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Leaving the family home to start university: How is home-leaving related to family environment and attachment?

Brief running head: Leaving home to go to university

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Abstract

Going to university may entail moving away from home. Leaving the family household is a complex and important stage in the process whereby young people gradually gain independence from their family. The purpose of the present study was to identify different home-leaving profiles at the start of university, and analyze how they are related to the family environment (i.e., parents-child and family relationships) and attachment, adopting a person-oriented approach. Our sample consisted of 1,142 emerging adults who had just started university (70.67% females; Mage = 18.43 years, SDage = 0.57). Latent class and cluster analyses highlighted diversity in home-leaving, family environment, and attachment profiles. Participants with the independent home-leaving profile frequently returned to the family household. There were no family environment profiles with mixed scores. Participants with insecure attachment profiles had higher levels of anxiety compared with those reported in previous studies. A configural frequency analysis revealed three typical patterns and one atypical one. Semi-independent home-leaving was linked to a supportive and positive family environment and to secure attachment, whereas both co-resident and independent home-leaving patterns were related to unsupportive, controlling, and conflictual family environment and to anxious attachment. Overall, these findings emphasize the specificity of the context of going to university and provide meaningful knowledge about the independence of emerging adult students.

Keywords: university entrance, home-leaving; family environment, attachment, person-oriented approach

Declarations

Funding

This study was not funded.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Availability of data and material

The dataset generated or analyzed during the current study are not publicly available but are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Authors contributions

BC realized the conception of the study, its design, and drafted the manuscript. She collected the data and performed the statistical analyses; LL participated in the conception and the design of the study, and participated in the drafting of the article.

Ethical approval

All data were treated in accordance with the French data protection law and this research received the approbation of the CNIL (i.e., French National Commission on Computer Technology and Freedom).

Consent to participate

Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants in the study.

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ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

Leaving the Family Home to Start University: How is Home-Leaving Related to Family Environment and Attachment?

Abstract

Going to university may entail moving away from home. Leaving the family household is a complex and important stage in the process whereby young people gradually gain independence from their family. The purpose of the present study was to identify different home-leaving profiles at the start of university, and analyze how they are related to the family environment (i.e., parents-child and family relationships) and attachment, adopting a person-oriented approach. Our sample consisted of 1,142 emerging adults who had just started university (70.67% females; $M_{\text{age}} = 18.43$ years, $SD_{\text{age}} = 0.57$). Latent class and cluster analyses highlighted diversity in home-leaving, family environment, and attachment profiles. Participants with the independent home-leaving profile frequently returned to the family household. There were no family environment profiles with mixed scores. Participants with insecure attachment profiles had higher levels of anxiety compared with those reported in previous studies. A configural frequency analysis revealed three typical patterns and one antitypical one. Semi-independent home-leaving was linked to a supportive and positive family environment and to secure attachment, whereas both co-resident and independent home-leaving patterns were related to unsupportive, controlling, and conflictual family environment and to anxious attachment. Overall, these findings emphasize the specificity of the context of going to university and provide meaningful knowledge about the independence of emerging adult students.

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Introduction

For young people living in France, gaining independence from their family and becoming a fully-fledged member of society through qualification and employment are crucial for reaching adulthood (Moulin, 2012; van de Velde, 2008). Higher education is therefore a societal expectation in France (Minni & Galtier, 2015). The proportion of young people who are students is higher in France than in other European countries (Kovess-Masfety et al., 2016). However, under this *diploma tyranny* (van de Velde, 2008), in 2012, only a small proportion (28%) of emerging adults who enroll in the first year of university are ultimately awarded a degree (Lefauconnier & Legout, 2017). As going to university is characterized by academic, social, personal, and institutional changes (De Clercq et al., 2018), the first year is seen as a crucial period in development (Boyer et al., 2001; Shim & Ryan, 2012). During this period, emerging adults may experience one of the most important changes in their living conditions (Pittman & Richmond, 2008). There are several possible living arrangements, as some emerging adults have to leave the family home to study hundreds of kilometers away, while others either continue to live with their parents, leave the family home but go back each weekend to do the laundry or get groceries, or return more rarely and have to manage by themselves (e.g., Goldscheider & DaVanzo, 1986; Kins et al., 2009).

Leaving home is a normative transition (Lane et al., 2017): a step toward adulthood (van den Berg et al., 2018) that marks the individuation process (Arnett, 2004) and redefines the family's role and status (Kins et al., 2014). Literature findings emphasize the influence of the parents-child relationship, family relationships, and attachment on leaving home (e.g., Akin et al., 2020; Flanagan et al., 1993; Kins et al., 2009; Mayseless, 2004; Mendonça & Fontaine, 2013; Seiffge-Krenke, 2006, 2009; van den Berg et al., 2018). However, no authors have yet investigated home-leaving at a given time such as going to university. The latter is likely to generate separation anxiety, calling into question young people's relationships with

their parents and family (Aquilino, 2006), as well as their attachment representations (Kenny, 1987). Leaving home to go to university is a stressful life event that may generate illbeing in the form of homesickness, especially at the beginning of the first year (Tognoli, 2003), and may lead to university maladjustment and dropout (Thurber & Walton, 2012). An in-depth understanding of home-leaving as a function of family environment, in the form of parents-child and family relationships, and attachment at the beginning of the first year, would allow emerging adult students' independence to be more accurately captured.

Based on Minuchin's (1974) systemic family theory, the aim of the present study was to analyze how home-leaving is related to attachment and the family environment (i.e., parents-child and family relationships), adopting a systemic perspective. The latter allows the individual to be considered as a dynamic system of interwoven components, or *whole-system properties*, in order to better understand individual functioning (Bergman & Andersson, 2010). It implies the use of a person-oriented approach to identify individual profiles and to combine these into patterns. In contrast to a variable-oriented approach, which is designed to test how variables are related to each other, a person-oriented approach shows the combined effect of three or more interacting predictors (Gillet et al., 2017), and allows distinct patterns to be studied (e.g., Howard et al., 2016). Above all, this approach makes it possible to identify specific patterns of home-leaving, family environment, and attachment, and to gain a holistic and interactionist view of home-leaving experiences at the start of university.

Leaving the Family Home for University

Home-leaving is a complex period of life characterized by an ambivalent feeling of needing independence, but wanting to remain connected to one's parents (Goldscheider & DaVanzo, 1986; Kins et al., 2014). Three different types of living arrangements have been identified (Goldscheider & DaVanzo, 1986): *co-resident with parents*, *semi-autonomous*, and *independent*. Kins et al. (2009) suggested using the term *semi-independent* instead of *semi-*

autonomous, as *autonomy* is a generic term that refers to independence and volition alike, whereas leaving the family household is a manifestation of independence that is not necessarily self-willed. As a consequence, Kins and Beyers (2010) distinguished between three different profiles: *co-resident*, referring to emerging adults who still live with their parents; *semi-independent*, for emerging adults who have left the family household but frequently return and do not assume all responsibilities; and *independent*, for emerging adults who have left the family house and assume all responsibilities.

For just over half of all students in France (55% of emerging adult students in 2010; Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur, de la Recherche et de l'Innovation, 2011), going to university involves moving out of and leaving the family home (Grignon, 2000). This results in a destructuring of their living environment (Boyer et al., 2001). Students who leave the family home have to take on new responsibilities such as managing a budget, cleaning, making meals or going shopping for food, and by so doing become more independent. Nevertheless, independence does not mean autonomy, as students are still under their parents' authority, especially in their first year at university (Cicchelli, 2002). Emerging adult students may therefore feel they are living a double life: a life in their place of study versus a life in the family home (Galland, 2013). Their student accommodation can be seen as a *nest extension*, in that their parents financially contribute to it (van de Velde, 2008). During the first year at university, 60% of the rent is paid by the family, even though students are entitled to housing benefit (Belghith et al., 2017). Students return more frequently to the parental home at the beginning of the university year than at the end (Cicchelli & Erlich, 2000). In France, emerging adult students are therefore still quite dependent on their family when they start university, even if they have left home. The start of university therefore raises questions about emerging adults' dependency upon and independence from the family. This home-leaving experience is different from leaving for employment or military service (e.g., Mayseless,

2004; van den Berg et al., 2018). An exploration of how home-leaving is related to family environment and attachment at the beginning of the first year of university should therefore foster our understanding of this specific independence marker.

Family Environment and Home-Leaving

According to Minuchin (1974), the family environment is a system composed of different interwoven subsystems. Two of these subsystems, parents-child and family relationships, serve as pillars of family identity throughout individuals' lives (e.g., McHale & Cowan, 1996). More specifically, both types of relationship contribute to development during emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2004).

Emerging adulthood brings changes to individuals' role and status within the family. The parents-child relationship gradually becomes more reciprocal (Rice et al., 1995), less hierarchical and more symmetrical (Grotevant & Cooper, 1986). Nevertheless, parents may still want to consider their offspring as children and not as adults (Nelson et al., 2011). During this redefinition of the relationship, it may be difficult to strike the right balance between distance and proximity (Kins et al., 2014). Relationships within the family are also part of the process of transition to adulthood. They contribute to young people's life experience, so that when they are perceived as functional, individuals feel supported and are able to deal with the life events they encounter more serenely (Minuchin, 1974). Family relationships respond to children's needs and scaffold their development, so that they can then live independently in society (Senthil et al., 2014). These relationships therefore contribute to the personal development of individual family members (Scabini & Cigoli, 1997).

As going to university is a major life event that challenges emerging adults, support from parents and other family members is essential (Minuchin, 1974). Regarding the parents-child relationship, the literature shows that autonomy-supportive parenting during adolescence leads to greater self-sufficiency during emerging adulthood (Akin et al., 2020;

Seiffge-Krenke, 2009). Moreover, responsive parenting is associated with emerging adults' wellbeing (Filus et al., 2019). *Autonomy support* is defined as parents' support of their children's independence, detachment, and self-governance (Soenens et al., 2007), and *responsiveness* as the attention parents pay to their children's needs (Macoby & Martin, 1983). Conversely, *psychological control*, which refers to intrusive and manipulative parental behaviors (Barber, 1996), leads to emerging adults' maladjustment (Inguglia et al., 2016). Regarding family relationships, family cohesion and adaptability facilitate emerging adult students' wellbeing (Uruk et al., 2007) and adjustment to university life (Holmbeck & Wandrei, 1993). During adolescence, they both contribute to academic success (Oljača et al., 2012). *Family cohesion* refers to a feeling of caring and support within the family (Moos & Moos, 1994), and *family adaptability* to a degree of possible change in family roles (Olson et al., 1985). Moreover, expressiveness, such as being able to express emotions freely within the family (Moos & Moos, 1994), is positively correlated with social and emotional adjustment to life at university (Johnson et al., 2010). By contrast, family conflicts (Moos & Moos, 1994) have a negative effect on wellbeing (Rutledge et al., 1994), emotional adjustment to university (Johnson et al., 2010), and academic success during the first year of university (Bahrassa et al., 2011). Above all, the family environment promotes emerging adults' development and achievement (Aquilino, 2006; Scabini & Cigoli, 1997), especially during the transition to university (Johnson et al., 2010).

When a child leaves home, it disrupts the functioning of the family (Minuchin, 1974), as it shifts in the balance of power within the parents-child relationship, leading to its swift redefinition of it (Goldscheider & Goldscheider, 1999; Kins & Beyers, 2010). Living away from the family home is associated with greater independence and greater mutual support and respect between parents and children (Flanagan et al., 1993). Leaving home thus facilitates the transformation of the relationship (Aquilino, 1997). Conversely, continuing to co-reside

with one's parents may be associated with a more problematic separation-individuation process (Kins, Beyers, et al., 2012). Emerging adults who co-reside feel that their parents underestimate their maturity, and report more conflictual and avoidant relationships. They are more willing to see the negative aspects of this relationship (Flanagan et al., 1993), as they feel that they are still treated like children (Kins & Beyers, 2010). Family conflict may be a reason for going away to university, especially for girls (Bernhardt et al., 2005). By contrast, when emerging adults have positive relations with their family, they may want to stay at home (Lanz & Tagliabue, 2007), especially as the parental home appears to be a protective factor against instability in emerging adulthood (Cook et al., 2018). A low level of conflict in adolescence is associated with a co-residing pattern during emerging adulthood, as well as a low level of autonomy support. Emerging adults who leave the family home the earliest are those with the optimum family environment, with a balance between normative conflicts and autonomy support (Seiffge-Krenke, 2006, 2009). In short, literature findings indicate that the family environment can be both a reason to leave the family household and a reason to stay. However, previous studies have explored parents-child or family relationships using a variable-oriented approach. A person-oriented approach can capture the diversity of family environments at the start of university, and would thus improve our knowledge of the link between family and the home-leaving experience.

Attachment Representation and Home-Leaving

According to Bowlby's (1980) theory, attachment representations developed in early life fulfill a double function of protection and socialization. During the transition to university, they particularly come to the fore (Kins, Beyers, et al., 2012; Scharfe et al., 2017). Attachment representations have been conceptualized as systematic patterns of expectations, needs, emotion regulation, and social behavior in relationships with others (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Three main attachment styles have been identified: secure versus insecure, either

avoidant or anxious (Collins & Read, 1990). *Secure attachment* refers to individuals who are comfortable in intimate situations, able to depend on others, and not worried about being rejected. *Avoidant attachment* defines individuals who feel uncomfortable with closeness or dependence on others. Finally, *anxious attachment* refers to individuals who are worried about others' availability and being unloved (Kins, Beyers, et al., 2012). Secure attachment is related to a positive adaptation to life events (Seiffge-Krenke, 2006). At the start of university, secure attachment enables students to cope better with academic and social changes (Holmbeck & Wandrei, 1993; Larose & Boivin, 1998).

Starting university is a stressful event that activates attachment systems, especially among those emerging adults who leave home (Larose & Boivin, 1998). Security of attachment induces a better experience of home-leaving (Mayselless, 2004), as it allows individuals to respond appropriately to separation events (Kins, Beyers, et al., 2012). Seiffge-Krenke (2006) demonstrated that emerging adults who leave the parental home the earliest are those with the most secure attachment. Secure attachment facilitates the gradual process of separation from parents (Mayselless et al., 1996). Conversely, insecure attachment is associated with a less well adjusted response to stressful life events (Bernier et al., 2005) and with later leaving (Seiffge-Krenke, 2006). Furthermore, emerging adults with avoidant attachment may experience a denial of dependence, whereas those with anxious attachment may experience home-leaving as a threat to the closeness of their relationships (Kins, Beyers, et al., 2012). Attachment representations are thus particularly strongly activated when young people leave the family home. In our study, we explored the link between attachment representations and home-leaving in the specific context of university entrance, in order to highlight emerging adults' independence markers.

Present Study

The purpose of the present study conducted among French students was to identify different forms of home-leaving at the start of university, and analyze how these are linked to family environment and attachment, adopting a person-oriented approach. After establishing home-leaving, family environment and attachment profiles, we looked at the patterns formed by these profiles.

Regarding home-leaving, in line with the literature (Kins et al., 2009), we expected three profiles to emerge: co-resident, semi-independent, and independent. For family environment, as both parents-child and family relationships foster positive development in the academic context (Johnson et al., 1999), we expected to find several different profiles, underlining the diversity of family environments. These profiles would be characterized by either high scores on positive aspects of both types of relationship (i.e., autonomy support, responsiveness, adaptability, cohesion, and expressiveness), high scores on negative aspects (i.e., psychological control and conflict), or mixed scores (e.g., low autonomy support and low conflict; Seiffge-Krenke, 2006). Finally, for attachment, in accordance with Collins and Read (1990), we expected three profiles to emerge: secure, avoidant, and anxious.

We also investigated how home-leaving patterns are related to family environment and attachment profiles. Given previous results obtained using a variable-oriented approach, we expected to identify convergent patterns of home-leaving, family environment and attachment profiles. Co-residing has been associated with more conflicts and avoidance in some studies (e.g., Flanagan et al., 1993), but with fewer conflicts and autonomy support and more insecure attachment in others (e.g., Seiffge-Krenke, 2006). We therefore predicted that the co-resident profile would be associated with a negative or mixed family environment and insecure attachment. Regarding the semi-independent profile, we predicted that it would be related to a positive family environment and secure attachment. Leaving home is a gradual and normative transition (Lane et al., 2017), but constitutes a major life event. A positive family environment

with cohesive, supportive, and responsive behaviors helps emerging adults to adjust (Holmbeck & Wandrei, 1993; Inguglia et al., 2016; Pedersen, 2017), and secure attachment enables them to cope better with social changes (Larose & Boivin, 1998) and with a gradual process of separation from their parents (Maysseless et al., 1996). Finally, we expected the independent profile to be associated with a negative family environment and insecure attachment, as a conflictual family may impel young people to leave the family household (Bernhardt et al., 2005), and insecure attachment is associated with a conflictual family environment (Liddle & Schwartz, 2002).

Method

Participants and Procedure

Our sample consisted of 1,142 emerging adults in their first year at university (70.67% females; $M_{\text{age}} = 18.43$ years, $SD_{\text{age}} = 0.57$) enrolled on different programs (60.16% law and economics, 22.15% social sciences, and 16.02% life sciences) at universities across France. Participants were included in the study if they had obtained their high-school diploma (i.e., baccalaureate) the semester before the data collection. The data were collected at the start of the first year of university, in September and October. Almost all the participants were French (90%). Concerning the family situation, the parents of 60.82% of our sample were married or cohabiting. Informed consent was obtained from each participant.

Measures

Home-leaving. Home-leaving indicators were based on Kins et al. (2009) and Mendonça and Fontaine (2013). First, we asked participants about their living arrangements. Respondents had to indicate where they currently lived, by choosing one of the following categories: *with one or both of my parents*, *with my partner*, *in shared accommodation*, *alone*, *other*. Next, respondents who did not live with their parents had to specify how often they went home: *once a week*, *once every 2 weeks*, *once a month*, *once every 2 months*,

occasionally or never. Finally, respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they thought of themselves as still living in the parental home.

Family environment. This variable comprised parents-child and family relationships. The parents-child relationship was measured with the French version (Delhaye et al., 2012) of the Leuven Adolescent Perceived Parenting Scale (LAPPS; Soenens et al., 2004). This 28-item questionnaire assesses the relationship with both parents on four dimensions: responsiveness, autonomy support, psychological control, and behavioral control. Given the subject of our study, we did not consider the behavioral control dimension, as it refers to active control by parents, such as setting rules and guidelines in the family household (Beyers & Goossens, 2008). In addition, as the independence process implies independence from both parents (Kins & Beyers, 2010), we indicated that the statements concerned both parents. Items are rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*Completely disagree*) to 5 (*Completely agree*). The structure of the LAPPS was investigated with an explanatory factor analysis. This indicated that within the autonomy support dimension, one item (“...often say that I have to think about life on my own”) should be removed, and one item (“...want everything done in their way”) should be reverse scored. A confirmatory factor analysis with a diagonally weighted least squares estimation confirmed this solution, based on the usual criteria (e.g., Hooper et al., 2008): $\chi^2(167) = 710.39$, comparative fit index (CFI) = .98, root mean square error approximation (RMSEA) = .08 [.071-.083], Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) = .98, weighted root mean square residual (WRMR) = 1.62. Cronbach’s alphas were .91, .83, and .79 for responsiveness, autonomy support and psychological control respectively.

In accordance with the specific context of our study and the literature review by Hamilton and Carr (2016), family relationships were measured by considering the family system with the adaptability dimension of the French version (Vandeleur et al., 1999) of the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Scales III (FACES III; Olson, 1985) and internal

functioning with the French version (Untas et al., 2011) of the Family Relationship Index (FRI; Moos & Moos, 1994). The adaptability dimension of the FACES comprised six items. The FRI is a 12-item questionnaire probing three dimensions: cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict. For both the FACES dimension and the FRI, items are rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*Completely disagree*) to 5 (*Completely agree*). In our study, Cronbach's alphas were .67, .78, .50, and .78 for adaptability, cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict respectively. The 3-factor structure of the FRI was confirmed using a confirmatory factor analysis with a diagonally weighted least squares estimation, $\chi^2(51) = 114.09$, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .05[.036-.059], TLI = .99, and WRMR = 1.00.

Attachment. Attachment was assessed using the French version (Brisset, 2009) of the Adult Attachment Scale (Collins & Read, 1990). This 18-item questionnaire measures attachment representation on three dimensions: dependence, closeness, and anxiety. Items are rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*Completely disagree*) to 5 (*Completely agree*). Using a confirmatory factor analysis with a diagonally weighted least squares estimation, we confirmed the 3-factor structure, $\chi^2(136) = 692.26$, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .09[.078-.091], TLI = .97, and WRMR = 1.76. In our study, Cronbach's alphas were .84, .84, and .84.

Statistical Analysis

Preliminary analyses were conducted using a correlation matrix to examine whether age or gender was related to family environment and attachment and should be controlled for in the main analysis. If this were the case for age, we would conduct an analysis of variance, and if it were the case for gender, we would conduct a chi-square test with an examination of the standardized residuals (i.e., an absolute value greater than 2 would indicate which cell differed significantly from the hypothesis of independence).

We used two different methodologies to investigate home-leaving, family environment, and attachment profiles, based on the literature and the nature of our data. First,

we performed a latent class analysis for home-leaving profiles. A latent class analysis classifies observed categorical indicator variables (Weller et al., 2020) and was used in Kins et al.'s study (2009). The number of classes was determined according to Nylund et al.'s (2007) criteria: Bayesian information criterion (BIC), bootstrapped likelihood ratio test (BLRT), and average posterior probabilities. Weller et al. (2020) recommended considering model fit as well as theoretical interpretability. Consistent with the literature, we therefore retained the model with a best fit, the lowest BIC, a significant BLRT compared with a model with fewer classes, and high average posterior probabilities. The percentage of missing values was 1.66% and the analysis was conducted without participants presenting missing patterns ($n = 1,123$). Second, we ran two cluster analyses using a two-step procedure, one for family environment and one for attachment. Cluster analyses are recommended in family psychology research (Henry et al., 2005), as they allow for more fine-grained analysis of naturally occurring patterns (Soenens et al., 2009). Furthermore, in a person-oriented approach, cluster analyses can be used for continuous data, as they are based on variable means (Weller et al., 2020). In the first step, we performed a hierarchical cluster analysis using Ward's method and squared Euclidean distances. In the second step, the cluster centers obtained in the first step were used as nonrandom starting points in an iterative k -means analysis. The selection of the final number of clusters was made with respect to three criteria (e.g., Luyckx et al., 2008): substantive theorizing, parsimony, and explanatory power (i.e., the most explained variance in each dimension). To interpret the cluster patterns, we used Cohen's (1988) conventional criteria: an absolute value of 0.2 SD defined a small effect, 0.5 SD a moderate effect, and 0.8 SD a large effect. The percentages of participants with missing values were 4.38% for family environment and 1.66% for attachment. Participants with missing values were excluded from the analyses, resulting in samples of $n = 1,092$ for family environment and $n = 1,123$ for attachment.

Finally, to analyze the patterns combining home-leaving, family environment and attachment profiles, we ran a configural frequency analysis (CFA; Schrepp, 2006). Each pattern was a combination of three profiles. For example, the “1,2,1” pattern referred to participants with the first home-leaving profile, the second family environment profile, and the first attachment profile. CFA allows local relationships to be analyzed in the space of the crossed variables and patterns to be identified, in which the observed frequency is significantly higher (type) or lower (antitype) than that expected in the base model (von Eye et al., 2006). We used the first-order CFA as the base model regarding the likelihood ratio test chi-squared ($LR-\chi^2$). According to von Eye et al. (2013), as CFA involves multiple significance tests on the same data, the significance threshold (α) must be protected. The conservative Bonferroni procedure was employed: $\alpha^* = 0.05/r$, where r was the total number of configurations. The sample to be analyzed varied from 1,092 to 1,123, depending on the statistics considered.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics (i.e., means, standard deviations, and Cronbach’s alpha) and bivariate correlations between gender, age and all the family environment and attachment variables are reported in Table 1. Regarding family environment, as expected, psychological control and conflict were positively related, and were negatively associated with responsiveness, autonomy support, adaptability, cohesion, and expressiveness. Conversely, all the latter dimensions were all positively intercorrelated. Regarding attachment, in accordance with the literature, dependence and closeness were positively related, but were negatively associated with anxiety. Gender was positively associated with the responsiveness and autonomy support dimensions of family environment and the anxiety dimension of attachment, and negatively associated with the psychological control dimension of family

environment and the dependence and closeness dimensions of attachment. There was no significant correlation with age. Finally, concerning the correlations between family environment and attachment dimensions, all dimensions were intercorrelated except for the adaptability dimension of family environment, which was not related to either anxiety or closeness.

< Insert Table 1 about here >

Latent Class Analysis of Home-Leaving

We tested three latent class models. The 3-class solution had a better fit ($L^2 = 30.42$, $df = 27$, $p = .29$; BIC = 6389.42; entropy = .86; average posterior probabilities $>.78$) than either the 2-class ($L^2 = 104.27$, $df = 38$, $p < .001$; BIC = 6385.82; entropy = .91; average posterior probabilities $> .97$), or 4-class ($L^2 = 10.10$, $df = 16$, $p = .22$; BIC = 6456.54; entropy = .87; average posterior probabilities $> .61$) solutions. Moreover, the 3-class solution was significantly supported by the BLRT test, in comparison with the 2-class ($p < .001$) and 4-class ($p = 1.00$) solutions. Although the average posterior probabilities indicated that the 2-class solution was the best one ($>.97$ across two classes), in line with the literature, the model fit and the BLRT test, we decided to retain the 3-class solution. The first category comprised emerging adults who lived with their parents ($p = .91$) and considered themselves to still be living at the parental home ($p = .72$). They were labeled *co-resident*. The second category consisted of emerging adults who lived alone ($p = .51$) or in shared accommodation ($p = .35$), who went home once a week ($p = .63$), and who still considered themselves to be living at home ($p = .54$). They were labeled *semi-independent*. Finally, the third category comprised emerging adults who lived alone ($p = .59$), went home at varying frequencies (once every 2 weeks, $p = .28$; once a month, $p = .28$; once every 2 months, $p = .20$; occasionally to never, $p = .17$), and who did not consider themselves still to be living in the parental home ($p = 1.00$). They were labeled *independent*. Results are reported in Table 2. In our sample, 59.37% of

emerging adults were classified as co-resident, 22.59% as semi-independent, and 18.04% as independent.

< Insert Table 2 about here >

Cluster Analysis of Family Environment

Combining the seven family environment dimensions, the cluster analysis yielded a four-cluster solution shown in Figure 1. This cluster solution accounted for 63.4% of the variance in responsiveness, 37.2% in autonomy support, 54.5% in psychological control, 36.4% in adaptability, 60.1% in cohesion, 52.0% in expressiveness, and 44.0% in conflict. A discriminant function analysis supported this final cluster solution (Wilks' lambda = .09, $\chi^2(21) = 2562.2, p < .001$, 95.69% of cross-validated grouped cases correctly classified). The four clusters corresponded to different family environment profiles. The *supportive and positive parental and family relationships* cluster scored very high on responsiveness, autonomy support, adaptability, cohesion, and expressiveness, and very low on psychological control and conflict. The *quite supportive parental relationships and sense of family cohesion* cluster achieved intermediate scores on all dimensions. The majority of our sample belonged to one of these two clusters (65.2%). The *unsupportive parental and family relationships* cluster containing 24.9% of our sample scored high on psychological control and conflict, and moderately low on the other dimensions. Finally, the *unsupportive, controlling, and conflictual parental and family relationships* cluster containing 9.9% of our sample scored very high on psychological control and conflict, and very low on responsiveness, autonomy support, adaptability, cohesion, and expressiveness.

The distribution of family environment profiles differed significantly between males and females, $\chi^2(3) = 9.78, p < .05$. A detailed examination of the standardized residuals indicated that, compared with males, females were overrepresented in *supportive and positive*

parental and family relationships and underrepresented in *quite supportive parental relationships and sense of family cohesion*. Results are reported in Table 3.

< Insert Figure 1 and Table 3 about here >

Cluster Analysis of Attachment

A final three-cluster solution emerged when we combined the three dimensions of attachment (see Figure 2). This solution accounted for 56.2% of the variance in dependence, 57.0% in anxiety, and 60.0% in closeness. A discriminant function analysis supported the final cluster solution: Wilks' lambda = .15, $\chi^2(6) = 1081.6$, $p < .001$, 96.08% of cross-validated grouped cases correctly classified. As expected, participants in the *secure* cluster scored high on dependence and closeness, and low on anxiety. Those in the *avoidant* cluster achieved intermediate scores on all dimensions. Finally, those in the *anxious* cluster scored very high on anxiety, and very low on dependence and closeness. The majority of our sample (59.30%) belonged to insecure clusters (avoidant: 38.4%; anxious: 20.9%).

The distribution of attachment profiles differed significantly according to gender, $\chi^2(2) = 41.14$, $p < .001$. A detailed examination of the standardized residuals indicated that, compared with their males, females were overrepresented in the *avoidant* cluster and underrepresented in the *secure* one. Results are reported in Table 3.

< Insert Figure 2 about here >

Configural Frequency Analyses Crossing Home-Leaving, Family Environment, and Attachment

Using CFA¹, we analyzed the distribution of participants across a total of 36 (i.e., $3 \times 4 \times 3$) patterns of the three variables: home-leaving (1 = semi-independent, 2 = independent, 3

¹ Before running the CFA, we examined the distribution of home-leaving, family environment and attachment profiles in a series of chi-square tests. For home-leaving and family environment profiles, $\chi^2(6) = 31.26$, $p < .001$, the semi-independent profile was overrepresented in the supportive and positive parental and family relationships and quite supportive parental relationships and sense of family cohesion profiles, and underrepresented in the unsupportive parental and family relationships and unsupportive, controlling, and conflictual parental and family relationships profiles. Moreover, the independent profile was overrepresented in

= co-resident), family environment (1 = supportive and positive parental and family relationships, 2 = quite supportive parental relationships and sense of family cohesion, 3 = unsupportive parental and family relationships, 4 = unsupportive, controlling, and conflictual parental and family relationships), and attachment (1 = secure, 2 = avoidant, 3 = anxious). Results are reported in Table 4. The LR- χ^2 for the first-order base model was significant: LR- $\chi^2 = 117.52$, $df = 28$, $p < .001$. We could thus continue to identify patterns with a frequency that differed significantly from what was expected. The Bonferroni-corrected $\alpha^* = 0.001$ (0.05/36), led to the identification of three significant typical patterns (“2,1,1”; “1,4,3”; “3,4,3”) and one significant antityypical pattern (“1,1,3”). The “semi-independent \times supportive and positive parental and family relationships \times secure” pattern (“2,1,1”) was therefore observed more frequently than expected ($f_o = 53$, $f_e = 32.45$, $z = 3.66$, $p < \alpha^*$), as was the “co-resident \times unsupportive, controlling, and conflictual parental and family relationships \times anxious” pattern (“1,4,3”; $f_o = 26$, $f_e = 13.87$, $z = 3.27$, $p < \alpha^*$). As for the “independent \times unsupportive, controlling, and conflictual parental and family relationships \times anxious” pattern (“3,4,3”), this was observed three times more frequently than expected ($f_o = 12$, $f_e = 4.02$, $z = 3.98$, $p < \alpha^*$). Finally, the “co-resident \times supportive and positive parental and family relationships \times anxious” pattern (“1,1,3”) was observed less frequently than expected ($f_o = 25$, $f_e = 45.59$, $z = -3.11$, $p < \alpha^*$).

< Insert Table 4 about here >

Discussion

the unsupportive, controlling, and conflictual parental and family relationships profile. For home-leaving and attachment profiles, there were no significant associations, $\chi^2(4) = 7.91$, $p = .09$. Finally, for family environment and attachment profiles, $\chi^2(6) = 74.19$, $p < .001$, the supportive and positive parental and family relationships profile was overrepresented in the secure profile, and underrepresented in the avoidant and anxious profiles. Moreover, the unsupportive parental and family relationships profile was overrepresented in the anxious profile, and underrepresented in secure profile, while the unsupportive, controlling, and conflictual parental and family relationships profile was overrepresented in the anxious profile and underrepresented in the secure profile.

The purpose of the present study was to analyze the different forms of home-leaving at the start of university and to understand how they are related to family environment and attachment. Using a person-oriented approach, we first identified the various profiles of home-leaving, family environment (parents-child and family relationships), and attachment. Results revealed a meaningful cluster solution for each profile: the independent home-leaving respondents stayed over at the family household more frequently than expected; there were no family environment profiles with mixed scores; and participants with insecure attachment profiles exhibited more anxiety than reported in previous studies. Next, when we explored the patterns of home-leaving, family environment and attachment profiles, results showed that the semi-independent profile was typically characterized by a positive and supportive family environment and secure attachment, unlike the co-resident and independent profiles. Overall, by revealing the profiles and patterns underlying the specificity of home-leaving with regard to family environment and attachment, our findings shed new light on emerging adult students' individuation processes when they start university.

Home-Leaving Patterns

Starting university involves many changes in living conditions. In line with Kins et al.'s study (2009), our results highlighted three distinct profiles of home-leaving: co-resident, semi-independent, and independent. The co-resident and semi-independent profiles were identical to those found in the Belgian population (Kins et al., 2009), but our emerging adults with the independent pattern returned to the family home more frequently. Kins et al. (2009) conducted their study among Belgian emerging adults with a mean age of 22 years who were no longer students, whereas our study took place at the start of university, when emerging adult students were probably living away from their family for the very first time. This reinforces the assumption that first-year undergraduates live a double life and frequently return to the family home in order to regain their childhood comfort (Galland, 2013). The fact

that our study took place in France, where parents contribute financially to their offspring's student accommodation (Belghith et al., 2017; van de Velde, 2008), may also explain why emerging adult students go home more frequently, insofar as we can assume that this financial dependence constrains their independence. In this sense, even if they have left the family home and taken on new responsibilities, they have not yet completed the transition from adolescent high-school student to adult university student (Dubet, 1994). In future research, it may be relevant to explore how independence increases over time and whether the *in between* situation found within the independent home-leaving profile constitutes a transition toward independence.

In 2010, a national survey revealed that 55% of emerging adults in France had to leave the family household in order to continue their studies in higher education (Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur, de la Recherche et de l'Innovation, 2011). Only 40.63% of our participants lived away from the parental home. This percentage, lower than that found 10 years ago, tallies with the fact that French university cities are increasingly facing a crisis of student accommodation, forcing future students to continue living with their parents because of a lack of affordable housing (Denis et al., 2011). This economic and social reality raises the question of the reasons why students want (or are forced) to leave the family household.

Family Environment Profiles

Parents-child and family relationships change when a child goes to university (Scabini & Cigoli, 1997). By considering the dimensions of both parents-child (i.e., responsiveness, autonomy support and psychological control) and family (i.e., adaptability, cohesion, expressiveness, conflict) relationships, we were able to highlight four distinct profiles: supportive and positive parental and family relationships; quite supportive parental relationships and sense of family cohesion; unsupportive parental and family relationships; and unsupportive, controlling, and conflictual parental and family relationships. These

profiles were characterized by high scores on either the positive dimensions of these relationships (i.e., responsiveness, autonomy support, adaptability, cohesion, expressiveness) or the negative ones (i.e., psychological control and conflict). There were no profiles with mixed scores. Thus, the two components of the family environment, namely parents-child and family relationships, seem to go together, such that when one is experienced as positive and supportive, so is the other, and vice versa. As suggested by Minuchin (1974), parents-child and family relationships are interdependent subsystems that influence each other (Bavelas & Segal, 1982). Moreover, as the family environment is a predictor of university adjustment (Holmbeck & Wandrei, 1993), our findings point to the usefulness of considering parents-child and family relationships as joint resources allowing for individuals' positive development (Cook et al., 2018; Johnson et al., 1999). By adopting a global approach that considered both parents-child and family relationships, we were better able to capture emerging adult students' family environment. Furthermore, after controlling for gender, results showed that male emerging adult students were overrepresented in the profile characterized by quite positive aspects of the family environment, and female emerging adult students in the profile characterized by the most positive ones. In adolescence, females report higher cohesion and adaptability within the family than males (Oljača et al., 2012), and in emerging adulthood, undergraduate females perceive more parental autonomy support than males. As for males, they perceive a high level of autonomy support when they go to university (Pedersen, 2017). Taken together, these findings underscore the importance of a positive family environment for both male and female emerging adults during a transitional period.

Attachment Profiles

In line with the literature (Collins & Read, 1990), we identified three distinct profiles: *secure*, *avoidant*, and *anxious*. However, the avoidant profile was characterized by moderate

instead of low scores on each of the attachment dimensions, and the anxious profile by low instead of moderate scores on the dependence and closeness dimensions. Compared with those reported by Collins and Read (1990), our results showed that the emerging adults in our sample characterized by avoidant attachment sought more dependence, contact and intimacy with others, while those characterized by anxious attachment had more difficulty trusting and were more afraid of being close to others. These differences may be due to the fact that our sample was composed of emerging adults just starting university, whereas Collins and Read's study (1990) included students in either their first, second or third year of university. As starting university has been linked to strong separation-individuation anxiety (e.g., Kins, Soenens, et al., 2012), we can assume that individuals with insecure profiles exhibit greater anxiety during this period than at other periods of their lives. This assumption is reinforced by the fact that, during a transitional period, emerging adult students' attachment representations are weakened, independently of the cultural context (Brisset, 2009). Moreover, our results showed that male emerging adult students were overrepresented in the secure profile, and female emerging adult students in the avoidant profile, as in adolescence (Cooper et al., 1998). Above all, our findings underline the importance of considering university entrance as a specific period with respect to attachment representations.

The majority of our sample exhibited insecure attachment (59.3% vs. 40.7% secure). These results are consistent with those of Lopez and Gormley (2002), who demonstrated that there were more insecure than secure emerging adults in the first year of university. Konrath et al. (2014) found that the percentage of students with secure attachment had been declining for some years, in favor of those with insecure attachment. This decline could be primarily related to the cultural and societal changes that have occurred since the development of attachment theory. Konrath et al. (2014) noted that since the 1980s, parents-child and family relationships have changed, as have the media and its uses, as well as the economy and the

labor market. Furthermore, as personal achievement is more important than the development of intimate relationships during the first year of university (Bishop et al., 2018), avoidant attachment may be more adaptive, and anxious attachment related more to the difficult balance between autonomy and intimacy than to maladjustment (i.e., depressive symptoms; Bishop et al., 2019). These considerations should lead to a rethinking of the concept of secure attachment during a transitional period.

Home-Leaving, Family Environment, and Attachment Configurations

When we investigated the distribution of emerging adult students across the patterns of home-leaving, family environment, and attachment profiles, we found three typical patterns and one antitypical pattern. All these patterns were in line with our expectations, as they reflected the positive and negative facets of each construct in the university context. Moreover, these patterns were not gender-biased as they did not combine profiles characterized by an overrepresentation of either females or males. This finding indicates that the beginning of the independence process is the same regardless of emerging adult students' gender.

The first typical pattern combined semi-independent home-leaving, supportive and positive family environment, and secure attachment. According to the literature, the semi-independent status is an intermediate one within the transition to adulthood (Goldscheider & DaVanzo, 1986): a supportive and positive family environment characterizes more autonomous and independent emerging adults (Flanagan et al., 1993; Kins et al., 2009), and secure attachment allows for an adaptive response to separation events (Kins, Beyers, et al., 2012). Thus, emerging adult students with this pattern may be more self-sufficient and, presumably, better able to cope with going to university. The second typical pattern combined co-residing home-leaving, unsupportive, controlling, and conflictual family environment, and anxious attachment. The literature shows that co-residing with one's family may bring the

negative aspects of family relationships to the fore (Flanagan et al., 1993), and emerging adults with anxious attachment may be overwhelmed by their new responsibilities as university students (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Thus, at the beginning of the first year, when emerging adult students encounter their new academic environment, they may be submerged by events and unable to find effective support in the family home. The third typical pattern was characterized by independent home-leaving, unsupportive, controlling, and conflictual family environment, and anxious attachment. Although similar to the previous pattern, in this one, the emerging adults had left the family household. Leaving home to start university involves new responsibilities (e.g., managing a budget, doing the housework), and may heighten the feeling of being overwhelmed. It is worth noting that this pattern only concerned 12 students in our sample. This low number can be explained by the young age of our participants: at 18 years, when emerging adults have just finished high school and are starting university, living in rented accommodation by themselves can entail financial difficulties (Belghith et al., 2017). Finally, the antitypical pattern combined co-residing home-leaving, supportive and positive family environment, and anxious attachment. The fact that this pattern was less frequent than expected confirms that the supportive and positive family environment profile is underrepresented in the anxious attachment profile. Literature findings show that a positively perceived family environment gives its members a sense of belonging and differentiation (Minuchin, 1974), and leads to the construction of more secure attachment (Byng-Hall, 2008).

Our results also revealed some surprises. Only the most positive and most negative family environments gave rise to patterns combining home-leaving and attachment patterns. The two profiles with moderate scores on positive and negative dimensions (i.e., quite supportive parental relationships and sense of family cohesion, and unsupportive parental and family relationships) did not characterize specific patterns. Lavee et al. (1987) suggested that

a family environment perceived as too positive or too negative is more strongly affected by life transitions. Regarding the start of university, previous studies have only investigated the influence of the family environment from a dichotomic perspective (i.e., positive vs. negative; Johnson et al., 2010). However, our findings highlight the diversity of the family environment, allowing us to consider it as a key factor in understanding emerging adult students' independence when they go to university. One other unexpected result is that the frequency of patterns involving avoidant attachment did not differ from chance level. According to the literature, the dependence-independence question is a core issue for emerging adults with avoidant attachment. Avoidant individuals strive for distance from others (Bishop et al., 2019) and, during the process of separation, may be in denial of dependence (Kins, Beyers, et al., 2012). Nevertheless, during the first year of university, avoidant attachment is not related to the balance between autonomy and intimacy (Bishop et al., 2019), suggesting that the redefinition of emerging adults' role and status does not affect them. This assumption is reinforced by the fact that avoidant attachment in our sample was characterized by more anxiety than expected, reflecting the desire of emerging adult students for more dependence, contact, and intimacy with others.

Practical Implications

As our results revealed more insecure than secure profiles and two typical patterns characterized by an unsupportive family environment and anxious attachment, we can assume that efficiently helping emerging adult students to take on new responsibilities and university life should be a priority for student affairs officers and educators, in terms of their practice and the information they provide. In France, some universities give first-year students the opportunity to be mentored by a graduate student. This mentoring program is devoted entirely to students' learning and performance on end-of-semester exams. Although it has positive effects on students' academic achievement (Danner, 2000), its implementation has been

called into question (Borras, 2011). Our findings show that, in addition to enhancing students' learning, mentoring programs should serve to support emerging adults in their transition to becoming students (Coulon, 2017; Danner et al., 1999). Second- or third-year students could inform, help, and advise first-year students in order to facilitate their integration into university life from both an academic and a social perspective (Knoerr, 2020). Furthermore, our findings revealed that going to university is associated with strong separation-individuation anxiety (e.g., Kins, Soenens, et al., 2012). Schwartz and Ward (1986) ran psychoeducational workshops to improve the home-leaving experience of emerging adult students. This type of workshop could be organized by student affairs officers and educators and implemented within university health centers. It might encourage exchanges between peers and address the difficulty of finding a balance between daily problems and investment in studies (Boujut et al., 2009). In the light of the pandemic time, literature findings show that students were less affected by the pandemic when they were enrolled in a university wellbeing program (Copeland et al., 2021), highlighting the importance of universities' information policies and practices in emerging adult students' development.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

This study had several limitations, starting with the cross-sectional design. As starting university may be considered as a life transition that begins in high school and finishes at the end of the first year (De Clercq et al., 2018), a longitudinal design would provide more in-depth information about the home-leaving experience when emerging adults go to university. Future research should examine the way home-leaving, family environment, and attachment change over time from the end of high school to the end of university studies. Moreover, our study revealed that more emerging adult students are currently co-residing with their parents than before. In the context of the French student housing crisis, Solard and Coppoletta (2014)

pointed out that parents' socio-economic status plays a role in home-leaving, as not all emerging adult students are able to live away from home. This perspective would allow first-year students' home-leaving experience to be characterized in greater detail. Furthermore, the present study investigated attachment through three different styles: secure, avoidant, and anxious (Collins & Read, 1990). However, disorganized/controlling attachment could also be considered (Main & Salomon, 1986). During a separation event, emerging adults with disorganized/controlling attachment are unable to rely on and express their need for others (Mayseless et al., 1996). Future research should focus on all four attachment styles to further explore emerging adults' attachment. In addition, emerging adult students' lives have recently been turned upside down by the pandemic and the ensuing lockdowns and distance learning. Recent studies have highlighted the impact of the pandemic on university students' mental health and psychological vulnerability in France (Essadek & Rabeyron, 2020; Le Vigouroux et al., 2021). Regarding living conditions, during the first lockdown, nearly half of students left their student housing, and three quarters of these returned to the family home (Belghith et al., 2020). Although the family home may have been seen as a refuge (Belghith et al., 2020), emerging adult students' emotional state did not differ according to their lockdown condition (i.e., lockdown with vs. without parents; Le Vigouroux et al., 2021). As the pandemic may continue to affect students' lives (Belghith et al., 2020; Le Vigouroux et al., 2021), it opens up a new avenue of research on emerging adults' independence process at the start of university.

Conclusion

Using a person-oriented approach, this study yielded a deeper understanding of the relation between emerging adult students' home-leaving, family environment, and attachment when they start university. Results revealed specific profiles of home-leaving and attachment at the start of university, and highlighted the importance of considering both parents-child and

family relationships during this stressful life event. We also found meaningful patterns of home-leaving, family environment and attachment profiles. These patterns shed additional light on the beginning of the independence process and suggest that semi-independent emerging adult students are characterized by a more supportive and positive family environment and more secure attachment than co-resident and independent emerging adult students. Future research should analyze how home-leaving takes place over the university years, in terms of family environment and attachment, whilst taking the motivations behind the home-leaving experience into account.

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Table 1
 Descriptive statistics and correlations between family environment and attachment dimensions

	2.	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
<i>Demographic characteristics</i>											
1. Gender	-.11*	.11*	.11*	-.11*	.08	.05	.03	.07	-.11*	.22***	-.14***
2. Age		-.05	-.01	.01	-.01	.00	-.05	-.01	-.03	-.05	.01
<i>Family environment</i>											
3. Responsiveness			-.053***	-.056***	0.40***	0.66***	0.54***	-.044***	0.25***	-.017***	0.19***
4. Autonomy support				-.052***	0.36***	0.46***	0.37***	-.033***	0.18***	-.017***	0.14***
5. Psychological control					-.030***	-.051***	-.050***	0.45***	-.022***	0.24***	-.020***
6. Adaptability						0.41***	0.42***	-.032***	0.11*	0.03	-.005
7. Cohesion							0.59***	-.053***	0.29***	-.026***	0.22***
8. Expressiveness								-.045***	0.28***	-.026***	0.24***
9. Conflict									-.020***	0.20***	-.014***
<i>Attachment</i>											
10. Dependence										-.055***	0.49**
11. Anxiety											-.051***
12. Closeness											
<i>M</i>	18.43	4.02	3.94	2.10	2.81	3.69	2.95	2.71	3.33	2.61	3.72
<i>SD</i>	0.57	0.91	0.77	0.87	0.73	0.93	0.85	0.96	0.93	0.99	0.92
<i>α</i>	-	.91	.83	.79	.67	.78	.50	.78	.84	.84	.84

Note. $N = 1142$. For gender: 1 = male; 2 = female; α = Cronbach's alpha. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 2
Response probabilities according to home-leaving profile

	Co-resident	Semi-independent	Independent
Living arrangements			
One or both parents	.91	.00	.11
Partner	.01	.09	.10
Shared accommodation	.02	.35	.16
Alone	.06	.51	.59
Other	.01	.05	.04
Returning home			
Still living in parental household	.93	.00	.04
Once a week	.04	.63	.03
Once every 2 weeks	.00	.21	.28
Once a month	.01	.11	.28
Once every 2 months	.01	.03	.20
Occasionally or never	.01	.02	.17
Considers him/herself to still be living in the parental home			
Yes	.72	.54	1.00
No	.28	.46	.00

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Table 3

Distribution of male and female emerging adult students across family environment and attachment clusters

	Males % (ASR)	Females % (ASR)	$\chi^2(df)$
Family environment clusters (<i>n</i> = 1,092)			9.78(3)*
Supportive and positive parental and family relationships	26.86 (-2.77)	35.63 (2.77)	
Quite supportive parental relationships and sense of family cohesion	37.86 (2.29)	29.76 (-2.29)	
Unsupportive parental and family relationships	24.92 (0.01)	24.90 (-0.01)	
Unsupportive, controlling, and conflictual parental and family relationships	10.36 (0.32)	9.71 (-0.32)	
Attachment clusters (<i>n</i> = 1,123)			41.14(2)***
Secure	53.40 (5.52)	35.54 (-5.52)	
Avoidant	35.80 (1.13)	39.42 (1.13)	
Anxious	10.80 (-5.31)	25.03 (5.31)	

Note. ASR = adjusted standardized residuals; ASR values shown in bold reflect over- or underrepresentation. * $p < .05$. *** $p < .001$.

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Table 4

Configural frequency analysis crossing home-leaving, family environment and attachment profiles

Home-leaving	Family environment	Attachment		
		1	2	3
1	1	107 (85.47)	71 (81.54)	25 (45.59)
	2	78 (83.79)	82 (79.93)	41 (44.68)
	3	44 (65.25)	77 (62.25)	52 (34.80)
	4	14 (26.00)	31 (24.81)	26 (13.87)
2	1	53 (32.45)	32 (24.80)	12 (17.30)
	2	40 (31.80)	24 (24.31)	14 (16.96)
	3	14 (24.77)	17 (18.93)	13 (13.21)
	4	3 (9.87)	9 (7.54)	3 (5.26)
3	1	32 (24.80)	16 (23.66)	10 (13.22)
	2	24 (24.31)	16 (23.19)	9 (12.96)
	3	17 (18.93)	21 (18.06)	15 (10.09)
	4	9 (7.54)	7 (7.19)	12 (4.02)

Note. Expected frequencies in parentheses. Configurations with an observed frequency that differed from the expected one are shown in bold.

Home-leaving profiles: 1 = co-resident, 2 = semi-independent, 3 = independent.

Family environment profiles: 1 = supportive and positive parental and family relationships, 2 = quite supportive parental relationships and sense of family cohesion, 3 = unsupportive parental and family relationships, 4 = unsupportive, controlling, and conflictual parental and family relationships.

Attachment profiles: 1 = secure, 2 = avoidant, 3 = anxious.

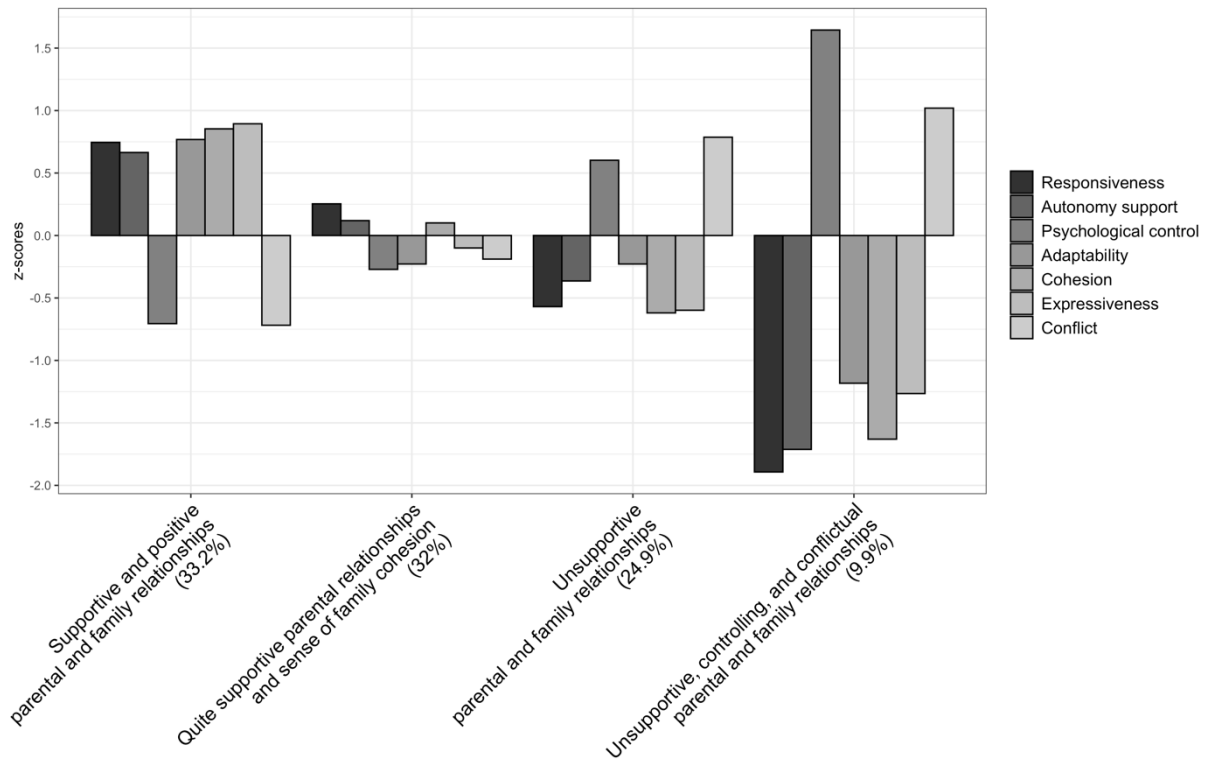


Figure 1. Cluster solution for family environment ($n = 1,092$). Z-scores for responsiveness, autonomy support, psychological control, adaptability, cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict.

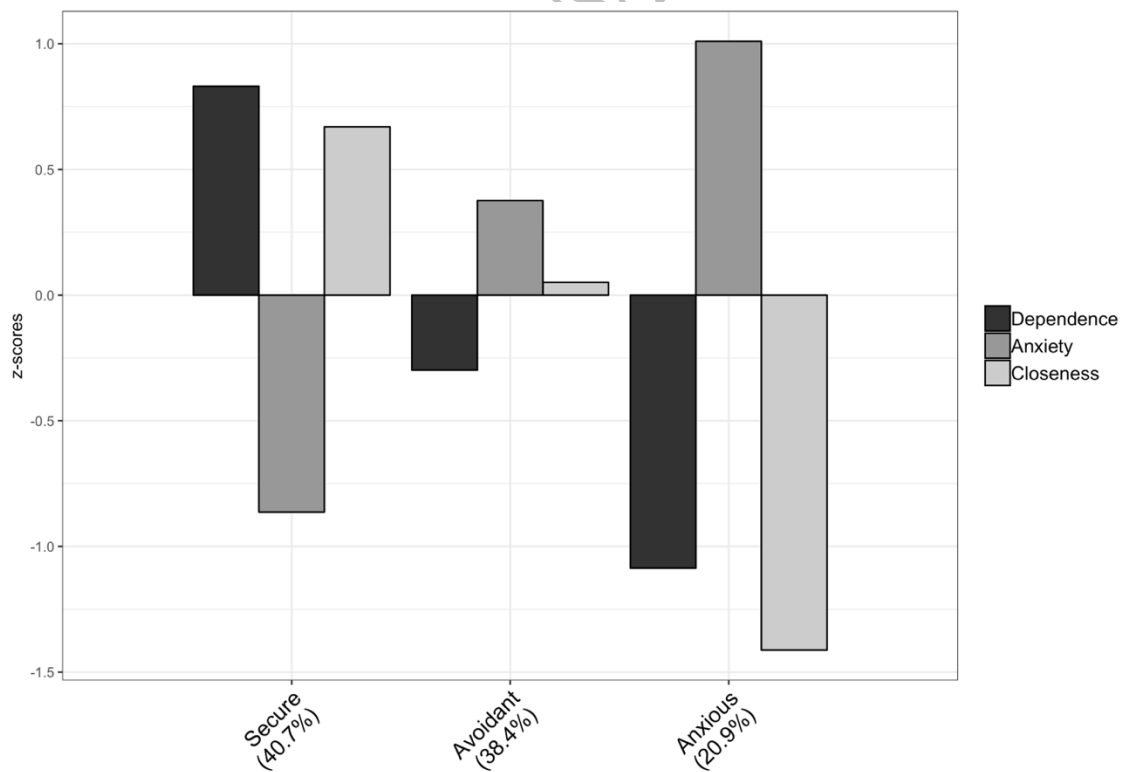


Figure 2. Cluster solution for attachment ($n = 1,123$). Z-scores for dependence, anxiety, and closeness.