DISCUSSION

The primary aim of the present investigation was to study the relationship of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction in adolescents with Perceived Happiness, Perceived Health Status, Perceived Parental Bonding, Stress dimensions viz Stress Symptoms, Life Event Stress, Academic Stress and its dimensions, Coping Styles, Family Conflict and its dimensions and Academic Achievement. For this purpose, a sample of 400 students (200 males and 200 females) in the age range of 16 -18 years were taken. In addition, gender differences in Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and its correlates were also investigated. Male and female adolescents were compared on the measures of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and its dimensions, Perceived Happiness, Perceived Health Status, Perceived Parental Bonding, Stress dimensions viz Stress Symptoms, Life Event Stress, Academic Stress and its dimensions, Coping Styles, Family Conflict and its dimensions and Academic Achievement.

To assess the Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction of adolescents, Multidimensional Student Life Satisfaction Scale developed by Huebner (1994) was used. It measures six dimensions viz Family Satisfaction, Friends’ Satisfaction, Living Environment Satisfaction, School Satisfaction, Self Satisfaction and Overall Satisfaction.

Perceived Happiness was measured on 11 point self -rating scale and Perceived Health Status was also measured on 11 point self -rating scale.

Perceived Parental Bonding was measured using Perceived Parental Bonding Instrument developed by Parker et al. (1979). It has two dimensions which includes Perceived Parental Care and Perceived Parental Overprotection.

To measure Stress, the Stress Symptoms Rating Scale developed by Heilbrun and Pepe (1985) was used. In addition to this, Life Event Stress scale by Albuquerque et al.(1990) was used to measure Stress among
Discussion
adolescents. For measuring Academic Stress and its four dimensions viz Personal Inadequacy, Fear of Failure, Interpersonal Difficulties and Inadequate Study Facilities, Academic Stress Questionnaire (Rajendran and Kaliappan, 1990) was used.

The Coping Styles Inventory by Carver et al. (1989) was used to measure three types of Coping viz Task Focused Coping, Emotions Focused Coping and Avoidance Coping.

To measure Family Conflict, Family Conflicts Scale (Lee et al. 2000) was used. It measures six dimensions Family Conflict Likelihood, Family Conflict Seriousness, Mother Conflict Likelihood, Mother Conflict Seriousness, Father Conflict Likelihood and Father Conflict Seriousness. Academic Achievement was assessed by taking average scores of the last two years final examination scores.

The sample comprised of 400 adolescents (200 males and 200 females) from various schools in the tricity viz. Chandigarh, Panchkula and Mohali. The age range of the subjects was 16-18 years. All the subjects were explained about the nature and aim of the investigation and informed consent was obtained before they were enlisted as subjects.

The raw scores consisted of scores on all the above mentioned variables viz Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and its dimensions, Perceived Happiness, Perceived Health Status, Perceived Parental Bonding, Stress dimensions viz Stress Symptoms, Life Event Stress, Academic Stress and its dimensions, Coping Styles, Family Conflict and its dimensions and Academic Achievement.

The raw scores were analyzed using appropriate statistical techniques viz Means, Standard deviations, t-ratios, Correlational analysis and Regression analysis.

Table 1 shows means, standard deviations of the total sample. Table 2 shows means, standard deviations of the male adolescents, Table 3 shows means, standard deviations of the female adolescents, Table 4 shows means, standard deviations and t-ratios comparing male and female adolescents. Table 5 shows the intercorrelation matrix for total sample.
Discussion

6 shows the intercorrelation matrix for male adolescents, Table 7 shows the intercorrelation matrix for female adolescents. Table 8 shows regression analysis for the total sample for the criterion variable of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction. Table 9 shows regression analysis for male adolescents for the criterion variable of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction. Table 10 shows regression analysis for female adolescents for the criterion variable of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction. Table 11 shows the regression equation for the total adolescents for the criterion variable of Academic Stress. Table 12 shows the regression equation for male adolescents for the criterion variable of Academic Stress. Table 13 shows the regression equation for female adolescents for the criterion variable of Academic Stress. Table 14 shows the regression analysis for the total adolescents for the criterion variable of Stress Symptoms. Table 15 shows the regression analysis for the male adolescents for the criterion variable of Stress Symptoms. Table 16 shows the regression equation for the female adolescents for the criterion variable of Stress symptoms. Table-17 shows the regression analysis for the total adolescents for the criterion variable of Perceived Happiness. Table 18 shows the regression analysis for the male adolescents for the criterion variable of Perceived Happiness. Table 19 shows the regression equation for the female adolescents for the criterion variable of Perceived Happiness.

A. Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction, Perceived Happiness and Perceived Health Status

It was hypothesized that Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and its dimensions among adolescents were expected to be positively related with Perceived Happiness and Perceived Health Status. A glance at the inter-correlation tables (5, 6, 7) revealed that Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was positively related with Perceived Happiness among the total sample of adolescents, male and female adolescents. No significant relationship emerged between Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and Perceived Health Status.

A further perusal of the intercorrelation tables revealed that Family Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was positively related with Perceived Happiness among total sample of adolescents. School
Discussion

Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was positively related with Perceived Happiness among males. Living Environment Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was positively related with Perceived Happiness total sample. Self-Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was positively related with Perceived Happiness in case of total sample and male adolescents.

Regression analysis tables (8-10) revealed that for the criterion of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction, Perceived Happiness emerged as significant predictor in case of total sample and male adolescents, and Perceived Health Status emerged as a significant predictor in female adolescents.

Life Satisfaction was not found to be related to Health status. Hypothesis was upheld for Life Satisfaction and Happiness only. Some of the earlier studies also revealed similar relation between Perceived Happiness and Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction.

A longitudinal study by Newcomb et al. (1986) revealed causal links between alcohol use and specific life satisfaction domains (self, peer relationships, future life opportunities, and globally-perceived environment), but reserved its conclusions strictly for alcohol. This study followed adolescents from grades seven through nine into early adulthood (four years later, aged 19–22 years), and found that alcohol use in grades seven through nine was associated with dissatisfaction with peers and their perceived environment. Furthermore, Newcomb et al. (1986) found that alcohol use in grades seven through nine did not directly affect later dissatisfaction with future opportunities; however, early dissatisfaction caused a direct, but small increase, in young adult alcohol use (aged 19–22 years). For the same time period (grades seven through nine into early adulthood, four years later), these adolescents reported better satisfaction regarding themselves and their relationships with their parents, but lower satisfaction regarding their life pursuits and opportunities as young adults when compared with their adolescent years.
Verkuyten (1986) conducted a study to find the impact of ethnic and sex differences on happiness among adolescents in the Netherlands. Interviews were conducted with 261 residents of Rotterdam whose ages ranged from 13 to 16 years. The sample contained 104 Dutch adolescents and 157 ethnic minority adolescents who had immigrated mainly from Turkey, Surinam, and Morocco. Fifty-six percent of the respondents were females with approximately the same sex distribution characterizing each of the ethnic groups. In summation, the emergent pattern of findings provided no empirical support for the conceptual distinction between generalized life satisfaction and hedonic affect. Minority status, however, defined in terms of ethnicity or sex, was associated with lower levels of happiness as assessed by either type of measure in this sample of adolescents. They found Life satisfaction to be positively correlated with positive hedonic affect.

Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) issued a call for a science of positive psychology to complement psychology's historical emphasis on psychopathological conditions. Theory and measurement related to optimal well-being require adaptive constructs and measures that tap the presence of personal strengths, not just the absence of psychopathological symptoms. The life satisfaction construct fulfills this requirement as it incorporated the full range of satisfaction. The relationship between life dissatisfaction and a diagnosis of psychopathology was not found to be concordant. For example, a person may be dissatisfied with her/his life without showing psychopathological symptoms, which may be adaptive given the experience of highly undesirable environmental circumstances (Greenspoon and Saklofske, 2001). Studies have also suggested that life satisfaction judgments operate not just as a byproduct of particular life experiences and personal characteristics, but that Life satisfaction judgments also in turn influence crucial processes and behaviors. The importance of maintaining positive levels of subjective well-being has been articulated by Frederickson (1998). She provides evidence that positive subjective experiences serve to broaden and build resources, regulate negative affective experiences, and protect health.
Valois et al. (1999) reported that dissatisfaction with life among adolescents could be associated with other health risk behaviors such as sexual risk-taking, violence, aggression, suicide ideation, dieting and physical activity behaviors, among others.

Natvig et al. (2003) pointed out that the concept of health contains aspects of social and mental well-being and not just the absence of disease. The concept of well-being is sometimes used interchangeably with the term happiness, although focus has been on other aspects as well. Natvig et al. (2003) explored the associations between happiness and experience of stress at school, personal and social factors among 887 Norwegian school adolescents participating in a World Health Organization project on health-promoting schools. Happiness was measured by a one item question (ordered responses one–four). The psychosocial factors were represented by an average score of three–twelve items. Odds ratios of feeling very/quite happy were calculated in multiple logistic regression analyses. They found that an increasing degree of stress experienced reduces the feeling of happiness significantly. Furthermore, increasing levels of general self-efficacy increased the odds of feeling happy, whereas the more specific measure of school self-efficacy showed no independent effect. Social support from teachers also enhanced happiness significantly. A less consistent pattern was found for support from peers, but the most happy pupils experienced significantly more support than pupils who reported being unhappy. No significant trend was found with decision control. They also explored associations between happiness and psychosomatic symptoms. Pupils feeling unhappy reported a particular symptom more often and they also had the highest mean number of reported symptoms like headache, stomachache, backache, feeling dizzy, feeling low, irritability, feeling nervous and sleepness. They gave strategies that aimed at promoting interpersonal relationships and reducing or coping with stress experience in the school environment that prevent illness as well as promote general well-being and health.

Several studies conducted by Valois et al. (2003) showed significant linkages between perceived life dissatisfaction and unfavourable adolescent health behavior. Low Life Satisfaction has even been shown to predict mental
health problems, such as depression, anxiety, and somatoform disorders as well as suicide.

Huebner (2004) conducted research on assessment of Life Satisfaction of children and adolescents using multidimensional measures and found that the global life satisfaction ratings of adolescent students with mild mental disabilities did not differ from those of normal adolescents.

Peterson et al. (2005) investigated different orientations to happiness and their association with life satisfaction with 845 adults responding to Internet surveys. They measured life satisfaction and the endorsement of three different ways to be happy: through pleasure, through engagement, and through meaning. Each of these three orientations individually predicted life satisfaction. People simultaneously low on all three orientations reported especially low life satisfaction.

Zullig et al. (2005) reported that, although both physical and mental health status were found to be associated with Quality of Life in adolescents. This association was found to be stronger for mental health status.

Easterlin (2006) found that good health, growth in income, work, parenthood and especially union formation were likely to increase the level of well-being in young adulthood. He also found that, at a later point in the life course, well-being started to decrease because of declining health and a reduced amount of economical resources.

A study by Zullig et al. (2006) about the relationships between spirituality/religiosity, life satisfaction and self-rated health in college students indicated that self-rated health mediated the relationships between spirituality, religiosity and life satisfaction.

Demir and Weitekamp (2007) investigated the relationship between personality, number of friends, best friendship quality and happiness among 423 young adults (n = 300 women). There main interest was to examine whether friendship contributed to happiness while controlling for personality. Friendship variables accounted for 58% of the variance in happiness. Results revealed that friendship quality predicted happiness above and beyond the influence of personality and number of friends, but friendship conflict was not
Discussion

A significant predictor. Additional analyses revealed that the companionship and self-validation features of friendship quality were predictive of happiness while controlling for gender and personality.

The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions (Fredrickson and Cohn, 2008) proposed that positive emotions are evolved adaptations that function to build lasting resources. Unlike negative emotions, which narrow attention, cognition, and physiology toward coping with an immediate threat or problem (Carver, 2003), positive emotions produce novel and broad-ranging thoughts and actions that are usually not critical to one’s immediate safety, well-being, or survival. Over time, however, these novel experiences aggregate into consequential resources that can change people’s lives. Positive emotions forecast valued outcomes such as health, wealth, and longevity because they help build the resources to get there. The broaden-and-build theory concerns the special and distinct role played by positive emotions: Momentary experiences of positive emotions fuel growth and change over time, helping build resources. As the broaden-and-build theory predicts, participants who experienced frequent positive emotions became more satisfied not simply because they were enjoying themselves, but because they built resources that help deal with a wide range of life’s challenges. Daily positive emotions predicted growth in ego resilience, a psychological resource that has proven useful in dealing with both mild and severe stressors.

Gilman et al. (2008) reported that Life satisfaction is not simply a by-product of life circumstances but can influence and/or moderate subsequent emotions, cognitions, and behaviors. Adolescent life satisfaction reports have been shown to predict depression, externalizing behaviors, treatment outcomes and interpersonal difficulties (Suldo and Huebner, 2006; Martin, 2007). Paralleling findings among adults adolescent life satisfaction thus appears to be a necessary, although not entirely sufficient component of positive mental health and is the construct of interest in this study (Diener, 2000).

According to Cohn et al. (2009), Happiness is a composite of life satisfaction, coping resources, and positive emotions predicts desirable life
outcomes in many domains. The broaden-and-build theory suggested that this is because positive emotions help people build lasting resources. To test this hypothesis, they measured emotions daily for one month in a sample of students (N = 86) and assessed life satisfaction and trait resilience at the beginning and end of the month. They reported that positive emotions increases both resilience and Life satisfaction and negative emotions had weak or null effects and did not interfere with the benefits of positive emotions. Positive emotions also mediated the relation between baseline and final resilience, but life satisfaction did not. They suggested that it is in-the-moment positive emotions, and not more general positive evaluations of one’s life, that form the link between happiness and desirable life outcomes. They concluded that change in resilience mediated the relation between positive emotions and increased life satisfaction, suggesting that happy people become more satisfied not simply because they feel better but because they develop resources for living well.

Cohn et al. (2009) further reported that when a person is experiencing positive emotions like Happiness to meet life’s challenges and opportunities, global life satisfaction can rise. Positive emotions, consistent with their role in grief and stress recovery remained a positive predictor no matter how intense negative emotions became. They asserted that Positive emotions were the better predictor of whether people built important resources and became more satisfied with their lives, and these benefits persisted even in the midst of negative emotions. Positive emotions are a powerful source of growth and change, predicting both individuals’ judgments about life and their skills for living well. Cohn et al. (2009) found that positive emotions (Happiness) and ego resilience were associated with rising life satisfaction, but life satisfaction itself is static and does not contribute to its own positive feedback loop. In other words, it is not sufficient to appreciate or approve of one’s life in a general way; lived experiences such as joy and interest are what start the process of exploring, learning, connecting, and ultimately building new resources. Those resources can later improve one’s life, offering up new opportunities for enjoyment and resource building.
Chaplin (2009) examined children’s and adolescents’ Happiness, providing an empirical investigation to answer the question, “What makes children and adolescents happy?” He explored this question in two studies with a total of 300 participants aged 8–18. Study one asked participants to answer the open-ended question, “What makes me happy?” There were five emergent themes—“people and pets,” “achievements,” “material things,” “hobbies,” and “sports.” Study two also asked participants to answer the question, “What makes me happy?”, but uses two different measures (a semi-structured thought listing task and a collage task). Using three different happiness measures, he found consistent age differences in what children perceive to make them happy. He found that 3rd graders reported hobbies, people and pets contributed the most to their happiness, while 7th/8th graders reported material things and people and pets, and 11th/12th graders reported achievements as well as people and pets. They concluded that family and friends satisfaction to be strongly correlated with children’s life satisfaction. They found gender differences on sources of happiness. Boys reported sports more frequently than girls, while girls reported more achievements, people, pets, more material things than boys as predictors of their Happiness.

Sawatzky et al. (2009) in their investigation of the relationships between Spirituality, Health Status and Quality of Life in adolescents examined the relationships between spirituality-related attributes and quality of life (QOL) in adolescents. They also investigated the extent to which these relationships are mediated by perceived physical and mental health status and five important life domains (family, friends, living environment, school experiences, and perception of self). They obtained data via a cross-sectional health survey of 8,225 adolescents in British Columbia. All spiritual attributes viz existential and experiential pursuits, religious or spiritual values and beliefs were significantly associated with three or more of the life domains, and four of the attributes (“viz belief of real purpose in life, trouble feeling peace of mind, good feel about future, No real meaning in my life”) significantly explained global QOL after controlling for the other variables in the multivariate model. The attributes indicative of adolescents’ feelings about their future and other existential matters were found to be relatively most
Discussion

Explanatory with respect to global QOL. The predominant mediators included adolescents’ satisfaction with their family, their perceived self, and their perceived mental health status. They found Spirituality as the important with respect to adolescents’ QOL. The multivariate model provided preliminary insights into the relevance of several attributes of spirituality, as these attributes are indicative of existential matters that were found to be relatively most explanatory with respect to global QOL. Their associations with global QOL were predominantly mediated by adolescents’ satisfaction with their family, their perceived self, and their perceived mental health status and indicated that the attributes of spirituality did not correspond in a homogenous way to the other variables in the model. Using this approach, they found that, although about half of the adolescents agree or strongly agree that spiritual/religious beliefs are a source of great comfort, these spiritual/religious beliefs did not contribute significantly to global QOL when existential considerations were taken into account and when controlling for other domains of life experiences and perceived physical and mental health status. They asserted that Health status has the potential to contribute to adolescents’ QOL, and there are other aspects of life, often referred to as life domains, that are relevant to adolescents’ QOL.

Bourne et al. (2010) aimed to fill the gap in the literature by examining life satisfaction, health status, and happiness in order to ascertain whether they were equivalent concepts in Jamaica as well as the coverage of the estimates. They used a cross-sectional survey of 2000 men 55 years and older from the parish of St. Catherine. A 132-item questionnaire was used to collect the data. The instrument was sub-divided into general demographic profile of the sample, past and current good Health Status, health-seeking behavior, retirement status, social and functional status. Ordinal logistic regression techniques were utilized to examine determinants of happiness, life satisfaction and health status. They found happiness and life satisfaction to be determinants of each other, neither of the two variables was found to be correlated with health status.

Kwan (2010) conducted a study to investigate Life Satisfaction and self-assessed health among adolescents in Hong Kong. He used four item the
Health related quality of life scale to measure overall health, physical health, mental health, and activity limitation. He used the Brief multidimensional students' life satisfaction scale to assess Life Satisfaction in six domains viz overall life, family life, friendships, school experience, the author himself, and place of residence. He examined among 4,502 Chinese adolescent secondary school students in Hong Kong. He found that relative to the US adolescents in youth risk behavior survey the Hong Kong adolescents had very low levels of self-assessed health and life satisfaction. Among the different domains; family and school life were associated with the lowest satisfaction level. There were strong male advantages in self-assessed health and migrant disadvantages in life satisfaction.

Proctor et al. (2010) investigated the characteristics of adolescents reporting very high levels of life satisfaction. Participants (N = 410) were divided into three life satisfaction groups: very high (top 10%), average (middle 25%), and very low (lowest 10%). Results revealed that adolescents with very high levels of life satisfaction reported significantly higher mean scores on all measures of school (school satisfaction, academic aspirations, academic achievement, attitude to education), inter-personal (parental relations, peer relations, social acceptance), and intrapersonal variables (life meaning, gratitude, aspirations, self-esteem, happiness, positive affect, healthy lifestyle) than adolescents reporting very low levels of life satisfaction. Life meaning, gratitude, self-esteem, and positive affect were found to have a significantly more positive influence on global life satisfaction for the very unhappy than the very happy. Findings suggested that very unhappy youths would benefit most from focused interventions aimed at boosting those variables having the most influence on their level of life satisfaction.

Fave et al. (2011) attempted to make a distinction between “happiness” as a construct empirically evaluated through qualitative and quantitative assessments, and “well-being” as a broader umbrella construct, that may have different meanings in different theoretical perspectives and that includes happiness. The dichotomization of well-being into hedonic and eudaimonic perspectives has raised a fruitful debate within positive psychology, thus allowing scholars to bring some clarity into a domain which
is still evolving and integrating previous works whilst also adding new insights. However, happiness and well-being are often used as synonyms, and this can generate ambiguities in the effort of defining these terms therefore Fave et al. (2011) developed and illustrated a new project developed by a cross-country team of researchers, with the aim of studying the hedonic and eudaimonic components of happiness through a mixed method approach combining both qualitative and quantitative analyses. The Eudaimonic and Hedonic Happiness Investigation (EHHI) project, attempts to explore qualitative aspects of happiness, described as an emotion consistent with the hedonic perspective and as a long-term process of growth and self-actualization related to meaning making consistent with the eudaimonic perspective, as well as a quantitative evaluation of the degree of happiness and meaningfulness experienced in various life domains. Data were collected from 666 participants in Australia, Croatia, Germany, Italy, Portugal, Spain, and South Africa. A major aim of the study was to examine definitions and experiences of happiness using open-ended questions. Among the components of well-being traditionally associated with the eudaimonic approach, meaning in particular was explored in terms of constituents, relevance, and subjective experience. The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) was also administered to quantitatively assess the hedonic dimension of happiness. Results showed that happiness was primarily defined as a condition of psychological balance and harmony. Among the different life domains, family and social relations were prominently associated with happiness and meaningfulness. The quantitative analyses highlighted the relationship between happiness, meaningfulness, and satisfaction with life, as well as the different and complementary contributions of each component to well-being. Correlations between happiness ratings across life domains and overall life satisfaction ranged from .20 to .47, the common variance between life satisfaction and these variables did not exceed 22%. The overall levels of happiness (assessed through the item “Life in General”) and life satisfaction shared only 30% of common variance. The correlations of life satisfaction with levels of meaningfulness in the different life domains were even lower, the highest correlation being detected for meaningfulness of Family (r = .25). Lower correlations between life satisfaction and meaningfulness (compared to
happiness) may partly be explained by ceiling effects for some domains (Health and Family). Life satisfaction accounted for 6.25% of variance at most (Family), and for only 2.85% of the overall meaningfulness (Life in General). A hierarchical regression analysis explaining life satisfaction was performed, with domain specific happiness levels entered in the first step, and domain specific meaningfulness entered in the second step. It showed that the variance in life satisfaction was largely contributed by happiness rather than by meaningfulness. The correlation and regression analyses highlighted some discrepancies between ratings of happiness, meaningfulness, and the widely explored construct of satisfaction with life. In particular, happiness and meaningfulness assessments explained only 38% of life satisfaction variance, suggesting that 62% of life satisfaction was explained by some other factors. Fave et al. (2011) concluded that well-being was prominently pursued and found in meaning and feelings confined to the home environment or to a close circle of friends. Community and Social issues were less valued as targets of resource investment.

B. Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and Parental Bonding

It was hypothesized that Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and its dimensions were expected to be positively related with Caring dimension of Parental Bonding and negatively related with Overprotection dimension of Parental Bonding.

A glance at the intercorrelation tables (5, 6, 7) revealed that Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was positively related with Caring dimension of Parental Bonding among total sample, male and female adolescents and negatively related with Overprotection dimension of Parental Bonding among total sample, male and female adolescents, thus upholding the hypothesis.

Intercorrelation tables further revealed that Family Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was positively related with Care dimension of Parental Bonding in total sample, male and female adolescents. Friends' Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was also positively related with Care dimension of Parental
Discussion

Bonding in total sample and female adolescents. **School Satisfaction** domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was positively related with Care dimension of Parental Bonding in total sample and with female adolescents. **Self-Satisfaction** domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was positively related with Care dimension of Parental Bonding in total sample of adolescents and male adolescents.

Intercorrelation tables further revealed that Family Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was negatively related with Overprotection dimension of Parental Bonding among total sample, male and female adolescents. Friends' Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was negatively related with Overprotection dimension of Parental Bonding among total sample. School Satisfaction and Self Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction were negatively related with Overprotection dimension of Parental Bonding in total sample of adolescents and male adolescents.

Regression analysis tables (8-10) revealed that for the criterion of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction, Perceived Parental Care emerged as significant predictor among total sample, male and female adolescents and Perceived Parental Overprotection emerged as significant negative predictor in male adolescents only.

**Some of the earlier studies also revealed similar trends.**

Many studies highlighted the fact that parents occupy a key position in the well-being and performance of adolescents. Parents play a significant role, whether this concerns the development of identity, a positive self-image, life satisfaction, social competence and other skills, or emotional problems (psychological stress, depression and problem behavior *(Leung and Leung, 1992; Wenk et al., 1994, Lasko et al., 1996)*). The positive effects of the parental bond on young adults and adult children have not been studied exhaustively, but the available data revealed that the parental bond remains of considerable importance. Some of these studies show that the quality of the parental bond has positive psychological effects when viewed longitudinally. Whilst examining the literature, it becomes apparent that in the
Discussion

various stages of life the influence of the parents on the self-image and psychological well-being of their children bears more weight than that of peers (Amato, 1994; Burge et al., 1997). Early investigations of the association between parent-child relations and adolescent well-being focused on parental support. Attachment is a theoretically rich and empirically validated model for the study of the parent-child relationship, and it has been suggested that it serves as a model for all close relationships (Hazan and Shaver, 1987, 1994). First described by Bowlby (1958), attachment behavior consists of proximity seeking, where the infant seeks closeness to the attachment figure, safe haven, where the infant seeks security in times of perceived danger or distress, and the secure base phenomenon, in which the infant explores his or her environment independent of the caregiver. It is believed that the attachment system is fully organized by the second year of life and that children construct complex internal working models, or mental representations, of the world, the persons in it, and the self (Bretherton, 1992). Attachment relationships operate throughout the lifespan, although they change in form, becoming more reciprocal as individuals mature. Longitudinal studies have indicated that children with histories of secure attachment patterns are more competent, self-confident, and socially skilled than anxiously attached children (Elicker et al., 1992). Individual attachment patterns relate to peer and romantic relationships in adolescence, and attachment security is correlated with social competence and interpersonal functioning (Allen and Land, 1999). Similarly, Older adolescents’ and college students’ security of attachment to parents is correlated with emotional functioning, social competence, a smoother balance of autonomy and attachment, and life satisfaction ( Cotterell, 1992; Paterson et al., 1994). Adult attachment behavior is also linked to social functioning, with insecurely attached individuals having more interpersonal difficulties (Cowell et al., 1999).

Armsden and Greenberg (1987) reported that parent-adolescent relationships characterized by secure mutual attachments and high emotional closeness are related to positive adolescent psychological outcomes, whereas insecure parent-adolescent attachments and less emotional
closeness have been predictive of negative psychological outcomes among adolescents.

Ainsworth (1989) proposed attachment theory, which focuses on the perceived quality of the attachment between parents and their children (Ainsworth, 1989), asserts that parents’ provision of consistent and responsive caregiving leads to healthy parent–child relationships characterized by a sense of trust and competence (Cassidy and Shaver, 1999). According to attachment theory, both positive connections to parents and support for autonomy are particularly crucial for psychological growth and healthy functioning in adolescence (Pfeil, 2001). Thus, attachment bonds are viewed as vital resources in the context of adolescents’ development of non-parental interpersonal relationships, as well as factors in the development of effective coping skills to manage developmental and psychological challenges (Kenny and Rice, 1995).

Coleman (1992) contended that the role model function of parents in such areas as sexual relationships or attitudes toward work depends in part on adolescent-parent relationships that are emotionally positive in nature. Furthermore, adolescents who reported greater intimacy with their parents were also found to report higher self-satisfaction, happiness with self and less depression (Lasko et al., 1996), and to be more positively adjusted and resilient. Most studies of the parental bond cover a limited age range. Even though the bond may remain reasonably strong and stable, according to some studies there is usually a relative deterioration in the early and middle phases of adolescence whereas other studies report an improvement in late adolescence and early adulthood (Herman-Stahl and Peterson, 1996).

Barber et al. (1994) found parental psychological control (the opposite of psychological autonomy granting) was highly correlated with children’s internalizing problems, while parental behavioral control (i.e., strictness-supervision) had a strong relationship with externalizing problems. This pattern was confirmed in the study conducted by Barber et al. (1994) as direct links between supervision-externalizing behavior and autonomy granting-internalizing behavior were indicated. Nevertheless, the relative magnitude of these associations decreased each time adolescent Life
Satisfaction (Life Satisfaction) was included as a mediator variable. Therefore, the current study revealed that Life Satisfaction partially intervenes in the strong relationships between these parent and child behaviors; Life Satisfaction provides a partial pathway by which supervision and autonomy granting relate to problematic behavior. Thus, other potential subjective well-being mechanisms may need to be investigated to fully account for these pathways.

**Dew and Huebner’s (1994)** research with American adolescents found that perceived quality of relationships with parents was the strongest predictor of their Life Satisfaction, proving more important than perceived physical appearance, general self-concept, and peer relations.

**Taris and Semin (1995)** suggested that children who experience lack of warmth, love and attention from their parents may develop problem behaviours, including smoking, drug abuse, delinquency, and having underage sex which are indicative of poor Life Satisfaction.

**Young and colleagues (1995)** examined the differential impact of three types of social support on adolescent well-being and found that intrinsic support (i.e., the child’s perception that the parent loves, appreciates, and cares about him or her) correlates more strongly with adolescents’ Life Satisfaction than extrinsic support (i.e., monetary support and physical contact) or closeness (i.e., the child’s perceived emotional bond to the parent). Prior to the twenty-first century, the only direct examination of the influence of specific authoritative parenting behaviors on adolescent well-being operationalized “well-being” as low scores on a depression inventory (**McFarlane et al., 1995**). This preliminary study revealed that adolescent reports of parental care were negatively correlated with depression scores, whereas parental over-protection was positively related to depressive symptoms.

**Taris and Bok (1996)** asserted that many bonding-related behaviours of the parent can be assigned to one of two broad dimensions: one of care/involvement versus indifference/rejection (including behaviours and attitudes of care, affection, sensitivity, cooperation, accessibility, and the like),
and one of control/overprotection versus encouragement of independence (behaviours and attitudes like strictness, intrusiveness, control, and overprotection (Grolnick et al., 1991; Gottfried et al., 1994). Taris and Bok (1996) further examined two parenting styles (the degree to which parents provided an overly protective environment, and a warm and loving environment) and their relation to educational achievement. They collected data on the educational careers of 986 Dutch adults aged 18-30 years both retrospectively and longitudinally. The hypotheses were tested using structural equation modelling. They found that respondents who felt that their parents provided a warm and loving upbringing dropped out less frequently than others while having had overprotective parents was associated with a lower level of education when leaving full-time education, even after controlling other variables. Warm and loving parenting styles were also found to be associated with school satisfaction.

According to Cummings et al. (2000), Parental warmth might form an important context for the interrelationships among marital hostility, parents’ depressive affect, triangulation, and adolescent problem behavior. In particular, parental warmth might buffer the associations between parents’ marital hostility and adolescent problem behavior. Theoretically, parental warmth is an important variable within some family systems because it represents the emotional climate of the family and potentially contextualizes the interpretation of parental behavior (Darling and Steinberg, 1993). By using a cognitive-contextual framework, Grych and Fincham (1990) proposed that children who have warm relationships with parents perceive marital hostility as less threatening both to their own safety and to the stability of the family system itself. Empirical studies have found that youths who report warm relationships with parents interpret parental conflicts as less physically threatening.

In a study, Leung and Zhang (2000) with youth in Hong Kong found that the quality of the parent-child relationship was a stronger predictor of Life Satisfaction than the quality of relationships between adolescents and their same-age friends or school experiences.
Wei et al. (2000) pointed that generally adolescents have a good relationship with their parents. This has been confirmed by studies from various countries over the years. Adolescents appear to seek peer-like relationships with their parents, and many count their parents among their best friends. Even though the bond may remain reasonably strong and stable, according to some studies there is usually a relative deterioration in the early and middle phases of adolescence whereas other studies report an improvement in late adolescence and early adulthood (Wei, 1994; Thornton et al., 1995). Wei et al. (2000) investigated changes in the parental bond and the well-being of adolescents and young adults. It was a longitudinal study among youngsters in the age of 12 to 24 (their ages varying between 15 and 27 when assessed for the second time 3 years later). In total, 1688 adolescents/young adults (730 boys and 958 girls) participated. They found a curvilinear development pattern in the bond between daughters and their parents. Over a period of 3 years, a change in the parental bond proved to correspond to a parallel change in the psychological well-being (operationalized as general well-being, psychological stress, and suicidal thoughts) of the young people studied. This connection does not become weaker as the adolescents/young adults grow older. This showed that parents continue to be significant for the psychological functioning of their upgrowing children, which is also apparent in other studies. They concluded that adolescents and young adults maintain a rather good and reasonably stable relationship with their parents. Parents proved to be of lasting importance for the psychological well-being of their upgrowing children, daughters in particular.

Seibel and Johnson, (2001) reported that the more adolescents perceive their parents as monitoring their activities, providing them with emotional and instrumental support, and encouraging them to express individuality and think independently, the higher their Life Satisfaction is likely to be. This finding was found to be unique to adolescence, as research with young adults demonstrated that only parental acceptance provided unique contributions to college students' Life Satisfaction.
Gonzalez et al. (2002) found that authoritative parenting fosters adolescents’ positive wellbeing and enhances learning goals.

Ben-Zur (2003) investigated the associations of personal and parental factors with subjective well-being (SWB) in adolescents on the basis of two studies. The first included 97 university students and 185 adolescents who completed questionnaires measuring perceived mastery, dispositional optimism, and affect used as a measure of SWB. Correlations and hierarchical regression analyses showed mastery and optimism to be negatively associated with negative affect (NA) and positively associated with positive affect (PA). Demographic variables was found to have no relation to PA and NA except for gender, with female adolescents showing higher levels of NA than males. The second study included 121 adolescents and their parents who completed questionnaires measuring mastery, optimism, SWB indicators, and assessments by the adolescents of their relationships with their parents. The associations of the adolescents’ mastery and optimism with SWB measures were positive and were similar to those found in the first study. Positive correlations were found between the adolescents’ and their parents’ SWB (especially with their father’s), but no significant associations were observed between adolescents’ and parents’ mastery and optimism. However, adolescents’ mastery and optimism was found to be related to positive relationships with parents. The results highlighted the importance of mastery, optimism, and positive adolescent–parent relationships in contributing to the well-being of adolescents.

In a study, Kumpfer and Alvarado (2003) hypothesized that effective parenting is the most powerful way to reduce adolescent problem behaviors. For this purpose they reviewed two federal studies that involved national searches for effective family interventions targeting pre-birth to adolescence, preventing substance abuse among children and adolescents. They identified 3 effective prevention approaches, 13 principles of effectiveness, and 35 programs and concluded that probability of a youth acquiring developmental problems increases rapidly as risk factors such as family conflict, lack of parent–child bonding, disorganization, ineffective parenting, stressors, parental depression, and others increase in comparison with protective or
resilience factors. Kumpfer and Alvarado (2003) suggested that major protective family factors for improving adolescent health behaviors include positive parent–child relationships, positive discipline methods, monitoring and supervision, and communication of pro-social and healthy family values and expectations.

Rogers et al. (2003) reported that Parental psychological control may inhibit the development of positive mental health or coping resources in adolescents. Conceptually speaking, parental psychological control can be regarded as a stressor that affects the emotional life of an adolescent and in turn affects the life satisfaction of an adolescent. They found that Psychological well-being was lowest among youth with parents who exerted high psychological control.

Nickerson and Nagle (2004) examined the influence of parent and peer attachments on life satisfaction in middle childhood and early adolescence. Three hundred three students, evenly distributed across sex and grade (fourth, sixth, and eighth) were administered People in my life, a measure of attachment relationships and the Multidimensional students' life satisfaction scale. They found that children and early adolescents were generally high on levels of life satisfaction and found that the majority of the sample reported being least satisfied with school, and most satisfied with friends. They found females reporting greater satisfaction with school than males and found school satisfaction and satisfaction with families decrease as grade increased. The overall picture that emerged regarding life satisfaction is that adolescents, compared to younger children, are less satisfied with their schools and families. Nickerson and Nagle (2004) further reported that positive aspects of the parent and peer relationships, such as trust and communication, were highly correlated with children’s overall life satisfaction. In addition, alienation from parents and peers was negatively correlated with life satisfaction, as was peer delinquency. They reported that both peer and parent attachments failed to predict school satisfaction for fourth graders and only parent attachment predicted satisfaction for sixth graders. However, both parent and peer attachments predicted school satisfaction for eighth graders. This suggested that as children progress in school, peers take on increasing
importance while parental influences continue to be important in shaping school satisfaction. Satisfaction with living environment was predicted by both parent and peer attachments. Collectively, satisfaction with various aspects of life was predicted by parent and peer attachment relationships. They supported the notion that preadolescents can differentiate among specific domains in their lives and that multidimensional assessment models provide a rich picture of this phenomenon (Huebner et al., 1998). Across domains, parent and peer trust were particularly important predictor variables, suggesting that loyalty, trust, and commitment in these relationships contribute to life satisfaction for children and adolescents. Alienation, especially from peers, was also a salient predictor of dissatisfaction with school and living environment, implying that peer rejection and loneliness may be threats to well-being at this age. Finally, peer delinquency was inversely related to satisfaction both with families and school, which was consistent with delinquency literature positing a relationship between family process variables, school interest and achievement, and deviant behavior (Vazsonyi and Flannery, 1997). They contented that Parent and peer attachments predicted satisfaction with various aspects of life.

Research examining environmental factors associated with adolescents’ life satisfaction (LS) has revealed that familial variables (parent-child conflict, family structure) are crucial correlates. Suldo and Huebner (2004) identified particular dimensions of authoritative parenting (strictness-supervision, social support/involvement, and psychological autonomy granting) that are related to Life Satisfaction during early, middle, and late adolescence, as well as to explore the hypothesis that Life Satisfaction serves as a mediator between authoritative parenting and adolescent internalizing and externalizing behavior. A sample of 1201 middle and high school students completed self-report measures assessing these constructs. The results indicated statistically significant relationships between each authoritative parenting dimension and adolescent Life Satisfaction. Although all three parenting dimensions were positively related to Life Satisfaction, perceived parental social support emerged as the strongest correlate. They found important developmental differences, including the finding that the association
between parenting behaviors and adolescents’ Life Satisfaction changes as children aged. Last, they found that Life Satisfaction fully mediate the relationship between social support and adolescent problem behavior and partially mediated relationships between the remaining authoritative parenting dimensions (strictness-supervision, psychological autonomy granting) and maladaptive adolescent behavior. They found that the influence of social support on Life Satisfaction decreased from early to late adolescence. In other words, whether or not a parent provided resources and a comforting relationship made less of a difference to older adolescents than to younger adolescents. In contrast, associations between Life Satisfaction and both parental strictness-supervision and psychological autonomy granting remained relatively constant across adolescence. Although supervision decreased across developmental levels and autonomy granting increased, the extent to which these parenting behaviors related to Life Satisfaction was invariant.

Milevsky et al. (2007) examined variations in adolescent adjustment as a function of maternal and paternal parenting styles and its associations with Self-esteem, Depression and Life-Satisfaction. Participants included 272 students in grades 9 and 11 from a public high school in a metropolitan area of the Northeastern US. Participants completed measures of maternal and paternal parenting styles and indices of psychological adjustment. They found authoritative mothering to be related to higher self-esteem and life-satisfaction and to lower depression. Paternal parenting styles was also found to be related with psychological adjustment and the advantage of authoritative mothering over permissive mothering was evident for all outcomes assessed, for paternal styles the advantage was less defined and only evident for depression. There findings indicated that parenting practices are related to well-being in adolescents.

Individual Psychology’s Parenting Model, based on Adlerian theory, suggests that an autocratic parenting style may not be effective because it implies a superior/inferior relationship between parent and child. This approach to child rearing fails to produce responsibility in children. Furthermore, permissive parenting is potentially harmful for children because
it fails to give them a sense of personal achievement. A democratic parenting style was suggested as the most ideal for psychological adjustment because behavioral compliance and psychological autonomy are viewed as interdependent objectives (Gfroerer et al. 2004).

Baril et al. (2007) examined the link between adolescent well-being, marital love and coparenting in a sample of 177 two-parent families with first born adolescents by using annual home interview data from mothers, fathers, and adolescents. With a path-analytic approach and with earlier problem behaviors controlled for, coparenting conflict predicted relative increase in adolescent risky behavior over two years. They gave evidence for two types of mediation. Marital love mediated the link between adolescents’ early risky behavior and coparenting one year later, and coparenting conflict mediated the link between marital love and adolescents’ risky behavior one year later. They suggested that coparenting conflict is indeed an important family process for families with adolescents and parents’ perceptions of coparenting have important implications for adolescent well-being.

Shek (2007) conducted a longitudinal study on perceived parental psychological control and psychological well-being in Chinese adolescents in Hongkong. On two occasions separated by one year, Chinese adolescents (N = 2,758) responded to instruments measuring their perceived parental psychological control and psychological well-being, including hopelessness, mastery, life satisfaction, and self-esteem. Pearson correlation analyses revealed that perceived parental psychological control was concurrently related to adolescent psychological well-being at Time 1 and Time 2. Multiple regression analyses demonstrated that the relationships between perceived parental psychological control and adolescent psychological well-being over time were bidirectional in nature. He found the differential contribution of paternal and maternal psychological control to adolescent psychological well-being over time. Paternal psychological control at Time 1 predicted changes in adolescent life satisfaction at Time 2, particularly for adolescent girls. On the other hand, maternal psychological control at Time 1 predicted changes in adolescent self-esteem at Time 2. He said that relative to those conditions in which one or none of the adolescents’ parents was perceived to display high
psychological control at Time 1, the psychological well-being of adolescents at Time 2 was poorer under the condition in which both parents were perceived to display high levels of psychological control at Time 1. They discussed the influence of psychological control on adolescent development in the existing models of parenting. In the early review of Becker (1964), it was observed that neurotic and internalizing problems in children occurred because of restrictiveness and hostility in parenting. Maccoby and Martin (1983) further suggested that the authoritarian–autocratic type of parenting (parenting with demanding but unresponsive characteristics) would result in negative child development, including lack of social competence, lack of spontaneity, external moral orientation, low motivation for intellectual performance, low self-esteem, and external locus of control. Empirically, there are research studies showing that psychological control is closely linked to adolescent psychological well-being. Barber (2002) presented research findings showing that psychological control impairs the development of children and influences adolescent psychological well-being over time. They revealed that parental psychological control predicted adolescent psychological well-being over time, an observation that is consistent with the previous longitudinal studies (Rogers et al. 2003). However, adolescent psychological well-being predicted psychological control and their changes over time, which indicates that the association between interpersonal factors and well-being is bidirectional.

Some research findings have also shown associations between psychological control and adolescent internalizing and mood problems: Krishnakumar et al. (2003) reported that psychological control was related to internalizing problem behavior in children. Shek and Lee (2005) reported that higher parental psychological control was related to higher adolescent hopelessness. Furthermore, there are also studies revealing that psychological control was related to externalizing behavior: Finkenauer, et al. (2005) found that parental psychological control predicted adolescent delinquency. Olsen et al. (2002) demonstrated that psychological control predicted externalized child problems.

Putnick et al. (2008) assesses whether the stresses associated with parenting a child are indirectly related to adolescent self-concept through
parenting behaviors. They examined longitudinal associations among mothers’ and fathers’ parenting stress at age 10, children’s perceptions of parenting at age 10, and adolescents’ self-concept at age 14 in 120 European American families. They found mothers’ and fathers’ parenting stress was related to children’s perceptions of acceptance and psychologically controlling behavior (and lax control for fathers) was related to adolescent self-concept. They further examined which domains of parenting stress and perceived parenting behaviors were associated with adolescents’ scholastic competence, social acceptance, physical appearance, and behavioral conduct. Parenting stress was related to specific parenting behaviors, which were, in turn, related to specific domains of self-concept in adolescence. Parenting stress appears to exert its effects on early adolescent self-concept indirectly through perceived parenting behavior.

Hafen and Laursen (2009) examined longitudinal associations between adolescent adjustment and perceived parental support across the middle-school years (aged 11 to 13) in a diverse sample of 197 girls and 116 boys. Growth curve models identified associations between adjustment problems and perceived parental support across the early adolescent years. They found strong associations between the slopes of internalizing and externalizing symptoms and the slopes of maternal and paternal support such that changes in adjustment problems accompanied changes in parent support. In addition, initial levels of mother and child reports of adolescent externalizing symptoms predicted subsequent changes in perceived support from mothers and fathers, but mother and child reports of parent support did not predict changes in adolescent externalizing. They suggested that child problems drive changes in the quality of parent–adolescent relationships but that parent support does not drive changes in early adolescent behavior problems. The literature on parental monitoring and adolescent behavior problems illustrated the pitfalls that confront scholars of parent–child influence. Parent-driven models indicate that parental monitoring reduces later problem behavior (Pettit et al. 1999), whereas child-driven models indicate that monitoring declines in response to youth behavior problems (Simons et al. 2001). The much smaller longitudinal literature on parent
support and adolescent adjustment suffers from similar limitations. Parent-driven models indicate that high levels of parental support predicted declines in adolescent depressive symptoms and decreased the odds that adolescents would follow an elevated depression trajectory (Brendgen et al. 2005), although these associations tend to disappear when other parenting variables are simultaneously considered (Rogers et al. 2003). Not all of these studies examined externalizing, but there was no evidence that support predicted changes in externalizing among those that did. Bidirectional models indicate that adolescent reports of externalizing symptoms predict subsequent adolescent perceptions of parental support, but initial parent support does not predict externalizing symptoms 1 year later (Huh et al. 2006). Unfortunately, the latter findings were not replicated when parent reports of adolescent externalizing symptoms replaced adolescent reports, raising the prospect of artifactual results driven by shared-reporter variance. In each case, estimates of effects were inflated by correlations between the slopes of support and the slopes of adjustment, an essential omission in light of recent reports that changes in children well-being are strongly associated with concurrent changes in the perceived quality of parent-child relationships (Galambos et al. 2006).

Keijzers et al. (2010) examined reciprocal effects between parental solicitation, parental control, adolescent disclosure, and adolescent delinquency in 289 adolescents (150 females and 139 males, modal age 14) and both parents. Parental solicitation and control did not predict adolescent delinquency, but adolescents’ who commit delinquent acts hide more information from their parents indicating decreased family communication and opportunities for parents to give advice, control and influence the child’s behavior. In addition, delinquency predicted less disclosure. Furthermore, maternal solicitation predicted disclosure and adolescent disclosure predicted parental solicitation. All relations held after controlling for leisure time spent with parents and with peers. These longitudinal findings showed an overlap in the development of parental solicitation and the development of adolescent disclosure, but also showed that only adolescent disclosure is negatively related to delinquency over time.
Oberle et al. (2010) asserted that the course, pace, and direction of development during the adolescent years is influenced by relationships between the individual and his or her context. Developmental systems theory views human development as a bidirectional, individual-context relational process with multiple individual factors and different levels of organization within the social ecology, and underscores the plasticity of human development (Theokas and Lerner 2006). As posited by Theokas et al. (2005), “Instead of anticipating and trying to fix or prevent problems, this new paradigm considers the strengths, competencies, and contributions that youth can make, and ways to align these strengths with resources and supports in the environment to maximize healthy development of individuals and society.” Fostering adaptive regulation between the individual and the multiple contexts of development (family, peer group, school, community) can be an important step to increase the likelihood of positive development and thriving (Lerner et al. 2010). Indeed, several recent studies have shown that supportive families, schools, peer groups, and communities are important for positive development and well-being during early adolescence (Li et al. 2010); Because early adolescents interact in ever widening social environments, shifting their focus from the family to the peer group, and relationships in the school and community context (Eccles and Roeser 2009), the external environment becomes increasingly important during this time. Accordingly, research on positive adaptation and competence indicates that dimensions in the external environment, such as caring and supportive caretakers, a sense of belonging to school, friendships with prosocial peers, and living in a neighborhood that supports families and children, are core assets that serve protective and promotive functions that direct youth on positive developmental trajectories (Wright and Masten 2005). Past research has identified life satisfaction as a positive indicator of several dimensions of well-being in youth (Proctor et al. 2009), such as positive personality characteristics, health and psychopathology, life events, social relationships, and living environments. Gilman and Huebner (2003) found that high levels of life satisfaction were positively related to interpersonal relations, positive relationships with parents, and hope, and negatively related to depressive symptoms, anxiety, and a negative attitude towards school and teachers.
Furthermore, a positive relationship has been found between perceived parental support and life satisfaction in adolescence (Valois et al. 2009). The consistency of these findings revealing a positive connection between youths’ satisfaction with life and important positive relationships as well as developmental characteristics, aligns with previous findings in adult populations (Diener and Diener 2009).

Parents’ perceived parental Self-efficacy (PSE) plays a pivotal role in promoting their children’s successful adjustment. Steca et al. (2011) compared psychosocial adaptation in children of parents with high and low Parents’ Self-efficacy beliefs during adolescence. One hundred and thirty Italian teenagers (55 males and 75 females) and one of their parents (101 mothers and 29 fathers) participated in the research. Data were collected at time 1 (T1), when adolescents were around 13 years old, and at time 2 (T2), when adolescents were around 17 years old. Academic self-efficacy beliefs was measured. Parents reported their PSE at time one. At time one and time two, adolescents reported their perceived academic self-efficacy, aggressive and violent conducts, well-being, and perceived quality of their relationships with parents. At time two, using Experience Sampling Method their quality of experience in daily life was also assessed. They found adolescents with high PSE parents reported higher competence, freedom and well-being in learning activities as well as in family and peer interactions.

According to Yamawaki et al. (2011), Japanese young adults today are at increased risk for psychiatric disorders. Given that the presence of mental illness early in life increases the risk of further depressive episodes in later life and that psychiatric disorders are associated with college attrition rates and academic performance, investigating the mechanisms contributing to college students’ mental health is crucial. Yamawaki et al. (2011) explored the mediating roles of self-esteem and life satisfaction in the relationship between parental bonding and general mental health among Japanese young adults. Six-hundred-eighty-two undergraduates (358 women and 324 men) completed four measures: Parental Bonding Instrument, Rosenberg’s Self-esteem Scale, Satisfaction with Life Scale, and the General Health Questionnaire. A structural equation
modeling procedure was used to examine the model of best fit for parental bonding (care and over-protection), life satisfaction, self-esteem, and psychological well-being. Results showed that self-esteem fully mediated the relationship between parental bonding (parental care and parental over-protection) and general mental health and poor parenting, such as low parental care and warmth, was significantly associated with low self-esteem and life-satisfaction, which may lead to poor psychological well-being.

C. Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and Family Conflict

It was hypothesized that Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and its dimensions were expected to be negatively related with Family Conflict and its dimensions viz Family Conflict Likelihood, Family Conflict Seriousness, Mother Conflict Likelihood, Mother Conflict Seriousness, Father Conflict Likelihood and Father Conflict Seriousness among adolescents.

The intercorrelation matrix for the total sample (Table 5) revealed that Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was negatively and significantly related with Family Conflict Likelihood and Mother Conflict Likelihood.

A further perusal of intercorrelation matrix for the total sample (Table 5) revealed that Family Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was negatively related with Family Conflict Likelihood, Family Conflict Seriousness, Mother Conflict Likelihood, Father Conflict Likelihood and Father Conflict Seriousness. Living Environment Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was negatively related with Family Conflict Likelihood, Family Conflict Seriousness, Mother Conflict Likelihood, Mother Conflict Seriousness and Father Conflict Likelihood among the total sample of adolescents. Self-Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was negatively related with Mother Conflict Seriousness among total sample of adolescents only.

Intercorrelation matrix for male adolescents (Table 6) revealed no significant relationship between Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and Family Conflict dimensions. A further perusal of intercorrelation matrix for male adolescents (Table 6) revealed that Living Environment Satisfaction
domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was negatively related with Family Conflict Likelihood, Mother Conflict Likelihood and Father Conflict Likelihood.

Intercorrelation matrix for Female adolescents (Table 7) revealed that Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was negatively and significantly related with Family Conflict Likelihood, Family Conflict Seriousness, Mother Conflict Likelihood and Mother Conflict Seriousness. A further perusal of the intercorrelation matrix for female adolescents (Table 7) revealed that Family Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was negatively related with Family Conflict Likelihood, Family Conflict Seriousness, Mother Conflict Likelihood, Mother Conflict Seriousness, Father Conflict Likelihood and Father Conflict Seriousness. Living Environment Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was found to be negatively related with Family Conflict Likelihood, Family Conflict Seriousness, Mother–Conflict Likelihood and Mother–Conflict Seriousness among females. The hypothesis was partially supported.

Regression tables (8,9,10) revealed that for the criterion of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction, Family Conflict did not emerge as significant predictor for any of the three groups – the total sample of adolescents, male adolescents and female adolescents.

A glance at previous work done in this area revealed similar trends.

Studies revealed that early adolescence is a critical time for changes in parent and peer relationships. There is increased conflict in the parent-child relationship and early adolescents perceive their parents as less supportive (Paikoff and Brooks-Gunn, 1991). Research has shown that family dynamics is one of the most important elements affecting healthy child development and overall family system functioning and parental behaviors are positively related to adolescent well-being (Grotevant, 1998).

In a study of adolescents in Hongkong, Leung and Leung (1992) found a positive relationship with parents to be the strongest contributor to life satisfaction, accounting for more of the variance than self-concept or relationships at school.
Durant et al. (1995) compared high conflict vs. low conflict African American couples. They found that youth with high conflict families were more likely to report child symptoms of depression, psychological distress, and less satisfaction with family environment and social lives. On a similar note Mason et al. (1994) reported that increased family conflict was associated with more externalizing behaviors among children. There is an extensive literature that has linked parental conflict to developmental difficulties in children. Included in the literature are meta-analytic reviews (Krishnakumar and Buehler, 2000) which documented the increased adjustment difficulties that children experience due to their parent's marital conflict and dissatisfaction.

Cauce et al. (1996) reported that African American middle-class adolescent girls and their parents tended to have relatively frequent, albeit not very intense, conflicts over everyday issues associated with family life (e.g., completing household chores). Such conflicts may be relatively normal in the context of these young women's attempts to develop some degree of emotional independence and a differentiated sense of self from parents. In fact, in many families, a moderate amount of conflict between adolescents and their parents might benefit these families by stimulating change that brings adolescent and parent perspectives closer together (D'Angelo and Omar, 2003).

Demo and Acock (1996) examined the influence of family structure and family relationships on adolescent well-being. Using a sub-sample (N = 850) of data collected in the National survey of families and households they examined socio emotional adjustment, academic performance, and global well-being among adolescents (ages 12 to 18) living in the four most prevalent family structures in the United States: (a) intact first-married family units, (b) divorced, single-parent families, (c) stepfamilies, and (d) continuously single mothers and their children. The results suggested that compared to the other family types, families headed by continuously single mothers have the lowest income, whereas divorced families and stepfamilies reported the highest levels of mother-adolescent disagreement and the lowest levels of parental supervision and mother-adolescent interaction. They suggested that family structure was not as important as more proximate
influences such as mother-adolescent interaction and mothers' well-being. Regression analyses indicated that the strongest and most consistent predictor of adolescent well-being was mother-adolescent disagreement. Although their analyses showed no significant difference in the global well-being of male and female adolescents from first-married families, boys from divorced families and stepfamilies reported to have lower global well-being. They concluded that family conflict manifested in diverse ways and persisting over stages of the life course impairs adolescent well-being. Demo and Acock (1996) study was guided by three general conceptual approaches (family composition, economic deprivation, and family conflict) relating family structure to adolescent well-being. Although some support has been provided for each of these approaches, the evidence seems to provide the strongest support for the family conflict hypothesis and the least support for the economic deprivation hypothesis. In support of the family composition hypothesis, Mother-adolescent disagreement and mothers' aggression toward the adolescent were associated with lower academic performance. Similarly, being from a divorced family, being male, and being an older adolescent were related to lower grades in school. Mothers' education was significantly and positively related to adolescents' academic performance, but income did not have an independent effect. They contended that frequent disagreements and maternal aggression were associated with lower adjustment, whereas maternal support and more regular interaction were related to higher adjustment. Interestingly, the more the mother supervised the adolescent, the worse the adjustment. They concluded that Parental conflict is associated with worse adjustment and slightly lower global well-being of adolescents.

Lindahl and Malik (1999) compared Hispanic American (primarily Cuban) and European American, and biracial families specifically with male child outcomes. They used self-report and observational instruments with 113 families who had children between the ages of 7 and 11. Overall, results indicated that marital conflict was associated with child externalizing behaviors, regardless of ethnic group. However, the pathways in which marital conflict affected child outcomes differed by ethnicity. Lax and inconsistent parenting in Hispanic American families was associated with child
externalizing behaviors, while hierarchical parenting styles were linked to externalizing behaviors among European American children.

Pietila et al. (1999) examined family impact on adolescent health and well-being. Family relationships and their changes have been found to have a significant role in adolescent development and health. Changes in family structure are commonplace in Finland: each year, about 32000 children and adolescents experience family breakup either because of parental separation or death. Research evidence suggested that structural changes in the family, such as a divorce, have long-term effects on adolescent ill-being, such as depression. Some studies suggested that children of single-parent families experience most ill-being (Sprujit and Goede, 1997). However, several studies indicated that adolescent subjective well-being (SWB) is not so much related to family type as to parental relationship and interaction between family members. On the other hand, research about the relationship between adolescent well-being and family functioning have mostly focused on ill-being in the family, such as youth problems and conflicts, low self-esteem and child abuse or substance abuse of parents or adolescents (Sweeting and West, 1995). In addition, Shucksmith et al., (1995) demonstrated that problems with adolescent-parent relations are associated with poor psychological outcomes for the young people.

In their study of rural European Americans, Plunkett and Henry (1999) found a low negative correlation between amount of inter-parental conflict and adolescent life satisfaction. In this study, the only significant relation for family conflict was a negative bivariate relation among European Americans. The failure to observe more consistent relations between amount of family conflict and life satisfaction was a little surprising in view of the generally negative consequences of family conflict and the general importance of positive connections in maintaining a sense of hope and goal-striving (Snyder et al., 2002). The lack of strong findings in this study may partly reflect the fact that, although there was range in the amount of conflict adolescents reported, most adolescents did not report high levels of conflict in the family. Silverberg and Steinberg (1990) previously found that conflicts over mundane everyday matters do not have much impact on teenagers.
Formoso et al. (2000) reported that higher levels of perceived family conflict were related to higher levels of adolescent depression, and higher levels of parental attachment were associated with lower levels of adolescent depression.

Gonzales et al. (2000) studied a non-random sample of 79 fourth-grade Mexican-American children from a lower SES population in Arizona. The researchers had the children report on parental behavior and conflict, and mothers reported on the children's behaviors using the Conduct Problem and Depression subscales of the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) (Achenbach and Edelbrock, 1983). These researchers found that more frequent, intense, and unresolved parental conflict was associated with more symptoms of depression and conduct problems.

Diamond et al. (2002) found that an attachment-based family therapy intervention developed to address depression in a predominantly African American adolescent female sample was effective in reducing participants' depression, anxiety, and family conflict. In support of this latter finding, Steinberg (1988) noted that healthy psychological adjustment could occur within the context of parent-adolescent relationships when a mutual attachment is maintained while tolerating the conflict that might occur in some adolescents' attempts to develop a sense of autonomy. Thus, both parent-adolescent conflict and emotional attachment appeared to be crucial dimensions to consider when characterizing the nature and quality of parent-adolescent relationships (Barber et al., 2003).

Flouri and Buchanan (2002) explored the role of father involvement and bullying on the psychological well-being of adolescent boys. Based on data from 1344 adolescent boys aged 13–19 years in Britain, they found that students who report having experienced more forms of bullying and have fathers or father figures who are less involved with them contributed significantly and independently to low levels of life satisfaction in adolescent boys. They concluded that a father's or father figure's involvement with the adolescent is important in enhancing the adolescent’s well-being, and it is especially beneficial for boys who are the most victimized. Fathers’ support is positively related to the psychological well-being of adolescent boys.
Ben – Zur (2003) reported that two factors that may affect Subjective well-being and internal resources among young people are viz their parents’ SWB and internal resources, and the nature of their relationships with their parents. These were also tested in the present research. Certain similarities between adolescents and their parents (mainly fathers) for the SWB components were observed, but not for mastery or optimism. These findings support studies that show correlations between parents’ and children’s emotional responses and bear out family process theory, which suggests that family members share a subjective reality, including shared values and world views (Larson and Richards, 1994). Notably, however, the adolescent–father correlations for optimism and mastery were not significant, in contrast to positive parents–children correlations shown for more enduring traits, such as Type A behavior (Keltikangas - Jarvinen, 1988). Perhaps the most meaningful findings were the associations between the adolescents’ positive relationships with their fathers and their high levels of the internal resources of optimism and mastery. These results match those found in previous studies and imply that positive interactions with parents may better equip adolescents with resources that can aid them in coping with life’s problems and enhance the quality of their adult life (Sim, 2000).

D’Angelo and Omar (2003) suggested that many African American parents and teens negotiate adolescence without intense family conflict and without sacrificing close personal relationships but adolescents who do experience such conflicts appear to be aided by a connection with parents that reflects high levels of trust and communication and low levels of alienation. Even in cultures where interdependence is a norm, parent-adolescent conflict seems to occur to some degree and may promote normative developmental processes of differentiation. Healthy self-differentiation depends heavily on relational continuity in the adolescent-parent relationship in spite of conflicts that might occur while adolescents increase their assertions of autonomy (Holmbeck, 1996).

Gilman and Huebner (2003) noted that studies of adolescents have shown significant relationships between life satisfaction and positive and

Rask et al. (2003) examined the relationships between adolescent subjective well-being (SWB) and family dynamics perceived by adolescents and their parents. A sample of 239 pupils (51% female) from seventh and ninth grades completed the Berne questionnaire of SWB (youth form), two subscales from an original Finnish SWB scale and the Family Dynamics measure II, and one of their parents (n = 239) filled in the Family Dynamics measure II. They found that parents assessed family dynamics better than did their adolescent child. Furthermore, there was no association between family dynamics perceived by adolescents and family dynamics assessed by one of their parents or between the adolescent SWB and parental perception of family dynamics. They asserted that good parent–adolescent, especially mother–adolescent relationship shows a similar pattern of correlation: the better the mutual relationship reported by the adolescent, the higher the levels of global satisfaction and the lower the levels of ill-being he or she expressed. Good father–adolescent relationship was also found to be associated with low levels of global ill-being, too. Good mother–adolescent relationship was also found to be associated with higher levels of activities and knowledge related to Subjective Well Being. Multiple stepwise regression analysis indicated that certain aspects of family dynamics perceived by adolescents were related to adolescent global satisfaction and ill-being. Specifically, adolescents’ perception of high level of mutuality and stability in the family as well as male gender and lack of serious problems in family were predictors of adolescent global satisfaction. Furthermore, disorganization in the family and poor parental relationship perceived by adolescents, being female, serious problems and illness in family predicted a high level of adolescent global ill-being. Furthermore, Shek (1999) suggested that parenting characteristics influence adolescent psychological well-being. The study results support the assumption that family dynamics influences adolescent SWB. In addition Sweeting (2001) argued that when the same individual rates two or more variables, such as parenting and well-being, the risk of correlation between the variables increases as well. Parents’ perceptions of family dynamics were
Discussion

not associated with the adolescents’ perceptions of family dynamics nor with adolescent SWB. The findings support the claim that family members experience the family environment differently from each other (Olson et al., 1989). Additionally, Ohannessian et al. (1995) have shown that depressed and/or anxious SWB female adolescents disagreed on family dynamics most with their parents compared with those not reporting depression or anxiousness. The findings supported the hypothesis that family is one of the most significant contributors to and predictors of individuals’ life satisfaction. Especially, both family functioning and parental relationship were related to SWB, whereas family type did not predict adolescent well-being or ill-being which is congruent with the recent results (Grossman and Rowat, 1995).

A study Bradley and Corwyn (2004) found relations between parenting/home environment and perceived quality of life. Theory suggests that adolescents who experience high levels of supportiveness and opportunities in their family environment are likely to feel more satisfied with life (Rathunde and Csikszentmihalyi, 1991). There have been few direct studies of how proximal aspects of the family environment relate to life satisfaction among adolescents. The limited research shows that life satisfaction is related to family functioning, perceived quality of parent/child relationships, parent–child conflict, and adolescent perceptions of inter parental conflict (Leung and Zhang, 2000; Phinney and Ong, 2002). Rathunde and Csikszentmihalyi (1991) found that adolescents who reported higher levels of happiness described parents as being nurturant, consistent, principled in the use of discipline, companionable, and encouraging of autonomy. Although these studies suggest that experiences at home impact happiness among adolescents, the studies relied exclusively on adolescent report.

Demuth and Brown (2004) investigated the effects of growing up in a two-parent versus single-mother family/ single-father family by examining adolescent delinquency in data from the 1995 National longitudinal survey of adolescent health. The results indicated that adolescents in single-parent families were significantly more delinquent than their counterparts residing
Discussion

with two biological, married parents, The high levels of delinquency characterizing adolescents in single-parent families reflects particularly low level of care. They suggested that parental closeness coupled with involvement is essential to prevent adolescent delinquent behavior.

Nickerson and Nagle (2004) gave the overall picture that emerges regarding life satisfaction. Adolescents, compared to younger children, are less satisfied with their schools and families. Previous research regarding the stability of this trend, and its implications, is conflicting. Demographic variables have generally not been correlated, or have only related weakly to life satisfaction (Huebner, 1991, 1995, 1997). However, some studies have found life satisfaction for individuals in mid-adolescence to be relatively low, especially in comparison to early adolescence and adulthood. If adolescence does, indeed, represent a time of decreased satisfaction with life, the causes and implications of this are still speculative. For example, it is possible that adolescents’ development of critical thinking skills leads them to be more critical and discerning when assessing and reporting their satisfaction with various aspects of life (Man, 1991). Alternatively, the increasing autonomy of adolescence may cause a problem of fit between their needs and the constraints of family and school (Eccles et al., 1993) resulting in genuine unhappiness with their present situation. Recent research has suggested that, even though increased conflict with parents is present in early adolescence, this conflict does not have long-lasting effects on the closeness of the parent-child relationship (Arnett, 1999). Attachment relationships, either with parents, peers, or both, predicted satisfaction with all domains of life for the children and adolescents in this study. As anticipated, positive aspects of the parent and peer relationships, such as trust and communication, were highly correlated with children’s overall life satisfaction. In addition, alienation from parents and peers was negatively correlated with life satisfaction, as was peer delinquency. Parent trust was found to be the best predictor of satisfaction with families. Communication with parents also predicted satisfaction, and alienation from parents was inversely related to family satisfaction. These findings are supported by attachment theory, which suggests that security,
open communication, and understanding in the parent-child relationship is related to positive outcomes (Paterson et al., 1994).

Joronen and Ästedt-Kurki (2005) investigated familial contribution to adolescent subjective well-being. Semi structured interviews were conducted with 19 non-clinical adolescents from the 7th and 9th grades. They analysed data using qualitative content analysis and found six themes concerning satisfaction in terms of experiences of a comfortable home, emotionally warm atmosphere, open communication, familial involvement, possibilities for external relations and a sense of personal significance in the family. Three themes related to ill-being was emerged: familial hostility, ill-being or death of a family member, as well as excessive dependency. The findings expanded the understanding of the diversity of familial contribution to adolescent life and subjective well-being. They found adolescents reported that close relations and unconditional love between family members regardless of how they looked or what was their world of ideas were a basis for their SWB. Although adolescents perceived arguments as a natural part of family life, to them familial harmony embodied an ideal to strive for. Teenagers reported that familial arguments served to create dissatisfaction regardless of who was involved in them. Family serves as an important protective or risk factor for teenage children (Rask et al., 2002). Levamo, (2001) showed that an unsupportive family environment with extremes of parental control was associated with raised levels of alcohol and drug use in adolescence.

Lee et al. (2005) found small to moderate correlations between intergenerational family conflict and measures of well-being and adjustment. The results were consistent with previous studies on family conflict (Lee and Liu, 2001). They also found that the correlation of family conflict with family satisfaction was moderately high, which is consistent with research on family conflict and other family functioning variables such as quality of parent–child relationship, parent–child communication, and family cohesiveness (Lee et al., 2000). Moreover, high family conflict and low family satisfaction collectively placed children at greater risk for adjustment problems. Sheeber et al. (1997) reported similar findings in a longitudinal sample of depression in adolescents. Parent–child conflicts are among the most
common presenting problems for Asian American college students seeking counseling services (Constantine et al. 2002). Research has found that these conflicts have a detrimental effect on the well-being and adjustment of Asian American college-aged children, increasing their vulnerability to depression and other forms of psychological distress (Lee and Liu, 2001).

Mazefsky and Farrell (2005) examined the influence of witnessing violence, peer provocation, family support, and parenting practices (monitoring and discipline) on aggression. Participants were 1,196 ninth graders at nine schools in poor, predominantly agricultural, rural communities who completed measures of these variables. They found witnessing violence, peer provocation, low levels of family support, and poor parenting practices to be related to higher frequencies of aggression and students who reported high levels of appropriate parenting reported lower levels of witnessing violence and peer provocation. These were, in turn, related to lower levels of aggression. The relation between family support and aggression was also mediated by peer provocation, though the degree of mediation was not as strong as for parenting. Both parenting and family support moderated the relation between witnessing violence and aggression such that this relation was stronger among adolescents who reported low family support or high levels of poor parenting. Neither parenting nor family support moderated the relation between peer provocation and aggression. They concluded that parenting practices had a stronger influence on aggression than did family support and their results were generally consistent across gender.

Carlson (2006) assesses whether father involvement mediates the relationship between family structure (father absence) and four measures of adolescent behavior viz externalizing behavior problem index, delinquency index, negative feelings index and internalizing behavior problem index using data on biological fathers’ relationships with their children from the 1979 National longitudinal survey of youth. The results showed that particularly at high levels, father involvement is significantly associated with fewer behavioral problems across all four outcomes. Father involvement does not affect boys and girls differently but is more beneficial when the father lives
with the adolescent. He concluded that family structure and father involvement are linked to adolescent well-being and development.

**Edwards and Lopez (2006)** explored perceived family support, acculturation, and life satisfaction among 266 Mexican American adolescents. The authors conducted a thematic analysis of open-ended responses to a question about life satisfaction to understand participants’ perceptions of factors that contributed to their overall satisfaction with life. They also conducted hierarchical regression analyses to investigate the independent and interactive contributions of perceived support from family and Mexican and Anglo acculturation orientations on life satisfaction. Convergence of mixed-methods findings demonstrated that perceived family support and Mexican orientation were significant predictors of life satisfaction in these adolescents.

**McKee et al. (2007)** examined the role of positive parenting/harsh verbal and physical discipline on child problem behaviors in a community sample of 2,582 parents and their fifth and sixth grade children. Participants were recruited from pediatric practices, and both parents and children completed questionnaire packets. They found that boys received more harsh verbal and physical discipline than girls, with fathers utilizing more harsh physical discipline with boys than did mothers. Both types of harsh discipline were associated with child behavior problems uniquely after positive parenting was taken into account. Child gender did not moderate the findings, but one dimension of positive parenting (i.e., parental warmth) served to buffer children from the detrimental influences of harsh physical discipline. The level of conflict between parents and adolescents which does not necessarily imply a negative relationship also seems to suggest a curvilinear pattern (**Montemayor, 1990**). Not only the strength of the parental bond, but also its influence may change in the course of adolescence. Some authors suggest that the parents’ influence on their children’s well-being diminishes as the children grow older. In general, adolescents have a good relationship with their parents (**Steinberg, 1990**). This has been confirmed by studies from various countries over the years. After adolescence, adult children usually remain on good terms with their parents. A strong and secure parental bond
Discussion does not have to be an obstacle for adolescents who strive to become independent (Grotevant and Cooper, 1986). Research including assessments of paternal relationships found that while discord between children and both mothers and fathers was negatively associated with adolescents’ Life Satisfaction, father-child conflict had a slightly stronger impact on Life Satisfaction than mother-child conflict (Shek, 1997).

Schoppe-Sullivan et al. (2007) demonstrated that parental behavioral control mediated the longitudinal association between marital conflict and adolescent internalizing problems, although no support was found for the mediators psychological autonomy and warmth.

Antaramian et al. (2008) extended prior research by investigating the relationship between family structure and adolescent life satisfaction, using a multidimensional measure of life satisfaction. By investigating general as well as domain-based satisfaction, it was possible to obtain more specific information and determine how family structure might differentially relate to various satisfaction domains. Consistent with the theories described above, it was hypothesized that adolescents in intact families would have higher satisfaction than adolescents in non-intact families. Specifically, family structure was expected to be significantly related to the contexts most proximal to family resources: family and living environment. In contrast, it was expected that general satisfaction as well as satisfaction in more distal contexts (friends, school, and self) would remain constant across family types. Research investigating positive institutions, such as families, and the optimal well-being of adolescents has been scant. Antaramian et al. (2008) reported on the relationship between family structure and optimal adolescent functioning, as indexed by a sense of satisfaction with life overall and with specific domains (family, friends, school). Previous research studies, employing varying measures of life satisfaction, have yielded conflicting findings. The sample included 457 US middle school students who were administered the Multidimensional Students’ Life Satisfaction Scale (Huebner, 1994) and one question about family structure that revealed whether students lived in intact, single-parent, or stepparent families. Results indicated that family structure was related significantly to family satisfaction.
Discussion

and approached significance for living environment satisfaction, with adolescents in single-parent and stepparent families reporting lower satisfaction in these domains than adolescents in intact families. Family structure was not related to the remaining domains or general life satisfaction. These results shed some light on conflicting findings in the literature and highlighted the importance of distinguishing between general and multidimensional measures of life satisfaction. General life satisfaction measures may mask distinctions made by adolescents among important domains in their lives. To conclude, Antaramian et al. (2008) asserted that positive psychologists have proposed a tripartite model, in which positive institutions (e.g. families, schools) are viewed as facilitators of positive personal traits and emotions (Peterson, 2006). This study converges with other literature that highlights the importance of the family as an institution that is central to the facilitation of optimal well-being, even among adolescents, whose major life task is to successfully navigate the individuation process on the road to adulthood. Although life satisfaction is not the only indicator of optimal well-being, it is a broad-based concept that relates to a wide-ranging nomological network of youth outcomes (Huebner, 2004). Continued research and practical efforts should be devoted to the intersection between optimal well-being, including life satisfaction, and family approaches to practice, training, and research with adolescents. Of course, the conclusion from this study should not be that children from non-intact families cannot experience healthy levels of life satisfaction, but rather that intact families with stable resources may more readily facilitate higher levels of life satisfaction. Nevertheless, although empirically based, family interventions to promote optimal adolescent life satisfaction in particular have not been reported on in the literature, the findings of this study support attention to policies and programs that provide economic, psychosocial, and health-related support to families in need.

D. Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and Stress measures

It was hypothesized that Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and its dimensions among adolescents were expected to be negatively related with Stress measures viz Life Event Stress, Stress Symptoms,
Academic Stress and its dimensions among total sample of adolescents, male and female adolescents.

A glance at the intercorrelation matrices (Tables 5, 6, 7) revealed that Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was negatively related with Stress Symptoms among all three groups i.e. the total sample of adolescents, male and female adolescents. A further perusal of the intercorrelation tables (5,6,7) revealed that School Satisfaction and Living Environment Satisfaction domains of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction were negatively related with Stress Symptoms among the total sample, male and female adolescents. Intercorrelation matrices further revealed that Friends’ Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was negatively related with Academic Stress among the total sample. No significant relationship emerged between Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and Life Event Stress among total sample of adolescents, male and female adolescents.

A perusal of Stepwise Multiple Regression Equation for the total sample (Table 8) male adolescents (Table 9) and female adolescents (Table 10) with Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction as the criterion variable revealed that Stress Symptoms emerged as a significant predictor among total sample of adolescents. Thus the hypothesis received only partial support.

Some of the earlier studies also revealed similar relation between Stress Symptoms, Academic Stress and Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction. However contrary to the findings previous research has shown Life event stress to be negatively related with Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction,

Hobfoll (1989) hypothesized that that perceived stress would be negatively related to life satisfaction. Some research supports this assumption. Satisfaction with life is a significant component of an overall sense of well-being and dissatisfaction with life may be considered a generalized symptom of stress. Indeed, it is difficult to imagine that persons
experiencing high levels of stress would report high levels of life satisfaction (Diener, 2000).

Krause (1991) examined the interrelationships among stressful events, domain-specific assessments of life satisfaction, and global evaluations of life satisfaction. This research was guided by two competing theoretical formulations. According to bottom-up theory, older adults first assess feelings of satisfaction within specific life domains that are based in part on the experiences (stressors) they encounter in these areas. The domain-specific views were subsequently synthesized to form an overall sense of satisfaction with life as a whole. In contrast, the top-down theory suggested that a person’s ongoing sense of satisfaction with life as a whole predisposes him or her to assess satisfaction with specific domains in ways that were congruent with his or her initial sense of global life satisfaction. They analyzed data provided by older participants in a nationwide survey and found it to support the bottom-up perspective which concludes that domain-specific feelings are subsequently synthesized to form overall or global assessments of life satisfaction.

According to Larsen and Ketelaar (1991), there may be two ways of maintaining well-being that are related to the interacting influence of the two signal-sensitivity systems. Thus, recollecting and evaluating life as satisfying may be due to people’s tendency to seek or avoid pleasant and unpleasant life experiences, respectively (Walker et al., 2003). Life events may influence well-being in relation to what is typical for the person’s life. Diener et al. (2006) have suggested that one additional positive event is probably not going to influence Life Satisfaction in a person who usually experiences many positive events. In contrast, an increase in the frequency of positive life events in coincidence with a decrease of negative ones may lead to a decrease in depression symptoms.

Larson and Ham (1993) found a significant moderate positive correlation between middle adolescents’ reports of negative life events in adolescence and rates of depression. In addition, there was a significant moderate positive correlation between the parent’s report of negative events and problem behaviors of the child. Hoffman et al. (1996) found that life
Discussion

events contributed significantly to the prediction of behavior problems in adolescents. Furthermore, in their study, a greater number of life events correlated with higher levels of maladjustment. Based on these studies, McKnight et al. (2002) hypothesized that adolescents who have a greater number of stressful life events will demonstrate more internalizing and externalizing behavior problems. As suggested in Lazarus’ theory, life satisfaction may act as a buffer between the number of SLEs an adolescent has experienced and his or her internalizing and externalizing behavior. Such an outcome is expected based on the notion that when an individual has an overall positive (vs. negative) outlook on her life, which is at least moderately stable, he or she is less likely to adapt to SLEs in maladaptive ways such as through internalizing or externalizing behaviors. McKnight et al. (2002) found that the relationship between SLEs, and behavior problems was smaller for students with high life satisfaction than for those students with low life satisfaction.

According to U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, (1999) stress is a clear risk factor for mental health disorders, which have been estimated to affect approximately one in five children ages 9 to 17 years. Adolescence is a developmental period when children may be particularly vulnerable to the negative effects of stress. Data from the National Youth Risk Behavior Survey in U.S indicated that 8.5% of teens had attempted suicide, 29% had felt sad or hopeless, 45% had used alcohol in the last month, and 22% had used marijuana (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2004). These symptoms of mental disorders have been linked to the negative effects of stress. The term stress has been defined in multiple ways throughout the literature yielding medical, environmental, and psychological models of stress. In the medical model, stress is a state of distress in an individual in response to an environmental precipitant. This physiological response of an organism can be measured by increased heart rate, elevated blood pressure, and the presence of hormones and neurotransmitters (i.e., cortisol, adrenaline, norepinephrine) that heighten the arousal of an organism (Selye, 1993). Distress, occurring within a normal range, is adaptive in nature; this heightened arousal prepares an organism to effectively deal with stress.
However, in the long term, chronic stimulation of the stress-response system has been linked to depressed immune functions and diminished life satisfaction (Evans et al., 1998). Adolescence is characterized by unique transitions into roles and responsibilities created by changes during puberty and adjustments created by institutions (Halpem-Felsher et al., 2002). Stressors in this transitional period include pressure to earn money; interferences between work, school, and social activities; and concern about the future (Byrne et al., 2007). Regarding employment, stress arises as adolescents seek work in occupations that are not aligned with school curriculum or future career aspirations (National Research Council, 1998), and stems from exposure to negative aspects of work settings (poor environmental conditions, impersonal work setting, constraints on autonomy) which increases the risk of youth substance use (McCrystal et al., 2007).

Hamarat et al. (2001) examined the relationship between coping resources and perceived stress on life satisfaction. There focus was to determine how well perceived stress and coping resources predict life satisfaction, and what happens when the two are considered together. Global satisfaction with life across three age groups (18 to 40 years, 41 to 65 years, and 66 years and above) was investigated. Multiple regressions were computed to examine the separate and joint effects of perceived stress and coping resource availability upon life satisfaction across the three age groups (N =189). Age differences in perceived stress, coping resource availability, and life satisfaction, were also investigated. Results of this cross-sectional investigation indicated that self-appraisal measures of perceived stress and coping resource effectiveness served as moderate predictors of global life satisfaction, and that for the total sample the combined effects of perceived stress and coping resource effectiveness were better predictors of life satisfaction than either variable considered separately. Perceived stress was found to be a better predictor of life satisfaction for younger adults, and coping resource effectiveness was a better predictor of satisfaction with life for middle-aged and older adults. Significant age differences in life satisfaction, perceived stress, and coping resources were also found. The assessment of perceived stress and coping has important implications for life satisfaction.
among all age groups, and has particular significance to older adults. This investigation was supported by recent findings published by Chang (1998), who found that perceived stress was inversely related to life satisfaction. Similarly, this study was supported by findings published by Kent et al. (1993), who found an inverse relationship between perceived stress and life satisfaction for 555 medical students, and Brown (1988), who found perceived stress to be a better predictor of satisfaction with life socio demographic factors. Links between stress and emotional well-being have been examined for decades, and a relationship between the two seems to exist (Sadavoy and Fogel, 1992). Though the impact of stress on life satisfaction has been substantiated, recent methodological and conceptual changes in measuring and qualifying stress have led to different definitions of stress and measurement approaches. Appraisal-based models of stress, such as the Conservation of Resources Model and the Cognitive-Appraisal Model of Coping (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Hobfoll, 1989), call for individual appraisals of environmental demands. Stress inventories based on these models allow for individual differences and favorability ratings, and are preferred over the operationalized checklists used in previous stress assessment.

McKnight et al. (2002), investigated the relationships among stressful life events (SLEs), temperament, externalizing and internalizing behaviors, and global life satisfaction. The students’ Life Satisfaction scale, the Youth Self Report (YSR) form of the Child Behavior Checklist, a portion of the Life Events Checklist, and the Abbreviated Junior Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, were administered to 1,201 adolescents in grades 6 through 12 in a small city in the Southeast. A modest correlation was found between life satisfaction and Extraversion. Moderate correlations were found between life satisfaction and Neuroticism and life satisfaction and SLEs. Based upon hierarchical regression analyses, temperament variables accounted for approximately 16% of the variance in predictions of life satisfaction ratings. When SLEs were added, an additional 3% of the variance in life satisfaction ratings was subsequently explained. Life satisfaction did not operate as a moderator between Stressful Life events and problem behavior. However,
when global life satisfaction was added as a mediator variable, results indicated a partial mediational effect, particularly on internalizing behavior. They found stress to be associated with decreased life satisfaction among high-achieving students. Interestingly, high-achieving students who reported using fewer positive appraisal coping behaviors (thinking about the good things in life) showed sharper declines in life satisfaction as perceived stress increased compared to students who reported using this coping strategy more frequently. Thus, the detrimental impact of stress on life satisfaction was more exaggerated for students who engaged in relatively few positive appraisal and help-seeking. It appears that positive Subjective well being motivates human sociability, exploratory behavior, curiosity, and coping. Furthermore, individuals with positive subjective wellbeing respond to negative events more rapidly, a characteristic vital to adaptation. Conversely, individuals with low levels of SWB demonstrate an increased risk of developing psychopathology symptoms such as depression and anxiety (Diener and Diener, 1996). In their study with adults, Lewinsohn, et al. (1991) found that depression was the most strongly related variable to life satisfaction among a group of other variables such as demographics, social support, and stress. They suggested that low life satisfaction presents as a risk factor for future depression. They examined factors that contribute to life satisfaction, positive and negative life events. In adults, research has demonstrated that positive and negative major life events (e.g., getting married or becoming unemployed) have an effect on life satisfaction and positive affect (Headey and Wearing, 1989). In addition to major life events, daily events such as daily hassles, or chronic everyday stressors, contribute to how an individual rates his or her satisfaction with life. McCullough et al. (2000) found that in adolescents, “environmental life events explained variance in well-being over and above that of a powerful intrapersonal variable, global self-concept”. Furthermore, Ash and Huebner (2001) found that both positive and negative chronic, everyday stressors and acute events contributed significantly to life satisfaction. Such findings suggest the importance of adolescents’ acute and chronic stressors at school and at home. The developmental stage of adolescence brings many positive and negative stressors as youth experience physical and emotional changes, as well as a whole host of other adjustments to their environment. Often, while
dealing with the dramatic changes that accompany their development, adolescents engage in maladaptive behaviors such as school misconduct, drug use, and delinquency. Such maladaptive responses can lead to further difficulties in adapting to roles and responsibilities required in early adulthood. Life satisfaction appears to be moderately influenced by life events. They concluded that stressful life events were moderately related to life satisfaction. Although the relationship was moderate, stressful life events contributed significant unique variance over and above the personality variables. These findings were consistent with findings from (McCullough et al., 1999).

Seligman (2002) reported that the field of positive psychology has emerged to bring awareness to the role of psychology in making life more fulfilling, enhancing human functioning, and increasing happiness and well being. Based on the benefits of increasing well being found in the literature, an important goal within the field of positive psychology has been to develop interventions that increase individuals’ happiness levels, well being and sustain these gains over time. Based on the common conception that stress impedes happiness, it would seem that an important way to increase happiness and well being would be to reduce stress levels. Satisfaction with life have been found to play a key role in undoing the cardiovascular effects of negative emotions which may contribute to psychological resilience (Tugade and Fredrickson, 2004).

Kim et al. (2003) report of their six-year prospective study of adolescents revealed that as adolescents develop, not only do stressful life events predict later internalizing and externalizing behavior, but increased levels of psychopathology in turn predict increased stressful life experiences the next year. Suldo and Huebner (2004) suggested that life satisfaction levels have a greater concurrent relationship with internalizing behavior but a stronger longitudinal effect on externalizing behavior. Life satisfaction served as a mediator between adolescents’ experiences of stressful life events and their coexisting internalizing problems (McKnight et al., 2002). In other words, recent stressful life events influenced internalizing behavior indirectly through global life satisfaction judgment.
Shek (2003) examined the association between perceived economic stress (current economic hardship and future economic worry) and adolescent adjustment in 229 Chinese adolescents using children and parental reports of perceived economic stress. They found that parents displayed higher levels of current economic hardship and future economic worry than their children did and mothers had more worry about their children's economic conditions in future than the fathers had. Higher levels of economic stress based on ratings obtained from different sources were generally related to lower levels of existential well-being, life satisfaction, self-esteem, and mastery as well as higher levels of general psychiatric morbidity and substance abuse in adolescents. He concluded that relative to current economic stress perceived by adolescents, future economic worry perceived by adolescents was more strongly related to the psychological well-being of Chinese adolescents with economic disadvantage.

Suldo and Huebner (2004) found that life satisfaction acted as a mediating variable between environmental factors, (i.e., parenting styles) and children's problem behavior. Findings from their research indicated that parental social support was the strongest predictor of life satisfaction for adolescents. In addition, parents' promotion of autonomy within their children as well as their supervision of their children were significantly related to higher levels of life satisfaction in adolescents. In other words, decreased parental support, supervision, and autonomy promotion creates stress and is related to decreased life satisfaction. In turn, diminished life satisfaction related to a higher likelihood of engaging in problem behavior. They suggested that adolescents' perceptions of the positive aspects in their lives overall is not merely an epiphenomenon. It also impacts other important adolescent systems (e.g., personal behavior). In addition, the finding creates a strong foundation for studying how life satisfaction may behave as an intervening variable between stress and adolescents' coping responses. Psychologists within a positive psychology framework have proposed the existence of a set of psychological strengths that buffer against the development of psychopathology. To date, most research efforts in positive psychology have focused on adults. In a longitudinal study Suldo and Huebner (2004) tested
the prediction that adolescents’ judgments of life satisfaction moderate the influence of stressful life events on the subsequent development of psychopathological behavior. Using a sample of 816 middle and high school students, the study demonstrated support for the moderational model for externalizing behavior outcomes, but not internalizing behavior problems. Specifically, adolescents with positive life satisfaction (vs. those who were dissatisfied with their lives) were less likely to develop later externalizing behaviors in the face of stressful life events. The study also revealed that adolescent life satisfaction reports show moderate stability across a one-year time frame and independently predict subsequent externalizing behavior even while controlling for prior levels of externalizing behavior. They concluded that life satisfaction operates as a protective psychological strength that provides a buffer against some effects of adverse life events in adolescence. They asserted that even though the occurrence of multiple stressful life events (death in the family, divorce, moving to a new city) is known to increase the likelihood of the development of childhood behavior problems, it is nevertheless possible that positive life satisfaction may serve as a buffer against the development of behavior problems. They found partial support for the hypothesized moderation model of the effects of life satisfaction in relation to stressful life events and psychopathology in adolescence. Children who can develop relatively stable, positive attitudes toward their lives in general may be less likely to experience the occurrence of particular behavior problems, such as the externalizing behavior problems (but not internalizing behavior problems) investigated in this study. In contrast, youth who are pervasively dissatisfied with their lives may be predisposed to experience such behavior problems. Therefore, life satisfaction appears to operate as a buffer against the development of subsequent externalizing behavior problems in the face of stressful life events. Thus, as suggested by Lazarus (1991), the tendency to appraise life in a positive manner affects the likelihood of subsequent, effective coping behavior.

The large number of students in study conducted by Huebner et al. (2005) who reported dissatisfaction with school experiences underscores a potentially important quality of life issue. Consistent with studies of U.S.A.
Discussion

High schoolers (Huebner et al., 2000), the findings of this study suggested that U.S.A. middle schools represent an important source of stress for many adolescents, contributing to problem behavior, low school achievement, and disengagement. The findings perhaps reflect a disconnect between the needs of early adolescents and the characteristics of U.S.A. middle schools (Eccles et al., 1993). The current lack of attention to subjective experiences of schooling, may contribute to a reduced quality of life for many students as young as middle school age. Given the importance of academic success to adaptive, adult outcomes; researchers should investigate further the determinants of middle school students’ dissatisfaction with their school experiences in order to develop empirically based methods to promote more positive school experiences for adolescents, in the U.S.A. and possibly elsewhere.

Gilman and Huebner (2006) investigated the characteristics of adolescents who report high levels of life global satisfaction. A total of 485 adolescents completed the Students’ Life Satisfaction Scale (SLSS) along with self-report measures of intrapersonal, interpersonal, and school-related functioning. Based on their SLSS scores, students were divided into three groups: “low” (bottom 20% of the distribution), “average” (middle 50%), and “high” (upper 20%). Youth in the high satisfaction group reported significantly higher adaptive functioning on all dependent variables than youth in the low satisfaction group. Relative to students with average life satisfaction, students with high life satisfaction reported superior scores on a measure of social stress, a measure of attitudes toward teachers, and on all measures of intrapersonal functioning. Also, no adolescents in the high life satisfaction group demonstrated clinical levels of psychological symptoms, whereas 7% of the average group and 42% of the low satisfaction group reported clinical levels of symptoms. Taken together, the findings suggested that high life satisfaction is associated with some mental health benefits that are not found among youth reporting comparatively lower satisfaction levels.

Suldo and Huebner (2006) examined whether extremely high life satisfaction was associated with adaptive functioning or maladaptive functioning. Six hundred ninety-eight secondary level students completed the
Students’ Life Satisfaction Scale, Youth Self-Report of the Child Behavior Checklist Child Behavior Checklist and Youth Self-Report, Abbreviated Junior Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, Personality and Individual Differences, Self-Efficacy Questionnaire for Children and the Child and Adolescent Social Support Scale. Three groups of students were created based on their life satisfaction reports: very high (top 10%), average (middle 25%), and very low (lowest 10%). Compared to students with average life satisfaction, students with very high life satisfaction had higher levels on all indicators of adaptive psychosocial functioning, except extraversion. Moreover, students with very high satisfaction had the lowest scores on all measures of emotional and behavioral problems. However, rates of clinical levels of behavior problems did not differ significantly between the very high and average groups. Taken together, the findings supported the notion that very high life satisfaction is associated with positive psychosocial functioning. Furthermore, adolescents’ reports of their life satisfaction revealed differences in adjustment that were not captured by measures of psychopathology.

Franck and Buehler (2007) examined a family process model of early adolescent problem behavior in a community sample of 416 two-parent families. With family systems theory, a model was developed that suggested (a) marital hostility and parental depressive affect were conjoint familial stressors for youths, (b) youth triangulation mediates the association between marital hostility and adolescent problems, and (c) parental warmth buffers the negative effects of parental depressive affect and youth triangulation. They found that triangulating youths in parental disputes has shown association with internalizing problems and lower levels of subjective well-being and found marital hostility to be associated with externalizing problems. Mothers’ depressive affect was associated with internalizing problems, and fathers’ depressive affect was associated with internalizing and externalizing problems.

Garcia and Siddiqui (2008) conducted a study to explore how the number of recalled life events (positive and negative) predicts psychological well-being (PWB) and how PWB predicts life satisfaction (LS). In addition, participants were categorized into one of four different affective temperaments.
Discussion

(self-actualizing, high affective, low affective, and self-destructive). One hundred and thirty-five high school students participated in completing the SWLS (LS), PWB (short-version), PANAS (to create affective temperaments), and the life events recollection task. They found that adolescents with high positive affect also had high PWB; adolescents with low affective profiles also had high PWB. Positive and negative life events predicted PWB for self-destructive temperaments, whereas positive life events predicted PWB for low affective temperaments. PWB predicted Life Satisfaction for all temperaments except the self-actualizing group. They concluded that the temperament combinations allow the individual to achieve PWB and Life Satisfaction and said that self acceptance may foster Life Satisfaction regardless of temperament and may have more impact on Life Satisfaction than life events.

Folkman (2008) examined the role of positive emotions in stress process. For many decades, the stress process was described primarily in terms of negative emotions. However, robust evidence that positive emotions co-occurred with negative emotions during intensely stressful situations suggested the need to consider the possible roles of positive emotions in the stress process. About 10 years ago, these possibilities were incorporated into a revision of stress and coping theory. Folkman (2008) summarized the research reporting the intervening 10 years that pertains to the revised model. Evidence has accumulated regarding the co-occurrence of positive and negative emotions during stressful periods; the restorative function of positive emotions with respect to physiological, psychological, and social coping resources; and the kinds of coping processes that generate positive emotions including benefit finding and reminding, adaptive goal processes, reordering priorities, and infusing ordinary events with positive meaning. Overall, the evidence supported the propositions set forth in the revised model. Contrary to earlier tendencies to dismiss positive emotions, the evidence indicates they have important functions in the stress process and are related to coping processes that are distinct from those that regulate distress.

Suldo et al. (2008) contended that in the environmental model, stress is defined as external to an organism, including threats of immediate harm or aversive environmental conditions. Stress of this type is typically measured
using stress inventories, which are checklists of events believed to be taxing to an individual. External stress has been linked to such negative outcomes as anxiety, depression, and aggression as well as academic underachievement), substance abuse and compromised life satisfaction (McKnight et al., 2002). They said that as stress increases, life satisfaction decreases linearly. It may be beneficial to teach students to address imminent stress with adaptive coping strategies, such as thinking positively and maintaining close friendships. Educators who work with high-achieving students should encourage students to think positively and encourage activities that help students build relationships with their peers.

Oliva et al. (2009) determined the association between the occurrence of stressful life events and internalizing and externalizing problems, and analyzed longitudinally buffering effects of supportive family relationships. 100 Spanish adolescents were studied twice, when they were in mid adolescence (15-16 years) and two years later. They completed questionnaires regarding stressful life events, family relationships, and adolescent adjustment. They found that high quality parent-adolescent relationships protected boys and girls against the negative consequences of stressful life events on externalizing, but not internalizing, symptoms. The adolescents who enjoyed good relationships with their parents in mid-adolescence did not increase their externalizing problems in late adolescence as consequence of the occurrence of stressful events. However, these stressors did lead to an increase in the number of externalizing problems when the family relationships were of a middle or low quality. Their study results highlighted the important role that supportive family relationships play in the behavioral adjustment of adolescents and their well being, protecting them against some negative consequences of stressful life events, and suggest the relevance of supporting parents through resources such as parent education in order to help them to improve adolescents well being. They reported less evidence for a link between an adversity in life circumstances and adolescent externalizing problems, such as substance abuse or aggressive and antisocial behavior, but a few cross-sectional and longitudinal studies have found empirical support for this relationship (Rafnsson et al., 2006). Associations were
Discussion

typically weaker with externalizing than with internalizing problems, and some studies have failed to find a significant prospective link between stressful life events and increased externalizing symptoms (Grant et al., 2004). In summary, prospective studies on the influence of stressful events on symptomatology have provided nonconclusive results. Moreover, the proportion of variance accounted for by stressful events tends to be less than 15%, probably due to certain factors, such as social support or coping strategies, which might moderate this influence (Seiffge-Krenke, 2000).

Suldo et al. (2009) pointed out that navigating puberty while developing independent life skills may render adolescents particularly vulnerable to stress, which may ultimately contribute to mental health problems. The academic transition to high school presents additional challenges as youth are required to interact with a new and larger peer group and manage greater academic expectations. For students enrolled in academically rigorous college preparatory programs, such as the International Baccalaureate (IB) program, the amount of stress perceived may be greater than typical. Suldo et al. (2009) investigated the environmental stressors and psychological adjustment of 162 students participating in the IB program and a comparison sample of 157 students in general education. Factor analysis indicated students experience 7 primary categories of Stressors, which were examined in relation to students' adjustment specific to academic and psychological functioning. The primary source of stress experienced by IB students was related to academic requirements. In contrast, students in the general education program indicated higher levels of Stressors associated with parent-child relations, academic struggles, conflict within family, and peer relations, as well as role transitions and societal problems. Comparisons of correlations between categories of Stressors and students' adjustment by curriculum group reveal that students in the IB program reported more symptoms of psychopathology and reduced academic functioning as they experienced higher levels of stress, particularly stressors associated with academic requirements, transitions and societal problems, academic struggles, and extra-curricular activities. Applied implications stem from findings suggesting that students in college preparatory programs are more
Discussion
likely to experience elevated stress related to academic demands as opposed to more typical adolescent concerns, and they manifest worse outcomes in the face of stress. These results were consistent with earlier research that found adolescents' stressors are often associated with family, interpersonal relationships, and school particularly a heavy academic workload (Burnett and Fanshawe, 1997). They found that both IB and general education students rated academic requirements as the most pressing source of stress. This was the only stressor category in which IB students reported greater stress. The extreme salience of a single source of stress (managing academic requirements) to IB students is consistent with research with Swedish high school students which found that students in academic programs reported more stress related to managing their academic workload and meeting high academic standards than their peers in a vocational program who, in turn, perceived more stress related to psychosocial problems (complaints about their course schedule, teachers, or school climate) and problems in close relationships (Ollfors and Andersson, 2007). Both groups of students in the current study rated stress associated with extra-curricular activities at a similar level, further supporting the notion that this source of stress may be due to an overarching societal influence (vs. unique to a specific academic group). Regarding associations between stressors and student adjustment, the current study found that elevated life satisfaction co-occurred with reduced stress in a similar manner across curriculum groups. In contrast, IB students were especially likely to exhibit psychopathology (particularly externalizing behaviors), as well as academic problems (worse grades, attendance problems) when they experienced elevated levels of stress associated with specific stressors. These findings suggested that IB students may be more sensitive to manifesting adverse effects of stress than typical high school students. Specifically, extant studies of stress and mental health of IB students have found that despite perceiving higher levels of general stress (Suldo et al., 2008), IB students’ academic functioning (perceptions of academic abilities, GPAs) exceeds that of their peers in the general education curriculum, and IB students' average social-emotional functioning (i.e., life satisfaction and psychopathology) is comparable to that of their general education peers (Shaunessy et al., 2006). This pattern may
be specific to high-achieving American youth, as earlier cross-cultural research found that high-achieving American high school students (top 15% of math test scores) perceived significantly more stress than low-achieving high school students, but also experienced significantly fewer symptoms of anxiety, aggression, and somatic problems, whereas high and low achievers from China and Taiwan did not differ in terms of stress nor on most mental health indices (Crystal et al., 1994).

Malinauskas (2010) examined the relationships among severity of injury, and participants' perceptions of stress, social support, and life satisfaction. Participants were 123 college athletes (male, n = 69, female n = 54) with minor (69) or severe (54) injuries, who ranged in age from 18 to 25 years. Participants completed measures of perceived social support, stress, and satisfaction with life. They found that greater perceived stress was associated with diminished life satisfaction for athletes with a major injury more than for those with a minor injury. The interaction between perceived stress and perceived social support was associated most with diminished life satisfaction for participants with a major injury. They provided confirmatory support for the role that perceived stress and perceived social support play in the life satisfaction of injured college athletes.

According to Schiffrin and Nelson (2010) to increase happiness is a major focus of the emerging field of positive psychology. Common beliefs about the need to reduce stress to obtain happiness and increase satisfaction with life suggested that stress management activities should be included in these interventions. However, the research on the relationship between positive and negative affect is equivocal. Theoretically, they are conceptualized as independent dimensions, but research has often found an inverse relationship between happiness and stress. In addition, the research generally attempts to assess stress objectively rather than in terms of the cognitive appraisal process. Schiffrin and Nelson (2010) examined the relationship between the cognitive appraisal of stress and happiness among 100 college students to determine if inverse relationship existed. Linear correlations between happiness and perceived stress were significant indicating that there was an inverse relationship between these variables.
Perceived stress was related to decrease in happiness assessed by both state and trait measures. Therefore interventions designed to increase happiness and Life Satisfaction may benefit from the inclusion activities to cope with stress.

In a study, Lightsey et al. (2011) pointed that one factor that is known to predict decreases in life satisfaction is trait negative affect. Although construed by many well-being theorists as a component of well-being, negative affect has also been conceptualized as a personality trait that predicts life satisfaction (Lent, 2004). Consistent with this thesis, negative affect has been uniquely and inversely associated with life satisfaction across the life span and has inversely predicted life satisfaction in various populations (Singh and Jha, 2008; Siedlecki et al., 2008). Similarly, neuroticism, which overlaps significantly with trait negative affect, has inversely predicted life satisfaction over time. Negative affect not only predicts lower life satisfaction but also has proven to be a powerful vulnerability factor for a wide range of mental and physical problems, including depression and anxiety; tension-related diseases, such as high blood pressure, migraines, and neck pain and coronary disease. Recent evidence in fact suggests that trait negative affect may be the unifying toxic element that links individual forms of negative trait emotions (anger) to autonomic nervous system dysfunction. Both theory and empirical evidence, then, support the idea that trait negative affect constitutes a vulnerability factor that may shape mental health, physical health, and life satisfaction (Johnson, 2003; Anderson and Hope, 2008).

E. Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and Coping Styles

It was hypothesized that Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and its dimensions among adolescents were expected to be positively related with Task Focused Coping and were expected to be negatively related with Avoidance and Emotion Focused coping among total sample, male and female adolescents.

A glance at the intercorrelation matrices (Tables 5, 6, 7) revealed that Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was positively related with Task
Focused Coping among the total sample, male and female adolescents. No significant relationship emerged between Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction, Emotion Focused Coping and Avoidance Coping among total sample, male and female adolescents. The hypothesis got a partial support only.

A further perusal of the intercorrelation tables revealed that Family Satisfaction, School Satisfaction, Living Environment Satisfaction, Self Satisfaction dimensions of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction were positively related with Task Focused Coping among the total sample of adolescents, Family Satisfaction, Self Satisfaction dimensions of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction were positively related with Task Focused Coping among male and female adolescents. Self Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was positively related with Avoidance Coping among total sample and females. Tables also revealed that Family Satisfaction domain of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was positively related with Emotion Focused Coping among male adolescents.

A perusal of Stepwise Multiple Regression Equation for the total sample (Table 8) male adolescents (Table 9) and female adolescents (Table 10) with Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction as the criterion variable revealed that Task Focused Coping emerged as a significant predictor among total sample of adolescents, male and female adolescents. Emotion Focused Coping and Avoidance Coping did not emerge as a significant predictors among any of the groups. The hypothesis has been proved for task focused coping style only.

Many earlier studies revealed task focused coping, a type of problem focused coping leading to positive experiences of happiness and Life Satisfaction.

The coping process is particularly important during adolescence because it is the first time that young people are confronted with many different types of stressors and may not yet have a wide variety of coping strategies to rely on (Patterson and McCubbin, 1987).
Lazarus and Folkman (1984) gave the Cognitive Theory of Stress and Coping that has always been and continues to be an appraisal-based model. In its earlier formulation, the appraisal process was most heavily implicated during the outset of an event in the evaluation of its personal significance (primary appraisal) and the evaluation of options for coping (secondary appraisal). Together, the two forms of appraisal were said to determine the extent to which the transaction was appraised as a harm, threat, or challenge. Harm appraisals were accompanied by negative emotions such as sadness or anger and threat appraisals were accompanied by negative emotions such as anxiety or fear. Positive emotions such as excitement, eagerness, and confidence appeared in relation to challenge appraisals (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985). Coping processes were initiated in response to the appraised demands of the specific situation. Ideally, instrumental kind of problem-focused coping were used more in situations where something could be done, and emotion-focused coping to regulate distress was used more in situations that had to be accepted. Problem Focused Coping leads to positive emotions such as Happiness, Life Satisfaction, relief, or pride when a situation was resolved favorably. Coping, in research on adults, is most commonly defined as either problem- or emotion-focused. In problem-focused coping, an individual engages in behaviors to specifically address the sources of stress, whereas in emotion-focused coping, an individual engages in activities to alleviate the emotional distress caused by a stressor (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Although it is unclear if adolescent coping behaviors can be correctly dichotomized along these same two dimensions, problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping are linked to specific outcomes in adolescent populations. For example, adolescents who cope with stress by seeking social support or ventilating their feelings (emotion-focused) are more likely to use cigarettes, alcohol, and marijuana than adolescents who work to solve family problems or seek spiritual guidance (problem-focused). Emotion-focused coping strategies are also linked to depression, conduct problems, and aggression (Tolan et al., 2002).

According to Shaw et al. (1986), coping Style is significantly related to quality of life, even after accounting for the duration and severity of illness.
Passive and emotion-focused coping strategies also are associated with negative response to physical illness among older patients. Most research has focused on the positive and negative affect of different coping responses on behavioral and social dysfunction. Three distinct coping strategies have been identified and consist of problem-focused coping (efforts to change the stressful situation), emotion-focused coping (efforts to regulate emotional responses in response to stressors) and avoidance coping (efforts to engage in distracting activities in response to problems) (Compas, 1987). Despite different measurements of coping responses, findings have been consistent in demonstrating that problem-solving strategies are associated with more effective and healthier functioning, whereas emotion-focused coping strategies are associated with greater affective and behavioral problems (Endler and Parker, 1994).

Ohsako (1994) studied coping effectiveness in Japanese high school students (only 10th grade) using a translated version of the Ways of Coping checklist (Folkman and Lazarus, 1980) and an original Japanese state-trait anxiety inventory. This study was the first attempt at linking Japanese children's coping research to the American coping literature, and it is notable because stress appraisal, coping, and an outcome (i.e., anxiety) were examined together. Participants were asked to appraise the stressfulness of each of five domains of life ("schoolwork," "friends/sweet-hearts," "teachers/school environment," "personality/body," and "home"), how much they generally used particular coping strategies within these five domains, and reported levels on the outcome of anxiety. They found stress appraisal and the outcome tended to be positively correlated, as expected. In addition, coping tended to vary depending upon context.

Chan (1995) reported higher levels of avoidant coping in depressed adolescents, independent of gender. Ebata and Moos (1991) found that youths suffering from depression or conduct disorders relied more on avoidant coping, and that depressed adolescents used significantly less approach-oriented coping than all other groups.

In examining the link between coping and well-being, Seiffge-Krenke and Klessinger (2000) found that approach-oriented coping (i.e., attempts to
act or modify stressors through cognitive or overt behavior) was linked to positive adaptation. In contrast, avoidant coping was generally associated with poor adaptation. All forms of avoidant coping, whether stable or not, were linked to higher depressive outcome.

Gonzales et al. (2001) found that avoidance coping was positively associated with higher depression and poor grades at low levels of stress, but that it was associated with more adaptive functioning (i.e., lower depression and better grades) at higher levels of stress.

Krenke et al. (2001) conducted a study with school related stress and family stress in healthy and clinically referred adolescents comparing stress perception and coping style in 77 early and late adolescents. Coping with two normative, age-specific stressors, namely, school-related stressors, and conflicts with parents was investigated via the Coping Process Interview, which assesses coping immediately after an event has happened. They found that both stressors were not perceived as structurally similar events. Differences were obtained with respect to the appraisal of the stressor, causal attribution, the amount of thoughts, feelings, and actions in order to cope with these stressors, but not in achieved effects and reappraisal. In addition, differences between clinically referred and non-conspicuous adolescents emerged with respect to stress perception and coping style. Clinically referred adolescents, independent from diagnosis, experienced higher levels of school-related stress and family stress and also exhibited a more dysfunctional coping style when dealing with both types of stressors.

Matheny et al. (2002) investigated coping resources, perceived stress and life satisfaction among American and Turkish university students. Results supported the use of transactional stress constructs in studying life satisfaction with students in both countries. They found that American and Turkish students did not differ significantly in regard to perceived stress, life satisfaction or an overall measure of coping resources. In both samples coping resources was found to be correlated negatively with perceived stress and positively with Life satisfaction. Perceived stress was found to be correlated negatively with Life Satisfaction. In both Turkish and American regression models, coping resources and perceived stress was found to be
predictive of life satisfaction. Both models accounted for 45% of variance in Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS). There found significant sex differences for both countries, generally favouring males, in regard to specific coping resources males in both countries scored significantly higher than their female counterparts on four of the Coping Resource Inventory Scale subscales: Confidence, Physical Health, Physical Fitness, and Cognitive Restructuring. Additionally, American males scored higher than American females on the overall coping resources effectiveness score.

**According to McKnight et al. (2002),** stress was associated with decreased life satisfaction among high-achieving students. Interestingly, high-achieving students who reported using fewer positive appraisal coping behaviors (thinking about the good things in life) showed sharper declines in life satisfaction as perceived stress increased compared to students who reported using this coping strategy more frequently. Thus, the detrimental impact of stress on life satisfaction was more exaggerated for students who engaged in relatively few positive appraisal and help-seeking behaviors. In contrast, those students who thought positively (try to see the good things in a difficult situation) or solicited social support (try to keep up friendships or make new friends) were less affected by stress, suggesting that the use of positive appraisal coping serves to partially buffer the impact of stress on subjective well-being.

**Suldo et al. (2002)** reported that the use of adaptive coping strategies, such as positive appraisal coping, may serve to buffer the impact stress has on positive indicators of mental health, namely, life satisfaction. The literature on stress and coping in adolescent populations is limited by a focus on negative indicators of mental health (psychopathology), with less attention paid to important positive indicators of adolescent functioning (academic achievement, life satisfaction). Importantly, the absence of mental illness does not equate to the presence of mental health; instead, “the absence of disease may constitute a necessary, but not sufficient, criterion for mental health” (Jahoda, 1958). One notable model of mental health that includes indicators that measure beyond a negative or neutral point to desirable levels of functioning examined adolescent adjustment in two domains: school
functioning (academic achievement, perceptions of academic competence) and social-emotional development (subjective well-being, psychopathology) (Roeser et al. 2000). Using this model, mental health can be examined in terms of traditional indicators of psychopathology as well as the presence of positive indicators of optimal functioning, such as happiness (life satisfaction) and academic success. Such a focus on positive individual traits and experiences is consistent with the intent of the positive psychology movement (Moore and Lippman, 2005). Suldo et al. (2002) reported that Coping was found to account for a significant portion of the variance in mental health outcomes in high-achieving students. Coping accounted for almost one-third of the variance in global life satisfaction. Positive appraisal and family communication were associated with increased life satisfaction, while anger coping and negative avoidance coping were associated with diminished life satisfaction.

Rafnsson et al. (2006) investigated the relationship of coping strategies, drinking motives and stressful life events (major, daily positive, and daily negative) on emotional and behavioral problems and academic functioning among a sample of 1251 Icelandic youth (mean age 18.9 years). He found major stressful life events and negative daily events to be associated with youth maladjustment across multiple domains of functioning. They found social drinking motives for drinking predicted both alcohol use and alcohol problems. They found Emotion-focused coping was a strong predictor of depressed affect, and task-oriented coping was related inversely to emotional and behavioral problems. They compared Icelandic and American youth regarding the predictive relations of coping strategies, drinking motives, and stressful live events (major, daily positive, and daily negative) on emotional and behavioral problems, and academic functioning. Many of the findings were consistent across cultural groups, as well as consistent with the larger literature. Task (problem)-oriented coping was related inversely to emotional and behavioral problems and related positively to GPA. These findings support the hypothesis of prior research and corroborate findings of the relationship between problem-focused coping and positive health functioning among youth and lower substance use. Additionally, emotion-
focused coping was a strong predictor of depressed affect for both samples (Cooper et al., 1988; Endler and Parker, 1994).

According to Pritchard et al. (2007) students’ use of problem-solving strategies was associated with positive outcomes, such as better health and reduced negative affect. The use of emotion-focused coping was associated with negative outcomes such as poorer health and increased negative affect. However, some emotion-focused strategies such as acceptance and positive reframing have been associated with increased well-being.

F. Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and Academic Achievement

It was hypothesized that Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and its dimensions were expected to be positively related with Academic Achievement among total sample, male and female adolescents. A further perusal of the intercorrelation tables (5, 6, 7) revealed that there were no significant correlations between Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction, its dimensions and Academic Achievement among total sample, male and female adolescents.

A perusal of Stepwise Multiple Regression Equation for the total sample (Table 8) male adolescents (Table 9) and female adolescents (Table 10) with Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction as the criterion variable revealed that Academic Achievement did not emerge as significant predictor among any of the groups. Life Satisfaction was not found to be related to Academic Achievement. Hence the hypothesis was not upheld.

Some of the earlier studies revealed inconsistent results.

Some variable-centered research has shown that students with high life satisfaction tend to have higher GPAs compared with students with lower life satisfaction (Gilman and Huebner 2006). Nevertheless, other studies have found a non-significant relationship between life satisfaction and academic performance (Huebner 1991; Bradley and Corwyn 2004).

Huebner (1991) reported that School life satisfaction ratings and grades from the most recent report card (received one week prior to the administration of the SLSS) were not associated significantly with global life
satisfaction. The similar finding was obtained in a study of college students (Emmons and Diener, 1985).

Zimmerman et al.’s (1995) in a study of inner-city African-American adolescent males demonstrated that students who completed high school reported higher levels of life satisfaction than those who left school before graduation.

Fredrickson’s (2001) in her Broaden and build theory of positive emotions specified different functional roles for positive and negative emotions. Negative emotions, such as sadness or anxiety, are thought to narrow individual’s cognitions, and result in specific action tendencies, such as fight or flight responses. Such emotions hinder learning and positive coping behavior in the classroom (Roeser and Eccles 2000). On the other hand, positive emotions are thought to broaden a person’s viewpoints, increasing attention to learning and flexibility of responding. Lewis et al. (2011) findings fit with Fredrickson’s (2001) Broaden and build theory of positive emotions. Life satisfaction, as a proxy for frequent positive emotions, may also broaden a person’s viewpoints, increase flexibility of responding, and build available resources. Based on this theory, it was expected that high life satisfaction in adolescents would lead to broadened thinking and behavior, such as increased cognitive, emotional, and behavioral student engagement with school. Shocet et al. (2006) have also shown that lower levels of school connectedness, similar to emotional engagement, predict decreased negative affect (i.e., anxiety and depression), suggesting the possibility that student engagement may predict increases in adolescents' life satisfaction.

Bradley and Corwyn (2004) reported that they failed to find any positive relations between measures of academic competence and life satisfaction. It may simply reflect the diversity of interests and goals beyond academics that children have during early adolescence. It may partially reflect the disconnection often reported between various measures of competence and adaptive functioning among youth living in high stress situations (Yoshikawa and Seidman, 2000).
Lent (2004) developed a model of well being based on the principles of social cognitive career theory (SCCT), personality theories, and theories of well being. This model was chosen as this study’s theoretical framework because of its applicability to career and psychological functioning. It unites cognitive, behavioral, social, personality, and affective variables to determine well being. Lent (2004) suggested that (a) personal control beliefs, (b) outcome expectations, and (c) goals are significant contributors to well being. The model proposes that (a) personality traits and affective dispositions are related to environmental supports and resources, self-efficacy, domain-specific satisfaction, and overall life satisfaction; (b) environmental supports and resources are linked to self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and goal progress; (c) self-efficacy is related to outcome expectations, goal progress, and domain-specific satisfaction; (d) outcome expectations are proposed to influence goal progress and domain-specific satisfaction; (e) goal progress is related to domain-specific satisfaction and overall life satisfaction; and (f) domain-specific satisfaction is linked to overall life satisfaction. In addition, Lent posited bidirectional paths in that overall life satisfaction would relate to domain-specific satisfaction and that goal progress would influence self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Among Portuguese college students, positive affect and environmental supports predicted self-efficacy, environmental supports and self-efficacy predicted goal progress, and academic adjustment predicted life satisfaction.

Frisch et al. (2005) found that low levels of life satisfaction in college students were predictive of behavioral disengagement and drop out from school.

Gilman and Huebner (2006) asserted that more robust relationships between life satisfaction and behavior problems have been reported, with children reporting lower life satisfaction engaging in more problem behaviors, including internalizing and externalizing problems. For both middle school and high school age groups, students with higher life satisfaction also tend to have more favorable attitudes toward their teachers and toward school in general and tend to have higher GPAs compared with students with lower Life satisfaction.
Suldo et al. (2006) examined associations between Life satisfaction and positive emotions and school-related variables, such as academic achievement and behavior with children and adolescents.

Lent et al. (2007) pointed that academic satisfaction has received minimal attention, particularly with Mexican Americans. Social cognitive studies have found that positive affect, self-efficacy, perceived goal progress, and environmental supports predicted academic satisfaction and academic satisfaction predicted life satisfaction among predominantly White college students (Lent, et al., 2005). Similarly, satisfaction with college life was influenced by three forms of self-efficacy (college, social, general), with college self-efficacy being the strongest predictor among predominantly White college students. Another study found that academic satisfaction was positively related to academic performance and was negatively related to academic disengagement among predominantly White college women (Huerta et al., 2006). Lent et al. (2007) did not find a significant relation between outcome expectations and goal progress. In contrast, the path between outcome expectations and academic satisfaction resulted in a significant positive finding.

Reschly et al. (2008) found that individual differences, such as positive and negative affect impact the level of cognitive or psychological engagement students report in school. Students' frequent experiences of positive emotions were correlated with a greater perceived cognitive engagement as measured by the relevance of school work and future aspirations, and greater psychological engagement, defined as support for learning from family and peers and positive student–teacher relationships.

Suldo and Shaffer (2008) found that middle school students with high life satisfaction and low levels of psychopathology had significantly higher GPAs and standardized test scores than peers with low levels of psychopathology and low life satisfaction.

Suldo et al. (2008) proposed a model in which academic experiences influence life satisfaction indirectly through school satisfaction. Specifically, factor analytic studies support a hierarchical model in which life satisfaction is
Discussion

a higher-order construct that represents children and adolescents’ collective satisfaction with five important domains of life, one of which is school (Gilman et al., 2000). They advanced that behavioral contexts (student performance in the domain) and social contexts (quality of environment relevant to the domain) influence cognitive contexts (students’ attitudes and beliefs relevant to the domain) which, in turn, constitute satisfaction with a given domain of life. They advanced an application of this model to satisfaction with school that students’ school satisfaction is influenced most directly by their cognitions in two important areas: (1) their ability and motivation to achieve academically in general (personal academic beliefs) and (2) their attitudes toward their current school (attachment to school). Importantly, personal academic beliefs such as achievement motivation and motivation to learn are theoretically distinct from attachment to school. Suldo et al. (2008) identified even more ways in which schooling is associated with students’ Perceived quality of life. Specifically, students’ feelings of attachment to their current school were moderately correlated with their global life satisfaction. There finding was consistent with previous research that demonstrated children and adolescents’ attachment to other important objects, specifically peers and parents, was related to their satisfaction with every domain of life (Nickerson and Nagle, 2004). In sum, applications of attachment theory to life satisfaction extended beyond important interpersonal relationships to include one’s sense of belonging to a salient institution school. They showed that students who violate school rules tend to have lower life satisfaction and found that personal academic beliefs had the largest relationship with life satisfaction and this finding was consistent with previous research demonstrating that other cognitions about the self were highly correlated with global life satisfaction in elementary, middle, and high-school aged youth (Chang et al., 2003). They underscored the importance of fostering students’ attitudes pertinent to their academic abilities, valuing school as important to one’s future goals, and motivation to self-regulate their academic behavior not only to raise academic achievement but also to increase students’ happiness with school and their lives in general.
In a study Suldo et al. (2008) examined a Social-Cognitive-Behavioral model of Academic predictors of adolescents’ Life Satisfaction. They put forth the theoretical model that hypothesized that behavior experiences (classroom conduct, school grades) and social experiences (perceived school climate) at school influenced students’ cognitions relative to their global academic beliefs and attitudes toward their current school. These cognitive contexts of schooling are hypothesized to constitute students’ judgments of their satisfaction with school, an important predictor of global life satisfaction. Self-report measures assessing adolescents’ perceptions of these constructs were administered to a pilot sample of 321 high school students in a southeastern city. Simultaneous regression and correlational analyses clarified that student-teacher relations and parental involvement in schooling are the aspects of school climate that were significantly associated with students’ life satisfaction. This study provided support for a theoretical model in which behavioral contexts (grades received, in-school conduct), social contexts (school climate), and cognitive contexts (academic personal beliefs, attachment to school) of school are all linked to students’ global life satisfaction, largely through associations with students’ satisfaction with school.

Valois et al. (2009) posited that there was a general lack of research investigating the relationship between life satisfaction and assets in development, such as perceived support from adults and teachers, school support, and positive peer relationships. In a longitudinal study exploring the link between life satisfaction and dimensions of student engagement in a sample of 779 middle school students.

Salmela and Soini (2010) investigated adolescents' Life Satisfaction during the transition to post-comprehensive education and its antecedents and consequences. They investigated the extent to which life satisfaction changed among adolescents during the transition from comprehensive school to an academic or a vocational track. The participants were 15-year-old adolescents who filled in the Satisfaction with Life Scale twice during their final term of comprehensive school and twice after the transition either to upper secondary or vocational education. At comprehensive school they
reported their academic achievement, expected educational track, educational aspirations, self-esteem, and background information, while at the last measurement point they reported their school engagement and attained educational track. Latent growth Modeling showed, that life satisfaction increased during the educational transition. They found that higher the adolescents’ academic achievement and self-esteem, the higher the level of their life satisfaction during the transition.

Situated within a positive psychology perspective, Lewis et al. (2011) examined Life Satisfaction and Student Engagement in adolescents using structural equation modeling techniques. They evaluated the nature and directionality of longitudinal relationships between life satisfaction and student engagement variables. They hypothesized that adolescents’ life satisfaction and student engagement variables would show bidirectional relationships. To test this hypothesis, 779 students (53% female, 62% Caucasian) in a Southeastern US middle school completed a measure of global life satisfaction and measures of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral engagement at two time points, five months apart. A statistically significant bidirectional relationship between life satisfaction and cognitive engagement was found, however, non-significant relationships were found between life satisfaction and emotional and behavioral student engagement. They found, middle school students who were satisfied with their lives at the beginning of the school year reported subsequent higher levels of believing school is important for their future, even after controlling for SES, GPA, family status, race, and gender. This provided important evidence of the role of early adolescents’ life satisfaction in their engagement in schooling during the important transition grades between elementary and high school. The findings suggested to extend the positive psychology perspective to the relatively neglected context of education. This research is consistent with the positive psychology paradigm, which seeks to incorporate a focus of psychology that goes beyond the remediation of personal deficits to include the development of positive qualities in people (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi 2000). The importance of students’ psychological ill-being relative to their educational performance and behavior has been well-documented (Roeser and Eccles,
Discussion

2000); however, the importance of psychological well-being (Life Satisfaction) has received little scholarly attention. Although related to academic performance outcomes (GPA), the facilitation of high levels of student engagement in their schooling has been suggested to be an important outcome in and of itself (Furlong et al. 2003). Lewis et al. (2011) asserted that research with adults has demonstrated that life satisfaction is a predictor of positive outcomes in many domains of life. Adults with high life satisfaction show greater success in interpersonal, occupational, and physical functioning. Persons with high life satisfaction live longer, fight off illness and feel better, and make more money than those with lower levels of life satisfaction. They also report more positive social relationships, greater job satisfaction and productivity, and lower levels of psychopathology. Although sparse, some studies have investigated linkages between life satisfaction and educational attainment. Frisch et al. (2005) followed a large sample of college students who sought services at a university counseling center over a 4-year period. They found that GPA and life satisfaction, independently and together, predicted which college students would drop out of school 1–3 years in advance. Furthermore, as part of the Chicago Longitudinal Study investigating the outcomes of low income, minority children, Ou (2008) found that students at ages 22–24 who received their high school diploma reported higher levels of life satisfaction than those who obtained their GED or dropped out of school, after controlling for covariates, such as income. Though less research has been conducted with children and youth, individual differences in global life satisfaction have been shown to be correlated with a number of factors in students’ lives, such as demographic variables (higher socioeconomic status), quality of parent and peer relationships, and mental and physical health (Huebner 2004; Proctor et al. 2008). Adolescents’ life satisfaction has also been found to be a mediator between stressful life events and internalizing behaviors as well as a moderator between stressful life events and externalizing behaviors (Suldo and Huebner, 2004). Thus, similar to studies of adults, life satisfaction appears to play an important role in adolescents’ overall adaptation. There have been only a few studies of associations between life satisfaction and positive emotions and school-related variables, such as academic achievement and behavior with children and adolescents.
Discussion

(Suldo et al. 2006). They found that students who see value in their education and schooling become more satisfied with their lives is not inconsistent with other research suggesting that, although multiple contextual factors, including family and peer relationships, likely exert influences on adolescents' life satisfaction, the school context is an important, independent contextual influence. The importance of the school context in adolescents’ global well-being is perhaps related to the fact that the majority of their day is spent at school (Roese and Eccles, 2000). Lewis et al. (2011) has demonstrated the importance of adolescents’ success in school to other aspects of their lives. Positive attitudes and behavior in schools not only translate into successful academic performance, but also facilitate the development of individuals who become lifelong learners, reaping vocational, interpersonal, and psychological benefits long after graduation (Peterson 2006). Given the importance of students’ success in school to their overall adaptation during adolescence and beyond, these results would support school professionals’ efforts to monitor and promote healthy levels of life satisfaction and cognitive engagement, perhaps preventing disengagement from school and eventual school dropout.

Ojeda (2011) in their study Social Cognitive Predictors of Mexican American College Students’ Academic and Life Satisfaction used Lent’s (2004) social cognitive model of well being to examine the academic and life satisfaction of 457 Mexican American college students attending a Hispanic-Serving Institution. Using structural equation modeling, results indicated that the model provided a good fit to the data. Specifically, they found positive relations from positive affect to enculturation, acculturation, college self-efficacy, academic satisfaction, and life satisfaction; their findings demonstrate that when students experience strong levels of positive affect, they feel more connected to their culture and are more likely to have positive academic experiences from enculturation to college self-efficacy.

GENDER DIFFERENCES

Another aim of the present study was to find out gender differences on Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction and its correlates. For this purpose t-tests were computed. Table 4 shows the
gender differences on various variables. On Perceived Happiness male adolescents scored higher than female adolescents. Male adolescents scored higher on Perceived Health Status. On the dimension of Coping, female adolescents scored higher on Task Focused Coping whereas male adolescents scored higher on Avoidance Coping. Females scored higher on Friends’ Satisfaction and School Satisfaction dimensions of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction.

A glance at the Intercorrelation matrices (Tables 5, 6, 7) revealed that among both males and females Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was positively related with Perceived Happiness, Perceived Parental Care, Task Focused Coping, Family Satisfaction, Friends’ Satisfaction, School Satisfaction, Living Environment Satisfaction and Self Satisfaction and negatively related with Perceived Parental Overprotection and Stress Symptoms. It also revealed that Multidimensional Life Satisfaction was positively related with Perceived Health Status and negatively related with Family Conflict Likelihood, Family Conflict Seriousness, Mother Conflict Likelihood and Mother Conflict Seriousness among females only.

Stepwise multiple regression analysis with the criterion of Total Multidimensional Life Satisfaction for male and female adolescents (tables 9,10) revealed that Perceived Parental Care and Task Focused Coping emerged as common predictors of among both male and female adolescents. However Perceived Happiness, Academic Achievement and Perceived Parental Overprotection emerged as significant predictors for male adolescent only. In case of females only, perceived health status emerge as a significant predictor. Some gender differences in Life Satisfaction and its correlates did emerge in present study.

**Gender differences in Life Satisfaction and its correlates have been revealed in earlier studies also.**

Huebner (1991) investigated the correlates of global life satisfaction dimension of children’s subjective well-being. Seventy-nine students in grades 5-7 of a rural school district in the Midwest completed a life satisfaction scale and selected personality tests. Individual differences in global life satisfaction
Discussion

were not associated with demographic variables (age, grade, gender, parental marital status, parent occupational status), but were associated with personality characteristics. Students who reported high life satisfaction tended to rate themselves higher on measures of self-esteem, internal locus of control, and extraversion and lower on measures of anxiety and neuroticism. At this age, satisfaction with family life was more strongly associated with high overall satisfaction than satisfaction with friends.

A subsequent study by Nagane (1991) obtained a divergent finding with regard to gender. He developed an everyday life event stress scale focused on school events for Japanese elementary school students of 4th-6th grades. Factor analysis revealed four domains of Life event stress: peer relations, class presentations, school achievement, and school failure. Significant differences were found between males and females, but not across grades. Girls reported more stress in school achievement than boys.

Causey and Dubow (1992) indicated situation-dependent gender differences. They found that girls used more social-support seeking, problem solving, and internalizing emotion regulation than boys, especially when coping with a peer argument compared to coping with a poor grade. The level of life satisfaction was found to be lower in girls as compared to boys in a previous study of youth (Neto, 1993).

Taris and Bok (1996) found that girls on average go in for higher education more than boys. Boys seem to be more persistent in aiming to obtain a particular level of education. One way of interpreting these findings is that girls may have a lower motivation to achieve than boys, possibly due to the traditional sex-role socialisation patterns: men are expected to achieve and to become the bread-winner, whereas this is not the case for women. However, they asserted that it is not so much the amount of control and love parents provide that determines the differentials regarding educational achievement, but rather what type of values they transmit to their children.

Kamo (1998) asserted that general life satisfaction is determined by salient sub-areas of each person’s everyday life. In every society, gender is a salient factor in one’s life. Each society treats two genders in different
manners, and this differential treatment of two genders affects their life satisfaction. **Campbell et al. (1976)** reported that in U.S.A overall gender differences in life satisfaction were relatively small, especially when compared to other demographic factors such as marital and economic statuses. **Amato (1994)** also showed that gender had no effect on life satisfaction. **Diener (1984)** summarized that “Although women report more negative affect, they also seem to experience greater joys, so that little difference in global happiness or satisfaction is usually found between the males and females. The same trend is reflected in the present study.

**Witchen et al. (1998)** found the elevated risk in adolescent and young adult females for the development of internalizing disorders such as affective disorders (compared with males of the same age), anxiety disorders and eating disorders indicates a greater vulnerability of girls.

**Shek (1999a, 1999b, 2005)** reported that adolescent girls were more susceptible to the effect of parenting characteristics (such as parental warmth and support) than were adolescent boys. Daughters were more susceptible to parental influences than were boys.

**Colarossi and Eccles (2000)** investigated parent and child predictors of adolescents’ perceived social support from peers in 285 adolescents. Their parents filled out surveys when students were 11 and 15 years of age. They used depression, and self-esteem as predictors of adolescents’ peer social support. Path analyses revealed functional dissimilarity in the predictive model, for boys and girls. For boys and girls, the amount of spousal support parents’ reported impacted the amount of parent to child support that children reported. For boys, this relationship impacted their perceptions of peer support indirectly through depression. However, for girls, parents’ own supportive relationships directly impacted both their self-esteem and depression, above and beyond parent to child support, which then impacted girls’ peer social support. They reported that boys’ depression is impacted more directly from parental treatment of them and other non-familial factors, whereas girls’ mental health is more sensitive to multiple relationship dynamics within the family. Girls might perceive their parents’ own relationships in a way that it influences their mental health above and beyond
their parents’ direct support to them. If girls are more emotionally reactive to parents’ own distress or happiness in their relationships, they could, in turn, incorporate these emotions into their own happiness or depression. This is also indicated by the significant impact of familial relationships on girls’ self-esteem. They concluded that child’s mental health was related to their social relationships. In general, studies have found that girls report higher quantities of and greater satisfaction with peer support than boys do, but this difference has only seldom been found for support from family members. However, support from family members does seem to have a greater impact on females’ levels of depression and self-esteem than that of males (Windle, 1992; Jarvin and Nicholls, 1996). Additionally, mental health has been found to be a stronger predictor of peer support for females than for males (Newcomb, 1990).

Griffith et al. (2000) showed that with the exception of avoidance coping for school stressors, female adolescents reported higher levels of both approach and avoidance coping strategies for the three stressor domains family, school, and peers compared to male adolescents.

In line with the majority of studies on depression, Wei et al. (2000) assumed that the largest decrease in the feeling of well-being would primarily occur among girls in early and mid-adolescence. This age effect could be determined for general well-being and psychological stress, but not for suicidal thoughts. Among boys, the feeling of well-being also decreased, but this decrease occurred more evenly and over a longer period. After adolescence, the males and females do not show much divergence in terms of general well-being. However, from the ages 15 to 17 and above, the stress level of girls remains consistently higher than that of boys. Other studies into depression also revealed that, from adolescence, depression afflicts women more frequently than men. They asserted that girls and boys may have different parental bonds. It is sometimes found that adolescent girls do not have such a good parental bond as boys do (Ryan and Lynch, 1989). Other studies, though, reveal that the reverse also holds true. Generally, however, there is little or no difference between the parental bonds of both the genders. The effects of the parental bond toward the child may also be gender-specific.
It is usually found that relational variables have a stronger impact on the psychological functioning of girls and women (Kenny, 1994; Scheier and Botvin, 1997). Irrespective of the quality of the relational network, girls usually show more internalized problem behavior than boys. From early adolescence onwards, girls are inclined to feel more depressed than boys particularly, the middle and later phases of adolescence show peaks in terms of feelings of depression (Gotlib and Hammen, 1992). The bond between boys and their parents becomes somewhat less positive in the transition from early adolescence (age: 12–14) to mid-adolescence (age: 15–17). After this transition, the bond remains reasonably stable for boys. Girls experience greater fluctuations in the relationship with their parents. Particularly in mid-adolescence, this relationship becomes temporarily less positive; however, their parental bond ameliorates in late adolescence. Adolescence is a period in which the general well-being of girls is temporarily lower than that of boys. After the twentieth year of their life, general well-being no longer differs between the genders, whereas the difference in general well-being between boys and girls disappears after adolescence. Following other authors (Lopez et al., 1992; Scheier and Botvin, 1997), Wel et al. (2000) formulated the hypothesis that girls would be more sensitive to ameliorations and deteriorations in the parental bond. They found that the more emotional dimensions of psychological well-being come into play, the greater the difference between the genders was, regarded as the relationship of the parental bond with these dimensions: with respect to general well-being, no differences between the genders occur; for girls, the connection between changes in the parental bond and changes in psychological stress was found to be considerably stronger, though; and for suicidal thoughts, it is only among girls that a relationship with the parental bond can be found. They concluded that fluctuations in the quality of the parental bond have more repercussions for the emotional stability of girls than for boys.

Rask et al. (2002) in their study reported that, girls experienced ill-being more often than boys, but global satisfaction was nearly identical in both gender groups. Fujita et al. (1991) and Pavot et al. (1998) similarly found no gender differences in life satisfaction, although female respondents had more
negative affect than males. The girls in Rask et al. (2002) study valued friends more highly than boys, whereas boys placed a higher value on achievement compared with girls. The results are consistent with the findings of a study by Helve (1996), according to which girls emphasized human relationships more than boys.

Sehgal (2003) reported that significant gender differences emerged on dimensions of health habits viz Exercise habits, with boys group scoring higher than girls and, avoidance of use of alcohol and drugs with girls group scoring higher than the boys group.

Nickerson and Nagle (2004) hypothesized that there would be no significant gender and grade differences for life satisfaction, as demographic variables have not consistently been correlated with this construct. Children's attachment relationships with parents were predicted to contribute the most variance in life satisfaction, especially for the domain of family life. It was also anticipated that attachment to peers would contribute to life satisfaction, and that this would correspond most strongly to satisfaction with friends. It was also hypothesized that the relationship between children's attachment to peers and their reports of life satisfaction would increase with age, so that the correlation for individuals in early adolescence would be higher than for those in middle childhood. Lastly, it was anticipated that trust in the parent and peer relationships would best predict life satisfaction. They asserted that an oft-cited gender difference in friendship is that girls consistently reported more intimacy and self-disclosure in their friendships, and this difference is most pronounced in early adolescence (Berndt and Perry, 1990). Despite this consistent finding, gender differences have generally not been found in attachment research, with the exception of a minority of studies with older adolescents finding that females scored higher than males on measures of peer attachment (Paterson et al., 1994). Nickerson and Nagle (2004) found consistent results across gender for all models except for the prediction of School Satisfaction. Standardized regression coefficients indicated that both parent attachment and peer attachment significantly predicted School Satisfaction for females, but only parent attachment predicted satisfaction with schools for males. The trend of females reporting greater satisfaction with
Discussion

school than males during adolescence has been found in previous studies also (Huebner, 1994; Huebner et al., 2000).

Huebner et al. (2005) conducted a study, to measure middle school age students’ levels of Life Satisfaction in six major domains (family, friends, self, school, living environment, and overall LS), employing a large state-wide sample. Also, the associations between Life Satisfaction and demographic variables were investigated. The large multi-domain data base was expected to increase the external validity of the findings relative to previous studies. The data should also inform decision-makers about possible, important needs and trends among this age group. Based on previous research with youth (Gilman and Huebner, 2003), it was anticipated that the middle school students would report positive levels of overall and domain-specific Life Satisfaction. Given that previous studies of the relationships among adolescent Life Satisfaction and demographic variables have been conflicting, specific hypotheses were not formulated for this exploratory study. Data were analyzed by race, gender, grade and SES. Grade effects were analyzed, rather than age effects, because of the importance of grade placements to student outcomes in the U.S.A. Huebner et al. (2005) found that most students reported Life Satisfaction above the neutral point; many reported dissatisfaction, with almost ten percent indicating a “terrible” or “unhappy” overall life. Larger percentages reported similar levels of dissatisfaction with school, living environment and family experiences. Males reported lower school and friends’ satisfaction as compared to females. To conclude gender, grade, age made no difference to the level of Life Satisfaction.

Constantine (2006) have reported that parent-adolescent relationships characterized by secure mutual attachments and high emotional closeness are related to positive adolescent psychological outcomes, whereas insecure parent-adolescent attachments and less emotional closeness have been predictive of negative psychological outcomes among adolescents (Armsden and Greenberg, 1987; Cicchetti et al., 1995). Some investigators have indicated that adolescent girls, relative to their male counterparts, tend to experience more disclosing and conflictual relationships with their parents (Noller, 1994). Some investigators have speculated that adolescent girls tend
to gain independence from their families more slowly than do boys and this relatively lesser degree of independence might make the family a more salient context for adolescent girls and predict their greater sensitivity to the perceived quality of family relationships (Sheeber et al., 1997). Researchers also have reported that the presence of supportive and cohesive relationships was more strongly associated with lower levels of depressive symptomatology in girls than in boys because girls generally may be socialized more into investing in interpersonal relationships than are boys. This greater centrality of interpersonal concerns might increase girls’ vulnerability to depression (Jones and Costin 1995). Adolescent girls who lack confidence in the stability of interpersonal relationships often avoid assertions of psychological autonomy for fear of reprisal and these insecure attachments may reinforce negative self-schemas and make them vulnerable to depression (Diamond et al., 2003). Furthermore Fitzpatrick et al. (2005) reported that African American adolescent girls might be more emotionally mature than their male counterparts, which could result in their greater likelihood of reporting more depressive symptoms. Hence, relative to their male counterparts, African American female adolescents may be at higher risk of developing negative emotional and behavioral outcomes in the context of poor perceived relationship quality or insecure attachments with their parents and peers.

Matsuoka et al. (2006) examined gender differences in perceived rearing and adult attachment style in adolescents. A total of 3,912 senior college students (1,149 men and 2,763 women) aged 18-23 were administered a set of questionnaires including relationship questionnaire (to measure adult attachment), the Parental Bonding Instrument (perceived rearing), and a list of early life events. They found that paternal care is no less important than maternal care in terms of adult attachment development. In the men, positive adult total attachment style was predicted by the scores of paternal care and low scores on maternal overprotection in a hierarchical regression analysis and in the women, positive adult total attachment style was predicted by the scores of paternal and maternal care, and low score on maternal overprotection. They found that although the two genders adult attachments were influenced by peer victimisation in the both males and
females, women were more vulnerable to relocation. Women's adult attachment was predicted by the top star experiences like winning first prize in a variety of competitions and being elected as a class leader. These experiences enhance self-esteem and the perceptions of other people. Improved images of self and others may result in better adult attachment style while men's adult attachment was predicted by the self disease experience. On the other hand, people with peer victimization experiences may have negative images of others; this may result in poorer adult attachment style. Relocation as a child may be an extremely stressful event because of sudden changes in situation and abrupt discontinuation. Matsuoka et al. (2006) concluded that the adult attachment style was predictable from early experiences but women have more secure attachment than men. Women in general may be more securely attached to significant others.

Eschenbeck et al. (2007) focused on gender effects and interactions between gender, type of stressful situation, and age-group in coping strategies in childhood and adolescence. The sample consisted of N = 1990 children and adolescents (957 boys, 1033 girls; grade levels 3–8). The participants responded to a coping questionnaire with the five subscales: seeking social support, problem solving, avoidant coping, palliative emotion regulation, and anger-related emotion regulation. They found that girls scored higher in seeking social support and problem solving, whereas boys scored higher in avoidant coping. Eschenbeck et al. (2007) emphasized that the type of stressful situation influenced gender differences in avoidant coping: With relationship stressors (i.e., social stressors) men were more likely than women to use venting and avoidance. There study provided evidence of gender differences in childhood and adolescence for the three most central coping strategies of seeking social support, problem solving, and avoidant coping. Research concerning gender differences that may influence coping in children and adolescents revealed mixed results. Furthermore, gender differences in coping are relevant for gender differences in health and health behaviors (Kohlmann et al., 1997). Developmental aspects (cognitive, affective, social), lack of experience as well as aspects of environment (dependence on adults), and gender socialization may contribute to
differences in coping processes between children and adolescents compared to adults (Compas et al., 2001). Within adolescence, gender differences in coping have typically been found for seeking social support: female adolescents reported higher scores than male adolescents. Findings for the other coping strategies are a bit less consistent. For example, females showed more active approach coping strategies than males. In contrast, male adolescents were more likely to use avoidant coping strategies. Regarding emotion regulation strategies, females, particularly in early adolescence, used less distraction/recreation and more aggression than their male counterparts. However, other studies found that females had higher scores in avoidant coping (Griffith et al., 2000; Hampel and Petermann, 2005). Compas et al. (1988) reported greater usage of emotion-focused strategies by females compared to males in response to academic stressors. Less is known on gender differences in childhood. Some studies for self-generated stressors found no differences in coping styles between girls and boys. However, other studies showed – comparable, in part, with research on adolescents that girls used more social-support seeking and problem-solving coping than boys for the standard stressor being grounded by parents, whereas boys used more distancing and externalizing coping (Causey and Dubow, 1992).

Farokhzad (2007) in a cross cultural study of adolescents stress and coping in relation to personality, family environment and happiness orientation found that females were higher on beck depression, stress whereas males were found to be higher on optimism, mental health and happiness.

Franck and Buehler (2007) asserted that there is empirical support for significant child and parent gender effects when examining the relationships among marital hostility, parents’ depressive affect, and youth maladjustment. In a recent meta-analysis, Connell and Goodman (2002) found that mothers’ depression was related more strongly to internalizing problem behaviors in children than was fathers’ depression. Father’s depression has been related to poorer cognitive functioning for sons and daughters and internalizing problem behaviors in sons. Ge and colleagues (1995) found same-sex gender effects with mothers’ and daughters’ depression and fathers’ and sons’ depression related concurrently. In a study that examined both risk
factors, Davies and Windle (1997) found that adolescent daughters exposed to both maternal depressive affect and marital distress were at greater risk for depression, conduct disorders, and poor academic functioning than were sons. Another study found that adolescent daughters exposed to marital hostility and mothers’ depression displayed more irritability with others than did adolescent daughters exposed only to mothers’ depression.

Haobam (2007) in a study on weight status and health habits of adolescents in relation to stress, coping styles, personality and parental Body Mass Index (BMI) found that adolescent females were higher on anger experienced and anger expressed, extraversion and Lie (social desirability). Males were found to be higher on body mass index, health habits, life events stress and perceived health status.

Jose and Kilburg (2007) examined stress and coping in Japanese children and adolescents. The Japanese children and adolescents (n=580) provided self-reports of stressor intensity, coping efforts, and adjustment. A new measure of Japanese adolescent coping was created, and psychometric analyses confirmed a reliable four-factor structure. They found that girls reported higher levels of self-image and peer relations’ stress. Girls reported using isolation and problem-solving coping more and externalising coping less than males. They also found that younger adolescents (5th/8th grades) reported higher stress in the domains of school, peer relations, and family relations, whereas older adolescents (10th grade) reported higher self-image problems. Statistical moderation was used to examine how youth negotiated the stress process. Females were found to be more responsive to appearance, family, and peer difficulties. Affiliation coping by females operated as a buffer between appearance anxiety and dissatisfaction with appearance. Externalizing coping was not associated with peer relations satisfaction for males, but it was negatively associated for females.

According to Goldbeck et al. (2007), adolescence is a developmental phase associated with significant somatic and psychosocial changes. They examined the effects of age and gender on adolescent’s life satisfaction. In their study 1,274 German adolescents (aged 11–16 years) participated in a school-based survey study. They completed the adolescent version of the
questions on Life Satisfaction, a multidimensional instrument measuring the subjective importance and eight general domains of Life Satisfaction viz Friends, Leisure time/hobbies, general health, income/pocket money, school, house/living conditions, family life and partnership sexuality and eight domains of health-related life satisfaction viz Physical condition/fitness, ability to relax, energy/zest for life, mobility, vision and hearing, freedom from anxiety, freedom from aches and pain, and independence from help/care. They analysed effects of gender and age using ANOVAs. Their study results found that girls reported lower satisfaction than boys with a stronger effect on health-related life satisfaction compared with general life satisfaction. In both genders and across nearly all life domains, there was a significant decrease in general and health-related life satisfaction between 11 and 16 years. They found that Satisfaction with friends remained on a high level, whereas satisfaction with family relations decreased. Only satisfaction with partnership/sexuality increased slightly, however this effect cannot compensate the general loss of satisfaction. They concluded that decreasing Life Satisfaction must be considered as a developmental phenomenon. They found substantial decrease in Life Satisfaction was a precursor of psychiatric disorders so Life satisfaction must be considered a relevant aspect of adolescent’s well-being and functioning. Most studies on gender effects report a poorer QOL in females compared to males, both in adolescents with chronic conditions such as cystic fibrosis and diabetes, as well as in healthy adolescents (Wagner et al., 2004). The study by Huebner et al. (2004) of students in grades 9 to 12 in US-American high schools yielded no significant gender differences in life satisfaction. Inconsistencies between the studies could be due to different methods of measuring quality of life or life satisfaction, and due to the different age of the study populations. The study on life satisfaction by Huebner included students post puberty, and therefore it is possible that no age-related variance occurred. Developmentally determined changes in life satisfaction are more likely in the phase between 11 and 15, as demonstrated for QOL by Bisegger et al. (2005).

Gilman et al. (2008) conducted a study that was the first to examine adolescent multidimensional life satisfaction reports across a number of
nations. They evaluated responses to the Multidimensional Students’ Life Satisfaction Scale (MSLSS: Huebner, 1994) by a total of 1338 youth adolescents from two individualistic nations (Ireland, USA) and two collectivistic nations (China, South Korea) to assess general life satisfaction and satisfaction with family, friends, school, self, and living environment. They analyzed responses to assess potential cross-national differences in (a) mean levels of life satisfaction, and (b) response styles, specifically acquiescence and extreme responding. Mean scores revealed positive ratings by adolescents from all four nations across all domains, with the exceptions of satisfaction with school experiences (Ireland, South Korean, USA), living environment (China, South Korea), self (South Korea), and general life satisfaction (South Korea). Results also revealed significant response style differences across all MSLSS domains. Significant gender and gender-by-nation effects were observed for both mean score and response style differences, although the effect sizes were small. Gilman et al. (2008) found that females reported higher General satisfaction and School satisfaction than males. They reported the mean scores for each gender (by nation) across the MSLSS domains. For the general satisfaction domain, Irish and US females reported significantly higher mean scores than males, while no gender differences were noted for Chinese and South Korean youth. Within specific MSLSS domains, South Korean females reported significantly lower self satisfaction mean scores than their male peers. No other gender differences were noted on this domain for any of the other nations. For living environment satisfaction, South Korean females again reported significantly lower mean scores than South Korean males, while the opposite was found for Chinese and Irish females, who reported significantly higher mean scores than their male peers. Finally, US and Irish males reported significantly lower school satisfaction mean scores than their female peers, while no significant differences were noted on this domain for Chinese and South Korean adolescents. In studies of collectivistic nations, early studies reported small but significant gender differences in adolescents life satisfaction with males reporting higher self and living environment satisfaction (Park, 2005). These differences have not been found among adolescents from the US (Gilman and Huebner, 2003).
Jaggi (2008) found that Happiness is a function of genetic, parental, social, personality and situational factors. Ineffective coping styles lowered happiness whereas positive affect, subjective well-being, happiness, optimism and extraversion worked towards enhancing it. No significant gender differences emerged on the measure of Happiness, Satisfaction with Life, positive affect and negative affect.

Tripathi (2008) in a study of interpersonal forgiveness in relation to personality, religiosity and emotions among adolescents found that adolescent females were higher on religious well being and lie score. Males, on the other hand, were found to be higher on forgiveness of situation, being comfortable with self, negative affect and positive affect.

Kwan (2010) in their study Life Satisfaction and self-assessed Health among adolescents in HongKong found that male adolescents had higher self-assessed levels in all four aspects of health: overall, physical, mental, and activity-day.

Piko and Hamvai (2010) examined the social correlates of adolescents’ life satisfaction and explored gender differences in the role of parent, school and peer-related variables using a sample of 881 high school students in Szeged, Hungary (N=881, aged 14–20, 44.6% female). They found that parents continued to be an important correlate of adolescents’ well-being. Talking about problems with parents was an universal correlate. In addition, their results confirmed that being happy with school and good academic achievement were associated with adolescents’ overall well-being in both girls and boys. However, while boys might benefit more from parental support and joint activities, such as having dinner together, life satisfaction among girls was associated with the number of caring friends and acceptance of parental values. The relationship between socio demographics (age, gender, and SES) and life satisfaction was often found to be weak, although several studies noted some associations. Gender particularly seems to be an important correlate since gender differences in well-being begin to increase during adolescence due to psychosocial and biological-hormonal changes. In addition, there are gender differences in the risk and protective factor structure of adolescent health behavior, health and well-being (Piko and Fitzpatrick, 2002; Proctor et al., 2009).