CHAPTER-2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

GENERAL

Research has been carried out in any chosen field from time to time and the knowledge has been accumulating since ages. The review of literature provides an insight and understanding to the researcher about the field of study. It helps the researcher to see the past and present of the topic. It also gives researcher a viewpoint about the gaps and provides a road map for study of the topic in hand. It gives us the direction to carry out research in a particular way.

According to Kerlinger (1978), “The underlying purpose of review of related literature of course, is to locate the present research in the existing body of research on the subject and to point out what it contributes to the subject”.

The objective of survey of related literature is to identify the researches which have some bearing on the problem under investigation. It enables the researcher to be conversant with the past scenario of research in a particular field and to place the findings, somewhere on the continuum. It serves as a pointer to seek a realistic base for the conduct of research in a comprehensive manner so as to arrive at general conclusions as well as some specific ones, to evolve the research strategy for the utilization of all the available facts, to make a piece of research, an instrument of social change.

The review of literature shows that social sciences have taken huge steps in their understanding of factors underlying the differences in SWB ratings. In present work, the studies have been compiled in the following four sections:

1. Studies pertaining to crime and causation of crime.

2. Studies pertaining to subjective well-being and psychological parameters.
3. Studies pertaining to subjective well-being and social parameters.

4. Studies pertaining to subjective well-being of convicts.

2.1 STUDIES PERTAINING TO CRIME AND CAUSATION OF CRIME

Crime is the breach of rules or laws for which some governing authority (via mechanisms such as legal systems) can ultimately prescribe a conviction. Crime causation is a daunting and complex field. For centuries, philosophers have pondered over the meaning of the concept of cause as it pertains to human behaviour. Individual human societies may each define crime and crimes differently, in different localities (state, local, international), at different time stages of the so-called "crime" (planning, disclosure, supposedly intended, supposedly prepared, in-completed, completed or futuristically proclaimed after the "crime") (Wikipedia). A normative definition views crime as a deviant behaviour that violates prevailing norms – cultural standards prescribing how humans ought to behave normally. Crime is seldom considered as an outcome in public health research. Yet major theoretical and empirical developments in the field of criminology during the past 50 years suggest that the same social environmental factors which predict geographic variation in crime rates may also be relevant for explaining community variations in health and well-being. Understanding the causes of variability in crime across countries and across regions within a country will help us to solve one of the enduring puzzles in public health, viz. why some communities are healthier than others.

Glueck and Glueck (1968) suggested that the most important determinant of delinquency was family environment. Based upon their data, they contended that three family factors were especially important: parental supervision, disciplinary practices and child-parent attachment. Children were at high risk of delinquency when their parents failed to provide supervision
and engaged in lax or erratic discipline, and when weak emotional ties existed between parent and child.

The empirical literature addressing the relationship between crime and inequality has produced mixed results. *Ehrlich (1973)* tested his theoretical model using Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) data and found a significant relationship between the crime rate and the share of the population below half the median income across the US states. *Krishna (1993)* suggested the presence of neuroticism, anxiety, extraversion, and morality guilt among adolescents who are high on delinquent behaviour. She found that there is a positive relationship between delinquent behaviour and these personality factors. *Heaven (1996)* found neuroticism in addition to agreeableness and conscientiousness to be predictive of delinquent behaviours out of five factors of personality. *Brehm and Rahn (1997)* analysed pooled data from the nationally representative General Social Surveys, from 1972 to 1994, in an attempt to uncover the determinants of civic participation (membership in voluntary associations) and interpersonal trust. Among other variables such as educational attainment and the unemployment rate, the distribution of income (as measured by the Gini Index) was found to be a statistically significant predictor of levels of interpersonal trust reported by respondents to the survey. *Harold & Honess (1998)* in a study of middle-school-aged children found conflict to be an integral factor in the relationship between the parent marital relationship and child mental health in a limited sample. Researchers found that child perceptions of marital conflict both directly and indirectly affected internalizing behaviours and also indirectly affected externalizing behaviours. Furthermore, a follow-up study found that perception of parental marital conflict was associated with increased levels of distress over a 12-month period. *Kawachi et al. (1997)* presented a conceptual framework for investigating the influence of the social context on community health, using crime as the indicator of collective well-being.
They argued that two sets of societal characteristics influence the level of crime: the degree of relative deprivation in society (for instance, measured by the extent of income inequality), and the degree of cohesiveness in social relations among citizens (measured, for instance, by indicators of ‘social capital’ and ‘collective efficacy’). They provided a test of their conceptual framework using state-level ecologic data on violent crimes and property crimes within the USA. Results suggested that violent crimes (homicide, assault, robbery) were consistently associated with relative deprivation (income inequality) and indicators of low social capital. Among property crimes, burglary was also associated with deprivation and low social capital. They also found that areas with high crime rates tend to exhibit higher mortality rates from all causes, suggesting that crime and population health share the same social origins. Crime, they say, is thus a mirror of the quality of the social environment.

*Miles and Carey (1997)* performed a meta-analysis on data from 24 genetically informative studies by using various personality measures of aggression. They found a strong overall genetic effect that may account for up to 50% of the variance in aggression. This effect was not attributed to methodological inadequacies in the twin or adoption designs. Age differences were important. Self-report and parental ratings showed genes and the family environment to be important in youth; the influence of genes increased but that of family environment decreased at later ages. Observational ratings of laboratory behaviour found no evidence for heritability and a very strong family environment effect.

*Weatherburn and Lind (1997)* proposed an epidemic model of delinquency. The model was based on the idea that economic stress increases juvenile participation in crime because it disrupts the parenting process, thereby, rendering juveniles more susceptible to delinquent peer influence.
Aseltine et al. (1998) conducted a community sample study in which they examined adolescent risk factors for depression and substance use. They found that the co-occurrence of depression and substance abuse had a negative relationship with family support.

Weatherburn and Lind (1998) examined the interrelationship between economic and social stress, child maltreatment and juvenile participation in crime across postcode areas in New South Wales. They found variables like poverty, single parent families, crowded dwellings, neglect and abuse as the major causes of juvenile participation in crime. They pointed out the importance of increasing family supports and parenting skills as a means of reducing juvenile involvement in crime.

Carmichael and Ward (2000) found in their study that: (1) there is a systematic positive relationship between burglary rates and male unemployment regardless of age; (2) youth unemployment is consistently and positively related to criminal damage and robbery rates; thus, establishing a positive link between adult unemployment and theft.

Dreze and Khera (2000) conducted a study on “Crime, Gender, and Society in India: Insights from Homicide Data”. Three significant patterns emerged from the tentative analysis presented in this study. First, murder rates in India bear no significant relation to urbanization or poverty. Secondly, education appears to exercise a moderating influence on criminal violence and thirdly, the strongest correlate of the murder rate is the female-male ratio: districts with higher female-male ratios have lower murder rates.

Kirkcaldy and Brown (2000) conducted an international comparison on personality, socioeconomics and crime. They collected data from 37 countries that permitted exploratory analysis of national profiles in terms of personality dimensions like Psychotism(P), Extraversion(E) and Neuroticism(N) and four socioeconomic indices: Gross Domestic Product(GDP), Human Development index (HDI), Economic Growth (EG) and Family size(FS). They tried to find out relationship of these variables with the rate of criminal
activities. Findings indicated that the socioeconomic indicators did correlate with national crime patterns. High crime nations were more likely to be richer, industrialized countries having smaller average family size. This is consistent with the assertion that increments in crime appear to be a feature of modern industrialized societies. Personality variables proved more elusive. Psychoticism surprisingly was not correlated with incidence of crime rather Extraversion appeared most closely linked to rate and type of crime particularly car robbery and drug offences.

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Fajnzylber et al. (2002) suggested that income inequality, measured by the Gini coefficient, has a significant positive effect on the incidences of crime across countries and over time. However, the conclusions drawn from any cross-country study were susceptible to attacks on the comparability of international data and on their ability to control unobserved variables.

Gould et al. (2002) reported that, after controlling other factors, there is a statistically significant but substantively small relationship between unemployment rates and property crime. Similar results were shown by Carmichael and Ward (2000), Donohue and Levitt (2001) and Raphael and Winter-Ebmer (2001).

Schudlich & Cummings (2003) found that, in a sample of children in early and mid-adolescence age and their parents, the incidence of parental depression brought on by marital conflict is associated with increased depression and other internalizing behaviour’s in children. Marital conflict was also found to be related to children’s psychological health later in life.

Levitt (2004) estimated that a one percentage point increase in the unemployment rate is associated with a one percent increase in property crime.

Retz and his co-workers (2004) found a relationship between the serotonin transporter promoter gene (5-HTT) and impulsive violence in a forensic sample of 153 males.
Specifically, a deletion/insertion polymorphism on this gene predicted impulsively violent behaviour within this population.

Rushton (2004) examined the genetic contribution to pro-social behaviour. Earlier work by the author with the University of London, Institute of Psychiatry Adult Twin Register, found that genes contributed approximately half of the variance to measures of self-report altruism, empathy, nurturance and aggression, including acts of violence. The study extended those results by using a 22-item Social Responsibility Questionnaire with 174 pairs of monozygotic twins and 148 pairs of dizygotic twins. 42% of the reliable variance was due to the twins’ genes, 23% to the twins’ common environment and the remainder to the twins’ non-shared environment.

Violent criminal behaviour is a complex phenomenon, and too often, potential causes are studied in an isolated manner. According to Wiebe (2004), among the “Big Five” components of trait personality, agreeableness and conscientiousness were found to be predictive of criminal behavior.

Donnellan et al. (2005) conducted a study to explore the link between global self-esteem and externalizing problems like aggression, antisocial behaviour, and delinquency. They found that a strong relationship exists between low self-esteem and externalizing problems.

Behavioural genetics studies have also attempted to ascertain the relative contribution of genetic and non-genetic influences in explaining traits, characteristics, or patterns of behaviour at the population/sample level. Given that identical (monozygotic, MZ) twins share all of their genetic material and fraternal (dizygotic, DZ) twins share approximately half of their genetic material, but (it is assumed) share environments to similar degrees. Moffitt (2005) found that the correlated behaviour of MZ twins should be twice that of DZ twins. Any variations from this observation can be attributed to non-genetic effects.
Buonanno and Leonida (2006) examined the impact of education on criminal activity in Italy. They tested a number of hypotheses regarding the effects of education and past incidence of crime on criminal activity, using annual data for the 20 Italian regions over the period 1980 to 1995. Empirical results showed that education is negatively correlated with delinquency and that crime rates display persistence over time.

Knafo and Plomin (2006) investigated the extent to which environment shared by family members, non-shared environment, and genetics account for children’s pro-social behaviour in their study “Pro-social Behaviour from Early to Middle Childhood: Genetic and Environmental Influences on Stability and Change”. The pro-social behaviour of twins (9,424 pairs) was rated by their parents at the ages of 2, 3, 4, and 7 and by their teachers at age 7. For parent ratings, shared environmental effects decreased from 0.47 on an average at age 2 to 0.03 at age 7, and genetic effects increased from 0.32 on average to 0.61. The finding of weak shared environmental effects and large heritability at age 7 was largely confirmed through the use of teacher ratings. Using longitudinal genetic analyses, the authors concluded that genetic effects account for both change and continuity in pro-social behaviour, whereas, non-shared environment contributes mainly to change.

Larsson et al. (2006) suggested that genetic and personality factors may be as powerful as environmental factors in explaining antisocial and violent behaviours, and that genetic and environmental risk factors may interact in significant ways.

Pasch et al. (2006) found positive associations between parent–adolescent conflict and delinquency behaviours such as school misconduct and substance use in adolescents. Researchers found associations in the expected directions between parent–adolescent conflict and negative mental health outcomes, such as anxiety, depression and self-esteem.

Trzesniewski et al. (2006) in their study conducted on 1,037 individuals, found that adolescents with low self-esteem had poorer mental and physical health, worse economic
prospects, and higher levels of criminal behaviour during adulthood, compared to adolescents with high self-esteem. They suggested that low self-esteem during adolescence predicts negative real-world consequences during adulthood.

Brush (2007) found that the Gini coefficient is positively associated with crime rates in the cross-section analysis, but negatively or insignificantly associated with crime rates in the time-series analysis. These results suggested that greater attention should be given to identifying the many factors affecting crime before one concludes that income inequality is the culprit.

Correlational research has linked social rejection with decreased pro-social behaviour, although it is unclear which one is the cause of the other. In the seven experiments, which they conducted, Twenge et al. (2007) manipulated social exclusion by telling people that they would end up alone later in life or that other participants had rejected them. Social exclusion caused a substantial reduction in pro-social behaviour. Socially excluded people donated less money to a student fund, were unwilling to volunteer for further lab experiments, were less helpful after a mishap, and cooperated less in a mixed-motive game with another student. The results did not vary by cost to the self or by recipient of the help, and results remained significant when the experimenter was unaware of condition. The effect was mediated by feelings of empathy for another person but was not mediated by mood, state self-esteem, belongingness, trust, control, or self-awareness. The implication is that rejection temporarily interferes with emotional responses, thereby impairing the capacity for empathic understanding of others, and as a result, any inclination to help or cooperate with them is undermined.

Dahlberg and Gustavsson (2008) argued that ‘income can be considered as consisting of two parts, one permanent and one transitory, and it is the changes in the permanent part rather
than in the transitory part that affects crime rates’. Their results indicated that it is crucially important to separate the two effects.

Ferguson et al. (2008) examined the contributions of gender and personality, exposure to physical abuse and violence in the family, and exposure to media violence in both television and in video games on violent criminal activity. Data from young adults (n = 355) indicated that personality characteristics and direct physical abuse significantly predicted violent crime. Exposure to television and video game violence were not significant predictors of violent crime. The results elucidated the complex interplay between multiple factors related to the aetiology of violent crime.

Rigorous studies repeatedly have demonstrated the negative effects of parental divorce on outcomes for families. Hair et al. (2009) examined different aspects of parent marital quality, such as marital support and conflict between the couple, which existed within married families and examined how patterns of mother–adolescent and father–adolescent relationships quality varied longitudinally from 1997 to 1999. They used data from the NLSY97 cohort, a nationally representative sample of adolescents who are being followed into adulthood. Four profiles of parent marital quality were developed using latent class analyses. Four growth profiles for the mother–adolescent relationship and for the father–adolescent relationship were created using latent growth class analysis in MPlus. To examine how the parent marital quality profiles and the parent–adolescent relationship quality interact, researchers examined how they overlapped. Six distinct groups were evident from this examination: (1) high marital quality and good relationships with both parents, (2) high marital quality and a good relationship with only one parent, (3) high support and high conflict marital quality and a good relationship with at least one parent, (4) low marital quality and a good relationship with at least one parent, (5) high marital quality and bad
relationships with both parents, and (6) low marital quality and bad relationships with both parents.

Evidence from behavioural genetics supported the conclusion that a significant amount of the variance in antisocial personality and behaviour (APB) is due to genetic contributions. Ferguson (2010) presented a meta-analytic review of behavioural genetic etiological studies of APB. Results indicated that 56% of the variance in APB can be explained through genetic influences, with 11% due to shared non-genetic influences, and 31% due to unique non-genetic influences.

Wu and Wu (2011) developed a model of crime based on principles from the existing literature with some original insight. The implications of the model are that income inequality and unemployment are important explanatory variables for crimes motivated by economic gain, but do not offer much explanatory power for other types of crime. Panel data of UK regions over the years from 2002 to 2007 were then used to test these predictions. The empirical results strongly supported the hypothesis that crime is an economic phenomenon.

To sum up from the above literature review, it can be said that there are some causes of crime which relate to the family environment, which include marital quality, parent–adolescent relationship quality etc., whereas, genetic contributions to the crime also exist. Personality characteristics namely neuroticism in addition to agreeableness and conscientiousness are also found to be predictive of delinquent behaviours out of five factors of personality. Low self-esteem, unemployment, income inequality, poverty, single parent families, crowded dwellings, neglect and abuse are some other major causes of crime. It has been found that education is negatively correlated with delinquency.


2.2 STUDIES PERTAINING TO SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING AND PSYCHOLOGICAL PARAMETERS

A review of related literature shows that social sciences have taken huge steps in their understanding of the factors underlying differences in SWB ratings (e.g., Diener et al., 1999). Major correlates and determinants of SWB are classified in six broad groups: (i) personality factors; (ii) contextual and situational factors; (iii) demographic factors; (iv) institutional factors; (v) environmental factors; and (vi) economic factors.

Psychologists have deeply studied the influence of personality on SWB, and found it to be the strongest and most dependable factor underlying the differences in SWB between persons.

Bradburn (1969) found SWB to be a function of the independent dimensions of general positive and negative affectivity. Building on this work, Argyle and Crossland (1987) have defined SWB as an individual’s affective and cognitive evaluation of their life.

Tellegen et al. (1988) compared levels of SWB for monozygotic and dizygotic twins raised together and raised apart. Their study showed that 40% of the variance in positive emotionality and 55% of the variance in negative emotionality is attributable to genes, whereas, shared familial circumstances account for only 22% and 2% of observed variance, respectively.

McCrae and Costa (1991) have suggested that Agreeableness and Conscientiousness would increase the probability of positive experiences in social and achievement situations, respectively, and this, in turn, is directly related to subjective well-being. On the other hand, openness to experience should lead the person to experience both more positive emotional states and more negative ones. The same authors argue that extraversion has an influence on positive affect, while neuroticism influences negative affect. This has led them to assert that these two basic dimensions of personality lead to positive and negative affect, respectively.
Baumeister et al. (1993) in their study “When Ego Threats Lead to Self-Regulation Failure: Negative Consequences of High Self-Esteem” found that the tendency for people with high self-esteem to make inflated assessments and predictions about themselves carries the risk of making commitments that exceed capabilities, thus leading to failure. Such persons chose their performance contingencies in a framework where larger rewards were linked to a greater risk of failure. In the absence of ego threat, those with high self-esteem showed superior self-regulation. They set appropriate goals and performed effectively. Ego threat, however, caused those with high self-esteem to set inappropriate, risky goals that were beyond their performance capabilities, so they ended up with smaller rewards than the persons with low self-esteem. The results indicated the danger of letting egotistical illusions interfere with self-regulation processes. They concluded that in the absence of ego threat, people with high self-esteem can be quite effective at managing their performance commitments. When there was a full range of options available, they showed a very effective capacity to bet high when they were going to do well and to bet low when they were going to perform badly. In other words, they seemed to know whether they would be able to reach the criterion and could therefore bet accordingly. This exceptional skill at self-management vanished, however, under conditions of ego threat.

Kernis et al. (1993) showed that people with high but unstable (i.e., subject to daily fluctuations) self-esteem reported the highest tendencies toward hostility and anger, whereas, people with stable high self-esteem reported the lowest. They examined the extent to which stability and level of self-esteem predicted cognitive and emotional reactions to interpersonal feedback. Among high self-esteem individuals, instability was associated with acceptance and positive emotions following positive feedback, but with rejection and defensiveness following negative feedback. Among low self-esteem individuals, instability was unrelated to reactions to positive feedback but was related to less defensiveness and greater acceptance of
negative feedback. Researchers tried to find out the extent to which variability and importance of specific self-evaluations were associated with instability of global self-esteem. 

*Bolger and Zuckerman (1995)* presented a framework for studying personality in stress process. The framework specified that personality may affect both exposure and reactivity to stressful events and both processes may explain how personality affects health and psychological outcomes. They also specified that personality differences in reactivity maybe due to differential choice of coping efforts and differential effectiveness of those efforts. In a 14-day daily diary study of 94 students, this framework was used to analyse the links among neuroticism, daily interpersonal conflicts, and distress. Results showed that high neuroticism participants had greater exposure and reactivity to conflicts. Also, high and low neuroticism participants differed both in their choice of coping efforts and in the effectiveness of those efforts.

*Dutton & Brown (1997)* compared people with high and low self-esteem and found that individuals with low levels of self-esteem face stronger emotional disturbances than those with high self-esteem when facing failure, with negative incidents quickly making people with low self-esteem feel horrible, compounded by the fact that they have a higher risk of depression.

*Veenhoven (1997)* defined SWB as a set of affective and cognitive appraisals concerning one’s life including “how good it feels, how well it meets expectations, how desirable it is deemed to be, etc.” Overall, high SWB is comprised of the combination of three specific factors: (1) frequent and intense positive affective states, (2) the relative absence of anxiety and depression, and (3) global life satisfaction.

*Bushman and Baumeister (1998)* measured both simple self-esteem and narcissism in 2 studies and then individual participants were given an opportunity to aggress against someone who had insulted them or praised them or against an innocent third person. Self-esteem
proved irrelevant to aggression. The combination of narcissism and insult led to exceptionally high levels of aggression toward the source of the insult. Neither form of self-regard affected displaced aggression, which was low in general. These findings contradict the popular view that low self-esteem causes aggression and points instead toward threatened egotism as an important cause. It has been widely asserted that low self-esteem causes violence, but laboratory evidence is lacking, and some contrary observations have characterized aggressors as having favourable self-opinions.

DeNeve and Cooper (1998) identified 137 personality traits correlated with SWB constructs, hence, recognizing that the most important traits needed for subjective well-being are difficult to identify. In recent years, the Five-Factor Model or “Big Five” has received most theoretical attention, research, and popularity. Five cardinal traits compose the Five-Factor Model, including extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience. The low pole of each Big Five trait is represented by its corresponding antonym: introversion, emotional stability, spontaneity, assertiveness, and low openness to experience. The meta-analysis done by DeNeve and Cooper (1998) showed the existence of a large number of studies on the relationship between personality and the two dimensions of subjective well-being: affective (positive affect, negative affect and the balance between them) and cognitive (life satisfaction). In terms of the Big Five dimensions, the above mentioned study suggested neuroticism as the most important predictor of negative affect and life satisfaction, while extraversion and agreeableness were identified as the dimensions with the greatest predictive capacity for positive affect.

Self-esteem and personality are likely to share common developmental roots, and examining the personality correlates of self-esteem across the life span might provide insights into the nature of self-esteem and its development. Kendler et al (1998) showed that like personality,
self-esteem is moderately heritable, with about 30% of the variance due to genetic differences.

In a meta-analysis, *Pinquart (1998)* reported a mean observed co-relational coefficient of 0.46 between life satisfaction and happiness, 0.45 between life satisfaction and self-esteem, and 0.31 between self-esteem and happiness.

*MacDonald (2000)* explored the links between basic personality traits and spiritual concerns and behaviours. He identified and described five distinct components: cognitive orientation (perceptions and attitudes regarding spirituality), experiential/phenomenological (mystical, transcendental, and transpersonal experiences), existential well-being (a sense of meaning, purpose, and resilience regarding one’s existence), paranormal beliefs (including ESP and other paranormal phenomena), and religiousness (religious practices). These five components are differentially related to the Big Five personality constructs but are not subsumed by them. In particular, the religiousness and cognitive orientation components were most notably predicted by agreeableness and conscientiousness. Not surprisingly, the experiential/phenomenological and paranormal components were predicted by openness, while existential well-being was strongly predicted by extraversion and low neuroticism.

*Krueger et al. (2001)* found that antisocial behaviour and altruism are distinct, with different origins and correlates. In contrast to the involvement of extraversion in pro-social behaviour, antisocial behaviour was associated with low constraint and negative emotionality (low conscientiousness and neuroticism).

*Robins et al. (2001)* studied the relationship between self-esteem and the Big Five personality dimensions. Data were collected over the Internet from a large heterogeneous sample of individuals who ranged in age from 9 to 90 years. The Big Five accounted for 34% of the variance in self-esteem. High self-esteem individuals were emotionally stable, extraverted, and conscientious and were somewhat agreeable and open to experience.
Keyes et al. (2002) stated subjective well-being (SWB) as evaluation of life in terms of satisfaction and balance between positive and negative affect, whereas, psychological well-being (PWB) entails perception of engagement with existential challenges of life. The authors hypothesized that these research streams are conceptually related but empirically distinct and that combinations of them relate differentially to socio-demographics and personality. Factor analyses of data collected from a national sample of 3,032 Americans aged 25–74 confirmed the related-but-distinct status of SWB and PWB. The probability of optimal well-being (high SWB and PWB) increased as age, education, extraversion, and conscientiousness increased and as neuroticism decreased. Compared with adults with higher SWB than PWB, adults with higher PWB than SWB were younger, had more education, and showed more openness to experience.

Cheng and Furnham (2003) examined the correlations and causes of happiness and depression among adolescents. Personality, self-esteem, ‘aspects of life’, affect, depression, and happiness were all measured by self-report and the data explored through using multiple regression. In all 234 participants (mean age=18.23 years) completed the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, Positive Affect; Negative Affect; and Affect Balance Scale, Beck Depression Inventory, and Oxford Happiness Inventory. Results indicated that extraversion was significantly correlated with positive affect (r=0.27), negative affect (r=-0.22), depression (r=-0.39), and happiness (r=0.45) and neuroticism significantly correlated with positive affect (r=-0.24), negative affect (r=0.35), depression (r=0.53), and happiness to a similar degree (r=-0.43). Self-esteem and relationship with parents had a direct predictive power on happiness and the opposite relationship with depression, whereas, extraversion and neuroticism predicted happiness and depression mediating through self-esteem. Negative self-esteem (recoded and relabelled as sense of self-worth) appears to have no impact on happiness, whereas, positive self-esteem appeared to relate to all aspects of
happiness as well as being a moderator variable for neuroticism, and to a lesser extent extraversion. On the other hand negative and positive self-esteem seemed equally important in predicting factors of depression. Further, for depression, sex also showed direct predictive power suggesting that girls were more likely to suffer from depression than boys. The ‘‘path model’’, which resulted from the analysis, showed clearly the differences in the personality, self-esteem, and demographic predictions of happiness as opposed to depression.

Betton (2004) explored the relationship between psychological well-being and self-esteem, social support, worldview, and spirituality in African American and Caucasian college students. Participants were 262 undergraduate students from a large, predominately white, Midwestern university. African Americans reported higher levels of self-esteem, positive affect, and spirituality while Caucasians reported higher levels of social support. Self-esteem was the best predictor of psychological well-being in Caucasian participants while spirituality was the strongest predictor of well-being in African American respondents.

Walton and Roberts (2004) conducted two studies to test the relationship between substance use and personality. Participants in Study 1 (ND118) completed measures of the Big Five and additional personality inventories and were classified as alcohol and drug abstainers, moderate users, or heavy users based on self-reports of substance use. In Study 2, observer ratings of personality (ND172) were gathered in addition to self-reports (ND545). Across both studies and self and observer ratings, heavy users consistently scored lower than the other groups on measures of conscientiousness, impulse control, and agreeableness. Abstainers scored lower than moderate and heavy users on extraversion.

Gutierrez et al. (2005) examined the association between the Big Five personality dimensions, the most relevant demographic factors (sex, age and relationship status), and subjective well-being. A total of 236 nursing professionals completed the NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) and the Affect-Balance Scale (ABS). Regression analysis showed
personality as one of the most important correlates of subjective well-being, especially through extraversion and neuroticism. There was a positive association between openness to experience and the positive and negative components of affect. Likewise, the most basic demographic variables (sex, age and relationship status) were found to be differentially associated with the different elements of subjective well-being, and the explanation for these associations is highly likely to be found in the links between demographic variables and personality. In the same way, as control of the effect of demographic variables is necessary for isolating the effect of personality on subjective well-being, control of personality should permit more accurate analysis of the role of demographic variables in relation to the subjective well-being construct.

Studies on 368 students by Libran (2006) revealed the personality variable of neuroticism as one of the most important correlates of subjective well-being. According to regression analyses 44% of the variance of SWB was accounted for by neuroticism, whereas only 8% of the variance was explained by extraversion.

Ozer and Martinez (2006) suggested that personality has consequences. Measures of personality have contemporaneous and predictive relations to a variety of important outcomes. Using the Big Five factors as heuristics for organizing the research literature, numerous consequential relations were identified by the authors. They illustrated that personality dispositions were associated with happiness, physical and psychological health, spirituality, and identity at an individual level; associated with quality of relationships with peers, family, and romantic others at an interpersonal level; and associated with occupational choice, satisfaction, and performance, as well as community involvement, criminal activity, and political ideology at a social institutional level.

Joshanloo and Afshari (2009) studied the relationship between the big five personality traits, self-esteem and life satisfaction among 235 Iranian Muslim University students. Among Five
traits of personality, extraversion and neuroticism were found to be strongest predictors of well-being. Self-esteem was found a significant predictor of life satisfaction, even over and above the five big personality traits.

*Kaur (2011)* studied the relationship of well-being with emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem among elementary school teachers. She found that self-esteem was positively correlated with well-being in elementary school teachers. There was a significant interrelationship among well-being, emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem of elementary school teachers in total sample.

*Malkoç (2011)* examined the relationships among big five personality traits, coping styles and subjective well-being in a selected Turkish sample that consisted of 251 undergraduate students. He found that neuroticism was a negative predictor of subjective well-being, whereas, extraversion and conscientiousness were positive predictors of subjective well-being. In addition to this, self-confident coping style was found to predict subjective well-being positively, while, helpless coping style predicted subjective well-being negatively. These results suggested that personality traits and coping styles play significant role in explaining subjective well-being.

*Sood et al. (2012)* studied the relationship between personality traits, spiritual intelligence and well-being in university students. They suggested that conscientiousness should be regarded as main predictor of well-being in university level students. Positive relationship was found between personal meaning production and two factors, namely, agreeableness and neuroticism. Significant relationship appeared between transcendental awareness and openness. Regression analysis revealed that transcendental awareness predicted well-being.

*Tanksale (2014)* empirically examined the relationship between the Big Five personality traits and subjective well-being (SWB) in India. Backward stepwise regression analysis showed that the Big Five traits accounted for 17% of the variance in life satisfaction, 35%
variance in positive affect and 28% variance in negative affect. Conscientiousness emerged as the strongest predictor of life satisfaction. In line with the earlier research findings, neuroticism and extraversion were found to predict negative affect and positive affect, respectively. Openness to experience and agreeableness didn’t contribute to SWB.

To conclude this parameter, it can be said from the literature reviewed that, out of personality characteristics, neuroticism was a negative predictor of subjective well-being, whereas, extraversion and conscientiousness were positive predictors of subjective well-being. It has been found in above studies that self-esteem is positively correlated with subjective well-being of an individual.

2.3 STUDIES PERTAINING TO SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING AND SOCIAL PARAMETERS

Extensive research exists on the correlations of demographic and other environmental factors with happiness. These findings started with Cantril’s (1965) study of 23,875 people in 11 countries, the research of Bradburn (1969) and Campbell et al (1976) in the United States, and Inglehart’s (1990) analysis of Euro-barometer studies of 16 countries with over 163,000 respondents.

Campbell et al. (1976) found that the demographic factors of age, sex, income, race, education, and marital status accounted for less than 20% of the variance in SWB.

Pearlin et al. (1981) showed economic hardship as an important stressor that contributes to low SWB and a diminished self-concept. In a meta-analysis of 85 studies, Witter et al. (1984) reported a mean correlation of 0.17 between income and a variety of well-being measures (life satisfaction, happiness, morale, quality of life, and well-being).

Gove et al. (1985) studied the correlation between marital status and mental health and showed that marital status is the most powerful predictor of the mental health variables
considered. It is the quality of a marriage and not marriage per se that links marriage to positive mental health.

*Rushton et al. (1985)* found that 50% of the variance in altruism, empathy, nurturance and aggression was due to the genes and remaining 50% due to environmental factors in a study of 563 pairs of MZ and DZ twins.

*Osberg et al. (1987)* showed that although education and income are positively correlated, there may be similarities and differences in the effects of these two variables on SWB. Both educational and professional (financial) success is aspects of accomplishments that may contribute to a positive life review. In contrast to education, income may also exert a more direct influence on SWB derived from actual life.

*Diener et al. (1993)* found no differences in hedonic level (pleasant versus unpleasant affect) between groups advancing or declining at least one-half a standard deviation in income over a 10-year period.

*Veenhoven (1994)* later reviewed 603 such studies from 69 countries. They concluded that demographic and environmental factors affect happiness at varying levels, but to a lesser degree than personality.

*Marks (1996)* used data from Wisconsin Longitudinal Study 1992-93 respondents (N=6,876) aged 53-54 to examine gender and marital status differences across several measures of psychological well-being. Multivariate analyses revealed several gender interactions-usually indicating a greater disadvantage for unmarried men than unmarried women. Separate analyses by gender revealed a complex picture of both positive and negative effects of being single. Single women were found to have higher scores on relatively enduring personality characteristics associated with better psychological well-being than married women. Single men did not compare so favourably with married men. Overall, selection did not explain marital status differences. Household income and the likelihood of having a kin confidant
were both positively associated with being married. These factors accounted for some of the remaining marital status effects, but by no means all of the negative effects evident for singles in contrast to married.

Diener and Suh (1998) found external demographic factors, which change across the life span, such as income, health, and social contacts have a surprisingly small effect on SWB. They revealed that from ages 40 to 90, average income and percent of people who are married drop steadily, yet mean levels of life satisfaction remained stable across age groups. Transient factors such as current mood and even current weather conditions affect judgment of life satisfaction (Schwarz and Strack, 1991), however, despite these temporary perceptions; SWB is moderately stable across situations (Diener and Larsen, 1984) and across the life span (Costa and McCrae, 1988; Magnus and Diener, 1991). Hence, as we move through life our goals and needs change but SWB remains somewhat stable.

Argyle (1999) determined that external circumstances account for approximately 15% of the variance in SWB. It is concluded that personal reactions to life’s circumstances are more important than the events themselves and that personality affects our reactions. In fact, personality is one of the strongest and most consistent predictors of subjective well-being.

Diener et al. (2000) found that married individuals consistently reported greater subjective well-being than never-married individuals, who in turn report greater subjective well-being than previously married individuals (i.e., divorced, separated, or widowed). They conducted a study in a sample of 59,169 persons in 42 nations and the relation between marital status and subjective well-being were found to be very similar across the world. Although, cultural variables were found to alter the size of certain relations between marital status and subjective well-being, the effect sizes were very small. Specifically, in terms of life satisfaction, the benefit of marriage over cohabitation was greater in collectivist than in individualist nations. In terms of positive emotions, the benefit of being married over being
divorced or separated was smaller in collectivist than in individualist nations. In addition, in terms of negative emotions, the benefit of being married over being divorced or separated was smaller in nations with a high tolerance for divorce. Finally, the relations between marital status, culture, and subjective well-being did not differ by gender. Because of the small size of the effects of the cultural variables, the authors concluded that the relations between marital status and subjective well-being were very similar across the world.

Relationships between well-being and several aspects of current life circumstances, such as competence, SES, and social network, have been assessed in numerous studies. Pinquart and Sorensen (2000) did the meta-analysis from 286 empirical studies on the association of socioeconomic status (SES), social network, and competence with subjective well-being (SWB) in the elderly. All three aspects of life circumstances are positively associated with SWB. Income is correlated more strongly with well-being than education. The quality of social contacts showed stronger associations with SWB than does the quantity of social contacts; and having contact with friends is more strongly related to SWB than having contact with adult children. There were higher associations between life satisfaction and quality of contact with adult children when compared with quality of friendships. They also found moderating influences of gender and age on the effects of SES, social network, and competence on SWB.

Amato and Sobolewski (2001) found that children in married-parent families are better off than children who are raised in other family configurations. They, in a nationally representative longitudinal study, investigated the effects of marital conflict among married couples on the psychological well-being of their adult children. Marital conflict was associated with lower levels of psychological well-being in adulthood, and the long-term implications for conflict were comparable with those of marital dissolution.
*Shields and Wooden* (2003) found that age exhibited U-shaped relationship with life satisfaction found in multivariate research employing large samples (with life satisfaction lowest at around 44 years for men and 42 years for women). The effects of education on life satisfaction, while relatively small, were negative, possibly the result of high aspirations that have yet to be met. Their study showed levels of life satisfaction were strongly affected by the presence of health conditions and disabilities that limit activity. The results suggested that persons not in employment, but who were actively looking for work (that is, the unemployed), expressed highest levels of dissatisfaction, while the most satisfied were persons who were neither employed nor looking for work (so long as this situation was not the result of poor health). The presence of persons other than immediate family members in the household had predictable effects, with children enhancing satisfaction of men but reducing it for women, and adults enhancing satisfaction of women but not men. They also found that satisfaction levels rise with household income per head, though the magnitudes of the estimated coefficients suggested that the effect was relatively small and that very large increase in income was required to raise life satisfaction scores by even one point on the scale. It was found that homeowners tend to be more satisfied with their lives than renters. Religion tends to be an influence that enhances life satisfaction. More stable home environments, when young (as represented by living with two parents at age 14), were found to be associated with greater levels of life satisfaction.

*Krueger et al.* (2001) reported a male-only study that included 170 pairs of MZ twins and 106 pairs of DZ twins. Although, they found in favour of the 50% genes plus 50% non-shared environment for antisocial behaviour, they found 0% genetic effects for altruism. Instead, all the variance was divided between shared and non-shared environment. They also found a zero correlation between altruism and antisocial behaviour, which loaded on independent dimensions of positive and negative emotionality.
Helliwell and Putnam (2004) showed that frequent interactions with friends and neighbours are tightly associated with higher subjective well-being.

Kasser & Kanner (2004) in their study “Psychology and consumer culture: The struggle for a good life in a materialistic world” found people, who are heavily invested in the importance of money and material possessions, tend to feel less satisfied with their lives and experience less positive affect and more negative affect.

Park et al. (2004) investigated the relationship between various character strengths and life satisfaction among 5,299 adults from three internet samples using the Values in Action Inventory of Strengths. The results showed that parameters which are consistently and robustly associated with life satisfaction were hope, zest, gratitude, love, and curiosity. Only weakly associated with life satisfaction, in contrast, were modesty and the intellectual strengths of appreciation of beauty, creativity, judgment, and love of learning. In general, the relationship between character strengths and life satisfaction was monotonic; indicating that excess on any one character’s strength does not diminish life satisfaction.

Mroczek and Spiro (2005) found that although there were significant individual differences, life satisfaction actually increased from age 40 to 65, before declining only close to impending death. In terms of well-being, longitudinal and cross-sectional data showed that positive affect slightly decreases with old age, and yet so does negative affect.

Bierman et al. (2006) took a multifaceted approach to examine the reasons for the well noted mental health advantage of the married. The researchers tried to examine the impact of socioeconomic resources and psychosocial resources on the mental health by comparing the consistently married to different types of unmarried individuals, as well as the remarried. The researchers found that even though the consistently married generally fare better than all the other groups, the reasons for this advantage not only varied by category of marital status but also, for any specific group, these reasons are sometimes varied depending on the aspect of
mental health being examined. This study demonstrated that, although, both types of resources help to explain the consistently married higher sense of purpose in life when compared to the widowed, socioeconomic resources have a considerably greater power in explaining this difference.

*Biswas-Diener and Diener (2006)* found that well-being in the homeless is predictably low; however, pavement dwellers in Calcutta show higher levels of life satisfaction than homeless groups in the United States, despite the better access to food, clean water, medical care, opportunities for employment, and adequate shelter available in the United States. In addition, low-income respondents in the United States report higher negative affect and lower life satisfaction than their counterparts in Denmark.

*Stutzer and Frey (2006)* studied the causal relationships between marriage and subjective well-being in a longitudinal data set spanning 17 years. They found evidence that happier singles opt more likely for marriage and that there are large differences in the benefits from marriage between couples. Potential, as well as actual, division of labour seems to contribute to spouses’ well-being, especially for women and when there is a young family to raise. In contrast, large differences in the partners’ educational level have a negative effect on experienced life satisfaction.

*Blanchflower and Oswald (2007)* explored the idea that happiness and psychological well-being are U-shaped in age. The main difficulty with this argument is that there are likely to be omitted cohort effects (earlier generations may have been born in, say, particularly good or bad times). By using data on 500,000 randomly sampled Americans and West Europeans, they designed a test that controls for cohort effects. A robust U-shape was found. Ceteris paribus, a typical individual’s well-being reaches its minimum – on both sides of the Atlantic and for both males and females – in middle age. They demonstrated this with a quadratic structure and non-parametric forms. Some evidence was presented for a U-shape in
developing countries and the East European nations. Using measures that were closer to psychiatric scores, they documented a comparable well-being curve across the life course in two other data sets: (i) in GHQ-N6 mental health levels for a sample of 16,000 Europeans, and (ii) in reported depression and anxiety among approximately 1 million U.K. citizens. They also documented occasional apparent exceptions, particularly in developing nations, to the U-shape. Their results were based on regression equations in which other influences, such as demographic variables and income, are held constant.

Clark (2009) showed that unemployment had a consistent and unequivocally negative impact on subjective well-being. He showed that people do not adapt to unemployment the way the hedonic treadmill theory might suggest (for men especially, the third year of unemployment is just as difficult as the first), and this finding is confirmed by other studies that suggested that while individuals do recover somewhat after the initial strong reaction to unemployment, they never return to their former baseline levels of satisfaction, even after re-employment. Importantly, these results indicated that even a short period of unemployment can cause a permanent alteration in a person’s long-term happiness set-point. However, comparison effects may alleviate some of the decline in subjective well-being associated with unemployment, as evidenced by the fact that living in an economically depressed area, where unemployment levels are high for everyone, significantly increases the well-being of unemployed individuals.

Studies of Diener et al. (2009) regarding the relation between income and well-being revealed that money has a positive, yet diminishing, effect as it grows in size. While, increased income significantly affects well-being for those living at the poverty level or in underdeveloped nations, the strength of the link between wealth and life satisfaction decreases at higher levels of income, showing what economists call “declining marginal utility”. This effect has been shown in a variety of studies, one showing that the wealthiest
Americans experience only slightly higher subjective well-being than the average American, and that 37% of these wealthy individuals actually experience lower subjective well-being than the average American.

_Qing-guo and his co-workers (2010)_ presented a paper at International Conference on Management Science & Engineering (17th), Melbourne, Australia regarding the relationship between Subjective Well-being, Personality and Environmental Satisfaction in Urban China. Data were collected from white-collar workers across four Chinese cities in 2009 to examine the influence of environmental satisfaction, job satisfaction, and Big Five personality traits on subjective well-being. All the research variables were measured with multi-item instruments with good psychometric properties. The researchers found that environmental satisfaction, job satisfaction, conscientiousness and extraversion have a positive effect on subjective well-being. In addition, individuals married, managers and working in state sector were found to be happier in their lives than individuals who are single, in non-managerial position and in private sector. However, the researchers found no relationship between neuroticism, agreeableness and subjective well-being. The finding of a positive relationship between environmental satisfaction and subjective well-being suggested that by pursuing a balance between economic development and environmental protection, urban residents SWB could be enhanced.

To sum up the relation between social factors and SWB, many researchers found that demographic factors of age, sex, income, race, education, and marital status accounted for a lesser degree of the variance, about 20%, in SWB of an individual.

### 2.4 STUDIES PERTAINING TO SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING OF CONVICTS

Subjective Well-Being (SWB) is the well-being as declared by a person; hence, it is a measure of a person’s well-being that incorporates all life events, aspirations, achievements,
failures, emotions and relations of human beings, as well as their neighbouring cultural and moral environment.

In an analysis of self-ratings from 850 pairs of high school MZ and DZ twins of both sexes, Loehlin & Nichols (1976) found 40% heritabilities for both males and females for clusters labelled argumentative, family quarrel and kind. Matthews et al. (1981) found 72% heritability for a self-report adjective checklist measure of empathy of 114 MZ and 116 DZ middle-aged male twins.

Another factor that affects subjective well-being is coping strategies. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) studied and defined coping as “constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person”. Coping can be done in different ways and therefore there are different strategies, such as self-confident, seeking social support, optimistic, submissive and helpless. Since coping strategies deals with problems it is no surprise to see that coping styles influence subjective well-being.

Basic temperamental characteristics, rooted largely in genetic differences, influence people’s behavioural tendencies as well as their affective feelings about what kind of persons they are. Watson & Clark (1984) showed that individuals with a temperamentally low threshold for the experience of negative affect tend to feel negatively about themselves. Veenhoven (1984) stated that subjective well-being can only be measured on the basis of a person’s answer to a direct question about her well-being; there is no room for speculation based on a person’s possessions, facial expressions, or either extrinsic behaviour.

Biggam and Power (1997) explored the relation between social support and psychological distress in a sample of 125 incarcerated young offenders. The average number of important relationships both within and outside the prison environment was quite high at 7.0, with most identifying their immediate family as a source of support. Overall, those inmates with higher
levels of psychological distress were viewed as more deficient in terms of social support, and a greater discrepancy in actual/ideal levels of social support from prison staff were the main predictors of distress. These findings suggest that the type of support, and in particular perceived deficiencies in support, may be more influential on mental health outcomes for prisoner samples than the size of the support group.

Clement and Schonnesson (1998) found that coping strategies accounted for 53% of life satisfaction. They also mentioned that ineffective coping styles (e.g. helplessness/self-blaming) had insignificant effect on subjective well-being. Nevertheless, feelings of adequacy and high self-confidence active and self-confident strategies for coping promote psychological well-being.

Khurana and Dhar (2000) in their research on inmates of Tihar Jail, Delhi studied the effect of Vipassana Meditation on quality of life, subjective well-being, and criminal propensity among convicts. They found that the level of criminal propensity came down and that of subjective well-being went up after the inmates attended the Vipassana meditation courses. According to them, the hard life in the prison seriously affects the quality of life and subjective well-being of the criminals in the prison.

Gaes et al (2000) conducted the meta-analysis of adult correctional treatment. They found (consistent with other meta-analyses of interventions) that most correctional programs work modestly well, although diverse design flaws created some uncertainty about results. They also reported that on average behavioural/cognitive treatments produced larger effects than education, vocational training, or prison labour programs. This implies that the medical/mental problems of prisoners should be addressed first, before seeking to train them for work.

Huebner et al., (2000) in their studies examining associations between psychopathology and subjective well-being have revealed sizeable, negative relationships between adolescents’ life
satisfaction and their concurrent and later levels of internalizing disorders such as depression and anxiety. With respect to externalizing behaviour, low life satisfaction has been linked with behaviours that constitute delinquency (e.g., school dropout, substance use), aggression (e.g., fighting, carrying a weapon), and conduct disorder among elementary and middle school students.

Although social integration has consistently been linked to mental well-being among the general population, this relationship has not been explored for persons confined in total institutions. Jails, in particular, represent unique conditions that have the potential to alter the traditional relationship between social ties and mental health. Lindquist (2000) conducted a study on “Social Integration and Mental Well-Being among Jail Inmates”. He found that social ties maintained by jail inmates outside and inside of the institution were commonly presumed to weaken some of the adverse effects of a stressful environment and positively influence mental health. The current study explored the impact of social integration on mental well-being among 198 male and female inmates incarcerated in a large county jail. The impact of marital status, parental status, and social support (both inside and outside of the jail) on various dimensions of mental health was examined. The results indicated that rather than promoting mental well-being, social relationships inside and outside of the institution were associated with higher levels of distress. Specifically, married inmates reported higher levels of depression and anxiety, and inmates with close social relationships inside of the jail reported higher levels of hostility, although gender differences in these patterns were evident. The results of this study suggested that social integration may play a different role for persons incarcerated in total institutions than among the general population due to the unique conditions of social stigmatization and separation from support networks.

Wells (2000) showed that there is a possibility of education as a method of creating a favourable change in incarcerated individuals in his study on “Education as Prison Reforms”.

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He tried to explore the relationships between educational variables and post release behaviour of criminal offenders. The findings suggested the positive relationship between education and recidivism. The results showed that criminological grounded variable such as, education, income, and the social bond, previously applied to predict, can then be ultimately applied to prevent continuation of an already existing criminal career. The end result can be applied to policy development that will aid in a reduction of prison population.

*Valois et al. (2001)* examined the relationship between violent behaviours and perceived life satisfaction among adolescents. They found carrying a weapon; carrying a gun; carrying a weapon at school; physical fighting; physical fighting at school; physical fighting that required physician treatment; drinking and driving; riding with a drinking driver; having property stolen/damaged at school; feeling unsafe while at, going to or returning from school; and being injured/threatened with a weapon, associated \((p < .05)\) with reduced life satisfaction for high school adolescents. However, it should be noted that the socioeconomic status (SES) of the participants was not measured, thus race effects may have been confounded by SES effects in this particular study. *Zullig et al., (2001)* found similar results in case of high school students in their research on relationship between perceived life satisfaction and adolescent substance abuse.

*Petersilia (2003)* stated that recidivism is associated with the term re-entry, which is the process of releasing prisoners into society defined as: “How we plan for inmates’ transition to free living including how they spend their time during confinement, the process by which they are released and how they are supervised after release-is critical to public safety”. Re-entry is often termed reintegration since it includes the preparation of the family, community and, victim for the prisoner’s release.

*Kaur (2004)* conducted a study on education and psycho-social correlates of life satisfaction of convicted women. From her study, she concluded that there is no impact of age and
education on the convicted women whereas personality and family environment has significant impact on life satisfaction of convicted women. She found that majority of convicted women (61.07%) have average level of life satisfaction. Results suggested that separated, divorcee and married convicted women were more satisfied from their life than widow and unmarried convicted women. 

La Vigne et al (2004) reported that about half (48%, n = 205) of the male participants interviewed between four and eight months after their release indicated that they had no close friends. For those who did report a close friendship, a large number of the friends identified had been in prison (40%) or had participated in criminal activity. Despite the fact that many ex-prisoners live with family members upon release, social isolation has been described as a ‘core experience’ of many ex-prisoners as a result of homelessness or unstable, unsuitable housing.

McKean and Ransford, (2004) estimated that about two-thirds of inmates were re-incarcerated in the three years following their release in United States. They stated that the United States is in the midst of a crisis with regards to criminal recidivism. Recidivism can be specifically defined as the relapse of an individual into criminal activity based upon re-arrests for new offenses that lead to incarceration. Recidivism threatens public safety and is damaging to the communities in which these prisoners reside. In addition, to the threat of crime, tax dollars are spent in arresting, prosecuting, and incarcerating re-offenders, when it could be spent on effective programs to aid prisoners. It is a vicious cycle in which the communities become devastated as well as the families of these offenders.

Wiebe (2004) reported that low agreeableness and low conscientiousness predict criminal acts in college student and in prison samples. He also found that self-deception and/or other deception may importantly attenuate the ability to predict criminal acts from self-reported personality traits.
MacDonald et al. (2005) studied the relationship between life satisfaction, risk-taking behaviours, and youth violence using data from a stratified cluster sample of 5,414 public high school students who responded to the South Carolina youth risk behaviour survey. The study examined the relationship between adolescents’ perceptions of life satisfaction, behavioural risky acts, and self-reported acts of violence. Analyses indicated that higher levels of life satisfaction were associated with lower violence. Participation in work and involvement in health-related risk-taking behaviours pertaining to sex, drugs, and alcohol are also associated with increased violence.

Olweus (2005) stated that sense of belonging to school and positive peer relations are important factors for students to have terminal and positive behaviour, positive peer relation have meaningful relation with student's social, emotional and mental well-being and sustaining it. According to this, it can be said that students who have enough satisfaction from school life perform less delinquency. Life-satisfaction has critical importance in the emergence of important behavioural output. Gilman and Huebner (2006) in their study, regarding characteristics of adolescents, who report very high life satisfaction, have stated that adolescent with high life satisfaction have more positive relations with their peers and parents, more positive attitude towards school and teachers. Moreover, Valois et al. (2006) showed that there is significant relationship between bearing gun, bringing gun to school, getting in a fight, drunk driving, committing theft at school, vandalizing and low life-satisfaction. Their study also demonstrated a meaningful linkage between two distinct adolescent health research literatures: the health-risk behaviour literature and the quality-of-life (life satisfaction) literature. Furthermore, this study demonstrated the importance of two contextual factors as moderators of the relationships between life satisfaction and specific types of violent behaviours.
Harreveld et al. (2007) conducted a study on 30 male inmates of two correctional facilities in the Netherlands and found a relationship between coping strategies of inmates and their psychological and physical well-being. They found that inmates who experienced specific negative emotions such as regret, anxiety, and sadness reported more psychological and physical complaints than the inmates who used an active emotion-focused coping strategy by sharing negative emotions with people in one’s social network.

Winnick and Bodkin (2008) studied the anticipated stigma and stigma management among those to be labelled “ex-con”. 450 male prisoners estimated public reaction to the label “ex-con” and endorsed likely stigma management strategies. Although most anticipate significant rejection, they prefer preventive telling to withdrawal and secrecy as adjustments.

Bulut (2010) stated that adolescents who have low family life satisfaction perform more delinquency compared to those who have high family life satisfaction. It can be expected that life-satisfaction of adolescents, who have satisfaction in family relations, meet with positive models, have effective communication and feel himself supported mentally and socially, would increase and perform less delinquency.

Smedema et al. (2010) presented data indicating the effect of coping strategies on subjective well-being. Again, the investigation examined the effect of different kinds of coping styles on subjective well-being.

Helliwell (2011) conducted a case study of Singapore prison: Institutions as enablers of well-being. He illustrated how private and public institutions can change their structures or operations in ways that improve the social contexts in which people meet, move, work, play and live. Prisons are frequently considered schools for criminals rather than creators of well-being. Thus, they provide a tough test for institutional changes intended to improve well-being. Since 1998 the Singapore Prison Service has converted its prisons into schools for life, thereby improving the lives of inmates, prison staff and the community at large. In so doing,
the Prison Service exemplified five key lessons from subjective well-being research: the importance of social context, benevolence, trust, building positive outcomes, and top-to-bottom engagement in a shared purpose. By any measure, the results have been impressive, ranging from a one-third drop in recidivism to improved staff morale and better social connections between prisons and the rest of society.

Tomar (2013) studied the psychological effects of incarceration on inmates. She found that many prisoners ended up having adverse psychological effects like dissatisfaction with life, depression, feelings of panic, stress, diminished sense of self-worth and personal value etc.

On the basis of above studies, it is evident that low life satisfaction and crime is directly related. Various studies on psychological effects of imprisonment on inmates is low self-worth, dissatisfaction with life, depression, low self-esteem and low life satisfaction. Researches showed that the level of criminal propensity came down and that of subjective well-being went up after the inmates attended certain meditation courses and correctional courses, thereby reducing the chances of recidivism. However, it is clear that the hard life in the prison seriously affects the quality of life and subjective well-being of the criminals in the prison.

2.5 OVERVIEW

On the perusal of all above studies conducted during last three to three and a half decades, it is evident that there is some sort of relationship between psychological factors namely personality characteristics and self-esteem with subjective well-being of an individual. It has been found in many studies that the same factor which lowers ones subjective well-being are somewhere related with various causes of crime.
Similar results have been presented by researchers linking the effect of social parameters like disorganised marriage, family environment, education, and employment etc. on subjective well-being of offenders.

Since the dawn of civilization great thinkers have discussed the quality of human existence and “the good life.” To some individuals the ideal state is one of wealth, to others, having significant relationships, while some others report that helping those in need is important for them. These individuals vary in external circumstances, yet they may share a subjective feeling of well-being. SWB is the psychological term for “happiness” and is preferred due to the many connotations of the latter term. Within the literature, the terms are used interchangeably. SWB researchers explore the full range of psychological well-being such that focus is upon factors that keep one from being depressed and factors that lead one to becoming elated. This trend is not surprising because happiness and life satisfaction are major goals for almost all the people. Emphasis is placed on understanding the processes which underlie happiness, in turn; people’s goals, coping efforts, and dispositions are studied. From the above review of literature it is clear that there is interaction of one’s personality, personal goals, and available resources which affects SWB and this highlights the relative importance of these variables across the life span. Our desires and resources to accomplish our goals of life change from time to time and offer insight into the roles these domains play in subjective well-being. A significant proportion of stable SWB is due to our personality type. François La Rochefoucauld stated that “happiness and misery depend as much on temperament as on fortune.” Researches also support this notion that pleasant or unpleasant emotions, and life satisfaction vary more in accordance with the temperament than life circumstances or momentary factors.

As many nations of the world enter an era of post materialism, in which basic survival needs are met, interests have grown to study SWB and for the policymakers of most of the
countries, it is a matter of great concern. Continued research into SWB may ultimately answer the question of what composes the “good life.” Subjective well-being is composed of several major components, including global life satisfaction, contentment with specific life domains, the presence of frequent positive affect (pleasant moods and emotions), and a relative absence of negative affect (unpleasant moods and emotions). The major components are reduced into more specific elements. Positive affect is commonly divided into joy, elation, contentment, pride, affection, happiness and ecstasy. Negative affect is separated into guilt, shame, sadness, anxiety, worry, anger, stress, depression, and envy. Life satisfaction is categorized by satisfaction with current life, satisfaction with past, satisfaction with future, significant contributions of other’s views in one’s life, and desire to change life for better. Domain satisfaction is composed of work, family, leisure, health, finances, self, and one’s own group in which he or she is. From the literature, it is found that there must be a robust relationship between well-being, personality factors and self-esteem.

Studies regarding convicts suggested a very high rate of recidivism. Recidivism is the relapse into criminal activity and is generally measured by a former prisoner’s return to prison for a new offense. Rates of recidivism reflect the degree to which released inmates have been rehabilitated and the role correctional programs are playing in reintegrating prisoners into society. A high rate of recidivism shows that offenders are obviously not prepared in prison for integration into society, as they have not been provided with effective programs to assist them in constructing a positive approach for their life upon release. This is really threatening and alarming to public safety and the well-being of whole of the society. Inadequate and ineffective re-entry programs and policies contributed to the high recidivism rate. It is important that persons who have committed crimes must be punished according to the law and imprisoned for a period of time, but it is even more important and should be remembered
that they are very important part of society and after their release they have to behave like a responsible human being and good citizen.

There is a need to have more effective ways of supervising ex-offenders and reintegrating them into the community. Reducing the recidivism rate is an achievable goal, but not without the proper investments in programs directed toward the reduction of the problem. Although, some efforts are being done by various countries but virtually no systematic, comprehensive attention has been paid by anyone, not even policy makers, to deal with people after they are released, to an issue that has been termed prisoner re-entry in India. Successful programs need to address the fact that inmates and former offenders are a diverse population, and a large proportion face multiple barriers to self-sufficiency like low levels of education, lack of employment experience, physical and mental health problems, low well-being and lack of stable housing. Therefore, solutions to the problem of recidivism are multifaceted. Thus, a range of programs inside and outside prison are necessary to prepare inmates for release, to support them in their efforts to find and retain employment and attain self-sufficiency and help them in their successful return to the community. This coordinated approach geared towards building and supporting self-sufficiency is necessary for reducing the likelihood of former offenders becoming involved in criminal activity again. In nutshell, incarceration has been a revolving door for a large proportion of the offender population, in part because the prison population has serious mental and medical problems that make normal lives difficult and that are why they do not give adequate weight to the well-being of others.

There has been little research done in examining how the emotional state and well-being of prisoners can change following prison release and scant attention to the factors that are associated with and may contribute to depression, anxiety, anger and low well-being among ex-prisoners especially in India. The present study is attempted to examine the psycho-social
correlates of subjective well-being among convicts. Hence, hypothesis formulation in the study is made in the light of above findings.

2.6 HYPOTHESES


2. Well-being of convicts will differ significantly with high and low level of Self-Esteem.

3. Well-being of convicts will relate significantly with different social variables like age (young vs. old), sex (male vs. female), type (joint vs. nuclear family) and size (small vs. large family) of family, marital status (married vs. unmarried, divorcee, and widow), educational status (educated vs. uneducated) and employment status (employed vs. unemployed).