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ABSTRACT

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1. Introduction

...

... (... , 2007).

... (... , 1998; ... , 1998; & ... , 2004).

... (... , 2007),

appraisals (... , 1968).

... (... & ... , 2002).

... (... , 2005)

... (... , 2008); & ... (... , 2008).

1.2. Risky driving: perception and attitude

... (... , 2001)

... (... , 2004).

... (... , 2009; ... & ... , 2007; ... & ... , 2000; ... & ... , 2012).

... (... , 1996).

... (... & ... , 1993).

... (... & ... , 2009).

... (... , 1991).

... (... , 2004; ... & ... , 2003; ... & ... , 1997; ... & ... , 2004).

1.3. Emotion and risky driving: through perception and attitude

... (... , 2003).

... (...) (... , 1995).

... (...) (... , 1983).

... (... , 2008).

... (... , 2007).

(2005) (2007). (2006). (2004). (2003). 1. (1) (2).

1.4. Current study

(2005) 1.

2. Study 1

(& , 1987; & , 2003).

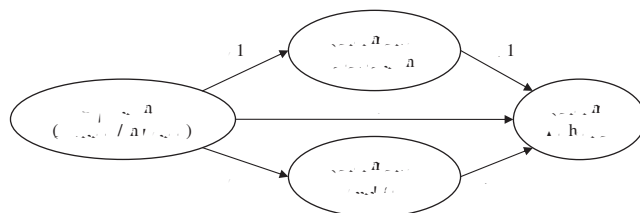


Fig. 1. Attitudes toward driving.

2.1. Method

2.1.1. Participants

218 participants were recruited from a university in China. The sample was divided into two groups: 104 (47.7%) in the experimental group and 114 (52.3%) in the control group. The mean age was 20.4 (SD = 1.73) years, with a range from 17 to 26 years. The majority of participants were male, 193 (88.5%), and 25 (11.5%) were female. The majority of participants were from the city, 193 (88.5%), and 25 (11.5%) were from the countryside. The majority of participants were from the city, 193 (88.5%), and 25 (11.5%) were from the countryside. The majority of participants were from the city, 193 (88.5%), and 25 (11.5%) were from the countryside.

2.1.2. Materials of emotion induction

Six short videos were used to induce emotion. The videos were selected from a pool of 100 videos. The videos were selected from a pool of 100 videos. The videos were selected from a pool of 100 videos. The videos were selected from a pool of 100 videos. The videos were selected from a pool of 100 videos. The videos were selected from a pool of 100 videos.

2.1.3. Measures

2.1.3.1. Emotion.

The emotion was measured using the State-Trait Emotion Inventory (STEI) (1995). The STEI consists of 100 items. The STEI consists of 100 items. The STEI consists of 100 items. The STEI consists of 100 items. The STEI consists of 100 items. The STEI consists of 100 items.

2.1.3.2. Driving risk perception.

Driving risk perception was measured using the Driving Risk Perception Scale (DRPS) (2005). The DRPS consists of 10 items. The DRPS consists of 10 items. The DRPS consists of 10 items. The DRPS consists of 10 items. The DRPS consists of 10 items. The DRPS consists of 10 items. In general, the DRPS consists of 10 items. The DRPS consists of 10 items. The DRPS consists of 10 items. The DRPS consists of 10 items. The DRPS consists of 10 items. The DRPS consists of 10 items.

2.1.3.3. Driving risk attitude.

Driving risk attitude was measured using the Driving Risk Attitude Scale (DRAS) (2008)². The DRAS consists of 10 items. The DRAS consists of 10 items. The DRAS consists of 10 items. The DRAS consists of 10 items. The DRAS consists of 10 items. The DRAS consists of 10 items. The DRAS consists of 10 items. The DRAS consists of 10 items. The DRAS consists of 10 items. The DRAS consists of 10 items. The DRAS consists of 10 items.

¹ ... (2002).
² ... (2008).



Fig. 2.

2.1.3.4. Risky driving behavior.

($p < .05$).

2.1.4. Procedure

25

2.2. Result

2.2.1. Emotion induction

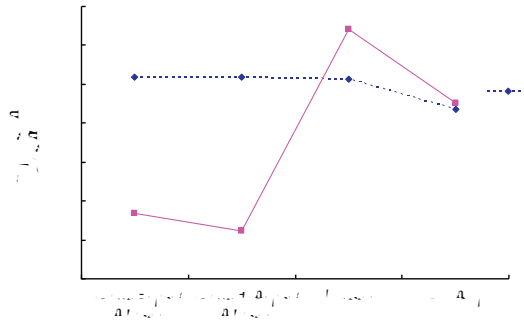
$\eta^2 = .42$, ($F(3,211) = 51.26, p < .001$,
 $(F(3,212) = 77.84, p < .001, \eta^2 = .52)$,
 $(ps < .001)$,
 $(p < .001)$,
 $(p =)$).

2.2.2. Driving risk perception

$\eta^2 = .04$, ($F(3,213) = 2.57, p = .055, \eta^2 = .04$),
 $(p < .05)$, ($p < .05$) (4),
 $(F(3,214) = 2.68, p < .05$,
 $(p < .01)$ (4).

2.2.3. Driving risk attitude and risky driving behavior

2×4
 $(F(3,207) = 2.79, p < .05, \eta^2 = .04)$.



..., $t(69) = 1.941, p = .056, \eta^2 = .05$; ..., $t(54) = 2.270, p = .027, \eta^2 = .09$ (..., 5).

..., $t(54) = 2.270, p = .027, \eta^2 = .09$ (..., 1).

2.3. Discussion

..., $t(54) = 2.270, p = .027, \eta^2 = .09$ (..., 1).

Table 1

	Model 1 (β)	Model 2 (β)
Age	-.199*	-1.720
Gender	-.105	-1.497
Education	.019	-.316
Income	.000	.288
Constant		3.482**
F	2.349	4.413**
Adjusted R ²	.027	.080

* $p < .05$.
** $p < .01$.

(Gonzalez & Vignoles, 2007; Vignoles & Gonzalez, 1987).
 ...
 ... (2007) ...
 ...
 ... (1985), ...
 ... (2012).
 ... (1946).
 ... (5.49, 2.53, $F(1,216) = 234.23, p < .001, \eta^2 = .52$).
 ... & ... (2012).
 ... (2005).
 ... & ... (2005).
 ...
 ...

3. Study 2

... 1, ...
 ... 2.

3.1. Method

3.1.1. Sample

A total of 700 drivers were surveyed, with 500 (71.4%) being male and 200 (28.6%) being female. The average age was 37.86 years (SD = 9.85), ranging from 20 to 73 years. The majority of participants were from the United States (81.4%), followed by Canada (12.2%), and other countries (6.4%).

3.1.2. Measures

3.1.2.1. Mood.

Mood was measured using the Profile of Mood States (POMS) (Snyder & Monson, 1975), which consists of 65 self-report items. The POMS is a circumplex scale with eight dimensions: Tension-anxiety, Irritability-hostility, Boredom-fatigue, Depression-dejection, Anger-irritation, Confusion-bewilderment, Shyness-isolation, and Energy-vitality. In this study, the Cronbach's alpha for the POMS was .94, .86, .82, and .81 for the four subsamples, respectively. The mean score was 51.76 (SD = 10.10).

3.1.2.2. Driving risk perception and driving risk attitude.

3.1.2.3. Driving behavior.

Driving behavior was measured using the Driving Behavior Questionnaire (DBQ) (Strayer & Drews, 1990), which consists of 21 self-report items. The DBQ is a circumplex scale with two dimensions: aggressive driving and rule-breaking driving. In this study, the Cronbach's alpha for the DBQ was .92, .86, .82, and .81 for the four subsamples, respectively. The mean score was 21.10 (SD = 4.10).

3.1.3. Procedure

3.2. Result and discussion

The results of the study are presented in Table 2. The first column shows the mean scores and standard deviations for each measure. The second column shows the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each measure. The third column shows the correlations between the measures. The fourth column shows the results of the regression analysis. The fifth column shows the results of the mediation analysis. The sixth column shows the results of the moderation analysis. The seventh column shows the results of the interaction analysis. The eighth column shows the results of the moderation analysis. The ninth column shows the results of the interaction analysis. The tenth column shows the results of the moderation analysis.

Table 2

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
1. POMS	0	1							
2. DBQ	0	1	(.94)						
3. Risk perception	0	1	-.79**	(.86)					
4. Risk attitude	0	1	-.30**	-.08	(.82)				
5. Driving behavior	4.38	2.43	.05	.13**	.06	(.81)			
6. Mood	1.58	1.88	.25**	.20**	-.08	.30**	(.84)		
7. Age	3.93	3.62	.11*	.14**	.10	.21**	.28**	(.93)	
8. Gender	2.38	.66	.27**	.23**	-.06	-.04	.15**	-.02	(.84)
9. Education	1.91	.74	.58**	.53**	-.10*	.04	.28**	.12**	.38**
10. Income									(.94)

* p < .05.
** p < .01.

Table 3

	Model 1 (β)	Model 2 (β)
Control variables	-.063	.000
Age	.020	-.005
Gender	-.111*	-.059
Education	.164**	.118**
Income		.448**
Health		.163*
Marital status		.015
F	6.230**	68.877**
Adjusted R ²	.050	.374

* $p < .05$.
 ** $p < .01$.

Table 4

	Model 1 (β)	Model 2 (β)
Control variables	-.059	-.033
Age	.100	.090
Gender	.028	.051
Education	.127*	.110*
Income		.218*
Health		.037
Marital status		.001
F	2.135	8.355**
Adjusted R ²	.011	.064

* $p < .05$.
 ** $p < .01$.

Table 5

Model	Adjusted R ²
Model 1	.059
Model 2	
Model 3	
Model 4	
Model 5	
Model 6	
Model 7	
Model 8	
Model 9	
Model 10	
Model 11	
Model 12	
Model 13	
Model 14	
Model 15	
Model 16	
Model 17	
Model 18	
Model 19	
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Model 84	
Model 85	
Model 86	
Model 87	
Model 88	
Model 89	
Model 90	
Model 91	
Model 92	
Model 93	
Model 94	
Model 95	
Model 96	
Model 97	
Model 98	
Model 99	
Model 100	

4. General discussion

The present study examined the relationship between perceived stress and health-related quality of life (HRQL) in a sample of young adults. The findings suggest that perceived stress is a significant predictor of HRQL, and that this relationship is mediated by mental health symptoms. Specifically, higher levels of perceived stress were associated with lower scores on the SF-36v2 subscales of physical functioning, role limitations due to physical problems, bodily pain, general health perceptions, vitality, and mental health. These findings are consistent with previous research showing that stress is a major contributor to poor mental health and, in turn, poor physical health (e.g., Cohen & Wills, 1985; Cohen & Selye, 1957). The present study also found that the relationship between perceived stress and HRQL was mediated by mental health symptoms, such as anxiety and depression. This suggests that the impact of stress on HRQL is largely due to its effects on mental health. These findings have important implications for the development of interventions aimed at reducing stress and improving HRQL in young adults. For example, stress management programs that focus on reducing mental health symptoms may be particularly effective in improving HRQL. Additionally, the present study highlights the need for further research on the mechanisms underlying the relationship between stress and HRQL, as well as the development of targeted interventions to address these mechanisms.

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