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Life Course Changes in the Geographical Distance Between Adult Children of Immigrants and Their Parents: The Role of Partnership Formation and Dissolution

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ABSTRACT

Objective: This study explores how geographical distance between adult children of immigrants and their parents changes in response to partnership formation and partnership dissolution.

Background: Geographical distance between generations is a key factor in intergenerational support. However, there is limited knowledge about how proximity changes over the life course, with most research confined to Western cultural settings. The lack of comparative work is surprising since intergenerational proximity and solidarity are often associated with an international migration background.

Methods: Using longitudinal register data from the Netherlands, we follow individuals born to parents from Suriname, Turkey, and the Netherlands, assessing their geographical distance from parents between ages 22 and 42. Two-part regression models with impact function specifications are employed to estimate the effects of partnership formation and dissolution on intergenerational proximity.

Results: In all groups, intergenerational distance increased with partnership formation and decreased following partnership dissolution. In the case of partnership formation, the divergence effect was stronger for women than for men. Following partnership dissolution, the convergence effect was stronger for women than for men of Turkish origin, but similar for men and women of Surinamese and Dutch origin. Leaving home for partnership formation and returning home after partnership dissolution played an important role in explaining the changes in proximity, especially for individuals of Dutch origin, and for men more than for women in all groups.

Conclusion: Our findings confirm the effects of partnership transitions on intergenerational distance among migrant families and emphasize cultural influences on intergenerational gendered proximity and family interdependencies in migrant communities.

1 | Introduction

Geographical distance between adult children and their parents is essential for family life, as it influences the provision of support and the maintenance of direct interpersonal connections (DeWit et al. 1988; Knijn and Liefbroer 2006; Lawton et al. 1994; Mulder 2007; Mulder and Van der Meer 2009). Life course research has shown that intergenerational geographical

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distance changes around major life transitions, with partnership formation and dissolution standing out as central turning points as they typically involve residential relocation and reconfigure adult children's practical and emotional support needs (Michielin et al. 2008). Yet existing knowledge on these dynamics is largely based on survey data and predominantly on majority populations in Northwestern European and Anglo-Saxon contexts, with limited research focusing on individuals with a migrant background. As a result, we know little about whether and how these key partnership transitions reshape intergenerational proximity across groups that differ in family norms, obligations, and gendered expectations regarding living close to kin.

The existing literature on intergenerational relations among immigrant families in Northwestern European countries indicates that they often place greater emphasis on family solidarity than those from the majority group in these countries. This difference may stem, on the one hand, from the migration process itself, which can reinforce solidarity and interdependence between generations (Baykara-Krumme and Fokkema 2019). It may also, however, reflect cultural differences, as individuals of non-European origin often come from more collectivist societies that prioritize close family ties and robust support networks over the more individualistic norms prevalent in Northwestern Europe (Hofstede 2001; Reher 1998). These family-oriented values often manifest themselves in stronger intergenerational support, both downward and upward. Research shows that adult children of non-European immigrants in Northwestern Europe tend to rely less on formal childcare services, favoring family-based care, including active involvement by grandparents (Biegel et al. 2021; Seibel and Hedegaard 2017; Arends-Tóth and Van de Vijver 2008). The same applies to elder care, where older non-European immigrants typically expect their children to care for them in old age (Albertini and Mantovani 2022; de Valk and Schans 2008), and where individuals of immigrant origin demonstrate stronger filial support obligations compared to their majority-group peers (Arends-Tóth and Van de Vijver 2008).

Some studies have indicated that immigrant families tend to live closer to one another compared to those of the majority group (Compton and Pollak 2015; Malmberg and Pettersson 2007; Mulder and Kalmijn 2006; Reyes et al. 2020). This geographical proximity is further reinforced by a higher likelihood of coresidence of parents and adult children, driven by the fact that children leave home at a later age (Kleinepier and de Valk 2017) and more often return to the parental home in adulthood (Lei and South 2016). The existing work on immigrant families has primarily focused on intergenerational co-residence (de Valk and Billari 2007; de Valk and Bordone 2019; Glick and Van Hook 2002) or other forms of family solidarity (Dykstra and Fokkema 2011), including conflict, support exchanges, or frequency of contact (Bordone and de Valk 2016; Kalmijn 2019; Baykara-Krumme and Fokkema 2019). So far, there is little evidence on how partnership transitions affect intergenerational proximity among immigrant populations, and on how these dynamics are structured by cultural kinship norms.

The concept of linked lives in life course theory emphasizes that individuals' life trajectories are interconnected, with the experiences, decisions, and well-being of one person directly influencing the lives of others, particularly family members (Elder 1994). Life course events, such as partnership transitions, can reshape family dynamics, including geographical proximity between generations. We therefore ask: first, how does the geographical distance between parents and their adult children change in response to the adult child's partnership formation and dissolution? (RQ1). Second, do these proximity patterns vary across origin groups with distinct cultural contexts and norms of filial obligation? (RQ2). And third, within those origin groups, do men and women differ in overall levels of intergenerational proximity and in how proximity changes around the partnership transitions? (RQ3).

We make two overarching contributions. First, we compare changes in proximity in two immigrant groups in the Netherlands: individuals of Surinamese and Turkish origin. These groups were selected because they are among the largest immigrant origin populations in the Netherlands, ensuring sufficient cases for robust longitudinal analyses. Equally important, they represent distinct cultural traditions and kinship systems. While Turkish families are characterized by patrilineal and patrilocal traditions, where family obligations and proximity are often centered around sons, the Surinamese population is more culturally diverse. Beyond cultural differences, these groups also differ in their socio-economic positions and patterns of residential distribution across the country. By examining these diverse populations, we address the need for a more nuanced understanding of intergenerational relations among immigrant populations in Western Europe (Albertini et al. 2019).

Second, we extend the dynamic scope of prior studies on intergenerational geographical proximity, which were often limited to panel designs with only two time points (Michielin et al. 2008; Rogerson et al. 1997). We analytically build on recent studies that examined distance to family members from a life course perspective (Choi et al. 2021; Kolk 2017) and add to that literature by studying life course *events* over a longer observation window. By applying a longitudinal "before-and-after" approach, we are better able to capture anticipatory and lagged effects on changes in proximity and distinguish between temporary and more permanent changes. Adopting a life course perspective on intergenerational geographical distance among families of diverse immigrant origins is socially significant, as it highlights both the opportunities and constraints these families encounter throughout their lives. Living closer can enhance opportunities for mutual support but may also increase intergenerational burdens, as children (or parents) take on more care responsibilities. In addition, understanding the development of geographical distance over the life course may shed light on the development or persistence of residential segregation.

We use longitudinal register data from the Netherlands, covering all individuals who were born between 1980 and 1988, lived in the Netherlands from at least age 15, and were born to at least one parent who was born in Suriname or Turkey. We follow them between 2006 and 2022, when they are between the ages of 22–42, annually measuring their geographical distance to their parents. We examine group-specific patterns of intergenerational proximity and compare them to those found in the Dutch origin population.

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2 | Theoretical Background and Previous Research

2.1 | Life Course Proximity

Changes in geographical distance between adult children and their parents denote that at least one party has relocated. In Northwestern European cultures, people usually move toward their family in response to their own (increasing) support needs (Smits 2010; Thomas and Dommermuth 2020). Residential mobility and migration are closely associated with age, with younger individuals generally being more mobile (Long 1973; Rogers and Castro 1981; Statistics Netherlands 2024). This implies that when it comes to moves over the life course it is the child generation that is most likely to be mobile and thus determine intergenerational proximity. Empirical evidence supports this idea, showing that changes in geographical proximity between generations are more often influenced by the support needs of adult children rather than those of aging parents (Michielin and Mulder 2007; Mulder and Kalmijn 2006).

Life course research emphasizes that life transitions may relate to intergenerational proximity. The first significant geographical divergence between the generations occurs when children leave the parental home, which is often motivated by employment opportunities, the pursuit of higher education, or the formation of romantic relationships and marriage. If an adult child moves from the parental home into a shared residence with a partner, the distance between them and their parents naturally increases. Even when the child already lives independently, partnership formation is expected to increase intergenerational distance, as the choice of residence now considers both partners.

Following partnership formation, a main event that can increase the support needs of adult children, potentially leading to geographical convergence of generations, is partnership dissolution. During separation or divorce, at least one ex-partner has to move out of the shared residence. To cope with the emotional distress and potential significant economic changes associated with separation, ex-partners may return to their place of origin, where they have a sense of attachment and more extensive support networks (Wall and Von Reichert 2013). Moving closer to parents can therefore be motivated by the need to gain emotional and practical support from family or it can be a byproduct of the desire to return to one's place of origin. Indeed, recently separated individuals are more likely to move closer to their parents (Michielin et al. 2008; Smits 2010) or even return to their parental home (Albertini et al. 2018; Das et al. 2017; Smits et al. 2010). For some, returning home is a short-term strategy to regain stability, while for others, especially those in more vulnerable economic positions, it may be a long-term solution (Das et al. 2017; Dieleman and Schouw 1989).

While most of this evidence is based on general population studies, findings from the United States suggest that patterns of intergenerational proximity can differ between groups. For example, Reyes and Shang (2024) found that non-Hispanic white families were more likely to move closer following a parental health decline, while Black and Hispanic families, who already tend to live closer at baseline, showed less change. These findings highlight how cultural norms and existing proximity patterns may shape changes in intergenerational distance following life events and transitions.

2.2 | Group Differences in Proximity

When comparing different immigrant groups, cultural views on family relations and geographical closeness may lead to differences in intergenerational proximity. In the context of this study, both immigrant groups originate from societies that are more collectivistic and group-oriented than the Dutch. In Caribbean cultures, the extended family is integral to daily life and child-rearing, reinforcing a tight support network (Barrow 1999). Turkish culture also values the family unit, where extended family members maintain close ties over the life course and elders wield significant authority (Kagitcibasi 2017).

However, despite these shared collectivistic values, several studies highlight differences in intergenerational solidarity norms between these groups. For instance, in the Netherlands, individuals of Turkish origin report higher levels of family solidarity values (Merz et al. 2009), including both downward and upward intergenerational obligations (Arends-Tóth and Van de Vijver 2008; de Valk and Schans 2008) than those of Surinamese origin. Moreover, in the UK, Caribbean immigrants have a weaker cultural connection to their family's country of origin and ethnic group (Burholt et al. 2018) and are more likely to rely on smaller and non-familial support networks compared to other immigrant groups (Burholt et al. 2016).

In addition to potential cultural elements, compositional differences may also explain variations in intergenerational proximity between groups. Education, in particular, has long been identified as an important predictor for intergenerational proximity, where higher educated individuals live on average farther from their parents (Kalmijn 2006; Shelton and Grundy 2000). This could be the result of the fact that higher educated individuals often have to move to pursue education in the first place, and highly paid knowledge work in the second place, while also facing fewer economic constraints when choosing where to live (Kalmijn 2006). Furthermore, intergenerational instrumental dependency within higher socio-economic families is relatively lower (Fingerman et al. 2015) and therefore living in proximity is less of a necessity. Moreover, individuals with higher education may exhibit weaker adherence to familial norms (De Vries et al. 2009) as they tend to embrace more cosmopolitan worldviews (Pichler 2012). Finally, moving for education may require long-distance departure from the parental home or place of origin, which means the severing of local ties in early adulthood. This may in itself subsequently affect parent–child relationships and norms about proximity. This assumption, however, depends on the geographical distribution of higher education institutes and the location where individuals grew up in relation to these institutions. To address the influence of observable compositional factors in explaining group differences in intergenerational proximity, we consider both the

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individual's socio-economic position and the geographical characteristics of their upbringing in the analyses.

Based on this literature, we expect baseline differences in intergenerational proximity, with adult children of immigrants from Suriname and Turkey living closer to their parents than individuals of Dutch origin, and with individuals of Turkish origin living closest. Starting from this greater proximity, our first hypothesis is that partnership formation leads to a stronger *divergence* in intergenerational distance (i.e., a larger increase in distance) among these origin groups (Hypothesis 1a). Despite being expected to live closer to their parents also after partnership formation, given the stronger intergenerational dependence in immigrant families, we anticipate a stronger convergence after partnership dissolution (i.e., a larger reduction in distance) (Hypothesis 2a). In both cases, we expect these effects to be more pronounced for individuals of Turkish origin than for those of Surinamese origin (partnership formation: Hypothesis 1b; partnership dissolution: Hypothesis 2b).

2.3 | Gendered Cultures and Proximity

Geographical distance between generations is gendered. In Northwestern European societies, women tend to leave the parental home at younger ages and live at greater distances from their parents than men (Kolk 2017; Shelton and Grundy 2000). This could be related to the fact that women more often are the ones who move for partnership formation, either moving in with or closer to their partner (Brandén and Haandrikman 2019; Michielin et al. 2008). Among couples, residential location decisions can be relatively clear if the couple originates from the same place, but it can be challenging if in-laws live farther away from each other.

Classical theories on bargaining power among different-sex couples posit that men traditionally held more influence in migration and residential location decisions than women (Mincer 1978), largely because of gender differences in career prospects (Cooke 2003; Mulder and Wagner 1993). From this perspective, the male partner may exert more influence in pulling the couple toward living near his parents. Empirical evidence on this point is mixed. Some studies report no gender differences in the effect of education on couple migration overall (Brandén 2013; Tano et al. 2018), whereas others find that moves toward the Randstad (the conurbation of the Netherlands) are more strongly associated with his education than with hers (Kooiman and Das 2022). An alternative perspective, centered on gender roles in family dynamics, suggests that women may hold more sway in couples' location decisions. Women tend to take on a more prominent role as kin-keepers (Grundy and Shelton 2001; Gerstel and Gallagher 1993), and intergenerational support exchange more often flows through matrilineal channels (Fingerman et al. 2020; Haberkern et al. 2015; Mulder and Van der Meer 2009). Consequently, the female partner may gain more influence in periods when intergenerational support is especially salient, such as when the couple decides to have children, making a move toward her family more likely.

Gender differences among native populations in the past literature are not clear, and in fact suggest that the two hypotheses may complement each other. On one hand, the male-dominance hypothesis is supported by a Norwegian study focusing on married women aged 34, a stage where negotiations regarding living arrangements might still be ongoing, and women may still pull toward their parents (Løken et al. 2013). On the other hand, a study of older couples (aged 31–54) in the United Kingdom, many of whom have likely already established their residential locations, found that proximity to parents is gender-neutral (Chan and Ermisch 2015). Additionally, Blaauboer et al. (2011) observed in the Netherlands that different-sex couples generally live closer to his than to her parents.

In non-Western immigrant families, the gender gap in proximity to parents may also be a function of kinship and descent systems. Kinship systems dictate who is expected to care for aging parents, which family members are expected to stay close to home, or who inherits property and responsibilities.

In the Turkish context, traditionally kinship systems are structured around patrilineal descent and patrilocal residence (Liljeström and Özdalga 2005), where lineage is primarily inherited through the male line, and newlywed couples typically settle near the husband's family home. However, while sons are culturally obligated to guarantee parental care, the practical caregiving in contemporary Turkish families is more often done by daughters-in-law and daughters (Duben 2013).

In contrast, Surinamese immigrants in the Netherlands are a diverse group, with historical roots in various ethnic backgrounds—including Hindustanis with East Indian roots, Afro-Surinamese, Javanese, Chinese, and Europeans—who arrived in Suriname during the Dutch colonial era. Among the Surinamese community in the Netherlands, the two largest groups are Hindustanis and Afro-Surinamese, each constituting around 40% of the total group (Statistics Netherlands 2011). The Surinamese origin group includes individuals from both matrifocal (those with African roots) (e.g., Kerns 1997) and patrifocal (those with Asian roots) cultural traditions. In matrifocal societies, the reciprocal relationships between mothers and daughters are crucial for maintaining stable family structures (Kerns 1997; Quinlan 2001). Although matrifocal systems involve strong social bonds between female kin, they can also exist in male-centered family structures (Macfarlan et al. 2019) and therefore do not necessarily imply closer living arrangements between mothers and daughters.

Accordingly, we expect group differences in gender-specific patterns. Among individuals of Turkish origin, men are expected to live closer to their parents than women (Hypothesis 3a), while among individuals of Surinamese origin a smaller gap—or even a reversed pattern, with women on average closer than men—is expected (Hypothesis 3b). Across all groups, we expect women to move farther from their parents at partnership formation than men (Hypothesis 4). Because location decisions of children of immigrants are likely influenced by traditional kinship systems (Kaur et al. 2024), we anticipate this stronger female divergence effect to be particularly pronounced within the Turkish origin group (Hypothesis

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5a). We therefore also expect a stronger convergence effect among women following partnership dissolution within the Turkish origin group (Hypothesis 5b).

3 | Method

3.1 | Data

We analyzed individual-level data from the System of Social Statistical Datasets (SSD) provided by Statistics Netherlands, covering the years 2006 to 2022. The SSD integrates information from multiple administrative sources, including municipal address records, education registers, tax data, and social insurance files, and captures the full population of citizens and legal residents of the Netherlands (Bakker et al. 2014).

Our study population consists of individuals born between 1980 and 1988 to at least one parent who was born in Suriname or Turkey, including both individuals born in the Netherlands (second generation) and those who migrated before age 15 (1.5 generation). We observed them between 2006 and 2022, resulting in an initial sample of N (person-years) = 1,581,612. As a reference group, we randomly selected 5% of the Dutch-born population with two Dutch-born parents, referred to as the Dutch origin group: N (person-years) = 1,089,006.

To focus on transitions related to independent living, we excluded observations for individuals younger than 22 and those who had not completed their formal education (497,793 records). This reflects the Dutch context, where students often live in semi-dependent arrangements, such as temporary housing near universities, that do not represent fully independent living. The upper age limit is dictated by the size of the origin groups in older cohorts, producing an analytic age range of 22–42.

Observations were excluded if neither parent resided in the Netherlands or if the adult child was living abroad (80,329 records), as the SSD does not track individuals residing outside the country. In cases where parents were not living together, we created separate records for each parent (adding 418,136 records), allowing us to calculate distance to mothers and fathers individually. These parent–child observations represent substantively distinct ties rather than duplicate information. To account for this data structure, we included an indicator for whether distance was measured to (1) both parents, (2) the father, or (3) the mother. We excluded observations with missing data on any variable (except education) (71,685 records, 2.7% of the initial sample). The demographic composition of the excluded observations is presented in Table A1. Finally, we truncated the last observation of each individual to incorporate event controls (described in the Estimation section) (173,661 records).

Following these criteria, the final study population included 158,253 individuals (Surinamese origin = 47,274; Turkish origin = 46,398; Dutch origin = 64,581) contributing 2,265,286 person-years. Due to the fixed observation window and cohort structure, individuals were not observed across the entire age span of 22 to 42.

3.2 | Variables

The dependent variable in this study was *intergenerational geographical distance*, measured as the Euclidean distance between the child's and the parents' addresses. This variable equals zero when parents and adult children co-reside and takes positive values (in kilometers) when they live apart. This measurement was derived from two key datasets: the parent–child file and the addresses file. The parent–child file links individuals with their living and registered parents, while the addresses file provides the registered dates of residences and the precise longitude-latitude coordinates for each address using a unique address identifier. The dataset was structured in a person-year format, recording each individual's location on January 1st of each year. Our distance measures capture changes in proximity within the parent–child dyad and do not identify whether the parent, the adult child, or both moved.

The primary independent variable of interest was partnership status. Partnership status was categorized as: (1) single (never cohabited), (2) cohabiting (unmarried cohabitation), (3) married (married cohabitation), (4) separated (single after unmarried cohabitation), and (5) divorced (single after marriage). Cohabitation in the registers is identified for two adults sharing an address and classified as a cohabiting couple when at least one of the following indicators is present: shared biological children (not necessarily residing at that address), fiscal partnership, tax subsidization, or social benefits. When none of these indicators apply, shared-address dyads are stochastically imputed as either two singles or one couple using the known singles-couples distribution from the national Labor Force Survey, with this classification applied consistently over time until an address change occurs, implying a small risk of wrongly identifying cohabiting couples (about 5% of shared-address dyads in the registers). To prevent misclassifying prior unions as singlehood, partnership status is tracked from age 17 onward.

Using these indicators, partnership transitions were identified and defined as dummies. *Partnership formation* was defined as the start of the first co-residential union, either through unmarried cohabitation or marriage. *Partnership dissolution* was defined as the end of the first co-residential union with either an unmarried or married partner. For each partnership transition, we constructed a set of dummy variables indicating the number of years before and after the transition, allowing us to estimate event-centered change in intergenerational distance over time using an impact-function specification (described below).

To account for differences between origin groups that may explain variation in intergenerational proximity, we included two sets of control variables. The first set accounts for the individual's geographical background. It includes time-constant family geographical indicators, reflecting the respondent's situation at age 15, before most transitions into independent living. To capture early urban exposure and accessibility to education, we included an indicator denoting whether the individual grew up in one of the *10 largest cities* in the Netherlands. These cities typically offer more educational infrastructure and may reduce the need for long-distance moves

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during young adulthood. Because urbanization is linked to regional opportunity structures that influence geographical mobility and intergenerational proximity (Van der Pers and Mulder 2013), we included *municipality population density* as a more granular measure of the residential context, categorized by the number of addresses per km^2, ranging from (1) less than 500 to (5) more than 2500. *Internal migration* during adolescence was captured with a binary indicator denoting whether the individual moved more than 20 km between ages 15 and 17, a period when residential change is especially likely to disrupt place attachment and peer networks (Bernard et al. 2025) and thus may be associated with later geographical mobility (Bernard and Vidal 2020).

The second set of indicators included demographic and socioeconomic measures of the adult child. *Age* (and *age squared*) was measured in years. *Gender* was measured as a binary indicator of (0) male versus (1) female. We account for period-specific variations in proximity to family using calendar *year* fixed effects. Including year fixed effects is used to net out both prolonged trends in family proximity (e.g., Kalmijn 2021) and discrete shocks to geographical mobility, such as the COVID-19 pandemic. *First childbirth* was measured as a binary indicator coded 1 in the year the individual became a biological parent. *Level of education* was measured using a set of dummy variables distinguishing between vocational education or lower (mbo), higher vocational education (hbo), university education, and missing. *Employment* was measured as a binary indicator of (0) not employed versus (1) employed. *Income decile* was based on equivalized household income (Siermann et al. 2004). All controls variables (except gender) were time-varying.

Table 1 summarizes key differences by origin group in the analytical sample of individuals aged 22–42. Intergenerational co-residence was more common in the immigrant origin groups (about 21%–22%) than in the Dutch origin group (about 14%). Among those living independently, individuals of Dutch origin lived farthest from parents (about 23 km), followed by those of Surinamese origin (about 21 km) and Turkish origin (about 14 km). Relationship patterns also differed: people of Turkish origin had a higher prevalence of co-residential unions overall, characterized by lower cohabitation and higher marriage rates, whereas those of Surinamese origin had a higher proportion remaining single and experiencing partnership dissolution. The Dutch origin group also showed high levels of co-residential unions, driven mainly by cohabitation. Both origin groups, especially the Surinamese, were more likely than the Dutch origin group to have grown up in highly urbanized areas. In addition, parental co-residence was substantially less common among the Surinamese origin group. The larger imbalance between "distance to mother" and "distance to father" among the Surinamese origin group indicated more frequent father absence (not registered in the Netherlands), which likely reflected gendered emigration. Finally, socioeconomic profiles differ, as the Dutch origin group held the most advantaged positions in education, employment, and income, while the Surinamese origin group was generally better off than the Turkish origin group.

3.3 | Estimation

We examine how partnership formation and dissolution shape intergenerational geographical distance using an event-centered impact-function design (Brüderl and Ludwig 2015; Ludwig and Brüderl 2021). The impact-function approach estimates time-specific effects around discrete events and captures both anticipatory and lagged responses rather than assuming an immediate or constant impact. We estimate separate models for partnership formation and partnership dissolution over a window from 2 years before to 5 years after the event ($T = -2 \ldots +5$, with T0 the transition year). Person-years falling outside of the event window are included in the models as grouped tail categories ($T \leq -3$ and $T \geq +6$) and are reported in Tables A2–A5. Censoring occurs when individuals emigrate, die, or reach age 42. Individuals who do not experience the focal transition are identified by a separate binary no-transition indicator, because these person-years do not correspond to a true event-time position relative to a realized transition. Event windows are allowed to overlap between formation and dissolution. To account for proximate events, we include time-varying indicators in each model: partnership formation models control for childbirth and dissolution (separation and divorce), and partnership dissolution models control for partnering (cohabitation and marriage) and childbirth. These controls, with the exception of childbirth, mostly capture post-event occurrences, that is, separation after formation and re-partnering after dissolution. To avoid complexity, the adjustment for proximate events was not addressed with an impact function design.

We implement the impact functions in a two-part regression framework (Belotti et al. 2015). This framework is appropriate for our outcome, which includes a sizable share of zeros (co-residence) and a skewed distribution of distances when living apart. The first part of the two-part model estimates the probability of living apart from parents (co-residence versus any positive distance). The second part estimates geographical distance conditional on living apart using a generalized linear model (GLM) with a log link and Gamma family. The two components are estimated separately, implying that the processes governing co-residence and distance are independent conditional on observed covariates. Combining predictions from both parts yields an overall expected distance that reflects whether adult children live independently and how far they live if they do. This approach allows us to summarize expected distance across the full distribution using marginal effects, which aligns with our conceptualization of proximity as a continuum—from co-residence, to nearby independent living, to more distant moves. The formal model equations for the two-part specification and the derivation of marginal effects are provided in Appendix 1: Two-Part Model Specification. We present marginal effects over event time with confidence intervals. All models include the two sets of controls and are estimated with individual cluster-robust standard errors. Full estimates from both parts of the two-part model are provided in Tables A2–A5.

Our analysis proceeds in three steps. To understand how intergenerational distance changes around partnership formation and dissolution (RQ1) and whether these patterns vary across

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TABLE 1 | Descriptive statistics by immigrant group.

	Surinamese		Turkish		Dutch			
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**Min**	**Max**
Intergenerational distance (km)	16.39	31.72	10.99	27.46	20.22	36.50	0	315
Co-residence with parent(s)	0.21		0.22		0.14		0	1
Distance excl. co-residence	20.71	34.36	14.15	30.42	23.49	38.35	0.01	315
Partnership status								
Single	0.39		0.32		0.26		0	1
Cohabit	0.24		0.09		0.33		0	1
Married	0.16		0.46		0.28		0	1
Separated	0.20		0.09		0.11		0	1
Divorced	0.02		0.05		0.01		0	1
Background characteristics (age 15)								
Municipality density	4.49	0.85	4.30	0.90	3.16	1.24	1	5
Ten largest cities	0.62		0.45		0.11		0	1
Internal migration	0.05		0.03		0.03		0	1
Demographics and Socio-economic indicators								
Age	30.77	4.48	30.47	4.51	30.71	4.55	22	42
Female	0.50		0.48		0.49		0	1
Year	2015	4.50	2015	4.53	2015	4.53	2006	2022
Parent	0.42		0.48		0.39		0	1
Level of education								
Vocational or lower	0.67		0.72		0.52		0	1
Higher vocational	0.20		0.15		0.25		0	1
University	0.08		0.06		0.13		0	1
Missing	0.05		0.07		0.10		0	1
Employed	0.74		0.70		0.88		0	1
Income decile	5.32	2.79	4.83	2.69	6.31	2.57	1	10
Distance to which parent								
Both	0.26		0.59		0.59		0	1
Father	0.26		0.16		0.18		0	1
Mother	0.48		0.25		0.23		0	1
Number of events								
Partnership formation	33,026		28,451		47,434			
Partnership dissolution	21,252		13,301		22,519			
N persons	47,274		46,398		64,581			
N person-years	694,377		611,197		959,712			

Note: Means and standard deviations. Percentages may not add up exactly to 100 due to rounding. For data privacy reasons, the maximum intergenerational distance shown refers to the distance between the northernmost and southernmost points in the Netherlands, rather than the analytical distance derived from the data.
Source: Statistics Netherlands, own calculations.

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origin groups (RQ2), the first step estimates models on the full sample in which event time is interacted with origin group (Surinamese, Turkish, and Dutch). Results are presented in Figure 1. Tests for differences between origin groups are presented in Table 2.

In the second step, we examine gender differences in the effect of partnership formation and dissolution (RQ3). The models are estimated for each group separately and gender interactions are included. Results are presented in Figure 2 and Table 3.

In the third step, we address the role of home leaving for partnership formation and returning home for dissolution. To do so, we explore the change in distance from the event year (T0) to the following year (T+1) and decompose this change into two components: (i) the change in the share of adult children living independently (versus co-residing with parents), and (ii) the change in distance among those who already live independently. We estimate these components using two separate models: a logistic regression for independent living and a GLM with a Gamma family and log link for distance conditional on living independently. These models use the same pooled specification, controls, interactions, weights, and prediction settings as in the main analysis. From each model, we obtain predicted values at T0 and T+1. The total change in distance is then decomposed into (i) a co-residence effect (changing the probability of independent living while holding mean distance constant) and (ii) a distance effect (changing mean distance while holding the probability constant), averaging across the two possible orderings. Results are presented in Table 4 (partnership formation) and Table 5 (partnership dissolution).

4 | Results

4.1 | Group Differences in Proximity

How does parent–child geographical distance change in response to the adult child's partnership transitions? Figure 1 shows the predicted intergenerational distance from 2 years before to 5 years after partnership formation (left panel) and partnership dissolution (right panel). Focusing on partnership formation, the left panel of Figure 1 confirms that for all groups, partnership formation increases the distance between adult children and their parents. In the years after partnership formation, intergenerational distance remains relatively stable. Keep in mind that the starting point of observation was after children completed their formal schooling.

The left panel of Figure 1 further reveals that even after accounting for demographic, socioeconomic, and geographical background characteristics overall levels of intergenerational proximity differ by origin group. Among singles, in the years before they move in with a partner, individuals of Turkish origin live closest to their parents and those of Dutch origin live the farthest. The figure and the accompanying Table 2 show that the increase in distance following partnership formation is largest among Turkish origin adults (about 6.6 km), followed by Surinamese origin adults (about 5 km), and is smallest among individuals of Dutch origin (about 2.6 km). Wald tests reported in Table 2 corroborate these differences by showing that the increase is significantly larger in the immigrant groups than in the Dutch origin group, and larger for individuals of Turkish origin than for those of Surinamese origin. Despite this stronger divergence among immigrant families, couples of Turkish origin remain, on average, closer to parents, while those of Surinamese

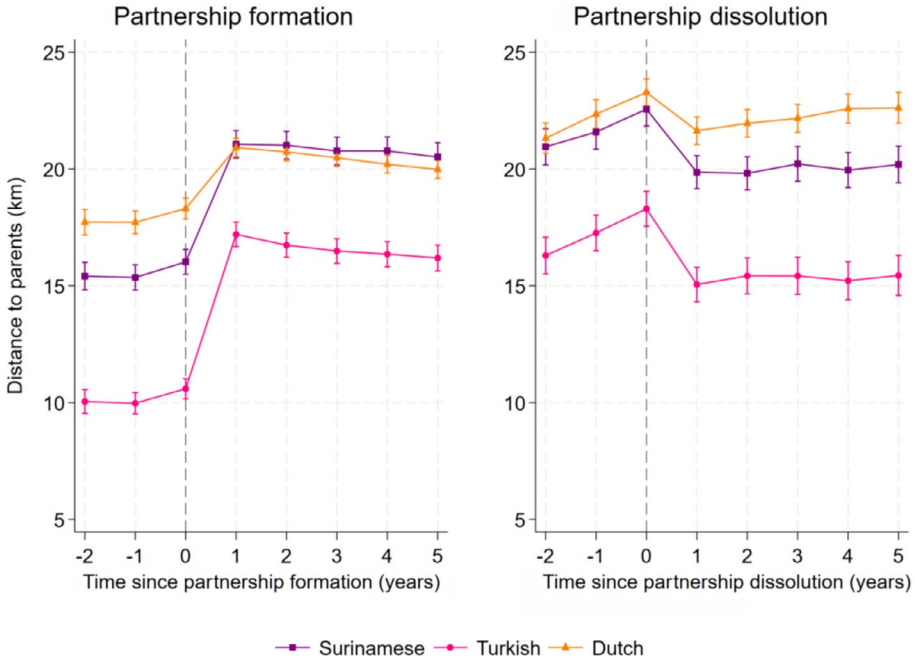


FIGURE 1 | Predicted intergenerational distance before and after partnership formation and dissolution by origin group (women and men combined)—between group comparison. *Note:* Marginal effects with 95% confidence intervals from a two-part model with all covariates held at their mean. Full model estimates provided in Table A2. *Source:* Statistics Netherlands, own calculations. [Color figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

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TABLE 2 | Change in distance from partnership transitions (T0) to T +1, by origin group, and cross-group contrasts.

	E[T0] (km)	E[T +1] (km)	Δ (T +1 − T0)	95% CI for Δ	*p*
Partnership formation					
Surinamese	16.02	21.06	+5.04	[4.64, 5.43]	0.000
Turkish	10.59	17.20	+6.61	[6.17, 7.06]	0.000
Dutch	18.31	20.92	+2.61	[2.05, 3.17]	0.000
Turkish–Surinamese (Δ difference)			1.57	[1.00, 2.14]	0.000
Surinamese–Dutch (Δ difference)			2.43	[1.94, 2.92]	0.000
Turkish–Dutch (Δ difference)			4.00	[3.46, 4.54]	0.000
Partnership dissolution					
Surinamese	22.56	19.86	−2.70	[−3.13, −2.27]	0.000
Turkish	18.30	15.05	−3.24	[−3.80, −2.69]	0.000
Dutch	23.28	21.64	−1.64	[−2.01, −1.27]	0.000
Turkish–Surinamese (Δ difference)			−0.54	[−1.24, 0.15]	0.124
Surinamese–Dutch (Δ difference)			−1.06	[−1.61, −0.51]	0.000
Turkish–Dutch (Δ difference)			−1.60	[−2.26, −0.94]	0.000

Note: Marginal effects with 95% confidence intervals from a two-part model with all covariates held at their mean. Group differences in the change are assessed with postestimation Wald tests.
Source: Statistics Netherlands, own calculations.

origin show similar levels of proximity in the years following formation compared to individuals of Dutch origin.

Focusing on partnership dissolution, the right panel of Figure 1 shows a clear convergence. Across all groups, intergenerational distance decreases in the year after relationships dissolve. Table 2 reports decreases of about 3.2 km among individuals of Turkish origin, about 2.7 km among individuals of Surinamese origin, and about 1.6 km among those of Dutch origin. The table confirms a stronger convergence effect of partnership dissolution among the immigrant groups than among the Dutch origin group, while the difference between individuals of Turkish and Surinamese origin is statistically non-significant. Coupled with an observed gradual rebound (an increase in distance) in the years after dissolution among separated individuals of Dutch origin, the right panel of Figure 1 further shows that the stronger convergence effect among the immigrant groups results in separated individuals of Dutch origin living farther away from their parents than those of Surinamese origin.

4.2 | Within-Group Gender Differences in Proximity

How do men and women within each origin group differ in levels of proximity around partnership formation and dissolution and in how proximity changes around these transitions? Figure 2 shows the predicted intergenerational distances stratified by gender within each origin group. Starting with partnership formation, the left panels of Figure 2 show that before the transition, among individuals of Turkish origin, men live closer to their parents than women, while in the Surinamese and Dutch origin groups there is no gender gap. Following the transition, intergenerational distance increases for both women and men in all three origin groups, with the increase being larger for women. The accompanying Table 3 indicates that the stronger gender divergence after partnership formation is especially pronounced among the Turkish origin group: women of Turkish origin live on average about 8 km farther from their parents than men in the year after moving in with a partner. Among Surinamese and Dutch origin couples, the gender gap in the first year of partnership is smaller, about 2.5 km. In all groups, the gender gap largely remains and only slightly narrows over the first 5 years of partnership, as women tend to move closer to their parents slightly more than men.

Focusing on partnership dissolution, the right panels of Figure 2 reveal that in all groups both men and women move closer to their parents right after separation. While among the Turkish origin group women tend to move closer to their parents than men, the effect of partnership dissolution is similar for women and men in both the Surinamese and Dutch origin groups (see the groups' women–men Δ differences in Table 3). Concerning overall levels of intergenerational proximity, separated women and men of both Surinamese and Dutch origin live at roughly the same distance from their parents over the 5 years following separation, whereas among those of Turkish origin—despite women's stronger convergence—women still tend to live farther from parents than men. Finally, Figure 2 shows that, as in Figure 1, a slight gradual increase in intergenerational distance after partnership dissolution is visible only among separated individuals of Dutch origin, for both women and men.

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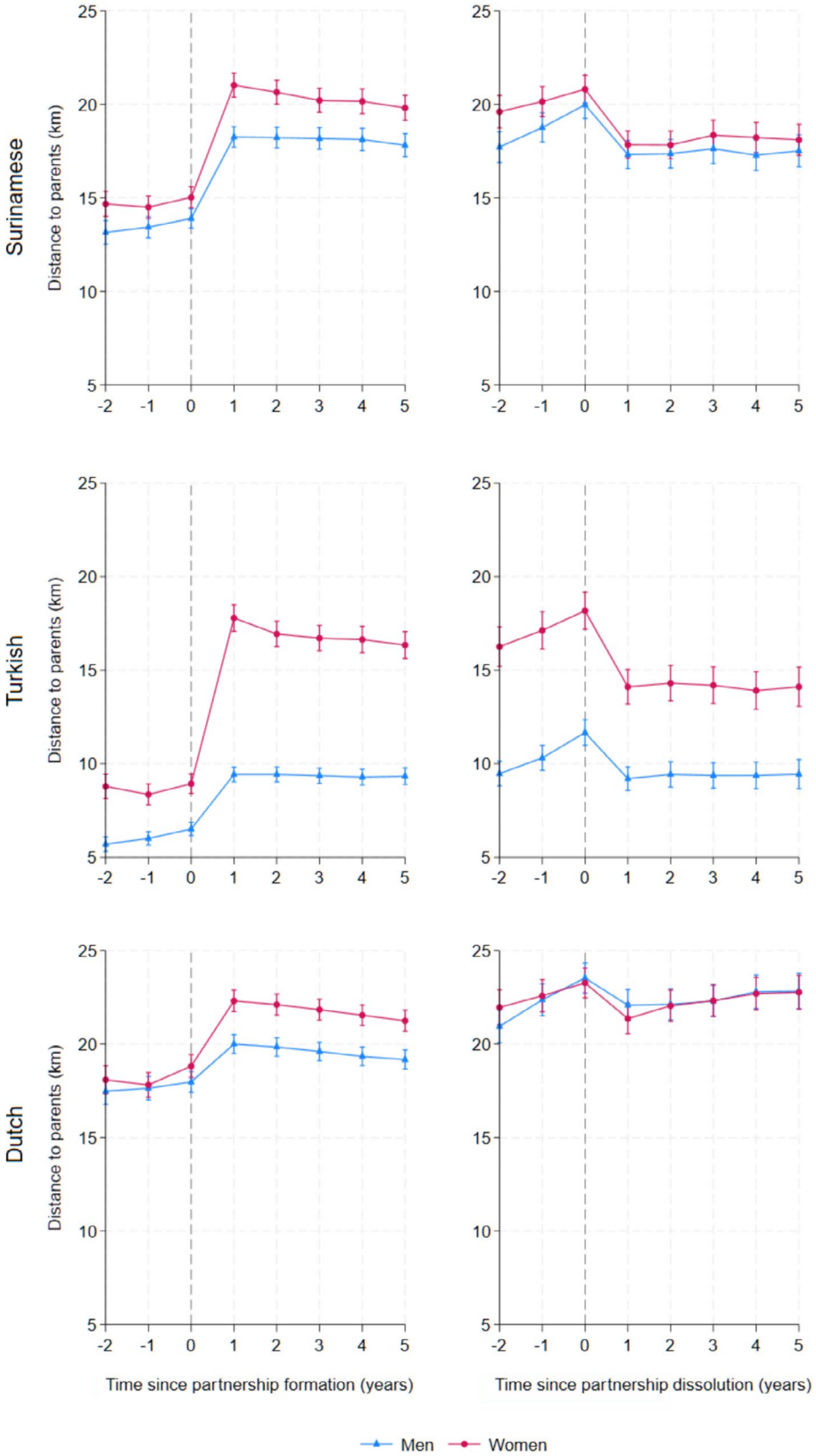


FIGURE 2 | Predicted intergenerational distance before and after partnership formation (left) and dissolution (right) by origin group and gender—within group comparisons. *Note:* Marginal effects with 95% confidence intervals from a two-part model with all covariates held at their mean. Full model estimates provided in Tables A3–A5. *Source:* Statistics Netherlands, own calculations. [Color figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

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TABLE 3 | Change in distance from partnership transitions (T0) to T +1, by origin group and gender, and cross-gender contrasts.

	E[T0] (km)	E[T +1] (km)	Δ (T +1 − T0)	95% CI for Δ	*p*
Partnership formation					
Surinamese					
Women	15.02	21.02	6.00	[5.50, 6.50]	0.000
Men	13.90	18.25	4.35	[3.91, 4.80]	0.000
Women–men (Δ difference)			1.64	[0.99, 2.29]	0.000
Turkish					
Women	8.93	17.79	8.86	[8.23, 9.49]	0.000
Men	6.51	9.43	2.91	[2.57, 3.25]	0.000
Women–men (Δ difference)			5.95	[5.25, 6.65]	0.000
Dutch					
Women	18.83	22.31	3.48	[3.00, 3.96]	0.000
Men	17.98	20.00	2.02	[1.61, 2.44]	0.000
Women–men (Δ difference)			1.46	[0.86, 2.07]	0.000
Partnership dissolution					
Surinamese					
Women	20.80	17.84	−2.96	[−3.48, −2.45]	0.000
Men	19.97	17.31	−2.66	[−3.21, −2.12]	0.000
Women–men (Δ difference)			−0.30	[−1.04, 0.44]	0.426
Turkish					
Women	18.18	14.11	−4.07	[−4.82, −3.32]	0.000
Men	11.67	9.20	−2.47	[−3.03, −1.90]	0.000
Women–men (Δ difference)			−1.60	[−2.53, −0.67]	0.001
Dutch					
Women	23.27	21.37	−1.90	[−2.44, −1.36]	0.000
Men	23.53	22.08	−1.45	[−1.95, −0.94]	0.000
Women–men (Δ difference)			−0.45	[−1.18, 0.27]	0.222

Note: Marginal effects with 95% confidence intervals from a two-part model with all covariates held at their mean. Group differences in the change are assessed with postestimation Wald tests.
Source: Statistics Netherlands, own calculations.

4.3 | Does Co-Residence Explain Changes in Proximity?

In this section, we explore the mechanisms underlying changes in intergenerational proximity, focusing on two key processes: home leaving for partnership formation and home returning for partnership dissolution. Table 4 presents the decomposition of the change in intergenerational distance following partnership formation and shows clear group differences. Among individuals of Turkish origin, 41% of the increase in distance is explained by the transition into independent living, meaning that much of the divergence reflects additional distancing among those already living independently. Among individuals of Surinamese origin, by contrast, 77% of the increase is explained by the transition into independent living. For individuals of Dutch origin, the mean distance among those already living independently *decreases*, so the divergence associated with partnership formation is explained entirely by moving out of the parental home.

Focusing on gender differences within each origin group, Table 4 indicates broadly similar patterns with subtle nuances. In both immigrant groups, the probability of living independently plays a larger role for men, while among women the contribution of both components is more equal, as leaving home for partnership formation explains about 58% of the total increase in distance for Surinamese and 48% for Turkish adults. Among individuals of Dutch origin, the increase in intergenerational distance is fully explained by leaving home. Interestingly, for men, the mean distance (among the independent) component is negative, implying

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TABLE 4 | Decomposition of changes in distance from *partnership formation* (T0) to T +1, for the between origin-group contrasts and the within origin-group gender contrasts.

	E[T0] (km)	E[T +1] (km)	ΔE (km)	Co-residence component (km)	Distance component (km)	Co-residence (% of ΔE)	Distance (% of ΔE)
Between							
Surinamese	16.02	21.06	+5.04	+3.91	+1.13	77.6%	22.4%
Turkish	10.59	17.20	+6.61	+2.72	+3.89	41.1%	58.9%
Dutch	18.31	20.92	+2.61	+3.88	−1.27	148.7%	−48.7%
Within							
Surinamese							
Women	15.02	21.02	5.99	3.45	2.55	57.6%	42.6%
Men	13.90	18.25	4.35	3.87	0.48	89.0%	11.0%
Turkish							
Women	8.93	17.79	8.86	4.29	4.57	48.4%	51.6%
Men	6.51	9.43	2.91	2.23	0.68	76.6%	23.4%
Dutch							
Women	18.83	22.31	3.48	3.55	−0.07	102.0%	−2.0%
Men	17.98	20.00	2.02	4.22	−2.20	208.9%	−108.9%

Note: Estimates come from a two-factor decomposition of the effect of partnership formation on intergenerational distance. The co-residence (extensive) component is obtained from a logit model of living independently (vs. co-residing); the distance (intensive) component is obtained from a GLM (Gamma family, log link) for distance among those living independently. The table reports expected distance from the combined models at T0 and T +1, the total change, and each component shown in kilometers and as a share (%) of the predicted change. Negative changes indicate convergence (moving closer to parents) and positive changes divergence (moving farther from parents). Percentages may exceed 100% or be negative when components offset.
Source: Statistics Netherlands, own calculations.

that men of Dutch origin who were already living independently move on average 2.2 km closer to their parents when they move in with their partner.

Turning to the role of returning home after partnership dissolution, Table 5 shows the results of the decomposition of the change in intergenerational distance after separation. Across groups, overall patterns are similar. Both the increase in co-residence with parents and the reduction in distance among those who remain independent are negative, meaning that convergence toward parents is driven by both channels. Interestingly, the absolute contribution of the co-residence component is remarkably similar across groups, between −1.2 and −1.6 km, suggesting that returning to the parental home plays a comparable role for all. What differs is the size of the distance component. Among individuals of Dutch origin, the reduction in distance among those who remained independent is negligible (−0.4 km) and explains about 25% of the total change. In the Surinamese origin group, the absolute geographical convergence among those who remain independent is more important (about −1.1 km), explaining about 40% of the overall decrease. And among individuals of Turkish origin, the contribution of the decrease in the mean distance among those living independently (about 1.8 km) contributed more substantially to the overall convergence than returning home, explaining about 57% of the decrease.

Concerning within-group gender differences, Table 5 highlights three main findings. First, across all groups, the co-residence component accounts for a larger share of men's convergence than women's, meaning that men return to the parental home more often than women following partnership dissolution. Second, this gender gap is most pronounced among the Surinamese origin group, where men's convergence after separation is predominantly driven by returning home, while women's is almost evenly split between the two components. Third, although the absolute (km) contribution of the co-residence component is roughly similar for men and women within each group, among adult children of immigrants the mean distance (among the independent) component significantly contributes more to women's convergence. This additional geographical convergence also helps explain why the overall effect of partnership dissolution on intergenerational proximity is stronger among immigrant families.

5 | Discussion

In this study, we asked how the geographical distance between adult children of immigrants and their parents changes in response to partnership formation and dissolution. By studying different origin groups and adopting a before-and-after impact function approach to examine the effect of the two transitions, our findings provide new evidence on life course dynamics in intergenerational proximity.

There were clear group differences in the effects of partnership transitions. The effect of partnership formation was significant

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TABLE 5 | Decomposition of changes in distance from *partnership dissolution* (T0) to T +1, for the between origin-group contrasts and the within origin-group gender contrasts.

	E[T0] (km)	E[T +1] (km)	ΔE (km)	Co-residence component (km)	Distance component (km)	Co-residence (% of ΔE)	Distance (% of ΔE)
Between							
Surinamese	22.56	19.86	−2.70	−1.63	−1.07	60.4%	39.6%
Turkish	18.30	15.05	−3.24	−1.40	−1.84	43.2%	56.8%
Dutch	23.28	21.64	−1.64	−1.23	−0.41	74.9%	25.1%
Within							
Surinamese							
Women	20.80	17.84	−2.96	−1.51	−1.45	51.0%	49.0%
Men	19.97	17.31	−2.66	−2.00	−0.66	75.2%	24.8%
Turkish							
Women	18.18	14.11	−4.07	−1.79	−2.28	44.0%	56.0%
Men	11.67	9.20	−2.47	−1.37	−1.09	55.5%	44.1%
Dutch							
Women	23.27	21.37	−1.90	−1.35	−0.55	71.1%	28.9%
Men	23.53	22.08	−1.45	−1.15	−0.30	79.3%	20.7%

Note: Estimates come from a two-factor decomposition of the effect of partnership dissolution on intergenerational distance. The co-residence (extensive) component is obtained from a logit model of living independently (vs. co-residing); the distance (intensive) component is obtained from a GLM (Gamma family, log link) for distance among those living independently. The table reports expected distance from the combined models at T0 and T +1, the total change, and each component shown in kilometers and as a share (%) of the predicted change. Negative changes indicate convergence (moving closer to parents) and positive changes divergence (moving farther from parents). Percentages may exceed 100% or be negative when components offset.
Source: Statistics Netherlands, own calculations.

and varied by origin group, as intergenerational geographical distance increased by roughly 5 km among individuals of Surinamese origin, 7 km among those of Turkish origin, and 3 km among individuals of Dutch origin. These findings support Hypothesis 1a, which expected stronger divergence among the immigrant groups than among the Dutch origin group, and Hypothesis 1b, which expected the largest increase among individuals of Turkish origin. The stronger divergence among immigrant families, especially among individuals of Turkish origin, was expected given their closer baseline proximity to parents before forming a union. Indeed, singles of Turkish origin lived closest to their parents, followed by those of Surinamese origin, with individuals of Dutch origin living the farthest. Interestingly, the decomposition showed that this stronger divergence among individuals of Turkish origin was not primarily driven by home leaving, but mainly by increasing distance among the independent. In contrast, for individuals of Surinamese origin, most of the increase was explained by the transition into independent living, and for individuals of Dutch origin it was explained entirely by home leaving.

One plausible interpretation is that, after leaving home, adult children in immigrant families—particularly those of Turkish origin—tend to remain relatively close to their parents. As a result, moving in with a partner is more likely to increase the distance to parents than in groups where adult children already lived farther away while single. Although some people may form a partnership with someone who already lives in the same area as their parents, the average pattern still points to a larger increase in distance at union formation in these groups. In contrast, for individuals of Dutch origin, who after leaving home more often move over longer distances (Pertzikovitz et al. 2025), partnering may be more likely to occur with someone they met while already living at a distance from both sets of parents. Moreover, in a context with weaker traditional obligations to live close to either family, couples could simply remain in these locations when they moved in together, rather than relocating again for kin-related reasons.

Following partnership dissolution, intergenerational geographical distances decreased significantly, but to different degrees across groups. In line with Hypothesis 2a, adult children of immigrants moved closer to their parents than individuals of Dutch origin. Individuals of Surinamese origin lived at similar distances to their parents as individuals of Dutch origin in the year before dissolution, yet showed a significantly stronger convergence afterwards (2.7 km versus 1.6 km). Hypothesis 2b was not supported, as the convergence effect among individuals of Turkish origin, although the largest in magnitude (about 3.2 km), did not differ significantly from that among individuals of Surinamese origin.

The decomposition shed further light on these mechanisms. In absolute terms, returning to the parental home contributed a similar reduction in distance across groups, of about 1.5 km for both adult children of immigrants and of Dutch. The stronger overall

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convergence among individuals of Surinamese and Turkish origin was therefore not driven by higher rates of returning home, but by additional geographical convergence among those who remained independent. This suggests that, while adult children of immigrants were about as likely as those of Dutch origin to move back in with their parents, they were more likely to adjust their independent housing in ways that brought them closer to kin. Moreover, the gradual and slight increase in distance observed during the first 5 years after separation among individuals of Dutch origin suggests that returning to the parental home may have functioned more as a temporary arrangement in this group, although this interpretation would require more detailed analysis of subsequent moves. Taken together, while one must be cautious not to interpret these patterns as direct evidence of support needs (which register data cannot establish), they are consistent with earlier findings that ethnic minorities, particularly individuals of Turkish origin, tend to rely more on family networks in the aftermath of divorce (Hogendoorn and Kalmijn 2024).

These patterns point to the increasing importance of kin proximity following partnership dissolution, particularly among adult children of immigrants. However, closer proximity to parents is not necessarily an unqualified advantage. Living close to one's parents facilitates support exchanges but may also generate expectations and obligations that weigh on both generations. Our findings showed that after partnership dissolution, adult children across all groups—including those of Dutch origin—returned to the parental home at similar rates. Yet the implications of this strategy may differ across families. In many immigrant households, housing conditions tend to be more crowded and of lower quality than among native-born families (Van Kempen 2005), making co-residence a more demanding arrangement for both parents and adult children. In such contexts, returning home may intensify daily pressures rather than alleviate them. For adult children of immigrants, close proximity can further create competing responsibilities, as the demands of supporting parents may coincide with the needs of their own households. From the parental perspective, having adult children nearby can be an important source of emotional and practical help, but it may also give rise to feelings of burden or dependency. Thus, while geographical closeness can promote security and facilitate care, it may simultaneously introduce strains for both generations. These dynamics warrant attention in a future of more diverse and aging European populations.

There were also clear gender differences in each origin group. First, across all origin groups, women moved further away from their parents than men when forming a union, supporting Hypothesis 4. That this gender imbalance was evident across groups suggests that men's residential location and opportunities carry somewhat more weight in couples' initial location decisions, with women more often adjusting to their partner's location. This interpretation is consistent with evidence that women are somewhat more likely than men to move for the sake of their partner during the transition into co-residence (Brandén and Haandrikman 2019). The decomposition strengthened this interpretation by showing that men's increase in distance was driven primarily by home leaving—which is a necessary step in our definition of partnership formation—whereas women's increase more often reflected additional distancing after they were already living independently. However, these findings should not be taken to imply that a gendered imbalance persists once couples are established, as recent work indicates that residential decision-making among co-residing partners tends to be largely gender-neutral (Kooiman and Das 2022). Note also that this interpretation in terms of gender inequality assumes that both partners (or their parents) have a desire to live close to their own family after partnership formation.

Second, for men more than for women, the reduction in intergenerational distance following a separation was largely explained by their return to their parents' home, especially in immigrant families. This gender difference may be influenced by parenthood. Mothers are less likely than fathers to move back in with their parents after separation (Stone et al. 2014), a trend especially notable among separated couples with a migration background (Mortelmans et al. 2020). In the context of generous welfare systems, the separated parent who retains custody and continues living with their children, typically the mother, is more likely to qualify for welfare support such as social housing than the non-resident parent, allowing (or constraining) them to rely on these resources rather than on their parents. At the same time, their childcare responsibilities restrict their ability to work and pursue better job opportunities, which in turn limits their financial resources and makes it harder for them to afford better housing conditions.

Third, across the studied groups, women tended to live farther from their parents than men, but the size of this gender gap varied markedly by origin group. In line with Hypothesis 3a, the gender gap in distance among couples was substantial in the Turkish origin group, where proximity favored his rather than her parents by about 8 km. By contrast, and consistent with Hypothesis 3b, in the Surinamese origin group, this gender gap was much smaller (less than 3 km). These findings indicate that traditional kinship systems persist in the destination country, with patrilocal norms appearing among the Turkish origin group and a probable combination of patrilocal and matrilocal practices among the Surinamese, in line with recent evidence on the persistence of kinship systems in immigrant populations (Kaur et al. 2024). These gender differences in proximity also extended to responses to partnership transitions, which were most strongly gendered among individuals of Turkish origin. In line with Hypothesis 5a, women of Turkish origin showed a particularly strong increase in distance to parents following partnership formation, while in line with Hypothesis 5b they also showed a particularly strong decrease following partnership dissolution. This suggests that gendered kinship and descent systems shape not only overall proximity patterns, but also how men and women adjust their residential location around key life-course transitions. To fully capture these dynamics, future research should adopt a couple-focused perspective and incorporate information on the living locations of both sets of parents. Such an analytical setup, which also considers partner characteristics, could shed light on the role of interethnic unions in shaping proximity patterns. For example, interethnic partnerships are relatively common among individuals of Surinamese origin but far less so among those of Turkish origin (Statistics Netherlands 2025). This may partly explain why proximity patterns among the Surinamese more closely resemble those of the Dutch in terms of changes around partnership transitions, overall distance to parents, and gendered proximity.

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Our analytic framework also allowed us to observe changes in proximity to one's parents both before and after partnership transitions. Partnership formation was associated with an immediate increase in distance to parents, but among women this was followed by a small decrease in the subsequent period. One possible interpretation is that this pattern reflects the close temporal proximity of partnership formation, subsequent dissolution, and residential moves, which are not fully disentangled in our design. At the same time, the gender-specific nature of the decrease may also point to ongoing adjustments within couples, with women moving somewhat closer to their own parents after the initial relocation associated with partnership formation. We also observed a modest but consistent increase in distance to parents in the period just before partnership dissolution. This anticipatory pattern may likewise reflect the close sequencing of partnership transitions and mobility, but it may also reflect tensions within partnerships over residential location, including disagreement about living farther from family or other social ties. Because geographical mobility and partnership transitions often occur in close succession, these patterns are difficult to disentangle fully. We therefore interpret both the post-formation decrease and the pre-dissolution increase in distance as part of overlapping residential and partnership trajectories rather than as evidence of distinct mechanisms.

Besides not addressing the couple-level perspective, which was beyond the scope of our study, we acknowledge two more limitations. One limitation was that although the data allow identification of which party moved, our analytical framework does not model parent and child mobility separately. We assume that changes in intergenerational distance primarily reflect moves by adult children, who are more mobile in response to and around their own life transitions (Smits 2010; Thomas and Dommermuth 2020). A multi-actor approach that explicitly distinguishes whether the parent or the adult child moved would be required to separate their mobility patterns, but this was beyond the scope of our design. Another limitation was the lack of detailed information on the international emigration of adult children and parents. While we could infer from the data whether individuals moved out of the Netherlands, no detailed information was available thereafter. This limitation is particularly relevant for children of immigrants, who tend to migrate internationally more often than their native peers (de Jong 2022; de Jong and de Valk 2023) and are also more likely to have parents living abroad, although such cases are still a small minority. A more comprehensive understanding of parent–child proximity would require the linkage of register data across countries. While such infrastructure is currently limited, especially for non-European origin countries, recent initiatives within Europe illustrate the potential of cross-national register data. Though still in early stages, these efforts are essential to advancing research on intergenerational ties.

In sum, our study shows that major life transitions significantly influence intergenerational proximity, but also that the nature and strength of these effects vary across origin groups. Although our focus was on the Netherlands—a small, densely populated country—the findings likely extend to other national contexts. Prior research has shown that in countries such as the US (Choi et al. 2021), Sweden (Kolk 2017), and Germany (Hünteler and Mulder 2020), most adults still live within 20 km or 30 min of their parents (in line with the figure for the Dutch origin group), suggesting that close proximity is a common feature of family life even in geographically larger or more dispersed settings. Furthermore, the origin groups examined here also represent sizable communities in other European countries (e.g., people of Turkish origin in Germany and people of Caribbean origin in the UK), where similar urban settlement patterns may be observed. Viewed through the life course perspective of linked lives, our findings show that adult children's partnership trajectories not only reshape their own residential location, but may also affect opportunities for contact and support for both generations. Overall, the findings point to an approach in family geography that examines intergenerational proximity as a dynamic and relational process, and that takes into account heterogeneities between and within groups. They also call for a more explicit integration of family geography into demographic and migration research, including attention to how intergenerational ties may contribute to longer-term residential patterns and inequalities.

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Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Data Availability Statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available from Statistics Netherlands. Restrictions apply to the availability of these data, which were used under license for this study.

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Appendix 1

Two-Part Model Specification

In the first part of the two-part models, for each transition, we estimated the probability of independent living using logit models for the binary outcome of zero (co-residence) versus any positive value of distance (living apart). Let $D_{it} \geq 0$ denote the geographical distance between individual i and their parents at time t, and define an indicator for living independently as

$$I_{it} = 1\left(D_{it} > 0\right)$$

The first part of the model is:

$$P\left(I_{it} = 1 |\ \boldsymbol{T_{it}}, \boldsymbol{B_i}, \boldsymbol{C_{it}}\right) = logit^{-1}\left(\alpha + \boldsymbol{\beta_1 T_{it}} + \boldsymbol{\gamma B_i} + \boldsymbol{\lambda C_{it}}\right)$$

Here $I_{it} = 1$ indicates that individual i lives independently at time t, while $I_{it} = 0$ indicates co-residing with parents. $\boldsymbol{T_{it}}$ represents the time relative to the transition event (impact-function specification), and the coefficients $\boldsymbol{\beta_1}$ capture the association between event-time and the probability of living independently. In the pooled specifications, the event-time indicators are interacted with an indicator for experiencing the transition, allowing event-time profiles to differ between the transition and no-transition groups. $\boldsymbol{B_i}$ refers to the time-constant indicators, with $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$ as their coefficients. $\boldsymbol{C_{it}}$ represents the time-varying control variables, with $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ as their coefficients. α is the intercept.

In the second part, we model geographical distance conditional on living independently, using a generalized linear model with a Gamma distribution and log link:

$$E\left(D_{it} \mid\ D_{it} > 0, \boldsymbol{T_{it}}, \boldsymbol{B_i}, \boldsymbol{C_{it}}\right) = \exp\left(\delta + \boldsymbol{\beta_2 T_{it}} + \boldsymbol{\theta B_i} + \boldsymbol{\mu C_{it}}\right)$$

This part of the model estimates expected intergenerational distance among those not co-residing with parents. The coefficients $\boldsymbol{\beta_2}$ capture the association between event-time and expected intergenerational distance among those living independently. $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ are the coefficients of the time-constant and time-varying control variables, respectively. δ is the intercept.

The two predicted components were combined to generate the overall expected distance (unconditional mean):

$$E\left(D_{it} |\ \boldsymbol{T_{it}}, \boldsymbol{B_i}, \boldsymbol{C_{it}}\right) = P\left(I_{it} = 1 |\ \boldsymbol{T_{it}}, \boldsymbol{B_i}, \boldsymbol{C_{it}}\right) \times E\left(D_{it} \mid\ D_{it} > 0, \boldsymbol{T_{it}}, \boldsymbol{B_i}, \boldsymbol{C_{it}}\right)$$

Marginal effects reported in the figures and tables are based on this unconditional expectation, evaluated at specific values of $\boldsymbol{T_{it}}$ (and, where relevant, by subgroup such as gender or origin, consistent with the interaction terms included in the model specification).

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TABLE A1 | Demographic composition of observations excluded due to missingness.

	Surinamese		Turkish		Dutch			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	Min	Max
Demographics								
Age	30.70	4.69	30.38	5.05	30.34	4.92	22	42
Female	0.33		0.38		0.40		0	1
N person-years	29,437		24,483		17,765			
Percentage of group sample	4.2%		4%		1.9%			

Note: Means and standard deviations. Percentages indicate the share of each origin-group sample excluded due to missingness. About 70% of excluded observations are due to missing income information. Because income is observed on a near-complete basis, missing values likely reflect individuals or families not living in regular households, for example in institutional settings.
Source: Statistics Netherlands, own calculations.

TABLE A2 | Two-part regression models of intergenerational distance: Between group comparison.

	Partnership formation				Partnership dissolution			
	logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)		logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)	
Variables	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**
Origin group								
Surinamese (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
Turkish	**0.22**	0.02	**−0.21**	0.02	**0.17**	0.02	**−0.25**	0.02
Dutch	**1.14**	0.03	0.00	0.02	**1.04**	0.02	−0.05	0.02
Transition × origin group								
Surinamese								
T ≤ −3	**0.15**	0.02	−0.05	0.02	**−1.57**	0.04	**−0.09**	0.02
T−2	0.03	0.02	**−0.05**	0.01	**−1.08**	0.04	**−0.04**	0.01
T−1	−0.03	0.01	**−0.04**	0.01	**−0.52**	0.04	**−0.03**	0.01
T 0 (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
T+1	**2.38**	0.03	**0.06**	0.01	**−1.82**	0.04	**−0.05**	0.01
T+2	**2.01**	0.03	**0.07**	0.01	**−1.85**	0.04	**−0.05**	0.01
T+3	**1.85**	0.03	**0.06**	0.01	**−1.88**	0.04	−0.03	0.01
T+4	**1.70**	0.03	**0.07**	0.01	**−1.93**	0.04	−0.04	0.01
T+5	**1.61**	0.03	**0.06**	0.01	**−1.98**	0.05	−0.02	0.02
T ≥ +6	**1.49**	0.03	**0.08**	0.02	**−2.03**	0.05	0.02	0.02
Turkish								
T ≤ −3	**0.21**	0.02	−0.04	0.03	**−1.26**	0.05	**−0.17**	0.03
T−2	0.02	0.02	−0.06	0.02	**−0.95**	0.05	**−0.09**	0.02
T−1	**−0.05**	0.02	**−0.05**	0.01	**−0.35**	0.04	**−0.05**	0.01
T 0 (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
T+1	**1.90**	0.03	**0.29**	0.02	**−1.76**	0.05	**−0.11**	0.02
T+2	**1.92**	0.03	**0.26**	0.02	**−1.83**	0.05	**−0.08**	0.02
T+3	**1.86**	0.03	**0.25**	0.02	**−1.92**	0.05	**−0.07**	0.02
T+4	**1.78**	0.03	**0.24**	0.02	**−1.96**	0.05	**−0.08**	0.02
T+5	**1.68**	0.03	**0.23**	0.02	**−1.98**	0.05	−0.06	0.03
T ≥ +6	**1.54**	0.03	**0.19**	0.02	**−2.04**	0.06	−0.08	0.03
Dutch								
T ≤ −3	**0.29**	0.02	−0.05	0.02	**−2.99**	0.07	**−0.08**	0.02
T−2	**0.18**	0.01	**−0.06**	0.01	**−2.36**	0.07	**−0.07**	0.01
T−1	**0.07**	0.01	**−0.05**	0.01	**−1.61**	0.07	**−0.03**	0.01

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TABLE A2 | (Continued)

	Partnership formation				Partnership dissolution			
	logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)		logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)	
Variables	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**
T 0 (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
T +1	**4.21**	0.04	**−0.06**	0.01	**−3.25**	0.07	−0.02	0.01
T +2	**3.41**	0.03	**−0.07**	0.01	**−2.95**	0.07	−0.02	0.01
T +3	**3.10**	0.03	**−0.08**	0.01	**−2.85**	0.08	−0.01	0.01
T +4	**2.91**	0.03	**−0.09**	0.01	**−2.76**	0.08	0.00	0.01
T +5	**2.83**	0.03	**−0.10**	0.01	**−2.75**	0.08	0.00	0.01
T ≥ +6	**2.71**	0.03	**−0.13**	0.02	**−2.74**	0.08	0.03	0.02
Early life characteristics (age 15)								
Municipal density								
1—low (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
2	−0.08	0.03	**−0.13**	0.02	−0.04	0.03	**−0.13**	0.02
3	0.01	0.03	**−0.28**	0.03	0.02	0.03	**−0.28**	0.02
4	0.06	0.03	**−0.25**	0.02	0.06	0.03	**−0.26**	0.02
5—high	0.01	0.04	**−0.39**	0.03	−0.01	0.04	**−0.39**	0.03
Ten largest cities	**−0.18**	0.03	−0.03	0.03	**−0.17**	0.03	−0.03	0.03
Internal migration	**0.34**	0.06	**0.67**	0.03	**0.30**	0.05	**0.67**	0.03
Demographics and Socioeconomic indicators								
Women	**0.81**	0.02	**0.05**	0.01	**0.85**	0.02	**0.04**	0.01
Age	**0.77**	0.02	−0.01	0.01	**1.12**	0.02	−0.02	0.01
Age^2	**−0.01**	0.00	0.00	0.00	**−0.01**	0.00	**0.00**	0.00
Level of education								
Vocational or lower (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
Higher vocational	**0.84**	0.02	**0.46**	0.02	**0.63**	0.02	**0.48**	0.02
University	**1.49**	0.03	**1.07**	0.02	**1.21**	0.03	**1.09**	0.02
Missing	0.08	0.03	**−0.25**	0.03	0.07	0.03	**−0.24**	0.03
Employed	**1.37**	0.02	**−0.20**	0.01	**1.42**	0.02	**−0.19**	0.01
Income decile	**−0.38**	0.00	**0.02**	0.00	**−0.35**	0.00	**0.02**	0.00
Which parent								
Both (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
Father	**1.50**	0.03	**0.54**	0.01	**1.36**	0.03	**0.53**	0.01
Mother	**0.51**	0.02	**0.30**	0.01	**0.44**	0.02	**0.28**	0.01
Separation	**2.63**	0.06	**0.18**	0.01	—	—	—	—
Divorce	**2.21**	0.10	0.04	0.03	—	—	—	—
Cohabitation	—	—	—	—	**−1.09**	0.01	**0.05**	0.01
Marriage	—	—	—	—	**0.52**	0.02	0.02	0.01
First childbirth	**0.87**	0.02	**−0.02**	0.01	**1.27**	0.02	−0.02	0.01
Constant	**−13.12**	0.24	**2.85**	0.16	**−19.19**	0.24	**3.07**	0.16
Person-years	2,265,286				2,265,286			
Persons	158,253				158,253			

Note: Bold coefficients are statistically significant at $p < 0.001$. Models account for the no-transition indicator and year.
Abbreviations: Coef., coefficients; SE, standard error.
Source: Statistics Netherlands, own calculations.

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TABLE A3 | Two-part regression models of intergenerational distance: Within-group (Surinamese) gender comparison.

	Partnership formation				Partnership dissolution			
	logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)		logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)	
Variables	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**
Gender								
Men (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
Women	**0.97**	0.03	0.04	0.03	**0.72**	0.02	0.07	0.02
Transition × gender								
Men								
T ≤ −3	**−0.12**	0.02	−0.05	0.03	**−1.97**	0.05	**−0.12**	0.03
T−2	**−0.07**	0.02	−0.04	0.02	**−1.38**	0.05	−0.05	0.02
T−1	**−0.06**	0.02	−0.02	0.01	**−0.85**	0.04	−0.03	0.01
T 0 (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
T +1	**2.29**	0.04	0.03	0.01	**−1.78**	0.05	−0.04	0.01
T +2	**2.00**	0.03	0.04	0.02	**−1.79**	0.05	−0.03	0.02
T +3	**1.87**	0.03	0.04	0.02	**−1.77**	0.05	−0.02	0.02
T +4	**1.76**	0.04	0.04	0.02	**−1.80**	0.05	−0.03	0.02
T +5	**1.67**	0.04	0.03	0.02	**−1.83**	0.05	−0.02	0.02
T ≥ +6	**1.50**	0.04	0.06	0.02	**−1.85**	0.06	0.02	0.02
Women								
T ≤ −3	**0.14**	0.03	−0.05	0.03	**−1.39**	0.05	**−0.08**	0.02
T−2	0.04	0.02	−0.03	0.02	**−0.89**	0.05	−0.03	0.02
T−1	−0.03	0.02	−0.03	0.01	**−0.54**	0.05	−0.02	0.01
T 0 (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
T +1	**2.47**	0.05	**0.14**	0.01	**−1.56**	0.06	**−0.08**	0.01
T +2	**2.09**	0.04	**0.13**	0.01	**−1.37**	0.06	**−0.09**	0.02
T +3	**1.99**	0.04	**0.12**	0.02	**−1.27**	0.06	**−0.07**	0.02
T +4	**1.87**	0.04	**0.12**	0.02	**−1.21**	0.06	**−0.08**	0.02
T +5	**1.86**	0.05	**0.10**	0.02	**−1.18**	0.07	**−0.09**	0.02
T ≥ +6	**1.83**	0.05	0.06	0.02	**−1.14**	0.07	**−0.10**	0.03
Early life characteristics (age 15)								
Municipal density								
1—low (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
2	−0.26	0.11	−0.16	0.07	−0.20	0.11	−0.16	0.07
3	**−0.48**	0.11	**−0.42**	0.07	**−0.44**	0.11	**−0.42**	0.07
4	**−0.47**	0.11	**−0.59**	0.06	**−0.41**	0.10	**−0.59**	0.06
5—high	**−0.64**	0.11	**−0.98**	0.07	**−0.59**	0.11	**−0.98**	0.07
Ten largest cities	**−0.19**	0.02	**−0.13**	0.02	**−0.21**	0.02	**−0.13**	0.02
Internal migration	**0.26**	0.04	**0.49**	0.03	**0.24**	0.04	**0.49**	0.03
Demographics and Socioeconomic indicators								
Age	**0.44**	0.02	0.00	0.01	**0.59**	0.02	0.01	0.01
Age^2	**−0.01**	0.00	0.00	0.00	**−0.01**	0.00	0.00	0.00

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TABLE A3 | (Continued)

	Partnership formation				Partnership dissolution			
	logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)		logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)	
Variables	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**
Level of education								
Vocational or lower (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
Higher vocational	**0.51**	0.02	**0.08**	0.02	**0.38**	0.02	**0.07**	0.02
University	**0.78**	0.03	**0.27**	0.02	**0.69**	0.03	**0.26**	0.02
Missing	0.08	0.04	−0.12	0.04	0.09	0.04	−0.12	0.04
Employed	**0.98**	0.02	**−0.05**	0.01	**1.04**	0.02	**−0.05**	0.01
Income decile	**−0.32**	0.00	0.00	0.00	**−0.29**	0.00	0.01	0.00
Which parent								
Both (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
Father	**1.84**	0.03	**0.46**	0.02	**1.73**	0.03	**0.44**	0.02
Mother	**0.36**	0.02	**0.10**	0.02	**0.30**	0.02	**0.09**	0.02
Separation	**1.27**	0.04	**0.09**	0.01	—	—	—	—
Divorce	**1.56**	0.10	**0.17**	0.03	—	—	—	—
Cohabitation	—	—	—	—	**−0.54**	0.01	−0.01	0.01
Marriage	—	—	—	—	**0.31**	0.02	**0.05**	0.01
First childbirth	**0.45**	0.02	**0.04**	0.01	**0.72**	0.02	**0.06**	0.01
Constant	**−6.85**	0.27	**3.43**	0.21	**−9.69**	0.27	**3.21**	0.21
Person-years	694,377				694,377			
Persons	47,274				47,274			

Note: Bold coefficients are statistically significant at $p < 0.001$. Models account for the no-transition indicator and year.
Abbreviations: Coef., coefficients; SE, standard error.
Source: Statistics Netherlands, own calculations.

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TABLE A4 | Two-part regression models of intergenerational distance: Within-group (Turkish) gender comparison.

	Partnership formation				Partnership dissolution			
	logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)		logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)	
Variables	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**
Gender								
Men (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
Women	**1.06**	0.03	**0.53**	0.04	**0.75**	0.02	**0.54**	0.03
Transition × gender								
Men								
T ≤ −3	**−0.17**	0.02	−0.08	0.04	**−1.47**	0.05	**−0.19**	0.04
T−2	**−0.13**	0.02	**−0.09**	0.03	**−1.00**	0.05	**−0.12**	0.03
T−1	**−0.11**	0.01	−0.05	0.02	**−0.58**	0.04	**−0.08**	0.02
T 0 (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
T +1	**1.47**	0.03	**0.09**	0.02	**−1.30**	0.05	**−0.11**	0.03
T +2	**1.57**	0.03	**0.08**	0.02	**−1.36**	0.05	−0.07	0.03
T +3	**1.61**	0.03	0.07	0.03	**−1.37**	0.05	−0.07	0.03
T +4	**1.61**	0.03	0.06	0.03	**−1.38**	0.06	−0.07	0.04
T +5	**1.56**	0.03	0.07	0.03	**−1.39**	0.06	−0.06	0.04
T ≥ +6	**1.47**	0.03	0.05	0.03	**−1.41**	0.06	−0.06	0.04
Women								
T ≤ −3	**0.20**	0.03	0.04	0.04	**−1.21**	0.07	−0.11	0.04
T−2	0.00	0.02	−0.02	0.03	**−0.88**	0.06	−0.07	0.02
T−1	**−0.07**	0.02	−0.04	0.02	**−0.45**	0.06	−0.04	0.02
T 0 (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
T +1	**2.26**	0.04	**0.36**	0.03	**−1.60**	0.06	**−0.14**	0.02
T +2	**2.39**	0.04	**0.30**	0.03	**−1.46**	0.07	**−0.15**	0.03
T +3	**2.42**	0.05	**0.29**	0.03	**−1.44**	0.07	**−0.16**	0.03
T +4	**2.44**	0.05	**0.28**	0.03	**−1.35**	0.07	**−0.19**	0.03
T +5	**2.44**	0.05	**0.26**	0.03	**−1.29**	0.08	**−0.18**	0.03
T ≥ +6	**2.41**	0.05	**0.21**	0.03	**−1.18**	0.08	**−0.21**	0.04
Early life characteristics (age 15)								
Municipal density								
1—low (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
2	−0.40	0.17	−0.14	0.15	−0.37	0.17	−0.12	0.15
3	−0.27	0.17	−0.47	0.15	−0.26	0.17	−0.45	0.15
4	−0.28	0.16	**−0.52**	0.15	−0.27	0.17	**−0.49**	0.14
5—high	−0.26	0.17	**−1.00**	0.15	−0.25	0.17	**−0.97**	0.15
Ten largest cities	0.06	0.03	−0.07	0.03	0.07	0.03	−0.07	0.03
Internal migration	**0.25**	0.06	**0.74**	0.05	**0.22**	0.06	**0.74**	0.05
Demographics and Socioeconomic indicators								
Age	**0.31**	0.02	0.05	0.02	**0.54**	0.02	**0.07**	0.02
Age^2	**−0.01**	0.00	**−0.01**	0.00	**−0.01**	0.00	**−0.01**	0.00

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TABLE A4 | (Continued)

	Partnership formation				Partnership dissolution			
	logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)		logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)	
Variables	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**
Level of education								
Vocational or lower (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
Higher vocational	**0.39**	0.03	**0.28**	0.03	**0.23**	0.02	**0.27**	0.03
University	**0.41**	0.04	**0.78**	0.03	**0.27**	0.04	**0.76**	0.03
Missing	**−0.15**	0.04	**−0.19**	0.05	**−0.15**	0.04	**−0.19**	0.05
Employed	**0.81**	0.02	**−0.19**	0.02	**0.86**	0.02	**−0.19**	0.02
Income decile	**−0.23**	0.00	**0.04**	0.00	**−0.21**	0.00	**0.04**	0.00
Which parent								
Both (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
Father	**0.96**	0.03	**0.60**	0.02	**0.88**	0.03	**0.58**	0.02
Mother	**0.28**	0.02	**0.25**	0.02	**0.23**	0.02	**0.23**	0.02
Separation	**1.45**	0.06	**0.22**	0.03	—	—	—	—
Divorce	**1.03**	0.05	**0.15**	0.03	—	—	—	—
Cohabitation	—	—	—	—	**−0.31**	0.02	**0.08**	0.02
Marriage	—	—	—	—	**−0.51**	0.02	−0.45	0.02
First childbirth	**0.53**	0.02	**0.09**	0.01	**0.95**	0.02	**0.13**	0.01
Constant	**−4.93**	0.30	**1.86**	0.31	**−8.83**	0.29	**1.50**	0.30
Person-years	611,197				611,197			
Persons	46,398				46,398			

Note: Bold coefficients are statistically significant at $p < 0.001$. Models account for the no-transition indicator and year.
Abbreviations: Coef., coefficients; SE, standard error.
Source: Statistics Netherlands, own calculations.

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TABLE A5 | Two-part regression models of intergenerational distance: Within-group (Dutch) gender comparison.

	Partnership formation				Partnership dissolution			
	logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)		logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)	
Variables	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**
Gender								
Men (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
Women	**1.42**	0.04	0.00	0.02	**0.95**	0.02	0.05	0.02
Transition × gender								
Men								
T ≤ −3	**0.16**	0.02	−0.05	0.02	**−3.15**	0.10	**−0.11**	0.02
T−2	**0.14**	0.02	**−0.05**	0.01	**−2.42**	0.10	**−0.09**	0.01
T−1	**0.09**	0.01	**−0.04**	0.01	**−1.60**	0.09	**−0.04**	0.01
T 0 (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
T +1	**4.09**	0.06	**−0.12**	0.01	**−2.97**	0.10	−0.01	0.01
T +2	**3.40**	0.04	**−0.12**	0.01	**−2.85**	0.10	−0.02	0.01
T +3	**3.07**	0.04	**−0.13**	0.01	**−2.83**	0.10	−0.01	0.02
T +4	**2.86**	0.04	**−0.14**	0.01	**−2.79**	0.10	0.01	0.02
T +5	**2.76**	0.04	**−0.15**	0.02	**−2.83**	0.10	0.01	0.02
T ≥ +6	**2.60**	0.04	**−0.15**	0.02	**−2.85**	0.10	0.07	0.02
Women								
T ≤ −3	**0.49**	0.03	−0.05	0.02	**−2.75**	0.11	−0.07	0.02
T−2	**0.24**	0.02	**−0.07**	0.01	**−2.28**	0.11	−0.04	0.01
T-1	0.00	0.02	**−0.06**	0.01	**−1.60**	0.11	−0.02	0.01
T 0 (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
T +1	**4.43**	0.07	0.00	0.01	**−3.70**	0.11	−0.02	0.01
T +2	**3.42**	0.05	−0.01	0.01	**−3.22**	0.12	−0.02	0.01
T +3	**3.10**	0.05	−0.02	0.01	**−3.03**	0.12	−0.01	0.02
T +4	**2.91**	0.05	−0.03	0.01	**−2.90**	0.12	0.00	0.02
T +5	**2.83**	0.05	−0.04	0.02	**−2.84**	0.13	0.00	0.02
T ≥ +6	**2.74**	0.05	**−0.09**	0.02	**−2.78**	0.13	0.01	0.02
Early life characteristics (age 15)								
Municipal density								
1—low (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
2	−0.07	0.03	**−0.14**	0.02	−0.04	0.03	**−0.13**	0.02
3	0.01	0.03	**−0.29**	0.03	0.02	0.03	**−0.29**	0.03
4	0.07	0.03	**−0.26**	0.02	0.06	0.03	**−0.27**	0.02
5—high	0.03	0.04	**−0.37**	0.03	−0.01	0.04	**−0.37**	0.03
Ten largest cities	**−0.21**	0.04	0.00	0.03	**−0.19**	0.03	−0.01	0.03
Internal migration	**0.35**	0.06	**0.68**	0.03	**0.30**	0.06	**0.67**	0.03
Demographics and Socioeconomic indicators								
Age	**0.79**	0.02	−0.01	0.01	**1.17**	0.02	−0.02	0.01
Age^2	**−0.01**	0.00	0.00	0.00	**−0.02**	0.00	**0.00**	0.00

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TABLE A5 | (Continued)

	Partnership formation				Partnership dissolution			
	logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)		logit (1st part)		glm (2nd part)	
Variables	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**	**Coef.**	**SE**
Level of education								
Vocational or lower (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
Higher vocational	**0.89**	0.02	**0.48**	0.02	**0.66**	0.02	**0.49**	0.02
University	**1.59**	0.03	**1.09**	0.02	**1.28**	0.03	**1.11**	0.02
Missing	0.09	0.03	−0.25	0.03	0.08	0.03	**−0.24**	0.03
Employed	**1.46**	0.02	**−0.20**	0.02	**1.50**	0.02	**−0.19**	0.02
Income decile	**−0.40**	0.00	**0.02**	0.00	**−0.37**	0.00	**0.02**	0.00
Which parent								
Both (ref.)	0	—	0	—	0	—	0	—
Father	**1.51**	0.03	**0.54**	0.02	**1.36**	0.03	**0.53**	0.02
Mother	**0.55**	0.02	**0.30**	0.02	**0.48**	0.02	**0.29**	0.02
Separation	**2.93**	0.08	**0.18**	0.01	—	—	—	—
Divorce	**2.54**	0.17	0.03	0.03	—	—	—	—
Cohabitation	—	—	—	—	**1.36**	0.01	**0.05**	0.01
Marriage	—	—	—	—	**0.59**	0.02	**0.03**	0.01
First childbirth	**0.89**	0.02	**−0.03**	0.01	**1.32**	0.02	**−0.02**	0.01
Constant	**−12.66**	0.27	**2.89**	0.17	**−19.11**	0.27	**3.07**	0.16
Person-years	959,712				959,712			
Persons	64,581				64,581			

Note: Bold coefficients are statistically significant at $p < 0.001$. Models account for the no-transition indicator and year.
Abbreviations: Coef., coefficients; SE, standard error.
Source: Statistics Netherlands, own calculations.

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