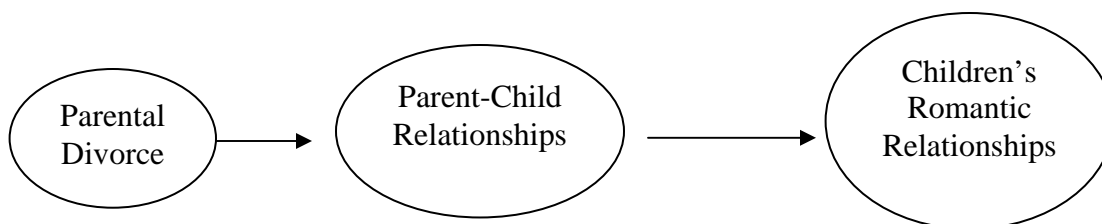
negatively affects children's romantic relationships. Thus, in the following section, the possible dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships using both a mediation and moderation model will be addressed.

Dynamics of Parental Divorce, Parent-Child Relationships, and Children's Romantic Relationships

Parent-Child Relationships as a Mediator

One of possible dynamics for understanding the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships is that parental divorce negatively affects parent-child relationships, which in turn negatively influences children's romantic relationships. That is parent-child relationships mediate the relationship between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. Parent-Child Relationships in the Process of Parental Divorce and Children's Romantic Relationships



Generally, it is argued that the experience of divorce negatively impacts parental relationships with children (Emery & Dillon, 1994). Indeed, a large body of research has supported the idea that many divorced parents and children have difficult relationships compared to two-parent families, at least temporarily. For example, parental divorce

lessens the degree of closeness and warmth in the parent-child relationships (Feldman, Gowen, & Fisher, 1998; Mahl, 2001) and disrupts the attachment between parents and children (Tayler, Parker, & Roy, 1995; Walker & Ehrenberg, 1998). Parents and children have relatively more tension and conflict, less affection, poor parenting, and less supervision (Amato & Booth, 1996; Barber & Eccles, 1992; Buchanan et al., 1996; Emery & Dillon, 1994; Mutchler, Hunt, Coopman, & Mutchler, 1991; Richards & Schmiede, 1993).

Researchers have argued that divorced parents (usually mothers) are likely to have difficulties in interactions with children because they have difficulty in their own adjustment, such as emotional vulnerability, financial declination, or juggling multiple tasks after divorce (e.g., Amato, 1993; 1996; Amato & Booth, 1991; Hetherington & Stanley-Hagan, 1997). For example, Amato (1993) argued that divorce is a traumatic experience to both parents, which leads to difficulty in adjustment, such as anxiety, depression, anger, and less affection to children. In addition to parents' unhealthy psychosocial status, residential parents' (mostly mothers) juggle many tasks that used to be taken care of by two parents, which has been regarded as an additional source of poor residential parent-child relationships. Due to this burden, residential parents (mostly mothers) are likely to provide less supervision, be more inconsistent, and less effective in controlling their children (Emery, 1999; Webster et al., 1995). Also, they need time to adjust to their new life, which can create ineffective parent-child relationships, such as being less affectionate, showing a lack of warmth, and being emotionally insecure toward their children (Amato, 1996; Amato & Booth, 1991).

In addition to residential mothers, non-residential fathers also have a harder time in interacting with their children than do residential fathers (Hetherington & Stanley-Hagan, 1997). Historically, fathers are regarded as breadwinners, while mothers are seen as the primary caretakers for children. Fathers spend less time with children and are less bonded with children as compared with mothers (Arendell, 2000; Hochschild, 1989; Lamb, 1997; Williams & Kelly, 2006). After divorce, non-residential fathers become even more disengaged from children and feel even less competent in interacting with children (Carlson, 2006; Harris & Ryan, 2004; Hawkins et al., 2006; McDowell, Parke, & Wang, 2003).

Non-residential fathers are also more likely to be permissive rather than authoritative than are residential fathers and assume their roles as a recreational and companionate role rather than a teacher or disciplinarian role (Furstenberg & Cherlin, 1991). Furthermore, compared to non-residential mothers, non-residential fathers are less sensitive to their children's emotional needs, communicate more poorly, and are less knowledgeable and interested in children's lives (Furstenberg & Nord, 1985).

Thus, parental divorce negatively affects parent-child relationships. And, as aforementioned, mother and father-child relationships are very influential to children's development of their romantic relationships (e.g., Booth et al., 1984; Dalton et al., 2006; Duran-Aydintug, 1997; Linder et al., 2002; Reese-Weber & Bartle-Haring, 1998; Reese-Weber & Kahn, 2005; Riggio, 2004; Seiffge-Krenke, 2003; Summers et al., 1998).

Hence, it can be argued that parental divorce negatively affects parent-child relationships

and these relationships in turn negatively influence children's romantic relationships qualities.

Furthermore, as mentioned in social learning theory section, children from divorced families may already have poorer relationships with parents before parental divorce due to parents' poor communication skills and interaction patterns. Thus, these possible existing poor parent-child relationship qualities before parental divorce can be worsened after parental divorce when combined with many stressful events of divorce. Thus, future examinations of the dynamics among parent-child relationships before parental divorce, the perceived stress of parents and children around the divorce, and parent-child relationships after parental divorce would benefit from testing a mediation model as suggested in this dissertation.

Existing research supports the mediation model that parental divorce is related to poor parent-child relationships and that these relationships may negatively affect children's romantic relationship qualities. For example, poor parent-child relationships after parental divorce is associated with children's greater fear and anxiety about romantic relationships (Duran-Aydintug, 1997; Riggio, 2004), less satisfaction in romantic relationships (Booth et al, 1984; Riggio, 2004), less happiness in love (Feldman et al., 1998), more problems in creating serious relationships with romantic partners (Booth et al., 1984), and less trust in their dates (Franklin, Janoff-Bulman, & Roberts, 1990; King, 2002; Mahl, 2001). Also, Amato and Sobolewski (2001) found that parental divorce negatively affects father-child relationships, which in turn influences children's

psychosocial well-being, such as life satisfaction, self-esteem, psychological distress, and happiness.

In summary, given that the association between parental divorce and parent-child relationships, as well as between parent-child relationships and children's romantic relationships, it can be argued that parent-child relationships mediate the relationship between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships. Thus, rather than parental divorce directly leading to children's poor romantic relationships, parental divorce may instead be negatively related to parent-child relationships, which in turn leads to poor romantic relationship qualities in children.

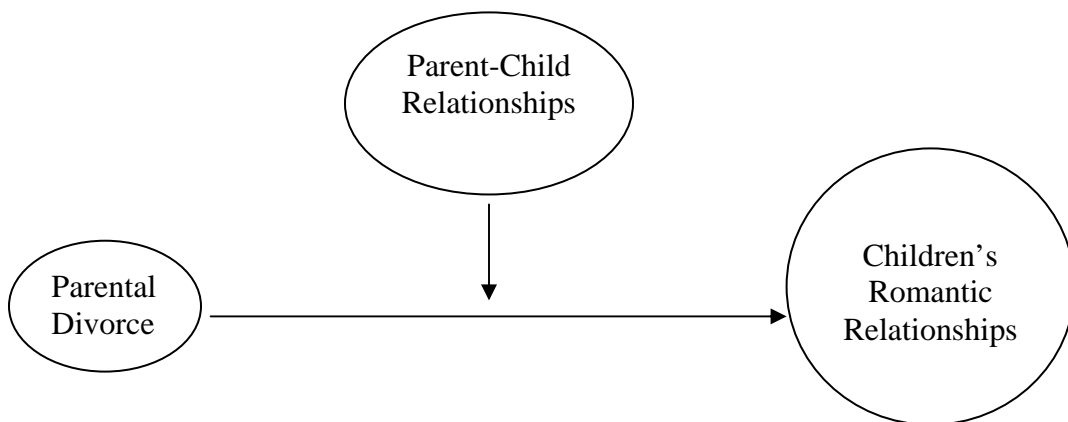
Parent-Child Relationships as a Moderator

As argued, parent-child relationships can serve as a mediator between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships. However, it is also possible that parent-child relationships may serve as a moderator between these two variables. In other words, even though parental divorce is generally known to be negatively linked to qualities of parent-child relationships, the degree to which divorce influences parent-child relationships may differ based on varying risk factors, such as continued conflict between parents or financial stress, or protective factors, such as a cooperative coparenting arrangement or positive parent's psychological adjustment. Thus, parental divorce may not uniformly influence parent-child relationships as suggested by the mediation model. Instead, the relationship between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships may depend on the quality of post-divorce parent-child relationships. Therefore, the moderation model asks if the negative influence of parental divorce on children's

romantic relationships can be weakened by positive and healthy relationships with parents.

There is research that supports the varying impact of parental divorce on families. The severity and duration of the negative effects of parental divorce, such as diminished parent-child relationship qualities, vary from person to person (Amato, 2000b). Other factors, such as parents' distress following divorce (Emery, 1999; Webster et al., 1995), interparental conflict (Davies & Cummings, 1994; Fauber, Forehand, Thomas, & Wierson, 1990), financial status (Amato, 1993), and parents and children's own characteristics (Emery, 1999; Hetherington et al., 1998) also vary, leading to differing levels of post-divorce parent-child relationships. In other words, depending on these conditions, the qualities of parent-child relationships after divorce can be different. Thus, this difference in parent-child relationships may moderate the effect of parental divorce on children's romantic relationships (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. Parent-Child Relationships as a Moderator between Parental Divorce and Children's Romantic Relationships



There are some empirical studies to support the moderation model. Studies have found that experiencing parental divorce is related to the negative quality of courtships; however, the strength of association between parental divorce and the quality of courtships depended on parent-child relationships (e.g., Amato & Booth, 1991; Booth et al., 1984; Coleman & Ganong, 1984; Sprague & Kinney, 1997). In addition, Duran-Aydintug (1997) found that children's supportive and open relationships with their mothers and fathers after parental divorce played an important role in shaping children's positive attitudes to committed relationships and marriages and healthy dating behavior patterns. So, while parental divorce negatively affects children's romantic relationship qualities, there is variety in post-divorce parent-child relationship qualities. If children have or maintain positive, supportive, and healthy relationships with parents after parental divorce, the potential negative link between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships can be buffered.

In summary, there is diversity in the quality of parent-child relationships within divorced families. This diversity can make difference in romantic relationships of children from divorced families. Hence, it can be argued that the association between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships depends on the quality of parent-child relationships, as seen in Figure 3.

Four Dyads of Parents and Children

Even though many researchers are aware of the potential role of gender of family members in their dynamics, examination of four different dyads of parents and children have not been examined extensively in the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-

child relationships, and children's romantic relationships. For example, the degree of impact of parental divorce on daughters and sons' romantic relationships may vary (e.g., Herzog & Cooney, 2002; Jacquet & Surra, 2001). Also, sons and daughters' romantic relationships may be differentially influenced by relationships with their parents (e.g., Dalton et al., 2006; King, 2002). In addition, fathers may differentially influence sons and daughters' romantic relationships from mothers. However, the majority of studies on parent-child relationships have focused mainly on mother-child relationships only or combined the effect of fathers and mothers' on children's romantic relationship qualities under the name of 'parent'-child relationships. Furthermore, not many studies have examined the role of non-residential father-child relationships on children's romantic relationships. Children's relationships with divorced non-residential fathers can be differently related to children's romantic relationship qualities from their relationships with non-divorced residential fathers. Thus, the following section argues for the examination of four different dyads of parents and children – father-son, mother-son, father-daughters, and mother-daughters, in order to study potential unique and different role of the different dyads on understanding romantic relationships of young adult children.

The Gender of the Child

In research on parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and their effects on children's well-being, such as romantic relationships, a number of scholars suggests that the gender of children should be considered (e.g., Amato & Booth, 1991; Amato & Gilbreth, 1999; Booth et al., 1984; Hetherington et al., 1998; Kaufman & Uhlenberg,

1998). Gender of children may make a difference in how parental divorce affects children's well-being. In addition, parents may interact differently with their sons and daughters, which in turn uniquely influence romantic relationships of sons and daughters.

Sons, daughters, and parental divorce. Early studies (e.g., Hetherington, 1989; Hetherington & Clingempeel, 1992) suggested that sons are more likely to be negatively affected by parental divorce, partly because male children lose access to the same gender parents. However, more recent studies show that the role of gender of child is inconsistent: some studies found that there are no differences in sons and daughters (e.g., Amato, 1991; Aseltine, 1996; Zill, Morrison, & Coiro, 1993) and other studies found that the negative long-term effects of parental divorce are stronger for daughters than for sons (e.g., Cooney & Kurz, 1996; Glenn & Kramer, 1985; McLeod, 1991; McLanahan & Sandefur, 1994; Rodgers, 1994).

How does the impact of parental divorce on children's romantic relationships vary by child gender? In earlier studies, Booth and colleagues (1984) found that females from divorced families are more likely to experience disadvantage in their courtship than males from divorced families. More recently, studies also found that women's parental divorce was significantly related to more negative communication behaviors and less positive problem-focused behaviors in interaction with partners, while men's parental divorce was not related to those behaviors (e.g., Herzog & Cooney, 2002; Sanders, Halford, & Behrens, 1999). Jacquet and Surra (2001) found that female young adults from divorced families show more vulnerability about romantic relationships, such as less trust in partners, doubt in love, and more ambivalent attitudes toward commitment They argued.

that the different impact of parental divorce on daughters and sons' romantic relationships can be attributed to different socialization of men and women. Women's socialization is based on creating and sustaining interpersonal relationships more so than are men's.

Generally, it is argued that females may be more likely to be vulnerable to the stress from relationships with people than are males because they are more relationship-orientated than males (Gilligan, 1982). Siddique and D'Acry (1984) found that compared to male adolescents, female adolescents react significantly more to social stresses that are relevant to family and peer group, which in turn lead them to more negative psychosocial adjustment. Hence, if daughters experience parental divorce, they are more likely to become fragile about relationships than sons, which lead to more negative romantic relationship qualities.

Daughters, sons, and mother and father-child relationships. Generally, divorced mothers and children have problems after mother's marital dissolution; however, divorced mothers have more problems with their sons than with daughters (Hetherington, 1988, 1989) and have less close relationships with sons than with daughters (Aquilino, 1994). For example, Hetherington (1988) found that divorced mothers are more likely to engage in angry and escalating coercive cycles with their sons than with daughters. Furthermore, divorced mothers and their sons continued to have problems even six years after divorce. Booth and Amato (1994) found that residential mother-son relationships are less close than residential mother-daughter relationships, even in adulthood. Hence, it can be argued that parental divorce deteriorates residential mother-son relationships more

than residential mother-daughter relationships. In addition, given that closeness between mother and children is important for children's romantic relationships qualities, it can be argued that sons may be more disadvantaged in developing positive romantic relationships after parental divorce.

However, this relationship may not hold due to the mixed findings of mother-child and father-child relationships' impact on children's romantic relationships. For example, some studies found that non-residential fathers tend to visit their sons more often and longer than their daughters (e.g., Amato & Rezac, 1994; Hetherington & Kelly, 2002; Manning & Smock, 1999) and that divorced father-son relationships are better than divorced father-daughter relationships (e.g., Amato & Sobolewski, 2001); other studies show no differences in visitation or involvement of non-residential fathers by children's gender (e.g., Amato & Gilbreth, 1999; Furstenberg et al., 1987; King, 1994; Mott, 1990; Stephens, 1996) and no difference in the association between relationships with non-residential fathers and children's well-being (which can affect their romantic relationships in young adulthood) by gender of the child. Other studies have shown that father-son relationships were the most negatively affected by parental divorce (e.g., Kaufman & Uhlenberg, 1998).

Disentangling Mother-Child Relationships and Father-Child Relationships

Despite the established contribution of fathers to children's adjustment (Amato, 1994; Amato & Rivera, 1999; Arendell, 2000; Hosley & Montemayor, 1997; King & Heard, 1999; Lamb, 1997; Videon, 2005), studies of father-child relationships are scarce compared to mother-child relationships due to the traditional belief that mothers are main

'caretaker' for children (Arendell, 2000). Even recently, many studies have focused solely on mother-child relationships when examining children's psychosocial outcomes, including romantic relationships (e.g., Black, 2002; Bynum & Kotchick, 2006; DeHart, Murray, Pelham, & Rose, 2003; Govender, 2005; Huston & Aronson, 2005; Laursen, Furman, & Mooney, 2006; Mireault, Thomas, & Bearor, 2002; Orsmond, Seltzer, Greenberg, & Krauss, 2006; Mayseless & Scharf, 2006; Reis & Youniss, 2004; Zheng, Chen, & Chen, 2005).

However, more recently, it has been recognized that fathers play multiple roles in families, such as protectors, models, moral guides, companions, and care providers in addition to breadwinners (Lamb, 1997). In other words, fathers contribute to their children's development, not only through instrumental provision, such as financial capital, but also through their interaction with children as mothers do (Amato & Rivera, 1999; Lamb, 1997; Stolz et al., 2005; Videon, 2005). Nonetheless, as aforementioned, studies of fathers' contribution to children's psychosocial adjustment are rare compared to those on mother's contribution, especially father's influence on children's romantic relationship qualities. However, studies on fathering and its effect generally have found, as with mothering, that good father-child relationships are related to children's positive psychosocial adjustment (e.g., Flouri & Buchanan, 2003; Harris & Morgan, 1991; Harris, Furstenberg, & Marmer, 1998; Marsiglio, Amato, & Day, 2000; Paley, Conger, & Harold, 2000; Videon, 2005; Williams & Kelly, 2005; Zimmerman, Salem, & Malton, 1995).

Father vs. mother: More important or just different? Recently, studies on father's influence, as well as mother's, on children's romantic relationships have been conducted (e.g., Duran-Aydintug, 1997; King, 2002; Reese-Weber & Bartle-Haring, 1998; Riggio, 2004; Seiffge-Krenke, 2003). Some studies have found that mother-child relationship qualities were more significant in children's romantic relationships than father-child relationship qualities (e.g., King, 2002). Generally, those studies show that children's relationships with mother, as well as fathers, are predictive of children's romantic relationship qualities. Some studies have even shown that relationships with fathers were more crucial to children's romantic relationships than relationships with mothers.

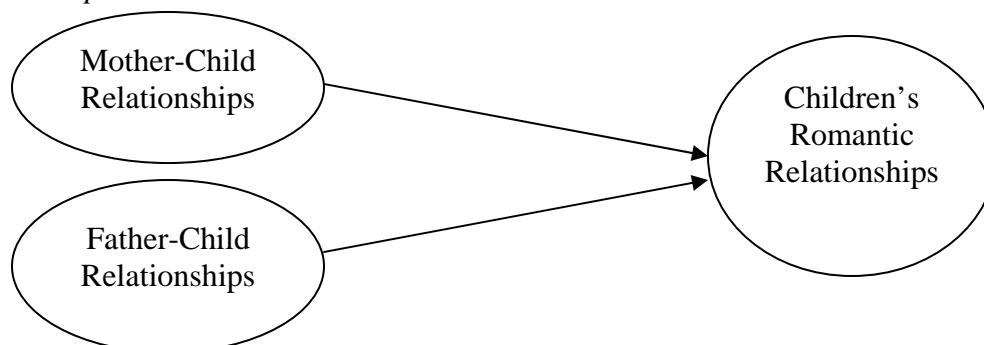
For example, research has found that mother-child conflict resolution and father-child conflict resolution were similarly related to children's conflict resolution with romantic partners (Reese-Weber & Bartle-Haring, 1998) and that supportive relationships with mothers and fathers were related to positive romantic relationships of children (Seiffge-Krenke, 2003). Meanwhile, some studies found that earlier parenting by fathers, but not by mothers, were related to young adult children's romantic relationship qualities, such as feeling attached, reporting their romantic partners as supportive, or valuing their romantic relationships as meaningful and important (e.g., Dalton, Frick-Horbury, & Kitmann, 2006). In addition, positive relationships with fathers were negatively related to children's anxiety in close relationships, not with mothers (e.g., Riggio, 2004).

Meanwhile, some studies have found that father and mother-child relationships differentially influence children's romantic relationships or psychosocial adjustment. For example, Summers and colleagues (1998) found that father-young adult child relationship

qualities were related to those children's security of romantic relationships, while their relationships with mothers were related to their depressive symptoms. In addition, Linder, Crick, and Collins (2002) found in a sample of university students that the more alienated children felt from mothers, the more relational aggression they used toward their partners. Interestingly, they also found that the more children communicated with their fathers, the more likely they were to be relationally aggressive toward their romantic partners. Linder and colleagues (2002) argued that the link between children's communication with fathers and being relationally aggressive toward romantic partners may be due to enmeshed parenting.

In short, even though the importance of mother, as well as father-child, relationships on children's romantic relationships has been recognized, studies on both mother and father-child relationships are uncommon. Even among the few studies on mother and father-child relationships, the findings are not consistent. Hence, father-child and mother-child relationships should be examined more extensively in order to understand how those relationships are uniquely, or similarly related to children's romantic relationship qualities (see Figure 4).

Figure 4. The Impact of Mother and Father-Child Relationships on Children's Romantic Relationships



Non-Residential Father-Child Relationships

Research on non-residential father-child relationships is similarly lacking. Do non-residential fathers have similar relationships with their children as residential fathers do? Does the unique situation of non-residential fathers influence the relationships with their children? While the role of non-residential fathers has gained some attention, many aspects of these fathers and their interaction with their children are still not known. Furthermore, studies on parent-child relationships after parental divorce have primarily focused on the resident parent (mostly mother) and children (Amato & Gilbreth, 1999; Hetherington & Stanley-Hagan, 1997; King, 1994; King & Heard, 1999; Marsiglio et al., 2000; Videon, 2005; Zimmerman et al., 1995).

Generally after parental divorce, many children have little contact with their non-residential fathers and the frequency of contact declines over time (Carlson, 2006; King & Heard, 1999). Not surprisingly, non-residential fathers are less likely to be involved with their children than are residential fathers (Carlson, 2006; Harris & Ryan, 2004; Hawkins, Amato, & King, 2006; McDowell et al., 2003). Due to the awareness of the negative effect of fathers' absence and lack of financial resources in divorced families (Amato, 1994; Dawson, 1991; Dornbusch et al., 1985; Hetherington & Clingempeel, 1992; Thomson, Hanson, & McLanahan, 1994; Webster et al., 1995), the majority of studies on non-residential fathers have focused on frequency of post-divorce contact or visitation and child support (e.g., Crockett et al., 1993; Furstenberg, Morgan, & Allison, 1987; King, 1994).

However, non-residential fathers' having contact with children does not necessarily lead children to positive outcomes. Instead, the quality of the relationships between non-residential fathers and children, such as an emotional bond, an authoritative parenting style, and higher levels of parental advice or support, are important for children's outcomes (Amato & Gilbreth, 1999; Barber, 1994; Carlson, 2006). Indeed, some empirical studies support that non-residential fathers are influential to children's psychosocial adjustment, such as externalizing behavioral problems (e.g., antisocial behaviors and delinquency) and internalizing behavioral problems (e.g., negative feelings, depression, lower self-esteem) (e.g., Aquilino, 2006; Barber, 1994; Carlson, 2006; King, 2006; Stewart, 2003; White & Gilbreth, 2001)

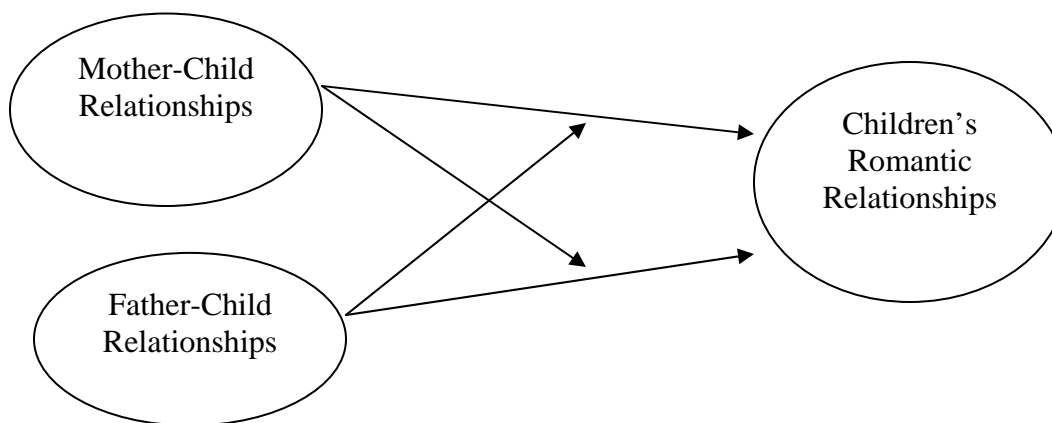
In addition, given that an individual's psychosocial adjustment is linked to romantic relationship qualities (e.g., Assh & Byers, 1996; Beach & Fincham, 1998; Remen & Chambless, 2001; Tolpin, Cohen, Gunthert, & Farrehi, 2006), it can be assumed that qualities of relationships between non-residential fathers and children are important for children's romantic relationship qualities. Indeed, non-residential father-child relationships in divorced families have generally been found to be important in shaping children's romantic relationship qualities. Distant relationships with divorced fathers are related to children's unhappiness in their romantic relationships (e.g., Booth et al., 1984). In addition, conflict resolution styles with non-residential fathers predicted conflict styles with romantic partners (e.g., Reese-Weber & Kahn, 2005), and poor relationships with non-residential fathers were related to higher anxiety in children's romantic relationships (e.g., Riggio, 2004). However, this argument is not fully examined

in empirical studies; thus, examination of non-residential father-child relationships should be conducted.

Interaction of Father-Child Relationships and Mother-Child Relationships on Children's Romantic Relationships

There is also a need to examine the possible interaction between mother-child and father-child relationships on influencing children's romantic relationships (see Figure 5). Most of those studies examining the effect of father and mother-child relationships on children do not examine the possible interaction effect between mother and father-child relationships. Instead, they focus on which relationship is more powerful or whether they have unique or independent effects on children's romantic relationships (e.g., Amato, 1994; Amato & Rivera, 1999; Harris et al., 1998; Parke, 2002; Stolz et al., 2005).

Figure 5. Interaction of Mother-Child and Father-Child Relationships on Children's Romantic Relationships



As addressed in the earlier section, it is important to understand fathers and mothers' roles in influencing children's outcomes; however, it is also important to understand further how those two different relationships interact in influencing children's

outcomes. For example, even if a child has a poor relationship with a mother, it is possible that a positive relationship with a (non) residential father may buffer the negative effect of poor mother-child relationships on the child's psychosocial adjustment. This more complex examination may help explain the diversity of outcomes of children from divorced families.

Few studies have examined the interaction effects of mother-child and father-child relationships or parenting on children's outcomes. Buchanan et al (1996) and King and Sobolewski (2006) found that the impact of residential mother-child relationships are stronger and more consistent than are non-residential father-child relationships. However, as argued above, children with poor relationships with mothers, but close relationships with non-residential fathers are better off than children with poor relationships with both parents in regards to externalizing and internalizing problem behaviors.

Jones and colleagues (2000) examined how father and mother's parenting behaviors during adolescence affected adolescent children's outcomes, including their attachment with romantic partners in young adulthood. They found that firm maternal control during adolescence was related to young adult children's secure romantic attachment with their romantic partners; however, there was no main effect of paternal parenting behaviors. However, they also found that there was an interaction between maternal parenting behaviors and paternal parenting behaviors in predicting the attachment security of children to their romantic partners. Children having higher level of maternal acceptance and firm paternal control were more likely to have securely attached romantic relationships with their partners.

These three studies would seem to suggest that there may be an interaction effect of father and mother-child relationships on parent-child relationships and children's romantic relationships. Hence, future research examining how non-residential/residential father and mother-child relationships interact in influencing children's romantic relationship qualities would benefit from a better understanding of the dynamics of parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships.

Conclusion

As divorced families have been increasing, psychosocial adjustment of children from divorced families has been a focus of researchers. Compared to earlier studies, more recent studies have examined how family processes, such as interparental conflict, help to explain children's post-divorce psychosocial adjustment. In this paper, parent-child relationships were examined as an important family process, and its role in the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships.

The potential differences between of parent-child relationship qualities and parenting behaviors were discussed. Many times, parent-child relationships and parenting behaviors are used interchangeably. However, there is a potential difference between parent-child relationships and parenting behaviors. Parenting behaviors have been conceptualized as more of a one-way process from parents to children, while parent-child relationships are conceptualized as mutual interactions between parents and children. Hence, in future studies, parent-child relationships and parenting behaviors should be more clearly defined, operationalized, and structured way in order to understand their roles in children's romantic relationships.

In this paper, a social learning theoretical perspective was used to help explain the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships, specifically, how parental divorce and family processes before and after divorce may affect parent-child relationships and/or children's romantic relationships. In addition, how parent-child relationships can affect children's romantic relationships was addressed from a social learning theory perspective.

Two potential different modes for understanding the dynamic among parental divorce, mother and father-child relationships, and children's romantic relationship qualities were suggested. The first was a mediation model, which proposed that parent-child relationships may mediate parental divorce and children's romantic relationships. The second model was a moderation model, which proposed that parent-child relationships may moderate the link between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships.

In addition, the importance of examining the potential role of four dyads of parents and children was addressed. Historically, mothers have been regarded as a main caretaker. Thus the majority of studies on parent-child relationships have been conducted on mother-child relationships only. Hence, in this paper, the need to study father-child relationships and their importance for influencing children's romantic relationship qualities was argued. The need for including non-residential father-child relationships was also stressed. The possible role of gender of the child in the dynamics of parental divorce, relationships with parents, and children's romantic relationship qualities was also discussed.

In conclusion, the examination of the dynamics among parental divorce, father and mother-child relationships, and children's romantic relationship qualities would provide a better understanding of why and how children from divorced families may and may not have different qualities of romantic relationships than children from ever married families.

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CHAPTER III
MOTHER AND FATHER-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIPS AS MEDIATORS
BETWEEN PARENTAL DIVORCE AND ADOLESCENTS' COMMITTED
ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS IN YOUNG ADULTHOOD

Romantic relationships have been defined as on-going voluntary interactions that are mutually acknowledged and have “peculiar intensity” marked by expressions of affection (Collins, 2003). The achievement of interpersonal intimacy through romantic relationships is widely regarded as a central developmental task of young adults (Feldman, Gowen, & Fisher, 1998). Indeed, individuals seek intimate romantic partners as they approach young adulthood, and by young adulthood, time with romantic partners significantly increases at the expense of involvement with friends and crowds (Reis, Lin, Bennett, & Nezlek, 1993). Developing positive and intimate romantic relationships with partners are important because the qualities of romantic relationships predict both physical and emotional distress (Wickrama, Lorenz, Conger, & Elder, 1997) and feelings of self-worth (Kuttler, LaGreca, Prinstein, 1999).

Especially, in committed romantic relationships, partner's supportive behaviors may reduce emotional withdrawal, discourage depression, prevent conflict from escalating, and increase emotional intimacy within the relationship, which in turn increases relationship satisfaction (Cutrona, 1996). In addition, instability in committed romantic relationships, such as divorce and breaking up with a partner, are related to mood or substance disorders (Overbeek, Vollebergh, Engels, & Meeus, 2003). Hence, it

is important to understand the precursors or factors related to positive qualities of committed romantic relationships, especially in young adulthood.

When considering young adults' romantic relationships, many studies have examined the association between parental divorce and children's romantic relationship qualities, assuming the negative impact of parental divorce. Indeed, compared to children from always-married families, children from divorced families have been found to have lower quality romantic relationships (e.g., Amato, 1999; Knox, Zusman, & DeCuzzi, 2004; Summers, Forehand, Armistead, & Tannenbaum, 1998). However, the experience of parental divorce is not the only factor affecting children's romantic relationship qualities since a number of different processes of families influence those relationship qualities, including interparental/family conflict (e.g., Amato & DeBoer, 2001), economic disadvantage (Amato & Sobolewski, 2001), individual characteristics of children (e.g., King, 2002), and socialization (parenting or/and problem solving skills) (e.g., Conger, Cui, Bryant, & Elder, 2000).

The current study examines how the qualities of young adult children's committed relationships are related to young adult children's relationships with mothers and fathers during adolescence, an important family process variable. Parent-child relationships during adolescence are regarded as continuity of parent-child relationships during childhood and pre-adolescence (Laursen & Collins, 2004). During adolescence, children work toward developing increased autonomy from their families. They are likely to begin to date and seek intimate romantic partnerships. Parents, however, are still

significant in their lives, as adolescents report turning to their parents for future plans and personal problems (Steinberg & Silk, 2002; Barber, 1994).

The ability of adolescents to find satisfying and supportive advice about future plans and personal problems, as well parent's overall interest in their lives, helps define the quality of parent-child relationships during adolescence. The quality of these relationships during this time period, in turn, should help explain adolescent adjustment in early adulthood, including their ability to form quality, committed relationships. Indeed, it has been found that quality of parent-child relationships are significantly related to children's romantic relationships (e.g., Amato, 2000; Amato & Sobolewski, 2001; Conger et al., 2000; Dalton, Frick-Horbury, & Kitzmann, 2006; King, 2002; Linder, Crick, & Collins, 2002; Reese-Weber & Bartle-Haring, 1998; Riggio, 2004; Seiffge-Krenke, 2003; Summer et al., 1998).

Parent-Child Relationships and Children's Committed Romantic Relationships: Social Learning Theoretical Perspective

Social learning theory can help explain the association between parent-child relationships and children's committed romantic relationship qualities. The main tenet of social learning theory is that most human behavior is learned by observation through modeling (Bandura, 1977, 1986). In short, individuals observe a certain behavior, and they observe information about which behavior is good for a certain situation. Hence, based on this information, people select certain behaviors, and the information serves as a guide for future action.

Social learning theory has primarily been used to explain parent's influence on children's romantic relationships by examining children's exposure to parents' marital relationship qualities, such as conflict or happiness, rather than examining children's direct relationships with their parents (e.g., Conger et al., 2000; Davis & Cummings, 1994). It is assumed that parents' marital relationships serve as a model that children observe and learn, and later apply to their own romantic relationships. Some researchers have argued that exposure to parents' marital relationships, such as conflict, is more influential to children's romantic relationship qualities than children's direct relationships with parents (e.g., Bartell, 2006).

However, according to social learning theory, parental romantic relationships are not necessarily the only close relationship behaviors that children observe, learn, and apply to their own romantic relationships. Individuals are active agents who also generate general rules or principles underlying particular behaviors, and they then use these rules to create new behaviors in their own way, which go beyond what they observed and learned (Bandura, 1977, 1986). Parent-child relationships are one of the most intimate and meaningful relationships that children have in their early lives. Hence, the interaction skills and behaviors that they learned through the relationships with parents can be applied to their other primary intimate and meaningful relationships with their committed romantic partners, which in turn affect the qualities of their committed romantic relationships. Thus, social learning theory can help also explain how aspects of parent-child relationships can be expanded into children's committed romantic relationships, not into their casual dating relationships that might not be as intimate and meaningful to them

as committed romantic relationships. Hence, this current study examines young adults who are in committed romantic relationships only.

Indeed, Crain (2000) argued that most parents overlook how parenting behaviors can serve as models for relationships to their children. In other words, when parents interact with their children using ineffective parenting, the children may learn ineffective responses from parents, and they enact them with others, including their romantic partners. Hence, social learning theory would lead us to examine parent-child relationships as an important factor for understanding children's committed romantic relationships.

Parent-Child Relationships as a Mediator between Parental Divorce and Children's Committed Romantic Relationships

One of the possible mechanisms for understanding the influence of parental divorce on young adults' romantic relationships is the possible mediating influence of parent-child relationship on young adults' romantic relationship qualities. Specifically, it can be argued that parental divorce negatively affects parent-child relationships, which in turn negatively influences children's romantic relationships. Generally, it has been argued that the experience of divorce compromises parents' interactions with their children due to parent's difficulty in adjustment, such as their emotional vulnerability, financial declination, or juggling multiple tasks after divorce (e.g., Amato, 1993, 1996; Amato & Booth, 1991; Emery, 1999; Hetherington & Stanley-Hagan, 1997). Indeed, it has been found empirically that the experience of divorce negatively impacts parental relationships with children, such as decreased closeness and warmth between parents and children

(Feldman, Gowen, & Fisher, 1998; Mahl, 2001), less attachment and affection (Walker & Ehrenberg, 1998), more tension and conflict, and poor parenting (Amato & Booth, 1996; Barber & Eccles, 1992; Buchanan, Maccoby, & Dornbusch, 1991).

In addition to residential mothers, non-residential fathers also have a harder time interacting with their children than residential fathers (Hetherington & Stanley-Hagan, 1997). Fathers spend less time with children and are less bonded with children as compared with mothers (Arendell, 2000; Lamb, 1997; Williams & Kelly, 2005). After divorce, non-residential fathers become even more disengaged with children, feel less competent in interacting with children (Carlson, 2006; Harris & Ryan, 2004; Hawkins, Amato, & King, 2006; McDowell, Parke, & Wang, 2003), and assume a recreational and companionate role rather than a teacher or disciplinarian role (Furstenberg & Cherlin, 1991).

In short, this current study examines whether parent-child relationships during adolescence mediate the negative impact of parental divorce on children's romantic relationships in young adulthood. This mediation model is examined using longitudinal data. Indeed, there is some existing research supporting the mediation model; however, many of the studies are limited to concurrent data (e.g., Duran-Aydintug, 1997; Linder et al., 2002) or retrospective data (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Riggio, 2004). Hence, the examination of the suggested mediation model with longitudinal study would help strengthen the understanding of relationships among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's committed romantic relationships.

Mother-Child, Father-Child Relationships, and Children's Committed Romantic Relationships

Another aim of the current study is to examine whether mother-child and father-child relationships influence children's romantic relationships in a different way. Given that father-child relationships are important to children, it is important to examine whether mother and father-child relationships after divorce function in similar or different ways; however, studies of father-child relationships are scarce compared to mother-child relationships (Amato, 1994; Amato & Rivera, 1999; Arendell, 2000; King & Heard, 1999; Lamb, 1997). Especially, studies on father's influence on children's romantic relationship qualities are even fewer.

Studies of father and mother influence on children's romantic relationship qualities have been conducted; however, the findings of the studies are not consistent. Some studies have found that mother-child relationship qualities are more significant than father-child relationship qualities for understanding children's romantic relationship qualities (e.g., King, 2002). Some studies have found that relationships with fathers were more important than relationships with mothers (e.g., Burns & Dunlop, 1998; Dalton et al., 2006; Riggio, 2004). Other studies have shown that children's relationships with both mothers and fathers are important (e.g., Reese-Weber & Bartle-Haring, 1998; Seiffge-Krenke, 2003). Thus, the current study examines whether mother-child and father-child relationships independently influence children's romantic relationships.

In addition, the current study also aims to examine whether mother-child and father-child relationships interact in influencing children's romantic relationships. Not

every child has positive relationships with both mothers and fathers. In other words, some children have good relationships with fathers while they have poor relationships with mothers, or vice versa. In this situation, the good relationships with one parent could buffer the negative effect of a poor relationship with the other parent. Hence, it is possible that mother-child and father-child relationships interact on influencing children's romantic relationships. However, most of studies on the effects of father-child and mother-child relationships on children focus on which one is more powerful in predicting children's outcomes or whether fathers and mothers have unique or independent effects on children (e.g., Amato, 1994; Amato & Rivera, 1999; Harris, Furstenberg, & Marmer, 1998; Parke, 2002). There are very few studies that examine the possible interaction between father and mother-child relationships on children's romantic relationships.

For example, Jones and colleagues (2000) examined how father and mother's parenting behaviors during adolescence affected adolescent children's outcomes, including their attachment with romantic partners, in young adulthood (Jones, Forehand, & Beach, 2000). They found that there was no main effect of paternal parenting behaviors on young adults' romantic relationships; however, they found that there was an interaction between maternal parenting behaviors and paternal parenting behaviors in predicting security of attachment of children to their romantic partners, that is those children who had higher level of maternal acceptance and firm paternal control were more likely to have securely attached romantic relationships with their partners. Jones and colleagues' study (2000) included only always-married families and did not examine divorced families. However, some studies (e.g., Buchanan, Mccoby, & Dornbusch, 1996;

King & Sobolewski, 2006) have found that there was interaction between non-residential father and mother-child relationships on children's psychosocial outcomes, such as externalizing and internalizing behavior problems. Thus, it is plausible that there may be an interaction between residential/non-residential father and mother-child relationships on children's romantic relationships.

The Current Study

In summary, the primary purpose of the current study is to examine the mediation model of father and mother-adolescent relationships between parental divorce and adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood. Secondly, it is examined how non-residential/residential father and mother-child relationships during adolescence interact in influencing the quality of their young adult children's committed romantic relationships.

Insert Figure 6

The mediation model will be examined separately for females and males because the degree of impact of parental divorce on daughters and sons' romantic relationships can be different (e.g., Booth et al., 1984; Herzog & Cooney, 2002; Jacquet & Surra, 2001). The degree of association between parental divorce and the relationships with fathers and mothers can vary by the gender of children, and the degree of impact of father and mother-child relationships on children's romantic relationships can differ for sons and daughters. For example, regarding the association of parental divorce and children's

romantic relationships, some studies found that parental divorce affects sons' romantic relationships more negatively than daughter's (e.g., Shulman, Scharf, Lurner, & Maurer, 2001) and some studies found that mothers after divorce have more problems and less closeness with their sons than with daughters (e.g., Aquilino, 1994; Booth & Amato, 1994; Hetherington, 1988, 1989). Regarding the association of parent-child relationships and children's romantic relationships, some studies found that parental divorce affect father-daughter relationships more negatively than father-son relationships (e.g., Amato & Sobolewski, 2001; Hetherington & Kelly, 2002; King, 2002) while others found that father-son relationships are negatively affected by parental divorce than father-daughter relationships (e.g., Kaufman & Uhlenberg, 1998).

These findings suggest that the associations between parental divorce and parent-child relationships and between parent-child relationships and children's romantic relationships may differ for females and males. However, there are few studies that examine differences for boys and girls in the association between father and mother-child relationships and children's romantic relationship qualities (e.g., Biller & Kimpton, 1997). Few studies have examined the mediation model suggested in this current study. Hence, separate examination of the mediation model in the current study for females and males would provide better understanding of gender effects of children and further benefit the future research.

Method

Procedure

Data were drawn from the high school and young adult data from the Michigan Study of Adolescent Life Transitions (MSALT). A 20-year 9-wave investigation, MSALT began in 1983 when the participants were in the sixth grade. The study was designed to investigate normative and non-normative transitions during adolescence and young adulthood. Analyses for the current study were based on waves 6 and 8. Wave 6 was collected in 1990 when participants were in 12th grade and Wave 8 was collected in 1996-1997 when participants were approximately 24 years old.

For collecting data at Wave 6, adolescents were given 90 minutes in order to complete the questionnaire in their school cafeterias with research staff members. Also, questionnaires and postage-paid return envelopes were mailed to adolescents who had participated in previous waves but were absent on the day of the survey. For collecting data at Wave 8, questionnaires and postage-paid return envelopes were mailed to participants' homes.

Participants

At wave 6, adolescents in senior at high schools were asked about their parents' marital status by checking one of the followings: "Married and living together, Divorced, Separated, Never married and living together, Never married and not living together, Widowed." 70.5% adolescents were from always-married families; 22.7% were from divorced families. Among those adolescents from divorced families, only adolescents whose mothers were not remarried were selected as 'adolescents from divorced families' (40% adolescent's residential mothers were remarried while 60% adolescents' residential mothers were not remarried). This screening helped able to examine adolescents'

relationships with their non-residential fathers in divorced families and avoid the potential effect of parental remarriage, especially residential parent's one.

At Wave 8, they were asked about their romantic relationship status by checking one of the followings: "I am married, I am living with someone in a steady, marriage-like relationship, I am not living with him or her, but I have a steady, romantic relationship with one person, None of the above." Cross-tabulation analysis with χ^2 was conducted to examine if romantic relationship status varied by participants from divorced families and always-married families. The results showed that romantic relationship status were distributed differentially among groups, $\chi^2(3, N = 901) = 11.90, p < .01$. Specifically, 37.9% of young adults from always-married families were in seriously dating with one partner while 25.4% of those from divorced families were; 13.4% of young adults from always-married families were cohabiting while 19.7% of those from divorced families; 26.6% of young adults from always-married families were single while 30.1% of those from divorced families; and 22.1% of young adults from always-married families were married while 24.8% of those from divorced families. Because the main purpose of the current study is to examine whether parent-child relationships affects children's other meaningful and intimate relationships in their lives based on social learning theoretical perspective, their non-committed or non-steady relationships, such as casual dating, were excluded.

The final sample were 520 (female=311 and male=209) from 'always-married' and 154 (female=107 and male=47) from 'divorced' families. This final sample was composed of 207 married young adults (31%), 138 cohabiting young adults (20%), and

329 seriously committed dating young adults (49%). The majority of final sample participants were White (94%) and the median family income at Wave 6 was between \$40,001 - \$60,000. 52% of mothers of final sample had high school diploma or less, 24.7% of them had some college or technical school education, 17% of them graduated college, and 6.2% had some graduate school. 50.7% of fathers of final sample had high school diploma or less, 26.5% of them had some college or technical school education, 18% of them graduated college, and 4.8% had some graduate school. 14.3% of final sample finished high school or less, 5.4% had some years of vocational training, 37.4% had some years of college, 30.9% finished 4 year college, 7.5% had graduate school years.

Measures

Father/mother-adolescent relationships. Father-adolescent and mother-adolescent relationships at Wave 6 were created with by calculating the mean of total twelve questions whose coefficient alpha was .93 for both father-adolescent and mother-adolescent relationships. These twelve items were composed of ten items about the frequency and helpfulness of talking about future plans, such as job, education, and family plans, and personal problems with father/mother; one item about father/mother's support; and one item of father/mother's interest in adolescents' activities. The items about parental advice for future plans were developed by MSALT project team and have been used in published studies (e.g., Tucker, Bonnie, & Eccles, 2001). Sample items about talking about future plans and personal problems with father/mother were "My father/mother and I talk about future job and educational plans," "My father/mother and I

talk about my personal problems,” “My father/mother and I talk about my future family plans,” and “Talks with my father/mother have helped me to make plans for education after high school.” These questions consisted of 7-point items – from 1-“never” to 7-“a lot.” One item about father/mother’s interest in adolescents’ interest was “My father/mother takes in interest in my activities” scaled from 1=“never” to 7=“a lot.” One item about parental support is “How satisfied are you with how supportive your father/mother is?” and was measured with 7 point scale: from 1=“not at all satisfied” to 7=“very satisfied.” Higher score indicated more positive qualities of father/mother relationships.

Committed romantic relationships. The qualities of committed romantic relationship included three domains –perception toward romantic partner’s negative behaviors, perception toward romantic partner’s supportive behaviors, and satisfaction in romantic relationships. Perception toward romantic partner’s negative behaviors was measured with four items about the extent to which participants perceive their partner behaves in a negative way. The four items were “During the past month when you and your partner have spent time talking or doing things together, how often did your partner...Shout or yell at you because s/he was mad at you; ...Ignore you when you tried to talk to him/her;...Try to make you feel guilty; ...Get into a fight or argument with you.” High scores indicated more negative relationships: Responses ranged from 1=“never” to 7=“always.” The alpha coefficient was .82.

Perception toward romantic partner’s supportive behaviors was measured with four items about the extent to which participants perceive their partner behaves in a

supportive way. The four items were “During the past month when you and your partner have spent time talking or doing things together, how often did your partner...Listen carefully to your point of view; ...Let you know s/he really cares about you; ...Act loving and affectionate toward you;...Act supportive and understanding toward you.” Higher scores indicated more support from romantic partners: Responses ranged from 1=“never” to 7=“always.” The alpha coefficient is .86. Satisfaction with relationships was measured with eight items. Sample items included “How satisfied are you with...How we communicate;...Our social life;...How we express affection for each other;...Your relationship general.” Higher scores indicated more satisfaction with their romantic partners: The scale of questions ranged 7-pointed from 1=“never” to 7=“always.” The alpha coefficient was .88.

Data Analytic Strategy

The current study used Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) using LISREL Version 8.80. SEM was conducted to examine whether father-adolescent relationships and/or mother-adolescent relationships mediate the effect of parental divorce on adolescents’ romantic relationships in young adulthood. In addition, the potential interaction effect between father-adolescent relationships and mother-adolescent relationships on adolescents’ romantic relationships in young adulthood was examined. As shown in Figure 7, four manifest variables and one latent variable were created, corresponding to family structure, father-adolescent relationships, mother-adolescent relationships, the interaction term between father-adolescent relationships and mother-adolescent relationships, and adolescent’s romantic relationships in young adulthood.

The family structure variable is a categorical variable (always-married families vs. divorced families). Each of father and mother-adolescent relationships variables was calculated by twelve items illustrated above – amount of talking about future plans and personal problems, helpfulness of those talking, father/mother's interest in activities of adolescents, and satisfaction in support from father/mother. Because these twelve items measuring father and mother-adolescent relationships were highly correlated to each other (coefficient alpha=.93 for both father and mother-adolescent relationships), each father and mother-adolescent relationships were included in the model as a manifest variable. Interaction term variable between father and mother-adolescent relationships was included as a manifest variable, which was multiplied by centered versions of the variables of father and mother-adolescent relationships. In addition, it was decided to estimate error covariance for father-adolescent and mother-adolescent relationships and their interaction term variables because shared method variance was expected for using adolescent report only and measure items for father and mother-adolescent relationships are same. Romantic relationships latent variable has three parceled indicators representing perception toward romantic partner's negative behaviors, perception toward romantic partner's supportive behaviors, and satisfaction in relationships described above.

Before performing SEM model, expectation maximization (EM) algorithm for maximum likelihood (ML) estimation was utilized in order to increase the statistical power to analyze the data set by estimating the model in the presence of missing data (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996). In addition, prior to modeling, data screening

involved tests for outliers, skewness, and kurtosis. Distributions for all variables were generally normal, with univariate skewness values ranging from -1.21 to 1.30, and univariate kurtosis values ranging from -.60 to 2.37. Based on the cut-off value (skewness > 3, kurtosis >10, Kline, 1998; skewness > 2, kurtosis >7, West, Finch, & Curran, 1995), there were no serious concerns for univariate nonnormality. Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations among all indicators for samples from female and male adolescents.

Results

Multiple-Group Confirmatory Factor Analysis (MGCF)

The purpose of the current study is to examine whether father-adolescent relationships and/or mother-adolescent relationships mediate the effect of parental divorce on adolescents' romantic relationships in young adulthood and whether there is an interaction effect between father-adolescent and mother-adolescent relationships on adolescents' romantic relationships in young adulthood. However, as indicated above, this mediation model is tested for each female and male adolescents; thus, it needed to conduct multi-group confirmatory factor analysis in order to examine the construct comparability as well as to detect possible between-group differences (Little, 1997).

Confirmatory factor analysis. Before examining the invariance and variance of estimates across female and male groups, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed for each group to examine factor loadings from latent variables and indicators are compatible between two groups. The models for both female and male groups fitted well. Specifically, for female adolescents, $\chi^2(8, n = 418) = 15.62$, Root Mean Square

Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .05, Comparative Fix Index (CFI) = .99, and Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = .97. For male adolescents, χ^2 (8, n = 256) = 4.56, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .00, Comparative Fix Index (CFI) = 1.00, and Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 1.00.

Invariance of measurement of two groups. To determine the invariance of measurement across two gender groups, a series of nested multiple-group models was performed by constraining factor loadings, variance, and covariance to be equal and compared chi-square differences between a default model and a constrained model. These analyses, therefore, enabled to test whether indicators assess the same constructs (e.g., father-adolescent relationships) across female and male adolescent groups. Table 2 presents the results of the nested model comparisons. Along with the goodness of fit test statistic of each model, changes in chi-square values and changes in degree of freedom are reported. The statistical significance of the difference in fit was derived by calculating the differences in chi-squares and degrees of freedom between two nested models in order to determine the best-fitting model.

First, the configural invariance model (unconstrained model) and associated goodness of fit were estimated by allowing all parameters to vary freely within female and male adolescents. As indicated Table 2, this model fitted the sample data well, χ^2 (16, n = 674) = 20.18, RMSEA = .03, CFI = 1.00, and NNFI = .99. Second, constraining all lambdas (factor loadings) to be equal for female and male adolescents was utilized to test for the invariance of measurement between female and male adolescents. The overall fit of this weak invariance model was good, χ^2 (18, n = 674) =

21.77, RMSEA = .03, CFI = 1.00, and NNFI = .99. Next, this weak invariance model was compared with the configural invariance model to determine the extent to which the hypothesized model would be equivalent in measurement across female and male adolescents. The differences in χ^2 between the configural invariance model and the weak invariance model were statistically not significant, $\Delta\chi^2 = 1.59$ and $\Delta df = 2$, suggesting that measurement of variables are equivalent between female and male adolescent groups even after constrained factor loadings.

Mean differences in variables of female and male adolescents. In the next step, strong invariance model was tested, which equated the loading of each indicator across groups as well as equates indicators' intercepts in order to estimate each construct's relative mean differences. Female adolescents' estimated means of latent variables (e.g., father-adolescent relationships) were fixed to zero to be reference means to compare means of male adolescents. Then, the means of male adolescent group were freely estimated, which showed different mean of constructs between female and male adolescent groups.

As seen in Table 1, this model showed that male adolescents had more positive relationships with fathers and less positive relationships with mothers compared to females. Also, the mean of romantic relationship was higher for male adolescents, which means that male adolescents felt significantly less positive way about their romantic relationships – when the means of variables of female adolescents were estimated as 0, the means of male adolescents' relationships with fathers, relationships with mothers, and mother-adolescent relationships, and romantic relationships were .21, -

.53, and -.19 respectively, $\chi^2 (20, n = 674) = 35.10$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .99, and NNFI = .97. However, the significant difference regarding experiencing parental divorce was not found. These mean differences in latent variables across female and male adolescents were confirmed by comparing with the invariance model with mean construct, which equated the construct means across groups. This strong invariance model was a better fit than the invariance model with mean construct ($\Delta\chi^2 = 75.67$; $\Delta df = 5$, $p < .01$), which implied that there are mean differences in constructs across female and male adolescents.

The test of variance and covariance among variables. To determine if the associations among family structure, relationships with father and mothers, and romantic relationships differ between female and male adolescents, first, the equivalence of variance model was performed (see Table 2). In the equivalence of variance of model, factor loadings of indicators to latent variables were equated and variances within latent variables were fixed to 1. The model fit was good; $\chi^2 (23, n = 674) = 23.87$, RMSEA = .01, CFI = 1.00, and NNFI = 1.00, which implies that variances in latent variables are not statistically different between female and male adolescents. To confirm this invariance of latent variable parameters, the change of chi-square between this model and weakly strained invariance model was examined; $\Delta\chi^2 = 2.10$ and $\Delta df = 5$, *n.s.*, suggesting that variance of latent variables was not different between female and male adolescents even when latent variables' loadings were fixed. In other words, female and male adolescents are not generally more homogeneous than the other group in experiencing parental divorce, relationships with fathers and mothers, and their romantic relationships.

In the next step, the equivalence of covariance model was performed (see Table 2). In the equivalence of covariance model, factor loadings of indicators to latent variables were equated and variances within latent variables and covariance between latent variables were fixed. The model fit was good; $\chi^2(33, n = 674) = 41.17$, RMSEA = .02, CFI = .99, and NNFI = .99, which implies that covariance between latent variables are not statistically different between female and male adolescents. To confirm this equivalent covariance between latent variables across groups, the change of chi-square between this model and variance model was examined; $\Delta\chi^2 = 17.30$ and $\Delta df = 10, n.s.$, suggesting that covariance between latent variables – family structure, relationships with fathers and mothers, and romantic relationships – are statistically not different between female and male adolescents.

In summary, the results of analysis of female and male adolescents showed that the measurement of latent variables is compatible between male and female adolescents. However, male adolescents are more likely to have positive relationships with fathers while they are less likely to have positive relationships with mothers compared to females, and male adolescents have less positive qualities in their romantic relationships in their young adulthood compared to female adolescents (see Table 1).

Multi-Group Mediation Models

After identification of the compatible measurement constructs, but of different means of certain latent variables between female and male adolescents, the multi-group (female and male adolescents) mediation models was conducted in order to examine whether adolescent's relationships with mother and fathers mediate the parental divorce

effect on adolescents' romantic relationships in young adulthood. Also, in this model, the interaction effect term between father-adolescent relationships and mother-adolescent relationships was included in order to examine the interaction effect on adolescents' romantic relationships in young adulthood.

Based on the covariance between family structure and adolescents' romantic relationships from MGCFA, it was found that there is no direct link between family structure and adolescents' romantic relationships for both female and male adolescents. Hence, the necessary preconditions for mediating role (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Holmbeck, 1997), which is that father-adolescent relationships and/or mother-adolescent relationships may mediate the effect of family structure on adolescents' romantic relationships was not established. However, mediation models were conducted to examine if there is indirect effect of parental divorce on adolescents' romantic relationships through relationships with fathers and/or mothers and if there is an interaction effect between father-adolescent relationships and mother-adolescent relationships on adolescents' romantic relationships in young adulthood.

Insert Figure 7

This mediation model has three subsequent steps (see Figure 7). In step 1, path 1a, 1b, 1c, 2a, 2b, and 2c are specified with assumption that relationships with fathers and mothers fully mediate the effect of family structure on adolescents' romantic relationships. In step 2, path 3 is added into the model with assumption that relationships

with fathers and mothers partially mediate the effect of family structure on adolescents' romantic relationships. In step 3, the path 3 is constrained to be equal to 2a, 2b, and 2c. The difference in χ^2 between step 1 and step 2 usually indicates to what extent father and mother-adolescent relationships mediate the association between family structure and adolescents' romantic relationships. However, in the current paper, the step 1 and step 2 were focused on in order to examine whether family structure indirectly affect adolescents' romantic relationships through father-adolescent relationships and/or mother-adolescent relationships because it was already found that there was no direct link between family structure and adolescents' romantic relationships.

Insert Figure 8

The difference in χ^2 between step 1 and step 2 was statistically not significant, $\Delta\chi^2 = 1.61$ and $\Delta df = 2$. As shown in Figure 8, the results show that parental divorce indirectly affects female adolescent's romantic relationships through relationships with fathers, not mothers. In other words, parental divorce negatively affects adolescent daughters' relationships with fathers (Beta = -.27, Std. Beta = -.26, $z = 5.248$), which in turn predict daughters' lower qualities of romantic relationships (Beta = .13, Std. Beta = .14, $z = 2.482$). Also, it was found that adolescent daughters' relationships with mothers are predictive of daughters' romantic relationship qualities in young adulthood (Beta = .18, Std. Beta = .17, $z = 3.300$); however, there was no association between parental divorce and mother-daughter relationships.

In addition, there was direct effect of family structure on relationships with fathers; parental divorce negatively affects the relationships with fathers and male adolescents (Beta = -.21, Std. Beta = -.21, $z = 3.306$). However, the results show that there was no indirect effect of family structure on male adolescents' romantic relationships through relationships neither with fathers as female adolescents' romantic relationships, nor with mothers. In addition, the results show that there was no interaction effect of between father-adolescent relationships and mother-adolescent relationships on adolescents' romantic relationships for both female and male adolescents.

There was an indirect effect of parental divorce through relationships with fathers on daughters' romantic relationships but not for sons' romantic relationships. In order to examine whether this indirect effect of parental divorce on children's romantic relationships is statistically different for daughters and sons, the paths in the model were equated. When the paths between relationships with fathers and romantic relationships for daughters and sons were equated, it was found that relationships with fathers were significantly related to romantic relationships for both daughters and sons (Beta = .09, Std. Beta = .04, $z = 1.994$). The model fitness of this equated model the path was not statistically different from the mediation model, $\Delta\chi^2 = 2.30$ and $\Delta df = 1$, $p > .10$, which implies that the importance of relationships with fathers for romantic relationship qualities of both daughters and sons are not different. However, it is noted that relationships with fathers were significantly related to daughters' romantic relationships, but not to sons' romantic relationships in the mediation model.

The same result of the path equation was found in the link between relationships with mothers and romantic relationships of children. In other words, when the paths between relationships with mothers and romantic relationships for daughters and sons were equated, it was found that the paths were not statistically different for daughters and sons (Beta = .14, Std. Beta = .05, $z = 2.326$) and the model fitness was not significantly changed, $\Delta\chi^2 = 1.17$ and $\Delta df = 1, p > .10$. However, still their un-equated paths show that the relationships with mothers were significantly related to daughters' romantic relationships, but not sons' romantic relationships.

In summary, there was no indirect effect of parental divorce on adolescents' romantic relationships through relationships with mothers for both female and male adolescents; however, there was indirect effect of parental divorce on female adolescents' romantic relationships through relationships with fathers, but not for male adolescents. Also, there was no interaction effect of between father-adolescent relationships and mother-adolescent relationships on adolescents' romantic relationships for both female and male adolescents.

Discussion

This study examined the mechanism of how parental divorce is related to adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood by examining parent-adolescent relationships. First, this study examined if parent-adolescent relationships mediated the association between parental divorce and the qualities of committed romantic relationships in young adulthood. Specifically, it was tested whether parental divorce leads to lower qualities of father and mother-adolescent relationships, which in

turn predicts lower qualities of adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood. Second, this study examined if father and mother-adolescent relationships interact on predicting adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood.

Parental Divorce, Father and Mother-Adolescent Relationships, and Adolescents' Committed Romantic Relationships in Young Adulthood

Multiple-group structural equation models for female and male adolescents were conducted to test the mediation roles of father and mother-adolescent relationships between parental divorce and adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood. Overall, the mediation model was not supported. The direct association between parental divorce and young adults' romantic relationships was not found. However, parental divorce did negatively affect father-daughter relationships in adolescence, and these relationships led to less positive qualities of committed romantic relationships of daughters in young adulthood. In other words, there was an indirect effect of parental divorce on daughters' romantic relationships in young adulthood through father-daughter relationships in adolescence. However, this indirect effect of parental divorce was not found in other dyads – father-son, mother-son, and mother-daughter. In addition, the interaction effect of father and mother-adolescent relationships on adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood was not found.

Parental divorce and father and mother-adolescent relationships. It was found that parental divorce predicted lower qualities of father-daughter and father-son relationships; however, the direct effect of parental divorce was not found for either mother-daughter or mother-son relationships. The association between parental divorce

and father-adolescent relationships was consistent with general findings of past research. Generally after parental divorce, non-residential fathers are likely to have little contact with their children and the frequency of contact declines over time (Carlson, 2006; King & Heard, 1999). In addition, non-residential fathers are less involved with their children than residential fathers are (Carlson, 2006; Harris & Ryan, 2004; Hawkins et al., 2006; McDowell et al., 2003). However, it was somewhat surprising that a direct effect of parental divorce was not found for mother-adolescent relationships because of past research that experience of divorce negatively impacts mother-child relationships (e.g., Mahl, 2001; Walker & Ehrenberg, 1998).

This difference in influence of parental divorce on father and mother-adolescent relationships may be due to different levels of vulnerability of parenting after divorce of fathers and mothers. Generally, it has been found that the qualities of mother and father-child relationships decrease following divorce; however, parenting of fathers may be more likely to be affected by circumstances or events, such as their own divorce, than are mothers. For example, Buehler, Benson, & Gerard (2006) found that mothering was not influenced as much as fathering by environments or other factors, such as marital qualities. In addition, Burns and Dunlop (1998) found that parental divorce reduced caring of fathers toward children, but mothers' caring toward children were not affected by divorce. This may suggest that father's parenting is more vulnerable to situations and events, such as divorce.

Father and mother-adolescent relationships and adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood. Based on a social learning theoretical perspective, it

was expected that the qualities of parent-adolescent relationships would predict the qualities of adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood. Indeed, it was found that daughters' romantic relationships in young adulthood were predicted by relationships with fathers as well as with mothers; however, sons' romantic relationship qualities were not shown as significantly related to either fathers or mothers. In short, the association between the relationships with parents and children's romantic relationships of females was supported, but not for males.

Nonetheless, it may be too early to conclude that relationships with fathers and mothers are not as important for sons' romantic relationship qualities as for daughters' romantic relationship qualities. As addressed above, when equating the paths of relationships with fathers and mother and the romantic relationships of female and male children, it was found that relationships with fathers and mothers were significantly related to romantic relationships of sons, as well as daughters. Then, why did mediation model show that relationships with mothers and fathers were significantly related to daughters' romantic relationships while not to sons' romantic relationships?

One possible explanation may be related to measure in the current study. Usually, fathers are more talkative with adolescent children about problem issues and encourage problem-solving with their children than mothers (Hauser et al., 1987). Hence, measuring the amount and helpfulness of fathers' advice for adolescent children's future and personal problem should be a good indicator for father-adolescent relationships, especially based on the developmental stage of children. However, communication between fathers and sons may be more likely to occur in the context of shared activities

and interests, whereas fathers and daughters may tend to more directly engage in conversation outside of activities and in direct face-to-face interaction (Brotherson, 1995 cited in Brotherson, 2003). Thus, the measurement of father-adolescent relationships in the current study, which focused on talk with fathers about their future plans and personal problems, may be more appropriate for capturing father-daughter relationships than for father-son relationships during adolescence.

The sample size of males in the study may also be an issue. The sample size of male adolescents from divorced families in the current study was 47 while the numbers of females from divorced families were 107, and females and males from always-married families are 311 and 209 respectively. Thus, this relatively small sample size may not be able to give enough statistical power to detect the association of mother and father-son relationships with sons' committed romantic relationships and interaction effect between father-son and mother-son relationships on sons' committed romantic relationships.

One possible conceptual explanation of this difference is socialization based on gender. Generally, it is argued that women are socialized based on creating and sustaining interpersonal relationships and women may be more likely to be vulnerable to the qualities of relationships with people than men because women are more relationship-oriented than men (Gilligan, 1982; Jacquet & Surra, 2001). Indeed, Siddique and D'Acry (1984) found that compared to male adolescents, female adolescents react significantly more to social stress associated with family and peer group, which in turn leads to more negative psychosocial adjustment. Hence, daughters may be more affected by

relationships with parents than are sons, which in turn influence their romantic relationships.

Another possible explanation is that daughters may have more opportunities to learn interaction with opposite sex people through interactions with fathers. Some scholars have argued that the relationships with fathers are more important to sons than daughters based on socialization by same gender parent (e.g., Amato & Booth, 1991; Amato & Gilbreth, 1999; Furstenberg & Weiss, 2000; Furstenberg et al., 1987) and children's identification and imitation of same-gender parents is critical socialization process (Lamb, 1997). However, the development of romantic relationships can be learned through interaction with opposite sex parent. Thus, daughters' romantic relationships may be affected by relationships with fathers more than sons' romantic relationships with their fathers.

Some researchers argued that attentive and supportive father-daughter relationships are crucial for daughters' feelings of self-worth during childhood, which in turn develop their positive committed long-term romantic relationships with their partners during adulthood (e.g., Biller & Kimpton, 1997; Parke, 1996). Kapinus (2004) found that the diminished closeness of fathers after parental divorce significantly predicts daughters' positive view toward divorce; however, in contrast to daughters, sons' diminished closeness to fathers significantly predicts sons' negative view toward divorce, suggesting that there is a difference effect of relationships with fathers on sons and daughters' outcomes. Given that favored attitudes toward divorce are related to marital quality (Amato & Rodgers, 1999) and chance of divorce (Amato, 1996), this finding can help

explain how daughters' romantic relationship qualities may be influenced by their relationships with their fathers.

Interaction between father-adolescent and mother-adolescent relationships on adolescents' committed romantic relationships. The current study also examined whether there is interaction between father-adolescent and mother-adolescent relationships on adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood for female and male adolescents. However, an interaction effect of father and mother-adolescent relationships on adolescents' committed romantic relationships either for sons or daughters was not found. This result may imply that the relationships with fathers and mothers independently are related to children's romantic relationships, especially daughters' committed romantic relationships. However, this result may be due to some limitations of the current study in the following section.

Limitations, Contributions, and Directions for Future Research

In addition to the earlier stated limitation regarding the sample size of males from divorced families, another limitation of the current study is that only adolescents reported relationships with fathers and mothers. This raises the possibility of shared method variance, especially regarding divergent perspectives on interpersonal interactions, such as parent-adolescent relationships (Surra & Ridley, 1991). Although Gonzales, Cauce, and Mason (1996) found that adolescents' information about mother-adolescent interaction in their study was more accurate and objective than mothers' report, using multiple reporters can be a solution to shared method variance issues.

This study contributed to the examination of young adults' committed romantic relationship qualities in several ways. First, the current study examined the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's committed romantic relationships using longitudinal, prospective data. Most studies used retrospective data (e.g., Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Riggio, 2004) or concurrent data (e.g., Linder et al., 2002) rather than prospective data. Retrospective data has limitations. For example, when young adults recall their relationships with parents when they were younger, they may be biased in their recall of relationships qualities due to factors, such as current life stress or current relationships with parents. Hence, there is a possibility that participants cannot recall past events accurately. Thus, longitudinal prospective data in the current study enhanced the reliability of measuring relationships with fathers and mother during adolescence and relationship qualities in young adulthood.

Another contribution of the current study is the examination of the role of gender of parents and children in understanding the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships. Steinberg (1990) stated that "the four parent-adolescent dyads may be characterized by quite different types of relations and may undergo quite different sorts of transformations in adolescence" (p. 226). However, the majority of studies have not examined these four dyads when examining various outcomes of children, including the quality of romantic relationships in young adulthood.

Recently, some studies have attempted to examine the diversity within the four dyads. For example, Barber and Delfabbro (2000) examined four dyads of parent-child -

father-son, father-daughter, mother-son, and mother-daughters when examining how parent-child relationships are related to adolescent's general psychosocial adjustment; however, fathers and mothers are not couples, which means all four dyads are not related, separated people. Hence, it is not possible to conclude that daughters and sons are differently interacting with moms and fathers in a family, which in turn differently affect their outcomes. In addition, the current study used structural equation model where effects of father and mother-adolescent relationships and their interaction effect on adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood. This contributes to fill the gap in studies on unique and different effects of father and mother-adolescent relationships and interaction effects on children's committed romantic relationships. Based on the findings of the current study, further effort is needed to understand why the mediation model showed an indirect effect of parental divorce on daughters' romantic relationships through relationships with fathers, not on sons' romantic relationships, but also why there was not a statistical difference in the importance of relationships with fathers and mothers to sons and daughters' romantic relationships. This current study does shed light on the four different dyads of parents and children and the possible different influence of father and mothers on sons and daughters' romantic relationships.

Another contribution of the current study is examination of children's relationships with non-residential fathers by including children from divorced families, who lived with their mothers who were not remarried. This limited the influence of other variables, such as relationships with stepfathers. Even though some studies of father-child relationships after divorce indicate that the quality of the relationships with non-

residential father is important in their psychosocial well-being, very little is known how the relationships with non-residential fathers are related to young adult children's committed romantic relationships. Especially, the current study measured father-child relationship based on fathers' advice for children's future plans which is needed during adolescence and general support from fathers toward children. This measurement fills the gap in studies on non-residential father-child relationships examining only financial support and frequency of contact or involvement of non-residential fathers.

Hence, future research should employ longitudinal data with multiple informants with larger samples of divorced and always-married families when examining the relationships among parental divorce, children's relationships with fathers and mothers, and children's romantic relationships later. In addition, this research found that the relationships among the study variables varied by the gender of the parent-child dyad. Thus, it is important to study the four dyads of mother-son, mother-daughter, father-son, and father-daughter separately in future studies. This would help to isolate what aspects of relationships or interactions with fathers or mothers are crucial in daughters and sons' forming their ideal romantic relationships.

In addition, the examination of children's casual dating qualities would add to the understanding of the role of parent-child relationships in future research. The current study chose young adult children who were in committed and steady relationships. This was done to help test the social learning theoretical perspective that children's important, meaningful, and intimate relationships with parents are related to other meaningful and intimate relationships in their lives. However, given that the participants in the current

study are already in serious romantic relationships, it may be argued that they, at least, are successful in creating intimate relationships with their partners. Hence, it would be beneficial to examine how parental divorce and parent-child relationships are related to romantic relationships of children who are not in committed relationships, but in casual dating relationships and whether those relationships may be different from children who are in committed relationships.

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Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations by Gender of Adolescents (N = 674)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Family structure	–	-.21***	.02	-.06	.08	-.05	-.11
2. Father-adolescent relationships	-.26***	–	.47***	-.00	.03	.01	.04
3. Mother-adolescent relationships	.09	.30***	–	-.06	-.03	.04	.11
4. Interaction terms of father-adolescent relationships and mother-adolescent relationships	-.17***	.33***	-.17**	–	-.05	.10	.10
Adolescents' romantic relationships in young adulthood							
5. partner's negative behaviors	.00	-.04	-.10*	.03	–	-.48***	-.44***
6. partner's supportive behaviors	-.17	.12*	.13*	-.07	-.64***	–	.66***
7. satisfaction	-.05	.14**	.19***	.01	-.60***	.76***	–
Female							
Mean	.26	3.41	4.68	.51	2.31	5.92	5.73
SD	.44	1.30	1.32	2.10	1.08	1.02	.95
Male							
Mean	.18	3.61	4.15	.63	2.62	5.84	5.54
SD	.39	1.22	1.18	1.67	1.08	1.00	.95

Note. Correlations for female adolescents are below the diagonal and males are above the diagonal.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 2

Goodness-of-Fit Indexes for Measurement Invariance Model and Latent Variable Parameter Co/Variance Model Across Female and Male Adolescents

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA	Model Comparison	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	Statistical Significance
Configural Invariance Model	20.18	16	.21	.989	.996	.027		–	–	–
Weak Invariance Model	21.77	18	.24	.991	.996	.025	vs. Configural Invariance Model	1.59	2	<i>n.s.</i>
Strong Invariance Model	35.10	20	.02	.968	.985	.046	vs. Weak Invariance Model	13.33	2	<i>p</i> < .01
Invariance Model with Mean Structure	110.77	25	.00	.855	.913	.100	vs. Strong Invariance Model	75.67	5	<i>p</i> < .01
Compare Variances Model	23.87	23	.41	.998	.999	.008	vs. Weak Invariance Model	2.10	5	<i>n.s.</i>
Compare Covariance Model	41.17	33	.16	.990	.992	.024	vs. Compare Variances Model	17.30	10	<i>n.s.</i>

Note. χ^2 , chi-square; *df*, degrees of freedom; NNFI = Non-Normed Fit Index; CFI = Comparative Fix Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; $\Delta\chi^2$, chi-square difference; Δdf , degrees of freedom difference.

Figure 6

Dynamics among Parental Divorce, Father and Mother-Child Relationships, and Children's Romantic Relationships

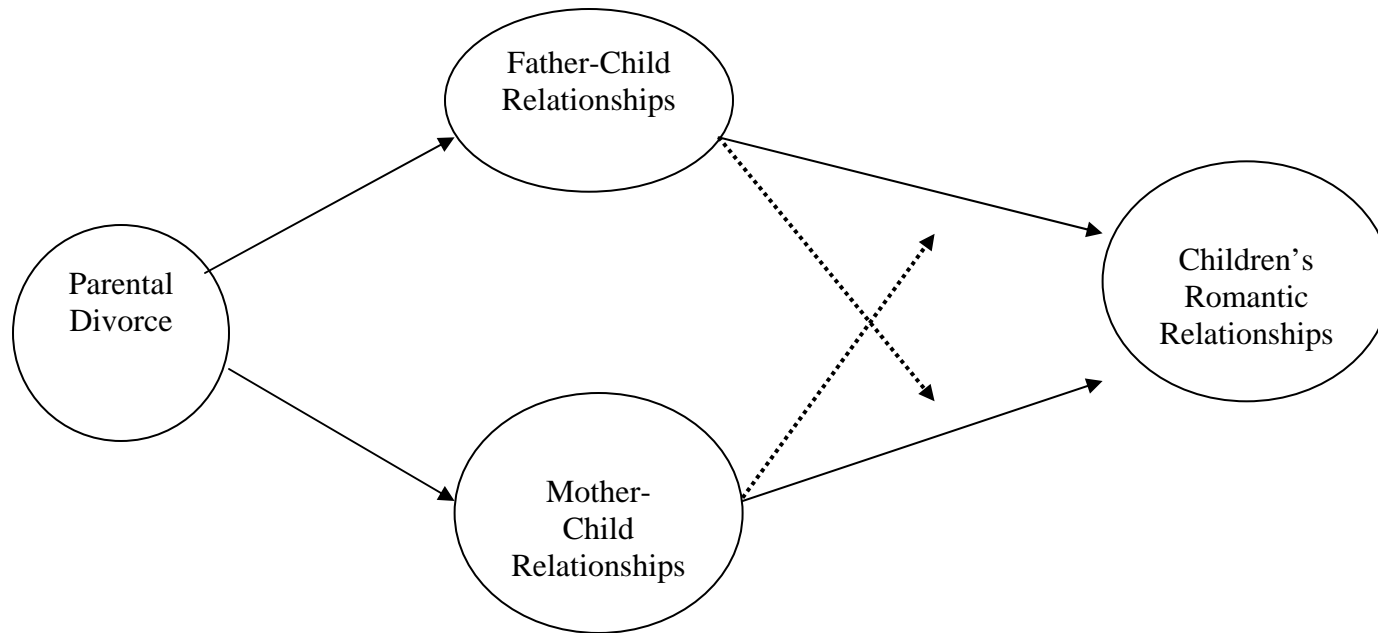


Figure 7

A Mediation Model of Father and Mother-Adolescent Relationships between Parental Divorce and Adolescents' Romantic Relationships in Young Adulthood

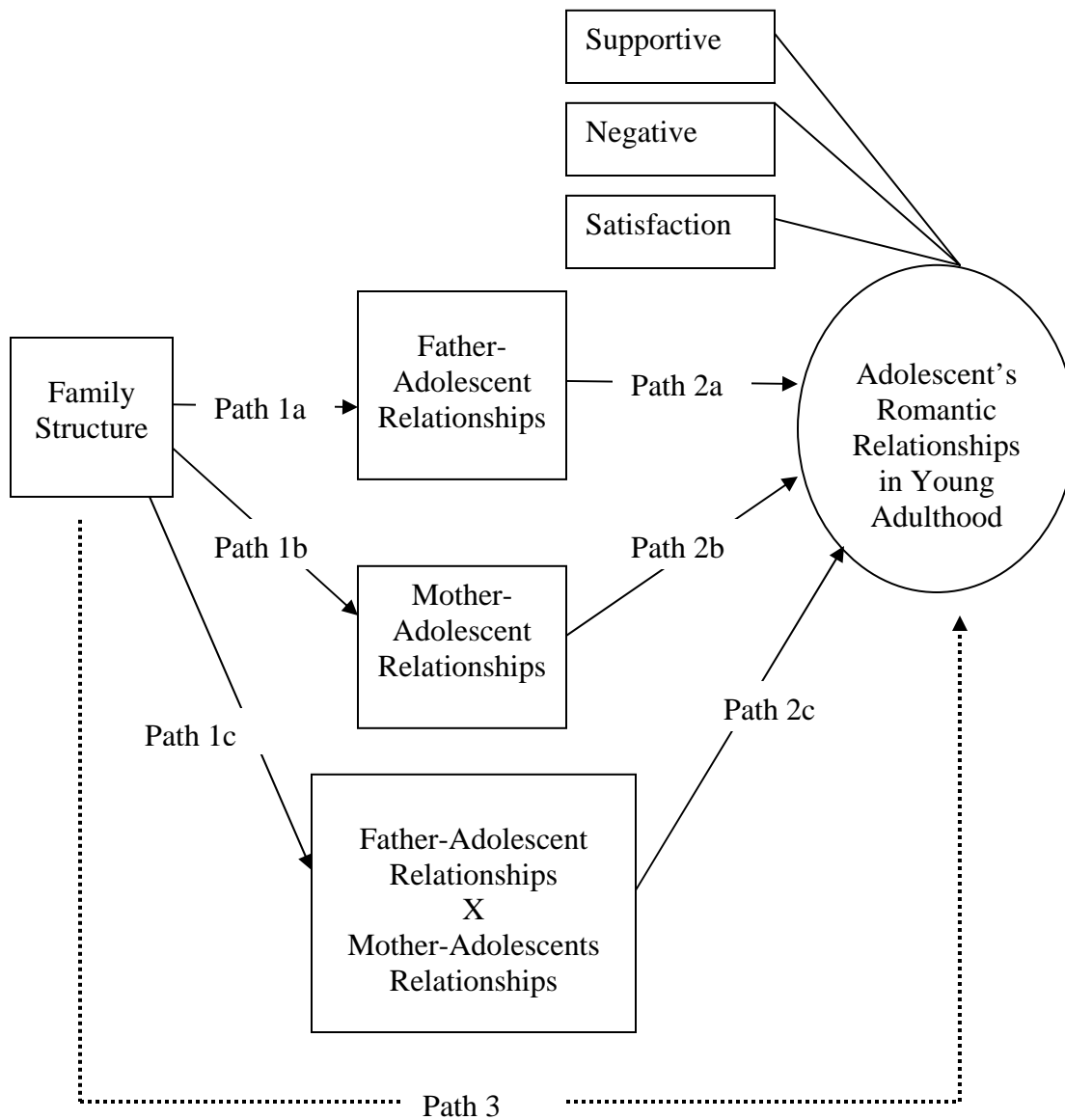
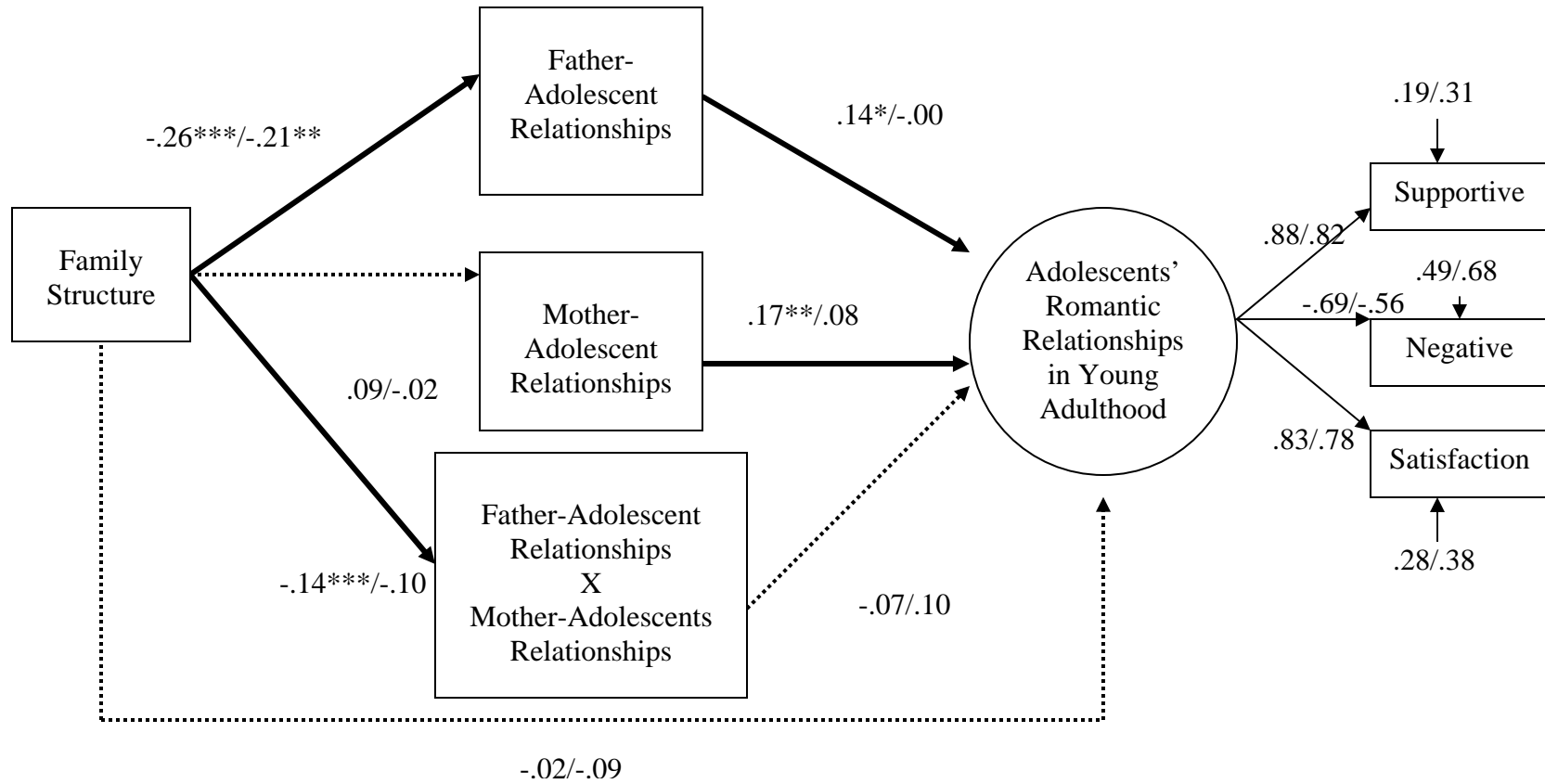


Figure 8

Multiple-Group Structural Equation Modeling of Parental Divorce, Father and Mother-Adolescent Relationships, and Adolescents' Romantic Relationships in Young Adulthood



Note: Left score means females and right score means males.

χ^2 (16, n=674) = 20.18; RMSEA = 0.03 (95% confidence interval: .00-.06); NNFI = 0.99; CFI = 1.00.

CHAPTER IV
THE DYNAMICS OF FAMILY STRUCTURE, MOTHER AND FATHER-
ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIPS, AND ADOLESCENT GENDER FOR
PREDICTING ADOLESCENTS' COMMITTED ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS
IN YOUNG ADULthood

Divorce is a major contributor to the increasing number of single-parent families in the United States. There are about six million divorced families in the United States and 60% of those divorced families have children (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2003). This has led to many studies on the effect of parental divorce on children's psychosocial adjustment.

One such adjustment variable that has been studied is the quality of committed romantic relationship for children whose parents have divorced. The quality of committed romantic relationships predicts both physical and emotional distress (Wickrama, Lorenz, Conger, & Elder, 1997) and feelings of self-worth (Kuttler, LaGreca, & Prinstein, 1999) in young adults, making these relationships an important contributor to individuals' well-being.

Especially, in committed romantic relationships, partner's supportive behaviors may reduce emotional withdrawal, discourage depression, prevent conflict from escalating, and increase emotional intimacy within the relationship, which in turn increases relationship satisfaction (Cutrona, 1996). In addition, instability in committed romantic relationships, such as divorce and breaking up with a partner, are related to mood or substance disorders (Overbeek, Vollebergh, Engels, & Meeus, 2003). Hence, it

is important to understand the precursors or factors related to positive qualities of committed romantic relationships, especially in young adulthood.

It has generally been found that, compared to children from always-married families, children from divorced families are less likely to develop positive or healthy romantic relationships. Children from divorced families have been found to hold more negative views and attitudes toward committed romantic relationships, including marriage (Jacquet & Surra, 2001; Sprecher, Cate, & Levin, 1998); feel less secure attachment to romantic partners (Sprecher et al., 1998; Summers, Forehand, Armistead, & Tannenbaum, 1998); experience less intimacy with romantic partners (Ensign, Scherman, & Clar, 1998); have lower trust in their romantic partners (Sprague & Kinney, 1997); feel less happy in their relationships (Amato, 1993, 1999); experience more problems in their romantic relationships, such as conflict and love affairs (Amato, 1999; Amato & Booth, 1991); and report less stability in their romantic relationships, such as higher divorce rates (Amato, 1993, 1996, 1999; Amato & Booth, 1991; Webster, Orbuch, & House, 1995).

However, the experience of parental divorce is not the only factor affecting children's romantic relationship development since a number of different family processes influence those relationship qualities. Important family process factors include interparental/family conflict (e.g., Amato & DeBoer, 2001; Conger, Cui, Bryant, & Elder, 2000), economic disadvantage (e.g., Amato, 2000; Amato & DeBoer, 2001; Amato & Sobolewski, 2001; Webster et al., 1995), children's individual characteristics, such as gender, education, and problematic interpersonal behaviors (e.g., Amato, 1996; Amato &

DeBoer, 2001; Jacquet & Surra, 2001; King, 2002; Seiffge-Krenke, 2003), socialization of children (parenting or/and problem solving skills (e.g., Amato, 1996; Conger et al., 2000), and parent's characteristics, such as antisocial behaviors and religiosity (e.g., Amato & DeBoer, 2001; King, 2002). One potential important family process variable is that of parent-child relationships. This study examines these relationships. Specifically, it is explored how parent-child relationships during adolescence may influence the impact of parental divorce on adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood.

The study presented in Chapter III examined the potential mediating role of parent-adolescent relationships between parental divorce and adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood. The study asked if earlier parental divorce is related to lower qualities of parent-adolescent relationships, which in turn negatively influence adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood. The current study examines parent-adolescent relationships as a possible moderator of the association between parental divorce and adolescents' committed romantic relationships. Parental divorce does not necessarily decrease parent-child relationship, thus the degree of negative association between parental divorce and adolescents' committed romantic relationships can be different by depending on varying qualities of the parent-child relationships.

Parental Divorce, Parent-Child Relationships, and Committed Romantic Relationships of Children

As outlined in Chapter III, it can be argued that parental divorce negatively affects parent-child relationships, which in turn negatively influence children's committed

romantic relationships – parent-child relationships act as a mediator between parental divorce and children’s committed romantic relationships. However, not all parent-child relationships are affected by parental divorce. The severity and duration of the negative effects of parental divorce, such as diminished parent-child relationship qualities, vary from person to person (Amato, 2000b) and are influenced by variables, such as parents’ distress following divorce (Emery, 1999; Webster et al., 1995), the amount of interparental conflict (Davies & Cummings, 1994), financial status (Amato, 1993), and parents and children’s own characteristics (Emery, 1999). In other words, depending on these conditions, the qualities of parent-child relationships after divorce can vary, which in turn may moderate the effect of parental divorce on children’s romantic relationships (see Figure 9).

Insert Figure 9

The important moderating role of parent-adolescent relationships on adolescent’s committed romantic relationships in young adulthood can be supported by a social learning theoretical perspective. According to social learning theory, individuals’ behaviors are learned by observation (Bandura, 1977, 1986). In other words, when adolescents experience effective, positive, and healthy relationships with their parents, children observe and learn effective relationship behavior patterns and repeat them in relationships with other significant figures, their committed romantic partners. Indeed, some studies have found that parent-child relationships are significantly related to

children's romantic relationships (e.g., Amato, 2000; Amato & Sobolewski, 2001; Conger et al., 2000; King, 2002; Linder, Crick, & Collins, 2002; Riggio, 2004; Seiffge-Krenke, 2003; Summer et al., 1998).

Hence, it can be argued that when adolescents from divorced family have close and positive relationships with their parents, they may be more likely to develop positive and healthy romantic relationships, which in turn may reduce or buffer the possible negative impact of parental divorce on their romantic relationships. Meanwhile, if adolescents have negative relationships with their parents after parental divorce, these negative parent-adolescent relationships may boost the negative impact of parental divorce on their romantic relationships. In short, the degree of association between parental divorce and adolescents' committed romantic relationship qualities may depend on the quality of parent-adolescent relationships.

Limitations of Existing Studies

Many studies on the effect of parent-child relationships on children's romantic relationships have been conducted (e.g., Amato, 2000; Amato & Sobolewski, 2001; Conger et al., 2000; King, 2002; Linder, Crick, & Collins, 2002; Riggio, 2004; Seiffge-Krenke, 2003; Summer et al., 1998). Generally, those studies found that children who have positive, close, and healthy relationships with parents are more likely to have positive qualities of romantic relationships. However, studies on the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's committed romantic relationship development have not been extensively conducted. Furthermore, among the studies on these dynamics, few studies have examined parent-child relationships as a

moderator between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships. The few studies on parent-child relationships as a possible moderator between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships can be due to the lack of understanding the diversity within divorced families. Thus, the examination of parent-child relationships as a moderator between parental divorce and children's committed romantic relationships is needed.

There are some empirical studies on the impact of parent-child relationships on the degree of association between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships. For example, Booth and his colleagues (1984) found that even though parental divorce of college students was predictive of the negative quality of their romantic relationships, as measured by rates of cohabitation, negative evaluations of steady relationships, and being more sexually active, the strength of association between parental divorce and the quality of courtships was depended on the qualities of parent-child relationships (Booth, Brinkerhoff, & White, 1984). However, this study used concurrent data from college students. Hence, it is not known how young adults' earlier relationships with their parents would influence their romantic relationships. Also, parent-child relationships were not examined separately for mothers and fathers. Mothers and fathers were integrated together into 'parent' category. Thus, it is not known relationships with which parent moderated the negative association between parental divorce and young children's romantic relationships.

Duran-Aydintug (1997) interviewed 60 college student young adults from divorced families in order to examine how the experience of parental divorce, parental

conflict, and their romantic relationship qualities were associated to one another. In Duran-Aydintug's study (1997), parent-child relationship qualities were not initially planned to be examined; however, Duran-Aydintug (1997) found during the interviews that children's supportive and open relationships with their mothers and fathers after parental divorce played an important role in shaping children's positive attitudes toward committed relationships and marriages and healthy dating behavior patterns. This implies that the quality of parent-child relationship after parental divorce may buffer the potential negative link between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships. Nevertheless, the findings of this study are limited to small sample size and the parent-child relationships reported by sample was retrospective data

More recently, Summers and colleagues (1998) examined father-child and mother-child relationships during adolescence as a mediator, as well as a moderator, between earlier parental divorce and children's romantic relationships during early adulthood using longitudinal data (Summers, Forehand, Armistead, & Tannenbaum, 1998). However, they did not find either mediation or moderation effect of parent-adolescent relationships between parental divorce and adolescents' romantic relationship qualities in young adulthood. This may be due to not examination of gender of adolescents while they examined father and mother separately. In other words, if they would have used four dyads of parents and adolescents – father-son, father-daughter, mother-son, and mother-daughter, they might have found mediation or moderation effect of parent-adolescent relationships in some dyads.

Beyond the Existing Studies on the Dynamic of Parental divorce, Parent-Adolescent Relationships, and Adolescents' Committed Romantic Relationships

The purpose of the current study is to examine the possible moderating role of parent-child relationships during adolescence in the association between earlier parental divorce and adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood using prospective, longitudinal data. Many studies have examined parent-adolescent relationships and their role on adolescents' outcomes, including romantic relationship qualities. However, very few studies have used prospective data. In addition to using longitudinal study, there are unique strengths of the current study that can fill the gap in the lack of research on the moderating role of parent-child relationships. The current study focuses on parent-child relationships during adolescence and examines the uniqueness of each dyad of parents and children.

Refining Parent-Adolescent Relationships

During adolescence, adolescents begin to prepare for adulthood with thinking of long-term plans, such as career and education. At the same, they seek increased autonomy from parents. They are likely to start to date and to seek intimate romantic partners; however, parents remain as significant people that adolescents turn to for help with future plans and with personal problems (Steinberg & Silk, 2002; Barber, 1994). Parent-child relationships during adolescence are regarded as continuity of parent-child relationships during childhood and pre-adolescence (Laursen & Collins, 2004). Thus, parent-adolescent relationships can be a good indicator for parent-child relationships in general. In addition, parent-child relationships during adolescence can significantly

influence adolescents' achievement of developmental tasks in young adulthood, such as further education and developing quality romantic relationships.

Some scholars (e.g., Barber, 1994; Barber & Eccles, 1992; Youniss & Smollar, 1985) argue that adolescence is the time for children to seek advice regarding future plans (e.g., job or school), interpersonal problems, or family problems. Especially, during late adolescence, individuals must begin to make commitments to specific goals and pathways. With decision to be made about future plans, such as works and education, adolescents frequently turn to their parents for advice (Steinberg & Silk, 2002; Barber, 1994). Thus, the open-communication and advice by parents can be an important determinant of parent-child relationships during adolescence. Hence, this current study measures parent-adolescent relationships by focusing on parental talk/advice for children's future plans and personal worries with adolescents in addition to measuring adolescents' satisfaction in parental support and perception of parental interest in their activities and examine how those aspects of parent-child relationships during adolescence moderate the association between parental divorce and adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood.

Examination of the Role of Gender of Parents and Adolescents

As Steinberg (1990) stated that "the four parent-adolescent dyads may be characterized by quite different types of relations and may undergo quite different sorts of transformations in adolescence" (p. 226), many researchers are aware of the potential role of gender of family members in their dynamics. Especially, in the dynamics among

parental divorce and parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationship development, the effect of different gender of parents and child should be examined.

First, the degree of impact of parental divorce on daughters and sons' romantic relationships can be different (e.g., Booth et al., 1984; Herzog & Cooney, 2002; Jacquet & Surra, 2001). Second, mother's and father's relationships with sons and daughters can be uniquely different and their impact on son's and daughter's romantic relationship development also can be different (e.g., Dalton et al., 2006; King, 2002; Riggio, 2004). Even though researchers are aware of the potential role of gender of family members in their dynamics, not many studies have fully examined the role of gender of parents as well as children and their dynamics.

In summary, the current study will examine whether the qualities of father and mother-adolescent relationships moderate the association between earlier parental divorce and adolescents' committed romantic relationship qualities in young adulthood – perception toward partner's behaviors, satisfaction in the relationships, and stability of the relationships, and whether this dynamic is different for female and male adolescents.

Method

Procedure

Data were drawn from the high school and young adult data from the Michigan Study of Adolescent Life Transitions (MSALT). A 20-year 9-wave investigation, MSALT began in 1983 when the participants were the sixth grade. The study was designed to investigate normative and non-normative transitions during adolescence and young adulthood. Analyses for the current study were based on wave 6 and 8. Wave 6

was collected in 1990 when participants were in 12th grade and Wave 8 was collected in 1996-1997 when participants were approximately 24 years old.

For collecting data at Wave 6, adolescents were given 90 minutes in order to complete the questionnaire in their school cafeterias with research staff members. Also, questionnaires and postage-paid return envelopes were mailed to adolescents who had participated in previous waves but were absent on the day of the survey. For collecting data at Wave 8, questionnaires and postage-paid return envelopes were mailed to participants' home.

Participants

At wave 6, adolescents in senior at high schools were asked about their parents' marital status by checking one of the followings: "Married and living together, Divorced, Separated, Never married and living together, Never married and not living together, Widowed." 70.5% adolescents were from always-married families; 22.7% were from divorced families. Among those adolescents from divorced families, only adolescents whose mothers were not remarried were selected as 'adolescents from divorced families' (40% adolescent's residential mothers were remarried while 60% adolescents' residential mothers were not remarried) in order to examine adolescents' relationships with their non-residential fathers following parental divorce.

At Wave 8, they were asked about their romantic relationship status by checking one of the followings: "I am married, I am living with someone in a steady, marriage-like relationship, I am not living with him or her, but I have a steady, romantic relationship with one person, None of the above." Cross-tabulation analysis with χ^2 was conducted to

examine if romantic relationship status varied by participants from divorced families and always-married families. The results showed that romantic relationship status were distributed differentially among groups, $\chi^2(3, N = 901) = 11.90, p < .01$. Specifically, more portions of young adults from always-married families were in seriously dating with one partner than those from divorced families (37.9% vs. 25.4%) while more portions of young adults from divorced families were married (24.9% vs. 22.2%), cohabiting (19.7% vs. 13.4%) and single (30.1% vs. 26.6%). Because the main purpose of the current study is to examine whether parent-child relationships affects children's other meaningful and intimate relationships in their lives based on social learning theoretical perspective, their non-committed or non-steady relationships, such as casual dating, were excluded.

The final sample were 520 (female=311 and male=209) from 'always-married' and 154 (female=107 and male=47) from 'divorced' families. This final sample is composed of 207 married young adults (31%), 138 cohabiting young adults (20%), and seriously committed dating young adults (49%). The majority of final sample participants are White (94%) and the median family income at Wave 6 was between \$40,001 - \$60,000. 52% of mothers of final sample had high school diploma or less, 24.7% of them had some college or technical school education, 17% of them graduated college, and 6.2% had some graduate school. 50.7% of fathers of final sample had high school diploma or less, 26.5% of them had some college or technical school education, 18% of them graduated college, and 4.8% had some graduate school. 14.3% of final sample

finished high school or less, 5.4% had some years of vocational training, 37.4% had some years of college, 30.9% finished 4 year college, 7.5% had graduate school years.

Measures

Father/mother-adolescent relationships. As measured and used in Chapter III study, father-adolescent and mother-adolescent relationships at Wave 6 were created with by calculating the mean of total twelve questions whose coefficient alpha is .93 for both father-adolescent and mother-adolescent relationships. These twelve items are composed of ten Likert-type items about the frequency and helpfulness of talking about future plans, such as job, education, and family plans, and personal problems with father/mother, one item about father/mother's support, and one item of father/mother's interest in adolescents' activities. The items about parental advice for future plans were developed by MSALT project team and have been used in published studies (e.g., Tucker, Bonnie, & Eccles, 2001). Sample items about talking about future plans and personal problems with father/mother are "My father/mother and I talk about future job and educational plans," "My father/mother and I talk about my personal problems," and "Talks with my father/mother have helped me to make plans for education after high school." These questions consisted of 7-point items – from 1-"never" to 7-"a lot." One item about father/mother's interest in adolescents' interest is "My father/mother takes in interest in my activities" scaled from 1="never" to 7="a lot." One item about parental support is "How satisfied are you with how supportive your father/mother is?" and was measured with 7 point scale: from 1="not at all satisfied" to 7="very satisfied." Higher score indicates more positive qualities of father/mother relationships.

Committed romantic relationships. Romantic relationship measures in this current study are different from Chapter III study. In Chapter III, using structural equation modeling analysis, three aspects of romantic relationship – perception toward partner’s negative behaviors, perception toward partner’s supportive behaviors, and satisfaction in romantic relationships – were included as indicators of a romantic relationship latent variable, thus those three aspects of romantic relationships were estimated as one romantic relationship quality. However, this current study uses three aspects of romantic relationships separate – perception toward partner’s behaviors (negative and supportive), satisfaction in current romantic relationships, and stability of romantic relationships. Unlike in the Chapter III study, perception toward partner’s negative behaviors and perception toward partner’s supportive behaviors were combined into one variable – perception toward partner’s behaviors. Also, stability of romantic relationships is one not used in Chapter III was added. The reason of stability of romantic relationships was not used in Chapter III study is 1) its scale is different from the other aspects of romantic relationships – as will be indicated in the following section, stability of romantic relationships is sum-up variable of yes (1) and no (2); thus, it was not used as an indicator of a romantic relationship latent variable in structural equation model in Chapter III – 2) this current study uses a series of hierarchical regression analysis. One of using a series of hierarchical regression analysis is to examine multiple dependent variables – in the current study, to examine each separate distinctive aspect of romantic relationships. Hence, in the current study, Chapter IV, another aspect of romantic relationships – stability of romantic relationships – was added.

Perception toward partner's behaviors was created by the mean of eight items. Sample items include “During the past month, how often did your partner.... Listen carefully to your point of view; ...Act supportive and understanding toward you; ...Ignore you when you tried to talk to him/her (coded reverse);...get into a fight or argument with you (coded reverse).” Higher scores indicated more positive and supportive behaviors from partners. The scale of questions ranged 7-pointed from 1=“never” to 7“always.” The alpha coefficient of perception of partner’s behaviors is .87.

Satisfaction in their romantic relationships were measured by eight items and sample items include “How satisfied are you with...How we communicate; ...Our social life;...How we express affection for each other.” Higher scores indicated more satisfaction with their romantic partners. The scale of questions ranged 7-pointed from 1=“never” to 7“always.” The alpha coefficient of positive qualities is .88.

Stability of romantic relationships was created by the sum of three items answered yes (1) or no (2). Items are: “Have you ever thought your relationship might be in trouble?” “Has the thought of separating crossed your mind?” and “Have you discussed separating from your partner with a close friend?” Higher scores indicated more stable relationships.

Results

Preliminary Analysis

Before analyzing data, expectation maximization (EM) algorithm for maximum likelihood (ML) estimation was utilized in order to increase the statistical power to analyze the data set by estimating the model in the presence of missing data (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996). In addition, prior to modeling, data screening involved tests

for outliers, skewness, and kurtosis. Distributions for all variables were generally normal, with univariate skewness values ranging from -1.45 to 1.30, and univariate kurtosis values ranging from -1.45 to 3.07. Based on the cut-off value (skewness > 3 , kurtosis > 10 , Kline, 1998; skewness > 2 , kurtosis > 7 , West, Finch, & Curran, 1995), there was no serious concern for univariate nonnormality.

Table 3 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations among the study's key variables: (a) father-adolescent relationships; (b) mother-adolescent relationships; (c) positive romantic relationships in young adulthood; and (d) stability of romantic relationships in young adulthood. The description of those key variables is provided with each group of adolescents from always-married families and divorced families. Table 3 also displays the Pearson correlations among the study's key variables. As shown in Table 3, mother and father-child relationships were significantly correlated in always-married families, but not in divorced families. This may be due to the residential status of parents. In other words, due to adolescents' living together with fathers as well as mothers in always-married families, relationships with fathers and mothers can affect each other while children's relationships with non-residential fathers may not influence relationships with residential mothers in divorced families or vice versa.

In addition, univariate analysis of variance was conducted to examine if adolescents from always-married and divorced families, as well as female and male adolescents, differently experience relationships with father and mother. The results showed that adolescents from divorced families are less likely to have positive

relationships with their non-residential fathers compared to those from always-married families, $F(1, 670) = 33.98, p < .001$, and that female adolescents are more likely to have positive relationships with mothers than male adolescents, $F(1, 670) = 23.68, p < .001$. There was no interaction effect between family structure and adolescent gender on the qualities of relationships with either fathers or mothers.

Insert Table 3

Primary Analyses

Father-adolescent relationships, family structure, adolescent gender, and their interaction. To determine whether family structure, adolescent gender, and the relationships with fathers are related to adolescents' romantic relationships in young adulthood and whether there are interaction effects among those variables on romantic relationships, a series of hierarchical regression analyses was conducted for three domains of romantic relationships – *perceptions toward partners' behaviors, satisfaction, and stability of the relationships*. As shown in Table 4, family structure, adolescent gender, and the relationships with fathers were entered in step 1, 2, and 3. In step 4, three interaction terms between family structure and adolescent gender, between family structure and father-adolescent relationships, and between adolescent gender and father-adolescent relationships were entered. In last step 5, the three-way interaction term among family structure, adolescent gender, and father-adolescent relationships was entered. To reduce issues of multicollinearity, the interaction terms were computed using

centered versions of the variables (Cronbach, 1987).

Insert Table 4

The results showed that *perception* toward romantic partners' behavior was predicted by adolescent gender only; compared to female adolescents, male adolescents are less likely to perceive their partners are supportive toward them ($\beta = -.11, p < .05$). Regarding *satisfaction* in the current romantic relationships, it was found that young adults who experienced parental divorce are less likely to be satisfied in their romantic relationships than young adults from always-married families and male young adults are less satisfied with their romantic relationships than female young adults (see Table 4). There was no main effect of the relationships with fathers during adolescence on satisfaction in romantic relationships in young adulthood. However, it was found that the relationships with fathers during adolescence interacted with family structure and their gender. Hence, two separate regressions were conducted to examine how relationships with father interacted with family structure and adolescent gender on adolescents' satisfaction in their romantic relationships in young adulthood.

Insert Figure 10

As shown in Figure 10, the results showed that the relationships with fathers during adolescence predicted daughter's satisfaction in their romantic relationships in

young adulthood; however, the relationships with fathers during adolescence were not related to sons' satisfied romantic relationships in their young adulthood. In addition, as shown in Figure 11, the relationships with residential fathers in always-married families were significantly related to their children's satisfied romantic relationships in young adulthood while non-residential father-adolescent relationships were not related to adolescents' satisfaction in their romantic relationships in young adulthood. The same pattern of interaction effect between father-adolescent relationships and family structure was found in predicting adolescents' *stability* in their romantic relationships. As shown in Figure 12, in always-married families, adolescents' relationships with fathers were predictive of adolescents' stability in their romantic relationships in young adulthood; however, the relationship with non-residential fathers did not predict adolescents' stability in their romantic relationships in young adulthood.

Insert Figure 11

Insert Figure 12

Mother-adolescent relationships, family structure, adolescent gender, and their interaction. To determine whether family structure, adolescent gender, and the relationships with mothers are related to adolescents' romantic relationships in young adulthood and whether there are interaction effects among those variables on romantic

relationships, a series of hierarchical regression analyses – which are same with the strategy used above for father-adolescent relationships – was conducted for three domains of romantic relationships (see Table 5). The results showed that adolescents' *perceptions* toward partners' behaviors in young adulthood was not predicted by family structure, relationships with mothers, or any interactions, but by adolescent gender; compared to female adolescents, male adolescents are less likely to perceive their partners are supportive toward them ($\beta = -.10, p < .05$).

Insert Table 5

Regarding *satisfaction* in romantic relationships, the results showed that there are no interaction effects among family structure, adolescent gender, and mother-adolescent relationships; however, those three key variables had main effect on predicting adolescent's satisfaction in their romantic relationships in young adulthood (see Table 5). Adolescents from divorced families were less likely to perceive partners' behaviors positively than those from always-married families; male adolescents were likely to hold more negative perceptions toward partners than female adolescents; and adolescents who had higher qualities of relationships with mothers were more likely to hold positive perceptions toward their romantic partners' behaviors in relationships. Meanwhile, there was interaction effect between mother-adolescent relationships and family structure on the *stability* in romantic relationships. As shown in Figure 13, adolescents' relationships with mother in always-married families were predictive of the stability in their romantic

relationships in young adulthood; however, the quality of mother-adolescent relationships in divorced families were not significantly related to the stability of adolescents' romantic relationships in young adulthood.

Discussion

This current study examined whether the qualities of father and mother-adolescent relationships moderate the association between earlier parental divorce and adolescents' committed romantic relationship qualities in young adulthood – perception toward partner's behaviors, satisfaction in the relationships, and stability of the relationships, and whether this dynamic is different for female and male adolescents. Only adolescent gender was predictive of young adults' perception toward their romantic partners' behaviors; male young adults perceived partners' behaviors more negatively than female young adults. However, more dynamic effect among parental divorce, adolescent gender, and relationships with fathers and mothers were found to be predictive of young adult children's satisfaction and stability in their committed relationships.

Satisfaction in Committed Romantic Relationships

One of major findings in the current study is while there was an interaction effect between father-adolescent relationships and family structure on adolescents' satisfaction in their romantic relationships in young adulthood, mother-adolescent relationships was a main effect. In other words, mother-adolescent relationships were crucial to adolescents' satisfaction in romantic relationships in young adulthood; however, the relationships with fathers during adolescence were more critical to satisfaction in romantic relationships of adolescents from always-married families. This interaction effect is somewhat surprising

because it was expected that the relationships with fathers would be more crucial to adolescents from divorced families, which was based on assumption that the possible negative link between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships could be buffered by positive father and mother-adolescent relationships.

Why do residential father-adolescent relationships predict adolescents' romantic relationship satisfaction in young adulthood while non-residential father-adolescent relationships do not? One of possible explanation can be borrowed from the study of Clark and Barber (1994) and their argument. Clark and Barber (1994) also found that the interaction effect of the level of adolescents' perception of fathers' interest in their activities and family structure (always-married vs. divorced families) on adolescents' self-esteem. They found that adolescents, whose fathers were perceived to show high interest in their adolescent children's activities from always-married families, had the highest self-esteem while adolescents, whose fathers were perceived to show low interest in their adolescent children's activities from always-married families, had the lowest self-esteem. They suggested that adolescents' accounts of the degree of fathers' interest in their activities may be important. In other words, a lack of non-residential fathers' interest could be divorce-related factor(s), such as fathers' intention to avoid the conflict with their ex-wives, adolescents' mothers. Hence, in the current study, it might be argued that the relatively low qualities of non-residential fathers and adolescent children can be attributed to divorce-related factors by adolescents, such as the less chance to see each other possibly because of non-residential fathers' new families, which are out of their controls. Meanwhile, adolescents from always-married families, they may less have those

“explain away,” which can make the effect of father-adolescent relationships in always-married families more strongly than one in divorced families.

Another possible explanation is that the potential different degree of significance of residential fathers and non-residential fathers to adolescent children. As shown in preliminary analysis, the qualities of relationships between adolescents and fathers from divorced families are significantly lower than ones between adolescents and their fathers from always-married families. This can be interpreted that the less positive relationships between adolescent children from divorced families and their non-residential fathers may lead adolescents to thinking their non-residential fathers are not as significant figures to them as residential fathers are to their adolescent children. According to social learning theory, individuals pay more attention to more significant, distinctive, and powerful figures in the process of observing and learning behaviors from those figures. Hence, it might be argued that residential fathers who have more positive relationships with adolescent children are regarded as more positive and significant figures, which in turn affect their children while non-residential fathers who have less positive relationships with their adolescent children may not be regarded as significant or powerful figures to their adolescent children.

Another possible explanation is that the effect of the degree of the amount of being exposed to father-adolescent relationships by residence styles. In other words, adolescents from always-married families have more chance to interact with their fathers than those from divorced families. Thus, adolescents in always-married families are more likely to keep being exposed to a certain pattern or quality of interaction with their

residential fathers, which in turn the impact of parent-adolescent relationships in always-married families stronger than one of parent-child relationships in divorced families. Based on social learning theory, it can be suggested that the effect of observational learning is strengthened when imitating models frequently happen; otherwise, the learning behaviors fails to be influenced by their observation. Hence, the relationships with fathers in always-married families can be a stronger impact on adolescents' romantic relationships in young adulthood than the relationships with non-residential fathers in divorced families.

This possible importance of the degree of being exposed to certain types of parent-child relationships also can explain why mother-adolescent relationships were a main impact on adolescents' satisfaction in their romantic relationships in young adulthood without interacting family structure. Mothers from both always-married and divorced families in the current study were residential parents with who adolescents interacted daily-basis. Hence, mother-adolescent relationships were main effect without interacting family structure may be not surprising while it was found that there was an interaction effect of father-adolescent relationships and family structure on adolescents' romantic relationship satisfaction. Another explanation of the main impact of mother-adolescent relationships can be that the relationships with mothers may be more significantly related to adolescents' romantic relationship development than the relationships with fathers because mothers are usually more caring, supportive, and responsive, and spend more time with their adolescent children (Williams & Kelly, 2005) and some studies even found that bonding between mothers and daughters are often

strengthened (Furstenberg & Cherlin, 1991; Hetherington & Jodl, 1993 cited in Kapinus, 2004). However, the findings of the current study regarding father and mother-adolescent relationships may imply that the repeated exposure to father and mother-adolescent relationships is crucial to adolescent children's developing their romantic relationships in later lives.

In addition, other possible third variables related to parent-child relationships and/or to their own romantic relationships should be considered, such as adolescents' characteristics. If adolescents have positive and/or easy-going personalities, fathers and mothers may be more likely to be able to communicate with those adolescent children more often in more positive ways than fathers and mothers whose adolescents have relatively negative and/or unenthusiastic personalities, which in turn can differentially influence in shaping adolescents' romantic relationship qualities in young adulthood. Also, it can be understood in the way that adolescents' different personalities are related to different qualities of parent-child relationships as well as to their own romantic relationships. In other words, if adolescents have positive and easy-going personalities, they are more likely to have positive relationships with their fathers and mothers during adolescence and with their romantic partners in young adulthood, regardless of the association between parent-child relationships and romantic relationships.

Another major finding of the current study is that there was an interaction effect between the relationships with fathers and adolescent gender on adolescents' romantic relationship satisfaction in young adulthood. The relationships with fathers were significant predictor of daughters' romantic relationship satisfaction in young adulthood

while sons' romantic relationship satisfaction in young adulthood was not significantly predicted by the relationships with fathers. Why do the relationships with fathers matter for daughters' romantic relationship satisfactions in young adulthood rather than for sons' one?

Some scholars argued that the relationships with fathers are crucial for daughters' romantic relationship development. For example, Parke (1996) stated that daughters whose fathers are unsupportive, uninvolved, or hostile are more likely to have problems in forming committed long-term romantic relationships. Biller and Kimpton (1997) argued that the attentive and supportive father-daughter relationships are important for the daughters' feelings of self-worth during childhood, which in turn develop their positive romantic relationships with their partners during adulthood.

Another possible explanation is that daughters may have more opportunities to learn interaction with opposite sex people through interactions with fathers. Although some scholars have argued that the relationships with fathers could be more important to sons than daughters based on socialization by same gender parent (e.g., Amato & Booth, 1991; Amato & Gilbreth, 1999; Furstenberg & Weiss, 2000) and children's identification and imitation of same-gender parents is critical socialization process (Lamb, 1997), developing romantic relationships can be learned more through interaction with opposite sex parent.

Stability in Committed Romantic Relationships

The current study found that, even though the difference is not statistically significant (trend level), adolescents from divorced families are more likely to hold less

stable attitudes toward their romantic relationships compared to those from always-married families. However, another main finding of the current study showed that in predicting young adults' stability in their romantic relationships, father-adolescent relationships and mother-adolescent relationships interacted with family structure. To adolescents from divorced families, the relationships with either non-residential fathers or mothers were not significantly related to stability in their romantic relationships in young adulthood; however, the relationships with fathers and mothers in always-married families predicted stability in adolescents' romantic relationships in young adulthood.

This interaction effect may be explained in a different way compared to the interaction between father and mother-adolescent relationships and family structure on adolescents' satisfaction in romantic relationships in young adulthood. In other words, while the family structure may be understood as a context providing a different level of time and opportunities for parents and adolescents to interact, which affects satisfaction in romantic relationships of children in young adulthood, the family structure may be understood as a context providing an experience of parental divorce, which in turn affect children's perception or attitudes toward divorce as an option for their relationships. Generally, it has been found that children from divorced families are more likely to hold negative and lower expectation toward committed relationships (e.g., Jacquet & Surra, 2001; Sprecher et al., 1998) and to hold favorable attitudes toward divorce than those from always-married families (e.g., Amato & DeBoer, 2001; Coleman & Ganong, 1984; Segrin, Taylor, & Altman, 2005).

Segrin and colleagues (2005) found that offspring of divorced parents are less likely to hesitate to divorce compared to those of always-married parents. They argued that this can be understood based on ‘disinhibitory effects’ based on social cognitive theory, which refers to when individuals observe models experiencing positive consequences (e.g., parental adjusting after divorce and becoming happy) for enacting certain behaviors (e.g., parental divorce), they are more likely to enact those modeled behaviors (e.g., their own divorce). In addition, Amato and DeBoeoeor (2001) found that children from divorced families are more likely to think of ending their current romantic relationships and argued that increases a risk argued “by observing parental divorce, children learn firsthand that marriages do not last a lifetime, that people do not have to remain in unsatisfying relationships, and that divorce can provide opportunities to seek greater happiness with alternative partners. These observations are likely to undermine offspring’s commitment to the general norm of lifelong marriage and, ultimately, to specific marital partners” (p. 1040). Thus, in the current study, adolescents from divorced families may be not influenced by family process, such as parent-adolescent relationships, for their stability in romantic relationships in young adulthood as much as adolescents from always-married families because they may be aware of possibility to end the relationships as an option to solve problems in romantic relationships more than those from always-married families.

Limitations, Contributions, and Directions for Future Research

The findings above from the current study are somewhat unexpected and surprising even though the possible explanations of those findings were suggested. Those

possible explanations for the findings in the study imply some limitations of the study, which also can suggest future research. First limitation of the current study is that relationships with fathers and mothers were reported by adolescents only. Although some researchers (e.g., Gonzales, Cauce, & Mason, 1996) found that adolescents' information about parent-child (e.g., mother-adolescent) interaction was more accurate and objective than mothers' report, using multiple reporters can be a solution to this shared method variance. Also, this one informant could lessen the reliability in measurement of perception toward romantic partners' behaviors because information from one rater could be problematic since one reporter's information could be systematically biased (Thompson & Walker, 1982). The finding of gender effect on the perception toward partner's behaviors may be due to this one informant method. Thus, using perspectives/reports for dyadic relationship qualities would benefit the future research in this area.

A second limitation is of this study is the statistical power due to sample size of subsample, especially for males from divorced families. The sample size of male adolescents from divorced families in the current study was 47 while females from divorced families were 107, and females and males from always-married families are 311 and 209 respectively. Thus, this small subsample size may not be able to hold enough statistical power to detect the influence of key variables in the current study – especially, family structure, adolescent gender, and their interaction with father and mother-adolescent relationships. Some researchers (e.g., Cheng & Powell, 2005) argue that when using small subsamples of family types, marginal significant differences should be

accepted as evidence against the null hypothesis. In this case, the current study can be regarded to find that family structure (experience of parental divorce) predicted the different level of adolescents' satisfaction and stability in their romantic relationships, which refers that adolescents from divorced families have lower satisfaction and stability in their romantic relationships in young adulthood. However, the more appropriate sample size for the future research would be beneficial.

Nonetheless, this small subsample size is related to contributions of the current study. First, the current study specified the gender of parents and adolescent children and examined whether there are main effects of the gender of parents and adolescents and how they interact on adolescents' romantic relationships in young adulthood. Thus, this subgroup into four dyads of each family structure resulted in small subsample size. However, some researchers (e.g., Steinberg, 1990; Cowan, Cowan, & Kerig, 1993) argued that when researching parent-child relationships, it should be specified the gender of parents and children because different dyads have different types of interactions and relationships. Recently, some studies have attempted to overcome this gender issue (e.g., Barber & Delfabbro, 2000); however, there are still lack in study on potential gender effect of parents and children.

Another strength of the current study is examination of children's relationships with non-residential fathers by including children from divorced families, who lived with their mothers who was not remarried only. This enabled to prevent another effect, such as relationships with stepfathers, and to examine how adolescent children's relationships with non-residential fathers influence and how there interact with other variables on

adolescents' romantic relationships in young adulthood. Especially, in addition to parental involvement and support, the current study measured parent-adolescent relationships based on parental advice for adolescents' future and personal problems. During adolescence, parental roles are getting more reciprocal and consultative rather than unidirectional and directive (Youniss & Smollar, 1985) with increase of adolescent's autonomy and adolescents seek parental advice for their future plans, interpersonal problems, or family problems (Barber, 1994; Barber & Eccles, 1992; Steinberg & Silk, 2002; Youniss & Smollar, 1985). Hence, the measurement of parent-child relationships in the current study may contribute to capture and understand how non-residential fathers interact with their sons and daughters during adolescence and how this affects adolescent children's romantic relationships in young adulthood. Hence, this measurement contributes to fill the gap in studies on non-residential father-child relationships examining only financial support and frequency of contact or involvement of non-residential fathers.

In addition, not many studies on parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships in later lives used prospective data, but rather used retrospective data (e.g., Riggio, 2004) or concurrent data (e.g., Linder et al., 2002). Retrospective data has a limitation. For example, when young adults recall their relationships with parents when they were younger, they may be biased in their recall of relationships qualities with parents for many reasons, such as current stress in life or current relationships with parents. Hence, there is a high possibility that participants cannot recall past events accurately. Thus, longitudinal prospective data in the current

study enhanced the reliability of measuring relationships with fathers and mother during adolescence and relationship qualities in young adulthood.

In short, based on limitations and contributions of the current study, in future, using longitudinal data with multiple informants of appropriate size of sample about interpersonal relationships, such as parent-child relationships would benefit understanding the dynamics among parental divorce, sons and daughters' relationships with fathers and mothers, and children's romantic relationships in their later lives. In addition, given that it was found in the current study that the relationships with mothers from both always-married and divorced families were predictive of adolescents' satisfaction in romantic relationships in young adulthood while the relationships with fathers in always-married families only were predictive, the effort to understand the process or mechanism of this phenomenon would provide benefit in future research. For example, it was suggested in the current study that these results may be due to the different levels of being exposed to a certain kind of parent-adolescent by residence styles and of adolescents' perception of significance of fathers and their potentially different impacts on adolescents' romantic relationship development. In future, further examination of the degree of adolescents' being exposed to or maintaining a certain kind of relationships with their fathers and how adolescents hold different perspectives/significance toward their fathers by family structure, if any, would be beneficial in understanding the dynamics of family structure and parent-adolescent relationships in young adulthood. Last, examination of casual dating behaviors during adolescence and young adulthood before establishing committed and steady romantic

relationships with one partner by family structure and parent-adolescent relationships would be beneficial to understand more full developmental model of romantic relationships in young adulthood. This current study included only young adults who are in steady and committed relationships with one partners based on the social learning theoretical perspective – the relationships with significant people (parents) are learned and repeated into another relationships with other significant people (steady and committed romantic partners). However, individuals can learn certain behaviors or response skills through casual dating with multiple partners, which in turn influence their romantic relationship qualities with one committed partner later.

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Table 3

Parent-Adolescent Relationships and Adolescents' Romantic Relationships in Young Adulthood: Correlations and Descriptive Statistics (N=674)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1. Father-adolescent relationships	—	.47**	.07	.14**	.13**
2. Mother-adolescent relationships	.08	—	.12**	.21**	.17**
3. Perceptions toward partners' behaviors	.00	.08	—	.69**	.40**
4. Satisfaction in romantic relationships	-.07	.11	.78**	—	.47**
5. Stability of romantic relationships	-.07	.02	.51**	.56**	—
Always-married families					
Mean	3.66	4.43	5.77	5.69	1.48
SD	1.21	1.25	.94	.93	.39
Divorced families					
Mean	2.91	4.64	5.72	5.54	1.42
SD	1.34	1.42	.94	1.03	.38

Note. Correlations for adolescents from divorced families are below the diagonal and those from always-married families are above the diagonal.

** $p < .01$.

Table 4

Family Structure, Adolescent Gender, Father-Adolescent Relationships and Their Interaction on Adolescents' Satisfaction in Romantic Relationships in Young Adulthood (N = 674)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4			Model 5		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Family Structure (FS)	.07	.04	-.06 [†]	-.08	.04	-.07	-.06	.05	-.05	-.10	.05	-.09*	-.10	.05	-.09*
Adolescent Gender (AG)				.10	.04	-.10**	-.11	.04	-.11**	-.13	.05	-.13**	-.05	.05	-.09**
Father-Adolescent Relationships (FAR)							.07	.03	.09*	.02	.04	.02	.00	.04	.11
FS X AG										-.05	.05	-.05	-.06	.05	-.06
FS X FAR										-.08	.03	-.11*	-.10	.04	-.13**
AG X FAR										.05	.03	-.06	-.07	.04	-.10*
FS X AG X FAR													-.05	.04	-.06
ΔR^2						.01**			.01*			.01*			.00

[†] $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 5

Family Structure, Adolescent Gender, Mother-Adolescent Relationships and Their Interaction on Adolescents' Satisfaction in Romantic Relationships in Young Adulthood (N = 674)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4			Model 5		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Family Structure (FS)	.07	.04	-.06 [†]	-.08	.04	-.07 [†]	-.09	.04	-.08*	-.10	.05	-.09*	-.10	.05	-.09*
Adolescent Gender (AG)				.10	.04	-.10**	-.07	.04	-.07 [†]	-.10	.04	-.10*	-.10	.05	-.10*
Mother-Adolescent Relationships (MAR)							.13	.03	.17***	.10	.03	.13**	.10	.03	.13**
FS X AG										-.04	.05	-.04	-.04	.05	-.04
FS X MAR										-.04	.03	-.06	-.04	.03	-.05
AG X MAR										-.03	.03	-.04	-.02	.03	-.03
FS X AG X MAR													.02	.03	.03
ΔR^2							.01**			.03***		.00			.00

[†] $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Figure 9

Father and Mother- Adolescent Relationships as Moderators between Parental Divorce and Adolescents' Romantic Relationships in Young Adulthood

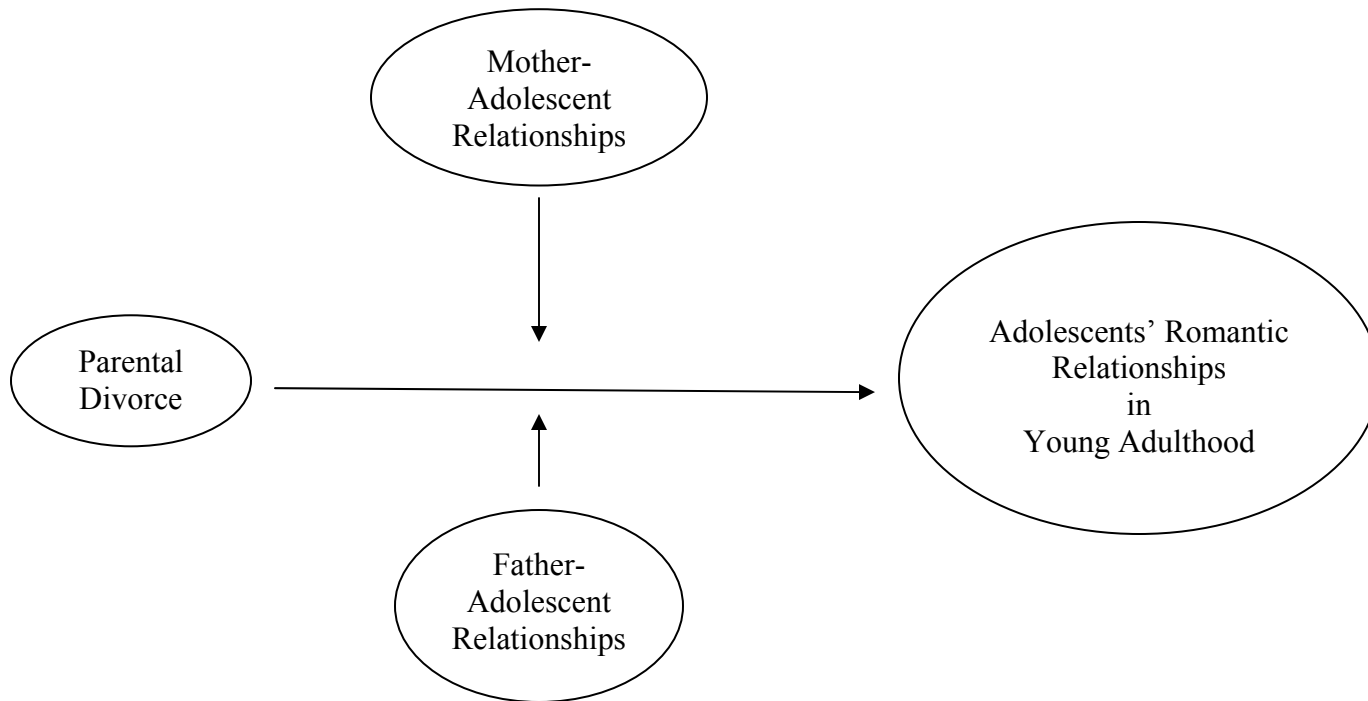


Figure 10

Interaction Effect of Adolescent Gender and Father-Adolescent Relationships on Adolescents' Satisfaction in Romantic Relationships in Young Adulthood

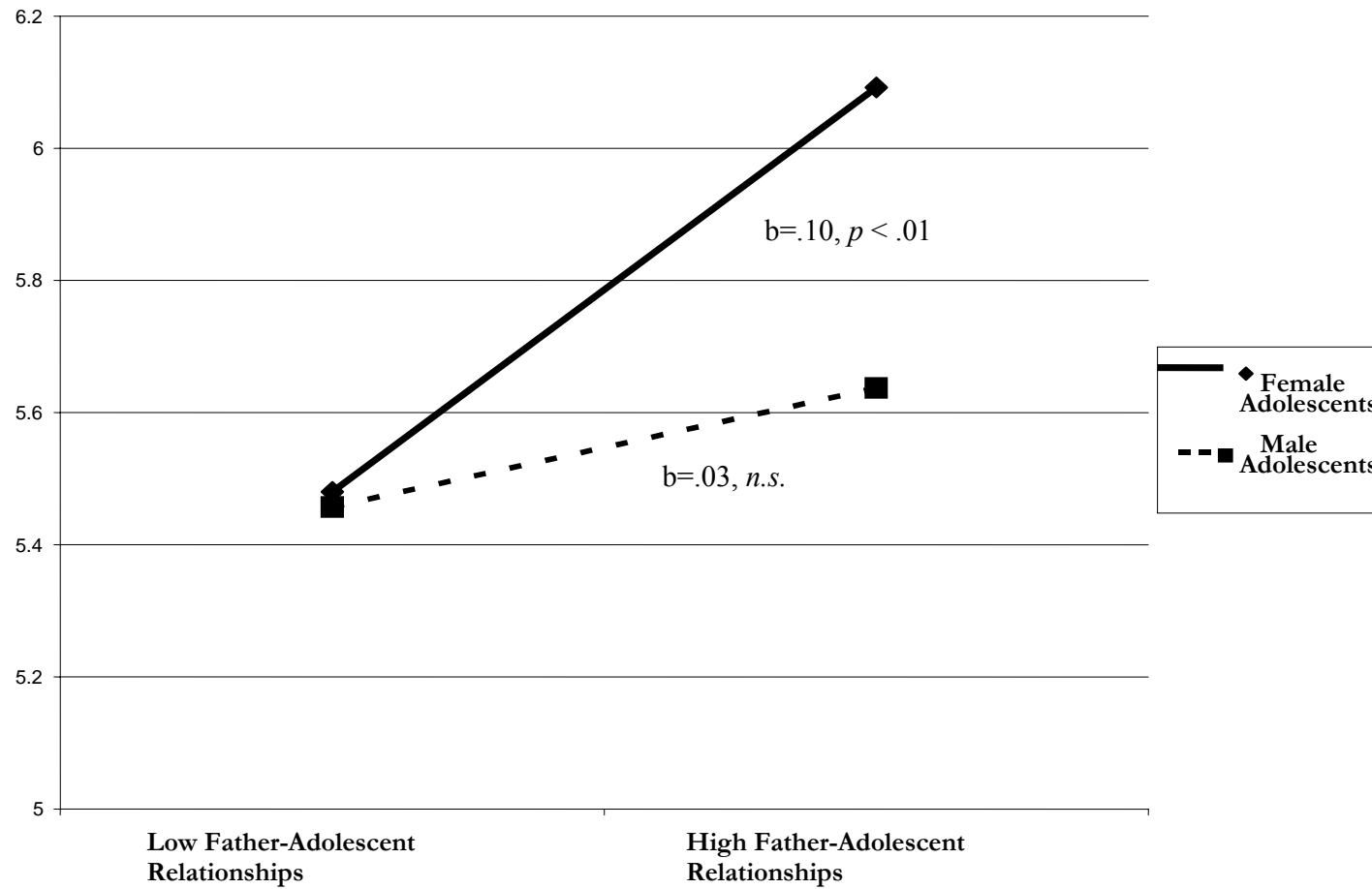


Figure 11

Interaction Effect of Family Structure and Father-Adolescent Relationships on Adolescents' Satisfaction in Romantic Relationships in Young Adulthood

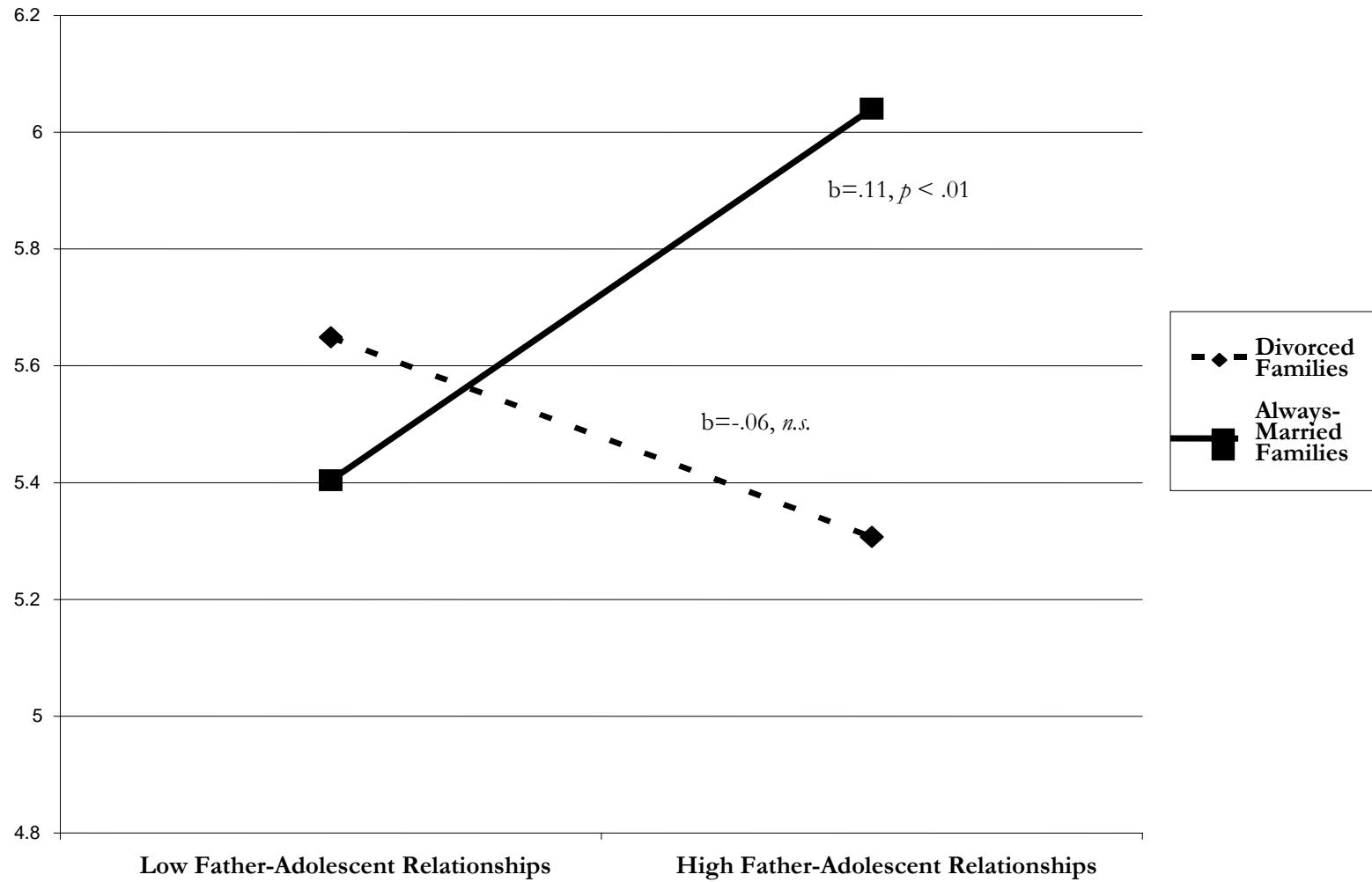


Figure 12

Interaction Effect of Family Structure and Father-Adolescent Relationships on Adolescents' Romantic Relationship Stability in Young Adulthood

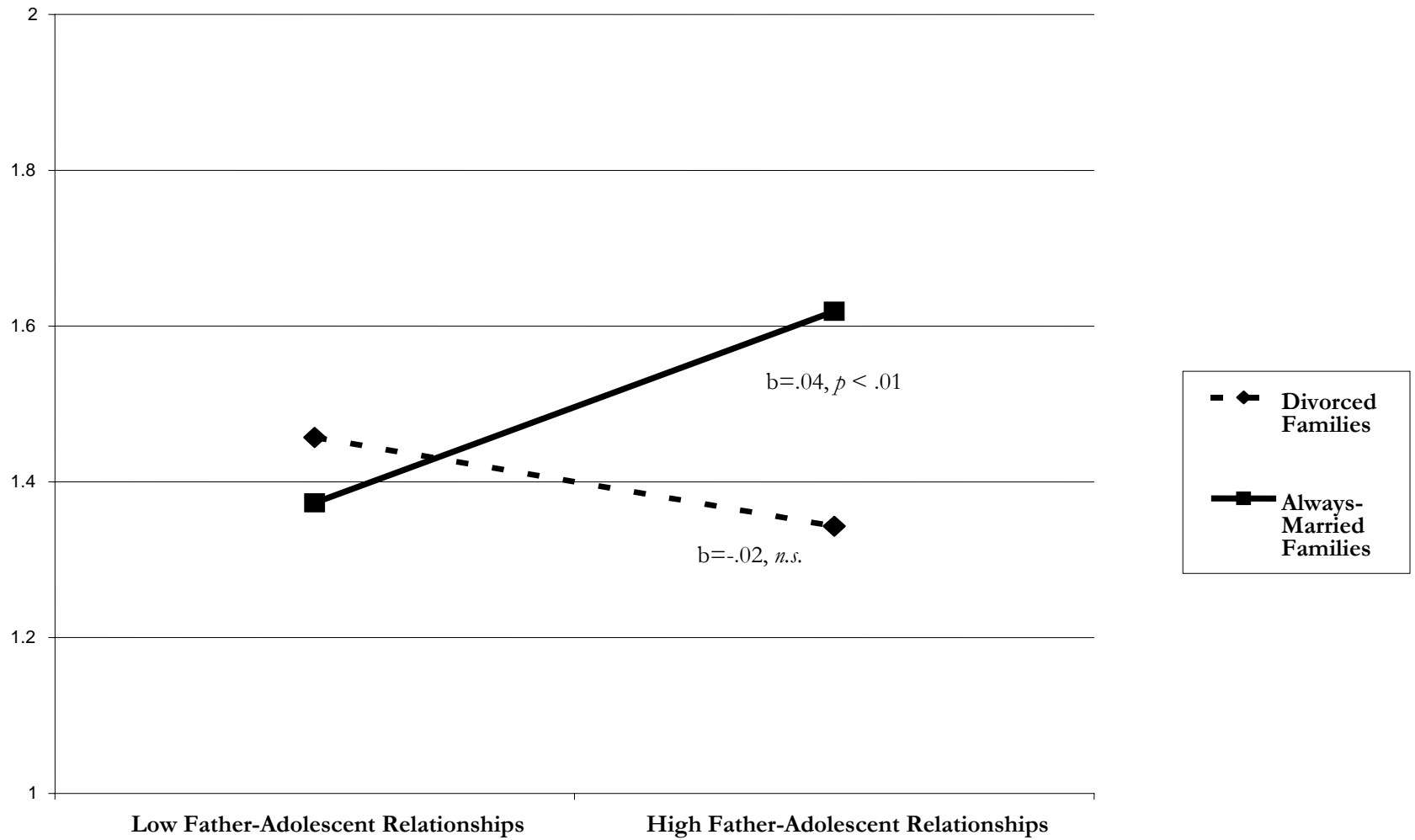
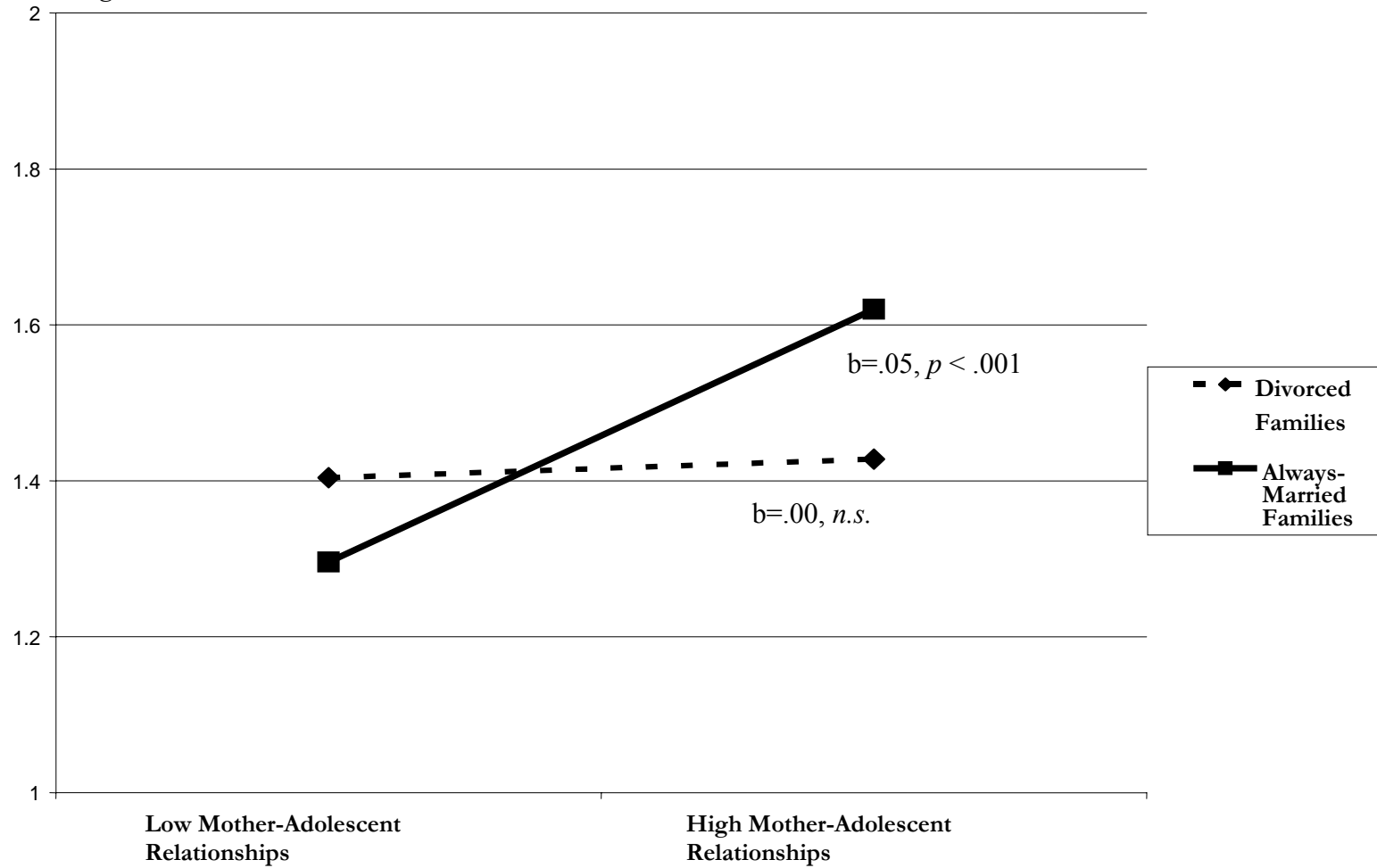


Figure 13

Interaction Effect of Family Structure and Mother-Adolescent Relationships on Adolescents' Romantic Relationship Stability in Young Adulthood



CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

The three manuscripts presented in this dissertation suggest the need for further examination of the dynamics of parental divorce, father and mother-child relationships, and children's committed romantic relationships. Chapter II presented the proposed models for understanding the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships using on social learning theory as a guide. In addition, the needs of conceptually refining parent-child relationships and examining the uniqueness of the four types of dyads of parents and children were addressed.

The main models suggested in Chapter II argued for using both mediation and moderation when examining the influence of parent-child relationships for understanding the relationship between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships. The mediation model suggested that parental divorce negatively influences children's romantic relationships because parental divorce decreases the quality of parent-child relationships. These decreased parent-child relationships negatively affect children's romantic relationships. Social learning theory helps explain this model. That is poor parent-child relationships are modeled by children, which are applied and are repeated in children's romantic relationships.

Meanwhile, the moderation model suggests that parental divorce negatively impacts children's romantic relationships; however, different from the mediation model,

the moderation model suggested that parental divorce does not necessarily decrease the quality of parent-child relationships due to the diversity within divorced families. In other words, not all divorced parents and children have decreased parent-child relationships following divorce. Hence, if children have positive and close relationships with their parents, even after parental divorce, the potential negative impact of parental divorce on children's romantic relationships can be lessened. Or if children have poor or distant relationships with parents after divorce, the potential negative impact of parental divorce on children's romantic relationships may be strengthened.

The first empirical study (Chapter III) tested the mediation model, examining four dyads of parents and adolescent children – whether mother and father-adolescent relationships mediate the influence of parental divorce on sons' and daughters' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood – and whether father-adolescent relationships and mother-adolescent relationships interact on adolescents' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood. The second empirical study (Chapter IV) tested whether mother and father-adolescent children relationships moderate the influence of parental divorce on sons' and daughters' committed romantic relationships in young adulthood.

Parent-Adolescent Relationships as a Mediator between Parental Divorce and Adolescents' Committed Romantic Relationships in Young Adulthood

Overall, the mediation model was not supported. Instead, it was found that there was an indirect effect of parental divorce on young adult children's romantic relationships through parent-adolescent relationships. However, this indirect effect was

found for the father-daughter dyad only, not for the other three types of dyads. Nevertheless, there was direct effect of parental divorce on father-son and father-daughter relationships, but not on either mother-son or mother-daughter relationships. In addition, there was direct effect of father-daughter and mother-daughter relationships on daughters' committed romantic relationship qualities, but not on father-son and mother-son dyads. Last, there was not an interaction effect between father-adolescent and mother-adolescent relationships on adolescents' committed romantic relationship qualities in young adulthood.

Even though sons' romantic relationship qualities were not shown as significantly related to either fathers or mothers, it may be too early to conclude that sons' romantic relationships are differently affected by relationships with fathers and mothers from daughters' romantic relationships. When equating the link between relationships with fathers and mothers and romantic relationships of sons and daughters, it was found that the impact of relationships with fathers and mothers were not statistically different for sons and daughters' romantic relationships. However, the mediation model still shows that indirect effect of parental divorce through relationships with fathers on children's romantic relationship qualities was found for only daughters.

Implications

There was a direct negative effect of parental divorce on father-adolescent relationships, but not on mother-adolescent relationships. It was suggested that father's parenting or relationships with children may be more vulnerable to environments, situations, or life events, such as divorce than mother's relationships with children.

However, this direct effect difference of parental divorce on between father and mother-relationships should be examined further in future research.

Indeed, it may not necessarily imply that divorce negatively affect fathers' relationships with their children more than mothers' because the sample used in this dissertation examined adolescents from divorced families who lived with mothers and not their fathers. Hence, the post-divorce situation where fathers did not live with adolescent children after divorce probably lessened the contact with their children, which in turn may have limited the opportunities of fathers in developing positive relationships with their adolescents. This pattern can happen between mothers and adolescent children after parental divorce if adolescent children live with their fathers and those mothers do not live with their adolescent children. Indeed, given that fathers become residential fathers more often after divorce as compared to earlier time points, the direct effect of parental divorce on father and mother-child relationships should be further examined with consideration of residence status.

Even though the equated paths between parent-child relationships and children's romantic relationship qualities for sons and daughters revealed that the impact of relationships with fathers and mothers can be regarded as different for sons and daughters, the mediation model still shows that parent-adolescent relationships were significantly related to daughters' committed romantic relationships, but not significantly related to sons' committed romantic relationships. Furthermore, the indirect effect of parental divorce on only daughters' romantic relationships through relationships with fathers was found. Thus, there may be unique role of father-daughter dyad on daughters' romantic

relationships, which should be examined further in future. Regarding the potential unique impact of father-daughter and mother-daughter dyads on daughters' romantic relationships in Chapter III, it was argued that females may be more vulnerable to or affected by the relationships with parents because they are more relation-oriented when they are socialized. However, further efforts to understand better what parents mean and what figures parents are to sons and daughters, especially during adolescence, would benefit the understanding of the association between parent-adolescent relationships on adolescents' committed romantic relationship qualities in future research.

Parent-Adolescent Relationships as a Moderator between Parental Divorce and Adolescents' Committed Romantic Relationships in Young Adulthood

It should be noted that measures of young adults' committed romantic relationships in the moderation model (Chapter IV) were different from mediation model (Chapter III). In the mediation model, romantic relationships qualities were measured based on three domains – perception of partner's supportive behaviors, perception of partner's negative behaviors, and satisfaction in romantic relationships – and integrated into one latent variable for the SEM model. Meanwhile, in the moderation model, perception of partner's supportive behaviors and perception of partner's negative behaviors were integrated into one variable – perception of partner's behavior and used as one of three dependent variables of romantic relationships – perception of partner's behaviors, satisfaction in committed romantic relationships, and stability of committed romantic relationships. Stability of committed romantic relationships was not integrated

into romantic relationship variable in mediation model using SEM due to the different scale of stability from other aspects of romantic relationships.

The results showed that there was direct impact of parental divorce on satisfaction in young adults' committed romantic relationships, but not on perception of partner's behaviors or on stability of committed romantic relationships. In addition, there were some interaction effects between parental divorce and parent-adolescent relationships and between parent-child relationships and adolescent gender. It was found that the qualities of mother and father-child relationships during adolescence predicted stability of committed romantic relationships of young adult children from always-married families, but not of those from divorced families. In addition, the qualities of relationships with fathers during adolescence predicted satisfaction of committed romantic relationships of young adult children from always-married families, not of those from divorced families.

Implications

These findings were somewhat surprising because the moderation model was developed and tested based on the theoretical assumption that there is diversity within romantic relationships of children from divorced families depending on different parent-child relationship qualities. Hence, the findings that adolescents' relationships with mothers, as well as with fathers, in always-married families predicted only adolescents' stability of committed romantic relationships in young adulthood and that adolescents' relationships with fathers in always-married families predicted only their satisfaction in committed relationships are somewhat unexpected. Possible explanations of these

interaction effects between family structure and parent-adolescent relationships were suggested in Chapter IV.

In addition to those explanations in Chapter IV, these unexpected findings do challenge the prevalent social myth. People assume that compared to children from divorced families, children from always-married families are more likely to establish positive and healthy romantic relationships because they are “safe” from witnessing failed relationships, which negatively affects children’s own romantic relationships as well. Parents many times say that they do not divorce for the children’s sake, even when they want to divorce. However, the findings of this dissertation suggest that growing up in always-married families is not a guaranteed safe place for positive romantic relationships of children. Given that romantic relationship qualities of children from always-married families are vulnerable to the quality of relationships with parents, parents in always-married families may have to be aware of maintaining positive relationships with their children.

General Concerns

The conceptual framework of this dissertation is based on a social learning theoretical perspective. Social learning theory suggests that parent-child relationships are important because children learn relationship or interaction patterns and that they then apply and repeat these patterns in their own romantic relationships. Even though there were some findings suggesting the importance of parent-adolescent relationships in the mediation and moderation models, the findings did not fully support social learning theory. This does not necessarily imply that parent-child relationships are not modeled

into children's romantic relationships or parent-child relationships are not a good precursor for children's romantic relationships. Instead, it should be noted that the measure of parent-child relationships during adolescence in this dissertation focused on positive aspects of parent-child relationships during adolescence only.

Due to using existing data for this dissertation, there were some limitations. One limitation was being able to examine only positive aspects of parent-adolescent relationships. Indeed, this may be conceptually appropriate because romantic relationships in the dissertation focused on positive aspects of relationships, such as satisfaction and stability of committed romantic relationships. Low levels of positive parent-child relationships do not always mean high levels of negative parent-child relationships. The modeling of interaction patterns or behaviors in relationships with parents might be stronger in regards to negative aspects rather than in supportive aspects of behaviors. In other words, negative behaviors or interactions in parent-child relationships may be modeled by children more strongly than positive ones, which in turn influence the negative romantic relationship qualities of children. This possibility may have limited the potential to fully test the conceptual premise of social learning theory on how parent-child relationships may influence children's romantic relationships.

Another possible factor that limited the findings is that the study sample included only young adults in committed romantic relationships. Ironically, this selection was conducted based on concepts of social learning theory; individuals model certain behaviors in a certain situation, then they apply and repeat those behaviors in a similar situation. In other words, because relationships with parents are meaningful and intimate

relationships in the lives of children, interactions that children learn through these relationships with parents would be repeated in their another meaningful and intimate relationships, such as their committed romantic relationships, not in non-committed or non-steady relationships, such as casual dating relationships.

Given that participants in the dissertation were already in serious romantic relationships, it may be argued that the sample is limited to young adults who are successful, at least, in creating and maintaining intimate relationships with their partners. Hence, there is a possibility that young adults, whose romantic relationships were negatively affected by poor parent-adolescent relationships, to the extent that they were not able to maintain committed romantic relationships, were excluded from the studies in the dissertation. Thus, the findings of the effect of parent-child relationships on children's romantic relationships may not have been fully tested. For example, it is possible that parental divorce affected single young adults' relationships with parents during adolescence more negatively than those who are in committed romantic relationships, which in turn influenced their views toward committed romantic relationships or their competence in creating or maintaining romantic relationships. Thus, the mediating model of parent-adolescent relationships between parental divorce and adolescents' romantic relationships in young adulthood with a single young adult sample might be stronger than with young adults in committed romantic relationships.

The sample used in this study may not have allowed for a full test of the moderation model. In other words, it is possible that young adults who had poorer relationships with divorced parents were excluded in the study of the moderator model.

This may have resulted in the finding that relationships with divorced fathers are not significantly related to children's romantic relationships as compared with residential fathers. Thus, in the future, it would be beneficial to examine how parental divorce and parent-child relationships are related to romantic relationship qualities of children who are not in committed relationships, but in casual dating, and whether those relationships are different from children who are in committed relationships.

Contributions of the Study

Romantic relationships in young adulthood have been paid attention by researchers in an attempt to determine predictors of those relationships. This dissertation provided a conceptual model of young adults' romantic relationships by earlier parental divorce and parent-child relationships during adolescence following parental divorce and tested those frameworks with prospective data from longitudinal study - MSALT. This rich longitudinal study allowed the examination of young adults' committed romantic relationship qualities with the influence of earlier parental divorce and parent-young adult child relationships during adolescence. There are studies examining the dynamics of parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships; however, there are limited studies conducted with prospective data from a longitudinal study. Thus, this dissertation contributes to a better understanding of young adults' romantic relationship qualities by examining the association with earlier parental divorce and parent-young adult child relationships during adolescence.

The dissertation conceptually argued the need to examine each type of dyad between parents and children in examining the dynamics of parental divorce, parent-child

relationships, and children's romantic relationships. The rich MSALT longitudinal study also helped understand the uniqueness of each dyad of parents and children in those dynamics. Researchers are aware of the need for examining the role of gender individuals in family dynamics; however, few studies have been conducted with the four dyads – father-son, father-daughter, mother-son, and mother-daughter.

Another contribution of the dissertation is the examination of children's relationships with non-residential fathers by including children from divorced families whose residential mothers were not remarried. This provided the ability to prevent another effect, such as relationships with stepfathers, and to examine how parental divorce is linked to children's relationships with non-residential fathers and how relationships with non-residential fathers are related to children's romantic relationships. Even though some studies of father-child relationships after divorce indicate that the quality of the relationships with non-residential father is important in their psychosocial well-being, very little is known about the role of the relationships with non-residential fathers in influencing adolescent and young adult children's committed romantic relationship qualities. The current study measured parent-child relationships based on parental advice for adolescent children's personal problems and future plans, which is needed during adolescence, and general support from parents toward children. This measurement provides the need of refining parent-child relationships based on children's developmental stages. Furthermore, this measurement fills the gap in studies on the role of non-residential father-child relationships on children's outcomes, which focus only

financial support and frequency of contact or involvement of non-residential fathers, by examining the qualities of non-residential fathers and adolescent children.

Future Research

Implications based on the findings, concerns, and contributions of the dissertation illustrated above provide some directions of possible future research. First, further efforts to understand better parent-child relationships by different dyads are needed. The equated paths between parent-child relationships and children's romantic relationship qualities for sons and daughters showed that the impact of relationships with parents on sons and daughters' romantic relationships is not statistically different. However, still the mediation model showed that parental divorce was negatively related to the qualities of father-son and father-daughter relationships; however, only father-daughter relationships was associated with daughters' romantic relationship qualities. In addition, the moderation model found that relationships with fathers predicted daughters' satisfaction in romantic relationships, but not sons' satisfaction.

Thus, it may be too premature to conclude that relationships with parents differentially influence sons and daughters' romantic relationships; however, the findings of the dissertation shed light on the possibility that different dyads of parents and children may differentially affect and are affected by other factors in the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationship qualities. Hence, examination of the dynamics of parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships with different dyads of parents and children should be

further conducted. If research gains consistent findings, efforts to understand why and how those findings are found and what those findings imply are needed.

In addition to the need to examine different dyads of parents and children, it would be help to understand the effect of the relationships with parents on children's romantic relationships to ask children what parents mean and how significant they are to them. As mentioned above, as people think two-parent always-married families are more ideal to children than divorced families for children's outcomes, including romantic relationships, it is assumed that parents are the most significant figures to children. Maybe it is an appropriate assumption; however, there may be different degrees of significance and different meaning of parents to children. For example, even if children have the same degree of quality of parent-child relationships, if some children perceive that their parents are not as significant figure as the other children, their relationships with their parents may not affect children's romantic relationships as much as the others' relationships with parents. Maybe these differences in significance and meaning of parents to children can help explain the findings of the dissertation – only father-daughter relationships were related to daughters' romantic relationships qualities and fathers in always-married families predicted young adult children's satisfaction and stability in romantic relationships while ones in divorced families did not. Examination of these aspects in future would be beneficial.

In addition to examination of the association between positive aspects of parent-child relationships and positive romantic relationships in the dissertation, examination of the association between negative aspects of parent-child relationships and negative

aspects of children's romantic relationships, such as conflict or poor problem solving skills, would benefit the understanding of how parent-child relationships qualities predict children's future romantic relationships. As mentioned above, low levels of positive parent-child relationships do not necessarily mean high levels of negative parent-child relationships. Also, modeling interaction patterns or behaviors with relationships with parents could be stronger in negative aspects than in supportive aspects. Thus, examination of negative aspect of parent-child relationships would benefit further understanding of the effect of negative relationship qualities between parents and children on children's romantic relationships.

In the future, research using prospective longitudinal data should continue being conducted, especially using different time frames. Longitudinal studies have the benefit of following individuals, which in turn allow the examination of precursors; however, longitudinal studies face the challenges of cohort effects. For example, prevention programs for divorced families are more accessible recently making parents more aware of the importance of parenting quality after divorce. This can result in lessening the possible negative relationship between parental divorce and parent-child relationships. Also, compared to the 1950s, society is more accepting of divorce as normative (at least not abnormal), so children in the present period might be less distressed by parental divorce given society's atmosphere, and children in the 2020s might be even less distressed. Hence, due to the uniqueness of a certain cohort group, the findings from that group may not be helpful to understand a bigger population in current societies.

In addition, controlling non-residential father's remarriage status would be beneficial for understanding the relationships between fathers and children. In this dissertation, residential divorced mother's remarriage status was controlled to prevent the effect of having another father figure. However, non-residential divorced father's remarriage status was not controlled. If non-residential fathers are remarried and have their own children with their spouses or stepchildren through remarriage, children may have different relationships with their divorced fathers, such as less frequent contact, feeling less close, feeling less significant and important to those fathers, which in turn can affect the degree of the association between father-child relationships and children's romantic relationships. Hence, including the marital status of non-residential fathers can provide benefit for understanding the role of non-residential fathers better.

Finally, other variables that can influence children's romantic relationships should be examined. Due to the main focus of this dissertation – the role of parent-child relationships between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships, other third variables that can affect children's romantic relationships were not examined extensively. For example, when examining or controlling the degree of interparental conflict, the link between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships may be stronger for some divorced families. In other words, it is possible that children whose parents had higher degree of interparental conflict before divorce would observe, model, and apply these negative interpersonal behaviors to relationships with parents as well as to their own romantic relationships. In addition, characteristics of children should be examined in the future. For example, children with easy-going and resilient characteristics may lessen the

negative impact of parental divorce on parent-child relationships, which may result in diversity of romantic relationship qualities for children from divorced families. Hence, the examination of third variables in the dynamics among parental divorce, parent-child relationships, and children's romantic relationships would be valuable for comprehending the dynamics.

In conclusion, the studies in the dissertation provide the need for further examination of young adults' romantic relationships by parental divorce and parent-child relationships. Rather than concluding parent-child relationships are a mediator or moderator between parental divorce and children's romantic relationships, the integration of findings of two studies of mediation and moderation models imply that there are different parent-child dyads, which are unique. Further efforts to understand the unique interaction in each dyad type and its role on children should be paid attention. Also, it is implied that fathers in always-married families cannot be idle for maintaining positive relationships with children based on the finding that their relationships with children make a difference in children's romantic relationship qualities. In addition, non-residential fathers' significance and meaning to their children should be understood in order to rebuild and improve the relationships with their children, which can affect children's romantic relationships.

APPENDIX A
HUMAN SUBJECTS APPROVAL LETTER

Human Subjects Protection Program



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P.O. Box 245-57
Tucson, AZ 85724-0057
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<http://www.human.az.ac>

3 May 2007

Sun-A Lee, Ph.D. Candidate
Advisor: Donna Hendricksen Christensen, Ph.D.
Department of Psychiatry
School of Family and Consumer Science
FCS, Room 205
PO Box 210033

**RE: YOUNG ADULTS' ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS BY FAMILY STRUCTURE
AND MOTHER-CHILD AND FATHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS**

Dear Mr. Lee:

We received documents concerning your above cited project. Regulations published by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services [45 CFR Part 46.101(b)(4)] exempt this type of research from review by our Institutional Review Board.

Exempt status is granted with the understanding that no further changes or additions will be made to the procedures followed (copies of which we have on file) without the review and approval of the Human Subjects Committee and your College or Departmental Review Committee. Any research related physical or psychological harm to any subject must also be reported to each committee.

Thank you for informing us of your work. If you have any questions concerning the above, please contact this office.

Sincerely,

Rebecca Dahl, R.N., Ph.D.
Director
Human Subjects Protection Program

cc: Departmental/College Review Committee

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC STATUS OF PARTICIPANTS

Family Structure

V20041 Are your biological (“natural”) parents: (check one)

Married and living together

Divorced

Separated

Never married and living together

Never married and not living together

Widowed

If your parents are married to each other, skip to the middle of page 4. If your parents are divorced, separated, remarried, and/or widowed, answer the following questions:

V20043 Which parent do you live with?

Mother

Father

Both (about equal time living with each parent)

V20044 Is the parent you live with remarried?

Yes

No

Romantic Relationship Status

We would like to ask you about your relationship with your dates, partner, or spouse. Please check the line which best describes your current situation:

- V28601 I am married
- I am living with someone in a steady, marriage-like relationship.
- I am not living with him or her, but I have a steady, romantic
 relationship with one person
- None of the above

APPENDIX C

ITEMS OF FATHER/MOTHER-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIPS

Parental Advice

Never						a lot
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- V20427
/20435 My father/mother and I talk about my future job and educational plans
- V20428
/204356 My father/mother and I talk about my future family plans
- V20429
/20437 My father/mother and I talk about my personal problems
- V20467
/20464 My father/mother and I talk about how important it is to be able to earn enough to support myself and my family
- V20468
/20465 My father/mother and I talk about what is involved in marriage and raising a family
- V20469
/20466 My father/mother and I talk about the conflicts that arise between family and work responsibilities

Helpfulness of Advice

A little						a lot
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- V20430
/20438 Talks with my father/mother have helped me to make plans for education after high school
- V20431
/20439 Talks with my father/mother have helped me to make job plans

V20431
/20439 Talks with my father/mother have helped me to make family plans

V20432
/20440 Talks with my father/mother have helped me to solve personal problems

Support from Parents

Not at all satisfied							very satisfied
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

V20433
/20441 How satisfied are you with how supportive your father/mother is?

Parental Interests in Activities

V20489 /20488	My father/mother takes an interest in my activities						
	Never						a lot
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX D

ITEMS OF QUALITIES OF COMMITTED ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS

Perceptions of Partner's Negative Behaviors in Committed Romantic Relationships

During the past month, when you and your spouse/partner(s)/date(s) have spent time talking or doing things together, how often did your partner (or dates)...

Never							Always
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

V28558 _____ Shout or yell at you because s/he was mad at you

V28559 _____ Ignore you when you tried to talk to him/her

V29560 _____ Try to make you feel guilty

V28562 _____ Get into a fight or argument with you

Perceptions of Partner's Supportive Behaviors in Committed Romantic Relationships

During the past month, when you and your spouse/partner(s)/date(s) have spent time talking or doing things together, how often did your partner (or dates)...

Never							Always
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

V28555 _____ Listen carefully to your point of view

V28557 _____ Let you know s/he really cares about you

V29561 _____ Act loving and affectionate toward you

V28563 _____ Act supportive and understanding toward you

Satisfaction in Committed Romantic Relationships

How satisfied are you with these parts of your relationship?

Not at all satisfied						Extremely satisfied
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- V28644 _____ How we communicate
- V28645 _____ My partner's attitudes about having children
- V29646 _____ How the house is kept (answer if you are living together)
- V28647 _____ The amount of influence I have over the decisions we make
- V28648 _____ Our social life
- V28649 _____ How we express affection for each other
- V29650 _____ With your relationship in general
- V28651 _____ How would your partner rate his/her satisfaction with your
relationship in general

Stability in Committed Romantic Relationships

Sometimes couple experience serious problems in their relationship and have thoughts of ending their relationship. Even people who get along quite well with their partner sometimes wonder whether their relationship is working out.

- V28661 Have you ever thought your relationship might be in trouble?
- V28662 Has the thought of separating crossed your mind?
- V28663 Have you discussed separating from your partner with a close friend?
- _____ Yes
- _____ No

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