

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLE, PSYCAP AND COPING AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS

Monica Sharma*

Niharika Palawat**

Abstract

In Indian culture, parenting plays a significant role in an individual's life. It is evident as there is an extensive literature focusing on the importance of parenting. These researches are mainly focused on the relationship of parenting style with different variables like development, personality, self-esteem, etc. In the present scenario, it has become necessary to focus on parenting style in relation to other variables which would help an individual to lead a more meaningful and fulfilling life to cultivate what is best within themselves and enhance their experiences. Based on this premise, the present paper attempts to study the relationship between parenting style, PsyCap (Optimism, Hope, Self Esteem, and Resilience) and Coping. 200 college students (young adults within the age-range of 18-24 years, 100 boys and 100 girls) were selected from different universities in Jaipur. All the participants were then administered Parenting Style Inventory-II (Darling, 1997), BRIEF Coping Scale (Carver, 1997), and PsyCap Questionnaire (PCQ) (Luthans et al., 2006). The results presents glimpses of importance of parenting style in enhancing well-being in an individual's life.

Keywords:

Parenting Style;
Coping;
PsyCap.

*** Monica Sharma, Clinical Psychologist and Counsellor, IIS University, Jaipur**

**** Niharika Palwat, M.A. Psychology, IIS University, Jaipur**

1. Introduction

“Parenting is as crazy as circumnavigating the globe without a map...but, oh, what a journey!”- Parenting is a challenging task in the modern times. Rapidly changing lifestyle, newer demands and requirements of life etc. pose multiple challenges to parents. Even though parenting is challenging in its own ways, it is a rewarding journey. In the Indian society, parenting is one of the most important roles an individual has to play. From taking care of infants to inculcating values and making them clear into the stormy minds of children, parents have to exert enormous influence. However, they are not the only influence on the child’s life. When the child interacts with the society in the form of neighbours, friends and teachers while entering in a school and so on, there are different agents and different effect or influences they have on the child with which they interacts. But still, parents play a major role in the child’s life. This role is not only important and influential in childhood, but continues in adolescence and adulthood as well.

Parenting can be defined as a process that promote and support the development of a child’s physical, emotional, intellectual, social as well as financial needs from infancy to adulthood. Parenting practices generally have three main goals: firstly, to ensure the health and safety of the child, secondly, to prepare the child for life as productive adults and finally, to transmit cultural values in them. According to Baumrind, parenting style is of three main types: authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. Parents who adapt to authoritative parenting maintain a balance between discipline and affection, reasoning with children and being responsible to children’s demands. Authoritarian parenting favours obedience and power assertion. This is a traditional parenting structure in which children are given no autonomy but to accept the decisions without questions. The third type of parenting, i.e., permissive parenting provides children with high level of freedom and doesn’t restrict their behaviors unless any kind of harm is involved.

Each parenting style generates its own effects and developmental outcomes among the children and adolescents. One of the major issues that revolve around adolescents is the high levels of stress due to competitive world and the demands of the modern society. The teenage years are often portrayed as stressful for both parents and teens. Researches demonstrates that teens undergo a number of developmental adjustments as already mentioned which include biological, cognitive, emotional and social changes on their way to becoming adults, affective parenting

during any of the teen years, as in any other developmental period, is very crucial. It is beneficial for the parents to understand that the parenting style they adopt is a basis for many healthy developmental outcomes during adolescence. Adolescence can be navigated more smoothly if both the parents and their teens understand the importance of parenting styles and the impact it has on their relationship.

Coping

In the fast pace life of the 21st century, adolescents face many situations and events which can cause significant stress. Life stressors have been reported to have a significant negative impact on virtually every area of functioning. These stressful situations can lead to different outcomes. On the positive side, the stressful situation can act as a motivational force for adolescents to work harder towards their goals while, the negative side starts to kick in, when the stress is not handled properly. Parenting, in some form or another is a constant aspect in the lives of many children and one of the first experiences from which they learn life's lessons. There has been little evidence that examines the effect of parents on their children's ability to better process stress and cope effectively. There is ample evidence to suggest that effective coping strategies ameliorate stress and produce medically healthier individuals. Therefore, it is necessary for adolescents to have effective coping strategies. The coping strategies of the adolescents tend to be influenced by the kind of parenting they receive.

Coping simply refers to efforts an individual puts in terms of cognition and behaviours to reduce stress. Coping is defined as constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of a person (61). Adolescents being most vulnerable to the influences of external factors, coping strategies that they adopt tend to prolong into adulthood. An effective coping strategy determines the outcomes of the problem being faced and handled by an individual. One can learn effective coping skills from his or her surroundings and daily events. Parents being the role model to their children and always in contact are the ones who have the strongest influence in shaping and modelling the coping behaviour.

Baumrind's research indicates that children who experience authoritative parenting tend to be socially responsible, assertive, competent, and display self-control, resulting in less problematic behaviours (101). This parenting style is correlated with positive behavioral outcomes including increased competence, autonomy, high self-esteem, better coping skills, better academic performance, more self-reliance, less deviance, and better peer relations (36, 103).

As children develop into adolescents, their coping repertoires increase with increased life experiences. Many researchers (35) have argued that adolescents (relative to younger children) can often alleviate stress or eliminate a stressful situation because they have the cognitive, behavioral, and material resources to do so. Related to this, researchers have found that older adolescents are more active and have a broader range of coping strategies and greater ability to view problems from multiple perspectives (87,34). Increased cognitive complexity and social maturity lead to more reflection about possible options (87). The importance of this increased coping repertoire is building resilience is a developmental process in which, over time, successfully overcoming adverse situations increases self-efficacy (105) and develops effective coping skills to handle new problems (2). This developmental line of reasoning is also consistent with the relationships predicted from Snyder's hope theory. Adolescents who are high on hope are hypothesized to engage in more overall coping because they are better able to see multiple ways to reduce the impact of the stressor. This suggests that the effectiveness of coping effort depends on: the type of stress, the individual and the circumstances. Coping responses are partly controlled by personality (habitual traits), but also partly by the social environment. Based on this premise, the present paper includes PsyCap or also know as Psychological Capital as an important variable of the study. It is defined as "an individual's positive psychological state of development that is characterised by:

- 1) Resilience – when beset by problems and adversities, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond to attain success"
- 2) Self Efficacy – having confidence to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks;
- 3) Hope – preserving towards goals and, when necessary redirecting paths to goals; and
- 4) Optimism – making a positive attribution about succeeding now and in the future (66).

Resilience

Since parenting is a multifaceted process, it is safe to say that coping is just one factor affected by the parents in their children. Since parenting style that parents employ plays an important role in the coping strategies of the children, it may ipso facto affect the resilience of the child since psychological resiliency is the coping skills of people in case of uncertainty, negative situations, and obstacles (66). As Cetin has pointed out, this resiliency, combined with other components, i.e. hope, optimism and self-efficacy, form a new positive psychological construct which is termed as Psychological Capital, or PsyCap. These constituents of PsyCap will be discussed one by one, starting with resilience.

As already alluded, the style of parents' interactions with their children is very important in the development of Resilience among adolescents. It is of central importance in parent-child relationship and the resulting 'attachment' (1). Resilience typically refers to the tendency to spring back, rebound or recoil (42), and is defined as a process, capacity or outcome of successful adaptation despite challenges or threatening circumstances, good outcomes despite high risk status, sustained competence under threat (44). Thus, Resilience is coping adaptively with traumatic stressors. It is closely linked to the occurrence of demanding situations that one has to overcome. Where a person bends without breaking and then quickly rebounds from adversity (69). Therefore, it is rapidly returning to baseline functioning after exposure to trauma that is one cannot be resilient if there is no stressor. According to current models of resilience, the factors affecting resilience can be organized as external and internal factors. External factors are extrinsic and generated from outside of a person, and are reflected in the nature and quality of relationships established within and outside the family group. Internal factors are generated from within an individual and include Biological and psychological factors. (30) conceptualized the parenting styles as a constellation of attitudes toward the child that are communicated to the child, and that, taken together, create an emotional climate in which the parents' behaviors are expressed. (80) found that an authoritative parenting style is associated with high levels of resiliency while authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were most often associated with low resiliency.

As adolescence is often considered a stressful period during development because it involves a climatic transition from childhood dependency to adulthood independence and self-sufficiency. A resilient sense of competence is required to handle emotional and psychosocial pervert of self-regulative efforts. Adolescents' feel of efficacy to regulate their positive and negative emotional life contributes to their anticipated self-efficacy to take charge of their academic life, to handle peer pressures for transgress behaviour, and to feel empathy for the experiences of others (12). Adolescents childhood memories of punishment, rejection, and other characteristics of authoritarian parenting grew up to lack a sense of resilience. Whereas Gere & Kaur (2015) in their study found no relationship between parenting style and resilience of adolescents.

These findings point out that there might be number of protective factors which characterise a resilient person, these factors give clues regarding the process of developing resilience and a number of personal characteristics which are typical of resilient people. In general, resilient people use effective coping strategies, have a firm understanding of reality, a deep and meaningful belief system, and the ability to improvise (27). They also have a realistic grasp of the situation and what they can influence, have an awareness and tolerance of feelings, both their own and others, and have a strong belief in the future (19,27,37). These characteristics combine to give individuals the resources to cope in many situations and ultimately be resilient. one component of resilience is the use of effective coping strategies, such as task-focused coping (62). Which clearly points out the importance and relation between coping and resiliency.

Resilience includes many more equally important concepts- these include a solid perception of reality, the ability to influence and improvise, a firm belief in the future, and numerous other components (19,27). Additionally, coping as a concept is built around negative events and how a person responds in these situations. While resilience can act in negative events, it is equally important in positive but challenging situations such a receiving a promotion (62).

When the outcome or goals are examined both coping and resilience are different. The aim of effective coping is to successfully overcome the situation and emerge with minimal damage (60). Whereas, Resilience emphasises the bounce back or successful adaptation that occurs and frequently results in development beyond the original position (66). This difference in end result

highlights the subtle difference between the two concepts and highlights the focus resilience has on positive adaptation. While resilience and coping are distinct concepts, the relationship they may have with each other deserves further attention. Many of the protective factors established in child research on resilience identify the development and use of effective coping strategies. Additionally, there is strong evidence in the literature highlighting the relationship between resilience and the use of task-focused coping strategies rather than less effective emotion focused strategies (37,56). As effective coping strategies are considered one component of resilience it is expected they will be positively related.

Whereas, if the stressor has not yet happened or will not occur at all, self-efficacy (another concept in psychcap) can be present. It is a belief, that one can perform novel or difficult tasks and attain desired outcomes, as spelled out in the social cognitive theory (10). This reflects a sense of control over one's environment and an optimistic belief of being able to alter challenging or stressful environmental demands by means of one's own behavior. Therefore, self-efficacy belief can have a positive impact on motivational processes even if specific stressor is absent. Being self-efficacious may, however, also be helpful to show resilience in the face of adversity. That is self-efficacy can promote resilience.

Self-Efficacy

People with high assurance in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided and hence their coping strategies are active. They are able to handle problems effectively. A strong sense of self-efficacy, thus, enhances psychological resilience and personal well-being among individuals. The literature on developmental determinants and mechanisms of social adaptation of well-being and health-promotion shows that those who believe they can deal effectively with potential stressors, face and handle stress better, adopting more efficacious coping styles "but if they believe they cannot control aversive events they distress themselves and impair their level of functioning". In this view the regulation of the behaviour of an individual regarding objective choices and actions, is strongly influenced by belief in their ability to increase their motivation level, to draw on cognitive resources and carry out the actions to exercise control. Thus, self-efficacy can be seen

as one's belief in one's ability to succeed in specific situations or accomplish a task. It plays an important role in how one approaches goals, tasks, and challenges.

People's belief about their efficacy can be developed through various resources. Parenting style is very important in learning and developing self-efficacy among adolescents. The results show that there is relationship between parenting styles and variables such as academic achievement, self-efficacy, self-concept, self-esteem, and social skills (Yousefi, 2007). In order to fully understand themselves, the people need to be aware of what they think and what they really are. The proper estimation level of behaviour standards determines our feeling of self-efficacy. The family structure is a major factor in the formation of self-efficacy among individuals. If parents impact positively on the development of children's abilities during childhood, there will be suitable situation to actualize their talents for development and control of their internal beliefs. Thus, it can be said that self-efficacy follows partly from inherent rules. It is observed that the children with low self-efficacy have grown up in stressful families and they experienced strained familial relationships (89). (102) in their research indicated that authoritative parenting style is highly associated with self-efficacy. Regression result showed that authoritative parenting style contributes 12.8% towards student's self-efficacy. However, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles do not produce any significant relationship when associated with self-efficacy. t-test comparison revealed a significant difference of self-efficacy among the males and females. The male students demonstrated higher level of self-efficacy as compared to the females. Self-efficacy is a very important aspect of human cognition and survival because it shapes who a person becomes by what they believe they can do and what they go on to achieve. Right from a young age, parents, caregivers and teachers lay a foundational influence of expectations and abilities that children use as guidelines to evaluate themselves across contexts all the way to adulthood (11, 75).

(9) explains that self-efficacy "refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations". "Self-efficacy refers to people's judgements about their capability to perform particular tasks. Task-related self-efficacy increases the effort and persistence towards challenging tasks; therefore, increasing the likelihood that they will be completed"(5). The basic principle behind Self-Efficacy Theory is that individuals are

more likely to engage in activities for which they have high self-efficacy and less likely to engage in those they do not (104).

(32) found that active-coping efforts were associated with higher self-efficacy scores and good dissertation grades. Self-efficacy reflects a person's realistic expectations and degree of certainty about the ability to achieve success (4). The finding that active coping and self-efficacy appear to be predictive of each other is important because efficacy expectations are proposed to influence task selection and the effort expended in task completion.

When an individual is faced with a problem, self-efficacy comes into play and instigates a particular coping strategy that matches with the level of the perceived self-efficacy of the individual (18). High self-efficacy has been associated with active coping (e.g., problem-solving, information seeking) and low self-efficacy with passive coping (e.g., avoidance, distraction). The most commonly reported active coping strategy used by individuals with perceived high self-efficacy is problem-focused coping (18, 90,53). Problem-focused coping deals with a direct approach to solving the problem without making use of any external support apart from the acquired skills needed to solve the problem (90). With high self-efficacy, an individual believes that they do have the appropriate skills to successfully carry out a task or perform well with little to no external reliance or assistance (75,53).

Hope

When an individual is self-efficacious, they are also optimistic and they know they will get what they want if they put the effort. This happens because they have hope. It is the ingredient that helps an individual to wake up every morning with renewed energy, encourages them to get up and get around. According to Snyder (93) Hope is "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful agency (goal-directed energy) and pathway thinking (planning to meet goals)." In other words it can be defined "as a belief of a person to know how to reach a goal (pathways) as well as the motivation to use the pathway to reach the goal (agency). Hope is an important construct in a child's life, helping them to deal with stressors, avoid problem behaviours and use past experiences to develop strategies towards goals in an effective manner. Children are positively biased, in their perception of future, and this bias helps

them develop positive outcome thoughts and strive for success in childhood and usually onto adulthood (94).

Parenting style has been extensively researched with regard to the child development. Parents are primary teachers in instilling agency (motivational thinking) and pathways thinking (routes to goals) (93). This is accomplished as children begin to perceive and make sense of external events, understand that one event can lead to another, and comprehend the value of goal-directed behaviour. Consequently, children acquire 'self-instigatory insights' (93) which assist them to plan goal directed behaviour and deal with obstacles that hinder the achievement of those goals. As children develop cognitively and move into adolescence and beyond, so these self instigatory insights improve. These child's developmental outcomes depends on the parenting they receive that's why parenting style is considered as an important determinant of several aspects of children's outcome (41). Childrens orientation towards the future and he way they approach lifes challenges are affected differently by each of the parenting style. This is because parents teach their children how to think as well how to relate with other people and their environment (33). Research by (71) reported similar concept to Snyder's (93) which reported that by coping with difficult challenges in a positive way and by persevering in the face of difficulties, parents model hopeful behaviour to their children. They encourage the emotion and internalization of the parent's competence and pro-social behaviours.

A persons pathways and agency thinking are learned over the course of childhood and later. Most people lack hope because they were not taught to think in this manner, or forces accompanied with negative emotions intervened to destroy such hopeful thought during their childhoods. The person brings this enduring pathways and agency interative thought process to particular instances of goal pursuit (93). Individuals with high levels of hope have the skills to cope more effectively with barriers to the achievement of goals and demonstrate high levels of competence across a wide range of human endeavour (95). Hope not only facilitates attaining a goal when that goal is unimpeded, it also helps individuals cope in a better way when negative events or feelings arise. This indicated that there is a relationship between the level of hope and coping skills an individual has acquired. As aforementioned, High hope caregivers are able to articulate multiple viable pathways toward their goals. Moreover, they are able to develop

alternative strategies toward a desired goal when faced with a barrier. Snyder (93) articulates that individuals with high hope will be confident in their ability to pursue their chosen pathway. Hopeful individuals are able to identify productive paths towards reaching their identified goals, manage and overcome stress, and report lower levels of daily stress (21,55,74,95). All these indicate a relation between hope and coping strategies further there are many studies which have provided evidences for the same like, hope is positively associated with engaged coping and negatively associated with avoidant coping (23,82).

Optimism

Hope and optimism are valued as strengths by most of the cultures and involve positive expectations. Optimism is an umbrella-like term encompassing a range of positive attributions that have far-reaching, positive outcomes. Closely related to hope, it encompasses sister traits such as future-orientation and includes an expectation and confidence that desired

Although both Hope and Optimism are focused on the future, optimism refers to the belief that positive things are likely to occur in the future, “that good rather than bad things will happen” (83). It is a belief or wish that the positive will prevail and that good things in the future will be more plentiful than bad things (77). In contrast, hope encompasses the ability to generate and implement plans for the future. As Bailey et al (6) explains, “optimism theory posits that outcome expectancies determine goal-directed behaviour, whereas hope theory posits that efficacy expectancies (Agency) are equally necessary determinants of goal-directed behaviour.”

Although optimism is defined as a more stable personality trait, studies have shown that it can be influenced by external circumstances and influences. Franklin, et al (1990), also supported the notion that optimism can be readily influenced by external factors. One such factor predicted to relate to child optimism is parenting style. Ineffective parenting techniques such as losing one’s temper, swearing, or hitting (over-reactivity) might lead the child to a more pessimistic coping style. Other ineffective techniques such as lack of consistency in administering discipline (laxness) or forcing the child to explain mistakes (verbosity) may also have a connection to the optimism-pessimism dimension.

Parenting style depends on the behaviour and attitude of parents. Parenting style is a psychological construct which represented standard strategies parents use in raising their children. The term is a complex activity that includes many specific behaviours that work individually and collectively to influence the child. Parents' influence in the socialization of children is well-acknowledged (25), and social learning theory relies heavily upon the assumption that children learn from what they observe. Researchers such as Peterson (77) have hypothesized that parental modelling contributes to children's acquisition of optimism. It seems reasonable that observation of parents' optimism would contribute to child acquisition of optimism.

Thus, as already alluded via modelling, Authoritative parents may communicate a more positive outlook to their offspring than less Authoritative parents. However, an alternative explanation for the association found between adolescent optimism and Authoritative parenting style is that the parenting style itself fosters the development of optimism in the offspring. According to (98), the Authoritative style of parenting is effective due to increases in nurturance and parental involvement that make the children more receptive to parental influences. The Authoritative parenting style predicted adolescent optimism while the Authoritarian parenting style demonstrated little influence on optimism (7). (50) studied optimism and pessimism in children as a function of parenting. The results revealed a significant positive correlation between Autonomy style of parenting and child optimism ($r=.25, p<.05$). The association between parenting style and optimism and pessimism can be attributed, in part, to modelling. More specifically, an optimistic parent might display more warmth and support than a pessimistic parent. Thus, cultivating the development of optimism later on in life in their children. (88) has postulated that optimism can be cultivated or learned via masterful thinking. More specifically, by providing the individual with realistic challenges in which failure is possible, an individual's expectation can be altered. When these challenges are repeatedly met with success, the individual begins to expect a good outcome and thus optimism is enhanced. We argue that the authoritative parenting style provides such an environment with which to facilitate the development of experiences conducive to optimistic thinking. To our knowledge, empirical studies examining the association between parenting styles and optimism are scant. Studying

optimism in adolescence is particularly important because traits such as optimism remain malleable and can still be developed during this stage of life (68).

As the child witnesses his or her parents' way of dealing with stress and adversity, he or she acquire the same coping style and expectancy pattern. Optimism involves the expectation of good outcomes and an engaged approach to life, apparently reflecting the belief that good outcomes require some effort. These characteristics suggest that optimism will relate positively to engagement types of coping, such as problem solving and cognitive restructuring, and inversely to avoidance or disengagement coping. Pessimism involves the expectation of bad outcomes, which should promote distress and disengagement coping. Moreover, research shows that optimists tend to use more adaptive coping strategies compared with pessimistic individuals (20,22). More optimistic individuals generally seem to be active copers while more pessimistic individuals seem to be avoidant copers.

Optimism and coping share many characteristics with important outcome variables. One potential explanation for these shared relationships is that optimism and coping styles interact with one another to produce how an individual responds to a stressful or challenging situation (86). Shedding some light on this hypothesis, numerous investigations have explored the relationships between optimism and various coping styles (17, 18, 40, 46, 47,48,85, 86, 99). In general, these studies have found that higher levels of optimism are associated with a greater use of more active coping strategies (e.g., problem-oriented coping, planning, seeking social support), whereas lower levels of optimism are associated with a greater use of emotion-oriented and avoidance coping strategies (e.g., emotional ventilation, behavioural disengagement).

Rationale

In recent years, substantial gains have been made in our understanding of the influence of parenting styles on adolescent emotional and behavioral outcomes. Parenting styles create different social environments in the lives of children within the home. During adolescence, however, the influence of peers also serves as an important socialization agent. Despite this new sphere of influence, research by (28) and (31) has clearly demonstrated that parenting accounts for more variance in externalizing behaviors in adolescence than any other one factor. The period

of adolescence can be difficult for both parents and Adolescents; therefore, understanding the importance of maintaining high quality parenting is particularly essential. The influence of parenting during adolescence continues to affect behaviors into adulthood; therefore, research focusing on the associations between parenting and adolescent outcomes is important as the influence of parenting during adolescence continues to affect behaviors into adulthood. Based on this premise, the present study attempts to explore positive factors like coping and psycap in relation to parenting style.

2. Methodology

AIMS

- To explore the relationship between Parenting Style, PsyCap and Coping Strategies in college students.

HYPOTHESIS:

- There will be significant relationship between Parenting Style, PsyCap and Coping Strategies.

SAMPLE: The sample consisted of 200 college going students from different universities of Jaipur city. Out of the total sample 100 were boys (50 UG + 50 PG) and 100 were girls (50 UG + 50 PG). The subjects were taken from different courses of the university employing Convenience Sampling Approach.

- Inclusion Criteria:
 - Subjects who knew English Language
 - Age range between 18-24 years
- Exclusion Criteria:
 - The subjects with any chronic physical illness and psychiatric illness.
 - Subjects with single parent or divorced parents.

PROCEDURE: In order to test the hypothesis, data was collected from college going adolescents. Participants who gave their consent to participate in the study were included in the study and the completed questionnaires were collected.

TOOLS EMPLOYED:

1. Parenting Style Inventory-II (Darling & Toyokawa, 1997): The Parenting Style Inventory (PSI-I) was designed to assess the construct of parenting style independently of parenting practice. Three subscales, of five items each, were developed to assess the three dimensions of parenting style: demandingness, emotional responsiveness, and psychological autonomy-granting. Reliability tests in samples of high school seniors and college students yielded acceptable levels of reliability (demandingness, $\alpha = .69$; responsiveness, $\alpha = .87$; autonomy-granting, $\alpha = .82$).

2. BRIEF Coping Scale (Carver, 1997): The Brief COPE is designed to assess the varying coping strategies used by individuals in response to stress. The Brief COPE is comprised of 14 scales, each of which assesses the degree to which a respondent utilizes a specific coping strategy. These scales include: (1) Active Coping, (2) Planning, (3) Positive Reframing, (4) Acceptance, (5) Humor, (6) Religion, (7) Using Emotional Support, (8) Using Instrumental Support, (9) Self-Distraction, (10) Denial, (11) Venting, (12) Substance Use, (13) Behavioral Disengagement, and (14) Self-Blame. The scale was initially reported to have acceptable reliability and validity data; ranging from .50 to .90 (Carver, 1997).

3. PsyCap Questionnaire (PCQ; Luthans et al., 2006): The PCQ is widely recognized as the standard scale measuring PsyCap. It was developed as a compound measure consisting of (modified) items from published scales for hope, optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy. This instrument has demonstrated strong psychometric properties in confirmatory factor analyses in multiple studies (66) and acceptable internal reliability was demonstrated in the study ($\alpha = .92$).

RESEARCH DESIGN: Co-relational research design was employed.

3. Result and Discussion

Adolescence is a time of rapid change and development (98), a time of promise, a time of 'disruption and transition' (59) with new demands placed on teenagers as well as their parents. Many parents find these years among the most stressful (91) and, although most teenagers negotiate these transitions successfully, still this period is also characterised by increases in negative emotional states (24; 59) and declines in self-esteem (81). The transition from adolescence into adulthood can be a great time of change and ambiguity for many college students as they are no longer an adolescent in high school, and are now entering into adulthood

(78) where they are expected to behave in a certain way. This directed to the development of the aims for the present study. For the purpose of analysis of results correlation was employed.

Table 1: Correlation between Parenting style and PsyCap in adolescents

Parenting Style \ PsyCap	R	AG	DEM
Self- Efficacy	.239**	.025	-.106
Hope	.199**	.090	-.067
Resilience	.108	.101	-.077
Optimism	.154*	.004	-.194**
PsyCap	.229**	.069	-.138

** p<0.01 *p<0.05

(R=Responsiveness Parenting Style, AG = Autonomy-Granting Parenting Style, DEM = Demandingness Parenting Style, PsyCap = Psychological Capital)

It is evident from the result table1 that Responsiveness parenting style is significantly positively related with Self Efficacy (.239, p<0.01); Hope (.199, p<0.01); Optimism (.154, p<0.05); and overall PsyCap (.229, p<0.01) indicating that adolescents who receive responsiveness parenting style experience high levels of self-efficacy, hope and optimism. Also they are high on over all experience of pscap as compared to other adolescents who receive Autonomy-Granting or Demandingness Parenting Style. Also the result table indicates that Demandingness Parenting Style is significantly negatively related with Optimism (-194, p<0.01) which indicates that adolescents with demanding parents have low levels of Optimism.

Table 2: Parenting style and Coping

Parenting Style Coping	R	AG	DEM
<i>Self Distraction</i>	.287**	.084	.170*
<i>Active Coping,</i>	.449**	.304**	.258**
<i>Denial,</i>	-.274**	-.290**	-.046
<i>Substance Use</i>	-.525**	-.224**	- .248**
<i>Use of Emotional Support</i>	.025	-.064	.152*
<i>Use of Instrumental Support,</i>	.032	-.157*	.044
<i>Behavioural Disengagement</i>	-.229**	-.308**	.010
<i>Venting,</i>	-.066	-.148*	.013
<i>Positive Reframing,</i>	.410**	.222**	.183**
<i>Planning,</i>	.255**	.154*	.221**
<i>Humour</i>	-.255**	-.157*	-.035
<i>Acceptance</i>	.259**	.166**	.104
<i>Religion</i>	-.121	-.163*	-.012
<i>Self Blaming,</i>	-.208	-.078	-.048
<i>Brief Coping</i>	.027	-.109	.117

** p<0.01 *p<0.05

(R=Responsiveness Parenting Style, AG = Autonomy-Granting Parenting Style, DEM = Demandingness Parenting Style)

The correlation matrix of parenting style and coping strategies is indicated in Table 2 which reveal that Responsiveness parenting style is significantly positively correlated with Self distraction (.287, p<0.01); Active Coping (.449, p<0.01); Positive Reframing (.410, p<0.01); Planning (.255, p<0.01); Acceptance (.259, p<0.01) coping style, and significantly negatively correlated with Denial (-.274, p<0.01); Substance Use (-.525, p<0.01); Behavioral Disengagement (-.229, p<0.01) and Humour (-.255, p<0.01) coping style. This indicated that parents who employ responsiveness parenting style their children effectively make use of

positive coping strategies to deal with the stressful and problematic situations and avoid/ do not indulge in negative coping strategies like denial, substance use and behaviour disengagement.

Whereas parents who employ Autonomy Granting Parenting Style their children also effectively make use of positive coping style and do not indulge in negative coping behaviour as indicated in the result table. Autonomy Granting Parenting Style is significantly positively correlated with Active Coping (.304, $p < 0.01$); Positive Reframing (.222, $p < 0.01$); Planning (.154, $p < 0.05$); Acceptance (.166, $p < 0.01$) coping style, and significantly negatively correlated with Denial (-.290, $p < 0.01$); Substance Use (-.224, $p < 0.01$); Use of Instrumental Support (-.157, $p < 0.05$); Behavioral Disengagement (-.308, $p < 0.01$); Venting (-.148, $p < 0.05$); Hope (-.157, $p < 0.05$); and Religion (-.163, $p < 0.05$) coping style.

Finally the Demandingness Parenting Style is significantly positively correlated with Self Distraction (.170, $p < 0.05$); Active Coping (.258, $p < 0.01$); Use of Emotional Support (.152, $p < 0.01$); Positive Reframing (.183, $p < 0.01$); Planning (.221, $p < 0.01$) coping style; and significantly negatively correlated with Substance Use (-.248, $p < 0.01$) coping style. This portion of correlation matrix also indicates somewhat similar results to other parenting styles. These findings reveal a direct effect of parenting style on adolescents' coping capabilities. Perceiving parents as authoritarian (similar to demanding parenting style), those who restrict their children and exert high level of control causes more children to respond aggressively towards external factors. Hence, they encounter emotional problems such as stress and depression. In contrast, parents who are strict but also show support, and acceptance and are involved in children's activities lead to more positive outcomes which are reflected in their better psychosocial adjustment and coping abilities (38).

Table 3: PsyCap and Coping

Coping \ PsyCap	Self D	AC	Den	SU	Use of ES	Use of IS	BD	V	PR	P	H	A	Rel	Self B	BC
SE	.30 2**	.49 4**	- .352 **	- .535 **	.12 1	.0 79	- .161 *	- .003	.333 **	.376 **	-.085	.239 **	.02 5	-.106	.113
Hope	.27 2**	.46 2*	- .223 **	- .442 **	.14 4*	.1 16	-.100 .169 *	- .169 *	.257 **	.377 **	-.093	.199 **	.09 0	-.067	.134
R	.21 5**	.25 1**	-.134	- .295 **	- .01 7	.0 14	- .226 **	- .147 *	.248 **	.219 **	-.007	.108	.10 1	-.077	.045
O	.16 8**	.34 6**	- .305 **	- .333 **	- .06 8	- .0 39	- .377 **	- .115	.303 **	.214 **	- .193 **	.154 *	.00 4	- .194 **	- .071
PsyCap	.31 0**	.50 4**	- .329 **	- .522 **	.07 0	.0 61	- .260 **	- .129	.364 **	.386 **	-.118	.229 **	.06 9	-.138	.780 **

** p<0.01 *p<0.05

(Self D = Self Distraction, AC = Active Coping, Den = Denial, SU = Substance Use, Use of ES = Use of Emotional Support, Use of IS = Use of Instrumental Support, BD = Behavioural Disengagement, V = Venting, PR = Positive Reframing, P = Planning, H = Humour, A = Acceptance, Rel = Religion, Self B = Self Blaming, BC = Brief Coping, SE = Self Efficacy, R = Resilience, O = Optimism, PsyCap = Psychological Capital)

Table 3 indicates the correlation matrix of PsyCap and coping strategies, it is clearly indicated in the matrix that Self Distraction Coping Mechanism, Active Coping Mechanism and Positive Reframing Coping Mechanism is significantly positively correlated with Self Efficacy (.302, p<0.01; .494, p<0.01 and .333, p<0.01); Hope (.272, p<0.01; .462, p<0.05 and .257, p<0.01); Resilience (.215, p<0.01; .251, p<0.01 and .248, p<0.01); Optimism (.168, p<0.01; .346, p<0.01 and .303, p<0.01); and overall Psychological Capital (.310, p<0.01; .504, p<0.01 and .364, p<0.01) respectively, suggesting that individuals with high over all PsyCap and all the four components of it namely, self efficacy, hope, resilience and optimism employ self distraction coping strategy, Active Coping Mechanism and Positive Reframing Coping mechanism.

Denial Coping Mechanism is significantly negatively correlated with Self Efficacy (-.352, $p < 0.01$); Hope (-.223, $p < 0.01$); Optimism (-.305, $p < 0.01$); and overall Psychological Capital (-.329, $p < 0.01$) suggesting that individuals who employ denial coping mechanism have low self-efficacy, hope, optimism and overall PsyCap and vice versa. Whereas, Acceptance Coping Mechanism is significantly positively correlated with Self Efficacy (.239, $p < 0.01$); Hope (.199, $p < 0.01$); Optimism (.154, $p < 0.05$); and overall Psychological Capital (.229, $p < 0.01$) indicating that individuals who employ Acceptance Coping Mechanism have high self-efficacy, Hope, Optimism and Overall PsyCap and vice versa.

Substance Use Coping Mechanism is significantly negatively correlated with Self Efficacy (-.535, $p < 0.01$); Hope (-.442, $p < 0.01$); Resilience (-.295, $p < 0.01$); Optimism (-.333, $p < 0.01$); and overall Psychological Capital (-.522, $p < 0.01$) indicating that individuals who have low sense of self-efficacy, hope, resilience, optimism and thus are low on overall PsyCap as well make more use of substance use coping mechanism.

Using Emotional Support Coping Mechanism is significantly positively correlated with Hope (.144, $p < 0.05$) indicating that individuals high on hope utilise their social support as one of the coping strategies to cope with stress.

Behavioral Disengagement Coping Mechanism is significantly negatively correlated with Self Efficacy (-.161, $p < 0.05$); Resilience (-.226, $p < 0.01$); Optimism (-.377, $p < 0.01$), and overall Psychological Capital (-.260, $p < 0.01$) this result suggests that behavioural disengagement coping is utilized more by adolescents who are low on self-efficacy, resilience, optimism and over all PsyCap. Venting Coping Mechanism is significantly negatively correlated with Hope (-.169, $p < 0.05$); and Resilience (-.147, $p < 0.05$) indicating that venting is used as a coping method by adolescents low on hope and resilience. Humour Coping Mechanism and Self Blaming Coping Mechanism is significantly negatively correlated with Optimism (-.193, $p < 0.01$; -.194, $p < 0.01$ respectively) indicating that adolescents low on optimism employ Humor and Self Blame more as coping mechanisms.

Total Brief Cope Score is significantly positively correlated with Overall Psychological Capital Score (.780, $p < 0.01$) suggesting that coping mechanisms utilized by adolescents are directly related to the overall psycap they have that is the experience of self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience are related to the coping strategies. One potential explanation for these shared

relationships is as follows When an individual is faced with a problem, self-efficacy comes into play and instigates a particular coping strategy that matches with the level of the perceived self-efficacy of the individual (18). High self-efficacy has been associated with active coping (e.g., problem-solving, information seeking) and low self-efficacy with passive coping (e.g., avoidance, distraction). The most commonly reported active coping strategy used by individuals with perceived high self-efficacy is problem-focused coping (18, 90, 53). Problem-focused coping deals with a direct approach to solving the problem without making use of any external support apart from the acquired skills needed to solve the problem (90). With high self-efficacy, an individual believes that they do have the appropriate skills to successfully carry out a task or perform well with little to no external reliance or assistance (75, 53).

Optimism and coping styles interact with one another to produce how an individual responds to a stressful or challenging situation (86). Shedding some light on this hypothesis, numerous investigations have explored the relationships between optimism and various coping styles (17,18, 40, 46, 47,85, 86, 99). In general, these studies have found that higher levels of optimism are associated with a greater use of more active coping strategies (e.g., problem-oriented coping, planning, seeking social support), whereas lower levels of optimism are associated with a greater use of emotion-oriented and avoidance coping strategies (e.g., emotional ventilation, behavioural disengagement).

4. Conclusion (10pt)

Parenting is one of the complex tasks every parent hopes to succeed in. For all social and educational development, the family and parenting style plays an important role. Moreover, parenting forms the basis of a family environment because without parental education, it was not possible for parents to fulfill their roles and duties in the family and the society. **Leung (1988)** study on the importance of parenting on children's psychosocial development, acknowledged that parenting was a very complex and challenging phenomenon which was very difficult to understand and define. Parents need to educate themselves for their children to become good citizens in the future. So, parents required help to develop their parenting skills. The results of the present study indicate that parenting style employed effects the measures of PsyCap which in turn are related to the coping strategies employed by adolescents also, parenting style is related

to coping strategies. This indicated that if parents are effectively trained and skilled to employ effective parenting style that could lead to their children utilizing effective coping strategies and to be more successful as they will have high PsyCap.

Limitation and Future Directions: The findings of this research highlighted the need for future research to examine in depth the relationship between parenting style, PsyCap and the different coping strategies. There is scope for additional research to examine the mechanisms behind each finding. This piece of research produced some interesting findings however, little explanation was offered by the literature as to the reasons for these relationships. Effective interventions and training modules can be prepared for parents to assist them in utilizing effective parenting style. Also, family-based prevention intervention programs for parents and adolescents can be developed.

References

- [1] Ainsworth, M. D. S., Blehar, M. C., & Waters, E. (1978). Wall. s.(1978). Patterns of attachment: A psychological study of the strange situation.
- [2] Aldwin, C. M., Sutton, K. J., & Lachman, M. (1996). The development of coping resources in adulthood. *Journal of personality*, 64(4), 837-871.
- [3] Anshel, H.H., Kim, K.W., Kim, B.H., Chang, K.J., & Eom, H.J. (2001). A model for coping with stressful events in sport: Theory, application, and future directions. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 32, 43 – 73.
- [4] Anshel, I., Anshel, M., Fisher, B., & Goldfeld, D. (2001). New key agreement protocols in braid group cryptography. In *Cryptographers' Track at the RSA Conference* (pp. 13-27). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- [5] Axtell, C. M., & Parker, S. K. (2003). Promoting role breadth self-efficacy through involvement, work redesign and training. *Human Relations*, 56(1), 113-131.
- [6] Bailey, T. C., Eng, W., Frisch, M. B., & Snyder, C. R. (2007). Hope and optimism as related to life satisfaction. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 2(3), 168-175.
- [7] Baldwin, D. R., McIntyre, A., & Hardaway, E. (2007). Perceived parenting styles on college students' optimism. *College Student Journal*, 41(3), 550-558.

- [8] Bandura A. (1995). Exercise of personal and collective efficacy in changing societies. In: Bandura A editors. *Self-efficacy in changing societies*, New York: Cambridge University Press; p.1–45.
- [9] Bandura, A. (1995). *Self-efficacy in changing societies*. Cambridge university press.
- [10] Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. Macmillan.
- [11] Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (2001). Self-efficacy beliefs as shapers of children's aspirations and career trajectories. *Child development*, 72(1), 187-206.
- [12] Bandura, A., Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., Gerbino, M., & Pastorelli, C. (2003). Role of affective self-regulatory efficacy in diverse spheres of psychosocial functioning. *Child development*, 74(3), 769-782.
- [13] Barnett, D., Kidwell, S. L., & Leung, K. H. (1998). Parenting and Preschooler Attachment among Low-Income Urban African American Families. *Child development*, 69(6), 1657-1671.
- [14] Baumrind, D. (1991). Parenting styles and adolescent development, in: J. Brooks-Gunn, R. Lerner & A. C. Petersen (Eds) *The encyclopedia of adolescence* (New York, Garland), 746–758.
- [15] Carver, C. S. (1997). you want to measure coping but your protocol's too long: Consider the Brief COPE. *International Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 4, 92-100.
- [16] Carver, C. S. (1997). you want to measure coping but your protocol's too long: Consider the Brief COPE. *International Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 4, 92-100.
- [17] Carver, C. S., Pozo, C., Harris, S. D., Noriega, V., Scheier, M. F., Robinson, D. S., ... & Clark, K. C. (1993). How coping mediates the effect of optimism on distress: a study of women with early stage breast cancer. *Journal of Personality and social psychology*, 65(2), 375.
- [18] Carver, C. S., Scheier, M. F., & Weintraub, J. K. (1989). Assessing coping strategies: a theoretically based approach. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 56(2), 267.
- [19] Caverley, N. (2005). Civil service resiliency and coping. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 18(5), 401-413.
- [20] Chang, E. C. (1996). Cultural differences in optimism, pessimism, and coping: Predictors of subsequent adjustment in Asian American and Caucasian American college students. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 43(1), 113.

- [21] Chang, E. C. (1998). Dispositional optimism and primary and secondary appraisal of a stressor: Controlling for confounding influences and relations to coping and psychological and physical adjustment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(4), 1109.
- [22] Chang, E. C. (1998). Hope, problem-solving ability, and coping in a college student population: Some implications for theory and practice. *Journal of clinical psychology*, 54(7), 953-962.
- [23] Chang, E. C., & DeSimone, S. L. (2001). The influence of hope on appraisals, coping, and dysphoria: A test of hope theory. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 20(2), 117-129.
- [24] Ciarrochi, J., Heaven, P. C., & Supavadeeprasit, S. (2008). The link between emotion identification skills and socio-emotional functioning in early adolescence: a 1-year longitudinal study. *Journal of Adolescence*, 31(5), 565-582.
- [25] Collins, W. A., Maccoby, E. E., Steinberg, L., Hetherington, E. M., & Bornstein, M. H. (2000). Contemporary research on parenting: The case for nature and nurture. *American psychologist*, 55(2), 218.
- [26] Collins, W. A., Maccoby, E. E., Steinberg, L., Hetherington, E. M., & Bornstein, M. H. (2000). Contemporary research on parenting: The case for nature and nurture. *American psychologist*, 55(2), 218.
- [27] Coutu, D. L. (2002). How resilience works. *Harvard business review*, 80(5), 46-56.
- [28] Crosswhite, J.M.; Kerpelman, J. (2009). Coercion theory, self-control, and social information processing: Understanding potential mediators for how parents influence deviant behaviors. *Deviant Behaviour*. 30, 611–646.
- [29] Darling, N. & Toyokawa, T. (1997) Construction and validation of the parenting styles inventory II (PSI-II) (Unpublished manuscript).
- [30] Darling, N., & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting style as context: An integrative model. *Psychological bulletin*, 113(3), 487.
- [31] Dekovic, M.; Janssens, J.M.(2003). Van As, N.M.C. Parental predictors of antisocial behavior in adolescence. *Family Process*, 42, 223–235.
- [32] Devonport, T. D., Lane, A. M., Milton, K. E. & Williams, L. (2003) Self-efficacy as a predictor of strategies used to cope with dissertation stress. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the British Psychological Society, Bournemouth, March 2003.

- [33] Dominguez, M. M., & Carton, J. S. (1997). The relationship between self-actualization and parenting style. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 12(4), 1093.
- [34] Ebata, A. T., & Moos, R. H. (1994). Personal, situational, and contextual correlates of coping in adolescence. *Journal of research on Adolescence*, 4(1), 99-125.
- [35] Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., & Guthrie, I. K. (1997). Coping with stress. In *Handbook of children's coping* (pp. 41-70). Springer US.
- [36] Erden, M., & Uredi, I. (2008). The effect of perceived parenting styles on self-regulated learning strategies and motivational beliefs. *International Journal about Parents in Education*, 2(1), 25-34.
- [37] Everall, R. D., Altrows, K. J., & Paulson, B. L. (2006). Creating a future: A study of resilience in suicidal female adolescents. *Journal of Counseling and Development: JCD*, 84(4), 461.
- [38] Finkenauer, C., Engels, R., & Baumeister, R. (2005). Parenting behaviour and adolescent behavioural and emotional problems: The role of self-control. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 29(1), 58-69.
- [39] Folkman, S. (1984). Personal control and stress and coping processes: a theoretical analysis. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 46(4), 839.
- [40] Fournier, M., de Ridder, D., & Bensing, J. (1999). Optimism and adaptation to multiple sclerosis: what does optimism mean?. *Journal of Behavioral medicine*, 22(4), 303-326.
- [41] Gadeyne, E., Ghesquière, P., & Onghena, P. (2004). Longitudinal relations between parenting and child adjustment in young children. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, 33(2), 347-358.
- [42] Garmezy, N. (1991). Resilience in children's adaptation to negative life events and stressed environments. *Pediatric annals*, 20(9), 459-466.
- [43] Garmezy, N. (1991). Resiliency and vulnerability to adverse developmental outcomes associated with poverty. *American behavioral scientist*, 34(4), 416-430.
- [44] Garmezy, N., & Masten, A. S. (1991). The protective role of competence indicators in children at risk.
- [45] German, R. R., Lee, L. M., Horan, J. M., Milstein, R., Pertowski, C., & Waller, M. (2001). Updated guidelines for evaluating public health surveillance systems. *MMWR Recomm Rep*, 50(1-35).

- [46] Grove, J. R., & Heard, N. P. (1997). Optimism and sport confidence as correlates of slump-related coping among athletes. *The Sport Psychologist*, 11(4), 400-410.
- [47] Harju, B. L., & Bolen, L. M. (1998). The Effects of Optimisin on Coping and Perceived Quality of Life of College Students. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 13(2), 185.
- [48] Harju, B. L., & Bolen, L. M. (1998). The Effects of Optimisin on Coping and Perceived Quality of Life of College Students. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 13(2), 185.
- [49] Harmon, M. E., Ferrell, W. K., & Franklin, J. F. (1990). Effects on carbon storage of conversion of old-growth forests to young forests. *Science*, 247(4943), 699-703.
- [50] Hasan, N., & Power, T. G. (2002). Optimism and pessimism in children: A study of parenting correlates. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 26(2), 185-191.
- [51] Hastings, P. D., McShane, K. E., Parker, R., & Ladha, F. (2007). Ready to make nice: Parental socialization of young sons' and daughters' prosocial behaviors with peers. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 168(2), 177-200.
- [52] Herodotou, H., Lim, H., Luo, G., Borisov, N., Dong, L., Cetin, F. B., & Babu, S. (2011, January). Starfish: A Self-tuning System for Big Data Analytics. In *Cidr*, 11, pp. 261-272.
- [53] Hsieh, A. C., Liu, Y., Edlind, M. P., Ingolia, N. T., Janes, M. R., Sher, A., ... & Wang, S. (2012). The translational landscape of mTOR signalling steers cancer initiation and metastasis. *Nature*, 485(7396), 55-61.
- [54] Hsu, M. H., Ju, T. L., Yen, C. H., & Chang, C. M. (2007). Knowledge sharing behavior in virtual communities: The relationship between trust, self-efficacy, and outcome expectations. *International journal of human-computer studies*, 65(2), 153-169.
- [55] Irving, L. M., Snyder, C. R., & Crowson Jr, J. J. (1998). Hope and coping with cancer by college women. *Journal of personality*, 66(2), 195-214.
- [56] Jones, F., Bright, J., & Clow, A. (2001). *Stress: Myth, theory and research*. Pearson Education.
- [57] Kara, M., Van Der Bijl, J. J., Shortridge-Baggett, L. M., Astı, T., & Ergüney, S. (2006). Cross-cultural adaptation of the diabetes management self-efficacy scale for patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: Scale development. *International journal of nursing studies*, 43(5), 611-621.
- [58] Lane, A. M., Devonport, T. J., Milton, K. E., & Williams, L. C. (2003). Self-efficacy and dissertation performance among sport students.

- [59] Larson, R. W., Moneta, G., Richards, M. H., & Wilson, S. (2002). Continuity, stability, and change in daily emotional experience across adolescence. *Child development*, 73(4), 1151-1165.
- [60] Lazarus, R. S. (1993). From psychological stress to the emotions: A history of changing outlooks. *Annual review of psychology*, 44(1), 1-22.
- [61] Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. New York: Springer.
- [62] Luthans, F., & Youssef, C. M. (2007). Emerging positive organizational behavior. *Journal of management*, 33(3), 321-349.
- [63] Luthans, F., Avey, J. B., Avolio, B. J., Norman, S. M., & Combs, G. M. (2006). Psychological capital development: toward a micro-intervention. *Journal of organizational behavior*, 27(3), 387-393.
- [64] Luthans, F., Avey, J.B., Avolio, B.J., Norman, S., and Combs, G. (2006). Psychological capital development: Toward a micro-intervention. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27, 387–393.
- [65] Luthans, F., Van Wyk, R., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2004). Recognition and development of hope for South African organizational leaders. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 25(6), 512-527.
- [66] Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2007). *Psychological capital: Developing the human competitive edge* (p. 3). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [67] Mannix, M. M., Feldman, J. M., & Moody, K. (2009). Optimism and health-related quality of life in adolescents with cancer. *Child: care, health and development*, 35(4), 482-488.
- [68] Mannix, M. M., Feldman, J. M., & Moody, K. (2009). Optimism and health-related quality of life in adolescents with cancer. *Child: care, health and development*, 35(4), 482-488.
- [69] Masten, A. S. (2001). Ordinary magic: Resilience processes in development. *American psychologist*, 56(3), 227.
- [70] Masten, S. E., & Saussier, S. (2000). Econometrics of contracts: an assessment of developments in the empirical literature on contracting. *Revue d'économie industrielle*, 92(1), 215-236.
- [71] McDermott, D., & Hastings, S. (2000). Children: Raising future hopes. *Handbook of hope: Theory, measures, and applications*, 185-199.

- [72] Miller, D. L., Manne, S. L., Taylor, K., Keates, J., & Dougherty, J. (1996). Psychological distress and well-being in advanced cancer: The effects of optimism and coping. *Journal of Clinical Psychology in Medical Settings*, 3(2), 115-130.
- [73] Neff, K. D., Hsieh, Y. P., & Dejjitterat, K. (2005). Self-compassion, achievement goals, and coping with academic failure. *Self and identity*, 4(3), 263-287.
- [74] Ong, A. D., Edwards, L. M., & Bergeman, C. S. (2006). Hope as a source of resilience in later adulthood. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 41(7), 1263-1273.
- [75] Pajares, F. (2005). Gender differences in mathematics self-efficacy beliefs. *Gender differences in mathematics: An integrative psychological approach*, 294-315.
- [76] Park, N., Peterson, C., & Seligman, M. E. (2004). Strengths of character and well-being. *Journal of social and Clinical Psychology*, 23(5), 603-619.
- [77] Peterson, C. (2000). The future of optimism. *American psychologist*, 55(1), 44.
- [78] Rindfuss, R. R. (1991). The young adult years: Diversity, structural change, and fertility. *Demography*, 28(4), 493-512.
- [79] Ritter, E. N. (2005). Parenting styles: Their impact on the development of adolescent resiliency. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering*, 66(1-B), 621.
- [80] Ritter, E. N. (2005). Parenting styles: Their impact on the development of adolescent resiliency. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering*, 66(1-B), 621.
- [81] Robins, R. W., & Trzesniewski, K. H. (2005). Self-esteem development across the lifespan. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 14(3), 158-162.
- [82] Roesch, S. C., Duangado, K. M., Vaughn, A. A., Aldridge, A. A., & Villodas, F. (2010). Dispositional hope and the propensity to cope: A daily diary assessment of minority adolescents. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 16(2), 191.
- [83] Scheier, M. F., & Carver, C. S. (1985). Optimism, coping, and health: assessment and implications of generalized outcome expectancies. *Health psychology*, 4(3), 219.
- [84] Scheier, M. F., Carver, C. S., & Bridges, M. W. (1994). Distinguishing optimism from neuroticism (and trait anxiety, self-mastery, and self-esteem): a reevaluation of the Life Orientation Test. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 67(6), 1063.

- [85] Scheier, M. F., Carver, C. S., & Bridges, M. W. (2001). Optimism, pessimism, and psychological well-being. *Optimism and pessimism: Implications for theory, research, and practice*, 1, 189-216.
- [86] Scheier, M. F., Weintraub, J. K., & Carver, C. S. (1986). Coping with stress: divergent strategies of optimists and pessimists. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 51(6), 1257.
- [87] Seiffge-Krenke, I. (2000). Causal links between stressful events, coping style, and adolescent symptomatology. *Journal of adolescence*, 23(6), 675-691.
- [88] Seligman, L. D., & Ollendick, T. H. (1998). Comorbidity of anxiety and depression in children and adolescents: An integrative review. *Clinical child and family psychology review*, 1(2), 125-144.
- [89] Sharifabad M. and Tonekaboni N. R., (2009). perceived self-efficacy of self-care behaviors in patients with diabetes referred to research center of Yazd Diabetes. *Birjand Uni. Med. Sci.* 4(15): 9-91.
- [90] Shen, Y. E. (2009). Relationships between self-efficacy, social support and stress coping strategies in Chinese primary and secondary school teachers. *Stress and Health*, 25(2), 129-138.
- [91] Smetana, J. G., Campione-Barr, N., & Metzger, A. (2006). Adolescent development in interpersonal and societal contexts. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 57, 255-284.
- [92] Smith, P. K., Cowie, H., Blades, M., & Alves, R. (1998). *Compreender o desenvolvimento da criança*.
- [93] Snyder, C. R. (Ed.). (2000). *Handbook of hope: Theory, measures, and applications*. Academic press.
- [94] Snyder, C. R., Hoza, B., Pelham, W. E., Rapoff, M., Ware, L., Danovsky, M., ... & Stahl, K. J. (1997). The development and validation of the Children's Hope Scale. *Journal of pediatric psychology*, 22(3), 399-421.
- [95] Snyder, C. R., Rand, K. L., & Sigmon, D. R. (2002). Hope theory. *Handbook of positive psychology*, 257-276.
- [96] Souto, C., Rodríguez, A., Parajes, S., & Martínez-Pacheco, R. (2005). A comparative study of the utility of two superdisintegrants in microcrystalline cellulose pellets prepared by extrusion-spheronization. *European journal of pharmaceutics and biopharmaceutics*, 61(1), 94-99.

- [97] Steinberg, L. (2001). We know some things: Parent–adolescent relationships in retrospect and prospect. *Journal of research on adolescence*, 11(1), 1-19.
- [98] Steinberg, L., & Morris, A. S. (2001). Adolescent development. *Annual review of psychology*, 52(1), 83-110.
- [99] Strutton, D., & Lumpkin, J. R. (1993). The relationship between optimism and coping styles of salespeople. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 13(2), 71-82.
- [100] Strutton, D., & Lumpkin, J. R. (1993). The relationship between optimism and coping styles of salespeople. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 13(2), 71-82.
- [101] Svenkerud, N. (2008). Do Self-Esteem and Parental Authority Influence Self-Reported Aggressive Behaviors?. *McNair Scholars Research Journal*, 4(1), 10.
- [102] Tam, C. L., Chong, A., Kadirvelu, A., & Khoo, Y. T. (2013). Parenting styles and self-efficacy of adolescents: Malaysian scenario. *Global Journal of Human-Social Science Research*, 12(14-A).
- [103] Terry, D. J. (2004). Investigating the relationship between parenting styles and delinquent behavior. *McNair Scholars Journal*, 8(1), 11.
- [104] Vander Bijl JJ, Shortridge-Baggett LM.(2000) The theory and measurement of the self-efficacy construct. In: Lentz EA, Shortridge-Baggett LM. *Self Efficacy in Nursing: Research and Measurement Perspectives*. New York: Springer; p. 9–28.
- [105] Werner, E. E. (2000). Protective factors and individual resilience. *Handbook of early childhood intervention*, 2, 115-132.
- [106] Widyalankara, R. C. (2015). The Lumber Room: Ideal artifact for prose analysis+ an epistle on child rearing. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, 5(9).
- [107] Yousefi, Z., Abedi, M., Baghban, I., Eatemadi, O., & Abedi, A. (2011). Personal and situational variables, and career concerns: Predicting career adaptability in young adults. *The Spanish journal of psychology*, 14(1), 263.