CHAPTER -2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
CHAPTER II

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This chapter will review the literature on SWB, including happiness, life satisfaction and positive affect. It is reviewed in three major areas: causal factors/determiners. In terms of causal influences or determiners, research findings on the demographic correlates of SWB are evaluated. Moreover the findings on the determiners such as culture, health, social contact, activity, age, gender, temperament & personality are included.

Since the 1960s a comprehensive research on SWB has begun. About 3000 papers till now have been published on SWB and numbers of publication is been increasing exponentially (Veenhoven, in press). In 1973 psychological abstracts international began listing happiness as an index term and in 1974 the Journal Social Indicators Research was founded, with a large number of articles devoted to SWB. The concept of SWB has intensively attracted a large number of investigators who have revealed role of different factor that has contributed to development of SWB.

Historical and Theoretical Context of Research on Subjective Well-being

There are many questions in any individual’s mind like, what makes up a life happy? What makes an individual happy? How we can be an individual self satisfied? What are the determinants of individual’s well-being? To evaluate such questions many attempts have been made in the field of positive psychology. Thus researchers defined "Well-being as a comparative state of well-being with others, where human needs are met, where one can act meaningfully to pursue one's goals, and where one enjoys a satisfactory quality of life. It is an intangible concept of several human dimensions. There are many studies of well-being that have been accumulated over the years and still new questions and interests are budding. With the help of investigation well-being can be defined as an expression of life satisfaction, which influences the quality of society, nation and its citizens too. Research on SWB in the past has resulted in mixed conclusions on what individuals report as determinants to their life satisfaction. Therefore, a major effort by Kozma, Stones, & McNeil, (1991) created a theoretical model to explain the different predictors used to determine SWB. The bottom-up approach used by the Kozma model “assumed that, the only way to bring a change in well-being is to modify predictor characteristics of SWB” (Kozma, Stones, & McNeil 1991). In the model predictor variables were grouped into six categories: subjective satisfactions, demographic characteristics, social and physical activity, stressful life events, environmental factors, and personality factors.
Recent studies of several organizations all over the world investigated the relation between well-being and progress of societies, focusing on sustainability, quality of life etc. These studies have been done at the sub-national, national and international level, involving the public and private sectors, civil society, academia and media, in both developed and developing countries. With vast research and gathered literature, different school of psychology proposed a definition—“Well-being is most usefully thought of as the dynamic process that gives people a sense of how their lives are going through the interaction between their circumstances, activities and psychological resources or ‘mental capital’”. Researchers discovered early on many economic and social determinants of person’s “objective” and “subjective” life circumstances (for example age, occupation, income, etc) and found them as weakly related to people’s own judgement of their well-being.

**Objective and Subjective Indicators of SWB**

Objective and Subjective well-being represent distinct philosophies of well-being and utilize distinct measures. However, the line between the two is not as clear as it was originally envisaged. Although “objective” indicators are somewhat better predictors of satisfaction, result differently with different aspects (Blishen & Atkinson, 1980). While the Subjective level is the degree to which the various affects a person experiences are pleasant; in other words: how well an individual usually feels. Contentment is the degree to which an individual perceives his aspirations to have been met. In other words: to what extent one perceives oneself to have got what one wants in life (Veenhoven, 1984). This paves a way about subjective well-being how one perceives his/her life. Many researchers worked in investigating the process of self perception of an individual about one’s own life to know the state of well-being. A study based on how frequent American students go for date and how much it is relevant to general happiness for that population (Emmons and Diener, 1985). In the process of investigation, the dating question was asked either before or after the general happiness question and assumed that the correlation between the two measures would be increased if the specific question was asked first. Empirically, this was the case. When the general happiness question was asked prior to the dating frequency question, both measures correlated $r = -.12$; a correlation that is not significantly different from zero. Asking the general happiness question after the dating frequency question, however, increased the correlation to $r = .66, p < .001$ ($z = 5.04, p < .001$ for the difference in the correlations obtained under both conditions). Different conclusions were drawn about the impact of dating frequency on happiness with one’s life, depending on the order in which the two questions which were asked. (Schwarz & Strack, 1999, Emmons & Diener, 1985).
Since the life never represents, present, past or future solely, individual take their life collectively or evaluate according to their life satisfaction. Although Individuals exist in the present, but they are aware of their past and they take into account their future. Thus an Individual’s life course could be experienced as stable, going up, going down or fluctuating. It has been shown for a long time that Americans on average view their life as going up (Watts & Free, 1974). In a research it was studied that the level of overall life satisfaction did not actually decline during the phase of societal problems in an individual’s life phase; but a pessimistic attitude in the area of subjective well-being becomes more prevalent. The phase of societal problem was studied between the years of 1980-1984. It was found that an increase in social problems does not immediately change the general wellbeing of the population, but there is a more direct reaction in regard to future expectations. It was also studied that the future expectations of life satisfaction were more sensible indicator of societal problems than life satisfaction itself. (Watts & Free, 1974).

Subjective (perceptual) side of well-being thus reflects the evaluation of life as one perceives subjectively. Objective side of well-being reveals the external criteria’s effecting well-being in contrast to subjective. In this vein of study, Lu and Gilmour (2004) studied a sample of some students of a university to investigate the perception of youth for happiness. The students were asked to write an essay under a title “what is happiness?” The responses were collected under four titles mentioned here : a) Happiness is a mental state. Only when the spirit is rich, the mind is peaceful and steady, is happiness possible . b) For oneself , happiness can be defined in four aspects: i) Free of physical sufferings, illnesses or disabilities; ii) Being socially acceptable, getting along well with other people, being respected and cared for, not being isolated; iii) Free of worries and hardships, being able to live a carefree and joyful life; and iv) Possessing a healthy, normal mind, being accepted by the society. c) Happiness is absolutely great and one of the most important states of being a person or living thing could ever pursue. The pursuit of happiness is one of my supreme goals in life. d) Happiness is doing and being what one wants to be without being held back by the restrictions of society. Happiness is a reward for all the hard work you employ.

Similar patterns of such researches defined Happiness as the experience of more frequent positive affective states than negative ones (Bradburn, 1969), as well as by the perception that one is progressing toward important life goals (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). Judgments of happiness involve global affective self-appraisals and affect ratings, which are inherently subjective (Myers & Diener, 1995). Chronic or long-term happiness is the relatively stable level of positive well-being one experiences over a specific time period, such as 3 or 6 months (Lyubomirsky, 2001; Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999). Research investigating the sources of happiness has focused on determining the strongest
predictors of happiness and life satisfaction. Three general categories of happiness or general well-being predictors have been identified: (1) life circumstances and demographics, (2) traits and dispositions, and (3) intentional behaviors (Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, & Schkade, 2005).

Thus the concept of SWB has intensively attracted a large number of investigators who have revealed role of different factors that have contributed in determining the development of SWB, as following:

**Demographic Correlates of Subjective Well-Being**

**Age and Subjective Well-Being**

Subjective well-being varies from person to person. As it has been defined that SWB is a measure of how good an individual feels about his/her life at a moment. Bradburn and Caplovitz, (1965) found that people were less happy than their younger counterparts, probably true for most people. They also found that Income as well as age influence individuals' perceptions of happiness. In the study it was found that younger persons reported lower levels of unhappiness in contrast to the individuals over the age of forty, which might be due to the futuristic factor that younger individuals look toward the future for the chance to increase their earning power. While Mroczek and Kolarz (1998) demonstrated that there were higher levels of positive affect in old age. They also found that older adults experienced lower levels of negative affect in comparison to young adults. Specifically, because many individuals who were living longer lives and were becoming increasingly aware of their well-being, age became a major contributor to the level of SWB. They also suggested that, despite of increase in chronic illnesses, decline in health, loss of spouses and social-support, older persons do not report being unhappier than their younger peers (Mroczek & Kolarz, 1998). Isaacowitz and Smith, (1999) extended the research of Mroczek and Kolarz (1998) into old age, this research concluded that the lower levels of positive and negative affect among the "oldest-old" age group (participants aged 70-100 years old However, Isaacowitz and Smith (1999) posited that lower levels of negative affect do not equate to increased SWB. Aging does not necessarily involve a decline in SWB. Okun, Haring, and Witter (1983) found a small positive relation between age and SWB. An international survey, explained that older people exhibited equivalent, or even higher, life satisfaction than younger people, whereas affective SWB showed a stability of negative affect along with a decline of positive affect in progressive age cohorts (Diener & Suh, 1997). In U.S. studies, negative affect has been shown to remain stable or decrease with increasing age, whereas positive affect remains stable or even increases (Carstensen, Pasupathi, Mayr, & Nesserodeae, 2000; Charles, Reynolds, & Gatz, 2001; Mroczek & Kolarz, 1998). The data suggest that aging does not necessarily involve a decline in SWB (Kunzmann, Little, & Smith, 2000; Shmotkin, 1990). Common people would
expect SWB to decline in old age because this life period involves irrevocable losses (Schulz, 1985). Researchers were thus prompted to explain the “paradox of wellbeing” (Mroczek, 2001) in old age. Heidrich and Ryff (1996) reviewed mechanisms of maintaining well-being in the face of aging-related stress, for example using downward social comparisons, reducing self-discrepancies, and increasing social integration. It was expected that higher levels of SWB could be found in older people up to a specific age. Different factors (Health related problems at advanced old age) might contribute to accelerate negative affect and/or a lack of positive affect, even such factors can trigger the acute or chronic depressive disorders.

Different studies found the consistent levels of positive affect and life satisfaction are at least over time, not getting higher with the age. In the oldest-old age group, there seems to be resurgence in emotional responses of negative affect. Overall, it was expected to find an increase in Subjective Well Being into older age up until advanced old age (Isaacowitz & Smith, 1999). However the study by Ehrlich and Isaacowitz (2002) was not able to show any significant difference in life satisfaction between age groups. Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, (1999), also claimed that life satisfaction was at least the same, or higher in old age. He further added that, life satisfaction seems to stay the same, if not increase with age. Such finding countered earlier conventional thinking that older people were less satisfied because they were unhappy with their unfulfilled lives as they reached the uselessness of old age. The increase in life satisfaction with age may be attributed to a trend in greater involvement in satisfying areas of life among older people. According to Carstensen’s (1995) socio emotional selectivity theory postulates that older people sustain high SWB by improving their emotional regulation, largely through selectively engaging in close relationships. Larson (1978) in his thirty years of research among older Americans on life satisfaction, morale, and related constructs has yielded a consistent body of findings. It was found that age, sex, race, and employment do not show any consistent and independent relation to well-being of the individuals. Researchers postulated that traits “reach mature form in adulthood; thereafter they are stable” (McCrae & Costa, 1996, Roberts & Gatz, 2001) added that new, cross-cultural evidence suggested “that cross-sectional decreases in N[neuroticism], E[extraversion], and O[openness] and increases in A[agreeableness] and C[conscientiousness] continue at a very modest pace throughout adulthood” (McCrae & Costa, 1999). Researchers views on personality trait development are based on cross-sectional and longitudinal studies as well as on reading of the broader literature, but to a considerable extent, have reached the same conclusions as Roberts and Gatz, (2006): (a) Neuroticism (the inverse of Emotional Stability) and Extraversion decline, whereas Agreeableness and Conscientiousness increase with age; (b) Openness first increases and then decreases; (c) changes are more pronounced in early adulthood than either before or after; and (d) similar developmental patterns are found for men and women.
(McCrae & Costa, 2003). Keeping the scale of the graphs in mind, one have to judge whether the changes in Roberts, Walton, & Viechtbauer, (2006) results which show traits as “very modest” after age 30, or indeed whether one could fairly describe trait levels as generally “stable” after the age of 30.

**Sex and Subjective Well-Being**

Empirical data show a consistent disadvantage of females in respect of negative affect and subjective health: females have higher rates of negative affect and depression and poorer subjective health than males (Nydegger, 2004; Russo & Green, 1993). Shmotkin (1990) also found lower life satisfaction and positive affect for females. Trzcinski and Holst, (2010) indicated that a clear hierarchy exists for men in terms of how status within the labour market was associated with subjective life satisfaction. The unemployed men were the least satisfied, than the men who were not in the labour market, however the men in leadership positions reported the highest level of subjective life satisfaction. While for the women, no statistically significant differences were observed, especially among women in high-level managerial positions, women who worked in non-high-level positions, and women who specialized in household production, with no market work. Only women who were unemployed reported lower levels of life satisfaction, compared with women in other labour-market statuses. The results lend evidence to the contention that men can “have it all”, but women still have to choose between career and family in Germany (Trzcinski & Holst, 2010). There are two important perspectives for explaining relation of Sex with SWB; Firstly, Lippa (2005) stated gender differences in SWB could be explained by the universal sex differences. Female’s greater vulnerability to depression and anxiety was related to hormonal level estrogen and progesterone production (in puberty, menstrual cycle, or post-partum period). Although such biological explanations for lower SWB for females are not supported empirically (Nolen-Hoeksema & Rusting 1999; Nydegger, 2004), still we cannot deny its influence. Secondly, factors related to gender differences in SWB may be due to different living conditions of females and males. In many societies the average living situation of females is indeed disadvantaged as compared to that of males (Ruso & Green, 1993).

Some predictors have been found to be bivariately associated with life satisfaction, but their effects often disappear in multivariate models that include other variables (the effects of age and gender on life satisfaction disappear when marital status is controlled for) (Gray, Venti, & Hayslip, 1992). Findings of various multivariate analyses have confirmed that gender, age, marital status, income and education, various health indicators are consistent for life satisfaction (Dennerstein, Smith, & Morse, 1994; Marks, 1996; Marks & Lambert, 1998; Chou & Chi, 1999; Thiele, 2002; Avis, Assmann, Kravitz, Ganz, & Ory, 2004).
Sahoo and Mohapatra (2009) found in their study, valuable information on comparative value of gender with SWB. No difference has been found between male and females in regard Women have been found to be as happy as men are. The findings of this study reveal a gender pattern for subjective well-being. Men were likely to enjoy a significantly higher level of life satisfaction compared to women, consistent with results from other studies (Kehn 1995, Fuller, Edwards, Vorakiphokatorn, & Sermsri, 2004).

Gender differences are generally found in measures of subjective well-being (Nolen-Hoeksema & Rusting, 1998):

i) Negative moods and Related Behaviours Regarding Gender differences:

Negative moods and related behaviors can be categorized: Internalizing Problems and Externalizing Problems:

Internalizing Problems and Moods—> “Internalizing Problems” can be termed as psychopathologies, which include depression, and anxiety disorders. Whereas, “Internalizing Mood”, include sadness, fear or nervousness, and shame or guilt.

Gender differences in depression and anxiety appears in early adolescence and continues into adulthood (Angold & Worthman, 1993; Nolen-Hoeksema & Grgus, 1994).

Females have a higher prevalence of depression and anxiety disorder in comparison to males. These differences can be seen in different racial and ethnic groups (Nolen-Hoeksema & Rusting, 1999). However, Egeland and his colleagues found no gender differences in the prevalence of depression (Egeland & Hostetter, 1983).


Externalizing Disorders, Moods and Behaviors:

The gender differences tend to emerge very early in life, greater tendencies toward aggressive behaviour in males than in females were found even in preschoolers (Loeber, 1990). Males and females may feel angry equally often but
in response to different eliciting circumstances (Nolen-Hoeksema & Rusting, 1999).

The available literature on gender differences in externally focused moods and behaviors reveal an inconsistent pattern of results and studies do not find significant gender differences in anger experience and expression, due to its dependency on contextual factors and eliciting circumstances.

ii) Positive moods and Related Behaviours Regarding Gender differences:

There is a larger literature on gender differences in experience and expression of every day positive moods. A number of studies found females experience greater happiness and more positive emotions in comparison to males (Cameron, 1975; Diener, Sandvik, & Larsen, 1985; Fujita, Diener, Sandvik, 1991; Grossman & Wood, 1993; Wood, Rhodes, & Whelan, 1989). In contrary some other studies, reported either no gender difference or a greater SWB for male and females was found (Diener, 1984; Gurin, Verhoff, & Feld, 1960; Larson, 1978).

iii) Marriage Regarding Gender differences:

Marriage was found to be associated with increase well-being for both genders but the intensity of relationship was stronger for females than for males (Nolen-Hoeksema & Rusting, 1999). Females report positive emotions (includes love, happiness and joy) more than the males (Allen & Haccoun, 1976; Balswick and Avertt, 1977; Dossier, Boswick, & Halverson, 1983; Grossman & Wood, 1993).

iv) Biological Explanation Regarding Gender differences:

There is little evidence (till to date), that the gender differences in depression, anxiety, or aggressive behaviour are linked to hormonal difference or are genetically caused. Some studies to explain that males have greater genetic vulnerability to alcoholism than females, particularly early onset alcoholism (Nolen-Hoeksema & Rusting, 1999).

v) Personality Explanation Regarding Gender differences:

Gender differences on the basis of personality can be explained on the basis on the variety of traits, behavioural styles, cognitive styles and coping styles. These styles influence males and females in experiencing and expressing their moods and behaviour differently. Since SWB can be defined on affective and cognitive styles, different related dimensions in this context are Affect Intensity, Type A Personality, Investment In Relationship, Attributional Styles, Coping Styles. It can be summarized, although some evidences are found for gender
differences in affect intensity and Type A behaviour patterns. The evidence that female’s have high intensity in investment in relationships, shows greater internalizing problems while bonding; a link between greater dispositional empathy and internalizing problems in females is greater. Even little evidence is found for gender differences regarding Attributional Styles in mood and behaviour. Finally coping styles may account for gender differences in both internalizing and externalizing problems.

Culture and the socialization process, leads to the formation of roles of females and males in our society. Both the sexes are socialized towards values of the individualistic, instrumental, rational, achievement-oriented style. Females are socialized towards an expressive, emotional, interpersonal, dependent style. In accordance with these sex characteristics, males seek to achieve their major life satisfaction, identity, and self-worth within the occupational sphere. Females seek to achieve their major well-being and identity within the family sphere in their roles as wife and mother. Markides and Lee (1990) observed no link between gender and change in life satisfaction level. Findings by Saban, Aprn, & Smith, (2011) indicated that sex did not significantly influence perceived satisfaction with life or motor function even 1 year after severe Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI). Although females had significantly better cognitive outcomes compared to males.

Most of the studies found little difference between SWB and Sexes (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976; Gurin, Verhoff, & Feld, 1960; Olsen, 1980; Palmore & Kivett, 1977; Sauer, 1977; Toseland & Rasch, 1979-1980). The difference between the sexes in regard to SWB is never great (E. Diener, p28). Joshi (2010) found in her investigation that there was no significant gender difference occurs in the level of subjective well-being of the male and female IT employees and their results can be compared regarding male and female employees’ perception about their well-being was also found to be similar. The study revealed that gender is not a determinant of subjective well-being, and both males and females perceive subjective well-being or evaluate their lives in a similar way. Diener (1984) gave similar findings from review of 13 studies that compared the level of subjective well-being among males and females and found that there was no difference in reported mean levels of subjective well-being.

**Education and Subjective Well-Being:** Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965) found that individuals who earned more money reported being happier, however having more money were not always found to be related with education. However Kozma, Stones, and McNeil, (1991) however, suggested “it is not education itself that is important to an elderly person’s well-being but the lifestyle that such education can provide (for example better housing, higher income, etc.).” Finally it was concluded that education may be a better predictor of life satisfaction among
males (Kozma Stones, & McNeil, 1991). Education and urbanization are the predictive factors of Subjective well-being, moreover it was also found consistent for subjective well-being for people in their midlife. “Education, urbanization and income are among the factors that have frequently been linked to life satisfaction” (Lohr, Essex, & Klein, 1988, Ossberg, McGinnis, Dejong, & Steward, 1987, Chou & Chi, 1999). In many surveys the correlational value .10 was found between Educational level (number of years of education received, level of education like high school, college, type of education, etc) and SWB (Cantril, 1965). Different results were obtained from different countries. Campbell (1981), found the weakest effect of education in United States and with the time it became weaker. The effects of education on SWB were also found weaker in Japan, Singapore, and in most of the European countries. Similarly, in Mexico, Yugoslavia, Austria, South Korea, the Philippines, and Nigeria, the effect of education on SWB was found more comparatively (Veenhoven, 1994). However, Argyle (1999), suggested that key variable is national wealth - education has more effect on SWB in poorer countries and education was found closely linked to income and also with the occupational status of the individual; indeed, it could be a cause of both the factors. However, Witter Okun, Stock, and Harring, (1984) found in a Meta analysis that education contributed to Subjective well-being primarily by affecting occupation, but not the income, and that it had a rather small effect other than this. Argyle (1999), also investigated that education may affect positively by raising aspirations, thus increases the goal-achievement gap. In another study, Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) found a correlation between intelligence and SWB of 0.13, with other resources held constant. This small correlation may be, probably due to intelligence, like education raises aspirations.

Environmental determinants of Subjective well-being

Although circumstantial factors (income, place of residence, employment, injury, divorce, death, accidents etc.) affect temporary mood, their effects tend to evaporate over time and thus it seems not to have a substantial effect on SWB (Brickman, Coates, & Janoff-Bulman, 1978; Suh, Diener, & Fujita, 1996). Similarly, demographic variables (age, gender, and ethnicity) were found as weak predictors of SWB and account for a surprisingly small portion of SWB variance in most populations (Diener & Lucas, 1999). Indeed, the meager predictive power of life circumstances and demographic variables has led at least one researcher to conclude that these factors play a “negligible role” in understanding happiness (Kammann, 1983). The literature related the outcomes of SWB—the benefits and costs of the experience of feeling good about one’s own life. Life conditions, as reflected by socio demographic characteristics (age, sex, race, marital status, education, and income), have been found to be weakly correlated with SWB (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998). Both positive and negative life events have been found
to have only a short-lived impact on SWB, not more than several months (Suh, Diener, & Fujita, 1996). In a landmark study, Brickman, Coates, and Janoff-Bulman (1978) reported that in about a year’s time, people who had won the lottery were not happy in comparison to those who didn’t won lottery, similarly people who had were paralyzed due to an accident were not as unhappy as might have been expected. Various other findings show that personal disasters and major disabilities usually do not lower SWB unless the trauma happened recently (Diener, E. & Diener, C., 1996; Matlin & Stang, 1978). The investigation shows that the significant life events affect SWB only for a limited period contradicts the past beliefs. A key psychoanalytic principle depicts the long-term role of events occurring early in life. The long-term effects of childhood and adult adversity can be investigated or studied on later distress in certain life situations of any individual (Kessler, 1997; Turner & Lloyd, 1995; Wheaton, Roszell, & Hall, 1997) as well as SWB (Royse, Rompf, & Dhooper, 1993; Stallings, Dunham, Gatz, Baker, & Bengtson, 1997). Lyubomirsky, King, and Diener, (2001) reviewed evidence showing that happiness and high chronic levels of positive affect have benefits in terms of marital quality, income, creativity, sociability, and productivity. However, little is known about how either personality or culture influences these outcomes. Most of the studies have been conducted in western countries and it is still not known clearly about how temperament changes the benefits of high SWB. It is still a challenge is to disentangle predictors and consequences of SWB.

Psycho-Sociological determinants of Subjective well-being

SWB is one measure of the quality of life of an individual and of societies. Philosophers have debated the nature of the good life for millennia, and one conclusion that has emerged from this debate is that the good life is happy. It can be considered that positive SWB is necessary for the good life and good society, but not sufficient for it. An individual or any society that has high SWB, might still be missing any important factor such as fairness, which might be essential for high quality of life. Studies investigating the role of social relationships in SWB have not reached to any unequivocal conclusion, although some studies have emphasized the higher degree of SWB is influenced by social relationship. Lansford, Sherman, and Antonucci, (2000) found that frequency of participating in social activities is associated with greater well-being, better functioning and lower mortality in the elderly. Diener and Suh (1998), researched the philosophical notion of utility and suggested that “SWB is one of three major ways to assess the quality of life of societies, along with economic and social indicators. How people feel and think about their own lives is essential to understand well-being in any society that grants importance not just to the opinions of experts or leaders, but to
all people in the society”. It seems that the area of SWB is of fundamental importance to the behavioural sciences.

Several different streams of research come in light in the history of the field of SWB. A major influential role in this field played by sociologists and quality of life researchers, they studied to determine how sociological and demographic factors such as income, marriage etc influence SWB (Bradburn 1969, Andrews & Witheay 1976, Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976). Social psychologists have worked and found that there is an intense and important relationship between satisfaction in social relationship and social support with an individual’s health and happiness (Ryff & Singer, 2000; Taylor, Repetti & Seeman, 1997; Uchino, Cacioppo, & Kiecolt- Glaser, 1996). Happy marriage, good/close friends reflects satisfied relationships which make a firm ground for a satisfactory life of any person. From the Minnesota twin study it was found that how environmental and social conditions effect the SWB of an individual. The researchers found that early family environment (twins who grew up in the same home) had an influence on levels of positive affect that the twins experienced as adults. In other words, something about the effect of family/home environment in childhood predisposed individuals to later feeling more or less positive emotions such as joy or happiness. Such investigations reflect that the social conditions influence SWB.

Self-efficacy, optimism and social support have been consistently related to health and functioning. In 2005, Karademas in a study tested: self-efficacy, as a representation of a capable-self, and perceived social-support, as a representation of a helpful-world, optimism as an outcome expectation. Optimism in turn predicted satisfaction with life and depressive symptoms both. Satisfaction with life and depressive symptomatology both served as indicators of well-being. Two hundred and one (201) individuals participated in his study (average age 41.57 years). According to this study, optimism partially mediates the relation of self-efficacy and social support to well-being. Whereas, optimism was predicted by daily emotional support and self-efficacy.

Human beings live in the era of social-expectancy Scheier and Carver (1985) described optimism as a generalized tendency to expect positive outcomes even in the condition of obstacles or situational problem. There is expectation all around us. Expectations play a very important role in shaping behaviour, goals and general human functioning (Bandura, 1986). There are two basic types of expectations: the first type, “self-efficacy expectations”, refers to the personal abilities for achieving a desired outcome, while the other, “outcome expectations”, refers to the possibility of finally achieving a desired outcome. According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy expectations can be defined as judgments about how well a person can act in a specific way in order to meet a goal or cope effectively with stressful situations. Paulhus, (1986) defined, “Self deception is kind of tool for adjustment which reduces anxiety in turn” and Erez, Johnson, and Judge,
found it as supporter for well-being 1995). A social context also provides self-deception with self-enhancement effects beyond its defensive function (Paulhus & Reid, 1991). Many researchers studied to examine the ways that expectations interact with perceived social support in shaping individual’s well-being, as well as the possible role of optimism as a mediator in the relationship of self-efficacy and social support to well-being. Other role in perceptual sequence was named as Self-deception. This functional role can be defined as a desired effect of maintaining a positive self-perception while ignoring self-threatening information. Self-presentation is a conscious process, while self-deception is unconscious and generates favorably biased but honestly held self-descriptions.

**Social support and emotional intelligence as predictors of subjective well-being**

In 2008 Gallagher and Vella-Broderick investigated and found the predictive value of social support (SS) and emotional intelligence (EI), and their interaction effects, on subjective well-being (SWB) beyond variance already explained by personality and socio demographic variables. Finally it was concluded that social support (SS) may not always be important for SWB. With the detailed discussion the relationship between SS, EI and SWB was finally considered as more complex in relation with the previous suggested literature.

**Subjective well-being, Personality traits and Emotional Intelligence**

Recently, it has been found that four personality traits emotional stability, extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness, of the Big Five factors, were positively correlated with both well-being and trait emotional intelligence. Further the results revealed 18% of unique variance in well-being. Moreover, a significant amount of shared variance between happiness and the Big Five was explained by trait emotional intelligence, which partly mediated the paths from emotional stability and conscientiousness to happiness and fully mediated the link between agreeableness and happiness (Chamorro-Premuzic, Bennett, & Furnham, 2007).

Emotional Intelligence (EI) has been found to be associated with a specific range of personality traits which might be considered to be related with quality of life. The associations which have been found were theoretically reasonable, links of interpersonal aspects and EI, expected to be associated with better quality of social interactions, or to intrapersonal aspects such as mood regulation. Which were further found to had a positive associations with life satisfaction and social network size and quality, and negative associations with loneliness (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Bajgar, 2001; Dawda & Hart, 2000; Palmer, Donaldson, & Stough, 2002; Saklofske, Austin, & Minski, 2003; Schutte et al., 1998). (Dawda & Hart, 2000; Parker, Taylor, & Bagby, 2001; Saklofske, Austin, & Minski, 2003; Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, & Dornheim, 1998).
Leisure and Subjective Well-Being

In the context of SWB, Leisure is considered as very important domain for different reasons. Commonly, many people find satisfaction with their leisure activities in comparison to work. Thus leisure can be a major source of pleasure and sense of achievement, although the leisure has not really attracted researchers for studies nor it is accepted as a recognized recent field of psychological research. Still some studies has been done on different types of leisure of different fields, like games, sports, musical activities, religious activities and even watching television. However, individuals with lot of spare time still fail to find satisfying type of leisure for them. Ragheb (1989) found Subjective perception of leisure appears to explain an individual’s life satisfaction or Subjective Well Being (SWB). It was also reported significant positive relationships between leisure variables (for example leisure participation, leisure motivation, leisure attitude, and leisure satisfaction) and individuals’ well-being. Stockdale (1985), also examined the linkage of the perception of leisure with life satisfaction, meaning, and the role of leisure, and its contributions to life satisfaction. Further he concluded that perception of leisure was a significant predictor of life satisfaction. Reynolds, Charles, and Gatz, (2008) in their investigation found that, “leisure can be perceived as manageable within the constraints of ill-health”. In their investigation some of the participants were familiar with craft skills and their family members were also interested in arts and crafts, and some desired a means to express grief and loss. Once established as a leisure activity, art-making increased subjective well-being mainly through providing increased satisfaction in daily life, positive self-image, hope, and contact with the outside world.

Personality and Leisure Involvement

With the findings that of leisure as a significant predictor of life satisfaction it is also found that selection of leisure is important process. How and why an individual selects a specific leisure activity is another important field for study as there is variety of possibility and availability of various leisure activities. Thus an individual’s choice determines which ones to select. The process of selection is influenced by individual personality differences, such as extraversion and neuroticism or any other trait of the personality. Unfortunately, Furnham, (2004) stated that “the literature on the relation between personality and leisure is disappointing despite both its theoretical and practical implications”.

Neighbourhood and Friends and Subjective Well-Being

Neighbourhood and friends can be accounted as social capital. The role of neighbourhood has an effect on the interpersonal relationship which has strong positive correlation with life satisfaction of an individual. Researchers through a survey on Household, Income and labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA)
explained the relationship between neighbourhood differences, individual’s behaviour and determiners of neighbourhood effects. Firstly: neighbourhood effects proved as a determiner in context to neighbourhood differences, it may be due to individuals in the same neighbourhood tends to behave similarly because they face similar environmental conditions. Secondly, it was found that neighbourhood differences may be due to behaviour of nearby residents (Shield & wooden, 2003).

According to an important research Peasgood, (2007) reported that although some variables which have strong correlation with talking to neighbours, yet no significant relationship to life satisfaction was found.

Frequency of Contact with friends and family and SWB: Socializing with family and friends tends to be fairly unambiguously positively associated with SWB (Diener & Seligman, 2002; Dockery, 2004; Helliwell & Putnam, 2004; Clark & Lelkes, 2005; Li, Pickles, & Savage, 2005; Magdol, 2002; Powdthavee, 2007; Taylor, Kemeny, Reed, Bower, & Gruenewald, 2001; Wilkelmann, 2006). The quality of social networks is also found to be related to well-being in older people (Ritchey, L., Ritchey, P., & Dietz, 2001; Baker, Cahalin, Gerst, & Burr, 2005; Wiggins, Higgs, Hyde, & Blane, 2004). In analysis of elderly people in American society, it was found that the number of people who were able to provide social support (SS) were positively related with the life satisfaction, however, the amount of socializing was not found significant (Baker, Cahalin, Gerst, & Burr, 2005).

**Intimacy and Subjective Well-Being**

Intimacy or closeness is a very critical factor which may affect SWB of any subject. The level of intimacy during social activity is an important predictor of well-being for the elderly. Some of the studies reported that the quality of social activity surpasses the quantity of social activity in its effect on subjective well-being (Kozma, Stones, & McNeil 1991). While Peppers (1976) found that the quantitative increase in the social activities among retirees, predict high life satisfaction.

Social capital is accounted as bridge to happiness with mediating factors such as health, employment, and reduced crime, there may also be a direct route between social capital and individual happiness, for example, in this reference Bjornskov defined social capital as a powerful factor as it explains and reveals the reasons for well-being for a nation in comparison to other nations (Bjornskov, 2003). In this context Social capital is perceived as a form of social trust and networks, which results in lowering of crime rates, improvement in child welfare, better public health, more effective government administration, reduced political corruption and tax evasion, and finally, improved market performance, education performance etc (Helliwell & Putnam, 2004). Similarly, Woolcock (2001) also studied social capital as a link to SWB explaining that “the well connected
individuals are more likely to be housed, healthy, hired and happy.” Enduring well-being is more often represented within the psychology and economics literature as subjective well-being (SWB), which is an umbrella term for how people think and feel about their lives (Diener & Lucas, 1999). Helliwell and Putnam (2005) also explained that “social capital is strongly linked to subjective well-being through many independent channels and in several different forms.”

**Involvement in Social Activities, Frequency of contact with Friends, Family, or Others**

Steinkamp and Kelly, (1987) studied the relationship between the frequency of interaction with the members of family and friends and positive feelings among males and females in the context. Few Research in the field found that males who were in contact with friends and family displayed a higher level of positive feelings and feelings of belonging (Steinkamp & Kelly, 1987) in comparison to those who were not in contact (Bradburn & Caplovitz, 1965). Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965) also found that more the time spent in social interaction and in interaction with close friends and family members was most significantly associated with high positive feelings. In females, the frequency of contact exceeded the need of being appreciated by family and friends (Steinkamp & Kelly, 1987). Moreover, similar studies in the field suggest that activities that are physical and social in nature have the most positive effect on a person's life satisfaction (Peppers, 1976). Specifically a study, among rural Black elders, social activity was found to be critical factor that affected levels of life satisfaction (Wilson & Ford, 1993), although a racial difference was not theorized nor expected.

**Trust and Subjective Well-Being**

As a layman one can say “trust” may influence well-being of people. It is thus necessary to define trust. Helliwell and Putnam (2004) stated that trust can be defined on four different grounds, firstly generalized trust or social trust, in context to trust in strangers; secondly trust in people who are familiar to individual such as family members; thirdly trust in institutions and trustworthiness, in context to perception of self. At all the four levels, results suggests trust is beneficial for SWB. Using the World Values Survey and the European Social Survey data, (Helliwell 2003, Helliwell & Putnam, 2004) found that social trust was associated with higher life satisfaction and happiness, and a lower probability of suicide. Yip, Subramanian, Mitchell, Lee, Wang, and Kawachi, (2007) found a positive effect of trust on life satisfaction and mental health in rural China. In rural areas, average trust was found to be enhancing life satisfaction and mental health of the individuals, with high levels of trust increasing the probability of collectivistic action and occurrence of more emotional support being available was found.
In the similar vein, a study done by Tatiana (2001), on discontented people, to discover the effects of reactivity temperament and locus of control variables on Subjective well-being. Tatiana indicated that reactivity and locus of control influenced different components of SWB and that locus of control predicted SWB more consistently than reactivity. Moreover current life satisfaction of the subjects was found to be influenced by locus of control, but not reactivity and by both positive and negative affect. In the same study hope was found to be related to reactivity but not to either locus of control or affect. Similarly an investigation in Korea, by Jang, Livesley, Riemann, Vernon, Hu, and Angleitner, (2001), found that age, education, occupation, and family income had an influence on positive-thinking as well as life satisfaction in Korea. Specifically, younger respondents and persons with high incomes or higher education degrees were more likely to have higher positive scores and thus higher life satisfaction scores. A significant relation between positive thinking and life satisfaction was found after controlling for the demographic variables.

Marriage, Marital Status and Subjective Well-Being

It has been found that marriages one of the strongest correlates of happiness and well being of subjects (Glenn and Weaver 1979). People who are married or who living together are found averagely happier and with better mental and physical health in comparison to those who live alone, unmarried, widowed, divorced, or separated (Eurobarometer surveys, 1975-1979). Many other surveys also found that married are happier than the unmarried (Haring-Hidore, Stock, Okun, & Witter, 1985; Veenhoven, 1994). Satisfaction with marriage also predicts general happiness or satisfaction. With all benefits, marriage is the relationship that is great source of conflict (Argyle & Furnham, 1983). Brown and Harris (1978) found that the married couple are also in better mental health. In his investigation, in London found that women who experience stressful life events were compared with the women who had supportive partner and were depressed. Stroebe, M., and Stroebe, W. (1987) concluded the death of spouse was major source of depression in widows. It has often been assumed in stress research that being widowed is the worst thing that can happen, separation and diverse had greater effects on rates of death from heart disease, it literally produce broken heart (Lynch, 1977).

The honeymoon and empty nest periods are best; the time when children are under five and when they are adolescents are the worst for marital satisfaction (Walker, 1977).

Veenhoven (1988) suggested happy people are more fun to be with. They are more outgoing, trusting and compassionate. Unhappy people are more often socially rejected self focused, irritable and withdrawn (Gotlib & Robinson, 1982). For these reasons, positive, happy people easily form happy relationships.
Addiction and Subjective Well-Being

The term "addiction" can be defined as a process of using a substance repeatedly over a period of time, despite knowing its negative consequences to the well-being of a person. The repeated use leads to physiological and/or psychological dependence. The word addict is typically used to refer to someone who is dependent on alcohol or drugs or any kind of activity. Addiction is repetitive routine that aim to obtain chemicals. However, doctors and psychologists state that addiction does need to be limited to substances/chemicals but can also include the activities or behaviors. This kind of addiction is referred to as behavioral addiction or non-chemical addiction. The behavioural addictions include obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD), compulsive spending (including gambling), overeating (bulimia), hyper sexuality (straight or deviant), and kleptomania. Now a day’s uses of cell phones, video games, Social networking etc are also grouped in non-chemical addictive dependency. This definitely affects life of an individual negatively, just like a hurdle in experiencing the essence of life. A slope where there is no hope, no satisfaction, a retardation of well-being in one’s life.

Hull and Bond (1986) stated some types of behaviour which are desired as bad for survival—anorexia is bad for an individual and even the habit of cigarette smoking, the drug abuse is partly propelled by easier access to the countries which supply drugs. But alcohol addiction or dependency is a very meaningful indicator of unhappiness. The history of alcoholism is very depressing and sobering. In the beigning of the twentieth century, alcohol consumption declined in many countries, despite economic growth, and it stayed roughly constant in the mid of the century. Much of this drinking is unhealthy. In the US over a quarter of young white men say they have already experienced problems with alcohol. This compares with fewer than 15% of older men (over 65) who say they have ever experienced such problems. The hardest evidence however is medical – deaths from cirrhosis of the liver are up since 1950 in every country except France. Anshensel and Huba, (1983) stated although drinking is a common mood regulatory and may relieve a negative mood in the short term, its continued use leads to depression and other negative consequences in the long term. Depression not only affects ones emotions, but can also change the way an individual think, behave, and function physically. In common language depression is a condition "falling into a black hole". Depression brings a significant cost to society. In this vein, we see addiction effects economic well-being by lowering wealth and productivity, employment and working life, lowering physical well-being and also increases costs to health, social care and welfare systems and impacts not just on those who are addicts but also on their families and care givers (European commission). In India we can see effect of alcohol dependency (addiction) on well-being of individuals thus in turn lowering the social well-being of the country as
whole. In India we can see effect of alcohol dependency on SWB of individuals thus in turn affecting the social well-being and economical well-being of the country.

**Physical Attractiveness and Subjective Well-Being**

There are few studies in which the physical attractiveness (PAT) is studied as a cause of subjective well-being (SWB), findings show a direct relation between SWB and PAT. A study conducted by Campbell, Converse, and Rogers (1976) on a large, representative sample of Americans found a weak relation between SWB and PAT. Umberson and Hughes (1987) reanalyzed these data in more detail and found a stronger relation between PAT and SWB. Due to some methodological shortcomings with the study it was concluded that other factors, such as extraversion and income, could have influenced the PAT ratings. In the similar vein some more studies were conducted to determine whether physical attractiveness (PAT) is related to subjective well-being (SWB). Diener, Wolsic, and Fujita, (1995) investigated different aspects of physical appearance as enhancers like hair, clothing, and jewelry were included in the Studies. The findings revealed weak correlation between PAT and SWB, thus it was concluded that the SWB–PAT relation might be due to happier people doing more to enhance their beauty. The effect of PAT on SWB may be minimized by the fact that others agree on a target's physical attractiveness at only modest levels. It was also found that self-perceptions of PAT were correlated with one's objective PAT as well as with one's SWB. Further Agnew (1984), in his investigation found a strong affect of physical attractiveness on SWB of the subjects. He further reasoned this strong affect for young women because it produces popularity, especially with opposite sex, and also with teachers and employers. In the similar vein researchers found height, in men has stronger effect on SWB of the individuals, empirically a small correlation was found with SWB (Argyle & Lu, 1990).Further, Argyle (1994) also reasoned the stronger affect of PAT on SWB as it is a source of upward mobility.

**Religious and Spiritual Determinants of Strengths of Character and Subjective Well-Being**

Spirituality and well-being are both multifaceted concepts thus both the terms can be defined in different ways; it also depends on the views of author and researchers (Benson, Roehlkepartain & Rude, 2003; Lippman 2007). The combination of the two concepts, spirituality and well-being can be presented as spiritual wellbeing (SpWB), was first described as ‘the affirmation of life in a relationship with God, self, community and environment that nurtures and celebrates wholeness’ (NIH, 2002). In Ellison’s view (1983), “SpWB arises from an underlying state of spiritual health and is an expression of it, much like the color of one’s complexion and pulse rate are expressions of good (physical)
health”. Hill and Pargament (2003); Koenig, McCullough, & Larson, (2001); MacDonald and Friedman, (2002); Moberg, (2002) found that “spirituality is complicated because no measure can be perfect, and any measure simply reflects the phenomenon or its consequences, because it cannot be measured directly”. Most measures rely on self-reports, but they might not reflect reality because ‘feeling well is not necessarily being well’ (Moberg, 2002). Subjective well-being was defined as mediator which mediates the effects of resilience and mastery on depression and anxiety in a large community sample of young and middle-aged adults (Burns, Anstey & Windsor, 2011). The findings were consistent throughout both young and middle adulthood. It was concluded that Psychological well-being components are significant predictors of subjective well-being affect states that increase vulnerability to depression and anxiety.

Prayer and Subjective Well-Being

Some of researchers investigated the relation of Prayer with Subjective Well-Being. Whittington and Scher (2010) differentiated and examined Six Different Types of Prayer (adoration, confession, thanks-giving, supplication, reception, and obligatory prayer). Prayers of adoration were defined as prayers focused on the worship of God, without any reference to circumstances, needs, or desires (Foster, 1992; Laird, Snyder, Rapoff, & Green, 2004; Lewis, 1964). Prayers of thanks-giving was defined as expressions of gratitude towards God, made in reference to specific positive life experiences. Supplication "taps requests for God's intervention in specific life events for oneself or others" (Laird, Snyder, Rapoff, & Green, 2004,). Prayers of confession involve the admission of negative behaviors, and a request for forgiveness. Prayers of reception, was discussed as "a form of prayer in which individual more passively awaits divine wisdom, understanding, or guidance" (Laird, Snyder, Rapoff, & Green, 2004,). Baesler, (2002) described receptive prayer as "characterized by a contemplative attitude of openness, receptivity, and surrender, resulting in experiences ranging from peaceful/quiet to rapture/ectasy".

In an investigation some measures of SWB (self-esteem, optimism, meaning in life, satisfaction with life) were administered to find the relation with the three forms of prayer (adoration, thanksgiving, reception). Results found consistent positive relations with well-being measures, whereas the other three forms of prayer had negative or null relations with the well-being measures. The prayer types which were found positively associated appeared to be less ego-focused, and more focused on God, whereas the negative types were just opposite in nature. These results revealed the role of psychological meaning as a part of the process whereby prayer impacts SWB. According to William James (1902/1994), prayer is "the very soul and essence of religion". Nearly 90% of adult Americans pray (Poloma & Gallup, 1991) and 72% pray on a daily basis (Gallup Report,
Moreover, prayer plays an important role in both physical and SWB (Ai, Peterson, Bolling, & Koenig, 2002; Ai, Tice, Peterson, & Huang, 2005; Poloma & Pendleton, 1991; Salsman, Brown, Brechting, & Carlson, 2005). Ai, Tice, Huang, Rodgers, & Bolling, (2008) has looked at how different prayer types affect psychological outcomes. In their study of postoperative coping they found petitionary prayers predicted optimism and in turn SWB, whereas conversational prayers predicted higher levels of stress. Ritual and petitionary prayer, obligation and supplication, conversational and meditative prayer, seem to combine various aspects of prayer types (Laird, Snyder, Rapoff, & Green, 2004). Thus it was concluded that different types of prayers have different effects on SWB of the individuals.

**Biological determinants of Subjective Well-Being**

**Biological and Heritability**

Some researchers have concluded that people’s emotional life is closely influenced by genetic temperament factors (DeNeve, 1999; DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; Lykken 1999; Lykken and Tellegen 1996; Tellegen, Lykken, Bouchard, Wilcox, Segal, & Rich, 1988)

Meehl quoted “The people may be born three drinks behind or three drinks ahead” (Watson, 2002) is supported by many heritability studies. The most important Heritability study which compared monozygotic twins (Identical, who were genetically 100% similar) in comparison to dizygotic twins (Fraternal, who carry 5% similarity in their genes) by Lykken and Tellegen (1996) compared identical twins environmentally. This study was between identical twins that were separated at the time of birth and were raised in different environments. Influence of powerful role of genetics was seen when similarity of identical twins significantly exceeded as compared to fraternal twins. Identical twins showed strong similarity even though they were raised in different environments. Thus Tellegen and his colleagues concluded that genetic factors play a determining role of about 40% of the difference in the long term levels of positive affects, 55% of negative affects and about 80% of long term SWB appear to be inherited. As portrayed by Paul Meehl “The Hedonic capacity is a stable personality aspect that is largely genetic in origin”. In the same way Heady and Wearing, (1992) explained that people appear to inherit a “set point” for happiness which determines their general level of cheerfulness. Further studies of genetics investigated the influences of genes on stability of SWB. The findings explained that a happy and cheerful child would develop as a happy and cheerful adult and senior citizen, some relative examples were explained, like a moody, reserved and cautious child is predicted to carry the same disposition ahead. The temperamental differences can be studied in the early phase of life, which forms the basis for people’s characteristic and emotional orientation. In this context the temperament was defined as a genetically determined physiological disposition, which responds
to the environment in a stable and a typical way. For example, infantile activity level show differences in temperament, their mood responding styles and readiness for being soothed and comforted by parents. The acceptability and their responses to the new things in their environment define their temperament. Temperament is defined as a biological predisposition to certain types of responding that appears early in life and has a large genetic component. Temperament is believed to exert a causal role in predisposing some to experience high SWB and others low SWB. Supporting evidence for this temperamental predisposition to experience various levels of SWB is offered by behavior-genetic studies of heritability. Heritability research estimates the effect of genetic makeup upon SWB.

On the other hand, Kagan (1994) found in his studies that about 20% of infants fell into one of two extreme temperaments types called “reactive and non reactive” (Kagan, 1994; Kagan & Snidman 2004). Kagan (1994) also noted that infantile and early childhood; temperament was related to differences in personality and behaviour in adulthood. Reactive infants were likely to become shy, anxious and reserved adults, while non reactive infants were more extraverted, easy going and talkative adults with a smile. Many researchers investigated and found that each individual’s basic biological temperaments establish a foundation for the later development of more specific personality traits (McCrae, Costa Jr., Ostendorf, Angleitner, Hrebickova, Avia, Sanz, Sanchez-Bernados, Kusdil, Woodfield, Saunders, & Smith, Peter, 2000; Rothbart, Ahadi, & Evenas, 2000). Goalman (1998) investigated that like eye, color and height, happiness seems to be encoded in DNA. Tellegen (1996), in the same context, stated that there is possibility of long term happiness which can be determined by the great genetic lottery that occurs at conception. A general conclusion predict that happiness is clearly in one’s genes, but just as clearly as life events and personal choices can affect one’s happiness set point. Happiness may be regarded as positive trait because of its long term stability and connection to genetically influenced dispositions like positive affectivity and extraversions (McCrae & Costa, 1991). In the similar pattern, Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, (2001) described “happiness as trait approach” and they investigated how genetically happy and unhappy people view and analyze their lives. They supported the past researches with the view that “...happy and unhappy individuals appear to experience – indeed, to reside in – different subjective world” (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2001).

Subjective well-being and Sex-specific effects of genetic and environmental factors

Roysamb, Harris, Magnus, Vitterso, and Tambs, (2002) investigated the influence of genetic and environmental factors on subjective well-being. In their
investigation a special attention was paid to sex-specific effects. The effects of additive genes, genetic interaction, common environment and non-shared environment were studied. The empirical results revealed there were only marginal sex differences in mean levels of subjective well-being, and no differences in variance. It was also concluded that there were sex differences in the degree of heritability. Further the study between the male and female genetic factors suggested that, different sets of genes may influence variation in subjective well-being for men and women. A genetic influence upon well-being was found, moreover an interaction between genotypes and cultural value systems was also found. In the similar vein of study, Keyes, Myers, and Kendler, (2010), studied genetic influences on the measures of SWB. The conclusion was drawn that SWB is influenced genetically. Moreover some trait-specific genetic influences were also studied for emotional and social well-being.

Sleep and Subjective well-being

Most studies of sleep experience and SWB have reported a positive relationship both in terms of quantity (Konu, Lintonen & Rimpela, 2002; Nakayama & Amagasa, 2004; Ito, Tamakoshi, Yamaki, Wakai, Kawamura, Takagi, Hayakawa, & Ohno, 2000) and quality (Kelly, 2004; Zeitlhofer Schmeiser-Rieder, Tribi, Rosenberger, Bolitschek, Kapfhammer, Saletu, Katschnig, Holzinger, Popovic, & Kunze, 2000;) and in terms of sleep. In a study of sleep apnea patients, D’Ambrosio, Bowman and Mohsenin (1999) investigated that patients’ of sleep apnea had significant impaired quality of life, after treatment their quality of life returned to normal levels. This finding show a link between sleep quality and SWB, and is consistent with SWB homeostasis , which states that SWB may be influenced negatively by extrinsic factors but it retains the condition when either the homeostatic system adapts or the factors stop effecting (Cummins & Nistico, 2002). Similarly, Pilcher (1998) observed college students for three months, and stability of SWB was compared with the quality of sleep during the course of a school semester. The findings by Pilcher (1998) concluded that positive extrinsic influences would boost SWB if its initial levels were already below the positive set-point range. If the subjects in this study were already within the specified positive range, then no increase in SWB would be expected. Thus it can be expected that results may have been different if sleep would have been measured subjectively. Till to date, no studies have investigated how perceived positive eating, exercise and sleep combine to relate to SWB, and so it is also necessary to make a scale which measures satisfaction with these facets of healthy living. The domains of eating, exercise and sleeping were measured and the healthy lifestyle well-being (HLWB) index consists of the aggregate of satisfaction in these domains. In this study, Miller (2005) also specified that, if a person experiences negative or unhealthy, eating, exercise and sleep experiences, their SWB could become depressed depending on the severity of the experiences.
Still if these experiences were perceived positively, it does not necessarily mean that SWB will be enhanced. Kahneman (2006) in his preliminary analysis suggested that personality variables—including factors like sleep, depression and religiosity—predict life satisfaction and net affect about equally well.

**Economic Determinants of Subjective Well-Being**

**Money and Happiness**

Money can be defined as basic need and global aspect for people in their life. People spend most of their time earning and spending money, more over in consuming market goods during all of their waking and sleeping moments (Diener & Biswas, 2001).

It was also found that there is no link between a society’s economic development and its average level of well-being as per as findings of “Easterlin paradox”. By using surveyed data it was established a clear positive link between average levels of subjective well-being and GDP per capita across countries, and it was found that there was no evidence of a satiation point beyond which wealthier countries have no further increases in subjective well-being. The study of relationship between changes in subjective well-being and income over time within countries revealed that economic growth was associated with rising well-being. Collectively such findings revealed a comparative picture of absolute income clearly while a limited role of relative income in determining SWB. Subjective well-being as a commodity may not increase like utility increases, might be because SWB is very habitual, even addictive, or because a person’s SWB may be affected by the achievements and happiness of others. It was also found that a rise in wage rates, after a time raises both income and the relative cost of producing SWB (Stevenson & Wolfers, 2008).

**Income and Subjective Well-Being**

In present condition, according to Fuentes and Rojas (2001) the economic definition of SWB is “higher levels of income are associated with higher levels of well-being through greater levels of material consumption”. On the basis of this definition, it is important to know importance of income for an individual’s happiness. Existing studies in psychology have found a positive correlation between economic well-being (socio-economic status) and subjective well-being. Although the positive relationship was weak and a large percentage of human happiness still unexplained. Many studies in this context tried to identify the relationship between household income and subjective well-being. It was found that income does not have a strong influence on neither SWB nor on the probability of SWB. Moreover it was noted that people tend to overstress the impact that additional income would have on their subjective well-being. This
finding helps in explaining the importance that people place on increasing their income level, and this may also explain the relative sense of dissatisfaction once a higher income level is achieved. However, the relationship between income and the sense of basic need satisfaction was also investigated. The empirical results show that the relationship was extremely weak. Moreover results indicate that subjective well-being was positively related to the sense of basic need satisfaction but not to income. Diener and Biswas (2001) also defined the reason for insignificant effect of rise of income on SWB because of increase in desires at the same time. Although impact of income on SWB was stated as one of the important ways to judge the benefits of the economic progress in a nation, Oswald (1997) argued that “Economic things matter only in so far as they make people happier”. Thus it was concluded that the income relates to SWB to the extent that it allows people to fulfill their desires. Frey and Stutzer (2000) also reported a small correlation between SWB and Income.

Diener and Biswas-Diener (2001) investigated influence of higher income on SWB. In India (2001) recently the minimum daily wage was incorporated by the government showing economic prosperity of the country, but it was highly criticized by opposition, media and public. The impact of income on SWB is one important way we can judge the benefits of economic progress. The correlation of income and SWB controlling for education was examined in many studies, and it was seen that usually it changes little from the zero-order correlation (Blanchflower & Oswald, 1999). Tomes (1986) found that income had small but significant correlations with reported happiness and satisfaction even after controlling for education (which had very small effects), marriage (which had moderate to large effects), unemployment (which had a large negative impact, especially for men), and other control variables. Similarly, Marks and Fleming (1999) found that income influenced an aggregated measure of happiness with aspects of life even after controlling for marital status, occupation, employment, age, and sex. Biswas-Diener and Diener (2000) found that income and life satisfaction correlated after satisfaction with various domains, such as family and friends, was controlled. These findings suggest a direct relation of income with SWB that is not due to many other variables. Adelman (1987) found that income was significantly related to happiness for men but not for women. Similarly, a wife’s personal earnings did not affect her likelihood of depression, whereas a husband’s personal earnings directly decreased the probability of his depression (Ross and Huber, 1985). Keith and Schafer (1982) found that among single women, low income was a predictor of depression but it was not found among married women. George (1992) reported that the relation of income and SWB was weaker for the elderly. Biswas-Diener and Diener (2000) in the slums of Calcutta found that income was strongly related to life satisfaction. This investigational research indicated that where income differences were related to differences in meeting universal basic needs for food and shelter, the effects of income could be
relatively strong. Such findings suggested the effects of money on SWB differ according to one’s life circumstances, roles, and values. These moderate variables show the importance of factors such as desires and feelings of self-worth and its relation between money and SWB. The effect of income on happiness appears not to be an absolute one, but instead is one that depends on an individual’s roles and relationships, moreover on other factors too. In the lottery studies, Brickman Coates, and Janoff-Bulman, (1978), found that winners were nonsignificantly happier, and were significantly less pleased with everyday events; but the number of respondents was very small.

Kahneman (2005), in a research, studied two aspects of subjective well-being. Firstly, Emotional well-being which refers to the emotional quality of an individual’s everyday experience the frequency and intensity of experiences of joy, stress, sadness, anger, and affection that make one’s life pleasant or unpleasant. Secondly, Life evaluation which refers to the thoughts that people have about their life when they think about it. They raised the question of whether money buys happiness, separately for the mentioned two aspects of well-being. An analysis of more than 450,000 responses (the Gallup-Health ways Well-Being Index), indicated that emotional well-being and life evaluation have different correlates. Income and education were found more closely related to life evaluation, while health, care giving, loneliness, and smoking were relatively turned out as stronger predictors of daily emotions. In the relative study, life evaluation revealed a strong impact of income similarly the study also demonstrated that the emotional well-being also peaked up with log income, but there was no further progress beyond an annual income of $75,000. Low income revealed the emotional pain among the subjects but it was found to be associated with circumstantial factors like divorce, ill health, and loneliness. Finally it was concluded that high income buys life satisfaction but not happiness and that low income was also found to be associated both with low life evaluation and low emotional well-being.

Job, Employment, Work and Subjective Well-Being

Employment with payment has a substantial impact on the subjective well-being of most of the adults. That nature of any employee, the key features of job, and people, may affect SWB of the related individual. The terms “job satisfaction” and “life satisfaction” are different measures of SWB. Both forms of SWB can range from anxiety to comfort, from displeasure to pleasure, and form depression to enthusiasm. Many researchers have indicated that greater employee well-being is significantly associated with better job performance, lower absenteeism, reduced probability of leaving an employer, and the occurrence of more discretionary work behaviors. (Warr, Barter, & Brownbridge, 1987).
In thousands of research investigations the nature and degree of people’s satisfaction with their job have been studied. Job satisfaction itself have several levels of specificity., such as different aspects of job, payment, colleagues, supervisors, working conditions, job security, promotion prospects, the company, and the nature of the work under taken. Thus the most general construct is “overall job satisfaction” - the extent to which a person is satisfied or happy with his/her job as a whole.

Maslach and Jackson (1981) studied the concept of “job stress” and “burnout”. Kahn and Byosiere (1992) investigated on psychosomatic symptoms, in terms of reported sleeplessness, headaches, and similar problems; and physiological variables such as heart rate, blood pressure, and catecholamine levels of the distressed individuals in context to their jobs (Warr, 1987).

**Cultural Determinants of Subjective Well-Being**

The major idea of studying culture in context to SWB is behind the approach that people are socialized in a society, with specific culture, which provides them certain values, goals, and behaviors. Carrying out the behaviors that are valued within the culture is likely to lead to feelings of SWB because the person who had adopted the cultural goals, experiences positive emotions as they were socialized to the cultural norms. People perceive the acquisition of goods and money as a desirable activity that reflects how well they are carrying out the cultural imperative, and respond with pleasant emotions when they are successful at this imperative. In this approach, people engaged in work and consumption are seen as likely to experience SWB because they are behaving in ways that the society values. The cultural approach allows for additional differences between societies. For instance, some cultures stress competition, others focus on efficiency, and yet others emphasize the ability to save. In each of these cases, success is defined somewhat differently, and therefore there are likely to be differences in how money is related to SWB. Furthermore, in some cultures there is an emphasis on avoiding failure and in others there is an emphasis on seeking rewards (Diener & Lucas, 1999), and these differences could lead to variation in how income is connected to SWB. In a culture oriented to avoiding failures, being poor might be especially difficult, whereas in a culture oriented to approach behavior, greater recognition may be given to wealthy individuals. Alesina, DiTella, and MacCulloch, (2001) found that inequality of incomes had an effect on reports of happiness in Europe but not in the U.S.A. They discovered that both poverty and political ideology moderated the effects of inequality, suggesting that social mobility and ideological beliefs could influence the way in which social comparisons of income influence SWB (Alesina, DiTella & MacCulloch, 2001).

Cultures can be arrayed on a continuum ranging from individualistic (individual wellbeing and choice are granted high importance) to collectivistic (the
group is seen as more important than the individual). It appears that both types of societies have their own costs and benefits. Individualistic societies offer people greater personal freedom, and on average people in these societies report high SWB. However, these cultures also have high levels of certain pathologies such as divorce, suicide, and crime. They have high marital satisfaction rates and, paradoxically, high divorce rates. They experience high average SWB, and yet on average also have higher levels of suicide. One explanation is that in individualistic society’s people receive credit for their successes, but also feel the sting of failure more strongly. It might also be that the extended families of collectivistic cultures impair people’s freedom, but also provide a safeguard against loneliness and the acting out of aberrant behaviors.

Differences in Mean Levels of Subjective Well-Being between Nations

Many of the findings on culture and SWB parallel the conclusions on personality and SWB. International surveys of life satisfaction show consistent mean level differences across nations (Inglehart & Klingemann 2000, Veenhoven 1993). For instance, between the years 1958 and 1987 Japanese life satisfaction fluctuated around 6 on a 10-point scale (Veenhoven 1993). Denmark’s national average life satisfaction, on the other hand, fluctuated around a value of 8. Cultural differences parallel to the international differences have been observed within the United States across different ethnic groups. For instance, Oishi (2001a) found that European Americans were significantly more satisfied with their lives than Asian Americans. Similarly, Okazaki (2000) observed that Asian Americans reported higher levels of depression and anxiety than did European Americans. Thus, there are differences between nations, and between ethnic groups within nations.

The word "personality" originates from the Latin persona, which means mask. "Personality" can be defined as a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his/her cognitions, emotions, motivations, and behaviors in various situations.

In the school of psychology Gordon Allport, Abraham Maslow, and Carl Rogers advocated the uniqueness of individuals while Behaviorists and cognitive theorists, in contrast, emphasized humans universality or in other words they considered basic similarity in humans nature.

The primary determinant of behavior is a debatable subject in field of psychology. Situations were considered as the primary factor by social psychologists; in contrast, personality researchers argued that the internal dispositions or personality traits were the primary factor. In modern theory of behaviour psychology both the components are considered important with aggregate behavior being primarily determined by traits and situational factors being the primary predictor of behavior for the short term.
Personality and Subjective well-being

For most of the people the ultimate goal is being happy toward which they strive. Diener and Oishi, (2004) reported that being happy was rated to be most important in comparison to good health, a high income, or high levels of physical attractiveness. Moreover it was rated as being more important than experiencing love or meaning in life.

Thus, happiness is seen as an ultimate goal that guides individual choices and that can be achieved if the external circumstances in a person’s life coincide with his or her desires (Lucas & Diener, 2008). Personality is defined as characteristic response tendencies in adults composed of biological and learned components; extensive research supports its significant influence on SWB. It seems to be the most important factor in determining a person’s SWB and appears to be the personality with which an individual is born. Thus from the following lines of researches the relation between personality and SWB can be drawn:

- Studies of objective life circumstances, person’s income, age, education level, doctor-rated health, and social relationships show that the associations with such factors are quite small.
- SWB is moderately heritable, which means that some inborn factors are at work.
- SWB is stable over time, sometimes even in the face of changing life circumstances.
- When effect sizes are compared directly, correlations with personality traits tend to be much larger than correlations with external circumstances. This evidence has been interpreted to mean that happiness cannot change and that individuals are stuck with a biologically determined level of happiness that is only weakly linked (Lucas & Diener, 2008).

Personality has shown a more significant role than specific life events in determining SWB. It is worth noting here that subjective well-being measures change when significant life events occur (Headey & Wearing, 1989; Lucas, 2005, 2006; Lucas, Clark, Georgellis, & Diener, 2003, 2004; Magnus & Diener 1991; Suh, Diener, & Fujita, 1996). Further, highly valued resources such as wealth (Diener & Larsen, 1993), physical attractiveness (Diener, Wolsic, and Fujita, 1995), and objective health (Okun & George, 1984) barely correlated with SWB. Research today shows that personality, in the psychological sense, remains constant and stable throughout a person’s life. These studies reveal that there is some stability of SWB over time (Costa, McCrae, and Zonderman 1987; Magnus & Diener 1991; Diener & Larsen, (1993) Costa (1994) Diener & Lucas, 1999; Labouvie-Vief & Diehl, 1999).

Mean levels of life satisfaction were stable with coefficients in the .95 range. This shows that people display consistent emotional responses to their environments even when the environment changes.
Subjective well-being seems to be moderately stable even with the changing life conditions. Evaluations of specific events and life domains in one’s life are affected by one’s overall level of well-being. Kozma (1996) noted that life domain (work, home, relationships) satisfaction judgments were found to be correlated but upon overall well-being being controlled, correlations between the different domains were no longer significant. Concluded is that overall subjective well-being influences feelings about specific domains and contentment with specific domains is a function of specific factors within the domain and one’s general level of SWB.

Personality traits are behavioral response tendencies which show a degree of consistency across situations and stability over time. DeNeve and Cooper (1998) investigated and found 137 personality traits correlated with SWB measures, hence, recognizing the most important traits needed for subjective well-being was considered difficult. Now a days, the Five-Factor Model or “Big Five” has received the most theoretical attention in research field, it is also known as OCEAN on the basis of five cardinal traits namely, Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism.

The traits having received the most empirical attention in relation to SWB is extraversion. Extroversion includes characteristics such as sociability, stimulus seeking, dominance, high activity, warmth, dominance, and correlates significantly with pleasant emotions, for example, joy and affection. Fujita (1991) determined the correlation between extroversion and pleasant affect to be .80 and that neuroticism and the experience of negative affect were virtually indistinguishable. Recent work on subjective well-being has demonstrated that extraversion is a replicable correlate of emotional well-being (Costa & McCrae, 1980; Emmons & Diener, 1985).

Costa and McCrae (1980) discovered that extraversion predicted pleasant affect and neuroticism predicted unpleasant affect over a ten-year period. Magnus and Diener (1991) showed that extroversion and neuroticism scores predicted life satisfaction over four years; personality was a stronger predictor of life satisfaction than life events. Diener, Sandvik, Pavot, and Fujita (2004) determined that extroversion predicted SWB in a representative sample of Americans. Extroverts were on average happier despite living alone or with others, working in solitary or social occupations, or living in small or large cities. They were also happier across diverse ethnic, gender, and age groups Thus, extraverts do appear to select themselves into certain long-term life situations. The close relation between extroversion and SWB across different environments and samples suggested the bond may be due to biological temperament rather than situational differences between extroverts and introverts. A temperament factor was suggested again when Pavot, Diener, and Fujita (1990) found that extroverts reported more positive affect at random moments in an experience sampling study regardless of
being alone or in a social setting. Robinson & Berridge, 2003) sought to demonstrate that extraversion is a more reliable predictor of subjective well-being (SWB) judgments among certain individuals than among others. Four studies involving a total of 260 participants revealed that the extraversion-SWB relation was relatively weaker among those quick to appreciate the distinction between neutral and positive events in a choice reaction-time task; by contrast, it was stronger among those slow to recognize this distinction. Myers, (2000); Pavot, Diener, and Fujita, (1990) have found a correlation between extroversion and happiness. That is, more extroverted people tend to report higher levels of happiness in comparison to introverts.

Neuroticism is the tendency to experience negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, or depression. It is sometimes called emotional instability, or is reversed and referred to as emotional stability. Neuroticism includes characteristics such as pessimism, irritability, bodily complaints and interpersonal sensitivity; in other words, it encompasses a wide range of unpleasant thoughts and emotions. The people who score high on neuroticism tend to be emotionally reactive and vulnerable to stress. More over such individuals interpret ordinary situations as threatening, and minor frustrations as hopelessly difficult. These negative emotional reactions tend to persist for unusually long periods of time, which means such people are often in a bad mood. These problems in emotional regulation can diminish the ability of a person to think clearly, make decisions, and cope effectively with stress. Thus such people may score less on SWB. Kendler, Kuhn, and Prescott (2004) found that neuroticism is highly correlated with the depressogenic effects of “long-term contextual threats”. In addition, Kling, Ryff, Love, and Essex (2003) discovered that Neuroticism predicts change in depressive symptoms in females especially among those who experience a significant life transition. Ormel, Stewart, and Sanderman (1989) found that Neuroticism moderates the impact of life situation change on depressive mood. Similarly, Kendler, Karkowski, and Prescott (1999) estimated that about one third of the relationship between stress and depression results from self-selection into high-risk environments. However Neuroticism predicts marital problems, job loss, financial difficulties, and interpersonal conflict (Kendler, Gardner, & Prescott, 2003) and exposure to daily hassles (Suls, Green, & Hillis, 1998; Vollrath, 2000). Bolger and Schilling (1991) found that individuals high on neuroticism report slightly more hassles exposure than individuals score low, moreover it was also found that high-Neurotic subjects experience significantly more event-related distress.

Both these variables correlate moderately with SWB but at lower levels than extroversion and neuroticism. Whereas research suggests that extroversion and neuroticism are based on neural approach-and-avoidance systems and are automatically associated with more positive or negative affect, respectively, the
relation of conscientiousness and agreeableness to subjective well-being is thought to depend on whether individuals with these traits are rewarded within particular environments. These variables have not been extensively studied and warrant additional analysis. Conscientiousness is positively associated with well-being (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; Steel, Schmidt, & Shultz, 2008). Conscientious individuals appear to be orientated towards life situations that are beneficial for SWB, because Conscientiousness would increase the probability of positive experiences in social and achievement situations, thus it is directly related with SWB (McCrae & Costa, 1991), set themselves higher goals (Barrick, Mount, & Strauss, 1993; DeNeve & Cooper, 1998), and have high levels of motivation (Judge & Ilies, 2002). Conscientious individuals are therefore more likely to achieve highly (McGregor & Little, 1998) and obtain higher wellbeing (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998). Gosling, (2008) explained that people who score high on the trait of conscientiousness tend to be more organized and less cluttered in their homes and offices. Furnham, Premuzic and McDougall (2002) explained conscientiousness was positively correlated with better performance and success. The role of conscientiousness in facilitating positive experiences such as hard work results in goal achievement and this is true in both the cultures, individualistic and collectivistic culture like India. Conscientiousness is one of the most important dimensions in predicting life satisfaction in individuals (Hayes & Joseph, 2003; Keyes & Lopez, 2002). Extraversion, neuroticism, and conscientiousness were found correlated with subjective well-being, suggesting that these traits represent personality predispositions for well-being (Grant & Jeromy, 2009). Like Neuroticism and Extraversion, Conscientiousness is also found to be associated with stress experience and coping (Vollrath & Torgersen, 2000). Research findings by Hooker, Frazier, & Monahan, (1994) revealed that Openness to Experience and Agreeableness indicate only weak relationships with coping strategies. Conscientiousness predicts hopelessness and depression negatively, while positive affect is predicted positively by Conscientiousness (Watson & Clark, 1992). Extraversion and Conscientiousness are related positively to positive thinking and positive reappraisals (Watson & Hubbard, 1996). Individuals high on Conscientiousness tend to use problem-focused coping and fewer maladaptive forms of emotion-focused coping (Watson & Hubbard, 1996).

The fifth trait of the Big Five, openness to experience, is generally not related to an individual’s experience of positive or negative affect or life satisfaction. For example, Gottfredson (1994) determined that openness to experience did not correlate with job satisfaction. This variable is thought to relate to emotional intensity by influencing how happy and unhappy moments are experienced rather than influencing how happy or unhappy a person is. McCrae and Sutin (2009) stated openness shows high levels of differential stability across the adult lifespan. Increases from early adolescence up to the age of 20, and then
gradually declines. Openness to experience has a number of consequences for social behaviour, and so is an important construct in the study of personality and social psychology.

Scheier and Carver (1985) developed a theory of dispositional optimism in which optimism is a generalized tendency to expect favorable outcomes in one’s life. Specifically, those who believe that positive outcomes will follow working toward a goal are more likely to achieve their goal, whereas, those who expect failure are more likely to disengage from their goal. This pattern leads optimists to achieve their goals more often than pessimists. Lucas, Diener, and Suh (1996) revealed that optimism correlates with measures of SWB such as life satisfaction, pleasant affect and unpleasant affect. Scheier and Carver (1993) reviewed findings showing that optimists maintain higher levels of SWB when facing a stressor. Evidence showing the underlying mechanisms of optimism is offered by Scheier, Weintraub, and Carver (1986) who found that optimists tend to use problem focused coping, seek social support, and emphasize positive aspects of the situation upon encountering difficulties. Pessimists tend to use denial, focus on stressful feelings, and disengage from relevant goals. It appears that those who think positively use more effective forms of coping. Peterson, Park, and Seligman, (2002) noted that, “some amount of optimism is always built into human nature, as a basic need of the life. If nothing else, it helps one to get out of bed in the morning to face another day”.