

Exploring the effect of emerging adults' perceived stress on their psychosocial wellbeing in the
context of the parent-adult child relationship

by

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B.S., The Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda, 2016
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AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Applied Human Sciences
College of Health and Human Sciences

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

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Abstract

The current study explores the longitudinal impact of perceived stress on emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing in the context of the parent-adult child (n= 323) relationship. To examine the longitudinal relationship, structural equation modeling was executed to study the direct and indirect effect of parents' bioecological factors (i.e., marital satisfaction, social support, personality), young adults' perceived stress, parenting, and young adults' characteristics (i.e., purpose in life and sense of autonomy) on young adults' psychosocial wellbeing. The pathways in this study's model were guided by two theoretical frameworks: Belsky's parenting model and family stress theory. Overall results revealed the direct influence of young adults' perceived stress, purpose in life, and parental support on their psychosocial wellbeing. Future research suggestions and implications for practitioners working with young adults and parents are discussed.

Keywords: parents' bioecological context, perceived stress, parenting, emerging adults' characteristics, emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing.

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Chapter 1 – Introduction

Emerging adulthood (18-29 years) has been proposed as a developmental stage with distinct traits (Arnett, 2000). Describing this period for emerging adults as undergoing rapid transformations across several life domains (e.g., financial, employment, residence, marriage, and so on; Arnett, 2007, Arnett et al., 2014; Sneed et al. 2007; Tagliabue et al., 2016). The life transitions, along with the contributing factors (e.g., economic background, social support, career), and their impact on wellbeing may be better understood in the presence of the individual's contextual system (Lerner & Overton, 2008). Addressing that, this study will further explore emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing in the presence of a parent-child context using dyadic samples and through two theoretical lenses. The goal is to clarify the changing aspects of the relationship between parents and emerging adults in a time of stress and instability (Fingerman et al., 2020; Schwartz, 2016) to understand the best working relationship model for both emerging adults and their parents.

As development occurs within a context; contextual systems are known to play a key role in how individuals regulate all aspects of their present life stage and in attaining developmental tasks (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). Being a time of developmental transition, the period of emerging adulthood is characterized by instability and stress. The way emerging adults perceive and approach the given life transition and stressors can be one of the contributing factors to their holistic development (Luhmann et al., 2012). There are two types of stress: eustress and distress, resulting in a varying impact on an individual's wellbeing depending on how they perceive and regulate the stress-triggering events (Bellingtier et al., 2017; Veerland et al., 2019). Most of the empirical research has focused on the negative aspects of how stressors affect emerging adults' wellbeing (Fingerman et al., 2020; Nelson & Padilla-Walker, 2013). However, irrespective of the

type of stress it has potential to influence individual's wellbeing either positively or negatively. The influence of stress can be examined using direct physiological measures, psychological outcomes, or the subjective perception of stress for life events to understand the relationship between life events, perception, and outcome (Hill, 1958; Kim et al., 2019; McCubbin, 1980).

As per the relational contextual system's perspective development is relational (Lerner et al., 2015), signifying emerging adults' contextual systems are dynamically interacting with others' bioecological systems. The influence of this interaction varies based on how close another individual is to the emerging adult (Birditt et al., 2010; Lerner et al., 2015). This contextual system's interaction further contributes to the transition observed in interpersonal relationships during emerging adulthood, especially in the parent-child relationship (Fingerman et al., 2020). Emerging adults are identified to be self-focused and optimistic as they explore their identity in various life areas (e.g., higher education, career, and relationships; Arnett, 2000). These characteristics of emerging adults are found to be associated with the broadening of social circles beyond family, increased autonomy, and taking authority over their own lives. In this process, the parent-child relationship is renegotiated in terms of authority, involvement, and responsibility for the adult child's life (Veerland et al., 2019). As per family stress theory (ABCx model), this type of change and instability arises disequilibrium in the relationship and becomes a potential stressor in the family system (Conger et al., 2010; Hill, 1958; Holmes & Rahe, 1967).

Despite the shift in authority and instability, an extended connection has been noted between the parents and emerging adults (Arnett, 2007; Furstenberg et al., 2015). Wherein, emerging adults continue to seek support from their parents after moving out of the parental residence and maintain regular contact with them. Similarly, many parents also wish to remain emotionally connected with their adult children and exchange materialistic support with each

other (Schwartz et al., 2016). Both the parent and emerging adult's goal is to foster independence in the best interest of all (Conger et al., 2010; Hill et al., 2019; Seiffge-Krenke & Pakalniskiene, 2010). Such varying expectations raise ambiguity to figure out what is considered as a healthy support system, and when to step back in the relationship, to attain a new equilibrium state amid the instability (Fingerman et al., 2017). Determining a healthy balance is desirable as studies have shown that a healthy support system may have a positive influence on emerging adults' relationship with their parents, and its impact on their psychosocial wellbeing (Copp et al., 2017; Fingerman et al., 2020).

This study aims to extend the existing research on intergenerational relationships and emerging adults' wellbeing by incorporating two theoretical lenses (i.e., Belsky's parenting model and family stress theory) to explore the relationship among the perceived stress, parent-emerging adults' dynamic relationship, and its influence on emerging adult's psychosocial wellbeing. The determinants of the parenting model allow us to understand the parent-child relationship and its overall impact on a child's development (Belsky, 1984; Taraban & Shaw, 2018). Focusing on that, this study is examining parents' bioecological context to measure any indirect influence on emerging adults' contextual systems through parenting. Child characteristics (e.g., temperament, personality, physical health, stress response, purpose in life) are theoretically noted to be a central determinant of parenting (Belsky, 1984). This reemphasizes the relational developmental perspective that the individual is an active contributor to their development (Lerner et al., 2015). Hence, emerging adults' perceived stress and their developmental characteristics are a few of the important factors to understand how emerging adults regulate their ongoing life transitions (Estrada-Martinez et al., 2012; Luhmann et al., 2020). To comprehend the role of emerging adults' perceived stress and intergenerational

interactions, this study incorporates the lens of family stress theory to examine its relationship with parenting and emerging adults' wellbeing (Fingerman et al., 2020; Hill, 1958).

The goal of this study is primarily to explore the longitudinal relationship of the parent and emerging adult's dyadic samples and its direct as well as indirect effect on emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing. For that, this research first critically analyzes the existing literature confirming the core theoretical propositions of Belsky's parenting model (Belsky, 1984) and the family stress and coping model (ABCX model; Hill, 1958) focusing on the parent and adult child's relationship, and adult child's development. Supporting that, a comprehensive review of the existing research on emerging adults' perceived stress for life events, coping mechanisms (social support, purpose in life, and autonomy), and its impact on their psychosocial wellbeing will be presented. Next, the research methodologies used to address the limitations of existing research, present study's research variables, methods, and measures, investigating research, findings, theoretical implications, the limitations of the current research, future research suggestions, and the overall significance of this research will be presented and discussed.

Chapter 2 - Literature Review

Intergenerational relationships play a central role in a child's development. This relationship evolves over time and with developmental stages. Changing relationships characterized by shifting roles and responsibilities of family members are observed during young adulthood (Arnett, 2014; Fingerman et al., 2020). This is a stage of prolonged transition between adolescence and adulthood marked by several factors including socioeconomic status, attending higher education, delay in marital relationships, and moving out of the parental house (Arnett, 2007; Lanctot & Poulin, 2017). Denoting this distinct period Arnett proposed this developmental stage as emerging adulthood spanning 18 to 29 years (Arnett, 2000). Addressing that, this section will analyze the existing literature exploring the dynamic relationship between emerging adults and their parents along with the contextual factors (i.e., perceived stress, social support, purpose in life, autonomy) to understand its longitudinal influence on emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing.

To understand interpersonal relationships within the context, the current study uses the theory borrowing technique (Murray & Evers, 1989). The concept of interrelated parent-child contextual development is borrowed from Belsky's (1984) parenting model, offering a lens to understand the interrelationship between the multiple contextual systems and how that influences parenting and the child's development over time. Also, the process of adjusting to the transitional life changes encountered during emerging adulthood and trying to re-establish equilibrium may incur stress which further influences an individual's development. Addressing the concept of stress regulation in the family system is borrowed from the family stress theory (Hill, 1958) which helps to examine the interaction of stressors, with the available resources, individual

perceptions of stressors, and their influence on the family's functioning (Cutrona et al., 2011; McCubbin, 1980; Patterson, 2002).

2.1 Belsky's Parenting Model

The parent-child relationship is sensitively accustomed to the parent and child's capabilities and the developmental tasks they encounter at each life stage. The quality of the parent-child relationship influences their developmental outcomes which are, emotional security, behavioral independence, social competence, and intellectual achievement (Belsky, 1984). Belsky's parenting model helps to understand how an ecological process of the multiple psychosocial determinants of parenting may influence a child's development and the parent-child relationship. It explores direct, indirect, and dynamic relationships among various determinants of parenting, parenting behavior, and child development (Taraban & Shaw, 2018).

Belsky (1984) postulated that the quality of parenting is determined as multiple of three domains: characteristics of the parent, contextual sources of stress and support, and the child's characteristics. Prior research has noted that parents' attachment history influences their parental security, parenting behavior, and their children's development (Belsky et al., 2009; van IJzendoorn, 1995). Besides parental psychological factors, other parental characteristics such as self-esteem, internal locus of control, level of education, and ego-resiliency were also identified to be related to the quality of parenting (Bornstein et al., 2011). Parents' psychological resources are viewed as significant determinants influencing parenting directly as well as indirectly through other two domains (i.e., social context and child characteristics; Taraban & Shaw, 2018).

The social contextual domain was presented as a combination of the internal and external family contextual systems (i.e., marital relations, work-family relationships, and social networks). The contextual systems could be a source of stress or support depending on the nature

of the experience, coupled with how individuals perceive the source (Conger et al., 2010; Luhmann et al., 2020). Therefore, parent's early years' experiences, social context (i.e., social support, occupation, socio-economic status), interpersonal relationships (marital, family, friends), and their perception of stressors influence parenting and the parent-child relationship (Belsky, 1984; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006; Lee & Goldstein, 2016). This relation between the event, perception, and resources is highlighted in the family stress theory (Hill, 1958). For example, a significant association is observed between the quality of marital relationships and parenting behavior over time (Kim et al., 2019; McCubbin, 1980). This further reflects the spillover hypothesis, according to which when one system experiences a substantial strain, it has the potential to influence other systems as well (Lerner et al., 2015; Stroud et al., 2016). This emphasizes that contextual systems are closely interrelated with each other and are constantly evolving.

Furthermore, child characteristics such as temperament, physical health, age, and gender have been identified as central factors influencing parenting (Belsky, 1984). For example, parents may find opportunities for generativity as children develop, and adult children's problems (failure to launch, health problems, etc.) may lead to a negative effect on parents' wellbeing (Fingerman et al., 2017; Parra et al., 2015). Belsky's model further organizes the effects of various determinants of parenting by specifying pathways of influence. It is hypothesized that to foster a healthy familial relationship, parents need adequate access to internal (i.e., biopsychosocial wellbeing) and external support systems to buffer the negative impact of stress on the parent-child relationship and ultimately on the child's development (Inguglia et al., 2016; Veerland et al., 2019). The process of how stress originates and transmits between parent and child's context can be further explored using the family science perspective.

2.2 Family Stress Theory

Family stress theory (Hill, 1958) offers a model to understand how family resources and individual family members' perception of crisis influence their response to any stressor. Family stress theory primarily focuses on the dynamic process of family adjustment in response to any change encountered by the family over time (Conger et al., 2010). Four factors representing the ABCX model are stressor event (A), resources (B), perception of stress (C), and crisis or outcome (X). When an imbalance occurs between the stressor (A) and the capabilities or resources (B) of the family, it may lead to disequilibrium in the family system. The impact of the instability is influenced by the family's perception of that imbalance (C). When these demands pile up and the family fails to respond or adjust to the change effectively at a given time, then it may result in crises (Holmes & Rahe, 1967; McCubbin, 1980). However, not all stress leads to crises, as the family is constantly working to achieve a new equilibrium state in the changed context (Conger et al., 2010). Operating at the family level, research has noted that stress experienced by one family member will likely influence the functioning of other family members (Birditt et al., 2010; McCubbin, 1980), consistent with the proposition of Belsky's parenting model that parent-child contexts are interrelated and influences both parenting and child's development (Belsky, 1984; Hill et al., 2019; Lerner et al., 2015).

The family system is a result of interaction between both the subsystem (e.g., individual family members, dyads) and the external macrosystem (e.g., community, culture). All families experience some degree of stress based on a range of positive or negative intrinsic transitions, changes, or challenges to homeostasis encountered by any family member. These transitions can be normative (e.g., the birth of a family member, starting school) or nonnormative (e.g., loss of a job, winning a lottery) in nature (Conger et al., 2010). The key difference between normative and

nonnormative transitions is the individual/family's readiness to encounter the change and their adjustment process. That is, many normative events (e.g., starting college, getting married) are consciously planned or expected to occur; whereas the nonnormative events (layoffs, miscarriage, etc.) are mostly unpredictable and occur unexpectedly. Thus, how the stressor event is perceived by the individual and the resources available to address that stressor will influence the outcome and adjustment process of the individual/family (Allen & Henderson, 2017).

A family's coping response and perception of stressors are influenced by a range of factors including cultural identification, socioeconomic status, and personal psychosocial resources (Fingerman et al., 2017; Hardie & Selzer, 2016). Coping represents an action that individuals take based on the available resources and their perception to manage the stressor event. The coping responses are conceptualized as representing three distinctive types: (1) direct action (e.g., acquiring resources, learning new skills), (2) intrapsychic (e.g., reframing the problem), and (3) controlling the emotions generated by the stressor (e.g., social support, use of alcohol; Conger et al., 2010; Hill, 1958). The aim of the coping response along with the family's resiliency is to successfully adapt to the change, recover from the stress, and establish a new equilibrium state (Hill, 1958; McCubbin, 1980).

2.3 Emerging Adulthood and Integration of Theories

As emerging adults encounter numerous opportunities and changes it comes along with transitional anxiety and other psychosocial factors (self-esteem, depression, self-awareness, refinement of identity, and purpose in life; Arnett, 2000, 2011; Hill et al., 2019). These changes and stress experienced during this stage impacts both emerging adults and their parents. For example, studies have noted that when emerging adults face challenges or fail in one area of life then parents' wellbeing is affected negatively (Conger et al., 2010; Cutrona et al., 2011;

Fingerman et al., 2020). In response to that stressor, parents extend their support to their adult children irrespective of their contextual background (i.e., poor physical health, poverty; Fingerman et al., 2020). This reflects how both the lens of the parenting process model, and the family stress theory can help to understand the dynamic interaction in the parent-child relationship during emerging adulthood.

The parent-child relationship has a significant dynamic impact across the lifespan (Belsky et al., 2009; Koestner et al., 2020; Lerner et al., 2015). The parent and child develop a reciprocal attachment in the early years which shapes their later life relationships, interactions, and dependency on significant others (Taraban & Shaw, 2018). During emerging adulthood, prolongation in the parent-child contact has been noted through the availability of parent's emotional support (e.g., coping with a failed relationship, to clarify one's self-perception and future goals) and materialistic support (e.g., economic support, co-housing, finding a job) for their adult children (Fingerman & Yahirun, 2016; Lee & Goldestein, 2016; Schwartz et al., 2016). The presence of a parent-child mutual positive support system has been consistently noted as a significant indicator of emerging adults' positive development such as higher academic achievement, identity exploration, positive coping mechanisms, and so on (Copp et al., 2017; Guan & Fuligni 2015; Skulborstad & Herman, 2016). Some research noted the negative impact of parent's overprotective behavior (Garcia-Mendoza et al., 2020; Wagner & Abaied, 2016), their psychological wellbeing (e.g., depression, stress), and early life negative experiences (e.g., childhood abuse, trauma) transmit to the emerging adults' development and psychosocial wellbeing (Neupert & Bellingtier, 2019). This reflects the overlap between the propositions of Belsky's and ABCX models about how the parent's characteristics and experiences may influence their parenting behavior and ultimately emerging adults' development. However, it is

also vital to note that interpersonal relationships are dynamic, not only do parents influence their children's development but, children influence their parent's wellbeing and development as well (Belsky, 1984; Taraban & Shaw, 2018).

During emerging adulthood, the presence of purpose in life may act as a resource that helps them to set goals, regulate behavior, and fosters their positive perception of intrapersonal and interpersonal relationships (Hill et al., 2019; Schwartz et al., 2016). These factors may help them to nurture their relationship with their parents and navigate through life events (Arnett et al., 2014; Koestner et al., 2020). Also, having a sense of autonomy and purpose in life supports emerging adults adapt to the changes in the different areas of their life and perceive challenges as opportunities to grow. At the same time, though emerging adults don't receive any help from their parents, having an assurance that they have access to that support system whenever it is needed can foster their confidence and lowers the chances of engaging in risky behavior (Copp et al., 2017; Lanctot & Poulin, 2017; Skulborstad & Hermann, 2016).

2.4 Emerging Adulthood

Throughout changing contexts, distinct developmental features have been recognized among individuals who are between the adolescence and adulthood stage. Features of this developmental period include young adults' tendency to delay commitment to adulthood responsibilities, pursuits to attend higher education, identity exploration, and changes in careers or relationships (Arnett, 2000; 2011). Furthermore, young adults describe themselves as being more independent compared to the adolescence stage and still learning the skills required to become self-sufficient adults. Addressing all these aspects, Arnett (2000) proposed the stage of emerging adulthood (18-29 years) as a new developmental period in the lifespan. Wherein he emphasized understanding the individual's development at their present stage rather than

focusing on who they are becoming. This stage is uniquely experienced by everyone depending on cultural aspects, socioeconomic status, ethnic group, psychosocial differences, and other factors (Arnett, 2007; Hendry & Kloep, 2010). That presents this period as a volitional stage of life wherein an individual plays a vital role in their development. While these varying factors influence this stage and the individual's experiences, core characteristics of emerging adulthood are used as a reference to carefully understand this developmental period (Arnett, 2007).

2.4.1 Developmental Markers

Arnett (2000) proposed five key developmental markers for describing emerging adulthood: (1) identity exploration, (2) instability, (3) possibility, (4) self-focused, and (5) feeling in-between. Identity exploration refers to emerging adults looking for their prospective identity in different contexts such as work, relationships, ideologies, and other realms of life (Arnett et al., 2014). Individuals' identity is highly influenced by their early life experiences, current intrapersonal and interpersonal resources, and contexts (Meeus, 2011). Research has noted the advantages of freely exploring various opportunities in young adults' life allows them to identify and develop their identity's optimal potential (Erikson, 1968). In support of that, Arnett (2006) claimed emerging adulthood is an enhanced time for identity exploration. Because emerging adults are less influenced by the authority figure and are not obligated to fulfill adulthood responsibilities. That allows emerging adults to engage in the search for their life path with more confidence and eventually clarify their goals (Arnett et al., 2014). This process of exploration is accompanied by success and failure in different life areas, presenting uncertainty in life.

Instability refers to individuals' inclination to refine their goals as they continue to explore across their life contexts. For example, changes in an education major, career choices, romantic relationships, residence, and political ideology (Arnett, 2016). This characteristic of

emerging adults creates this developmental period as one of the most unstable phases of the life course (Arnett, 2004). As emerging adults refine their plans, it further aids them to better understand their needs, strengths, and weaknesses in various areas of life. That offers them opportunities to learn and practice problem-solving and other life skills (Arnett, 2004; 2011). These changes may be helpful if they are perceived and approached positively. However, the unpredictability can be a struggle for some emerging adults to adapt and therefore result in a stressful period of life (Arnett, 2016; Atwood & Scholtz, 2008; Lanctot & Poulin, 2017).

Emerging adults are identified to have an optimistic outlook, referring to the many opportunities that emerging adults see before them. Arnett (2016) noted that the quality of optimism arises from the emerging adult's dream of having a well-developed and efficiently regulated future, and the radical transformation to a better life that is under their control. This positive outlook helps emerging adults to explore new potential options in their life and practice autonomy (Arnett, 2000; 2016).

Being self-focused refers to emerging adults' relative freedom from attachment and obligations to authority figures, parents, romantic partners, and children. In other words, emerging adulthood is less influenced by social controls. This allows them to develop autonomy, make their own decisions, and ultimately foster self-development (Arnett, 2016). However, having less social control, and higher curiosity to explore during this period was identified to be positively associated with increased risk-taking behavior among emerging adults (Arnett, 2007).

Feeling in-between represents the subjective experience of emerging adults, frequently noted by individuals as neither feeling like adolescents nor entirely like adults. Arnett (2016) presented three criteria that emerging adults considered as a necessary milestone to identify themselves as adults. They are, taking responsibility, making independent decisions, and being

financially independent. In the process of achieving these criteria completely, emerging adults rely on external support systems as required. For example, seeking financial aid from parents after moving out of the parental house. Therefore, an ambiguous feeling during this period is found to be significantly associated with the characteristics of exploration and instability (Arnett, 2011).

All these developmental markers are distinct and interrelated with each other (Lerner et al., 2015; Sneed et al., 2007). While emerging adults experience these developmental markers, they also go through various role transformations in both intrapersonal and interpersonal areas of life (Arnett, 2011). All together these dynamic interactions significantly influence emerging adults' perception and experience with the developmental markers on daily basis.

2.5 Life Events: Experience Approach

Following the developmental perspective, life events are described as “time-discrete transitions that mark the beginning and the end of a particular status” (Luhmann et al., 2012; p. 594). Here the transition portrays the need to develop new behavioral, cognitive, or emotional responses for the encountered life event/s. For example, enrolling in an out-state university requires relocation to a new place, exploring a new social context, and many others. This represents the interaction of both the stressor and the developmental perspective describing how an individual experience life events, adapt, and transition in their social roles and context (Bleidorn et al., 2018; Luhmann et al., 2012). In continuation with these frameworks, this study explores the effect of young adults' subjective experiences (i.e., perceived stress) caused by both positive and negative life events (e.g., adopting a pet, starting a new career, eating disorders, pandemic) encountered during emerging adulthood.

Emerging adulthood being a demographically oriented stage, emerging adults' internal and external factors may aid to understand their approach toward various life events and their impact on their overall wellbeing (Fingerman, 2017; Schwartz et al., 2005). Furthermore, emerging adults' age, temperament, self-esteem, socio-economic status, and other demographic facets describe what kind of life events they usually experience and their response to them (Arnett, 2016; Bellingtier & Neupert, 2019; Nelson et al., 2015; Scott et al., 2017). This implies emerging adults as active agents of their development (Arnett, 2016; Lerner et al., 2015). While exploring various opportunities, some emerging adults perceive this period as an opportunity for self-improvement by practicing new options, while others see ample choices as a source of uncertainty and anxiety due to its lack of structure and frequent instability (Arnett, 2004; Reifman et al., 2007). These require emerging adults to adjust and adapt to several events regularly which may stimulate stress (Arnett, 2016; Galambos et al., 2017; Nelson et al., 2015). This adaptation process initiates in response to the external stimulus (i.e., the life events or stressors) requiring emerging adults to learn new skills to attain a new equilibrium state (Luhmann et al., 2012; Wundark et al., 2021). These aspects further support the finding on the variance observed in the emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing during this stage of life (Arnett, 2007). The range of variations observed during emerging adulthood was expressed as a "quarter-life crisis" describing all changes that emerging adult experience as they explore different developmental characteristics (Arnett, 2007).

The way emerging adults respond to stressors (i.e., life events) can be identified through the cognitive, emotional, and biological reactions initiated in response to the stressor (Cohen & Edwards, 1989; Luhmann et al., 2020). Not all stressors lead to negative consequences (e.g., trauma, insecure attachment, low self-esteem; Bellingtier et al., 2017), there are situations

wherein stress has a positive effect (such as increased self-awareness, refinement of goals, creative thinking, etc.; Arpawong et al., 2016; Scott et al., 2017). The outcome of any life event gets influenced by both the external contextual variables (i.e., resources, support system) and the personal developmental characteristics. That is, each event is experienced differently by everyone with given contextual factors (such as the time when the event was experienced, duration, predictability, coping resources, cultural norms, etc.). To understand those experiences, this study is focusing on psychological stress responses (i.e., emotional responses) to analyze the perceived stress associated with life events (Luhmann et al., 2020; Wundack et al., 2021). Also, there are limited studies that explored the positive effects of perceived stress of life events on emerging adults' development using both internal and external variables (e.g., Arpawong et al., 2016; Bellingtier & Neupert, 2019; Raposa & Hammen, 2017). Therefore, this study further explores both the positive and negative impact of perceived stress of life events on emerging adults' development including the intraindividual as well as interpersonal factors.

2.6 Coping Mechanisms

As emerging adults' contexts are under constant transformation (e.g., from a parental home to an independent residence), their development may be influenced by the individual's internal (e.g., self-perception, self-esteem, psychological determinants) and external resources (e.g., parent-child relationship, friends, career opportunities; Arnett, 2007; Lerner et al., 2015). Research has further noted the effect of life events is based on the level and frequency of stress, and the way individuals perceive life events, which may be one of the determining factors for an individual's psychosocial wellbeing and development (positive or negative; Arpawong et al., 2016; Bleidorn et al., 2018; Luhmann et al., 2012; Pusch et al., 2019; Scott et al., 2017; Wundrack et al., 2021).

Emerging adults' goal-directed motivation, future orientations, and external support systems help to better understand their resiliency in response to stressors (Luyckx et al., 2007; Arnett, 2005). Resilience represents an individual's capacity to adapt to changes in healthy and flexible ways during stressful events (Baggio et al., 2017). Also, studies have noted that access to positive support system (e.g., parental support, friends, professional help) and internal resources (e.g., purpose in life, autonomy, self-efficacy) promote identity exploration by reflecting on self-knowledge, fostering self-esteem, and availability of safe context to try out different possibilities (Kim et al., 2019; Lanctot & Poulin, 2017; Lindell & Campione-Barr, 2017).

2.6.1 Sense of Control/Autonomy

Exploration of various life domains and being self-focused during emerging adulthood reflects increased execution of autonomy (Arnett, 2000; 2014; Hill et al., 2019). Research by Noom et al. (1999) described autonomy as a product of three dimensions: (1) behavioral, the ability to function independently, (2) Cognitive, the sense of competence and resources that help to control life events, and (3) emotional, self-confidence to be independent. Emerging adults' perception towards their sense of control over their life (e.g., decision-making, relationships; Arnett, 2004) influences their internalizing and externalizing behavior, which further impacts their psychosocial wellbeing (Estrada-Martinez et al., 2012). For instance, research has noted that emerging adults characterized by high exploration and self-focus were positively correlated to substance abuse, either for experimentation purposes or as a self-medication to cope with the stressful event (Arnett, 2011; Lanctot & Poulin, 2017).

Autonomy develops differently for everyone based on their familial (particularly, parent-child relationship) and cultural (i.e., collectivist, individualist, egalitarian, and so on) contexts (Arnett; 2004; Inguglia et al., 2016; Noom et al., 1999; Zhong & Arnett, 2014). Moreover,

individual's own life experiences, their developmental markers (identity exploration, self-focused, optimism), and intraindividual resources (such as self-perception, self-esteem, and subjective age) influence their sense of acquiring autonomy (Arnett, 2004; Hill et al., 2019; Parra et al., 2015). Increased autonomy during emerging adulthood may help emerging adults to flourish when it is balanced with internal resources such as higher self-esteem, self-regulation, optimism, and positive emotional regulation. For instance, emerging adults' optimistic view toward their future goals acts as a motivating factor to opt for positive coping mechanisms and thrive during this period of life (Arpawong et al., 2016; Neupert & Belingtier, 2019). This reflects young adults' self-determination to strive for holistic development in the given social context (Inguglia et al., 2016).

Furthermore, the exploration of varied opportunities, self-identity, and autonomy has dynamic relations with the individual's external variables such as family, peers, professional resources, and so on (Lerner et al., 2015; Patterson, 2002; Schwartz et al., 2016). Research has distinctly noted the association between life events, parental support systems, and emerging adults' autonomy development and their overall wellbeing (Garcia-Mendoza et al., 2020; Inguglia et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2019). This shows that having positive parental support fosters young adults' sense of autonomy and relatedness (Koestner et al., 2020; Lee & Goldstein, 2016). Therefore, further examination of the interaction among all variables may offer a better understanding of how emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing develops in the presence of a parent-child relationship.

2.6.2 Purpose in Life

During this developmental stage, emerging adults are identified to be optimistic about their goals, choices, and prospects (Arnett, 2007; Arpawon et al., 2016). Having direction or

purpose in life can act as an internal resource for emerging adults to regulate and adapt to transitional life events (Arnett, 2016; Hill et al., 2019). Purpose in life can be operationalized as a resource that may help individuals to set goals, regulate behavior, and to have a sense of meaning in their life (Hill et al., 2019; Schwartz et al., 2016). Supporting that previous research has noted a positive association between the sense of purpose and young adults' self-image influencing their optimal development (Arnett, 2016; Fingerman 2017; Koestner et al., 2020).

Access to a reliable external support system helps emerging adults to develop autonomy, purpose in life, and subjective wellbeing (Koestner et al., 2020). That is, having appropriate parental and other social support acts as a buffer between the effect of life events and emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing (Fingerman, 2017; Parra et al., 2015). Research has noted a positive relationship between emerging adults' sense of purpose and secure attachment relationship with their parents (Arnett, 2000; Hill et al., 2018; Lindell & Campione-Barr, 2017). Furthermore, stressors encountered by parents may have an indirect impact on emerging adults' sense of purpose and wellbeing through parenting (Neupert & Belingtier, 2019; Hill et al., 2018; Taraban & Shaw, 2018). This underscores the importance of considering the dyadic interactions amongst parents and children, over the lifespan, in the interest of exploring emerging adult's psychosocial wellbeing.

2.7 Parent-Adult Child Relationship

As per the contextual system's perspective, development is relational and all domains of life are interrelated (Cohen et al., 2003; Lerner et al., 2015, Ricco & Overton, 2011; Sneed et al., 2007). The familial context is identified as a highly salient domain of life for an individual's development throughout the lifespan (Elder, 1998; Lerner et al., 2015; Merz et al., 2009). Depending on its nature and quality, family-level characteristics (e.g., parents act as a safety net

for adult children when they encounter stressor events, family size and structure determine the distribution of resources among family members) are shown to buffer and scaffold most emerging adults as they explore new aspects of their life (Schwartz, 2016). During this developmental period, the relationship between parents and emerging adults is renegotiated in terms of their roles, responsibilities, expectations from self and others, autonomy, dynamics of support system, and others (Arnett et al., 2014; Fingerman, 2017; Fingerman et al., 2020). This further reinforces the process of “re-centering” familial relationships as emerging adults explore various facets of their identity (Arnett, 2006; Inguglia et al., 2016). Despite a focus on autonomy development and identity exploration, emerging adults still consistently maintain a connection with their parents and seek their support as required (Arnett, 2007; Furstenberg et al., 2015). This reflects the transition in the connection from complete dependence to partial co-dependence in the parent-child relationship.

2.7.1 Parental Support

The transition to adulthood is accompanied by evolving interpersonal relationships in different life domains (i.e., familial relations, romantic relationships, friendship & others; Arnett, 2000; Lindell & Campione-Barr, 2017; Parra et al., 2015). Among all interpersonal relationships, the parent-child relationship is hypothesized to differentially impact the individual across the lifespan for multiple reasons. For example, trust and attachment between parent and child during early years and parenting style (e.g., authoritative, negligent, helicopter) including interparental relationships has the potential to influence young adult’s social competence, trust, and tolerance of others, risk-taking behaviors, and psychosocial wellbeing (Belsky et al., 2001; Koestner et al., 2020; Lerner et al., 2015). Both the parent and child develop a reciprocal attachment bond in the early years which shapes their later life relationships, interactions, and dependency on significant

others (Taraban & Shaw, 2018). Emphasizes the spillover effect of individual and contextual determinants of parenting and stress on children's development (e.g., Conger et al., 2010; Cutrona et al., 2011; Martin, 2018; Stroud et al., 2014). However, in the presence of a consistently secured parent-child relationship, it helps both parents and children to navigate through those challenges and minimize the negative effect of stress (Arnett, 2016; Lanctot & Poulin, 2018).

Parents and their adult children are one of the sources of tangible and intangible support to one another across the lifespan (Fingerman, 2017). Tangible support refers to the materialistic/instrumental support system (e.g., financial assistance, household chores) and intangible support represents the psychosocial support system (e.g., sharing affection, encouragement, guidance; Luyckx et al., 2011; Fingerman et al., 2020). Access to parent-child mutual positive support systems has been identified to aid emerging adults' development across various life areas such as higher academic achievement, identity exploration, increased self-esteem, sense of autonomy, and confidence (Copp et al., 2017; Guan & Fuligni 2015; Lee & Goldstein, 2016; Skulborstad & Herman, 2016). Some research noted the negative impact of parent's overprotective behavior (Garcia-Mendoza et al., 2020; Wagner & Abaied, 2016), their psychological wellbeing, and early life negative experiences on emerging adults' development and psychosocial wellbeing (Neupert & Bellingtier, 2019). This shows that parents' ecological system indirectly influences their adult children's development through parenting (Fingerman et al., 2020; Garcia-Mendoza et al., 2020; Veerland et al., 2019). Hence, it is important to explore further how a parent's contextual system influences parental support and its collective impact on the regulation of emerging adults' perceived stress for life events, exploration of developmental markers, and life satisfaction (Burger & Samuel, 2017).

2.8 Emerging Adult's Psychosocial Wellbeing

Transitions to adulthood have been characterized by major changes in the individual's context and almost all aspects of life (Arnett, 2000, 2016). These changes significantly impact emerging adults' psychosocial subjective wellbeing (life satisfaction, anxiety, self-perception; Arnett et al., 2014) and require them to reorganize and adapt to the changes to develop in their life (Arnett, 2011, 2014; Conley et al., 2014). The plasticity during this period of development has the potential for continuity or discontinuity in mental health (Schulenberg et al., 2004). During emerging adulthood, mental disorders are found to be common, and they can be due to past experiences/mental health of an individual or present imbalance in the stressor and resources (Arnett, 2016; Arnett et al., 2014). Despite prevailing mental health concerns during emerging adulthood, there is a significantly low rate of help-seeking behavior among emerging adults and less support system to address it (Gagnon et al., 2015; Kessler et al., 2012).

Research has noted mixed results associated with emerging adults' developmental markers and their psychosocial wellbeing (either positively or negatively; Arnett, 2014, 2016; Sumner et al., 2015). For instance, few studies identified a positive relationship between identity exploration and emerging adults' life satisfaction and self-esteem (Burger & Samuel, 2017; Lanctot & Poulin, 2017). On another hand, few studies found a negative impact of instability on emerging adults' psychological wellbeing (i.e., increased symptoms of depression, and substance abuse; Copp et al., 2017; Reifman et al., 2007; Skulborstad & Hermann, 2016). However, when markers were considered as a positive opportunity for development, they had shown higher life satisfaction (Nelson et al., 2015). Access to a positive support system (inclusive of both personal resources including purpose in life, autonomy, as well as parental support; Burger & Samuel, 2017) has been found to act as a buffer against perceived stress and its impact on life satisfaction,

self-esteem, anxiety & depression (Arnett et al., 2014; Belsky et al., 2001; Burger & Samuel 2017; Kim et al., 2019; Sumner et al., 2015).

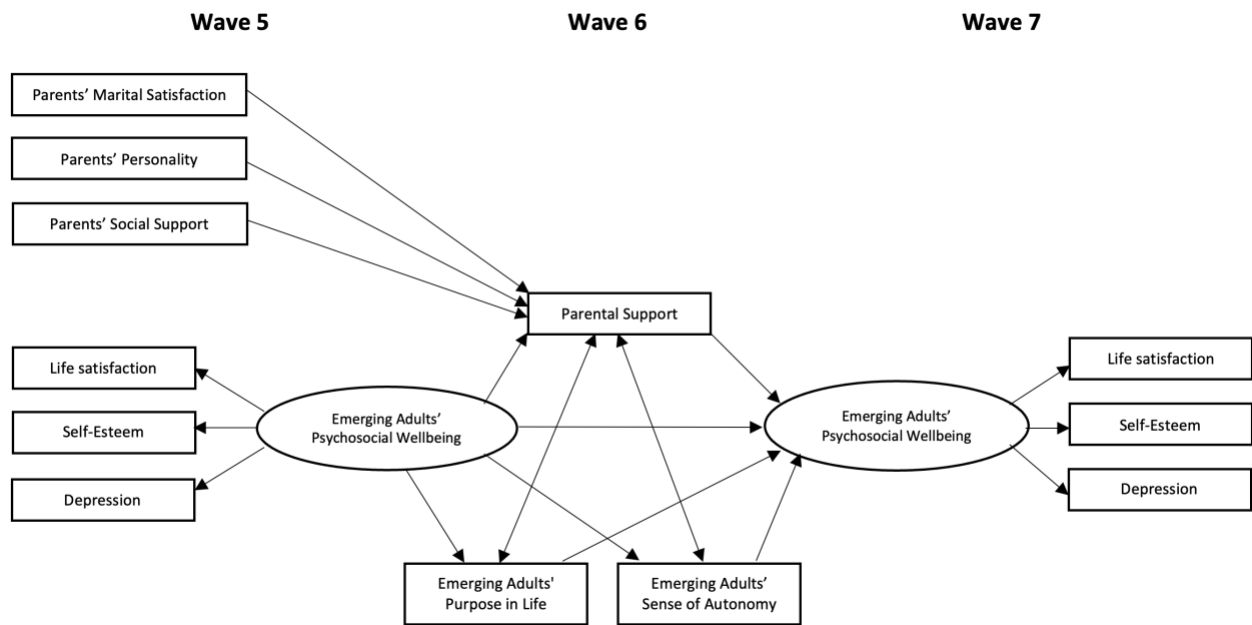
2.9 Current Study

The existing literature on the transition to adulthood offers a broad range of valuable information about the developmental stage and emerging adults' intraindividual and interpersonal development (Arnett, 2000, 2011, 2014; Kim et al., 2018). Also, there are opportunities in the existing research that needs to be explored further. Such as fewer longitudinal studies explored both parents' and emerging adults' context and developmental characteristics together (Burger & Samuel, 2017; Hill et al., 2018). Most studies separately used the lifespan contextual lens, and family lens to understand the transition to adulthood and intergenerational relationships (Taraban & Shaw, 2018). Furthermore, several studies focused on the negative impact of stress and instability on emerging adults' developmental outcomes (Copp et al., 2017; Reifman et al., 2007; Skulborstad & Hermann, 2016).

To extend the existing literature, this study aims to use a longitudinal method to explore both the positive and negative dynamic relationship between emerging adults' perceived stress for life events, their internal resources (sense of autonomy, and purpose in life), and parental support. Based on the research's aim, this study will examine the following research questions: (1) What is the relationship between parental support, emerging adults' perceived stress for life events, sense of autonomy, and purpose in life? (2) What's the effect of parental support on emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing (life satisfaction, self-perception, and depression)? (3) Can parental support, emerging adults' sense of autonomy, and purpose in life mediate emerging adults' perceived stress for life events and its impact on their psychosocial wellbeing (life satisfaction, self-perception, and depression)?

To explain the applications of both theoretical lenses, in the proposed model (Figure 1), the pathways are presented based on the core propositions of both theories (Belsky's parenting model and family stress theory). As per Belsky's parenting model, parenting is affected by three components: the parent's contextual sources of stress and support, the parent's characteristics, and the child's characteristics (Belsky, 1984). And according to family stress theory (Hill, 1958), four factors are representing the ABCX model: stressor (A), resources (B), perception of stress (C), and outcome (X). Considering both theories together, in the current model, 'emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing (independent variable) measured at Wave 5 as an expression of perceived stress refers to the source of stress (A) for emerging adults. 'Parental Support' (mediator) indicates both tangible and intangible resources available for emerging adults to aid their coping response to stress (B). 'Emerging adult's developmental characteristics (i.e., autonomy and purpose in life)' (mediators) represent emerging adult's capability that influences the way they perceive the source of stress (C). Lastly, 'emerging adult's psychosocial wellbeing' (dependent variable) measured at Wave 7 indicates the outcome resulting from the coping response to the stressors (X). And 'parent's bioecological factors' will be regarded as independent variables, to explore the effect of the parent's factors on emerging adult's psychosocial wellbeing through parental support. Here, 'parent's bioecological factors' represents both the internal (i.e., personality), and external (i.e., social context & social support) contextual systems of the parent.

Figure 2.1. Conceptual Model



Chapter 3 - Methods

For the present study, a secondary analysis of the Longitudinal Study of Generations (LSOG) will be utilized (Bengtson, 1971, 1985, 1988, 1991, 1994, 1997, 2000, 2005). The LSOG project began in 1971 with 300 families in Southern California. Total eight waves of data were collected, in which the first four waves were comprised of three generations, and starting with the fifth wave in 1994, the fourth generation was included for data collection (i.e., grandparents (G1), middle-aged parents (G2), grandchildren (G3), and great-grandchildren (G4)). The primary research project investigated the relationship between the quality of intergenerational family relationships and an individual's lifetime psychosocial development. The original data set includes periodic survey assessments of each participant's family on their intergenerational solidarity, social attitudes and values, psychosocial and physical health, educational and occupational attainments, and demographic information (Silverstein & Bengtson, 2016).

For this study purpose, data were obtained from the three waves (Wave 5-7) of LSOG spanning 6 years (1994-2000). Study samples are comprised of Generation 3 (G3; study parent) and Generation 4 (G4; study child). Parent-child dyads are formed based on the following conditions: both parent and child belong to the same family, and at least in one of the three waves both parent and child have responded to the questionnaire about each other. Based on these conditions, a study sample of 323 parent-child dyads is included in the study.

Dyads were formed by following the instruction of the original codebook for the assigned study parent and study child that responded about each other at either Wave 5, Wave 6, or Wave 7. First, the dummy variable for generation and family was created to identify respondents belonging to the same family. In some families, more than one parent-child dyad is identified.

Responses of the study child (Generation 4 participant) and their linked study parent (Generation 3) were manually aggregated together, and in the instances where there are multiple potential pairs of study child and study parent, only one such pair was selected through a random number generator, for purposes of ensuring the independence of the data.

The demographics for the study sample at Wave 5 (W5) are listed in Table 1. The age range for G3 is 33 to 62, and for G4 is 15 to 33. Most of the study sample are females (G3=66%; G4=61%) and represented the Caucasian/White population (G3=90%; G4=81%). At W5, 88% of G3 and 69% of G4 samples reported some form of employment (i.e., full-time, part-time, full time and part-time, and multiple part-time), and 39% of G3 and 36% of G4 had some college 1-3 years, AA degree education. A significant number of samples reported living with their study parent and study child.

Table 3.1. Descriptive statistics of Generation 3 and Generation 4 participants as per Wave 5.

	Study Parent (G3)	Study Child (G4)
Age (<i>M</i> years [SD])	42 (3.72)	19 (3.09)
Sex		
Male (%)	34	38.7
Female (%)	66	61.3
Race		
White (%)	90	81.4
German (%)	1.8	1.2
Italian (%)	1.1	1.7
Anglo (%)	0.7	1.2
American (%)	0.7	1.2
Mexican (%)	0.7	2.3
Hispanic (%)	0.7	4.1
Education		
High school or vocational school (%)	12.4	20.7

Some college 1-3 yrs, AA degree (%)	38.7	35.8
College or university graduate (%)	15.7	3.9
One or more academic years beyond college including MA (%)	15.0	1.1
Employment		
Employed full-time (%)	69.3	32.7
Employed part-time (%)	13.6	35.2
Employed full-time with an additional part-time job (%)	5.0	1.2
Unemployed looking for work (%)	3.2	12.7
Not employed for pay- includes homemakers, volunteer full retirees (%)	8.2	18.2
Retired (%)	0.7	-
Relationship status		
Single never married (%)	0.7	76.9
Married (%)	77.4	13.2
Divorced (%)	11.0	0.5
Living situation		
Alone (%)	5.5	4.9
With mother (%)	2.1	53.6
With father (%)	1.0	34.4
With child (%)	79.6	10.4

To explore the longitudinal effect of parents' bioecological factors on emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing, parents' (G3) responses are analyzed during Wave 5. Parent's (G3) SES factors, parent's context, and personality have been operationalized as the exogenous variables. Furthermore, the study child's (G4) report for their SES factors, perceived stress for life events, and coping mechanisms will be operationalized as the predicting and mediating variables.

Perceived stress is measured using three reflective indicators. Details about the construct and its measurement can be found in Table 2.

Table 3.2. Specifications of research constructs, indicators, and reporters by wave.

Construct	Indicator	Measure	Wave 5 Reporter	Wave 6 Reporter	Wave 7 reporter
SES factors	Education	What is the highest level of education you have attained?	Parent, Child		
	Employment	Are you currently employed for pay?	Parent, Child		
	Living situation	Lives with	Parent, Child		
	Marital status	What is your current marital status or living arrangement?	Parent, Child		
Parent's factors	Parent's context	Marital satisfaction scale	Parent		
		Functional solidarity (support received from study child)	Parent		
	Personality	Eysenck Extraversion/Neuroticism Scale	Parent		
Perceived stress	Depression	Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression (CESD)	Child		
	Personality	Eysenck neuroticism	Child		
	Life satisfaction	Bradburn affect balance scale	Child		
Coping mechanism	Parental support	Functional solidarity (support received from study parent)		Child	
	Sense of autonomy	Rokeach values item: Personal freedom (independence, free choice, autonomy)		Child	
	Purpose in life	Rokeach values item: A sense of accomplishment (achievement)		Child	
Psychosocial wellbeing	Self-esteem	Rosenberg's self-esteem scale			Child
	Depression	Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression (CESD)			Child
	Life satisfaction	Bradburn affect balance scale			Child

3.1 Measures

3.1.1 Marital Satisfaction

Marital satisfaction of the Parent (G3) is measured at W5 using a 10-item Gilford-Bengtson marital satisfaction Scale (Gilford & Bengtson, 1979). Scoring of the items ranged from hardly ever (1), sometimes (2), fairly often (3), quite frequently (4), to almost always (5). Refer to Appendix A, A-1. A higher score indicates high marital satisfaction among couples ($\alpha = .88$, $M = 38.11$, $SD = 7.08$).

3.1.2 Personality

Parents' (G3) personality at W5 is measured using 18-item Eysenck extraversion/neuroticism scale ($\alpha = .85$, $M = 48.23$, $SD = 6.91$; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1963; Eysenck, Eysenck, & Barrett, 1985). Responses ranged from strongly agree (1), agree (2), disagree (3) to (4) strongly disagree. Refer to Appendix A, A-2.

3.1.3 Social Support

The exchange of support system between parents and child is measured at W5 and W6 using a 10-item index of functional solidarity scale assessing emotional and instrumental support (Bengtson & Roberts, 1991). Help received by both parents (10-item scale; $\alpha = .80$, $M = 3.56$, $SD = 2.52$) is measured at W5. Help received by child from mother (9-item scale; $\alpha = .82$, $M = 4.83$, $SD = 2.63$) and father (9-item scale; $\alpha = .97$, $M = 4.18$, $SD = 6.41$) is measured at W6. Scoring for each item is either checked (1) or not checked (0) indicating help received or not received by the respondents. Refer to Appendix A, A-3.

3.1.4 Purpose in Life and Sense of Autonomy

At W6, G4's sense of autonomy is measured using the item "Personal freedom (independence, free choice, autonomy)" ($M = 3.24$; $SD = 1.95$), and the purpose in life was measured using the item "a sense of accomplishment (achievement)" ($M = 4.08$; $SD = 1.99$) from Rokeach values materialism and individualism scale (Bengtson, Biblarz & Roberts, 2002). Responses for both items ranged from most important (1), second most important (2), third most important (3), fourth-most important (4), fifth-most important (5), sixth most important (6), seventh-most important (7), eighth-most important (8), to least important (9). Refer to Appendix A, A-4. Among the overall first five important values for each respondent, the relative independent importance of personal freedom is 87% and the sense of accomplishment is 76.2%.

3.1.5 Self-esteem

At W5 and W7, G4's self-esteem is measured using the 10-item Rosenberg's self-esteem scale (Rosenberg, 1965). Responses ranged from strongly agree (1), agree (2), disagree (3), to (4) strongly disagree. A few items are reverse coded to unify the measurement scale such that, a higher score represents a higher level of self-esteem ($\alpha = .86$, $M = 33.01$, $SD = 4.63$). Refer to Appendix A, A-5.

3.1.6 Life Satisfaction

G4's life satisfaction is measured at W5 and W7 using Bradburn affect balance scale (Bradburn, 1969). This measure is composed of two 5-item subscales: positive affect and negative affect. Refer to Appendix A, A-6. Respondents scored the item as 1 (yes) if they have experienced the item or 0 (no) if they did not experience it. The arithmetic difference between the score of positive affect and negative affect scale represents the affect balance, a measure of change in life satisfaction.

3.1.7 Depression

G4's levels of depression are measured at W5 and W7 using 20-item Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression scale (CES-d; Radloff, 1977). Responses ranged from rarely or none of the time (1), a little of the time (2), a moderate amount of the time (3), to most or all of the time (4). Refer to Appendix A, A-7. A few items of the scale are reverse coded to unify the measurement scale in the same direction, such that a lower score indicates lower depressive symptoms among participants ($\alpha = .92$, $M = 69.34$, $SD = 9.38$).

3.1.8 Covariates

Both parents' and child's education, employment, and marital status were operationalized as covariates. They were measured using demographic questions. Education was measured using "What is the highest level of education you have attained?" ($M = 3.56$, $SD = 1.43$). Responses ranged from (1) 8th grade or less to (8) post-graduate degree (Ph.D., M.D., J.D.). Employment status was measured using "Are you currently employed for pay?" ($M = 2.48$, $SD = 1.50$). Responses ranged from (1) employed full-time to (6) retired. Marital status was measured using the "What is your current marital status or living arrangement?" ($M = 6.01$, $SD = 2.05$). Responses ranged from (1) married to (7) single, never married.

3.2 Data Analysis

The aim of research for this exploratory study is grounded in two theoretical frameworks (i.e., Belsky's parenting model & family stress theory). For data analysis, structural equation modeling (SEM) is conducted to examine the interaction between parent and emerging adult's context and how perceived stress of life events might influence emerging adult's psychosocial wellbeing. SEM combines the principles of both factor analysis and path analysis and other path

modeling methods to explore the linear equations to represent the hypothesized relations among the latent construct and its multiple indicators (Kline, 2011).

In addition, this study plans to model reflective indicators for the measurement model. For reflective indicators, the direction of causality is from the latent construct to the indicators, allowing them to evaluate their respective latent construct. That is, changes in the latent construct influence their indicators (Henseler et al., 2009). SEM further allows specifying the pathways among the latent constructs and observed variables to examine specific relationships (Bollen & Noble, 2011; Li, 2011). Hence, using SEM this study plans to investigate emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing over time, and investigate personal and interpersonal mechanisms posited to impact such relationships over time. AMOS version 28 is used to perform the path analysis. For purposes of interpretation, standard beta-coefficients are used to interpret the regression weight on pathways between the variables. The beta-coefficients signify the amount the dependent variable changes for a unit increase in the predictor variable. This shows the degree to which the slope of the line is upward or downward (Kline, 2011). In addition, the direct, indirect, and total effect of the independent variables (emerging adults' perceived stress, and parent's context) on dependent variables (emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing) will be estimated.

Three factors of the goodness of fit are used to analyze the model's fit: 1) Chi-square/df index of fit, a non-significant result of this test indicates good model fit. 2) The Comparative Fit Index (CFI), ranges between 0 and 1, with the ideal fit of ≥ 0.95 as an excellent fit, and > 0.90 as a mediocre fit. and 3) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), with the ideal value for a good fit, is < 0.05 indicating an excellent fit, a value ranging between 0.05 and 0.08 is

considered a mediocre fit, and a value beyond 0.08 is regarded as poor fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Carmines & McIver, 1981; Cohen, 1988; Hu & Bentler, 1999; MacCallum et al., 1996).

The Sobel test is used to determine the indirect effect from the independent variable (perceived stress) to the dependent variable (psychosocial wellbeing) in the presence of mediated variables (parental support, purpose in life, and sense of autonomy) using Z-statistics. The Sobel test allows us to examine whether the inclusion of a mediator in the regression analysis influences the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable or not (Abu-Bader & Jones, 2021; Baron & Kenny, 1986). If the results obtained are significant then total or partial mediation can be supported and if the results are not significant then the mediator is considered to have no effect (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The Sobel test equation to calculate the z-value = $a*b/\sqrt{(b^2*s_a^2) + (a^2*s_b^2)}$; where a = unstandardized regression coefficient for the association between the independent variable and mediator, s_a = standard error of a, b = unstandardized regression coefficient for the association between the mediator and dependent variable, s_b = standard error for b (Preacher & Leonardelli, 2023). The results are significant if the obtained Z score falls outside ± 1.96 given a two-tailed alpha of 0.05 (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Chapter 4 – Results

4.1 Preliminary Analysis

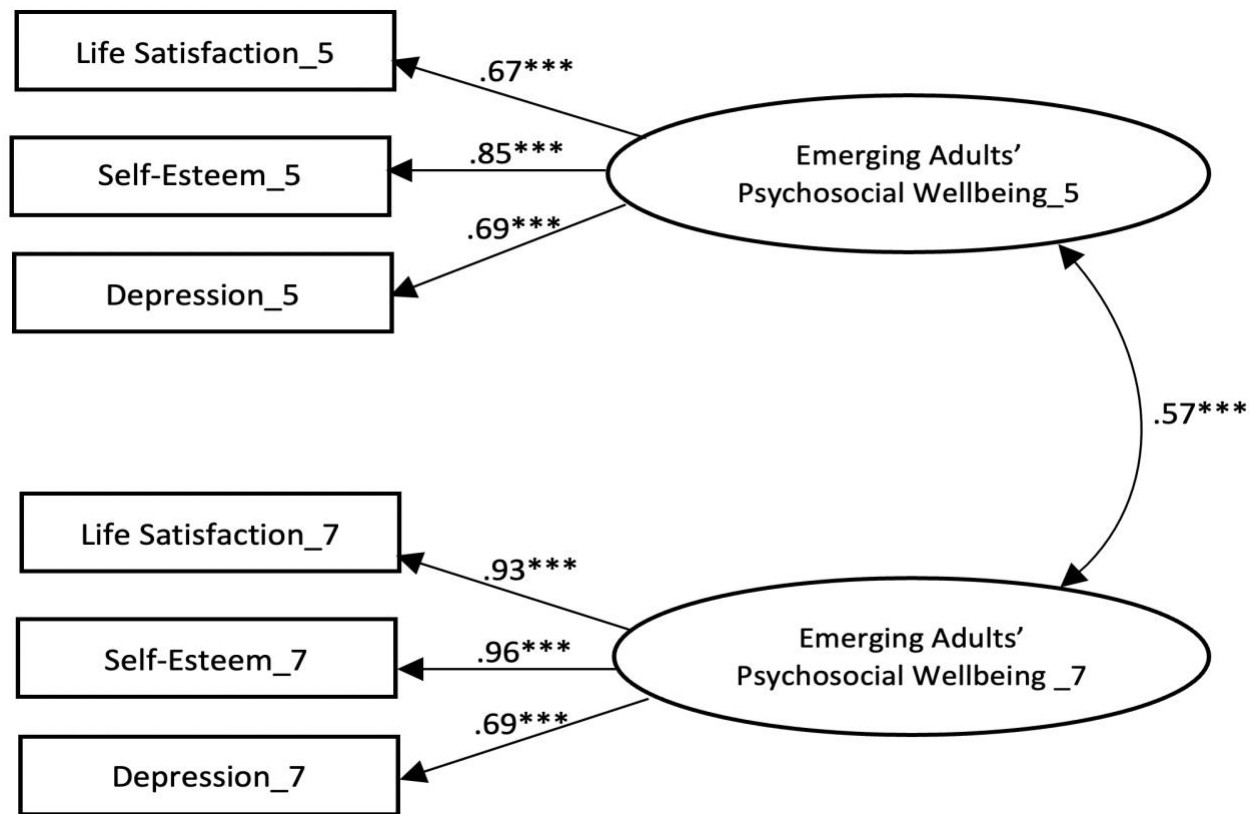
The analysis is conducted in two steps using AMOS 28. The first step executes the measurement model examining two latent constructs: emerging adults' perceived stress and emerging adults' psychological wellbeing. This model specifies the relationship between the latent variables and the observed variables (indicators). Also, it examines the association between the two latent variables measured at two different timelines (i.e., Wave 5 and Wave 7). In the second step, the structural equation model is fit to explore the longitudinal relationship between parents and emerging adults (EA) across the three waves of the study. In this step, the relationships are defined guided by the two theoretical lenses (i.e., Belsky's parenting model and family stress theory) and thereby studying a longitudinal structural model.

4.2 Measurement Model

The first evaluation step examined the measurement model to test the fit of the latent constructs (i.e., emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing) at Wave 5 and Wave 7. Here, both latent variables are modeled by the reflective indicators sharing a common theme representing the construct. In this study, indicators studied for emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing stress at Wave 5 and Wave 7 were life satisfaction, neuroticism, and depression. Representing a common theme of emerging adults' perception towards life, and how that influences their emotional state and self-perception.

Results obtained for the measurement model showed an acceptable model fit with $\chi^2/df = 2.965$, RMSEA = .073, CFI = .983. Obtained RMSEA being less than < 0.08 and CFI ≥ 0.95 indicates a good fit of the model (Carmines & McIver, 1981; Cohen, 1988; MacCallum et al., 1996). Figure 2 shows the significant pathways found in the measurement model.

Figure 4.1. Measurement Model



Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

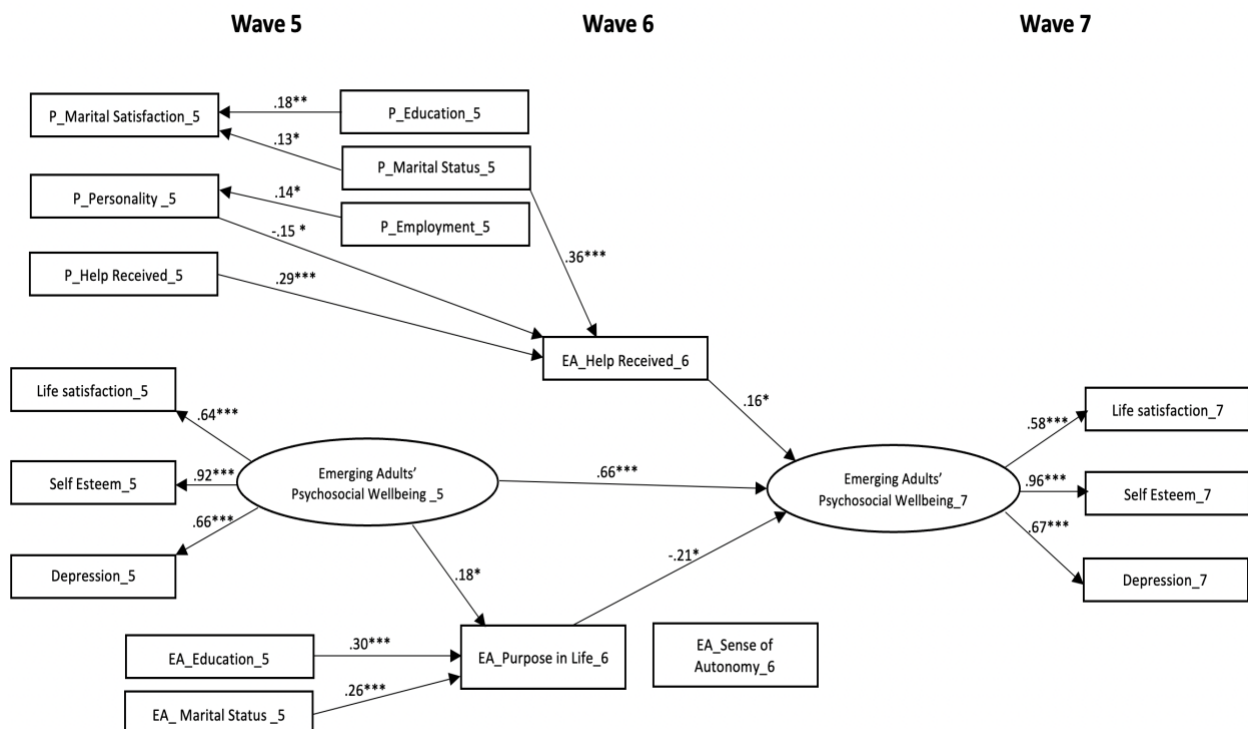
The latent construct of EA's psychosocial wellbeing is identified to have a significant positive relationship with the indicators at both Wave 5 and Wave 7: life satisfaction (W5: $\beta = .668, p < .001$; W7: $\beta = .931, p < .001$), depression (W5: $\beta = .696, p < .001$; W7: $\beta = .693, p < .001$), and self-esteem (W5: $\beta = .847, p < .001$; W7: $\beta = .961, p < .001$). Both latent constructs are significantly correlated with each other ($\beta = .566, p < .001$). The finding supports the significant association between the reflective indicators and their respective latent constructs.

With an identified good fit of the measurement model, latent constructs are further analyzed along with other research variables using structural equation modeling.

4.3 Structural Equation Model

In the second step of the analysis, a longitudinal structural model is fit by examining research variables at three waves of study (i.e., Wave 5, 6, and 7). Here, the relationship between the variables is examined based on the two theoretical frameworks: Belsky's parenting model and family stress theory. Results obtained for the structural model showed an acceptable model fit with $\chi^2/df = 1.181$, RMSEA = .024, CFI = .96. Figure 3 presents a structural equation model with the significant direct pathways identified among the research variables.

Figure 4.2. The structural model predicting emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing



Note: Only significant standardized regression values are presented.

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

Among parents' variables at wave 5, a positive direct effect is noted on parents' marital satisfaction from their marital status ($\beta = .129, p = .041$) and education status ($\beta = .177, p = .006$). Parents' employment status is found to have a significant positive effect on their personality ($\beta = .135, p = .024$). Furthermore, a significant positive correlation is identified between parents' marital satisfaction and personality ($\beta = .191, p = .004$). Lastly, parents' educational status and marital status are identified to have a negative correlation ($\beta = -.135, p = .026$). Besides these other parental variables studied based on Belsky's parenting model are found to have null or insignificant pathways at Wave 5. Such as the impact of parents' education status on their personality ($\beta = .105, p = .082$) and social support (help received by parents; $\beta = .075, p = .273$) identified to be not significant.

Consistent with the prediction based on Belsky's parenting model, a positive direct relationship is identified between help received by parents at Wave 5 and the emerging adults receiving help (parenting) at Wave 6 ($\beta = .297, p < .001$). Parent's personality at Wave 5 is found to have a negative relationship with young adults' receiving help at Wave 6 ($\beta = -.151, p = .037$). Parents' marital status at Wave 5 is found to have a substantial relationship with young adults' receiving help at Wave 6 ($\beta = .360, p < .001$). However, no significant impact is noted for parents' marital satisfaction ($\beta = -.094, p = .221$) and education status ($\beta = .138, p = .054$) measured at Wave 5 on the emerging adults receiving help at Wave 6. Supporting Belsky's parenting model that parenting may influence children's development, a positive direct association is noted between young adults receiving help at Wave 6 and emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing at Wave 7 ($\beta = .159, p = .039$).

Results show a direct positive relationship between the construct of emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing at Wave 5 and the purpose in life measured at Wave 6 ($\beta = .183, p = .026$). However, no significant effect of emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing at Wave 5 is noted on their sense of autonomy ($\beta = .029, p = .735$) and help received by young adults ($\beta = -.130, p = .137$) at Wave 6.

The covariates associated with the emerging adults at Wave 5, particularly educational status found to have a positive correlation with the EA's psychosocial wellbeing measured at Wave 5 ($\beta = .329, p < .001$). Also, a positive direct effect is found on emerging adults' purpose in life at Wave 6 from their educational status ($\beta = .304, p < .001$) and marital status ($\beta = .265, p < .001$) measured at Wave 5. However, no significant effect is identified on emerging adults receiving help at Wave 6 from their educational status ($\beta = .104, p = .210$) and employment status ($\beta = -.147, p = .070$) measured at Wave 5. Lastly, the null relationship is noted between young adults' educational status at Wave 5 and their psychosocial wellbeing at Wave 7 ($\beta = .042, p = .609$).

The results found that the outcome variable that is, emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing at Wave 7 has a positive direct significant association with emerging adults' perceived stress at Wave 5 ($\beta = .663, p < .001$) and a negative relationship with purpose in life measured at Wave 6 ($\beta = -.208, p = .013$). The direct effect of sense of autonomy ($\beta = -.115, p = .107$) at Wave 6 is found to have no significant relation with emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing at Wave 7.

It is estimated that the predictors of parental support (help received by young adults) explain 29% of its variance, emerging adults' purpose in life explains 23.3% of its variance, and sense of autonomy explains 0.1% of its variance at Wave 6. At Wave 7, it is estimated that the

predictors of depression explain 45.2% of its variance, life satisfaction explains 33.5% of its variance, and self-esteem explains 92.6% of its variance.

Finally, the Sobel test is used to examine whether the parental support, emerging adults' purpose in life, and sense of autonomy measured at Wave 6 mediate the relationship between emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing measured at Wave 5 and psychosocial wellbeing at Wave 7. Results discovered no significant indirect paths from psychosocial wellbeing at Wave 5 to Wave 7 through purpose in life ($z = -1.634, p = 0.102$), sense of autonomy ($z = -0.036; p = 0.013$), and parental support ($z = -1.213, p = 0.225$).

Chapter 5 - Methods

The present study has two central research aims, 1) to longitudinally explore parents and their adult children's dynamic relationship using two theoretical frameworks (i.e., Belsky's parenting model and family stress theory), and 2) to study the relationship between emerging adults' perceived stress and their psychosocial wellbeing. The parent-child relationship is known to be strongly associated with children's development, however, the shift in authority and instability encountered by emerging adults has been found to influence the relationship between parents and adult children (Koestner et al., 2020). Guided by two theoretical frameworks, Belsky's parenting model and the family stress theory, this study used parent-child dyadic samples to examine intergenerational interaction and emerging adults' wellbeing. This study longitudinally explores emerging adults' development in the presence of parents and adult children's context. Overall, results discovered the direct and indirect longitudinal influence of emerging adults' perceived stress on their psychosocial wellbeing and not on their parent's context.

The two theoretical frameworks used in this study have different applicability to explore the relationship based on the developmental stage. That is, Belsky's parenting model placed importance on parental factors during the early years of a child's life and how that influences young children's development (Belsky, 1984; Taraban & Shaw, 2018). Thereby limiting the in-depth understanding of the parent-child relationship beyond the adolescent years. To expand on this, the present study evaluated the relevance of Belsky's parenting model among adult children. To further support this study's proposed longitudinal structural model, family stress theory (ABCx model; Hill, 1958) was incorporated. The family stress theory is a lifespan theory; hence its applicability is versatile allowing us to understand all developmental stages.

The latent constructs of psychosocial wellbeing examined at Wave 5 and Wave 7 are identified to have a positive significant association with their reflective indicators (life satisfaction, self-esteem, and depression). This finding supports previous research that emerging adults' psychosocial subjective wellbeing may be understood through their life satisfaction, self-perception, and anxiety (Arnett, 2011, 2014; Conley et al., 2014). This fosters the ability of young adults to adapt and learn new skills or behaviors to address the encountered transitions during emerging adulthood.

As per Belsky's parenting model, parents' characteristics, their social context (marital relations, social support, and employment), and the child's characteristics influence the parenting and the child's development (Belsky, 1984; Taraban & Shaw, 2018). Of the three parental factors (i.e., marital satisfaction, personality, social support), this study showed an association among parents receiving help (social support), their personality measured at Wave 5, and the parental support (emerging adults' receiving help from parents) at Wave 6. This asserts the presence of a reciprocal relationship between parents and adult children, which demonstrates the renegotiated parent-child relationship and roles during emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2004). Such as, adult children extend support to their parents in their time of need and seek parental support as required. The support system includes emotional (guidance, nurturance, etc.), and materialistic (residence, financial, etc.) assistance. Belsky (1984) emphasized the importance of considering the context of the relationship between parent and child while examining parenting and its impact on a child's development. Supporting that bioecological perspective allows us to understand how parents and young adults reach out to their both internal and external support systems in times of stress or instability.

Furthermore, several empirical studies noted the association between personality and parenting for young children, when parents are highly involved in their children's life (Belsky et al., 2009; Prinzie et al., 2009; Taraban & Shaw, 2018). The present study further confirms this parent-child interaction during emerging adulthood, where the parent's personality is negatively related to the help received by young adults. Perhaps, as young adults practice their autonomy and have access to other resources, it influences the solidarity in parent-adult child relationships reflected through parenting or social support (Fingerman et al., 2020). As of result, parents may have reduced the amount of constant presence in their adult children's influencing the quality of relationships. The parents' overtly sharing and connecting, or their extremely sensitive emotional nature may have distanced adult children from seeking help from their parents. Hence, perceived inconsistency in parents' emotional availability may have influenced young adults' approach to their parent's support to a certain extent.

This study identified no significant impact for the parents' marital satisfaction measured at Wave 5 on the parental support at Wave 6. This contradicts Belsky's proposition about how parents' marital relationship has the potential to influence parenting (Taraban & Shaw, 2018). To examine the marital relationship, this study measured marital satisfaction. Marital satisfaction represents the communication and affection qualities in a relationship (Stroud et al., 2011). However, as this study is exploring parenting for young adults, it might be possible that both parents and young adults' perceptions of each other's bioecological system were holistic and dynamic. Whereby they respect family members' decisions about managing their marital relationship and not letting their overt as well as covert behaviors influence their parenting or parent-child relationship.

The family stress theory (ABCx model; Hill, 1958) lens offers an additional explanation for the null relationship between marital satisfaction, and parenting. Assuming the marital relationship is a potential stressor encountered by parents, their social support and education available as resources assist them to address any instability that arose in their ecological system. Furthermore, as personality influences individuals' way of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Belsky & Jaffee, 2006), it may be considered as the perception of the stressor or instability. As per family stress theory, the perception of the stressor and the resources available to the individual/family may contribute to the outcome effect of the stressor (Cutrona et al., 2011; Martin, 2018). Supporting this, the present study found positive correlations between personality and marital satisfaction and the direct positive impact of education and marital status on marital satisfaction. Perhaps the parent's personality (perception of stressor) along with the support systems (i.e., supportive partner, education, employment) might have reduced any spillover effect on the parental support (parenting).

Belsky's parenting model was originally created to understand the parent-child relationship during the early years of a child's life. Supporting that, the present study shows its relevance during emerging adulthood by identifying a direct positive association between parental support (young adults receiving help from parents) measured at Wave 6 and emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing at Wave 7. Belsky's work on the parents' bioecological system (Taraban & Shaw, 2018), along with the relational contextual perspective (Lerner et al., 2015) offers empirical backup to understand the parent-child relationship across the lifespan. That is, despite the parent and adult children's relationship being renegotiated during emerging adulthood, young adults continue to stay in contact with their parents for various reasons, which has the potential to influence their wellbeing over time. This supports previous studies finding

that emerging adults and their parents continue to stay in contact with each other even after moving out of the parental house and exchange necessary support (both materialistic and emotional) and has the potential to influence their holistic wellbeing (Copp et al., 2017; Skulborstad & Herman, 2016). Another potential reason for this positive relationship is that young adults' characteristics of optimism and resourcefulness might have enabled young adults to develop resiliency with the help of their other characteristics (e.g., purpose in life) to achieve holistic development. Hence, the parenting model proposed by Belsky offers a rationale for how it functions, parents and adult children's factors influence parenting, and ultimately the adult children's development over time.

Another explanation for the positive relationship could be the result of emerging adults' ongoing effort to achieve a new equilibrium state using their internal resources. This aligns with the family stress theory's core proposition that individuals' internal and external resources, along with their perception aid to regain an equilibrium state (Luhman et al., 2012). Hence, potentially emerging adults' purpose in life and autonomy may have assisted them to mitigate the possible negative influence of parents' factors on their psychosocial wellbeing over time. A different possibility for having a positive effect could be due to intensified sense of independence developed during emerging adulthood might have advanced a sense of leading one's life (Hill et al., 2019; Luhman et al., 2020). This supports the relational developmental perspective that individuals are active contributors to their development (Lerner et al., 2015). Thereby, emerging adults possibly may have discovered a way to balance out the relationship with their parents and not let their parent's bioecological system impact their development over their young adult years.

Emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing (representing young adults' perceived stress), educational status, and employment status measured at Wave 5 were found to have no significant

effect on the parental support (help received by young adults) at Wave 6. This contradicts Belsky's parenting model, which emphasizes that a child's characteristics influence parenting (Belsky, 1984). One of the possible reasons may be the changed dynamics and proximity between parents and adult children observed during emerging adulthood. That is young adults may attempt to manage their perceived stress with their internal resources and not share every detail with their parents, thereby reducing their dependence on their parents. Previous studies have noted that despite experiencing psychosocial concerns, young adults are not found to display lower help-seeking behavior (Gagnon et al., 2015; Kessler et al., 2012).

Furthermore, this null finding contradicts to family stress theory's proposition that the way the family system regulates encountered stressors or instability determines whether the impact of the stressor results in a crisis or a new equilibrium state (Conger et al., 2010; Fingerman et al., 2020). That is, individuals who encounter a stressor event (in this study, emerging adults' perceived stress) try to reach out to their available resources (i.e., parental support) to address the stressor and re-establish the equilibrium state. This finding aligns with previous research that children have the potential to influence their parents' development and wellbeing (Conger et al., 2010; Cutrona et al., 2011; Fingerman et al., 2020). This was reflected in the present study's finding of the negative relationship between parents' personality and the help received by young adults. Therefore, considering young adults' perceived stress may inversely impact their parents' wellbeing, young adults might try to regulate their psychosocial wellbeing through different means and not add stressors to their parents' lives.

The current study showed a positive effect of perceived stress (psychosocial wellbeing at Wave 5) on emerging adults' purpose in life and a null relationship with the sense of autonomy. Purpose in life has been identified as a perception that one can get creative and remain persistent

in their values to overcome instability (Hill et al., 2018). Denoting internal factors such as higher self-esteem, optimism, and positive emotional regulation fosters purposefulness during emerging adulthood, which helps emerging adults to thrive through this developmental period (Arpawong et al., 2016; Neupert & Belingtier, 2019). Hence confirming that emerging adults' optimistic view toward their future goals and life, functions as an internal motivating factor. Just like the family stress theory noted that the perception of life events/stressors may be one of the determining factors in whether the outcome will lead to stability or crisis (Fingerman et al., 2020). Also, this study identified a positive relationship among emerging adults' marital status, educational status, and their purpose in life. This demonstrates that the presence of personal resources assists emerging adults' purposefulness and managing their life events (Fingerman et al., 2020; Guan & Fuligni 2015). That might have fostered emerging adults' belief in one's ability to navigate the perceived stress to work in the favor of their development. Further representing that emerging adults' perception of life events might be a variational factor influencing their characteristics. Young adults' ability to reassign their available resources guided by their purpose in life might be the potential reason for the null effect of psychosocial wellbeing at Wave 5 on their sense of autonomy. The current study identified a direct negative relationship between purpose in life and psychosocial wellbeing at Wave 7. This finding highlights the distressing effect of stressors on emerging adults. A potential explanation for this outcome could be that the moment emerging adults focus on their perceived stress, it requires them to reevaluate the priority of their current and future goals. This further affects their characteristics to cope with the situation and introduces purpose anxiety. That is, young adults, feel anxious to uphold their purpose in life amid all instability, which becomes a potential stressor and negatively impacts their wellbeing. This over time negative relationship between

purpose in life and psychosocial wellbeing at Wave 7 reflects the disequilibrium and instability as explained by family stress theory (Fingerman et al., 2020; Hill, 1958).

The present study found a direct positive effect of emerging adults' perceived stress on their psychosocial wellbeing over time. This finding further supports that not all stressors lead to negative outcomes but instead foster positive development by learning new skills (Arpawong et al., 2016; Bellingtier et al., 2017; Scott et al., 2017). Besides that, the sense of autonomy did not seem to have a direct significant negative effect on psychosocial wellbeing over time. This partially supports previous studies which noted that the negative effect of perceived stress on emerging adults may arise a feeling of helplessness which may lead to a detrimental effect on their sense of autonomy and wellbeing (Estrada-Martinez et al., 2012; Inguglia et al., 2016). However, the non-significant effect of autonomy on psychosocial wellbeing might be the result of other available resources. A potential interpretation is that the presence of purpose in life and parental support might have minimized the further impact of the sense of autonomy on their psychosocial wellbeing. Thereby, balancing the negative effect of a reduced sense of autonomy with the support of their self-determination to cope with the stressor and optimistically focus on their future goals.

Furthermore, this study identified no indirect effect of perceived stress on psychosocial wellbeing through purpose in life, sense of autonomy, and parental support. Instead, all direct effects were identified presenting the association between young adults' internal factor (purpose in life) influencing their adaptive behavior toward the perceived stress. Based on the ABCx model (Hill 1958) a possible reason could be that young adults' optimistic outlook and direct parental support may have reduced the longitudinal indirect impact of stressors and instability. This further may have allowed young adults to rationally process the perceived stress and

enhance their competence to minimize any snowball effect of stressors on their psychosocial wellbeing.

As previous studies have noted that there are two types of stress: eustress and distress (Luhmann et al., 2012; Veerland et al., 2019), this study noted the effect of both types of stress influencing emerging adults' development over time. That is, a distressing effect was identified when exploring the direct relationship between emerging adults' characteristics (purpose in life and sense of autonomy) on their psychosocial wellbeing in the second half of the timeline (Wave 6 – Wave 7) and the eustress effect was noted when exploring the direct effect of perceived stress (psychosocial wellbeing at Wave 5) on their psychosocial wellbeing (Wave 5 – Wave 7). This reflects that with time and realizing the presence of other support systems, young adults can redeem their confidence to overcome stressful situations and achieve a new equilibrium state (Skulborstad & Herman, 2016). Results allow us to confirm that the effect of stress could be both positive and negative on emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing depending on their available support system and their perception of the stressors. Also, the parent-child relationship plays a central role across the lifespan.

5.1 Limitations and Future Directions

Besides the new contributions that this study has offered, it has a few limitations. First, this study used a secondary dataset in which the data was obtained from a controlled geographic location, limiting cross-cultural generalizability and which may have the potential influence of response bias in the obtained data. Hence, future studies may consider using primary research or a more diverse dataset to represent the target population to further understand the intergenerational relationship by using direct measures to study the interest variable. Also,

scholars may consider exploring the relationship between emerging adults' other characteristics on their wellbeing.

Second, this study measured purpose in life and a sense of autonomy using a one-item scale derived from the main scale of Rokeach values materialism and individualism (Bengtson, Biblarz & Roberts, 2002). This probably might have limited the ability to understand the pathways between the variables of interest. To mitigate this potential limitation, future studies may consider using other methods to measure emerging adults' purpose in life and sense of autonomy. For example, using a latent construct, recoding variables differently, and if it's a primary study then, scholars can incorporate scale to measure purpose and autonomy suitable for young adults.

Third, the present study used indirect measures to study perceived stress reflected through psychosocial wellbeing. This might have limited the understanding of how young adults experience and express their perceived stress. To verify this association and achieve a better understanding of the role of stressors in young adults' development, future scholars may incorporate other potential methods and measures to examine emerging adults' perceived stress and its impact on their psychosocial wellbeing.

Fourth, in this study, the longitudinal model was fit to explore the longitudinal impact of parent and emerging adults' relationship on emerging adults' wellbeing. But no direct variable measuring the closeness between parent and child was studied at all three waves. Hence, to better understand how parent and emerging adults' relationship evolves with time, future research might need to consider exploring the frequency and amount of closeness between parent and emerging adult at different times. Also, future research may consider analyzing different family compositions (such as single-parent households, and blended families) to examine if the family

structure or internal family dynamic impacts the parent-child relationship and emerging adults' wellbeing.

Lastly, the present study examined all dyads (mother-child and father-child) together. This limited the specifics on how each gender responded to the stressors, available resources, support system, and its impact on their wellbeing. To address this in the future scholars might use a different approach to collect data on each pair independently as well as collectively. For instance, examining responses for each subset of the sample (mother-daughter, mother-son, father-daughter, father-son) independently. That will allow us to understand the gender-based influence among variables' relationships.

5.2 Implications

5.2.1 Theoretical Implications

The current study contributes to the existing literature by exploring the parent-child intergenerational relationship, perceived stress, and emerging adults' psychosocial wellbeing using two theoretical lenses (Belsky's parenting model and family stress theory). This approach presented an opportunity to understand not only how emerging adults regulate the perceived stress using the available resources and their characteristics but allowed an examination of how a parent and adult child's relationship evolves from childhood to adulthood. By examining the determinant of parents and parental support, the current study's findings validate partial Belsky's parenting model in terms of how both parental factors and a child's characteristics influence parenting (i.e., parental support). Results confirm that Belsky's parenting model applies to understanding the parent-child relationship during emerging adulthood. Consistent with family stress theory on how resources and perception may determine the outcome of stressors, current

results show both positive and negative effects of perceived stress on emerging adults' wellbeing.

5.2.2 Clinical Implications

The current study's findings could enable parents and emerging adults to understand how the dynamics in the parent-child relationship and roles change with time perhaps allowing them to reorient their expectations for each other and foster a supportive intergenerational relationship. The present study shows that parents and emerging adults reciprocate the support system to each other over time. This information might help emerging adults and their parents learn how to communicate their needs and discover an efficient approach to develop their autonomy and find purpose in life. For instance, creating space for emerging adults to function independently and be curious about them, not overprotecting young adults by always offering a solution to their problems, and avoiding blaming or belittling young adults for their mistakes. Moreover, this allows young adults to foster their purpose in life which as per this study's findings directly affects young adults' psychosocial wellbeing.

Furthermore, consistent with other research, this study confirms the fact that the effect of stress may be both positive and negative on emerging adults' wellbeing. This provides insight to professionals (such as counselors, therapists, and policymakers) on how to intervene and address any situation related to emerging adults and their families by understanding their intergenerational relationship and the varying role of stress. The current findings show that young adults' characteristics (purpose in life and sense of autonomy) and the parental support they received, directly influence their psychosocial wellbeing. Hence, professionals can use this information to formulate their approach to understand the actual reason why a family comes to therapy, the level of stress when a family comes in for therapy, both parent and young adults'

attitude towards the whole process and helping them to destress to improve the parent-child relationship and enable them to help themselves. Also, professionals may help families to learn preventive measures that may assist them during times of instability and the ways to reinstate the equilibrium state in the family system.

In addition, the present findings show that emerging adults' internal resources play a central role in navigating perceived stress. They do seek parental support as needed and thereby parental factors do impact young adults' psychosocial wellbeing. This result may help program developers and policymakers to understand the gap between the needs, issues, existing policies, and resources of emerging adults and their families. Thereby, working towards bridging that gap and ultimately nurturing positive wellbeing. Also, incorporating different approaches to involve parents and emerging adults in the process by developing family programs might address their individual developmental needs, and simultaneously allow them to best understand the developmental period of emerging adulthood.

Lastly, various organizations have commenced developmental programs for young adults and share resources to support young adults, their families, and professionals. Though this study's findings do not offer cross-cultural generalizability, results offer a potential tangent for how to develop different approaches that may support young adults' development focusing on their characteristics (e.g., purpose in life and sense of autonomy) and positively elevating their relationship with parents. As the current study shows that young adults' perceived stress has a direct positive effect on their psychosocial wellbeing, programs may be developed around this by creating mentorship for emerging adults. That is, mentors can help young adults to learn how to perceive the stressor event as a motivating factor and effectively use their available resources to overcome any challenges. Finally, agencies may use these results in creating multiple

generational programs designed to enhance the psychosocial wellbeing of young adults. Program components such as community engagement, family social hours, and educational seminars may assist young adults in fostering their purpose in life in light of their perceived stress and available parental support.

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Appendix A Measures

A.1. Gilford-Bengtson Marital Satisfaction Scale

It is a 10-item scale (Gilford & Bengtson, 1979). Participants score the items ranging from hardly ever (1), sometimes (2), fairly often (3), quite frequently (4), to almost always (5).

When you are with your spouse or partner:

1. You calmly discuss something together.
2. One of you is sarcastic.
3. You work together on something (dishes, yard work, hobbies, childcare, etc.).
4. One of you refuses to talk in a normal manner (e.g., shouting, or, not talking).
5. You laugh together.
6. You have a stimulating exchange of ideas.
7. You disagree about something important.
8. One of you becomes critical and belittling.
9. You have a good time together.
10. One of you becomes angry.

A.2. Eysenck Extraversion/Neuroticism Scale

The measure comprised of two subscales: Extraversion and Neuroticism. Responses range from strongly agree (1), agree (2), disagree (3) to (4) strongly disagree.

A. Extraversion:

1. I like plenty of bustle and excitement around me.
2. I enjoy meeting new people.
3. I can usually let go and enjoy myself at a party.
4. I am a talkative person.

5. I am a talkative person.
6. I usually take the initiative in making new friends.
7. I like telling jokes or funny stories to other people.

B. Neuroticism:

1. I am a "worrier."
2. I sometimes feel "just miserable" for no reason.
3. I tend to keep in the background on social occasions.
4. I often feel listless and tired for no reason.
5. I am often bothered by feelings of guilt.
6. I often worry about things I should not have said or done.
7. My feelings are easily hurt.
8. I would call myself tense or "high strung".
9. I am mostly quiet when I am with other people.
10. I suffer from "nerves."
11. I worry too long after an embarrassing experience.

A.3. Functional Solidarity

It is a 10-item index of functional solidarity assessing emotional and instrumental support (Bengtson & Roberts, 1991). Each item was either checked (1) or not checked (0) indicating help received or not received by the respondents.

1. Household chores
2. Transportation/shopping
3. Information and advice
4. Emotional support
5. Financial assistance

6. Discussing important life decisions
7. Visiting/sharing leisure activities
8. Help when you are sick
9. Childcare (if applicable)
10. Assistance with personal care (e.g., help with bathing, dressing, etc.).

A.4. Rokeach Values Materialism and Individualism

Note: Two items from the original scale are independently used as a single item scale to measure the following variables.

A. Sense of autonomy:

1. Personal freedom (independence, free choice, autonomy)

B. Purpose in life:

1. A sense of accomplishment (achievement)

A.5. Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale

It is a 10-item scale (Rosenberg, 1965). Responses ranged from strongly agree (1), agree (2), disagree (3), to (4) strongly disagree.

1. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others.
2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
3. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
5. I feel that I do not have much to be proud of.
6. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
7. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
9. I certainly feel useless at times.

10. At times I think I am no good at all.

A.6. Bradburn Affect Balance Scale

This measure is composed of two 5-item subscales: positive affect and negative affect. The item was scored as 1 (yes) if the respondent has experienced the item or 0 (no) if they did not experience it.

A. Positive affect:

1. Particularly excited or interested in something.
2. Proud because someone complimented you on something you had done.
3. Pleased about having accomplished something.
4. On top of the world.
5. That things were really going your way.

B. Negative affect:

1. So restless that you couldn't sit long in a chair.
2. Very lonely or remote from other people.
3. Bored.
4. Depressed or very unhappy.
5. Upset because someone criticized you.

A.7. Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression (CES-d)

It is a 20-item scale (Radloff, 1977). Items are scored as rarely or none of the time (1), a little of the time (2), a moderate amount of the time (3), most or all of the time (4).

1. I was bothered by things that don't usually bother me.
2. I did not feel like eating; my appetite was poor.
3. I felt that I could not shake the blues even with help from my family or friends.
4. I felt that I was just as good as other people.

5. I had trouble keeping my mind on what I was doing.
6. I felt depressed.
7. I felt that everything I did was an effort.
8. I felt hopeful about the future.
9. I thought my life had been a failure.
10. I felt fearful.
11. My sleep was restless.
12. I was happy.
13. I talked less than usual.
14. I felt lonely.
15. People were unfriendly.
16. I enjoyed life.
17. I had crying spells.
18. I felt sad.
19. I felt that people disliked me.
20. I could not get going.