

# INFLUENCE OF PERCEIVED SOCIAL SUPPORT AND COPING STYLE ON EUSTRESS, PERSONALITY AND PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING AMONG YOUNG ADULTS

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**Abstract:** This study investigates how perceived social support and coping style predict eustress, psychological well-being, and personality traits among young adults. It aims to identify how internal (coping strategies) and external (social support) resources influence adaptive stress responses and mental health outcomes. A quantitative, cross-sectional design was employed, using standardized tools including the Perceived Stress Scale, Brief COPE Inventory, Big Five Inventory (and the WHO-5 Well-Being Index). The sample consisted of 300 young adults aged 18–25, selected through purposive sampling, with data collected through both online and offline formats (50% each). Data analysis included descriptive statistics, regression analysis, and Kruskal–Wallis tests to examine group differences and predictors. Results showed that coping style significantly predicted eustress and personality traits, while perceived social support was a strong predictor of psychological well-being and also contributed positively to personality traits. Notably, coping style showed a negative association with psychological well-being, suggesting that certain maladaptive coping mechanisms might be involved. Eustress was positively linked with adaptive coping and negatively with external support, indicating that greater support might reduce the motivational push of stress. Significant group differences were found across gender, income, occupation, marital status, and place of residence in variables like social support, well-being, and coping styles. However, personality traits remained relatively stable across demographic categories. These findings emphasize the nuanced roles of coping and support in shaping stress experiences and well-being in young adulthood, and they offer practical implications for developing resilience-based interventions and mental health support systems.

**IndexTerms** - Eustress, Coping Style, Perceived Social Support, Psychological Well-being, Personality Traits, Regression, Kruskal-Wallis, Young Adults

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 EUSTRESS

Eustress, a concept introduced by Hans Selye, refers to a positive form of stress that enhances performance, boosts motivation, and fosters personal growth, in contrast to distress, which can lead to emotional exhaustion, burnout, and health problems. Young adulthood, typically between 18 and 29 years, represents a critical period marked by academic demands, career building responsibilities, financial independence, and identity formation (Arnett, 2001). These challenges inevitably generate stress, yet when perceived positively, they can drive achievement, resilience, creativity, and overall psychological well-being. The broaden-and-build theory explains that positive emotions triggered by eustress expand cognitive flexibility and behavioral responses, enabling individuals to adapt effectively to obstacles while building long-term psychological resources (Fredrickson, 2001). Similarly, the transactional model of stress and coping emphasizes that stress outcomes depend on how situations are appraised: viewing challenges as opportunities enhances goal achievement, resilience, creativity, and well-being (Nelson & Cooper, 2007).

#### 1.1.1 Perceptions and Appraisals of Positive Stress

Empirical studies further underscore the benefits of eustress. Amelie Posse (2017) found that eustress mediates the relationship between optimism and well-being, showing that individuals who perceive challenges positively experience greater life efficacy. Matejek (2019) highlighted that eustress and distress operate in opposite directions, with eustress predicting lower depressive symptoms, improved resilience, and better emotional regulation. Beyond mental health, eustress enhances cognitive flexibility, motivation, and productivity while supporting emotional regulation, thereby reducing the risk of chronic stress-related conditions (Hulsing, 2017). Conversely, insufficient eustress or poor stress management is linked to reduced psychological well-being and diminished capacity to navigate life's challenges effectively. Collectively, these findings portray eustress not merely as a reaction to pressure but as a vital driver of growth, adaptability, and overall life satisfaction.

### 1.1.2 Characteristics of Eustress

Eustress is associated with better well-being: when stress is perceived as a challenge and when individuals believe in their capacity to cope, stress can motivate growth, increase performance, and enhance resilience. Studies that distinguish positive stress show stronger outcomes in mental health and emotion regulation. The adoption of adaptive coping strategies (e.g., positive reframing, problem solving) makes it more likely that stress will be experienced as eustress. Maladaptive coping tends to block that pathway. Personality traits affect whether one experiences eustress. For example, high conscientiousness, extraversion, and openness predicts greater ability to interpret stressors as motivating rather than overwhelming. Perceived social support strengthens the chance that stress is seen positively: feeling supported reduces threat appraisal and encourages challenge appraisals, boosting psychological well-being.

### 1.1.3 Factors affecting Eustress

Eustress doesn't just happen on its own; it is shaped by a mix of psychological, social, and situational factors. Personality traits play a key role. Individuals high in openness and extraversion are more likely to see challenges as opportunities, turning stressful situations into growth experiences. On the other hand, those high in neuroticism often perceive the same situations as threats, increasing the likelihood of distress. (McCrae & Costa, 1990). Coping mechanisms also influence how stress is experienced. Adaptive strategies, such as problem-solving, positive reframing, and seeking support, help individuals transform stress into eustress. In contrast, maladaptive coping, including avoidance, denial, or substance use, often worsens stress and hampers overall functioning (Carver, 1997). Another important factor is perceived social support. Emotional and practical support from family, friends, or significant others enhances resilience and encourages a positive response to stress. Lack of such support, however, is linked to higher distress and poorer psychological outcomes. (Zimet et al., 1988) How stress is appraised also matters. People who see stressors as challenges tend to experience eustress, whereas those who interpret them as threats are more prone to distress.

### 1.1.4 Significance of Eustress

Eustress serves as an important adaptive response during young adulthood, a period marked by academic, career, financial, and social challenges. It helps individuals stay motivated, develop resilience, and maintain psychological well-being. However, the experience of eustress is shaped by the interplay of personality traits, coping mechanisms, and perceived social support. Despite its importance, research examining these interrelationships among young adults in the Indian context is limited. The present study seeks to address this gap by quantitatively exploring how coping style, social support, and personality traits influence eustress and overall psychological well-being.

## 1.2 Personality traits

Personality traits, defined as enduring patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that distinguish individuals and remain relatively stable across situations, play a crucial role in shaping how young adults respond to stress (McCrae & Costa, 1990). During the transition to adulthood a period marked by higher education, career-building, financial independence, and identity exploration individuals encounter numerous challenges. How these challenges are perceived and managed often depends on personality structure. For instance, an extraverted student may approach academic deadlines with enthusiasm and collaboration, turning pressure into motivation, whereas a highly neurotic student may perceive the same situation as overwhelming and distressing. (Arnett, 2001)

### 1.2.1 Theory of Personality traits

The Five-Factor Model, or Big Five, provides a framework for understanding these dynamics, encompassing Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism. Each trait uniquely influences coping, well-being, and the likelihood of experiencing eustress. Extraversion and openness are associated with higher eustress and well-being, as such individuals are more likely to embrace challenges as opportunities (Matejcek, 2019). Conscientiousness fosters effective time management, resilience, and reduced risk of burnout, acting as a protective factor against chronic stress (Ingvild Berg et al., 2011). Agreeableness enhances social connectedness and encourages support-seeking behaviors, buffering stress and improving psychological well-being (Zimet et al., 1988). In contrast, neuroticism increases susceptibility to negative appraisals, anxiety, and depressive symptoms, heightening vulnerability to distress (John & Srivastava, 1999).

### 1.2.2 Characteristics of Personality traits

Research shows that personality traits also moderate how stress is interpreted and managed. Individuals with higher self-control typically low in neuroticism and high in conscientiousness are more likely to experience eustress, whereas those with lower self-control or unhealthy Type A tendencies are prone to distress (Ravich, 1996). Personality interacts with coping mechanisms, conscientious and open individuals prefer adaptive strategies like planning and positive reframing, while neurotic individuals rely more on maladaptive approaches (Carver, 1997). Extraverted and agreeable individuals tend to build stronger support networks, further enhancing their capacity to transform stress into motivation (Zimet et al., 1988). Gender differences in stress perception are partially explained by personality variations, as female students often report higher stress levels, reflecting traits such as higher neuroticism and agreeableness (Nayak et al., 2023). Empirical studies reinforce these insights. Matejcek in 2019 found that extraversion reduces distress and mediates the link between personality and depression. Tieman (2016) showed that traits like extraversion and conscientiousness predict faster stress recovery, while Berg demonstrated that neuroticism and extraversion strongly influence stress perception across occupational groups. High self-control is linked to more eustress, whereas neuroticism weakens the positive relationship between eustress and health outcomes (Ravich, 1996).

### 1.2.3 Significance of Personality traits

personality traits act as a key moderator in the experience of stress, shaping whether young adults encounter challenges as motivating eustress or harmful distress. Traits like openness, extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness promote resilience, motivation, and well-being, while neuroticism increases vulnerability. Given the complex transitions of young adulthood, personality provides the psychological foundation that interacts with coping mechanisms, social support, and stress perception. This study integrates these factors to explore their combined influence on eustress and psychological well-being among young adults

## 1.3 Psychological well-being

Psychological well-being reflects an individual's ability to function effectively in daily life, realize personal potential, manage normal life stresses, work productively, and contribute meaningfully to society (WHO, 2001). In occupational and educational contexts, it encompasses both positive affect and effective functioning sustained concentration, motivation, and healthy social relationships which are critical during young adulthood, a life stage marked by higher education, career entry, financial independence, and identity exploration (Arnett, 2001). During this period, adaptive functioning and resilience are particularly important, as insufficient well-being can hinder academic progress, career development, and social stability, while increasing vulnerability to stress-related disorders.

### 1.3.1 Effects of Social Connectedness

The effects of well-being are wide-ranging. High well-being is associated with improved academic and occupational performance, enhanced physical health, effective coping in adversity, greater life satisfaction, and lower risk of mental health disturbances such as depression and anxiety (Ryff, 1989; Diener et al., 1999). In contrast, low well-being manifests as diminished focus, increased absenteeism, unhealthy behaviors, and reduced productivity (WHO, 2001). The stakes are particularly high for young adults, whose experiences during this formative period can have enduring impacts on career trajectories, relationships, and susceptibility to chronic stress. Several interrelated factors shape psychological well-being. Personality traits serve as stable predictors: conscientiousness, extraversion, and emotional stability enhance well-being, whereas neuroticism increases vulnerability (McCrae & Costa, 1990; Matejek, 2019). Coping styles further mediate outcomes; adaptive strategies such as problem-solving, positive reframing, and seeking support mitigate stress and bolster well-being, while maladaptive strategies like avoidance or substance use exacerbate distress (Carver, 1997; Park & Adler, 2003). Perceived social support provides a crucial buffer; access to emotional, informational, or instrumental

### 1.3.2 Influence of Psychological well-being

The appraisal of stress whether it is interpreted as eustress or distress is a pivotal factor influencing well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Eustress, or positively perceived stress, is linked to higher positive affect and personal growth, contributing to better emotional regulation and reduced depressive symptoms (Posse, 2017; Matejek, 2019). Conversely, distress, stemming from threat-focused appraisals or insufficient coping resources, undermines functioning and long term health outcomes. Theoretical frameworks illuminate these dynamics. The broaden-and-build theory explains that positive emotions broaden cognition and build enduring psychological resources; eustress induced enthusiasm and interest expand coping strategies and enhance resilience (Fredrickson, 2001). The transactional model of stress and coping highlights the role of cognitive appraisal and resource evaluation: stress perceived as manageable and supported by adequate resources enhances well-being rather than diminishing it (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Additionally, personality theories such as the Big Five provide dispositional accounts, showing how individual differences influence stress perception, coping style, and baseline well-being. (John & Srivastava, 1999) Empirical research reinforces these links. Eustress mediates the relationship between optimism and well-being, fostering resilience and emotion regulation (Posse, 2017; Matejek, 2019). Extraverted and emotionally stable individuals recover from stress more rapidly, whereas neurotic individuals experience poorer outcomes (Berg et al., 2011; Matejek, 2019). Adaptive coping and strong social support synergistically enhance well-being in young adults and Indian studies highlight the importance of these factors in culturally specific contexts (Nayak et al., 2023). Understanding these interconnections has practical implications. Interventions can be designed to strengthen adaptive coping skills, enhance social support networks through mentoring or peer programs, and develop personality-informed resilience programs, particularly for individuals high in neuroticism. Measurement tools such as the WHO-5 Well-Being Index and Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scales enable both screening and detailed domain-specific assessment, guiding targeted strategies to promote well-being.

### 1.3.3 Significance of Psychological well-being

psychological well-being is a multidimensional construct central to academic, occupational, and social functioning. It is shaped by a dynamic interplay of personality traits, coping mechanisms, social support, and stress appraisal. Positive stress or eustress emerges as a key driver of growth, resilience, and effective functioning, while negative stress or distress impairs these outcomes. Examining these relationships, especially in under-researched contexts such as India, provides critical insights for interventions aimed at fostering mental health and long term life satisfaction among young adults.

## 1.4 Coping style

Coping mechanisms are the cognitive and behavioral strategies individuals use to navigate stressful situations and regulate their emotional responses (Carver, 1997; Folkman, 1984). These strategies emerge after a person appraises a stressor, shaping outcomes such as eustress, distress, or overall psychological well-being. In educational and occupational contexts, effective coping is essential for maintaining motivation, performance, and mental health. For young adults, who are navigating a critical life stage filled with academic demands, career development, and evolving social relationships, coping strategies often determine whether stress becomes a catalyst for growth or a source of maladjustment (Arnett, 2001; Park, 2003).

### 1.4.1 Psychological and Social Predictors of Coping Responses

Young adults who employ adaptive coping strategies are more likely to transform academic and career challenges into opportunities for personal growth, while those relying on avoidant or maladaptive styles risk burnout, decreased motivation, and reduced life satisfaction. Several psychological and social factors shape coping responses. Personality traits, for example, influence the choice of strategies: extraverted and open individuals tend to use active, problem-focused, or socially oriented coping, whereas highly neurotic individuals are more prone to withdrawal, rumination, and avoidance (McCrae & Costa, 1990). Social support further modulates coping effectiveness; those with strong support systems are more likely to seek help and share concerns, whereas lack of support often drives reliance on maladaptive strategies, amplifying stress and poor outcomes (Zimet et al., 1988). How stress is appraised is equally critical. When stressors are seen as challenges, young adults are motivated to engage in problem-focused coping, leading to eustress and enhanced well-being. Conversely, stress perceived as threatening encourages avoidance or denial, resulting in distress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Real-life stressors such as academic workload, financial uncertainty, career ambiguity, and even social media pressures contribute to coping patterns, with excessive comparison or withdrawal often leading to maladaptive responses (Nayak et al., 2023).

### 1.4.2 Classification and Implications of Coping Strategies

Coping strategies can be broadly categorized according to Carver's Brief COPE framework. Problem-focused coping involves actively addressing the stressor through planning, taking action, or seeking instrumental support. Emotion-focused coping helps manage emotional responses via acceptance, positive reframing, or emotional support. Maladaptive coping including denial, disengagement, or substance use may provide temporary relief but ultimately worsens outcomes. Importantly, individuals often use a mix of these strategies depending on the situation, highlighting the complexity of coping. Empirical studies underscore the centrality of coping in stress outcomes. Hulsing (2016) found that coping partially mediates the relationship between resilience and eustress, emphasizing its role in fostering positive stress experiences. Matejek in 2019 reported that adaptive coping predicts lower depressive symptoms and improved emotional regulation, while maladaptive coping increases the risk of distress. Tieman in 2016 demonstrated that coping interacts with personality traits such as extraversion to influence stress recovery, while Indian studies confirm that effective coping enhances mental and physical health among adolescents and young adults, whereas maladaptive strategies exacerbate difficulties. Theoretical findings provide further insight into coping processes. The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping posits that coping is the central mechanism determining whether stress is experienced positively or negatively (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The Broaden-and-Build Theory highlights that adaptive coping generates positive emotions, which broaden cognitive and behavioral repertoires and build lasting psychological resources, reinforcing resilience and well-being (Fredrickson, 2001).

### 1.4.3 Significance of Coping style

Coping strategies mediate the relationship between personality traits and well-being. For example, conscientious individuals using problem-focused coping report higher positive emotions. Perceived social support often enhances adaptive coping. When people believe support is there, they use more approach-oriented and problem-solving strategies, which leads to better psychological well-being. Adaptive coping strategies are linked not only to lower distress but also to positive psychological outcomes—resilience, growth, and higher life satisfaction. Thus, coping plays a role in whether stress is experienced as eustress. (Wilkinson, Walford & Espins 13 2000) found that approach coping was directly correlated with increased well-being. In essence, coping styles are a vital lens through which the experience of stress in young adults can be understood. Effective coping transforms challenges into growth opportunities, fosters eustress, and supports mental health, while poor coping exacerbates distress and impedes adjustment. Personality traits, social support, and stress appraisal intricately shape these strategies, making coping a key element in understanding how young adults navigate the pressures of modern life. Examining coping alongside eustress, personality, social support, and psychological well-being offers a holistic perspective on the mechanisms that enable young adults to thrive amidst the challenges of this transitional life stage.

## 1.5 Perceived Social Support

Perceived social support (PSS) refers to an individual's subjective belief about the availability and adequacy of emotional, informational, and tangible support from their social network (Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988). Unlike objective support, which quantifies the actual help received, perceived support captures a person's confidence that help would be available if needed. This belief itself functions as a crucial psychological resource, shaping not only how young adults interpret stress but also whether they experience it as motivating eustress or harmful distress. During young adulthood a life stage marked by transitions in education, career, relationships, and identity formation perceived social support often acts as a psychological cushion, mitigating stress, enhancing resilience, and promoting mental well-being (Knoll & Schwarzer, 2007).

### 1.5.1 Perceived Social Support as a Buffer in Stress Experiences

The impact of perceived social support is multifaceted. In terms of mental health, individuals with higher levels of perceived support consistently report lower anxiety, depression, and overall stress, while exhibiting stronger psychological well-being. Physical health is also positively influenced, as supportive social networks encourage healthy behaviors, bolster immunity, and accelerate recovery from illness (Lakey & Cohen, 2000). Furthermore, social support plays a critical role in shaping stress outcomes. It functions as a buffer, reducing the intensity of distress while simultaneously increasing the likelihood that stressors will be experienced as eustress, enabling growth and adaptive functioning (Hulsing, 2017; Posse, 2017). Several factors influence how perceived support is experienced. Family remains a primary source of emotional and practical support, particularly in collectivist societies like India, where familial bonds are highly valued. Strong family ties not only reduce perceived stress but also foster resilience and confidence in handling challenges. Friends, however, take on an increasingly important role during young adulthood, offering encouragement, shared coping strategies, and companionship in navigating new responsibilities. Significant

others romantic partners or close confidants provide emotional stability and a sense of security, reinforcing the perception that one is not facing challenges alone. Across different cultural contexts, the source of perceived support may shift; while collectivist cultures prioritize family, individualistic cultures often emphasize peer and partner support (Taylor et al., 2004). Regardless of the source, feeling supported enhances young adults' capacity to view academic, career, or relational stressors as manageable challenges, thereby reinforcing eustress and promoting psychological stability.

### 1.5.2 Evidence-Based Insights into the Role of Social Support

Empirical evidence underscores the importance of perceived social support in stress adaptation. Hulsing (2017) observed that while resilience and coping influence the experience of eustress, perceived support strengthens adaptive coping strategies, enabling individuals to transform stress into a motivating force. Posse (2017) highlighted that eustress mediates the link between optimism and well-being, with social support serving as a critical enabler. Recent Indian studies reveal similar patterns, showing strong associations between eustress, perceived support, and positive mental health outcomes in adolescents and young adults, regardless of gender. International research also reinforces this trend; for instance, Queirós (2020) found that in police personnel, lack of organizational and social support significantly increased stress and undermined well-being. Theoretical findings further elucidate these mechanisms. According to the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping, social support shapes both primary appraisal whether a stressor is perceived as a challenge or a threat and secondary appraisal the individual's confidence in their coping resources. Similarly, the Broaden-and-Build Theory suggests that the positive emotions fostered by social support, such as belonging, security, and hope, expand cognitive and behavioral repertoires, building long-term psychological resilience (Fredrickson, 2001).

### 1.5.3 Significance of Perceived Social Support

In essence, perceived social support is far more than a passive resource; it actively shapes how young adults experience and respond to stress. It reinforces adaptive coping, encourages the positive transformation of stress into eustress, and promotes psychological well-being while reducing vulnerability to distress. Understanding its interplay with personality traits and coping strategies provides a richer perspective on how young adults navigate life's challenges. In the Indian context, where family, peers, and community networks hold particular significance, examining perceived support offers valuable insights into culturally relevant strategies for promoting resilience, positive adaptation, and mental health among emerging adults. Social support acts as a buffer, reducing negative effects of stress and helping individuals maintain or gain well-being. When support is high, even stressful demands are less damaging because people feel they have resources to cope. Support also interacts with coping: in medical students, social support mediated between coping style and mental health strong support plus 16 adaptive coping led to better well-being, fewer symptoms of distress. Personality shapes how much social support is perceived and used. For example, people high in extraversion are more likely to seek and benefit from social networks, enhancing coping capacity. Traits like neuroticism may reduce perceived support or make it less effective

### 1.6 Current Research Gap

Most existing studies on stress focus primarily on its negative aspects, such as distress, anxiety, burnout, and depression. While these studies highlight important risks to mental health, they largely overlook eustress the positive form of stress that motivates individuals, enhances performance, and promotes growth. Unlike previous research that often combines all stress under a single category or examines only distress, this study specifically investigates eustress. By doing so, it addresses a significant gap in understanding how stress can function constructively, particularly in young adults who are navigating multiple life transitions. Furthermore, prior research has often examined personality traits, coping mechanisms, or social support in isolation, without considering how these factors interact to influence stress experiences. There is limited evidence on the combined effect of these variables on eustress and psychological well-being. Additionally, many studies rely on unvalidated or narrow measures that fail to differentiate between eustress and distress. This fragmented approach restricts a comprehensive understanding of how stress can enhance motivation, resilience, and overall well being, leaving a critical gap in the literature that this study seeks to fill.

### NEED OF THE STUDY.

This study adopts an integrated model that examines how personality traits, coping strategies, and perceived social support collectively influence eustress and psychological well being in young adults. Personality traits shape how stress is appraised, coping strategies determine how individuals respond to stressors, and social support provides the resources and reassurance needed to transform challenges into growth opportunities (John & Srivastava, 1999; Carver, 1997; Zimet et al., 1988). By studying these variables together, rather than in isolation, the model captures the dynamic interplay between dispositional, behavioral, and environmental factors that determine whether stress is experienced positively or negatively. This comprehensive approach allows for a deeper understanding of how eustress emerges, how it supports resilience and motivation, and how it ultimately enhances psychological well being, providing both theoretical insight and practical guidance for fostering adaptive functioning in young adults. In today's increasingly complex, fast-paced, and high-pressure environments, young people are often expected to perform, adapt, and succeed under significant stress. As such, it is more important than ever to equip them with the psychological tools and support systems necessary to reinterpret stress not as a debilitating burden but as a potential source of growth, strength, and achievement. By exploring the powerful interaction between who we are (personality), how we cope (strategies and behaviors), and who stands by us (social support), this study aims to contribute meaningful insights into how adaptive functioning and positive mental health outcomes can be fostered during this critical developmental period. Ultimately, the findings may inform interventions, educational programs, and policy initiatives designed to cultivate resilience and well-being in young adult populations

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 Population and Sample

The study employed a Quantitative, Correlational research design. It was conducted as a Cross-sectional, Survey-based investigation to examine the influence of Perceived Social Support and Coping Style on Eustress, Personality, and Psychological Wellbeing among young adults. A probability sample of 300 participants aged 18 to 25 years was selected. The sample included employed, unemployed, and student populations, recruited from various community settings, educational institutions, and workplaces to ensure broad representation of young adults.

### 3.2 Data and Sources of Data

Participants were required to be young adults aged between 18 and 25 years and part of the target population accessed through probability sampling. Eligible individuals included employed, unemployed, and student participants recruited from educational institutions, workplaces, and community settings. Participants were required to possess adequate English proficiency and the ability to comprehend and complete the survey independently. Individuals were included only if they provided informed consent and met the study's age criteria. Those who did not fall within the specified age range or were unable to provide valid consent were excluded from the study.

### 3.3 Theoretical framework

The present study is grounded in the Broaden-and-Build Theory of Positive Emotions, which suggests that positive emotions such as joy, interest, and enthusiasm broaden an individual's thinking and help build long-term psychological resources. Eustress, understood as a positive form of stress, plays a central role in this process by generating motivating emotions that encourage creativity, exploration, and growth. When individuals experience eustress such as feeling excited about a challenging academic task or motivated during demanding work they are more likely to think flexibly and engage with challenges constructively. This tendency is further shaped by coping mechanisms, as adaptive strategies like problem-solving, optimism, and seeking support enhance resilience and enable individuals to transform stressful situations into opportunities for growth. Personality traits from the Big Five Model, particularly openness, extraversion, and emotional stability, also influence this process by predisposing individuals to interpret stress more positively and respond with healthier coping styles. Additionally, perceived social support strengthens emotional resources by providing encouragement, reassurance, and a sense of belonging, making it easier to handle stress in a balanced and adaptive manner. Together, these internal and external factors form the conceptual framework of the study, illustrating how coping styles, personality traits, and social support foster eustress, which ultimately broadens psychological resources and enhances overall psychological well-being (Fredrickson, 2001).

### 3.4 Statistical tools

This section elaborates the statistical models and analytical procedures employed to guide the study from raw data toward meaningful inferences. The statistical analyses were performed using SPSS IBM 27. Frequency distributions and descriptive statistics were computed to summarize sociodemographic characteristics and to provide an overview of central tendencies and variability across the major study variables, including Eustress, Psychological Well-Being, Personality Traits, Coping Mechanisms, and Perceived Social Support. A normality assessment was conducted to evaluate the distributional properties of the data, and based on the results, appropriate statistical techniques were selected. Multiple linear regression analysis was employed to identify significant predictors of psychological well-being and to quantify the extent to which Eustress, Personality Traits, Coping Mechanisms, and Perceived Social Support explained variance in the outcome variable. Additionally, the Kruskal–Wallis H Test, a non-parametric alternative to one-way ANOVA, was applied to examine group differences across categorical variables such as gender, occupation, and marital status. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons were performed where necessary to identify meaningful subgroup variations. The combined use of descriptive statistics, regression analysis, and non-parametric tests ensured a comprehensive and robust evaluation of the relationships, differences, and predictive patterns among the study variables.

### 3.5 Descriptive Statistics

In the descriptive analysis of the sample, gender-wise comparisons revealed minimal differences in personality traits, with males ( $M = 39.24$ ,  $SD = 4.14$ ) and females ( $M = 39.55$ ,  $SD = 4.17$ ) showing nearly identical scores. Females demonstrated slightly higher coping style scores ( $M = 91.26$ ,  $SD = 11.08$ ) compared to males ( $M = 88.61$ ,  $SD = 13.73$ ), and also reported higher levels of eustress ( $M = 19.90$ ,  $SD = 2.56$ ) than their male counterparts ( $M = 19.06$ ,  $SD = 2.85$ ). Conversely, males perceived greater social support ( $M = 26.59$ ,  $SD = 8.55$ ) than females ( $M = 22.60$ ,  $SD = 6.93$ ) and also reported marginally higher psychological wellbeing ( $M = 11.73$ ,  $SD = 3.57$ ) compared to females ( $M = 10.68$ ,  $SD = 3.14$ ). Occupation-wise analysis indicated that personality traits were relatively similar across groups, with students ( $M = 39.28$ ,  $SD = 3.94$ ) and employed individuals ( $M = 39.33$ ,  $SD = 4.36$ ) scoring closely, while unemployed individuals showed a slightly higher personality mean ( $M = 40.89$ ,  $SD = 5.41$ ). Students exhibited the strongest coping styles ( $M = 92.06$ ,  $SD = 11.05$ ) compared to employed ( $M = 85.76$ ,  $SD = 14.40$ ) and unemployed participants ( $M = 83.68$ ,  $SD = 13.86$ ). Students also reported the highest eustress ( $M = 19.74$ ,  $SD = 2.42$ ), followed by employed individuals ( $M = 19.18$ ,  $SD = 3.18$ ), whereas unemployed participants showed the lowest levels ( $M = 17.84$ ,  $SD = 3.44$ ). In contrast, unemployed individuals reported the highest perceived social support ( $M = 31.53$ ,  $SD = 11.49$ ), followed by employed participants ( $M = 27.17$ ,  $SD = 8.49$ ), with students reporting the least ( $M = 23.00$ ,  $SD = 6.82$ ). Psychological wellbeing followed a similar pattern, with unemployed individuals scoring the highest ( $M = 13.21$ ,  $SD = 3.98$ ), employed participants showing moderate levels ( $M = 11.97$ ,  $SD = 4.07$ ), and students reporting the lowest ( $M = 10.74$ ,  $SD = 2.93$ ). Overall, females demonstrated stronger coping and eustress, while males reported higher social support and wellbeing; students showed the strongest coping abilities but the lowest wellbeing, whereas unemployed individuals, despite lower coping and eustress, reported the highest social support and psychological wellbeing.

### 3.6 Test of Normality

Based on the Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk test results, the dependent variables—Eustress, Psychological Wellbeing, and Personality Trait did not meet the assumption of normality across most levels of social support. While the high-support group showed normal distribution for all three variables, the medium- and low-support groups consistently produced p-values below the standard significance level of 0.05, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis of normality. For instance, in the low-support group, Eustress ( $p = .012$ ), Psychological Wellbeing ( $p = .012$ ), and Personality Trait ( $p = .012$ ) all violated normality, and similar violations were observed in the medium-support group for Eustress ( $p = .012$ ) and Psychological Wellbeing ( $p = .001$ ). Since the significance values across these groups were below 0.05, the assumption of normality was not satisfied. Therefore, non-parametric techniques were required for subsequent analyses. As a result, the Kruskal–Wallis H test was used to examine group differences, and post-hoc comparisons such as Dunn’s Test (with appropriate corrections) were applied to determine the specific groups that differed, ensuring accurate interpretation of the non-normally distributed data.

### 3.7 Multilinear regression analysis

A series of multiple linear regression analyses were conducted to examine whether coping style and perceived social support significantly predicted eustress, personality traits, and psychological well-being. All three models were statistically significant. For eustress, the regression model showed a significant effect of the predictors ( $R = .425$ ,  $R^2 = .181$ ,  $F(2,297) = 32.79$ ,  $p = .012$ ), indicating that coping style and social support together accounted for 18.1% of the variance. Coping style emerged as a significant positive predictor of eustress ( $B = 0.077$ ,  $\beta = .354$ ,  $t = 6.713$ ,  $p = .012$ ), whereas social support showed a significant negative association ( $B = -0.070$ ,  $\beta = -.206$ ,  $t = -3.900$ ,  $p = .012$ ). For personality traits, the model was also significant ( $R = .326$ ,  $R^2 = .106$ ,  $F(2,297) = 17.68$ ,  $p = .012$ ), with both coping style ( $B = 0.088$ ,  $\beta = .265$ ,  $t = 4.815$ ,  $p = .012$ ) and social support ( $B = 0.111$ ,  $\beta = .215$ ,  $t = 3.911$ ,  $p = .012$ ) positively predicting personality scores. Finally, the psychological well-being model showed a significant overall effect ( $R = .417$ ,  $R^2 = .174$ ,  $F(2,297) = 31.22$ ,  $p = .012$ ). Here, coping style was a significant negative predictor ( $B = -0.090$ ,  $\beta = -.333$ ,  $t = -6.283$ ,  $p = .012$ ), while social support positively predicted psychological well-being ( $B = 0.094$ ,  $\beta = .223$ ,  $t = 4.201$ ,  $p = .012$ ). The results indicate that coping style and perceived social support significantly predict all three psychological outcomes, although the direction and strength of effects vary across models.

### 3.8 Kruskal Wallis test

The analyses showed that several psychological variables varied significantly across demographic categories. Social support consistently showed significant differences across annual income ( $p = .000$ ), occupation ( $p = .000$ ), place of residence ( $p = .004$ ), and marital status ( $p = .000$ ), indicating that perceived support strongly depends on demographic context. Psychological wellbeing also differed across income ( $p = .000$ ), occupation ( $p = .003$ ), residence ( $p = .006$ ), and marital status ( $p = .009$ ), suggesting that wellbeing is sensitive to multiple demographic factors. Personality traits showed significant variation only across income ( $p = .003$ ), but not across occupation ( $p = .213$ ), residence ( $p = .784$ ), or marital status ( $p = .506$ ), confirming their relative stability. Coping style differed significantly across occupation ( $p = .001$ ) and residence ( $p = .000$ ), but not across income ( $p = .299$ ) or marital status ( $p = .260$ ). Eustress showed significant differences across occupation ( $p = .046$ ), residence ( $p = .006$ ), and marital status ( $p = .008$ ), but not across income ( $p = .152$ ), indicating that positive stress varies by life circumstances more than by economic status. Overall, demographic factors such as occupation, residence, and marital status show stronger influence on social support, psychological wellbeing, and eustress, while coping and personality remain comparatively stable across groups.

## IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 4.1 Results of Preliminary study

#### 4.1 Summary of Gender Differences in Key Psychological Variables

Variables	Male M	Male SD	Female M	Female SD
Personality trait	39.4	4.14	39.55	4.17
Coping style	88.61	13.73	91.26	11.08
Eustress	19.06	2.85	19.90	2.56
Social support	26.59	8.55	22.60	6.93
Psychological well-being	11.73	3.57	10.68	3.14

The sample included 300 participants, with equal numbers of males and females. On personality traits, males ( $M = 39.24$ ,  $SD = 4.14$ ) and females ( $M = 39.55$ ,  $SD = 4.17$ ) scored nearly the same, indicating minimal gender differences. Females scored slightly higher on coping style ( $M = 91.26$ ,  $SD = 11.08$ ) and eustress ( $M = 19.90$ ,  $SD = 2.56$ ), suggesting they may handle stress more proactively and view challenges positively. Males reported higher social support ( $M = 26.59$ ,  $SD = 8.55$ ) and psychological well-being ( $M = 11.73$ ,  $SD = 3.57$ ), implying stronger perceived support networks and slightly better overall mental health. Overall, personality traits were similar across genders, while coping, eustress, social support, and well-being showed subtle gender-based variations.

### 4.2 Comparison of Psychological Variables Across Occupational Status Groups

Variable	Student M	Student SD	Employed M	Employed SD	Unemployed M	Unemployed SD
Personality Trait	39.28	3.94	39.33	4.36	40.89	5.41
Coping style	92.06	11.05	85.76	14.40	83.68	13.86

Eustress	19.74	2.42	19.18	3.18	17.84	3.44
Social support	23.00	6.82	27.17	8.49	31.53	11.49
Psychological well-being	10.74	2.93	11.97	4.07	13.21	3.98

The sample included students, employed, and unemployed participants. Students reported the highest eustress ( $M = 19.74$ ), followed by employed ( $M = 19.18$ ) and unemployed individuals ( $M = 17.84$ ), indicating that school and work environments promote motivating stress. Social support was highest among the unemployed ( $M = 31.53$ ), followed by employed ( $M = 27.17$ ) and students ( $M = 23.00$ ). Psychological well-being was also highest for the unemployed ( $M = 13.21$ ), moderate for employed ( $M = 11.97$ ), and lowest for students ( $M = 10.74$ ). Overall, occupational status influences stress perception, support, and well-being, with students highly motivated but less supported, employed participants balanced, and unemployed individuals benefiting from strong social support despite lower eustress.

### 4.3 Results of Kruskal Wallis test

#### 4.3 Kruskal–Wallis Test Results Across Annual Income Groups

Null hypothesis	test	p	Decision
The distribution of social support is the same across categories of annual income.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
The distribution of psychological wellbeing is the same across categories of annual income.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
The distribution of personality trait is the same across categories of annual income	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.003	Reject the null hypothesis

Kruskal-Wallis H tests examined differences in social support, coping style, psychological well-being, personality traits, and eustress across categorical groups ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ). Results showed significant differences in social support ( $p = .000$ ), psychological well-being ( $p = .000$ ), and personality traits ( $p = .003$ ), while coping style ( $p = .299$ ) and eustress ( $p = .152$ ) did not differ significantly. These findings indicate that group membership affects certain psychological constructs, particularly support, well-being, and personality, whereas coping strategies and eustress remain relatively stable.

#### 4.3.1 Kruskal–Wallis Test Results Across Occupational Categories

Null hypothesis	test	p	Decision
The distribution of social support is the same across categories of Occupation	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
The distribution of coping style final is the same across categories of Occupation.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.001	Reject the null hypothesis
The distribution of psychological wellbeing is the same across categories of Occupation	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.003	Reject the null hypothesis

Kruskal-Wallis H tests examined differences in social support, coping style, psychological well-being, personality traits, and eustress across occupational categories ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ). Significant differences were found for social support ( $p = .000$ ), coping style ( $p = .001$ ), psychological well-being ( $p = .003$ ), and eustress ( $p = .046$ ), while personality traits did not differ significantly ( $p = .213$ ). These results indicate that occupation influences social support, coping strategies, well-being, and positive stress, whereas personality traits remain largely stable across occupational groups

#### 4.3.2 Kruskal–Wallis Test Results Across Place of Residence

Null hypothesis	test	p	Decision
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The distribution of social support is the same across categories of Place of Residence	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.004	Reject the null hypothesis
The distribution of coping style final is the same across categories of Place of Residence	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
The distribution of psychological wellbeing is the same across categories of Place of Residence.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.006	Reject the null hypothesis
The distribution of eustress is the same across categories of Place of Residence.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.006	Reject the null hypothesis

Kruskal-Wallis H tests examined differences in social support, coping style, psychological well-being, personality traits, and eustress across place of residence ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ). Significant differences were found for social support ( $p = .004$ ), coping style ( $p = .000$ ), psychological well-being ( $p = .006$ ), and eustress ( $p = .006$ ), while personality traits did not differ significantly ( $p = .784$ ). These results indicate that residential context influences support, coping, well-being, and positive stress, whereas personality traits remain largely stable.

#### 4.3.3 Kruskal–Wallis Test Results Across Marital Status Groups

Null hypothesis	test	p	Decision
The distribution of social support is the categories of marital Kruskal-Wallis	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
The distribution of psychological wellbeing is the same across categories of marital status.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.009	Reject the null hypothesis
The distribution of eustress is the same across categories of marital status.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.008	Reject the null hypothesis

Kruskal-Wallis H tests examined differences in social support, coping style, psychological well-being, personality traits, and eustress across marital status ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ). Significant differences were observed for social support ( $p = .000$ ), psychological well-being ( $p = .009$ ), and eustress ( $p = .008$ ), while coping style ( $p = .260$ ) and personality traits ( $p = .506$ ) did not differ. These results indicate that marital status influences support, well-being, and positive stress, but not coping strategies or personality traits.

#### 4.4 Results of Regression analysis

Dependent variable	Effects	Estimates	SE	95% LL	95% UL	p
Eustress	Intercept	14.246	1.172	11.944	16.548	0.12
	Coping style	0.077	0.012	0.054	0.100	0.12
	Social support	-0.070	0.018	-0.016	-0.034	0.12
Personality trait	Intercept	28.749	1.858	25.093	32.405	0.12
	Coping style	0.088	0.018	0.052	0.124	0.12
	Social support	0.111	0.029	0.054	0.168	0.12

Psychological	Intercept	16.999	1.460	14.128	19.870	0.12
Well-being	Coping style	-0.090	0.014	-0.118	-0.062	0.12
	Social support	0.094	0.022	0.051	0.137	0.12

Table 4.4 shows Three multiple regression models examined coping style and social support as predictors of eustress, personality traits, and psychological well-being. Coping positively predicted eustress ( $\beta = +.354$ ) but negatively predicted well-being ( $\beta = -.333$ ), while social support positively predicted personality ( $\beta = +.215$ ) and well-being ( $\beta = +.223$ ) but slightly reduced eustress ( $\beta = -.206$ ). All models were significant ( $R^2 = .106-.181$ ,  $p = .012$ ), indicating that internal coping and external support influence these outcomes in complementary yet distinct ways.

### Discussion

Table 4.1 shows the average scores and variations for variables among males and females, including personality traits, coping style, eustress, social support, and psychological well-being. When it comes to personality traits, males ( $M = 39.24$ ,  $SD = 4.14$ ) and females ( $M = 39.55$ ,  $SD = 4.17$ ) had almost the same scores. This suggests that, in this sample, men and women were very similar in characteristics like openness, conscientiousness, and extraversion, meaning gender did not play a significant role here. For coping style, females scored slightly higher ( $M = 91.26$ ,  $SD = 11.08$ ) than males ( $M = 88.61$ ,  $SD = 13.73$ ). This indicates that women in the study may use coping strategies more often or more effectively. For example, a female student facing exam stress might seek advice from friends, write down her worries, or practice relaxation techniques more consistently, whereas a male student may rely less on these strategies. When looking at eustress, which is the positive type of stress that motivates and energizes a person, females also had higher scores ( $M = 19.90$ ,  $SD = 2.56$ ) than males ( $M = 19.06$ ,  $SD = 2.85$ ). This suggests that women were slightly more likely to see challenges as opportunities rather than threats. For instance, a female participant may feel excited and motivated when given a new task at work, while a male participant might feel more neutral or slightly pressured. Interestingly, social support was higher in males ( $M = 26.59$ ,  $SD = 8.55$ ) compared to females ( $M = 22.60$ ,  $SD = 6.93$ ). This implies that men in this sample felt they had stronger support networks, such as friends, family, or colleagues they could rely on. For example, a male participant might feel confident knowing he can ask a friend or mentor for help, which could help him cope with stress better. Finally, psychological well-being was slightly higher among males ( $M = 11.73$ ,  $SD = 3.57$ ) than females ( $M = 10.68$ ,  $SD = 3.14$ ).

This suggests men reported feeling a little better overall in terms of mental health, life satisfaction, and positive emotions. The study showed that women scored higher in coping style and eustress, meaning they may handle stress more proactively and perceive challenges positively, while men scored higher in social support and psychological well-being, indicating they felt more supported and slightly better in overall mental health. Personality traits were almost the same between genders, suggesting that fundamental personality characteristics did not differ significantly in this sample. These patterns highlight how different aspects of stress, support, and well-being can vary subtly between men and women, and how each gender may have unique strengths in managing daily challenges.

Table 4.2 shows the average scores for eustress, social support, and psychological wellbeing across three occupational groups students, employed individuals, and unemployed individuals. When it comes to eustress (the positive kind of stress that motivates people), students scored the highest ( $M = 19.74$ ), meaning they were most likely to see challenges, like exams or assignments, as motivating rather than stressful. Employed individuals came next ( $M = 19.18$ ), while unemployed participants scored the lowest ( $M = 17.84$ ). This suggests that being in school or a job may help people feel energized and driven by challenges, while those without work may experience less motivating stress. For social support, the pattern was different. Unemployed participants scored the highest ( $M = 31.53$ ), showing they might rely more on family, friends, or community for help. Employed individuals were in the middle ( $M = 27.17$ ), and students reported the least support ( $M = 23.00$ ), perhaps because they are still building their support networks or are more independent. Looking at psychological well-being, which includes mental health and overall happiness, unemployed participants again scored the highest ( $M = 13.21$ ), followed by employed individuals ( $M = 11.97$ ), and students scored the lowest ( $M = 10.74$ ). This indicates that even though unemployed individuals might experience less motivating stress, the strong support they receive from others could help maintain or even boost their well-being. Students are highly motivated by stress (high eustress) but feel less supported and report lower well-being. Employed individuals are moderate on all three measures, balancing stress, support, and well-being. Unemployed individuals experience the least motivating stress but have the most support and the highest well-being, showing how social connections can help maintain mental health even without work or school. Overall, these findings highlight that occupational status affects how people experience stress, support, and well-being, and that each group has its own strengths and challenges.

Table 4.3 presents the results of Kruskal-Wallis H tests conducted to examine whether five psychological constructs social support, coping style, psychological wellbeing, personality traits, and eustress differ significantly across recoded categorical groups. The significance level was set at  $\alpha = 0.05$ . The analysis revealed a statistically significant difference in social support across the groups ( $p = .000$ ), leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis. This indicates that participants perceived social support varies meaningfully depending on their categorical grouping. In contrast, coping style did not show a significant difference across categories ( $p = .299$ ), suggesting that the distribution of coping strategies is relatively stable among the groups. Consistent with prior findings, psychological wellbeing differed significantly between groups ( $p = .000$ ), highlighting that certain categorical factors are associated with variations in wellbeing. Similarly, personality traits demonstrated significant differences ( $p = .003$ ), indicating that personality profiles are influenced by the recoded groupings. In contrast, eustress did not vary significantly across the groups ( $p = .152$ ), suggesting that the perception of positive stress remains relatively unaffected by these categorical distinctions.

Overall, these results suggest that the recoded grouping variable is selectively associated with specific psychological constructs. Constructs like social support, psychological wellbeing, and personality traits are sensitive to group differences, whereas coping style and eustress appear more invariant. These findings align with previous correlation and regression analyses, reinforcing the critical roles of social support and personality traits in shaping psychological outcomes, while coping mechanisms and eustress may operate independently of these categorical factors.

Table 4.3.1 presents the results of Kruskal-Wallis H tests conducted to examine differences in five psychological variables social support, coping style, psychological wellbeing, personality traits, and eustress across occupational categories. A significance level of 0.05 was applied for all tests. The analysis revealed significant differences for four out of the five variables. Social support showed a highly significant difference across occupations ( $p = .000$ ), indicating that perceived social support varies depending on occupational role. This may reflect variations in workplace environments, professional networks, or access to supportive resources inherent in different jobs. Coping style also differed significantly across occupational groups ( $p = .001$ ), suggesting that individuals adopt different stress management strategies depending on the nature of their work, such as high-pressure or technical occupations influencing coping patterns. Psychological wellbeing was significantly associated with occupation ( $p = .003$ ), implying that occupational factors like job satisfaction, security, workload, and alignment with personal values may influence overall emotional stability and life satisfaction. Eustress, representing positive, motivating stress, also varied significantly across occupations ( $p = .046$ ). This suggests that certain occupations provide challenging yet rewarding experiences that increase beneficial stress levels, while others may not.

In contrast, personality traits did not show significant variation across occupational categories ( $p = .213$ ), indicating that these traits are relatively stable and less susceptible to occupational influence, consistent with the theoretical perspective that personality is an enduring characteristic. Overall, occupation appears to significantly influence social support, coping style, psychological wellbeing, and eustress, whereas personality traits remain largely stable across occupational groups. These findings highlight the importance of considering occupational context when assessing psychological functioning and designing targeted interventions for enhancing well-being and stress management.

Table 4.3.2 presents the results of Kruskal-Wallis H tests conducted to assess whether five psychological variables social support, coping style, psychological wellbeing, personality traits, and eustress differ significantly across place of residence. The significance level was set at 0.05 for all analyses. The analysis revealed statistically significant differences for four of the five variables. Social support showed a significant variation across residential locations ( $p = .004$ ), suggesting that geographic and community contexts influence perceived support levels. This may reflect differences in neighborhood cohesion, family networks, or community resources, with rural areas potentially providing closer-knit support systems compared to urban environments. Coping style demonstrated a highly significant difference ( $p = .000$ ) across residence categories, indicating that environmental factors shape how individuals manage stress. Urban, semi-urban, and rural settings may differ in exposure to stressors, access to mental health services, and social norms around coping, resulting in varying coping patterns. Psychological wellbeing also varied significantly ( $p = .006$ ), implying that residential context affects emotional and mental health outcomes. Factors such as living conditions, pollution levels, community safety, and availability of recreational spaces could contribute to these differences. Similarly, eustress, which represents positive, motivating stress, showed significant differences ( $p = .006$ ), suggesting that the capacity to perceive stress as constructive is influenced by residential environment. Urban fast-paced settings may stimulate productive stress, while rural or semi-urban areas may offer different challenges that affect eustress levels. In contrast, personality traits did not differ significantly across place of residence ( $p = .784$ ), indicating that these enduring characteristics are largely stable and unaffected by environmental or community factors. Overall, place of residence significantly impacts social support, coping style, psychological well-being, and eustress, but not personality traits. These results highlight the importance of considering geographic and environmental context when developing interventions, mental health programs, or policies aimed at enhancing psychosocial functioning.

Table 4.3.3 reports the outcomes of Kruskal-Wallis H tests conducted to examine differences in five psychological variables social support, coping style, psychological wellbeing, personality traits, and eustress across the categories of marital status. The significance threshold was set at  $\alpha = 0.05$ . The analysis revealed statistically significant differences in three variables. Social support showed a highly significant variation across groups ( $p = .000$ ), indicating that perceived levels of support differ depending on classification. This may reflect differences in access to social networks, community involvement, or family support structures across groups. Psychological well-being also varied significantly ( $p = .009$ ), suggesting that marital categories is associated with differences in emotional stability, life satisfaction, and resilience. This finding implies that the contextual or demographic factor represented, may influence an individual's overall psychological health. Eustress demonstrated significant differences as well ( $p = .008$ ), indicating that the extent to which individuals perceive stress as positive and motivating is affected by marital status. Variations in life circumstances, challenges, or opportunities for personal growth associated with marital status may account for this difference. In contrast, coping style ( $p = .260$ ) and personality traits ( $p = .506$ ) did not differ significantly across the categories, implying that these constructs behavioural strategies for managing stress and stable personal characteristics remain relatively invariant across these marital status. Overall, marital status significantly affects social support, psychological wellbeing, and eustress, but not coping style or personality traits. These results highlight the selective influence of the variable on psychosocial functioning and emphasize the importance of considering this factor in understanding group-level differences in support, well-being, and stress perception.

Table 4.4 shows Three multiple regression models tested whether coping style and perceived social support predict (a) eustress, (b) personality traits, and (c) psychological well-being. All three models were statistically significant. Model fit was moderate: the eustress model explained 18.1% of variance ( $R = .425$ ,  $R^2 = .181$ ,  $F(2,297) = 32.79$ ,  $p = .012$ ; *Durbin-Watson*  $\approx 2.01$ ), the personality model explained 10.6% ( $R = .326$ ,  $R^2 = .106$ ,  $F(2,297) = 17.68$ ,  $p = .012$ ; *Durbin-Watson* = 1.28), and the well-being model explained 17.4% ( $R = .417$ ,  $R^2 = .174$ ,  $F(2,297) = 31.22$ ,  $p = .012$ ; *Durbin-Watson* = 1.32). These  $R^2$  values indicate that coping style and social support together account for a meaningful, though not exhaustive, portion of individual differences in the three outcomes consistent with the idea that both internal resources (coping) and external resources

(support) matter but do not fully determine these complex psychological constructs (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The eustress model shows a positive, significant association between coping style and eustress ( $B = 0.077$ ,  $SE = 0.012$ ; 95%  $CI [0.054, 0.100]$ ; *standardized*  $\beta = +.354$ ;  $t = 6.713$ ;  $p = .012$ ). In practical terms, a one-unit increase in the coping score predicts a 0.077 unit increase in eustress score, and the effect is robust (CI does not cross zero). This aligns with theory that adaptive coping (problem-solving, positive reframing) fosters challenge appraisals and energizing stress responses (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Carver, 1997). Social support, however, has a small but significant negative association with eustress ( $B = -0.070$ ,  $SE = 0.018$ ; 95%  $CI [-0.106, -0.034]$ ; *standardized*  $\beta = -.206$ ;  $t = -3.900$ ;  $p = .012$ ). That negative sign suggests that, when coping style is held constant, higher perceived support is associated with slightly lower levels of eustress. One plausible interpretation is that strong external support reduces the subjective need to face challenges independently, thereby lowering the invigorating push that defines eustress (Cohen & Wills, 1985). In short: internal coping skills appear to drive the experience of positive, motivating stress, while external support may dampen that energizing effect even as it protects against distress.

For personality traits as the outcome, both predictors are positive and significant. Coping style positively predicts personality trait scores ( $B = 0.088$ ,  $SE = 0.018$ ; 95%  $CI [0.052, 0.124]$ ; *standardized*  $\beta = +.265$ ;  $t = 4.815$ ;  $p = .012$ ), and social support also predicts personality traits ( $B = 0.111$ ,  $SE = 0.029$ ; 95%  $CI [0.054, 0.168]$ ; *standardized*  $\beta = +.215$ ;  $t = 3.911$ ;  $p = .012$ ).

Although personality is often conceptualized as relatively stable (John & Srivastava, 1999), these coefficients indicate that individual differences in coping behavior and perceived support relate to higher scores on the aggregated personality measure used here (perhaps reflecting adaptive trait expressions such as conscientiousness, emotional stability, or sociality). The effect sizes are modest ( $R^2 = .106$ ), implying that coping and support are part of a larger set of influences on personality expression (e.g., genetics, long-term life experiences). Conceptually, adaptive coping may cultivate traits like self-regulation and resilience, and supportive relationships can reinforce positive self-views, which together heighten adaptive personality characteristics (Fredrickson, 2001; Zimet et al., 1988).

The psychological well-being model shows a contrasting pattern: coping style is negatively associated with well-being ( $B = -0.090$ ,  $SE = 0.014$ ; 95%  $CI [-0.118, -0.062]$ ; *standardized*  $\beta = -.333$ ;  $t = -6.283$ ;  $p = .012$ ), while social support is positively associated ( $B = 0.094$ ,  $SE = 0.022$ ; 95%  $CI [0.051, 0.137]$ ; *standardized*  $\beta = +.223$ ;  $t = 4.201$ ;  $p = .012$ ). The negative coefficient for coping style is notable and requires careful interpretation. Given that coping style was measured as an overall score, this negative relationship likely reflects that higher scores here include maladaptive coping tendencies (e.g., avoidance, denial, substance use), which are known to reduce well-being (Carver, 1997; Park & Adler, 2003). In other words, while some forms of coping (problem-solving, positive reframing) are adaptive, aggregated coping scores that capture maladaptive strategies will show negative associations with well-being. Social support's positive role is consistent with extensive literature linking perceived support to higher life satisfaction and psychological health (Zimet et al., 1988; Ryff, 1989). The model explains 17% of well-being variance a substantial contribution given the many determinants of wellbeing.

Comparing standardized betas across models clarifies relative influence. Coping style is the strongest positive predictor of eustress ( $\beta = +.354$ ), but it is negatively related to well-being ( $\beta = -.333$ ). This divergence underscores that *which* coping strategies are used matters: adaptive coping promotes challenge appraisal and eustress, but aggregated or maladaptive coping practices harm well-being. Social support consistently predicts personality ( $\beta = +.215$ ) and well-being ( $\beta = +.223$ ) positively, yet it is negatively associated with eustress ( $\beta = -.206$ ). social support appears reliably protective and constructive (promoting stability, growth, and well-being), while its relationship with positive stress is complex it can buffer strain but might also reduce the internal challenge that generates eustress (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Posse, 2017). These complementary but sometimes opposing roles highlight that internal and external resources do not simply add up; they interact to shape distinct outcomes (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Fredrickson, 2001).

All reported coefficients are statistically significant ( $p = .012$ ) and have confidence intervals that do not include zero, supporting the robustness of the estimated effects. This shows that coping style and perceived social support jointly predict eustress, personality traits, and psychological well-being in distinct ways. For eustress, individuals who reported using more adaptive coping strategies tended to experience stress as more positive and energizing, while those who perceived greater external support were slightly less likely to view stress as motivating. In contrast, both coping style and social support were positively linked with personality traits, suggesting that individuals who actively manage challenges and feel supported by others express more adaptive and stable personality characteristics.

For psychological well-being, however, coping style and social support showed opposite patterns: higher levels of perceived support were associated with greater well-being, whereas heavier reliance on certain coping approaches especially those that may be maladaptive corresponded with lower well-being. Taken together, these findings highlight that coping strategies and social support each exert important but sometimes contrasting influences on key psychological outcomes. Strengthening adaptive coping skills appears to foster eustress and positive personality expression, while nurturing supportive networks consistently enhances personality development. and mental well-being. Designing interventions that simultaneously promote effective coping, and balanced social support may therefore be the most effective way to enhance resilience and overall psychological functioning among college students

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