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RESEARCH ARTICLE

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# Within-family associations of parent–adolescent relationship quality and adolescent affective well-being

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## Abstract

**Background:** Parent–adolescent relationship quality is theorized to be an important correlate of adolescent affective well-being. Little is known about the within-family processes underlying parent–adolescent relationship quality and affective well-being over a period of months. This three-wave, preregistered study examined within- and between-family associations between parent–adolescent relationship quality (support and conflict) and adolescent well-being (negative and positive affect). In addition, we examined whether the associations differed between mothers and fathers, and for adolescents' affective well-being in different social contexts (at home, at school, with peers).

**Methods:** The sample consisted of 244 Dutch adolescents (61.5% girls; age range: 12–17 years; mean age = 13.8 years). Random-intercept cross-lagged panel models were used.

**Results:** At the between-family level, higher levels of support and lower levels of conflict were associated with higher levels of positive affect and lower levels of negative affect. At the within-family level, increases in support and decreases in conflict were concurrently associated with increases in positive affect and decreases in negative affect. More parent–adolescent conflict than typical also predicted increases in negative affect, 3 months later, and more negative affect and less positive affect than typical predicted increased conflict, 3 months later. These within-family effects were largely similar for fathers and mothers. Associations for conflict occurred through bidirectional processes: Parent–adolescent conflict shaped and was shaped by adolescents' emotions at home, at school, and with peers.

**Conclusion:** Results suggest that parent–adolescent relationship quality (especially conflict) and adolescent affective well-being cofluctuate and predict each other over time within families.

KEYWORDS

parent–adolescent conflict, parental support, parent gender, positive and negative affect, social contexts, within-family

Adolescence is characterized by an increase in emotional problems, such as depressive symptoms and anxiety (Bor et al., 2014). A decrease in affective well-being (affective evaluations of mood and emotions; Eid & Diener, 2004) is a precursor to such emotional problems (Maciejewski et al., 2015). Contemporary ecological models emphasize the importance of developmental contexts in understanding adolescent well-being, with the parent–adolescent relationship as

The study's research questions, hypotheses, design, and analyses were preregistered: https://tinyurl.com/osfmanuscript

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one of the most important influences (Bronfenbrenner, 1987; Sameroff, 2010). Indeed, there is an abundance of empirical research demonstrating that high-quality relationships with parents are associated with better adolescent well-being (Khaleque, 2013; Weymouth et al., 2016; Yap et al., 2014). More specifically, high levels of parental support (i.e., affection, intimacy, guidance) and low levels of parent–adolescent conflicts (i.e., quarreling, antagonism) have been concurrently and longitudinally associated with higher levels of adolescents' affective well-being (Flook, 2011; Khaleque, 2013; Weinstein et al., 2006).

Although there is little doubt that the quality of the parent–adolescent relationship serves as a key factor in understanding adolescent affective well-being, several questions remain unanswered to date. First, although studies focusing on processes at the within-family level (how adolescents and their own parents influence each other) are essential (Keijsers & Van Roekel, 2018), they are scarce compared to studies at the between-family level (describing how families differ from each other on average; Boele et al., 2020). Second, although theoretical definitions of affective well-being include both negative *and* positive affect (Diener et al., 2018), most within-family studies have only examined parent–adolescent relationship quality with indicators of negative affect, such as depressive symptoms (Boele et al., 2020; Suldo & Fefer, 2013). Third, most existing within-family studies have examined relationships with mothers and have not specified the social context in which adolescents experience these feelings. Thus, the role of parent gender and social context in these dynamic processes remains understudied. Therefore, this three-wave study, with 3-monthly intervals, examined between- and within-family associations of parent–adolescent relationship quality (parental support and parent–adolescent conflict) and affective well-being (negative and positive affect) among adolescents aged 12–17 years. In addition, we examined whether the associations would differ for mothers and fathers, and whether such dynamics would be found with affective well-being in the home, school, and peer contexts.

## 1 | PARENT–ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIPS AND AFFECTIVE WELL-BEING

Parental support and parent–adolescent conflict are important dimensions of the parent–adolescent relationship quality. Positive relationship qualities, such as support, may promote adolescent well-being because such qualities can create stable emotional ties between adolescents and their parents. Emotional ties are fundamental to developing a secure foundation for exploring the outside world and forming new social relationships (De Goede, Branje, Delsing, et al., 2009; De Goede, Branje, & Meeus, 2009). In addition, conflict is a core element of close relationships because it results from the need to discuss and integrate different perspectives and expectations (Collins & Laursen, 2004; Laursen & Collins, 1994). Although to some extent conflict with parents may be considered a necessary developmental task within family relationships for adolescents to develop autonomy and become more independent from their parents (Blos, 1979; Branje, 2018), a high frequency of conflict may put adolescents at risk for diminished well-being (Tucker et al., 2003).

Theoretically, when adolescents perceive more support from their parents and experience less conflict with their parents, they are expected to have better affective well-being (IPARTheory; Rohner, 2021). However, much of what we know about how parent–adolescent relationship quality relates to "better" affective well-being is based on empirical studies that focus only on adolescents' negative affect (Boele et al., 2020). However, as Diener and colleagues (Diener, 1984; Diener & Lucas, 1999; Diener et al., 2018) have pointed out, less negative affect does not equate to more positive affect. In fact, negative and positive affect can exist *independently*, as individuals can simultaneously experience negative affect (i.e., being stressed) and positive affect (i.e., being excited; Larsen et al., 2001; Larsen & McGraw, 2011). Because negative affect is not simply the flip side of positive affect, the correlates of one with the parent–adolescent relationship may not be extrapolated to the other. Thus, to obtain a better picture of affective well-being, both negative and positive affect should be examined simultaneously (Two Continua Model; Keyes, 2002, 2014).

## 2 | DYNAMIC PROCESSES: BIDIRECTIONALITY, BETWEEN- VERSUS WITHIN-FAMILY, AND TIMESCALES

Parent–adolescent relationships may develop through an inherently dynamic process involving transactions between parents and adolescents (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006; De Ruiter et al., 2019). For example, when parents are more supportive, adolescents may experience less negative affect (Rohner, 2021). Affective well-being, in turn, may induce certain parenting behaviors (bidirectionality; Rapee, 1997). Likewise, increased negative affect in adolescents may elicit parental rejection (relationship erosion hypothesis; Coyne, 1976) or distressing responses (e.g., frustration, anger; Baumeister & Vohs, 2004), resulting in less supportive or more conflictual interactions.

Moreover, such bidirectional influences occur within families (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Modern analytic techniques allow us to move our research from mere prediction at the between-person level (e.g., who needs intervention and who does not?) to understanding the underlying causal mechanisms (e.g., how does parenting affect well-being?). A between-family

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design is suitable to provide information about (rank-order) differences in stable characteristics or scores, which allows to draw inferences about who is at risk (and who is not). A within-family design allows us to test how over-time changes in a predictor (here: parent-child relationships) are related to over-time changes in the adolescent's outcome (here: affective well-being) within the same family, which may inform us about when an individual or family is at risk (Hamaker, 2012; Keijsers, 2016). For example, if parents show less support than typical, is their own child experiencing more negative affect later on? Such a within-family design taps into the analytical level at which the theorized parenting effects take place: Between parents and their own children (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Studies on how the processes of parent–adolescent relationship and adolescents' affective well-being impact each other on the within-family level are still scarce (Boele et al., 2020).

Moreover, dynamic processes can span different timescales, from proximal processes at the micro level (day-to-day), to meso effects over months, to macro developmental changes over years (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). While assessments of proximal processes at micro timescales may be too small to observe meaningful associations between the parent–adolescent relationship and affective well-being, such momentary experiences may accumulate into observable effects at a meso timescales (Boele et al., 2022; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). For example, a small disagreement between parents and adolescents can change the immediate relationship without affecting the longer term relationship quality. However, a prolonged period of daily struggles and small disagreements may alter perceived relationship quality at a higher level of chronological aggregation. To understand how adolescents' affective well-being is altered by the experience of either conflictual or supportive interactions within families, this study employed a within-family and 3-month longitudinal design. As most longitudinal studies focus on longer follow-up periods of years, and some daily diary studies assess day-to-day dynamics, there is a particular paucity in our understanding of how these processes emerge at meso timescales (Boele et al., 2020).

## 3 | PARENT GENDER

Most adolescents grow up with a mother and a father, and the dynamic processes linking parent–adolescent relationship quality to adolescent affective well-being may differ for mothers and fathers. For example, it has been theoretically suggested that adolescents may view their fathers as more stimulating and their mothers as warm and supportive (Cassano et al., 2007; Dumont & Paquette, 2013; McCormick & Kennedy, 1994). Indeed, a recent review on parental gender differences in parenting over 15 countries revealed that maternal parenting is perceived as more supportive than fathers (Yaffe, 2020). Such parent differences may result in unique contributions of mothers and fathers to adolescent affective well-being. Within-family studies on the parent–adolescent relationship provide mixed findings (Boele et al., 2020; Van Lissa & Keizer, 2020; Vrolijk et al., 2020). For example, some within-family studies have reported that maternal support, but not paternal support, is negatively related to adolescents' negative affect (i.e., Bai et al., 2017). In general, no such parent gender differences in relation to negative affect have been reported for conflict (Chung et al., 2009; Reynolds et al., 2016; Timmons & Margolin, 2015). To our knowledge (reviewed in Boele et al., 2020), no studies have examined how maternal and paternal support and conflict within families are transactionally related to adolescents' *positive* affect.

## 4 | SOCIAL CONTEXT

According to Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory, adolescent development takes place in various layers of the environmental context (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). Three important social contexts in adolescence are family, school, and peer contexts. How adolescents feel within each of these contexts can vary significantly (Dietvorst et al., 2021) and previous studies have shown that the parent–adolescent relationships can exert effects extending the home context. Specifically, several studies reported that adolescent experiencing positive relationships with their parents at home, showed fewer social problems at school and with peers (Bai et al., 2017; Ducharme et al., 2002; Lehman & Repetti, 2007). With regard to affective well-being, it remains an open question whether the effects of the parent–adolescent relationship are only specific to the home context, or whether they are more general and carry over to other social contexts. While research has established that negative and positive affect may fluctuate across social contexts (Eid & Diener, 2004), and that adolescents may experience more positive and less negative affect with friends than at home and at school (Dietvorst et al., 2021; Larson & Richards, 1991); however, we are not aware of any studies that have examined whether the associations of parent–adolescent relationships with outcomes generalize across contexts. Examining the impact of parent–adolescent relationships beyond the home context provides a more comprehensive understanding of how relationships with parents contribute to adolescents' affective well-being in the broader context of their lives. This information can inform and guide policy and practice related to family support and adolescent well-being.

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## 5 | THE CURRENT STUDY

This study examined the between- and within-family associations between parent–adolescent relationship quality and adolescent affective well-being (using a statistical model illustrated in Figure 1 to differentiate between-family differences and within-family processes). The study was preregistered at the Open Science Framework (https://tinyurl.com/osfmanuscript).

The first research question (RQ1) examined whether parental support and parent–adolescent conflict would be associated with adolescent negative and positive affect, within and between families. On the within-family level, increases in support were expected to be concurrently related to decreases in negative affect (H1a) and to increases in positive affect (H1b). More support than typical would be followed by decreases in negative affect (H2a) and increases in positive affect (H2b). Increases in conflict were expected to be concurrently related to increases in negative affect (H3a) and decreases in positive affect (H3b). More conflict than typical was expected to be followed by increases in negative affect (H4a) and decreases in positive affect (H4b) 3 months later. On the between-family level (H5–H6), higher levels of support would be related to lower levels of negative affect (H5a) and higher levels of positive affect (H5b), and higher levels of conflict would be related to higher levels of negative affect (H6a) and lower levels of positive affect (H6b). See Supporting Information S1: Material 1 for an overview of the tested research questions and hypotheses.

The second question (RQ2) pertained whether these associations would differ for mothers and fathers (RQ2). We expected stronger effects for the associations between maternal support and negative affect compared to paternal support on the within-family level in terms of concurrent relations (H7) and longitudinal effects (H8) and on the between-family level (H9).

Third (RQ3), we examined whether the effects for adolescent's affective well-being would generalize across social contexts (home, school, peers). Based on the literature, the expectation was to replicate all six hypotheses (H1–H6) for the home context.

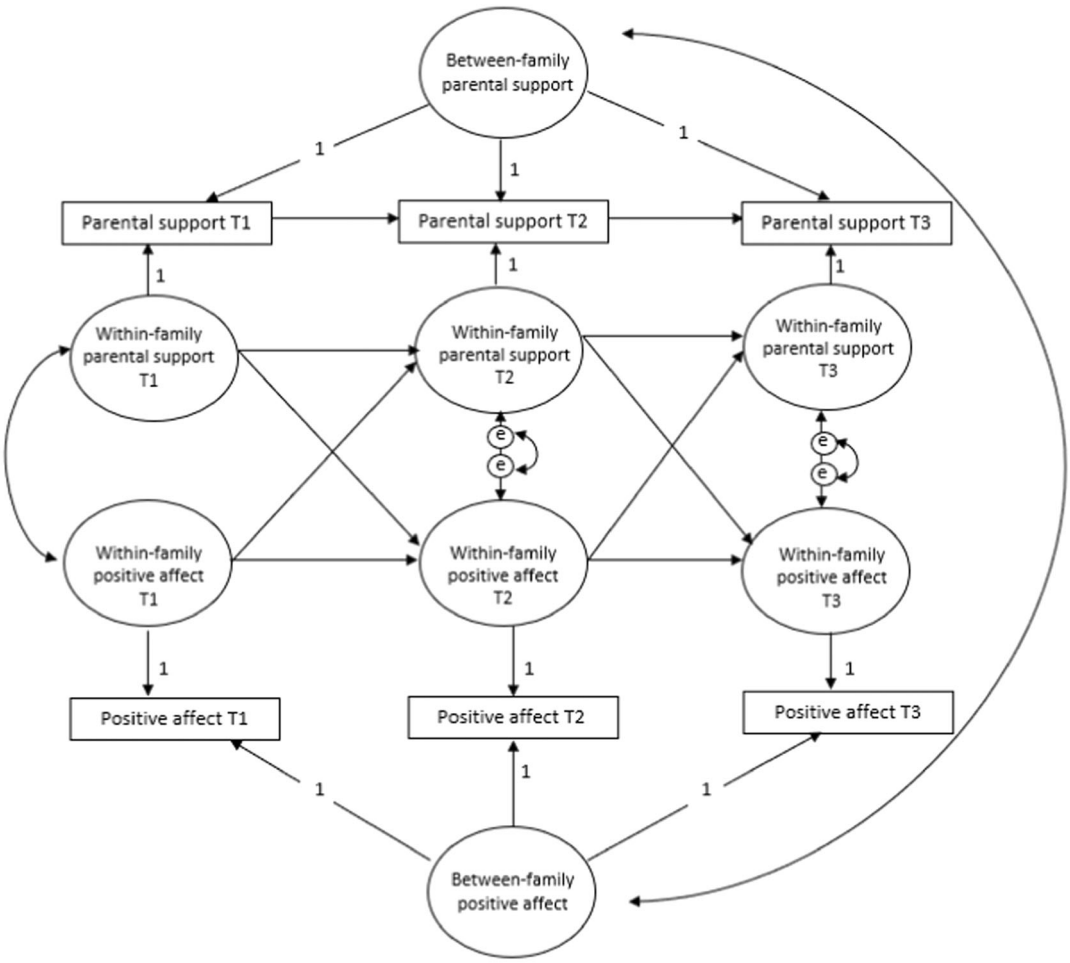


**FIGURE 1** Random-intercept cross-lagged panel model with parental support and adolescent's positive affect (only structural associations shown). T, time.

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# 6 | METHOD

## 6.1 | Participants and procedure

Participants were selected from the 'Grumpy or Depressed' project (Dietvorst et al., 2017; Janssen et al., 2020), a Dutch longitudinal multimethod study. The study started in October 2014 (T1) and consisted of three measurement waves with 3-monthly intervals (T3 took place in April 2015). A detailed description of the study design and recruitment of participants has been presented previously (Janssen et al., 2020). Informed consent was obtained from adolescents and their parents. The study procedures were approved by the Ethical Committee of the Faculty of Social Science University Utrecht. At each measurement wave, adolescents filled out an online questionnaire, which took approximately 45 min to complete. In this study, 244 participants (61.5% girls) participated. At T1, adolescents (age range: 12–17 years; $M_{age}$ = 13.84 years, standard deviation = 0.93) followed either higher general secondary education (44.7%) or preuniversity secondary education (55.3%). Most of the participants were born in the Netherlands (98.4%). Parental educational levels ranged from low (12.0%), medium (43.6%), to high (44.4%). 97.5% of the adolescents lived with their mother, and 90.6% lived with their father. Most parents were married (81.7%), 6.8% lived together without being married, 1.3% were single and never married, and 0.9% were widowed or divorced and lived with (4.7%) or without (4.7%) their children.

## 6.2 | Measures

### 6.2.1 | Parent–adolescent relationship quality

Adolescents rated positive and negative aspects of the relationship with their parents using the five-item Support scale and the three-item Conflict scale of the Network Relationship Inventory (NRI; Furman & Buhrmester, 1985). The items on both scales were rated on a 5-point scale (ranging from 1 = *Little to none* to 5 = *The most*), for mothers and fathers separately. An example item for parental support is "How sure are you that your relationship with your mother/father will last no matter what?," and for parent–adolescent conflict is "How often did you disagree with your mother/father?." For RQ1 composite scores for parental support and for conflict were created by averaging the scores of fathers and mothers within the same family. The Dutch translation of the measure has been validated in prior research (De Goede, Branje, & Meeus, 2009; Dietvorst et al., 2021).

### 6.2.2 | Adolescent affective well-being

At each measurement wave, adolescents rated their negative and positive affect in the home, school, and peer contexts using the Context-Specific Emotion Questionnaire (CSEQ) developed and validated by Dietvorst et al. (2021). A mean score of six negative emotions (disappointed, angry, sad, unhappy, nervous, and irritated) was used to create scale scores reflecting negative affect. A mean score of six positive emotions (relaxed, satisfied, happy, excited, confident, and disappointed) reflected positive affect (see Supporting Information S1: Material 3 for a full overview of the scales and items). An example item is "When I am at home/at school/with friends, I feel…." Items were rated on a 7-point scale (ranging from 1 = *Never* to 7 = *Always*). For RQ1 and RQ2, a composite score of affective well-being in general (without accounting for social context) was computed by averaging the scores across the three contexts (see Table 1 for psychometric information).

## 6.3 | Missing data and power

Patterns of missing data among the study variables were tested using Little's Missing Completely at Random (MCAR) test—$\chi^2$ (546) = 337.13, $p$ = 1.00. Because the data did not deviate from an MCAR pattern, the full information maximum likelihood estimation (Schafer, 1997) was applied. Previous research on this sample indicated that the study was sufficiently powered to detect cross-lagged within-family standardized effects of 0.22 to 0.39 (Boele et al., 2022; Dietvorst et al., 2017), which are considered large cross-lagged effects (Orth et al., 2022).

## 6.4 | Analyses

We performed Random Intercept Cross-Lagged Panel Models (RI-CLPM; Hamaker et al., 2015; Keijsers, 2016) with Mplus 8.3 (Muthén & Muthén, 2019), see Figure 1. RI-CLPM separates between-family associations (rank-order differences between families) from within-family effects (over-time processes between parents and their children within the same family;

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**TABLE 1** Descriptives and psychometric information of the measures.

| | | Time 1 | | | | Time 2 | | | | Time 3 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ICC | *N* | *M* (SD) | Range | α | *N* | *M* (SD) | Range | α | *N* | *M* (SD) | Range | α |
| Parental support | .75 | 232 | 4.32 (0.62) | 1.30–5.00 | .93 | 186 | 4.40 (0.65) | 1.70–5.00 | .94 | 181 | 4.45 (0.67) | 2.00–5.00 | .93 |
| Mothers' support | .71 | 232 | 4.35 (0.61) | 1.60–5.00 | .87 | 186 | 4.43 (0.64) | 2.00–5.00 | .89 | 178 | 4.48 (0.64) | 2.00–5.00 | .89 |
| Fathers' support | .71 | 232 | 4.30 (0.72) | 1.00–5.00 | .92 | 185 | 4.38 (0.72) | 1.00–5.00 | .93 | 176 | 4.42 (0.72) | 2.00–5.00 | .93 |
| Parent–adolescent conflict | .70 | 232 | 1.54 (0.55) | 1.00–4.17 | .86 | 186 | 1.43 (0.51) | 1.00–4.00 | .84 | 179 | 1.44 (0.51) | 1.00–4.00 | .88 |
| Mother–adolescent conflict | .68 | 232 | 1.55 (0.68) | 1.00–4.33 | .91 | 186 | 1.41 (0.56) | 1.00–4.33 | .84 | 178 | 1.42 (0.59) | 1.00–4.00 | .89 |
| Father–adolescent conflict | .76 | 232 | 1.54 (0.65) | 1.00–4.33 | .89 | 185 | 1.44 (0.64) | 1.00–4.00 | .88 | 174 | 1.45 (0.64) | 1.00–4.00 | .94 |
| Positive affect | .62 | 232 | 5.83 (0.74) | 3.44–7.00 | .94 | 186 | 5.78 (0.87) | 1.22–7.00 | .97 | 188 | 5.86 (0.75) | 2.17–7.00 | .95 |
| Positive affect at home | .54 | 232 | 6.14 (0.82) | 2.67–7.00 | .92 | 186 | 6.11 (0.91) | 1.33–7.00 | .95 | 187 | 6.17 (0.79) | 3.00–7.00 | .93 |
| Positive affect at school | .63 | 232 | 5.26 (0.99) | 2.00–7.00 | .91 | 186 | 5.28 (1.09) | 1.33–7.00 | .94 | 187 | 5.41 (0.98) | 1.00–7.00 | .93 |
| Positive affect with peers | .54 | 232 | 6.07 (0.79) | 2.83–7.00 | .91 | 186 | 5.95 (0.89) | 1.00–7.00 | .93 | 188 | 6.00 (0.83) | 1.00–7.00 | .93 |
| Negative affect | .64 | 232 | 2.10 (0.86) | 1.00–4.94 | .95 | 186 | 1.99 (0.91) | 1.00–6.11 | .96 | 188 | 1.89 (0.76) | 1.00–5.17 | .94 |
| Negative affect at home | .64 | 232 | 2.20 (1.01) | 1.00–6.00 | .92 | 186 | 1.96 (0.98) | 1.00–6.33 | .93 | 187 | 1.93 (0.91) | 1.00–5.33 | .92 |
| Negative affect at school | .61 | 232 | 2.18 (0.98) | 1.00–6.00 | .89 | 186 | 2.10 (1.02) | 1.00–5.67 | .91 | 187 | 1.99 (0.90) | 1.00–5.50 | .89 |
| Negative affect with peers | .47 | 232 | 1.93 (0.87) | 1.00–5.67 | .90 | 186 | 1.91 (0.95) | 1.00–6.33 | .93 | 188 | 1.75 (0.79) | 1.00–6.83 | .90 |

Abbreviations: ICC, intraclass correlation; SD, standard deviation; α, Cronbach's alpha.

Hamaker, 2012). That is, through RI-CLPMs, within-family variance (i.e., temporal fluctuations over time) can be disentangled from the between-family variance (i.e., stable trait differences), which is not possible through CLPMs. The within-family variance is used to estimate the carry-over stability paths, correlation at T1, the correlated change at >T1, and the cross-lagged paths. These within-family effects are all constrained to be equal over time in the first step of RI-CLPMs (constrained model). The data was person-mean centered and controlled for stable between-person differences by modeling the between-person variance as latent factors (i.e., random intercept terms), allowing to estimate "pure" within-family effects between parent-child relationship quality and adolescent affective well-being.

H1 and H3 were tested by examining the within-family correlated change (i.e., correlated residuals) at T2 and T3, indicating whether changes in parent–adolescent relationship quality are associated with changes in adolescent affect at each measurement occasion. H2 and H4 were tested by examining the within-family lagged effects from parent–adolescent relationship quality to adolescent affect. Such lagged effects indicate the extent to which a change in adolescent affect can be predicted from the family's prior deviation from their expected score (i.e., based on the grand mean and the family's own mean) on parent–adolescent relationship quality, while controlling for the structural change in adolescent affect and the family's prior deviation from their expected score on parent–adolescent relationship quality (Hamaker et al., 2015).

Following our preregistered analytic approach, hypotheses H1–H6 were addressed with four bivariate RI-CLPMs: 2 (support or conflict) × 2 (positive or negative affect) models. Regarding Research Question 2, 2 (support or conflict) × 2 (positive or negative affect) × 2 (maternal or paternal) models were used, resulting in eight RI-CLPMs. Then, to test for gender differences in the associations for H7–H9, paternal and maternal reports were combined into one model, allowing direct comparison of paths in one model (in which parental influences were controlled for each other) using Wald tests (Table 4). To correct for multiple testing, we then performed (nonpreregistered) false discovery rate analyses with $\alpha < .05$ (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995; Menyhart et al., 2021). To test Research Question 3, the same RI-CLPMs used to test RQ1 were conducted in three different social contexts, resulting in 12 RI-CLPMs: 2 (support or conflict) × 2 (positive or negative affect) × 3 (home, school, peer) models. To explore significant differences in the strength of associations between social contexts, we then combined the social contexts within a model to perform pairwise comparisons using Wald tests (Tables 5 and 6), followed by corrections for multiple testing. See Supporting Information S1: Material 1 for the inference criteria. Syntaxes and output files can be found in our preregistration.

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Because some variables were non-normally distributed, maximum likelihood with robust standard errors (Kline, 2016) was used. The overall fit of each model was determined based on the chi-square ($\chi^2$), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). A CFI and/or TLI values close to 0.950 and not below 0.900, and/or RMSEA values below 0.080 indicate good model fit (Brown, 2006). For each test, we use $\alpha < .05$ (two-sided).

## 7 | RESULTS

See Table 1 for descriptive and psychometric information on the measures and Table 2 for correlations between all measures of interest for RQ1 (and Supporting Information S1: Material 2 for correlations for RQ2 and RQ3).

### 7.1 | Parent–adolescent relationship quality and adolescent affective well-being

Our first question (RQ1) was to understand the associations between parent–adolescent relationship quality adolescent affective well-being, within and between families. Overall, the main findings showed that parental support was mainly concurrently associated with adolescents' affective well-being within families. Parent–adolescent conflict was, however, concurrently, longitudinally, and reciprocally associated with affective well-being within families.

#### 7.1.1 | Within-family associations

First, we examined the within-family associations between parental support and adolescent affective well-being. As hypothesized, increases in support were concurrently associated with decreases in negative affect (H1a) as well as with increases in positive affect (H1b—inferred from correlated changes at T2 and T3, Table 3). In addition, we expected (H2b and H2b) that more support than typical would also predict increased adolescents' affective well-being 3 months later. However, such parent-driven lagged effects were not found. The reverse (adolescent-driven) lagged associations from adolescent affective well-being to support were also not found. Thus, within families, increased parental support was related to increased adolescent affective well-being at the same time but not 3 months later.

Similarly, increases in conflict were concurrently associated with increases in adolescents' negative affect (H3a) and decreases in positive affect (H3b) (Table 3, correlated change). Regarding the lagged effects, more conflict than typical predicted increases in negative affect 3 months later (supporting H4a) but not decreases in positive affect (rejecting H4b). Conversely, more negative affect and less positive affect than typical predicted increases in conflict 3 months later. Hence, increased conflict was related to increased adolescent affective well-being at the same time but also 3 months later and vice versa, suggesting a bidirectional within-family process.

#### 7.1.2 | Between-family associations

At the between-family level (confirming H5 and H6, respectively), higher levels of support and lower levels of conflict were associated with lower levels of negative affect and higher levels of positive affect (Table 4).

**TABLE 2** Between-family correlations of the measures of interest.

| | | Positive affect | | | Negative affect | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | T1 | T2 | T3 | T1 | T2 | T3 |
| Parental support | T1 | 0.48* | 0.40* | 0.37* | −0.48* | −0.38* | −0.43* |
| | T2 | 0.46* | 0.43* | 0.41* | −0.37* | −0.40* | −0.46* |
| | T3 | 0.39* | 0.30* | 0.57* | −0.29* | −0.33* | −0.43* |
| Parent–adolescent conflict | T1 | −0.41* | −0.35* | −0.23* | 0.43* | 0.38* | 0.37* |
| | T2 | −0.41* | −0.30* | −0.29* | 0.44* | 0.38* | 0.40* |
| | T3 | −0.31* | −0.37* | −0.35* | 0.30* | 0.41* | 0.45* |

Abbreviation: T, time.

*$p < 0.01$.

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**TABLE 3** RI-CLPMs of parent–adolescent relationship quality and affective well-being (RQ1).

| Parameter | Negative affect | | Positive affect | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ***B*** **(SE)** | ***r/b*** | ***B*** **(SE)** | ***r/b*** |
| *Parental support* | | | | |
| Concurrent effects | | | | |
| T1 within-family correlation | −.07 (.03)* | −.18 | .02 (.02) | .12 |
| ***T*** **> 1 within-family correlated change (H1)** | **−.04 (.02)*** | **−.23 to −.43** | **.08 (.04)*** | **.33 to .46** |
| Lagged effects | | | | |
| **Parental support → affective well-being (H2)** | **−.20 (.19)** | **−.09 to −.16** | **.06 (.13)** | **.03 to .05** |
| Affective well-being → parental support | −.03 (.07) | −.05 | −.04 (.04) | −.04 to −.06 |
| Autoregressive path parental support | .31 (.17) | .25 to .26 | .36 (.14)** | .28 to .34 |
| Autoregressive path affective well-being | .22 (.10)* | .20 to .31 | .16 (.08) | .10 to .23 |
| **Between-family correlation (H5)** | **−.18 (.05)***** | **−.54** | **.20 (.04)***** | **.62** |
| *Parent–adolescent conflict* | | | | |
| Concurrent effects | | | | |
| T1 within-family correlation | .09 (.05)* | .40 | −.04 (.03) | −.26 (.09) |
| ***T*** **> 1 within-family correlated change (H3)** | **.04 (.01)***** | **.27 to .35** | **−.03 (.01)*** | **−.19 to −.21** |
| Lagged effects | | | | |
| **Parent–adolescent conflict → affective well-being (H4)** | **.39 (.17)*** | **.21 to .22** | **−.33 (.18)** | **−.17 to −.19** |
| Affective well-being → parent–adolescent conflict | .19 (.05)***** | .41 | −.16 (.07)* | −.27 to −.33 |
| Autoregressive path parent–adolescent conflict | .06 (.19) | .05 to .08 | .08 (.20) | .07 to .10 |
| Autoregressive path affective well-being | .25 (.10)* | .22 to .34 | .14 (.09) | .10 to .18 |
| **Between-family correlation (H6)** | **.10 (.05)*** | **.44** | **−.12 (.04)***** | **−.45** |

*Note*: Preregistered hypotheses are in bold. All models showed good fit: RMSEA < 0.06, CFI > 0.994, TLI > 0.984 (see Supporting Information S1: Material 2, Table 1).

Abbreviations: CFI, Comparative Fit Index; RI-CLPMs, random-intercept cross-lagged panel models; RMSEA, root mean square error of approximation; SE, standard error; TLI, Tucker–Lewis Index.

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < .001$.

## 7.2 | Mother– and father–adolescent relationships

RQ2 assessed whether the associations tested for RQ1 would differ for mothers and fathers. Main findings showed that the associations between parent–adolescent relationship quality and affective well-being within families did not significantly differ for mothers and fathers.

### 7.2.1 | Within-family associations

As hypothesized, we found that increases in maternal, but not paternal, support were associated with concurrent decreases in negative affect within families (H1a; Table 4; correlated change). Although the associations were significant for mothers but not for fathers, we found no significant gender differences when the two paths were pitted against each other (rejecting H7; Table 4). Increases in both maternal and paternal support were concurrently related to increases in positive affect (H1b), and mothers and fathers did not differ significantly in the strength of this association (rejecting H8). Support from both mothers and fathers did not predict affective well-being 3 months later (H2), and no gender differences were found in this effect.

Similarly, we found that conflict with both mothers and fathers was intertwined with adolescents' affective well-being. Specifically, increased conflict with both mothers and fathers was concurrently related to increased negative affect (H3a; Table 4), and increased conflict with mothers, but not with fathers, was concurrently related to decreased positive affect (H3b). Again, no significant gender differences were found in this path. Regarding the parent-driven lagged effects, more conflict than typical with mothers, but not with fathers, predicted decreased positive affect 3 months later (H4b), though this

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**TABLE 4** Parent–adolescent relationship and affective well-being for mothers and fathers (RQ2) and preregistered Wald tests.

| | Affective well-being | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Negative affect | | | | | | Positive affect | | | | | |
| | Mothers | | Fathers | | Wald test | | Mothers | | Fathers | | Wald test | |
| Parameter | *B* (SE) | *r*/*b* | *B* (SE) | *r*/*b* | $\chi^2$ (df) | *p*[a] | *B* (SE) | *r*/*b* | *B* (SE) | *r*/*b* | $\chi^2$ (df) | *p*[a] |
| *Parental support* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Concurrent effects | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| T1 within-family correlation | −.06 (.03) | −.36* | −.08 (.04) | −.35** | 0.05 (1) | 0.827 | .01 (.01) | .11 | .01 (.03) | .06 | 0.23 (1) | 0.634 |
| **T2 and T3 within-family correlated change (H1)** | **−.04 (.02)*** | **−.17 to −.20*** | −.04 (.02) | −.15 to −.25 | 0.25 (1) | 0.614 | **.08 (.03)*** | **.33* to .41***** | **.07 (.02)**** | **.24* to .37***** | 0.12 (1) | 0.728 |
| Lagged effects | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **PS→ affective well-being (H2)** | −.07 (.19) | −.03 to −.05 | −.23 (.15) | −.13 to −.22 | 0.35 (1) | 0.554 | .03 (.16) | −.02 to −.04 | .15 (.13) | .08 to .13 | 0.97 (1) | 0.326 |
| Affective well-being → PS | −.04 (.07) | −.06 to −.07 | −.02 (.07) | −.03 | 0.62 (1) | 0.804 | −.06 (.13) | −.04 to −.05 | −.02 (.05) | −.02 to −.03 | 0.62 (1) | 0.430 |
| Autoregressive path PS | .09 (.17) | .06 to .07 | .42 (.16)** | .34 to .45 | 0.47 (1) | 0.494 | .18 (.16) | .14 to .16 | .37 (.16)* | .31 to .42 | 1.60 (1) | 0.210 |
| Autoregressive Path Affective Well-Being | .22 (.10)* | .20 to .32 | .21 (.10)* | .19 to .29 | | | .17 (.08)* | .11 to .24 | .14 (.09) | .09 to .18 | | |
| **Between-family correlation (H5)** | **−.18 (.05)***** | **−.53***** | **−.20 (.06)**** | **−.52***** | 0.98 (1) | 0.322 | **.19 (.04)***** | **.59***** | **.22 (.05)***** | **.60***** | 2.28 (1) | 0.131 |
| *Parent–adolescent conflict* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Concurrent effects | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| $T_1$ within-family correlation | .13 (.07)* | .43*** | .05 (.04) | .20 | 1.60 (1) | 0.206 | −.08 (.05) | −.37** | −.01 (.03) | −.06 | 2.54 (1) | 0.111 |
| **T2 and T3 within-family correlated change (H3)** | **.05 (.02)**** | **.28 to .30*** | **.03 (.02)*** | **.20* to .26*** | 0.28 (1) | 0.131 | **−.03 (.01)*** | **−.13 to −.15*** | −.02 (.02) | −.11 to −.13 | 0.10 (1) | 0.751 |
| Lagged effects | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **PC → affective well-being (H4)** | .27 (.14) | .20 to .21 | .25 (.15) | .15 to .16 | 0.01 (1) | 0.599 | **−.29 (.18)*** | **−.22 to −.21*** | −.12 (.14) | −.08 | 1.08 (1) | 0.299 |
| Affective well-being → PC | .17 (.07)* | .28* to .30* | .17 (.06)** | .36** to .35*** | 0.02 (1) | 0.935 | −.15 (.08)* | −.20 to −.26* | −.14 (.07)* | −.19 to −.27** | 0.04 (1) | 0.836 |
| Autoregressive path PC | .28 (.17) | .22 to .30 | −.03 (.29) | −.03 to −.05 | 1.49 (1) | 0.223 | .24 (.18) | .22 to .33 | .01 (.34) | .01 to .02 | 0.35 (1) | 0.554 |
| Autoregressive path affective well-being | .24 (.09)** | .21 to .34 | .23 (.11)* | .21 to .32 | | | .15 (.08) | .11 to .19 | .12 (.10) | .09 to .15 | | |
| **Between-family correlation (H6)** | .08 (.06) | .29 | **.14 (.06)**** | **.44***** | 1.75 (1) | 0.186 | **−.09 (.04)*** | **−.33**** | **−.13 (.04)***** | **−.40***** | 1.16 (1) | 0.281 |

*Note*: Preregistered hypotheses are in bold. All models showed good fit: RMSEA < 0.05, CFI > 0.993, TLI > 0.986 (see Supporting Information S1: Material 2, Table 1).

Abbreviations: CFI, Comparative Fit Index; PC, parent–adolescent conflict; PS, parental support; RMSEA, root mean square error of approximation; SE, standard error; TLI, Tucker–Lewis Index.

[a]Nonadjusted *p* values (before false discovery rate correction).

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$.



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effect was not significantly different for mothers and fathers. Conversely, more negative affect and less positive affect than typical predicted increased conflicts with both mothers *and* fathers 3 months later. There were no significant differences in the effects for mothers and fathers when pitted against each other in a model.

#### 7.2.2 | Between-family associations

Higher levels of maternal and paternal support (H5) were associated with lower levels of negative affect and higher levels of positive affect (Table 4). The differences in strength were not significant, so no significant parent gender differences were found in the association for negative affect (rejecting H9) and positive affect. Moreover, higher levels of conflict with fathers, but not with mothers, were associated with higher levels of negative affect (H6a). Higher levels of conflict with both mothers *and* fathers were associated with lower levels of positive affect (H6b). These between-family associations were of similar strength for fathers and mothers.

### 7.3 | Adolescent affective well-being across social contexts

RQ3 addressed the question whether parental conflict and support are related to adolescents' affective well-being across different social contexts (home, school, and peer contexts) or whether these effects are mainly tied to the home context. Overall, main findings showed significant no significant differences for the effects between different social contexts.

#### 7.3.1 | Within-family associations

Increases in parental support were associated with concurrent decreases in negative affect (H1a; Table 5) and increases in positive affect (H1b) at home (Table 6), but not with affective well-being among peers or at school. When we pitted the social contexts against each other, we found no significant differences in the effects. Over time, more support than typical support predicted subsequent decreases in adolescents' negative affect (H2a) at home only, but again, this association was not stronger when it was pitted against the other contexts in one model (Table 5). Increases in conflict were related to concurrent increases in negative affect (H3a; Table 5) in all three contexts and decreases in positive affect (H3b; Table 6) at home, but no significant differences were found between the contexts when these effects were pitted against each other. Over time, more conflict than typical predicted increases in negative affect 3 months later (H4a) at school and with peers (but not at home), but there were no significant differences in the strength of these associations in both social contexts. More conflict than typical predicted (H4b) decreases in positive affect 3 months later in the home context but not in the other social contexts. There were no significant differences between the social contexts.

Concerning the reversed effects, more negative affect than typical (Table 5) in all three contexts and less positive affect than typical (Table 6) at home and at school predicted increased conflict 3 months later. However, Wald tests, in which we compared the social contexts pairwise, showed no significant differences after correcting for multiple testing.

#### 7.3.2 | Between-family associations

Families with higher levels of support (H5) and lower levels of conflict (H6) had adolescents with lower levels of negative affect (Table 5) and higher levels of positive affect (Table 6) at home and at school. No significant differences were found between social contexts for either support or conflict, after correcting for multiple testing.

## 8 | DISCUSSION

Although parenting is a promising factor in promoting adolescent well-being (Yap et al., 2014), little is known about the underlying meso-time processes within families (Boele et al., 2022). In this preregistered study, we disentangled between-family differences from within-family processes to examine how parent–adolescent relationships shape (and are shaped by) adolescents' well-being at meso-time scales of months. Our findings showed that parent–adolescent relationship quality is concurrently and longitudinally associated with both negative and positive affect in adolescents, within families. Whereas supportive parent–adolescent relationships were mainly concurrently associated with adolescents' affective well-being (see also Flook, 2011; Khaleque, 2013; Weinstein et al., 2006), parent–adolescent conflict was concurrently *and* longitudinally and reciprocally associated with affective well-being 3 months later. To gain deeper insights into these processes, we also

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**TABLE 5** Parent–adolescent relationship and negative affect in three social contexts and Wald tests.

| | Negative affect | | | | | | Wald test | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Home | | School | | Peers | | Home versus school | | School versus Peers | | Peers versus Home | |
| Parameter | *B* (SE) | *r/b* | *B* (SE) | *r/b* | *B* (SE) | *r/b* | $\chi^2$ (df) | *p* | $\chi^2$ (df) | *p* | $\chi^2$ (df) | *p* |
| *Parental support* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Concurrent effects | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| T1 within-family correlation | −.09 (.04)* | −.50 | −.07 (.03)* | −.37 | −.05 (.03) | −.24 | 0.17 (1) | 0.677 | 1.16 (1) | 0.281 | 1.31 (1) | 0.253 |
| **T2 and T3 within-family correlated change (H1)** | **−.06 (.03)*** | **−.28 to −.29** | −.02 (.03) | −.07 to −.08 | −.03 (.02) | −.12 to −.14 | 2.30 (1) | 0.129 | 0.29 (1) | 0.591 | 0.90 (1) | 0.344 |
| Lagged effects | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **PS→ affective well-being (H2)** | **−.48 (.20)*** | **−.22 to −.30** | −.17 (.26) | −.06 to −.11 | −.03 (.25) | −.01 | 2.27 (1) | 0.132 | 0.27 (1) | 0.601 | 2.25 (1) | 0.134 |
| Affective well-being → PS | −.03 (.07) | −.05 to −.06 | −.001 (.06) | −.001 | −.02 (.05) | −.04 to −.05 | 0.01 (1) | 0.912 | 0.09 (1) | 0.768 | 0.12 (1) | 0.729 |
| Autoregressive path PS | .30 (.17) | .24 to .25 | .30 (.18) | .24 | .31 (.18) | .25 | | | | | | |
| Autoregressive path affective well-being | .01 (.12) | .01 | .17 (.13) | .15 | .36 (.24) | .32 | 0.39 (1) | 0.530 | 0.13 (1) | 0.719 | 0.57 (1) | 0.451 |
| **Between-family correlation (H5)** | **−.22 (.06)**** | **−.54** | **−.20 (.06)**** | **−.49** | **−.14 (.04)**** | **−.59** | 1.69 (1) | 0.193 | 0.75 (1) | 0.387 | 2.51 (1) | 0.113 |
| *Parent–adolescent conflict* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Concurrent effects | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| T1 within-family correlation | .01 (.04)* | .18 | .09 (.05) | .36 | .08 (.06) | .26 | 0.19 (1) | 0.662 | 4.13 (1) | 0.042 | 4.26 (1) | 0.039[a] |
| **T2 and T3 within-family correlated change (H3)** | **.04 (.02)*** | **.25 to .42** | **.04 (.02)*** | **.22 to .28** | **.06 (.02)**** | **.32 to .33** | 0.07 (1) | 0.787 | 0.004 (1) | 0.952 | 0.01 (1) | 0.930 |
| Lagged effects | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **PC → affective well-being (H4)** | .38 (.19) | .19 to .21 | **.43 (.20)*** | **.20** | **.56 (.26)*** | **.20 to .23** | 0.04 (1) | 0.838 | 0.16 (1) | 0.687 | 0.38 (1) | 0.539 |
| Affective well-being → PC | **.15 (.05)***** | **.33** | **.16 (.04)**** | **.40 to .41** | **.13 (.04)***** | **.36 to .42** | 1.45 (1) | 0.229 | 5.09 (1) | 0.024[a] | 0.22 (1) | 0.634 |
| Autoregressive path PC | .09 (.23) | .09 to .11 | .06 (.20) | .05 to .08 | .04 (.17) | .03 to .05 | | | | | | |
| Autoregressive path affective well-being | .05 (.14) | .05 to .06 | .22 (.13) | .18 to .28 | .37 (.28) | .33 to .45 | 0.02 (1) | 0.891 | 0.19 (1) | 0.663 | 0.27 (1) | 0.602 |
| **Between-family correlation (H6)** | **.16 (.05)***** | **.50** | **.12 (.05)*** | **.39** | .06 (.07) | .39 | 4.62 (1) | 0.032[a] | 0.53 (1) | 0.467 | 5.59 (1) | 0.018[a] |

*Note*: Preregistered hypotheses are in bold. All models showed acceptable to good model fit: RMSEA < 0.09, CFI > 0.965, TLI > 0.912 (see Supporting Information S1: Material 2, Table 1).

Abbreviations: CFI, Comparative Fit Index; PC, parent–adolescent conflict; PS, parental support; RMSEA, root mean square error of approximation; SE, standard error; TLI, Tucker–Lewis Index.

[a]*p* value not significant after adjusting for multiple testing (false discovery rate correction).

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.001$; ***$p < 0.01$.





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**TABLE 6** Parent–adolescent relationship and positive affect in three social contexts and Wald tests.

| | Positive affect | | | | | | Wald test | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Home | | School | | Peers | | Home versus school | | School versus peers | | Peers versus home | |
| Parameter | *B* (SE) | *r*/*b* | *B* (SE) | *r*/*b* | *B* (SE) | *r*/*b* | $\chi^2$ (df) | *p* | $\chi^2$ (df) | *p* | $\chi^2$ (df) | *p* |
| *Parental support* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Concurrent effects | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| $T_1$ within-family correlation | .03 (.03) | .18 | .01 (.03) | .07 | −.01 (.03) | .06 | 0.002 (1) | 0.966 | 0.06 (1) | 0.810 | 0.08 (1) | 0.774 |
| **T2 and T3 within-family correlated change (H1)** | **.09 (.03)*** | **.35 to .42** | .09 (.05) | .33 to .40 | .06 (.03) | .23 to .28 | 0.11 (1) | 0.738 | 0.30 (1) | 0.585 | 1.15 (1) | 0.284 |
| Lagged effects | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **PS→ affective well-being (H2)** | .21 (.17) | .09 to .15 | .22 (.19) | .08 to .14 | −.20 (.24) | −.08 to −.12 | 0.02 (1) | 0.899 | 1.38 (1) | 0.240 | 0.55 (1) | 0.461 |
| **Affective well-being → PS** | −.01 (.05) | −.01 to −.02 | −.03 (.05) | .08 to .14 | −.02 (.05) | −.04 | 0.03 (1) | 0.866 | 0.22 (1) | 0.638 | 0.03 (1) | 0.854 |
| Autoregressive path PS | .34 (.14)** | .26 to .32 | .33 (.17)** | .25 to .31 | .36 (.15)** | .29 to .33 | | | | | | |
| Autoregressive path affective well-being | .03 (.11) | .02 to .04 | .05 (.13) | .03 to .06 | .39 (.26) | .30 to .47 | 4.61 (1) | 0.032[a] | 2.02 (1) | 0.155 | 0.27 (1) | 0.602 |
| **Between-family correlation (H5)** | **.22 (.05)***** | **.67** | **.21 (.05)***** | **.47** | **.18 (.04)***** | **.67** | 0.24 (1) | 0.625 | 0.12 (1) | 0.725 | 0.34 (1) | 0.560 |
| Parent–adolescent conflict | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Concurrent effects | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| $T_1$ within-family correlation | −.08 (.05) | −.37 | −.02 (.03) | −.11 | −.05 (.04) | −.23 | 0.56 (1) | 0.454 | 0.15 (1) | 0.703 | 1.26 (1) | 0.262 |
| **T2 and T3 within-family correlated change (H3)** | **−.05 (.02)*** | **−.27 to −.28** | −.03 (.02) | −.15 | −.02 (.02) | −.13 to −.14 | 0.60 (1) | 0.439 | 0.00 (1) | 0.999 | 0.58 (1) | 0.445 |
| Lagged effects | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **PC → affective well-being (H4)** | **−.52 (.20)*** | **−.29 to −.24** | −.25 (.20) | −.11 to −.12 | −.29 (.21) | −.12 to −.14 | 2.56 (1) | 0.110 | 0.01 (1) | 0.905 | 1.51 (1) | 0.220 |
| **Affective well-being → PC** | **−.16 (.06)*** | **−.31 to −.35** | **−.12 (.05)*** | −.26 to −.29 | −.10 (.06) | −.23 to −.25 | 0.29 (1) | 0.589 | 0.07 (1) | 0.786 | 0.82 (1) | 0.365 |
| Autoregressive path PC | .12 (.23) | .11 to .16 | .08 (.20) | .07 to .11 | .12 (.23) | .10 to .15 | | | | | | |
| Autoregressive path affective well-being | .06 (.13) | .04 to .06 | .04 (.13) | .03 to .05 | .34 (.29) | .28 to .40 | 6.66 (1) | 0.010[a] | 0.33 (1) | 0.566 | 0.02 (1) | 0.890 |
| **Between-family correlation (H6)** | **−.11 (.04)*** | **−.46** | **−.14 (.04)***** | **−.40** | −.07 (.04) | −.30 | 0.46 (1) | 0.498 | 0.63 (1) | 0.428 | 0.55 (1) | 0.459 |

*Note*: Preregistered hypotheses are in bold. All models showed acceptable to good model fit: RMSEA < 0.09, CFI > 0.965, TLI > 0.912 (see Supporting Information S1: Material 2, Table 1).

Abbreviations: CFI, Comparative Fit Index; PC, parent–adolescent conflict; PS, parental support; RMSEA, root mean square error of approximation; SE, standard error; TLI, Tucker–Lewis Index.

[a]*p* value was not significant after adjusting for multiple testing (false discovery rate correction).

*$p < 0.01$; **$p < 0.05$; ***$p < 0.001$.



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examined whether the processes differed for mothers versus fathers and for social contexts of affective well-being (home, school, peers). Results showed that most of these associations were generalizable for parent gender. With regard to social context, the lack of significant differences between models with different contexts, suggests that conflicts shape and were shaped by adolescents' affective well-being at home, at school, and among peers.

## 8.1 | Do parent–adolescent relationships predict adolescent well-being?

A large number of previous studies have demonstrated between-family associations between parental support and adolescent well-being (Khaleque, 2013; Weinstein et al., 2006). Our study adds to the literature by showing that increases in parental support were also related to fluctuations in negative affect and positive affect within families. However, although increased parental support was associated with better concurrent affective well-being, whereas parental support and adolescent affective well-being did not predict each other over time. These findings on concurrent and lagged effects are consistent with a previous study by Boele et al. (2022) using the same data set, which reported concurrent but no lagged effects between parental support and adolescent depressive symptoms at the micro, meso, and macro levels.

Furthermore, we found that conflict between adolescents and their parents predicted adolescents' subsequent affective well-being at the meso timescale of 3 months examined here. These findings are consistent with previous within-family studies at other timescales (e.g., Bülow et al., 2022). Not only did parent–adolescent conflict co-fluctuate with adolescent affective well-being, but conflict also elicited increased negative affect in adolescents over the course of 3 months, at school and among peers. Similarly, conflict with mothers predicted decreased positive affect at home up to 3 months later. These findings primarily support the assumptions of the IPARTheory (Rohner, 2021) with regard to conflict, and less so with regard to parental support. The findings seem to suggest that parental support may not be a strong (long-term) predictor of adolescent affective well-being, as it is theorized to be.

Parenting processes are assumed to be bidirectional in nature (Bell, 1968; Sameroff, 2010). Therefore, in addition to examining parent-driven effects, we also examined whether adolescent affective well-being could potentially trigger fluctuations in parent–adolescent relationship quality. This was particularly the case for conflict in our study: More negative affect than typical in all social contexts and less positive affect (except with peers) than typical was followed by more conflicts with mothers and fathers within families. The findings for negative affect are consistent with the relationship erosion hypothesis (Coyne, 1976): adolescents' sad or stressed feelings may evoke parental rejection (Boele et al., 2022) or distressed responses (i.e., frustration, anger) (Baumeister & Vohs, 2004) and in turn, parents may experience more conflict with their adolescent. Adolescents' happy and relaxed feelings may spill over to their parents (Almeida et al., 1999; Larson & Gillman, 1999), resulting in a more positive home environment and thus less conflict between parents and their adolescents.

Overall, our findings have increased knowledge about *whether* certain associations between parent–adolescent relationship quality and affective well-being are present "in the average family," and future research can address the question of *for whom* these dynamics apply. Previous studies have shown that such dynamic processes may differ according to certain individual characteristics, such as adolescent depressive symptoms (Janssen et al., 2020), and such differential effects have been reported for parental support in particular (e.g., Boele et al., 2022). Understanding the heterogeneity of effects (Bolger et al., 2019) may be particularly important for (the development of) personalized prevention and interventions tailored to the needs of individual families (August & Gewirtz, 2018).

## 8.2 | Parent gender and social context

To better understand the dynamic processes between parent–adolescent relationship quality and adolescents' affective well-being, one question in this study was whether these processes differed by parent gender. Our results showed that the process by which parent–adolescent relationship quality and adolescent affective well-being are intertwined within families was largely similar for fathers and mothers, and none of the direct comparisons between fathers and mothers were significant. This suggests that, contrary to theoretical assumptions (e.g., Cassano et al., 2007; Dumont & Paquette, 2013; McCormick & Kennedy, 1994), the dynamic process between the parent–adolescent relationship and adolescent affective well-being in the average family, might not occur through the unique contributions of mothers and fathers. However, it may well be that within individual families, fathers and mothers do play unique roles that are averaged out in the design chosen here.

Another question was whether the extent to which adolescents perceived their relationship with their parents as supportive or conflictual predicted their affective well-being beyond the home context. Differentiating between the three social contexts (home, school, peers), we found no effects of social context on parental support. The concurrent and overtime effects for parental support were found primarily in the home. However, when we pitted these estimates against the other contexts and applied a rigorous multiple testing correction, there were no significant differences in the strength of the effects. The lack of effects of parental support on well-being at school and with peers may mean that potential protective effects of

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parental support do not generalize to other social contexts. Although replication of these findings is needed, it may be plausible that the negative emotions experienced when parents are less supportive are mitigated by increased peer support during adolescence (De Goede, Branje, Delsing, et al., 2009; Rubin et al., 2008). However, this hypothesis requires further investigation.

Conflict appeared to reduce adolescents' affective well-being in multiple social contexts. At the same time, adolescents' negative affect in all three social contexts and positive affect at home and school were associated with decreased conflict with parents, 3 months later. The strength of the associations did not differ significantly when we pitted the contexts against each other. These findings highlight the active role of adolescents' emotions across multiple social contexts in relation to negative interactions with their parents at home. Moreover, these findings tentatively suggest that adolescent-driven effects of affective well-being appear to be more context-independent than parent-driven effects. Regardless of whether adolescents felt sad or stressed with friends, at school, or at home, their negative emotions negatively affected the relationship with their parents. Thus, these findings suggest that theoretical hypotheses regarding to reversed effects (specifically for negative affect), such as the relationship erosion hypothesis (Coyne, 1976), may be more context-independent, although replication of these findings is needed. Future research may shed more light on the antecedents of negative affect in these social contexts to elucidate risk and protective factors in such dynamic processes.

Associations were present for both negative affect and positive affect. Consistent with the two Continua model (Keyes, 2005) and previous studies (Arslan, Lucassen, de Haan et al., 2023; Arslan, Lucassen, Keijsers, et al., 2023; Westerhof & Keyes, 2010), our findings emphasize the importance of integrating both maladaptive and adaptive states of well-being, not only in general but also in relation to affective well-being, to better capture the picture of certain dynamic processes between parents and adolescents.

## 9 | LIMITATIONS

Despite a three-wave longitudinal design examining both negative *and* positive aspects of parent–adolescent relationship quality (for mothers and fathers) and affective well-being (in different social contexts), this study is not without limitations. All data were self-reported by adolescents, which carries the risk of single-source bias. Nevertheless, with regard to the topic of our study, adolescent self-reports are of great importance for measuring subjective experiences, as adolescents are the most informative source regarding their *own* and *actual* experiences (Bronfenbrenner & Evans, 2000; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006), for example with their parents and their emotions. Finally, as the majority of the sample consisted of native Dutch adolescents, the findings are mainly generalizable to this population. Cultural differences in parent–adolescent relationships may be related to differences in adolescent developmental outcomes across cultural groups (Bernstein et al., 2008). For example, in individualistic cultures, conflict between parents and their child is seen as a normal part of a healthy relationship, whereas in collectivistic cultures, conflict is more likely to be avoided to maintain harmony in the relationship (Trommsdorff & Kornadt, 2003). Future research with a more culturally heterogeneous sample is needed to account for possible cultural differences.

## 10 | CONCLUSION

This preregistered, three-wave study examined within- and between-family associations between parent–adolescent relationship quality and adolescent affective well-being. At the between-family level, higher levels of support and lower levels of conflict were associated with higher levels of positive affect and lower levels of negative affect in adolescents. Within-family associations between parental support and affective well-being were mainly concurrent, and there was limited evidence that they were influenced by the adolescent's social context. Associations for parent–adolescent conflict occurred through bidirectional processes in which conflict shaped and was shaped by adolescents' emotions at home, at school, and with peers. In conclusion, this study demonstrated that parent–adolescent relationship quality, particularly conflict, and adolescent negative and positive affect co-fluctuate and predict each other over time within families.

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### CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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## DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author. The data are not publicly available due to privacy or ethical restrictions.

## ETHICS STATEMENT

The Ethical Committee of the Faculty of Social Science University Utrecht provided clearance for this study.

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## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

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