DISCUSSION

Adolescence is probably the most turbulent, taxing and stressful and uncertain of all phases in life, both for adolescents themselves and for parents, teachers and health professionals.

Yet adolescence is also a period of great joy, excitement and optimism during which the delights of autonomy, intimacy and the future are fresh and possibilities are created for happiness, success and psychological growth, throughout the remainder of life (Mohan, 2006). Adolescent health, reflects a similar interplay between difficult challenges and exciting new achievements and opportunities. The term adolescence literally means to emerge and to achieve identity.

According to Williams et al. (2002), adolescence is a transitional development period between childhood and adulthood that is characterized by more biological, psychological and social role changes than any other stage of life except infancy (Lerner et al., 1998). Given this magnitude of such changes it is not surprising that there are also significant changes in the types and frequency of psychological disorders and health problems during this developmental period, as compared with childhood.

To date researches done in the area of adolescence have paid considerably less attention to indicators of positive psychological well being, such as life satisfaction, earlier the focus was only on psychological symptoms and pathologies (Heubner et al., 2005). However, in the last decade there has been a paradigm shift in psychology from studying just negative energy and illnesses to positive psychology.

Nuffield (2009) studied changes in the behavior patterns of adolescents over time and found that life challenges and adolescent changes leaves young people of today with a general level of emotional and behavioral problems that is significantly higher than it was for the 16 year olds living through the 1970s and 1980s.
The primary aim of the present investigation was to study the relationship of psychological variables between parents and their offsprings viz. Well Being measures namely Psychological Well Being and Subjective Well Being, Gratitude, Oxford Happiness, Stress, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, Social Desirability, Measures of Mental Health namely Being Comfortable with Self, Being Comfortable with Others and Perceived Ability to Meet Life Demands, Optimism, types of Coping viz. Task Focused Coping, Emotion Focused Coping and Avoidance Focused Coping, types of Anger experienced viz. State Anger, Trait Anger, Anger Expression Styles viz. Anger In, Anger Out and Anger Control, measures of Forgiveness namely Forgiveness of Self, Forgiveness of Others and Forgiveness of Situations, Measures of Hope viz. Pathways and Agency, Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness Status.

Relationship of Well Being measures, viz. Psychological Well Being and Subjective Well Being and Gratitude was studied with Eysenckian dimensions of Personality, Happiness, Optimism, Coping styles, Stress dimensions, Anger Experienced and Anger Expression styles, Forgiveness, Mental Health, Hope, Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness Status.

In addition, gender differences in Psychological Well Being, Subjective Well Being and Gratitude and its correlates were also investigated.

For measuring Psychological Well Being, the Psychological Well Being test devised by Ryff and Keyes (1995) was used. It measures six dimensions viz. Autonomy, Environmental Mastery, Personal Growth, Positive Relations with Others, Purpose in Life and Self Acceptance.

Subjective Well Being, on the other hand, was measured using two tests. Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) developed by Watson et al. (1988) was used to study Positive Affect and Negative Affect. The other measure of Subjective Well Being was Satisfaction with Life and it was measured using Satisfaction with Life scale developed by Diener et al. (1985).
Gratitude Questionnaire devised by McCullough et al. (2002), was used to assess the grateful disposition of adolescents.

To measure Stress, the Stress Symptoms Rating Scale developed by Heilbrun and Pepe (1985) was used. In addition to this, the Life Event Stress Scale by Albuquerque et al. (1990) was used to measure stress among adolescents.

For measuring Personality, Eysenck’s Personality Questionnaire – Revised (EPQ-R) devised by Eysenck et al. (1985) was used. It measures four dimensions of Personality viz Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion and Social Desirability. To measure Happiness, Oxford Happiness Inventory devised by Argyle et al. (1989) was used. Optimism was measured using Life Orientation Test by Scheier and Carver (1985).

The Coping Styles Inventory by Carver et al. (1989) was used to measure three types of Coping viz Task Focused Coping, Emotion Focused Coping and Avoidance Focused Coping. The Spielberger State – Trait Anger Expression Inventory (STAXI) devised by Spielberger (1988) was used to measure State Anger, Trait Anger and Total Anger Expressed.

For measuring Forgiveness, Heartland Forgiveness Scale devised by Thompson et al. (2003) was used. It measures the dimension of Trait Forgiveness viz Forgiveness of Self, Forgiveness of Other and Forgiveness of Situations. Mental Health was measured using WHO Measure of Mental Health adopted for use in India by Wig (1999) which has three dimensions viz Being Comfortable with Self, Being Comfortable with Others and Perceived Ability to Meet Life Demands.

Hope was measured using Adult Trait Hope Scale, developed by Snyder et al. (1991) which yielded scores on two dimensions viz Pathways and Agency. Adolescents Perceived Parental Bonding was measured using Parental Bonding Instrument by Parker et al. (1979). It has two dimensions viz Perceived Parental Care and Perceived Parental Overprotection.
The sample comprised of 200 adolescents (100 males and 100 females). The sample further comprised of parents of adolescents, thereby making the final total sample to be 600. The sample was randomly selected from Public and Model schools in the tri-city of 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 study and their role in the study, and informed consent was obtained before they were enlisted as subjects.

The raw scores consisted of scores on all the above mentioned 44 variables viz. Psychological Well Being, Subjective Well Being, Gratitude, Stress, Personality, Happiness, Optimism, Coping, Anger, Forgiveness, Mental Health, Hope, Parental Bonding, Perceived Happiness, Status and Perceived Health Status. These scores were analyzed using appropriate statistical analysis viz Descriptive statistics, t-ratios, Inter-Correlations and Regression analysis.

Means and Standard Deviations were calculated for both the groups and the total sample. The descriptive statistics are tabulated for total sample (Table 1), male adolescents (Table 2) and female adolescents (Table 3). Table 4 shows t-ratios for gender differences. Tables 5 to 7 show the inter-correlation matrix for total sample, male adolescents and female adolescents respectively. Table 8 shows the correlations between adolescents and their parents. Stepwise multiple regression analysis using the SPSS version 16 was conducted. Tables 9 to 26 show regression analysis for various criterion variables and their corresponding groups.

1. PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL BEING, SUBJECTIVE WELL BEING, GRATITUDE AND FAMILY DYNAMICS

Family plays a distinguished role in shaping the personality of the child. During adolescence, when the individual himself is facing a lot of challenges on all fronts, familial support especially parental emerges as the most important pillar of strength which not only helps but even pulls the adolescent through that period of “stress and storm”.

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Jung said, "Parents shouldn’t give up providing influence and support to their adolescents. Parental attempts to provide support may not always be welcomed by teens, but even when they appear to reject their parents’ support, teens seem to still be listening to what their parents say."

Well Being measures viz Psychological Well Being and Subjective Well Being and Gratitude were studied with Eysenckian Personality dimensions, Perceived Parental Bonding, types of Coping, Gratitude, all the dimensions of Forgiveness, Mental Health and Hope, types of Stress, Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness Status across parent-child dyad. Correlations were calculated for the four dyads: Father-Son, Mother-Son, Father-Daughter, Mother-Daughter.

It was hypothesized that Parental Extraversion, Care, Happiness, Hope, Optimism, Forgiveness and Mental Health (both paternal and maternal) were expected to be positively related to Psychological Well Being, Subjective Well Being and Gratitude of adolescents.

It was hypothesized that Parental Neuroticism, Psychoticism, Overprotection and Stress dimensions (both paternal and maternal) were expected to be negatively related to Psychological Well Being, Subjective Well Being and Gratitude of adolescents.

It was hypothesized that Parental Anger Expression and Coping styles (both paternal and maternal) were expected to be differentially related to Psychological Well Being, Subjective Well Being and Gratitude of adolescents.

The variables that revealed significant positive correlations between Father-Son dyad were: Extraversion, Oxford Happiness, Subjective Well Being, Optimism, Gratitude, all the dimensions of Forgiveness, Mental Health, Hope, Autonomy, Environmental Mastery, Positive Relations, Purpose in Life, Total Psychological Well Being, Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness Status. On the other hand the variable that revealed negative correlations was Psychoticism. Stress Symptoms and Anger showed negative but insignificant correlation. All types of Coping showed positive correlations in the dyad.
The variables that revealed significant positive correlations between

**Father-Daughter dyad** were: Extraversion, Oxford Happiness, Subjective Well Being, Optimism, Gratitude, all the dimensions of Forgiveness, Mental Health, Hope, Autonomy, Environmental Mastery, Positive Relations, Purpose in Life, Total Psychological Well Being, Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness Status. On the other hand the variable that revealed negative correlations was Psychoticism. Stress Symptoms and Anger showed negative but insignificant correlation. All types of Coping showed positive correlations in the dyad.

The variables that revealed significant positive correlations between

**Mother-Son dyad** were: Extraversion, Oxford Happiness, Subjective Well Being, Optimism, Gratitude, all the dimensions of Forgiveness, Mental Health, Hope, Autonomy, Environmental Mastery, Positive Relations, Purpose in Life, Total Psychological Well Being, Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness Status. On the other hand the variable that revealed negative correlations was Psychoticism. Stress Symptoms and Anger showed negative but insignificant correlation. All types of Coping showed positive correlations in the dyad.

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**Mother-Daughter dyad** were: Extraversion, Oxford Happiness, Subjective Well Being, Optimism, Gratitude, all the dimensions of Forgiveness, Mental Health, Hope, Autonomy, Environmental Mastery, Positive Relations, Purpose in Life, Total Psychological Well Being, Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness Status. On the other hand the variable that revealed negative correlations was Psychoticism. Stress Symptoms and Anger showed negative but insignificant correlation. All types of Coping showed positive correlations in the dyad.

So it may be concluded that hypotheses relating to parents and their offsprings’ genetic and psychological disposition was upheld in most of the cases. This implies that positive mental states and emotions have been found to be genetically determined. Healthy family environment and effective parenting works towards enhancing the positive emotions among adolescents.
Many earlier studies also found similar results.

Working in the field of biological or genetic determinants of happiness, Tellegen et al. (1988) have found that up to 40% of positive emotionality and 55% of negative emotionality are genetically based. A thorough understanding of happiness necessitates an examination of genetic factors and the variables suggested by need/goal satisfaction and the activity/process theorists. Building on a utilitarian tradition and the tenets of hedonic psychology (which emphasizes the study of pleasure and life satisfaction), it is considered that Well Being is the subjective evaluation of one’s current status in the world.

Engel et al. (1994) rather supported a genetic explanation of emotional disposition among parent and their wards. They said that parents with higher anxiety scores were more likely to perceive similarly anxious traits in their adolescents, suggesting that parents may project their anxious mood states onto their adolescents and that this projection may serve as a bias in their evaluation of adolescents’ emotional and behavioral functioning.

DeNeve (1999) suggested that Subjective Well Being (SWB) and Happiness are determined to a substantial degree by genetic factors and argued that SWB and Happiness are relatively stable across the life span. It was suggested that SWB is determined to a substantial degree by genetic factors and argued that SWB is relatively stable across the life span. Evidence supporting the link of relatedness to SWB is manifold. Myers (1999) suggested that, of all factors that influence happiness, relatedness is at or very near the top of the list. Positive parent child relations are likely to affect a strong determinant of SWB, physical health (Ryff et al. 2001). Caprara and Steca (2004) suggested SWB has been linked to heredity, to personality traits, to situations, and to judgmental processes.

Diener et al. (2002) found that from an evolutionary perspective, parent-child similarity signals to the parent that the child carries the parent’s genes and hence detecting this similarity should result in greater
parental investment. Hypothetical parental investment is greater for children who show more physical similarity to the investor than for children who show less similarity. From a family systems perspective, similarity between family members in their perception of the family creates stability and social support for their developmental needs (Carlson et al., 1991) and is an indicator of a well functioning family. If important others, like parents, have the same characteristics as their child, it could be easier to maintain a supportive relationship, even during a potentially stressful transition period such as adolescence (Lanz et al., 2001).

According to the Spinath and O'Connor (2003) behavioral genetic perspective, parent-child similarities in personality are partly due to genetic influences. It was examined on both personality and parenting and concluded that the covariance between personality and parenting dimensions was mediated by environmental influences. Although twin studies indicate that personality traits show substantial heritability, there is a discrepancy between twin and family design heritability estimates due to non-additive genetic influences, which results in much lower average parent offspring correlations for extraversion and neuroticism (Rowe et al., 1997). The primary focus of research on parent adult child relationships has been on the elderly members of the dyads, centering on question related to their perceptions of Well Being and life satisfaction.

Huppert (2005) established that the beneficial effects of good maternal care stemmed directly from the mother's behavior or was a reflection of her genetic make-up. Further he showed that maternal behavior during the early postnatal period serves to programme the developing brain, including endocrine and neurotransmitter function, as well as emotional and cognitive function, and that these effects can be lifelong (Brake et al., 2004). Huppert further established that individual differences in characteristics such as happiness and cognitive ability are primarily determined by our genes. This belief is based on heritability estimates that come from twin studies, which suggest that genes account for 50% or more of the variation in trait happiness (Lykken, 2000). A
detailed critique of the conclusions drawn from twin studies is provided by Huppert. A major problem is that such studies tend to assume that both identical and non-identical twins experience the same family environment; they neglect the effect of the child’s behavior (influenced by the child’s genes) on the parents’ behavior. Because of their genetic and hence behavioral differences, non-identical twins do not experience the same family environment. Non-identical twins have different genes and different environments, while identical twins have the same genes and (virtually) the same environment. As a result, twin studies routinely underestimate the importance of parental behavior and the child’s environment in emotional, social and cognitive development.

Cummins et al. (2008) said that in the socialization process that happens within families, there is no doubt that parents have an important influence on many aspects of their children’s lives. Thus, it might be expected that the combination of such socialization together with shared genetic influences would cause children to resemble their parents in terms of their attitudes, beliefs, routines and values.

Family environment also plays a major role. Bowlby (1969) worked on attachment styles and argued that early relationships with caregivers can be characterized in terms of differing degrees of felt security and support, and that overprotection was not a significant predictor of well being. Attachment studies were initially done with relationships during infancy (Ainsworth et al., 1978) and more recently during adolescence and adulthood (Hazan and Shaver, 1987). Bowlby further suggested that adults typically pass their own attachment style to their children. Following this but disregarding the conflict-conflict approach, which was previously adopted by the western theorists Montemayor (1983), observed that understanding causes and consequences of conflict with parents is important during adolescent period. It may be so because some conflicts are a part of normal family relations, essential for the transformation of relations with parents that occur during puberty. Sharma and Vaid (2005) later found that the other type of conflict, which is serious in nature and is
also associated with serious adolescent problem behaviors has its origins in earlier parent child relations.

**Maccoby and Martin (1983)** despite their growing reliance on peers for support, the vast majority of adolescents continue to rely on their parents for emotional support and advice. For example, in a study of 2800 adolescents between 12 and 15 years of age, a large majority of the participants named parents as having an important and significant positive influence on their lives.

**Armsden and Greenberg (1987)** examined the parent peer attachment and relationship to psychological well being in adolescence. They found that quality of attachment was not only strongly related to well being but also meaningfully contributed to predicting levels of depression, anxiety, resentment, and alienation. It was found that perceived quality of both parent and peer attachment was significantly related to psychological well being. Adolescents classified as highly securely attached to parents, reported greater satisfaction with themselves, a higher likelihood of seeking social support and less symptomatic response to stressful life events. Similarly, **Cooper et al. (1998)** found that securely attached individuals reported superior functioning in a variety of areas such as emotion regulation and adjustment.

**Buri (1989)** found that the effects of actual parenting, as well as perceived parenting have been analyzed (that which is recalled by an individual), on self esteem and self-criticism (**Brewin and Firth-Cozens, 1997**). Many studies have also concentrated on the links between parenting styles and depression (**Gerlsma et al., 1990**) as well as sex differences in perceived parental behavior (**Furnham and Cheng, 2000**). Others have examined the consequences of different parental styles on a range of psychological outcomes. **Young et al. (1995)** too report that parent child relations are strongest predictors of life-satisfaction in adolescent offspring. They found adolescents perceptions of parental support, particularly intrinsic support (encouragement, appreciation, trust, love etc.), to be positively correlated to the life satisfaction measure.
Lamborn and Steinberg (1991) postulate that autonomy achieved in context of warm, supportive parent-child ties are found to be highly associated with high self-esteem, self-reliance and work orientations, later in life. A secure attachment with parents in adolescence predicts higher self-esteem, greater life satisfaction, better college adjustment, less psychological distress, and greater perceived social support (Bradford and Lyddon, 1993).

McGee et al. (1991) laid greater stress on family relationships and childrearing practices, and later that parental depression (Webster-Stratton, 1990), single parenting, family stress, poor family relationships, family ill mental health (Kovacs et al., 1997) and severe social and economic disadvantage have all been related to emotional and behavioral problems even after controlling for genetic factors (Kovacs and Devlin, 1998).

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) posited that parents act as a secure base that students use to explore and adjust to their new college life, while returning to them during times of stress. Previously, too it has been shown that the students that are able to cope better with life transitions are the ones who perceive a high level of support from their parents and are satisfied with the level of support they currently receive. Derived from attachment theory Bowlby (1988), defined attachment as a significant and enduring emotional bond between two people (notably parent and child) that facilitates exploration by providing security and support during times of stress.

Lau and Leung (1992) affirmed from their research on family influences that parent-child relationship is a central factor in children’s social development. Reporting a nonwestern study Cheung and Lau (1985) say that a good relationship with parents is associated most noticeably with higher self esteem in Chinese adolescents. Though Aquilino’s (1994) focus was on young adults, yet his findings on the consequences of parent-child relations are of importance to present research. He derived that parent-child relationship is of central importance
to the psychological and material well being of young adults. Hence though the conflict is there, its manifestations are healthy and important for self-development of the adolescent.

Franz et al. (1994) found that learned optimism appears to have roots in the environment (or learning). It was also found that parents who provide safe, coherent environments are likely to promote the learned optimism style in their offspring. The parents of optimists are portrayed as modeling optimism for their children by making explanations for negative events that enable the offspring to continue to feel good about themselves (external, variable, and specific attributions), along with explanations for positive events that help the offspring feel extra-good about themselves (internal, stable, and global attributions). Children who grow up with learned optimism are characterized as having had parents who understood their failures and generally attributed those failures to external rather than internal factors (i.e., they taught their children adaptive excusing. Pessimistic people had parents who were pessimistic confirmed, Snyder et al. (2005).

Engel et al. (1994) tried to assess the correlation of Parental and off-spring behavioral factors. They found that both mothers' and fathers' state and trait anxiety scores are related to lower parent–adolescent correspondence on reports of adolescents' trait anxiety. Parents with higher anxiety scores were more likely to perceive similarly anxious traits in their adolescents, suggesting that parents may project their anxious mood states onto their adolescents and that this projection may serve as a bias in their evaluation of adolescents' emotional and behavioral functioning.

Cooper et al. (1995) suggested that the quality of the parental relationship is measured based on the communication, and trust between adolescents and their parents, resulting in an overall measure of positive perceptions of their relationship with each parent. Further, positive parent-adolescent relationship for adolescents was related to academic adjustment, but not to personal-emotional and social adjustment.
Discussion

Working on different lines, Rice et al. (1997) found that the college students who were able to better manage the academic and personal adjustment challenges of the college environment were the ones who perceived a positive relationship with their parents. However, in that study positive parent adolescent relationship was not linked to social adjustment. Arnstein was among the first people to note that college students remain emotionally and psychologically influenced by their parents, other studies provide support for the association of positive parent-adolescent relationship to the personal-emotional and social adjustment of college students (Bartholomew and Horowitz 1991). They further compared securely attached individuals who viewed their parents as supportive with insecure individuals, and found that college students who view their parents as supportive were better socially, and personally emotionally adjusted to college.

Larson et al. (1995) said that adolescence is the period in which the parent–child relationship changes in character, and identity is formed. The frequency and duration of contacts between parent and adolescent decrease, they start to spend less time with their parents, the closeness with their parents declines (Holmbeck, 1994), they receive less social support from their parents (Meeus et al., 1991). The parent–adolescent relationship becomes less authoritarian and more egalitarian, and identity becomes less diffuse and more clear and articulated (Waterman, 1993).

Kenny and Perez (1996) found that the characteristics of secure attachment styles were positively associated with higher levels of psychological well being. Both 'adequate' parenting and children's mental health and well being are associated with parents who are more effective in developing their children's human capital, although this might also be due to the transmission of genetic endowments (Haveman and Wolfe, 1995).

Buehler et al. (1997) argued that the conflict between parents (which is known as interparental conflict or inter-parental conflict) has a significant impact on adolescent adjustment. Meanwhile, Werrall-Davies
et al. (2002) found that marital and couple conflict processes spill over into other family processes such as parenting and parent-adolescent relationships and these will consequently have an impact on adolescents’ well being. More than 3 million children suffer from these maltreatments every year. Negligence by the parents is the leading type of child maltreatment, according to the reports of U.S. (2006).

Nassar-Mcmillan (1997) suggested that there is a link between parent-children relationships with children’s positive feelings about themselves. The researchers believe that obtaining a healthy self-esteem is a significant goal for all children. The development of healthy self-esteem among children and adolescents is important because it influences how a child or an adolescent makes decisions. Thus, there is a significant relationship between higher self-esteem and fewer emotional problems such as depression, anxiety, and adoption more appropriate approaches to peers, less lie, lower level of delinquent behavior, and have lower risk of suicide attempts among children and adolescents.

Resnick et al. (1997) asserted that family connectedness may protect teens from a wide array of negative experiences, including emotional distress, suicidal thoughts, and violence. Kang and Sibia (1997) found that high achievers shared a better relationship with their parents as compared to low achievers. Parents of high achievers were more loving, trusted their wards more and showed tolerance toward them as compared to parents of low achievers. Dutta et al. (1997) too reached similar conclusions. Bachman (1970) in his survey of 2200, 10th grade boys found that boy’s reports of parental closeness, communication, respect and low punitiveness predicted self-esteem more strongly than any other family or individual variable. They fit between traditional and modern parenting skills.

Kovacs and Devlin (1998) found that family adversities, conflicted family relationships and punitive childrearing practices, parental depression, single parenting, family stress, poor family relationships, family ill mental health and severe social and economic disadvantage have all
Discussion

been related to emotional and behavioral problems of adolescents even after controlling for genetic factors.

Chorpita et al. (1998) gave two general models of parent-child interaction. Model proposed that, over-controlling parenting represent excessive protection of children from negative consequences, and encourage children’s unnecessary dependence on the parents. When mothers protect their children during events or continue to display high level of protection during later developmental periods, children’s thoughts about their abilities or their control over their environment may be affected. In this case, the child may develop an external locus of control or feeling of helplessness. (Parker et al., 1979) conceptualized overprotection as parental behaviors that disallow the child's personal growth, development, autonomy, and independence. They included a second variable in their model, care, which is the parent’s ability to communicate, express affection, and promote closeness with the child. Overprotection and care are theorized to interact, with moderate to high levels of parental overprotection and care assumed to have positive effects on the parent-child relationship and the child’s health.

In a longitudinal study, Shek (1998) investigated the association between parent-adolescent conflicts with general adolescent functioning. In this study, the sample comprised of Chinese adolescents. The study showed that parent-adolescent conflict was related to general adolescent functioning, as measured by hopelessness, life satisfaction, self-esteem, purpose in life, and psychiatric morbidity. The finding of this study also demonstrated that there is a relationship between parent-adolescent conflict and adolescent’s psychological well being. These relations were found to be similar in male and adolescents, while father-adolescent conflict, relative to mother-adolescent conflict, was shown to be a stronger influence on adolescent’s psychological well being. Personal networks and social support of adolescents in the Netherlands showed that support from parents as well as from peers contributed significantly to well being (Meeus, 1994).
Noack and Puschner (1999) found changes in young people's relationships with their parents are among the most important social transitions of adolescence, but there are differences of opinion concerning the specific nature of these changes. Groves (1999), who suggested that the level of depression and helplessness feelings within a child and adolescent is caused by the exposure to inter-parental conflict, and this results in emotional and behavioral disturbances.

Carver and Scheier (1999) suggest that optimism and mental health of adolescents stems from early childhood experiences that foster trust and secure attachments to parental figures. Family conflict impacts on children's mental health (Buchanan et al., 1999). Child and Family Organization Canada (2007) suggested that Adolescence can be a very scary time, full of angst and new emotions. The more parents and teachers can do to engage teenagers, the more likely it is that young people will have a successful transition to adulthood.

Herz and Gullone (1999) reported that the quality of the parent-child relationship has a significant impact on the long term confidence, resilience and well being of individuals. They suggested two dimensions of parental rearing styles; the first differentiated between parents that were warm, nurturing, accepting and responsive and those that were cold, indifferent, rejecting and unresponsive (Holden and Miller, 1999). The second distinguished parents that were controlling, intrusive and preventive, independent form those who allowed and encouraged independence and autonomy (Parker, 1979).

Delfabbro (2000) found that close relationships, healthy open communication, and perceived parental support are especially important during adolescence, as children experience many physical and emotional changes. For example, research shows teens who have positive relationships with their parents are less likely to engage in various risk behaviors, including smoking, fighting, and drinking. They are also less likely to report symptoms of depression and more likely to report high levels of perceived well being. Adolescents who report difficulty talking with
their parents are more likely to drink alcohol frequently, have problems with binge drinking, smoke, and feel unhappy (especially girls). It was also found that the best predictors of adolescent adjustment were the level of conflict within the household over mundane domestic matters and the parents' general disposition towards the child's friends.

Ryan and Deci (2001) found that children raised in rejecting or authoritarian environments learn to expect rejection and hostility, and develop avoidant attachments, which in turn directly influence subsequent intimate relationships (Belt and Abidin, 1996), which affect SWB. Low parental involvement should be positively related to negative affect and negatively related to positive affect. The quality of the family environment, together with parent-child synchrony were strongly predictive of adolescent conduct disorder, emotional adjustment and social relationships (Barber et al., 2002). In that study, parent-child synchrony was operationally defined as the level of agreement between parents and children in their appraisals of the child's conduct and emotional adjustment. Parents and peers have different spheres of influence; peers are central to adolescent drug use and the parent-child relationship is crucial to adolescent adjustment more generally.

Furnham and Cheng (2000) perceived parental care would be positively, and both perceived denial of psychological autonomy and perceived discouragement of behavioral freedom negatively, associated with happiness. It was found that research has not supported the idea that parents and adolescents engage in conflict over such issues, however, and in fact has suggested that much continuity may exist in parent-child relationships across middle childhood and adolescence. They further confirmed that adolescents with strong, secure relationships to both peer and parents reported the best adjustment overall (i.e., they were the least depressed, least aggressive, and most sympathetic of the adolescents in the study). Likewise, adolescents with low levels of security with both peers and parents showed the worst adjustment (i.e., they reported the highest levels of aggression and depression and the lowest levels of sympathy) (Laible et al., 2004).
Steinberg (2001) found that parents who are warm and involved, provide firm guidelines and limits, have appropriate developmental expectations, and encourage the adolescent to develop his or her own beliefs tend to be most effective. These parents tend to use reasoning and persuasion, explain rules, discuss issues, and listen respectfully. Adolescents who come from homes with this style of parenting tend to achieve more in school, report less depression and anxiety, score higher in measures of self-reliance and self-esteem, and be less likely to engage in delinquent behaviors and drug abuse. During adolescence, parent–adolescent conflict tends to increase, particularly between adolescent girls and their mothers. This conflict appears to be a necessary part of gaining independence from parents while learning new ways of staying connected to them.

Ramey (2002) suggested that in recent decades, there have been changes in the demography and the dynamics of family life in many Western countries and these changes continue to fuel public interest in the topic of responsible and effective parenting. Harris (1998) confirmed that despite some controversy, research on parenting has generally promoted the notion that parenting behaviors are of great importance for the social, mental, and academic well being of young people.

Buehler and Gerad (2002) found that greater parent-adolescent conflict has been associated with increased adolescent externalizing and internalizing problems. Similarly, greater parent-adolescent conflict has been associated with lower levels of psychological well being and school adjustment, and higher levels of substance use (Shek, 1997). Adolescents reporting more conflicts with fathers and mothers reported lower self-esteem, and more risky behavior (Tucker et al., 2003). The causal direction of these relations may go both ways: Parent-adolescent conflicts have been found to predict more problem behavior over time (Barber and Delfabbro, 2005), but problem behavior has also been found to predict more conflicts over time (Barber, 1996). Bidirectional relations between problem behavior and parent-adolescent conflicts have also been reported (Maggs et al., 1993).
Spinath and O'Connor (2003) found parental personality is related both to general parenting and to the experience and expression of emotion. In contrast to children and adults, who choose their friends and partners, parents and children are involuntary partners in a long-lasting relationship. Although heritability estimates based on twin studies report moderate effect size, several reviews estimate the overall correlation for parent-offspring similarity in personality as low. Moreover, the degree of similarity in personality between parents and their children varies depending on the particular personality characteristic (Bratko and Mamsic, 1997).

Stomshak et al. (2002) reported that indeed, one factor that has been positively linked to adolescents' adjustment to college is their relationship with their parents. In fact, research has demonstrated that parents can positively influence adjustment across all educational transitions to kindergarten, elementary, middle, and high school. The study focused on two facets of the relationship. The first is students' perceptions of the current quality of relationship with their parents, and the second is relying on parents as support figures in time of stress.

Srivastava et al. (2003) reported that although the period of adolescence is not particularly stressful for most adolescents and their family members, for some it may be a challenge to their relationships. They expected that behavioral changes during adolescence, such as youthful experimentation or increasing autonomy, may lead to changes in personality or family relationships. Support generally decreases somewhat in relationships of families with adolescents (Furman and Buhrmester, 1985). During adulthood, Extraversion, Emotional Stability, and Openness to Experience decrease, whole Agreeableness and Conscientiousness increase (McCrae et al., 2000). During adolescence, Emotional Stability and Openness to Experiences tend to increase. Big Five factors appear to be neither an unchangeable temperament nor prone to change depending on the context (Goldberg, 1999).
**Allison and Schultz (2004)** said that parents who respond to adolescents’ striving towards autonomy by becoming increasingly authoritarian elicit more negative exchanges with their sons and daughters and more noncompliance with parental demands. **Purdie et al. (2004)** explored studies over several decades and confirmed that authoritative parenting is associated with positive outcomes (such as school performance and psychosocial development in a range of areas) for children and adolescents, whereas authoritarian parenting, and permissive parenting are associated with negative outcomes in these areas, as suggested by **Steinberg et al. (1994)**.

**Tamrouti-Makkink et al. (2004)** said, however, differential maternal and paternal control was related to internalizing behavior of girls and differential paternal warmth was linked to externalizing behavior of the older siblings in mixed-gender sibling pairs. Family is a critical environment related to a board range of important social and emotional child behaviors (Collins and Read, 1994). **Assor and Deci (2004)** reported parents’ use of conditional regard as a socializing practice was hypothesized to predict their children’s introjected internalization (indexed by a sense of internal compulsion), resentment toward parents, all ill-being a parental bonding directly affect personality characteristics. **Collins and Laursen (2004)** argued that early adolescents have more conflicts with siblings than anyone else except for mothers. Family relationships have been found to be important for the quality of peer relationship (Kerns et al., 1996).

**Gutierrez et al. (2005)** found that relationships between parents and young adults deteriorate during adolescence in comparison with parent-child relationships. This worsening of the parent-child relationship is indicated by an increase in conflict. **Allison and Schultz (2004)** also found similar results and said that diminished parental satisfaction with parenting and increase in conflict, diminished parental satisfaction with parenting and increased parental stress, and a decrease in the parental support experienced by young adults.
Sharma and Vaid (2005) affirmed in the Indian context that it is usually from warm-supportive home-environments that emotionally stable and self-actualized children emerge. Adolescence is that period where the crisis of identity is enhanced when the referred is considered neither as an adult nor a child. In western cultures, this stage connotes the passage from childhood to adulthood. But in Hindu society, the concept of adolescence as a stage does not exist in the religious or historical text. The period of ‘Bramhacharya’ (celibacy 0-25 years) merged with the next stage of ‘Grihastha’ (Householder 25-50 years) without any intervening period in between. Adolescence is now considered an important period in the life span of an Indians. When home environment are favorable the children tend to achieve their identity to optimum levels.

Odendaal et al. (2006) found that across time, parent-adolescent relationships have been complicated by the developmental needs of adolescents, and parents’ struggle to respond appropriately to these needs. Adolescents’ quest for autonomy and their own identity, the importance of the peer group. Gullotta et al. (2000) in themselves vary, and have historically carried, the potential for a rift between parents and adolescents, which shape interpersonal relationships, and highlight the need for more qualitative studies in this field. Adolescents with a secure base with their parents have a ‘launching pad’ that gives them confidence in themselves. People tend to perceive parents as likely losers in the competition with their children's friends over influencing adolescent behavior. But this study shows parents still have an impact throughout adolescence.

Renk et al. (2007) confirmed that in clinical work involving families, mothers and fathers often are called upon to provide reports of the emotional and behavioral functioning of their children and adolescents. He further asserted that parental depression and anxiety are related to parental tendencies to report greater levels of behavior problems in their children and adolescents. Parents experiencing elevated symptoms of depression may exhibit a negative bias when asked to provide ratings of
the emotional and behavioral functioning of their children and adolescents. Similarly, Phares (1997) had confirmed that overall, however, the literature has suggested that parental depression and anxiety are related to parental tendencies to report greater levels of behavior problems in their children and adolescents. A relationship also appears to exist between parental symptomatology and the competence displayed by children and adolescents.

Wekerle et al. (2007) reported that in secure attachments, a parent responds consistently to both the positive and negative emotions of a child and builds up the child’s confidence in the parent as a reliable and sensitive responder. In adolescence, parental and peer relationships are important sources of support and self-evaluation. These relationships are influential even though they change considerably as adolescents mature, become increasingly independent, and rely on parents and friends in different ways.

Amato (2008) in association with National Survey of Families and Households studied the links between parents’ conflict, divorce and children’s behavior problems and reported that parents’ conflict increases the risks of children’s behavioral problems.

Shearman and Dumla (2008) explored that the secure base provided by caregivers allows individuals to investigate in their environment with confidence, knowing that they can return to a haven of security during times of threat. Similar studies have been done in the past by Bowlby (1969), who proposed that the bond established between infants and their parents serves a protective function and provides children with a sense of security. This sense of security is reflected in greater exploratory behavior of the child and the development of competency (Grossman and Grossman, 1991). Beyers and Goosens further opined that parents should treat their late adolescent children in a warm, accepting and responsive way, avoiding hostility, rejection and intrusive control, and actively supporting adolescents’ searching for self-evaluated and self-defined answers. The latter means that parents should avoid
disappointment and rejection when they perceive adolescent’s autonomy striving and independent behavior. Second, and this particularly applies to late adolescent males, setting standards for behavior, using praise to encourage compliance and reinforce expected choices and behavior, are also important in the facilitation of healthy identity formation. Parents should discuss the boundaries of acceptable behavior with their adolescents. As data from the present study showed, this behavioral control is not in contradiction with supportive parenting as just described, on the contrary. Together, this also means that parents must adapt their parenting style and behavior to the changing needs and abilities of their maturing adolescents. They further asserted that that the secure base provided by caregivers allows individuals to investigate in their environment with confidence, knowing that they can return to a haven of security during times of threat. Similar studies have been done in the past by Bowlby (1969), who proposed that the bond established between infants and their parents serves a protective function and provides children with a sense of security. This sense of security is reflected in greater exploratory behavior of the child and the development of competency (Grossman and Grossman, 1991).

Wilde and Rapee (2008) reported that the majority of studies support the association between overprotection rearing and childhood anxiety in general. Parental efforts like solicitation and control may be experienced by adolescents as privacy invasion (Hawk et al., 2008) and may thus backfire and lead adolescents to increasingly conceal information from their parents.

Gastel et al. (2009) presented a positive relationship between parental overprotection and anxiety in children. Also, McLeod et al. (2007) revealed that higher levels of parental rejection and control were associated with more anxiety in children, while parental control has greater proportion of the variance in childhood anxiety. Moreover, Muris et al. (2006) found a positive correlation between anxiety symptoms and parental anxiety, overprotection and rejection. Some study represented
relationship between parental depressive symptoms with more rejection and hostility (Burt et al., 2005). However, the studies that have examined children’s report of current perceived parenting do not provide the strength evidence of associations between the parenting and childhood anxiety and it has not been established yet (Wood et al., 2006).

Ozmete and Byoglu (2009) suggested that one task of the parents is to provide a safe, warm, and affectionate environment in which individuality is encouraged and which facilitates the adolescent's exploration of new physical, cognitive, and social potentials. Another task is to set and to supervise their child's activities. Earlier findings of Riesch et al. (2003) confirmed it as they had asserted that as adolescents become older, providing behavioral guidelines remains an important concern, but gradually becomes secondary to allowing and encouraging the adolescent's independence. Several studies have noted that the most beneficial parenting in adolescence is characterized by a high degree of warmth and acceptance, a high level of monitoring or supervision.

Song et al. (2009) said that by the time children reach adolescence, assessing attachment relationships is complicated by the greater psychological maturity and relational complexity of the child. In adolescence, daughters may feel closer to their mothers as the adult role model in the family and as the more nurturant parental figure. This may also explain why attachments to mothers, fathers, and friends were comparably associated with self evaluation for males, but for females the association of self-esteem with maternal attachment was somewhat higher.

Rai et al. (2009) reported that parenting style has a major influence on the development of the child and there has been a growing awareness of the importance about parenting style and its impact on the upbringing of child among researchers. Hill (1980) theorized that children of very critical parents, with unrealistically high expectations, might develop anxiety during the preschool years.
Wang and Luh (2009) opined that several studies have revealed that supportive family relationships, including parent-adolescent and sibling relationships, are protective factors for both girls and boys. The sibling relationship is nested within family relationships. Research findings have shown that better relationships between brothers and sisters lead to better adjustment during adolescence (Piko and Fitzpatrick, 2003). In addition, parent-adolescent relationships are more important than any other relationships (Stenberg and Silk, 2002). Parents are perhaps even more important in helping the adolescents adjust to their peer group, school, and social community (Binger, 1994).

Mofrad et al. (2009) said that when parents fail to provide children with the opportunity of experience control, it is possible that children may need a strong sense of self efficacy, thereby increasing their sense of vulnerability to threat and heightening anxiety (Wood et al., 2006). Parental overprotection may lead to anxiety by increasing beliefs in the dangerousness of the situation and the lack of ability to avoid the danger (Rapee, 1997). It has also been suggested that overprotection behavior from the mothers, excessively protects the children from all indicators of threat that related to child anxiety (Edwards et al., 2007) and contribute to children’s anxiety, dependence, and social withdrawal (Wood et al., 2003). This reflects intrusive actions that emphasize the closeness of the parent-child bond, such as restricting the child’s independent activities, and unnecessary management, display high levels of distress and needness in children may prevent the formation of independent behavior on the part of the child, leading to infantilezation (Parker and Lipscombe, 1981). In turn, this limits children’s opportunities to practice and improve their self-regulation and active coping skills, and communicates the message that they are incapable and require parental assistance to handle normal life tasks. Parental rejection appeared to play a very small role, explaining less than 1% of the variance in children’s SAD. The parental rejection had effect only if it is contributed with parental overprotection, means rejection can not merely predict the SAD symptom. Conceptually, Bowlby (1969)
hypothesized that insecure attachment experience develops expectations of lack of social reciprocity, inconsistency and rejection in other social relationships, and low self-confidence. They are less likely to regulate their emotions in stressful circumstance, by displaying either heightened emotional expression or suppressing the expression of their negative arousal. This process, during the parent/child relationship, may be involved in making the child feel less safe within the environment and causing the child to develop a protective armor. Based on our findings, observed pattern suggests that parental rejection support for independency in children may facilitate children’s confidence and buffer against excessive separation anxiety.

Zimmerman et al. (2009) carried out a study on 91 adolescents of age 12. He wanted to assess the level of genetic predisposition in parents and their offsprings. He found that adolescence is a time when intense emotions are elicited within the parent–adolescent relationship, often when autonomy subjectively is endangered. As emotion dysregulation is one of the risk processes for the development of psychopathology, adolescence may be perceived as a highly sensitive period for maladjustment. They confirmed that offsprings did relate to their parents, especially mother genetically. The short allele of the serotonin transporter gene was associated with a higher overall rate of autonomy behaviors of adolescents. Attachment security was related to more agreeable and less hostile autonomy of mothers alone as against fathers. A significant interaction revealed a moderating effect of attachment security between mothers and children.

Mofrad et al.’s (2009) findings suggested that high rejection and high over protection induced child anxiety and it was somewhat surprising and inconsistent with (Moor et al., 2004) in identifying parental rejection as a significant predictor. The researchers found no real relationship between parental rejection and Seasonal Affective Disorders symptoms in children. An explanation this regard is that perceived parental rejection is a more important variable in differentiating depressed individuals (Burt et al.,
and mothers who exhibit depression, they are less warm, more intrusive and rejective toward their children (Elgear et al., 2007). More so, Wasserman et al. (1996) proposed positive relation between parental rejection and externalizing disorders.

Albert et al. (2010) reported that traditional culture of living in joint and extended families was slowly but definitely changing and with that the support system within family for adolescents was diminishing. In that, more adolescents were living in nuclear families, that is, around 90% of urban and 70% of rural adolescents reported living in nuclear families and the average family size of around five at both the sites. This emphasized the need for strengthening parent child connectedness to counteract negative influences of other forces such as peer, media, etc (Whitaker and Miller, 2000).

Taylor and Guimond (2010) showed that positive parenting behaviors such as support and warmth promote ethnic identity development by facilitating exploration and resolution of commitment, whereas negative parenting behaviors may inhibit ethnic identity development by promoting more negative feelings about ethnic group membership. Perhaps adolescents who experience negative parenting behaviors are more inclined to rebel against or devalue identities or opinions that they believe are held by their parents. Given existing literature, in the current study it was expected that parenting behaviors specific to ethnicity (i.e., familial ethnic socialization) and positive parenting behaviors (i.e., parental warmth–support) would be positively associated with adolescents’ ethnic identity. Furthermore, the current study examined the potential longitudinal link among these variables and expected that higher, compared to lower, initial levels of familial ethnic socialization and more positive parenting behaviors would predict faster growth of ethnic identity exploration and resolution over a 3-year period.

The results are somehow inconsistent with the following finding which reported that parents do not give much importance to the adolescents’ mental health or identity formation.
Bowlby (1980) reported that according to attachment theory and research, the kind of attachment between parent and child that develops in early childhood will impact relating to others in the future. Support generally decreases somewhat in relationships of families with adolescents (Furman and Buhrmester, 1985).

Spinath and O'Connor (2003) suggested the importance of childhood relationships with parents for personality development is traditionally acknowledged by different psychology theoreticians. Studies in humans and in animal models have demonstrated that, besides constitutional aspects, the actual parental behavior of offering tenderness and protection without restricting autonomy is crucial both to develop the ability of dealing with adverse situations in adult life and to reduce the risk of psychopathology, as well as to allow the establishment of healthy affectionate bonds. This effect seems to take place through behavioral factors, but also due to definitive neurobiological alterations and modeling of gene expression. It has a direct impact on genetically inherited risk factors and resilience.

2. PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL BEING, SUBJECTIVE WELL BEING, GRATITUDE AND THEIR PREDICTORS

A healthy personality is the result of healthy surroundings. It is a combination of warm and close relationship with parents, who in turn provide - emotional support, guidance, intimacy, secure attachment and encouragement of autonomy. Independence, individuation within the family, encouragement of free and independent behavior are associated with healthy identity development.

It was hypothesized that Extraversion, Parental Care, Hope, Forgiveness, Optimism and Mental Health were expected to be positively related to Well Being, Gratitude and its predictors for both the groups, viz. Adolescents and their Parents.

It was hypothesized that Neuroticism, Psychoticism, Stress dimensions and Anger Experienced were expected to be negatively
related to Well Being, Gratitude and its predictors for both the groups.

It was hypothesized that Anger Expressed and Coping styles was expected to be differentially related to Well Being, Gratitude and their predictors for both the groups.

Correlation analysis was done to study the relationship of Well Being measures viz Psychological Well Being and Subjective Well Being and Gratitude with Eysenckian dimensions of Personality, Oxford Happiness, Optimism, Coping, Stress, Anger, Forgiveness, Mental Health, Hope, Perceived Parental Bonding, Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness Status. Many significant correlations have been found.

In the total sample of adolescents, Psychological Well Being was found to be positively and significantly correlated with Extraversion, Social Desirability, Perceived Parental Care, Oxford Happiness, Subjective Well Being, Positive Affect, Optimism, all types of Coping, Gratitude, all the dimensions of Forgiveness, Mental Health, Hope, Autonomy, Environmental Mastery, Personal Growth, Positive Relation, Purpose in Life, Self Acceptance, Perceived Happiness status. It was found to be negatively correlated with Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Perceived Parental Overprotection, Satisfaction With Life and Negative Affect.

Among male adolescents Psychological Well Being was found to be positively and significantly correlated with all the dimensions of Extraversion, Perceived Parental Care, Oxford Happiness, Subjective Well Being, Positive Affect, Optimism, all types of Coping, Gratitude, all the dimensions of Forgiveness, Mental Health, Hope, Autonomy, Environmental Mastery, Personal Growth, Positive Relations, Purpose in Life, Self Acceptance, Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness status. It showed significant negative correlations with Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Perceived Parental Overprotection and Negative Affect.

Among female adolescents Psychological Well Being was found to be positively and significantly correlated with all the dimensions of Subjective Well Being, Positive Affect, Optimism, all types of Coping,
Gratitude, Forgiveness of Self, Perceived Ability to Meet Life Demands, Total Mental Health, dimensions of Hope, Autonomy, Environmental Mastery, Personal Growth, Positive Relation, Purpose in Life, Self Acceptance and Perceived Happiness status. It showed negative correlation with Negative Affect and Life Event Stress.

In the total sample of adolescents, Subjective Well Being was found to be positively and significantly correlated with Extraversion, Perceived Parental Care, Oxford Happiness, Positive Affect, Optimism, all types of Coping, all the dimensions of Forgiveness, Mental Health, Hope, and Psychological Well Being, Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness Status. It was found to be negatively correlated with Psychoticism, Extraversion, Negative Affect, Stress Symptoms and Life Events Stress.

Among male adolescents Subjective Well Being was found to be positively and significantly correlated with all the dimensions of Extraversion, Perceived Parental Care, Oxford Happiness, Satisfaction With Life, Positive Affect, Optimism, all types of Coping, Gratitude, all the dimensions of Forgiveness, Mental Health, Hope and Psychological Well Being, Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness status. On the other hand, it showed negative correlation with Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Perceived Parental Overprotection, Negative Affect, Stress Symptoms and Life Event Stress.

In case of female adolescents Subjective Well Being was found to be positively and significantly correlated with Extraversion, Perceived Parental Care, Oxford Happiness, Positive Affect, Optimism, all types of Coping, Gratitude, all the dimensions of Forgiveness, Mental Health, Hope, Psychological Well Being and Perceived Happiness status. It showed significant negative correlation with Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Perceived Parental Overprotection, Satisfaction With Life, Negative Affect and Life Event Stress.

In the total sample of adolescents, Gratitude was found to be positively and significantly correlated with Extraversion, Perceived Parental
Care, Oxford Happiness, Subjective Well Being, Positive Affect, Optimism, all types of Coping, all the dimensions of Forgiveness, Mental Health, Hope, Autonomy, Environmental Mastery, Personal Growth, Positive Relations, Self Acceptance, Total Psychological Well Being, Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness Status. It was found to be negatively correlated with Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Perceived Parental Overprotection, Negative Affect, Stress Symptoms and Life Events Stress.

Among male adolescents Gratitude was found to be positively and significantly correlated with Extraversion, Perceived Parental Care, Oxford Happiness, Subjective Well Being, Positive Affect, Optimism, all types of Coping, all the dimensions of Forgiveness, Mental Health, Hope, Autonomy, Environmental Mastery, Personal Growth, Positive Relations, Self Acceptance, Total Psychological Well Being, Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness status. It was on the other hand, significantly and negatively correlated with Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Perceived Parental Overprotection, Negative Affect and Stress Symptoms.

In case of female adolescents, Gratitude was found to be positively and significantly correlated with Extraversion, Oxford Happiness, Subjective Well Being, Positive Affect, Optimism, all types of Coping, Forgiveness of Self, Forgiveness of Situations, Total Forgiveness, all dimensions of Mental Health, Hope, Personal Growth, Total Psychological Well Being and Perceived Happiness status. It showed significant negative correlation with Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Perceived Parental Overprotection, Negative Affect and Anger Control.

In the total sample of adolescents, Stress Symptoms were found to be positively and significantly correlated with Psychoticism, Negative Affect and State Anger. It was found to be negatively and significantly correlated with Extraversion, Subjective Well Being, all types of Coping, Gratitude, Pathways, Total Hope, Positive Relations, Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness Status.

Among male adolescents, Stress Symptoms were found to be positively and significantly correlated with Psychoticism, Neuroticism,
Negative Affect and State Anger. It was negatively and significantly correlated with Extraversion, Subjective Well Being, Positive Affect, Optimism, Task Focused Coping, Emotion Focused Coping, Gratitude, all the dimensions of Hope and Perceived Health Status.

In case of female adolescents Stress Symptoms showed no significant and positive correlation, whereas it was found to be significantly and negatively correlated with Task Focused Coping, Avoidance Focused Coping and Perceived Happiness Status.

One of the objectives of the present study was to derive regression equations to delineate the significant predictors for the criterion variables of Psychological Well Being, Subjective Well Being, Gratitude and Stress Symptoms. The regression equations were run for the total sample of adolescents, male adolescents and female adolescents (Tables 9-21).

**PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL BEING AND ITS PREDICTORS**

With Psychological Well Being as the criterion, regression equations were run for the total sample of adolescents, male adolescents and female adolescents (Tables 9-12).

For total adolescents, the predictors that emerged significant, in descending order of contribution were Psychoticism of Fathers of Adolescents, Optimism of Adolescents, Avoidance Focused Coping of Adolescents and Social Desirability of Mothers of Adolescents.

For male adolescents, the predictors that emerged significant were Neuroticism of Fathers of Male Adolescents, Optimism of Male Adolescents, Stress Symptoms of Male Adolescents, Social Desirability of Male Adolescents, Emotion Focused Coping of Mothers of Male Adolescents, Life Event Stress of Mothers of Adolescents, Stress Symptoms of Male Adolescents and Emotion Focused Coping of Male Adolescents.

For female adolescents, the predictors that emerged significant in descending order of contribution were Psychoticism of Mothers of Female Adolescents, Avoidant Focused Coping of Female Adolescents, Optimism
SUBJECTIVE WELL BEING AND ITS PREDICTORS

With Subjective Well Being as the criterion, regression equations were run for the total sample of adolescents, male adolescents and female adolescents (Tables 13-15).

For total adolescents, the predictors that emerged significant, in descending order of contribution were Psychoticism of Adolescents, Avoidant Focused Coping of Adolescents, Mental Health of Adolescents, Avoidant Focused Coping of Fathers of Adolescents and Subjective Well Being of Fathers of total adolescents.

For male adolescents, the predictors that emerged significant were Subjective Well Being of Fathers of Male Adolescents, Psychoticism of Fathers of Male Adolescents, Emotion Focused Coping of Male Adolescents and Extraversion of Fathers of Male Adolescents.

For female adolescents, the predictors that emerged significant were Psychoticism of Fathers of Female Adolescents, Avoidant Focused Coping of Female Adolescents, Hope of Fathers of Female Adolescents, Avoidant Focused Coping of Mothers of Female Adolescents, Psychoticism of Mothers of Female Adolescents, Forgiveness of Fathers of Female Adolescents, Avoidance Focused Coping of Fathers of Female Adolescents, Life Event Stress of Female Adolescents and Anger Expressed of Female Adolescents.

GRATITUDE AND ITS PREDICTORS

With Gratitude as the criterion variable, regression equation was run for the total adolescents, male adolescents and female adolescents (Tables 16-18).

For total adolescents, the variables that emerged significant were Psychoticism of Fathers of Adolescents, Hope of Adolescents, Subjective Well Being of Female Adolescents, Extraversion of Fathers of Female Adolescents and Life Event Stress of Female Adolescents.
Well Being of Fathers of Adolescents, Mental Health of Adolescents and Mental Health of Mothers of Adolescents.

For male adolescents, the variables that emerged significant were Gratitude of Fathers of Male Adolescents, Psychological Well Being of Fathers of Male Adolescents, Psychoticism of Mothers of Male Adolescents, Mental Health of Male Adolescents, Hope of Male Adolescents, Avoidance Focused Coping of Mothers of Male Adolescents, State Anger of Mothers of Male Adolescents.

For female adolescents, the variables that emerged significant were Psychoticism of Fathers of Female Adolescents and Forgiveness of Mothers of Female Adolescents.

Comparative analysis of the variables that came out common with the three main variables viz. Psychological Well Being, Subjective Well Being and Gratitude were Psychoticism emerged as a common predictor of Psychological Well Being for Total and Male sample of adolescents. It also emerged as a common predictor of Subjective Well Being for Total, Male and Female sample of adolescents, same trend was observed for Gratitude. Extraversion emerged as a common predictor for female sample of Psychological Well Being and male sample of Subjective Well Being. Optimism emerged as a predictor of Psychological Well Being for total, male and female adolescents. Avoidance Focused Coping, on the other hand emerged as a common predictor for Total adolescents and female adolescents for Psychological Well Being and also for Subjective Well Being. Social Desirability emerged as a common predictor of Psychological Well Being for total adolescents and male adolescents. Emotion Focused Coping emerged as a common predictor for male sample of Psychological Well Being and Subjective Well Being. Life Event Stress emerged as a common predictor for female sample of Psychological Well Being and Subjective Well Being. Mental Health emerged as a common predictor for total sample of Subjective Well Being and total and male sample of Gratitude. Subjective Well Being emerged as a common predictor for total and male sample of Subjective Well-Being and total sample of Gratitude.
Hope emerged as a common predictor for female sample of Subjective Well Being and total and male sample of adolescents of Gratitude. Forgiveness emerged as a common predictor for female sample of Subjective Well Being and Gratitude.

Thus, it can well be said that hypotheses were partially upheld. Well Being among adolescents and individuals’ per se is a function of positive emotions. Families, individuals and social groups should work in harmony to enhance positive and minimize negative emotions. Many earlier studies also found similar results.

Kohn (1969) found that elements in parents’ social context influence the goals and values parents have for their children and that these values will result in differences in parenting practices.

Costa and McCrae (1980) examined the personality-Well Being link concurrently and across a 10-year interval. They assessed personality with variety of inventories, focusing specifically on the traits Extraversion (E) and Neuroticism (N). In addition, they used multiple measures of well being, including hopelessness, personal security, and life satisfaction. In its simplest form, well being represents a generalized feeling of happiness. The researchers pointed out that positive and negative affect are balanced by a person, achieving a global Subjective Well Being index. Thus, positive and negative affect contribute independently to Subjective Well Being. Extraversion is related to Subjective Well Being, Happiness, Positive Affect and Optimistic traits and Psychoticism in thought to represent emotional disturbance (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1975).

Gilligan (1982) found that self-acceptance and environmental mastery were strongly associated with measures of life satisfaction, affect balance, self esteem, and morale, thereby indicating clear linkages between theory-guided components of well being. As Waterman (1984) has stressed, realizing one’s goals or purpose in life is not always easy—it requires effort and discipline, which may at times be at odds with short-term happiness.
Discussion

Scheier and Carver (1992) opined that when pessimists are compared with optimists, they have lower levels of distress, are less depressed, have less perceived stress and are more socially supported. Therefore, optimists have better mental and physical health.

Emmons and Diener (1985) found that Extraversion, Neuroticism, emotionality, sociability, and locus of control were all implicated in the three areas of subjective well being (Positive Affect, Negative Affect, and Global Life Satisfaction).

Weiner (1985) opined that gratitude overlaps with other positive feelings, it also possesses a unique pattern of appraisals that distinguishes it from happiness. Gratitude exerts a causal effect on happiness and well being. Gratitude is effective in increasing well being as it builds psychological, social, and spiritual resources.

Headey and Wearing (1989) showed that very stable personality traits (neuroticism, extraversion, and openness to experience) predispose people to experience moderately stable levels of favorable and adverse life events and moderately stable levels of SWB. However, contrary to the implications of previous research (Costa and McCrae, 1980), life events influence SWB over and above the effects of personality.

Ryff (1989) posits that some of the favorable outcomes described by positive psychologists can be integrated into a model of psychological well being. Self-acceptance, personal growth, purpose in life, environmental mastery, autonomy, and positive relations with others are the six dimensions are independent, though correlated, constructs of well being.

Myers (1992) reported that adolescents' happiness, gratitude and sense of psychological well being are tied closely to their feelings of belongingness, inclusion, and social support. Grateful people may be prone to positive emotions and subjective well being. Several theorists and researchers (e.g.), Lazarus and Lazarus (1994) have noted that gratitude typically has a positive emotional valence.
Watson and Clark (1992) found that SWB and the traits of extraversion and neuroticism are highly inter-related. Cunningham (1988) has shown that inducing pleasant moods can lead to greater feeling of sociability, which is a defining characteristic of the extraversion trait.

McLennan et al. (1988) studied personality dimensions in relation to well being. Extraversion consistently predicted subjective well being. Persons high in subjective well being may have more rewarding interactions with others and may, therefore, have more extensive networks from which they receive support. Thus, Extraversion may influence subjective well being indirectly by allowing more effective use of social support as a coping strategy.

Argyle et al. (1989) researched in the area of subjective well being, and believed that happiness is composed of three related components: positive affect, absence of negative affect and satisfaction with life as a whole.

Verma and Verma (1989) put forth a dual factor theory of mental health. This dual factor theory postulated that there are different sets of factors that contribute to negative and positive mental health. Some factors when present-only contribute to negative mental health but their absence does not lead to positive mental health. These negative factors could be manifested as mental disorders-neurosis, psychosis, drug and alcohol dependence, personality disorders, psycho-physiological disorders, etc. Unhealthy adaptation to stress can take many forms, such as school maladjustment. For example, stressors at home and school may lead to reduced attention span and to diminished motivation to succeed academically (Pryor-Brown and Cowen, 1989).

Aspinwall and Taylor (1992) reported that Optimism has been shown to mitigate the effects of stressors on psychological functioning. Dispositional optimism (who holds generalized positive outcome expectancies) has shown less mood disturbance in response a number of different stressors, including adaptation to a new setting.
Mauger et al. (1992) also report that the failure to forgive oneself and others are both significantly negatively correlated with social desirability.

Pavot and Diener (1993) in their research on satisfaction with life of students, tried to explore the facets of extraversion related to life satisfaction. They found that positive and negative affect made independent contributions to wellbeing.

Snyder (1994) proposed that hope has no hereditary contributions but rather is entirely a learned cognitive set about goal-directed thinking. The teaching of pathways and agency goal-directed thinking is an inherent part of parenting, and the components of hopeful thought are in place by age two.

Myers and Diener (1995) proposed that happiness, or subjective well being reflects a preponderance of positive thoughts and feelings about one’s life. More specifically, they defined subjective well being as the relative presence of positive affect, absence of negative affect, and satisfaction with life. The researchers also acknowledged that global feelings of happiness are fed by feelings associated with specific life domains, for example, work and marriage.

Baumeister and Leary (1995) found that there has been increasing appreciation within psychology of the fundamental importance of warm, trusting, and supportive interpersonal relationships for wellbeing. So important is relatedness that some theorists have defined relatedness as a basic human need that is essential for well being and others have suggested that having stable, satisfying relationships is a general resilience factor across the lifespan (Mikulincer and Florian, 1998). Insofar as there is validity to this view, one would expect a strong, universal association between the quality of relationships and well being outcomes.

Diener and Diener (1996) experienced and reported that many positive events may be good for global happiness, but it could also reduce the impact of each positive event on daily happiness. Additionally,
Sumner (1996) goes further, placing life satisfaction at the center of his account of well being as “authentic happiness”: being happy, where one’s happiness is solidly grounded both in reality and in values that are truly one’s own; deceived experience machine users and brainwashing victims thus don’t count as flourishing.

Lucas et al. (1996) found that the elements of positive and negative affect that comprised happiness were found to be distinct and made independent contributions to the phenomenon of subjective well being.

Watson and Clark (1997) have also linked Extraversion to positive affect and Neuroticism is virtually defined by negative affect. Researchers have seemed to locate the core of extraversion in the area of pleasant affect.

Csikszentmihalyi (1997) confirmed that hope, optimism and the ability to experience flow could be learned and moderated one's level of happiness.

Lyubomirsky and Ross (1999) showed that individuals high, relative to low, in SWB tended to cast events and situations in a more positive light, to be less responsive to negative feedback, and to more strongly denigrate opportunities that are not available to them. Thus, people high in SWB may have attributional styles that are more self-enhancing and, perhaps, more enabling, which in turn could contribute to the relative stability of their happiness. Ryff and colleagues have examined the relation of the big five traits to their multiple dimensions of psychological well being. Adding to this, Lyubomirsky and Tucker (1998) demonstrated that characteristically happy people tend to construe the same life events and encounters more favorably than unhappy people. Those people with higher Neuroticism and an external of locus of control were predicted to report greater variability in subjective well being when measured weekly across an extended period.

Walker and Pitts (1998) reported that gratitude is a moderately pleasant and activating emotion. Gratitude is a pleasant state and is linked
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with positive emotions including contentment, happiness, pride, and hope (Overwalle et al., 1995).

DeNeve and Cooper (1998) conducted a study of 103 men and of 120 women and found that optimism correlated positively with Extraversion, but it was also correlated negatively, and more strongly, with Neuroticism. It was found that when personality traits were grouped according to the Five Factor model, emotional stability (i.e. the positive role of Neuroticism) was the strongest predictor of both, life satisfaction, health and happiness, although Extraversion also contributed somewhat in explaining the variance in positive affect. Studies in which both Extraversion and Emotional stability are included as independent variables reveal that the effect on satisfaction / well being from emotional stability normally outweighs the effect from Extraversion. The researchers revealed that emotional stability (low neuroticism) and Extraversion were key aspects of the "happy personality"; one would expect that the factors that cause emotionally stable and extraverted individuals to be happy. They also examined the distinct personality constructs as correlates of SWB and happiness. The traits most closely associated with SWB were repressive defensiveness, trust, emotional stability, locus of control - chance, desire for control, hardiness, etc. Neuroticism was the strongest predictor of life satisfaction, happiness and negative affect. Positive affect was predicted equally well by Extraversion and Agreeableness (Seligman, 2002). It was opined that extraversion seem to be fairly less significant than neuroticism as a predictor of the variables of subjective well being, satisfaction with life, and balance. Neuroticism predisposes people to experience a low level of subjective well being, and this is due to the fact that, statistically, subjective well being is a bipolar measure where high scores are determined by high scores in satisfaction with life and in positive affect, and low scores are determined by low scores in satisfaction with life and high scores in negative affect.

Lyubomirsky and Tucker (1998) demonstrated that characteristically happy people tend to construct the same life events and
encounters more favorably than unhappy people. They showed that individuals high, relative to low, in Subjective Well Being tended to cast events and situations in a more positive light, to be less responsive to negative feedback, and to more strongly denigrate opportunities that are not available to them. Thus, people high in SWB may have attribution styles that are more self-enhancing and perhaps, more enabling, which in turn could contribute to the relative stability of their happiness.

King and Pennebaker (1998) suggested that suppressing or withholding emotions has clear costs for psychological and physical health, and later found that people high in repressive tendencies tend to have lower Subjective Well Being. Such findings fit the claims of eudaimonic theorists that emotional access and congruence are important for well being. Additionally, it was found that extraversion seems to be fairly less significant than neuroticism as a predictor of the variables of subjective well being, satisfaction with life, and balance.

Diener and Lucas (1999) suggested that extraversion is characterized by positive affect and neuroticism is virtually defined by negative affect. In line with Seidlitz (1993), Diener and Lucas further suggested that conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience are less strongly and consistently linked to Subjective Well Being.

DeNeve (1999) suggested that Subjective Well Being is relatively stable across the life span. He that extraversion and agreeableness were consistently and positively associated with Subjective Well Being whereas neuroticism was consistently negatively associated with it. Subjective Well Being is affected by positive and negative life events (Headey and Wearing, 1989). The eudaimonic position in contrast to the hedonic view, suggests that important issue concerning emotions is not feeling positive per se but rather is the extent to which a person is fully functioning (Rogers, 1963). Thus, under some conditions (e.g. the death of a loved one) a person would be considered to be more fully functioning, and ultimately, to have greater well being.
Lu (1999) examined the personal and environmental causes of happiness and found that extraversion is said to be the cardinal trait of happiness and well being. Lu analyzed an integrative model of happiness, which incorporated personal factors (demographics, Extraversion, Neuroticism and locus of control) and environmental factors (life events and social support). Results found that Extraversion is not directly related to happiness but both Neuroticism and internal control had direct effects on happiness.

Diener and Lucas (1999) reviewed the correlations between happiness and variety of resources e.g. superior mental health, marriage, a good income and a long life desirable characteristics, and favorable life circumstances. Diener et al. (2006) pointed out that "even when extremely wealthy individuals are examined, the effects (italics added) of income are small".

Piedmont (1999) found that the dispositionally grateful people may also be oriented toward recognition of non-human forces that might contribute to their well being in a broader, more existential sense (viz., luck, chance, God, or some other conception of the divine). Grateful people may tend to be spiritually inclined.

Schwarz and Strack (2000) found that self-esteem, life satisfaction, optimism, and hedonic balance, that is, the dimensions comprising SWB, were highly and positively correlated to each other.

Ryff and Singer (2000) found that positive relations with others is a dimension of well being. Thus, whereas much of the work reviewed herein treats relationships as a source of well being, treat it as a defining element of PWB, viewing positive relations with others as an essential element in human flourishing.

Lucas and Fujita (2000) reported that one of the most consistent findings in the study of personality and emotions is that extraversion is moderately correlated with pleasant affect.

Furnham and Cheng (2000) found that perceive parental care was positively related to both perceived denial of psychological autonomy and
perceived discouragement of behavioral freedom negatively, associated with happiness. Additionally, it was also reported that individuals with high self-esteem and self-reported state and trait happiness are more likely to look back at their childhoods in a positive light. They also found that self-esteem was not only a direct correlate of happiness but also a mediator variable between parental style (particularly authoritiveness) and happiness.

Reis et al. (2000) suggested that specifically, daily experiences of autonomy, competence, and relatedness each contributed unique variance to the prediction of happiness and vitality.

According to Diener (2000), individual differences in both personality and subjective well being emerge early in life, are stable over time, and have a moderate to strong genetic component. These findings have led some to calculate that subjective well being is primarily determined by our inborn predispositions.

Snyder (2000) has proposed that strong attachment to caregivers is crucial for imparting hope, and available research is consistent with this speculation (Shorey et al., 2003). Traumatic events across the course of childhood also have been linked to the lessening of hope (Rodriguez-Hanley and Snyder, 2000).

Taylor et al. (2000) opined that psychological beliefs such as optimism, personal control, and a sense of meaning are known to be protective of mental health. They have provided evidences that beliefs such as optimism and a sense of personal control are protective factors for psychological and physical health (Gable and Haidt, 2005). Optimism is associated with behaviors aimed at promoting health and reducing health risk (Scheier and Carver, 2000).

Ryan and La Guardia (2000) discussed the relations of need fulfillment motivation and well being across the lifespan. They reviewed evidence for the critical role of relatedness, competence, and autonomy in fostering well being at all ages, suggesting that basic psychological needs influence well being across life.
Elliot and Thrash (2002) found that positively valenced moods and emotions lead people to think, feel and act in ways that promote both resource building and involvement with approach goals. Positive emotions signify that life is going well, the person’s goals are being met, and resources are adequate (Clore et al., 2001). Emotionally stable people ruminate less about negative life events and consequently they might find forgiveness easier than people who are less emotionally stable (McCullough et al., 2000).

Cheng and Furnham (2001) reported that various studies have confirmed personality trait correlates of happiness. Furnham and Brewin (1990) reported a positive correlation for scores on happiness with those on extraversion, and negative correlation with those on neuroticism. Scores on happiness were correlated with those on extraversion and enjoyment, and on participation in social activities Hills and Argyle (2001).

Fredrickson (2001) suggested that people experiencing positive emotion take advantage of their time in this state- free from immediate danger and unmarked by recent loss- to seek new goals that they have not yet attained, Carver (2003).

Ryan and Deci (2001) point out that people high in happiness or subjective well being tend to have attributional styles that are more self-enhancing and more enabling than those low in subjective well being, suggesting that happiness can lead to positive cognitions which in turn contribute to further happiness. Certainly there is a great deal of observational data showing that characteristically happy people tend to construe the same experiences and life events more favorably than unhappy people and are less responsive to negative feedback (Lyubomirsky and Ross, 1999).

McCullough et al. (2001) examined the correlates and disposition of gratitude in 238 undergraduates Psychology students (174 women, 57 men, 7 unrecorded) reported that gratitude was found to have positive and moderately significant relationship with forgiveness. The empirical findings strongly supported the notion of gratitude as a moral barometer and a
moral reinforcer, but they concluded that the data were inadequate for evaluating the moral motive hypothesis. They even proposed that gratitude is relevant to the moral domain in the same way that affects such as guilt, shame (Keltner and Buswell, 1996), empathy and even contempt, anger, and disgust (Rozin, 1999) are morally relevant. Research also shows that dispositional gratitude is associated with other measures of positive affect and well being. Watkins et al. (2003) found trait gratitude to be negatively related to resentment about the past, and to depression in clinical samples. It was suggested that grateful people may tend to be higher in Agreeableness, which appears to facilitate prosocial and other oriented behavior (Koole et al., 2001).

Walker and Gorsuch (2002) found that higher levels of forgiveness are usually significantly associated with lower levels of neuroticism. Relatively high degree of relations among self-esteem, optimism, and life satisfaction, and interpersonal relationships have been found (Schimmack et al., 2002a). Schimmack et al. (2002b) also proposed a causal model of the relations between personality (Extraversion and Neuroticism) and the two components of Subjective Well Being. The model assumed that personality is more strongly related to the affective component of Subjective Well Being than to the cognitive component of Subjective Well Being. The model regarded Extraversion and Neuroticism as affective dispositions that influence the amount of pleasant and unpleasant affect that people experience in their lives (Diener and Lucas, 1999).

Ulrich et al. (2002) predicted that the influence of personality on life satisfaction was mediated by hedonic balance and that the relation between hedonic balance and life satisfaction was moderated by culture. Extraversion and Neuroticism influenced hedonic balance to the same degree in all cultures, and hedonic balance was a stronger predictor of life satisfaction in individualistic than in collectivistic cultures. The influence of Extraversion and Neuroticism on life satisfaction was largely mediated by hedonic balance.
Caprara et al. (2003) found that people’s beliefs in their capacity to successfully manage relationships with others significantly influenced their positive thinking, the positive view they have about themselves, their life, and the future, as well as their hedonic balance, which is the relative prevalence of positive over negative effects in daily experiences.

Emmons and McCullough (2003) found in their research that feelings of gratitude may be beneficial to subjective emotional well being. Multiple studies now suggest that people who feel more gratitude are much more likely to have higher levels of happiness, and lower levels of depression and stress (McCullough et al., 2004).

Caspi et al. (2003) opined that individual vary not only in their reactivity to life events but also in the degree to which they actively create certain life events (Suls and Martin, 2005). During adulthood, Extraversion, Emotional Stability, and Openness to Experience decrease, whole Agreeableness and Conscientiousness increase (Srivastava et al., 2003).

Diener et al. (2003) found that SWB is strongly correlated with personality traits more recent psychological research and have focused on exploring the role of trait or non-trait features of personality in SWB. Parental personality is related both to general parenting and to the experience and expression of emotion. Grateful responses to life we are told, can lead to peace of mind, happiness, physical health, and deeper, more satisfying personal relationships (Emmons and McCullough, 2003).

Way and Robinson (2003) reported that SWB was strongly correlated with personality traits more recent psychological research has focused on exploring the role of trait or non-trait features of personality in SWB (Diener et al., 2003). Research suggests that well being and healthy development during adolescence move hand in hand. Well being is part of this positive mental health. Though the subjective feeling of well being is difficult to measure, the concept continues to be useful in mental health research (Liu and Saddock, 2002).
Hayes and Joseph (2003) stated that certain people tend to be happier than others because of their personality. Likewise, Costa and McCrae (1980) believed that satisfaction with life is related to a high level of extraversion and a low level of neuroticism. Thus, Eysenck and Eysenck (1985) reported that extroverts tend to vary between positive affect and what they called a neutral element, whereas neurotics display changes that go from negative affect to neutrality. Subsequent research has confirmed these relations (Hills and Argyle, 2001).

In a study, Robinson et al. (2003) demonstrated that extraversion is more reliable predictor of Subjective Well Being, among certain individuals than others. The study revealed that extraversion-Subjective Well Being relation was weaker among those quick to appreciate the distinction between neutral and positive events in a choice reaction time task.

Park et al. (2004) suggested that gratitude is as strongly correlated with well being as are other positive traits, and have suggested that this relationship is causal (Wood et al., 2008). However, with one exception (Kashdan et al., 2006), research has focused on subjective well being (SWB) and has ignored the potential relationship between gratitude and psychological well being (PWB). Both cognitive and affective components of SWB are positively influenced by adults perceived capability in regulating their negative emotional states, as previously found for adolescents (Caprara and Steca, 2004).

Cohen (2004) reported that research programs in the social sciences have established the key role of social relations for health and well being. Psychological research tends to identify functional indicators of social support as predicative of well being. Satisfaction with support is a strong predictor of well being above and beyond study personality variables (Moreira et al., 2003). Self esteem was both a direct and an indirect correlate of young people’s self reported happiness (Klein et al., 1996). Various studies have confirmed personality trait correlates of happiness (Hills and Argyle, 2001). Furnham and Brewin (1990) reported
a positive correlation for scores on happiness with those on extraversion, and negative correlation with those on neuroticism.

Cheng (2004) showed that substantial research revealed positive affect and negative affect have direct effects on well-being. Positive Affect (PA) and Negative Affect (NA) have endowment and contrast effects on well-being.

Heller et al. (2004) reported that neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness were related to various domains of satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Huppert (2005) found an impressive body of cross-sectional survey data shows that happy people tend to function better in life than less happy people, are typically more productive, more socially engaged, and tend to have higher incomes (Judge et al., 2001). The researcher revealed that positive mood states can enhance attention and problem solving. Compared with individuals in negative or neutral mood states, subjects in a positive mood state have a broader focus of attention (Gasper and Clore, 2000) and generate many more ideas in problem-solving tasks (Fredrickson and Branigan, 2005). Experimental social psychology is full of examples showing that positive emotional experiences have beneficial effects on the way people perceive and interpret social behaviors and the way they initiate social interactions (Forgas, 2001). It has also been found that people experiencing positive affect evaluate themselves and others more positively, make more lenient attributions, and behave in a more confident, optimistic and generous way in interpersonal situations. Positive emotions can be the consequence of certain cognitive/behavioral processes, as well as their cause (Kasser and Ryan, 1996). Extensive research on goal pursuit shows that enhanced subjective well-being is associated with goals being intrinsic, i.e. self-generated, with progress towards a valued goal (Sheldon and Kasser, 1998), the pursuit of approach goals rather than avoidance goals (Elliot et al., 1997), and the pursuit of goals congruent with personal values (Sheldon and Elliot, 1999). In addition, a large body of work shows that active participation in
social activities and involvement in one’s community is associated with high levels of happiness and life satisfaction (Helliwell, 2003). Taken together, the findings suggest that positive emotions lead to positive cognitions, positive behaviors and increased cognitive capability, and that positive cognitions, behaviors and capabilities in turn fuel positive emotions (Fredrickson and Joiner, 2002). The recognition of this upward spiral (and its reverse) forms the basis of cognitive therapy (Beck, 1976). It was further reported that although positive affect and self-reported health are highly positively correlated, these correlations may be spurious because there is evidence that people high in positive affect tend to underreport symptoms of illness (Cohen et al., 2003).

Seligman et al. (2005) found that positive thinking corresponds to the latent dimension underlying life satisfaction, self-esteem, and optimism. Happiness, instead, corresponds to the difference between positive and negative affect, as they are experienced in a variety of daily life situations. The study was conducted on 683 Italian adults belonging to six different age groups. The findings of the study corroborated the paths of relations linking the examined variables.

Suls and Martin (2005) found that positive events are less expected for people who experience them less frequently, positive events should have a greater impact on the well being of these individuals.

Rojas’s (2005) ‘conceptual referent theory’ of happiness, which proposes that people’s judgments of life satisfaction or happiness are dependent on their ‘conceptual referent for a happy life’, or what they understand by ‘being well’.

Haybron et al. (2005) reported that life satisfaction is widely considered to be a central aspect of human welfare. Many have identified happiness with it, and some maintain that well being consists largely or wholly in being satisfied with one’s life. Empirical research on well being relies heavily on life satisfaction studies.

Gutierrez et al. (2005) found that most studies of personality and well being are correlation, and although researchers often assume that
stable personality traits must influence what they believe to be the more transient feeling of well being (e.g. Eysenck and Eysenck, 1985), there is evidence that the reverse causal direction may be true. SWB is fairly stable over time that it rebounds after major life events, and that it is often strongly correlated with stable personality traits. Thus, many researchers have turned their attention towards understanding the relation between personality and SWB. Cunningham (1988) and Isen (1987) have shown that inducing pleasant moods can lead to greater feeling of sociability, which is a defining characteristic of the extraversion trait. Chronically high levels of positive affect might induce greater sociability (Gutierrez et al., 2005).

Lyubomirsky et al. (2005) found that Cross-sectional creational literature thus far suggests that high subjective well being is related to positive outcomes in many areas of life. They also opined that happy individual are successful across multiple life domains, including marriage, friendship, income, work performance, and health. They revealed happiness is associated with and precedes numerous successful outcomes as well as behaviors paralleling success. The evidence suggested that positive affect – the hallmark of well being–may be the cause of many of the desirable characteristics, resources, and successes correlated with happiness.

Gonzalez et al. (2005) opined that personality is an important correlate of subjective well being. Neuroticism was the best predictor of balanced affect, subjective well being and satisfaction with life. Although it may seem instinctively natural to associate the positive state of subjective well being to extraversion, these results point in the direction of those already indicated by DeNeve and Cooper (1998).

Baggley et al. (2005) also reported that Extraverts experience positive emotions and were sociable, warm, cheerful, energetic, and assertive (McCrae, 1992).

Emmons (2005) reported that gratitude emerges upon recognizing that one has obtained a positive outcome from another individual who
behaved in a way that was (1) costly to him or her, (2) valuable to the recipient, and (3) intentionally rendered. As such, gratitude taps into the propensity to appreciate and savor everyday events and experiences (Langston, 1994).

Kashdan et al. (2006) suggested that, in contrast to the large number of studies into gratitude and SWB, only one previous study has shown that gratitude is related to any aspect of PWB. They showed that trait gratitude is related to daily self-regard, rewarding social activity, and the pursuit of intrinsically motivating activity. These relationships were shown to exist after removing the effects of dispositional positive and negative affect, suggesting that gratitude is not simply related to these PWB variables due to affective valiance. We expand on this study by examining whether gratitude is related to the full range of PWB variables, and by testing whether gratitude has a unique relationship with PWB, or whether gratitude is only related to PWB due to the confounding effect of the Big Five personality facets.

Lawler-Row and Piferi (2006) assessed relationships among dispositional forgiveness, potential mediating factors and health outcome variables in 425 adults (50–95 years of age) and reported that forgiveness was significantly associated with subjective well being and psychological well being.

Bono and McCullough (2006) found that forgiveness may contribute to well being mainly from its potential to help people mend and preserve supportive, close relationships (Karremans et al., 2003). The researchers found that forgiving was more strongly associated with wellbeing in highly committed relationships rather than less committed relationships partly because not forgiving in close relationships leads to psychological tension (i.e., a state of discomfort resulting from conflicting cognitions and feelings). Not surprisingly, forgiveness appears to be beneficial for relational well being (Nelson, 1993). This is significant when we consider the fact that lack of supportive relationships has been linked to a wide variety of psychological and physical diseases (Baumeister and
Leary, 1995). The researcher found that the degree to which people in romantic relationships reported having forgiven each other was positively associated with both partners’ satisfaction with and commitment to their relationships, suggesting that forgiveness is linked to both the forgiver and the forgiven person’s reports of relationship quality. Conversely, research has demonstrated that endorsing revenge as a conflict resolution strategy is positively related to difficulty maintaining close friendships (Rose and Asher, 1999). The more that the children in this study reported “getting back” at friends in imaginary conflict scenarios, the fewer best friends they had, the more their peers rated them as hostile and less positive, and the less accepted they were by their peers. Bono and colleagues argued that gratitude has three moral functions. Gratitude can serve as a moral barometer because it indicates a change in one’s social relationships as a result of people who he/she regards as moral agents for having augmented his/her personal well being. McCullough et al. (1998), opined that gratitude can also serve as a moral motive because it motivates people to respond to kindness with kindness and to subsequently inhibit destructive motivations toward a benefactor. Finally, gratitude can serve as a moral reinforcer because its expression can increase the chances that a benefactor will respond with benevolence again in the future, just as showing ingratitude can instill anger and resentment in benefactors and inhibit future acts of kindness.

Farokhzad (2007) in a cross cultural study of adolescents stress and coping in relation to personality, family environment and happiness orientation found that adolescents with adequate cognitive abilities, emotional development, and supportive families seem better able to cope with the problems of poor academic achievement and behavioral disorders successfully.

Abdo and Alamuddin (2007) investigated the prevalence and predictors of subjective well being (SWB) in a particular Middle Eastern culture of Lebanon. The authors examined personality constructs of self-esteem, optimism, and positive affect in relation to SWB. They surveyed a
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sample of 689 individuals between the ages of 17 and 24 by using four instruments with established cross-cultural validity, the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS), the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS), the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE), the revised Life Orientation Test (LOT-R). The results indicated that college youth's SWB was positively correlated with self-esteem, optimism, and positive affect. Several previous studies have shown that gratitude is related to social and well being variables after controlling for the domains of the Big Five (Stewart et al., 2009). As gratitude is expected to be at the facet not the domain level of personality, a stronger test of the incremental validity of gratitude would control for the 30 NEO PI-R facets, rather than just the five domains. A large literature is developing which shows that a variety of outcomes can be better predicted by measuring each of the 30 facets rather than just using global measures of the Big Five domains (Ekehammar and Akrami, 2007).

Wood et al. (2009) conceptually stated that gratitude should be expected to be strongly related to well being. Gratitude represents the quintessential positive personality trait, being an indicator of a worldview orientated towards noticing and appreciating the positive in life. Grateful people feel more frequent and intense grateful affect (McCullough et al., 2002), have more positive views of their social environments, utilize productive coping strategies, have more positive traits (Wood et al., 2008), better sleep, and continually focus on the positive in their environments, with a greater appreciation of their life and their possessions. Such a life orientation towards the positive can be contrasted with a depressive worldview which typically involves a focus on the negative aspects of the self, world, and future (Beck, 1976). From a slightly different perspective, Lyubomirsky et al., (2005) see gratitude as integral to well being, as it offers an alternative to the “hedonistic treadmill”, where ever more possessions need to be purchased in order to maintain short term gains in happiness. In contrast, gratitude may help to avoid the hedonistic treadmill by ensuring a daily appreciation of events. This perspective has achieved
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early support from the studies showing that “counting your blessings” has a causal effect on well being (Emmons and McCullough, 2003).

Kashdan et al. (2009) accumulated evidence supports the idea that gratitude is linked to greater psychological and physical well being; helps build lasting, meaningful social relationships. (Fredrickson, 2004); serves as an evolutionary adaptation that sustains reciprocal altruism (Trivers, 1971); and is negatively related to emotional disturbances such as depression, social anxiety, and envy (Kashdan and Breen, 2007). Many of these associations held after controlling for Big Five personality traits and social desirability biases (McCullough et al., 2002). In addition to influencing well being, the experience of gratitude leads people to respond prosocially toward benefactors (Tsang, 2007) and unrelated others (Bartlett and DeSteno, 2006), resulting in an “epidemiology of altruism” (Nowak and Roch, 2007). Moreover, upon comparing four existing “positive psychology” interventions, gratitude interventions yielded the largest effects at post treatment and follow-up assessments up to 1 month later (Seligman et al., 2005). The sheer magnitude of these relations and the therapeutic efficacy of gratitude interventions provide support for the value of devoting additional resources to understanding and enhancing gratitude.

Huver et al. (2009) found that emotional stability was associated with lower strict control. The rapid physiological and psychological changes during adolescence may present challenges for both adolescents and their parents. All members of the family have to renegotiate their interrelationships, attempting to maintain supportive relationships while at the same time respecting the growing individuality and autonomy of the adolescents.

Brooks-Gunn and Warren (1989) reported that stress, in turn, contributes to negative affect in young adolescents and increases the risk of developing psychological, behavioral, and somatic disorders (Berden et al., 1990).
McLennan et al. (1988) reported that subjective well being was inversely correlated with Neuroticism, a pattern of association also found by others.

Diong and Bishop (1999) examined the role of anger expression in the experience of stress, coping with stress and psychological and physical well being. Based on a sample of 268 Singaporeans, the results indicated that anger expression was significantly related to reported stress, mechanisms for coping with stress and psychological well being. The researchers opined that in addition, higher levels of anger expression showed a direct negative relationship with psychological well being as did higher levels of stress (Hooker et al., 1994). In contrast, the only significant predictor of physical well being was reported stress, with higher levels of stress related to lower levels of physical well being. Higher levels of anger expression were associated with higher levels of stress as well as lower use of active coping. Active coping was in turn positively related to psychological well being.

Tripathi (2008) studied disposition of forgiveness among adolescents. It was found that anger is negatively related with forgiveness. Gratitude, Happiness, Satisfaction With Life, Positive affect, Mental Health and dimensions of Personality promoted Forgiveness and Well Being.

Karney et al. (1994) found that neurotic individuals were more likely to make maladaptive attributions in their marriages and tended to use ineffective coping styles.

David and Suls (1999) reported that individuals higher on Extraversion used more adaptive forms of emotion-focused coping, such as support seeking, positive thinking or reinterpretation, and substitution and restraint (McCrae and Costa, 1986).

Scheier and Carver (1985) reported the findings of a project investigating whether dispositional optimism acts as a buffer against stress. They found that optimism positively correlated with indication of active coping with elaboration or complexity of coping strategies, and with the seeking of social support. Optimism was negatively correlated with
focus on emotion and emotional expression and with disengagement from
the goal. The researchers also found that optimists cope with stressful
events more successfully and engage in more health enhancing behaviors
than pessimists. Further they have also suggested that differences in well
being between optimists and pessimists could derive from the way
individuals select and use the general strategies of coping available to
them (Watson and Hubbard, 1996). The second possibility is that
optimism/pessimism differences directly affect physiologic functioning.
Optimists receive greater Satisfaction from interpersonal relationships and
perceive lesser stress and are better at coping.

Gunthert et al. (1999) proposed that high on Neuroticism
individual’s day-to-day emotionality is partially attributable to the way in
which he or she experiences and handles daily stress. High-Neuroticism
person could be more reactive in response to negative appraisal and
specific coping efforts than would low-Neuroticism person. Neurotic
persons clearly report more stressful events and uncomfortable physical
symptoms (Affleck et al., 1992) and magnify the effects of a given
stressful event (Mohan, 1999).

Uehara et al. (1999) concluded that some personality traits such as
Extraversion are related to task-oriented coping, and psychopathological
personality traits such as Neuroticism are associated with emotional-
oriented coping in major depressive disorder.

Folkman and Moskowitz (2000) have highlighted the role of
positive emotional experiences in the context of negative life experiences.
Positive emotional experiences have been shown to aid coping in a variety
of ways (e.g., by speeding recovery from negative emotions or providing a
respite from negative emotional times). Results indicate that another way
positive emotional experiences facilitate coping is by enhancing the feeling
of meaningfulness.

Scheier and Carver (2000) made regarding coping. Some of these,
are studies of proactive processes, processes that promote good health
and-well being. The reasoning behind the studies is that people who are
optimistic about their personal future may take active steps to ensure the positive quality of that future. This behavior would be much the same as engaging in problem-focused coping activities, except there's no particular a stressor threatening the person.

Maltby et al. (2004) found that extraversion was related to forgiveness of others among men and psychoticism was related negatively with forgiveness among women. They further also suggested that problem focused coping was associated with better mental health, whereas neuroticism was related to poorer mental health.

Jaggi (2007) 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.

3. GENDER DIFFERENCES IN PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL BEING, SUBJECTIVE WELL BEING AND GRATITUDE

In today's world unlike earlier time child rearing practices lay equal emphasis on male-female children. In spite of this, certain biological and environmental gender differences in Well Being and Gratitude and their correlates are expected.

It was hypothesized that there are expected to be gender differences in Well Being measures, namely Psychological Well Being, Subjective Well Being and Gratitude and their correlates.

A comparison of the mean scores and t-ratios of male and female adolescents revealed that significant differences emerged on the following correlates: Autonomy, Self Acceptance, Total Psychological Well Being, Satisfaction With Life, Positive Affect, Negative Affect, Subjective Well Being, Life Events Stress, Psychoticism, Extraversion, Social Desirability, Perceived Parental Overprotection, Oxford Happiness, Trait Anger, Anger In, Anger Out, Anger Control, Anger Expressed, Forgiveness of Situations, Total Forgiveness and Perceived Health Status.
Thus, it may be said that the hypothesis was upheld in majority of the cases. Female and Male adolescents showed differences on various variables studied for the present research. Many earlier studies have found similar trends.

Bretherton (1985) have argued for hierarchical organization, and reported that females tend to receive greater social support from peers compared with males. One reason may be that females possess a greater tendency to recognize acts of goodwill by others, express their appreciation, and reinforce the likelihood these acts will be repeated. Upon encoding these shared positive experiences, a durable social resource is created, with both parties more likely to respond with variants of support and responsiveness when later faced with adversity. In other words, gratitude bolsters social bonds and friendships by building people’s skills for caring, altruism, and acts of appreciation, and these are enhanced in case of females. Over time, gratitude—similar to other positive emotions—contributes to the growth of skills, relationships, and resilience (Eagley and Crowley, 1986).

Allen et al. (1994) explored that a central developmental task of adolescence is to achieve an optimal balance between autonomy and relatedness in the relationships. The capacity of girls is better as they succeed in forming such a balance. In particular, it was suggested that girls learnt feminine behaviors and they complemented masculine behavior of fathers and brothers and other male members of the society well. Following this logic, Collins and Read (1990) confirmed that the females based the prototype of their style of relationships with men on the quality of the relationship with father, and thus were more successful than males in handling emotions and maintaining relations.

Thyer et al. (1994) measured ethnic and gender differences in reported stressful life events in 70 Southeast Asian adolescents. It was found that females reported higher stress on 8 out of 10 life events than did males. It is also worth noting that males and females handled their emotions in different ways. For example, females reported using social
support more frequently than do males to combat negative moods (Polce-Lynch et al., 1998). In contrast, males tend to manage bad moods through pleasurable and distracting activities, such as sports. It is thus, likely that males and females also differed in the strategies that they preferred to use to increase or maintain happiness. Females are more expressive than males and that males restrict emotional expression throughout adolescence.

Cross and Madson (1997) explained gender differences in independence and interdependence vary from biological to social and experiential. The researchers believed that, owing to the gender congruity of females and males, girls developed a fundamental sense of sameness and interconnection, they tended to relate better with same gender peers. In contrast, a boy's gender incongruity leads to a fundamental sense of difference and disconnection. Working on similar lines (Eagley and Crowley, 1986) suggested that these orientations and differences were established through the roles that males and females typically fulfilled. Because females are more likely to occupy caretaker roles, such as mother or nurse, they become skilled at attending to the needs of others. Males, in contrast, tend to occupy roles that emphasize independence and self-promotion, and so they develop expertise in these areas.

Greenglass et al. (1998) found that gender affects the way people cope with stress. Men are more problem-focused and women are more emotion-focused in their coping strategies. Men have been reported to be more likely than women to engage in coping that alters a stressful situation. Men more often possess psychological attributes, that is, self-esteem and mastery, which influence their coping. However, gender differences in mastery or a related characteristic, self-efficacy are likely to be linked to differences in social experiences. It was also found that social support and coping is stronger in women. Women employ more coping forms involving inter-personal relationships.

Miller et al. (2000) argued that stress due to difficulties with peers at school is more closely correlated with psychosomatic symptoms among
boys than girls. On the contrary, research findings also have shown that adaptive aspects of peer relationships, such as perceived peer relationships and positive friendship qualities, protect girls more than boys against emotional difficulties such as depression and loneliness (Rudolph, 2002). These conclusions may differ from each other, but they indicate that gender could be a moderator between interpersonal relationships and psychosomatic symptoms. In the United States, men and boys are more likely than women and girls to adopt attitudes and beliefs that undermine their health and well-being, as reported by Courtenay, (2000).

DiClementa et al. (2001) studied gender differences in conflict in the family environment. Boys experienced more conflict than girls and they experienced more objective positional conflicts involving use of the car, church attendance and responsibilities at home. Girls on the other hand, experienced conflicts centered on emotional issues, such as going around with particular boys or girls.

Courtenay (2001) said that in general, women are more emotionally expressive than men—with the exception of expressing anger, which men do more frequently. Men report less fear or emotional distress than women do, for example, and are less likely than women to cry. Men’s inexpressiveness can have both direct and indirect effects on their health and well-being. Self-disclosure, for example, has been found to be associated with improvements in immune functioning and physical health (Smyth, 1998).

Thapar (2002) female adolescents scored higher on the use of express emotions and avoidance coping strategies. Male adolescents scored higher on problem solving, social contact and social withdrawal coping strategies.

Flouri and Buchanan (2002) found gender differences on the prevalence of emotional/depressive symptoms among males and females. They said that it is possible that the Malaise Inventory, which is more focused on emotional/depressive symptoms, was rated up in women and down in men. Even so, however, it is still noteworthy that early father
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involvement had an important protective role against psychological maladjustment and distress later in life. They asserted that this pattern continues into childhood and adolescence with mothers engaging in more frequent interactions with their children than fathers, and with fathers having more distant relationships with their children than mothers. Moreover, during adolescence mothers are more responsive and fathers are more demanding (Baumrind, 1991). Furthermore, both male and female adolescents report that they are closer to their mothers than their fathers.

Sehgal (2003) explored gender differences on adolescent health. Results showed that there were gender differences on perceived health status with girls scoring higher than boys, Exercise/fitness, BMI, life events stressors, state anger, and Psychoticism with boys scoring higher than girls. Father involvement may be another factor associated with positive child outcomes but it has received limited attention in recent psychological research (Caprara et al., 2000). It was also found that gender had a significant effect on adolescent coping style and coping strategies. Girls were more socially oriented than boys, tending to rely on social support, whereas boys tended to avoid the problem or engage in blaming. These findings are consistent with many past studies (Copeland and Hess, 1995).

Courtenay (2000) found that North Americans strongly endorse the cultural—and health-related—beliefs that men are independent, self-reliant, strong, robust, and tough. Men and boys experience enormous social pressure to adopt these beliefs, and in general experience comparatively greater social pressure than women and girls to endorse societal prescriptions about gender. Compared to girls, boys are also less likely to receive warmth and nurturance from peer group. Boys are talked to less about sadness and more about anger; are perceived as being physically stronger and less vulnerable—despite being more vulnerable; are handled more roughly; are engaged in more intense and competitive play; and are physically punished more. The researcher also found that
when exposed to more violence both inside and outside the home, boys are also more likely than girls to be encouraged in activities that distance them from their parents, to be discouraged from seeking help, and to be punished when they do seek help. This differential treatment has both short- and long-term effects on the health of men and boys. Major depression is diagnosed twice as often in women as in men (APA, 2000) mental health clinicians are less likely to correctly diagnose depression in men.

In the National Population Health Survey (NPHS) (1994/95), personal stress was defined as: trying to take on too much at once; feeling pressure to be like other people; feeling that others expect too much; feeling that your work around the home is not appreciated; and feeling that others are too critical of you. In 1994/95 (the most recent data available), 45% of women aged 18 or older reported that they were trying to do too much at once; 38% of men felt this way. Similarly, a third of women, but just over a quarter of men, said that others expected too much of them. Women were also more likely than men to feel pressure to be like others, or that their work around the home was not appreciated. Not surprisingly, then, high personal stress, defined as experiencing at least two of these forms of stress was more common in women than men. And though personal stress tended to decline at older ages, in each age group, a larger proportion of women than men were affected (Russell and Saebel, 1997). Employment can have a positive effect on health as a result of steady or increased income, access to job-related benefits such as paid sick leave or drug and dental insurance plans, and a sense of self-esteem. But having a job can also mean exposure to work stress, which can affect physical and emotional wellbeing. Work stress stems from a number of sources: physically demanding labour, low support from co-workers and supervisors, job strain, and job insecurity. In 1994/95, National Population Health Survey also found that about 4 in 10 Canadian workers aged 15 to 64 reported that their jobs were physically demanding. As might be anticipated, this was more common among men than women. The
proportions of workers in such jobs declined with age, and the difference between men and women disappeared from age 45 on. For both sexes, personal and work stress are predictive of mental and physical health problems. Women, however, are much more likely than men to experience stress. This may reflect social expectations and the division of labor in the workplace and at home. Taylor et al. (2004) found that women are more likely than men to experience stress may account for their higher prevalence and incidence of health problems. But while women are more likely than men to suffer an array of debilitating and painful chronic conditions that are highly associated with activity limitation, the longer-term impact of these conditions is not the same for each sex. Once afflicted, women seem to be more resilient. At most ages, notably the senior years, women were no more likely than men to have activity limitations or to be dependent. Langford et al. (2001) gave the same specific condition and the same age, men are more likely to report ill health and more likely to die than their female counterparts. In some measure, this may have to do with women’s greater tendency to build support networks, perhaps to cope with stress and to deal with the effects of painful chronic diseases, social support (parental support in the current study) benefits youth adjustment by providing psychological, material, and other resources needed to cope with stress.

Cohen (2004) found that it is important to note that the sample sizes of the various family types meant that the statistical power to detect significant differences was quite low, particularly for fathers. Masculine and feminine gender norms also differentially emphasize individualism and collectivism.

Sallinen et al. (2004) found that perhaps boys, who had a more negative attitude regarding school than girls, react to the psychological and physical absence of their fathers by externalization, resulting in conflicts and thus negative overall attitude and well being of the individual. They found that negative quality of the relationship with mother (e.g., permissive control, lower levels of positive communication) was found associated with
earlier initiation of intercourse—an indication of a risk behavior, lower levels of responsible sexual activity (i.e., higher number of sexual partners) and higher incidence of unwanted pregnancies in adolescence. Besides providing closeness and security, fathers play an especially salient role in promoting the exploratory side of their children’s development (Grossmann et al., 2002) and with daughters they probably provide a safe arena wherein to learn to interact with the other sex. In particular, it was suggested that girls are assumed to learn feminine behaviors by complementing their father’s masculine behavior (Russell and Saebel, 1997).

Koo et al. (2004) studied the age and gender differences in affect and subjective well being. Females reported a higher level of negative affect and a lower level of positive affect than males.

Bishop (2006) explored the age and gender differences in the adaptation and well being of older adults residing in catholic monasteries. The result indicated that older women reported greater coping behaviors, life satisfaction, and personal growth, but men reported greater depression. Consistent with the findings of their study he reported that growth in negative perception of well being is influenced by advanced age and disability (Taylor and Lynch, 2004). This might be more salient for men than for women.

Bugental and Grussec (2006) opined females' psychological well being, however, is more likely to be influenced by the daily routine of activities. At the same time, females also report higher levels of stress and anxiety when they evaluate their own performance as mothers than do their male counterparts. Compared with males, females are more involved with the responsibility for daily childcare and household chores, which exposes them to a wider range of disagreements and tension within the family. The researchers also found that females reported almost twice as many days of tension as against males. Additionally, the extent of female stress level is frequently affected by the societal expectations for females to be "good householders". Previously Block (1983) found that both
satisfied and distressed females engaged in more negative behaviors than males in their relationships, a finding which to some extent might support the current discrepancy between male and female positive problem solving behavior, specifically for less secure partner attachment.

**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.

**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, pathways and stress, whereas males were higher on optimism, mental health and happiness.

**Kaur (2007)** in a study on psychological and family characteristics in adolescents at risk for developing type II diabetes, found significant gender differences in male and female adolescents. Males were found to be higher on body mass index, health habits, personality dimensions, confrontive coping and planful problem solving (ways of coping). Females were found to be higher on anger experienced and anger expressed, depression, measures of stress and distancing, self controlling, seeking social support, accepting responsibility, escape avoidance and positive reappraisal.

**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 (social desirability). Males, on the other hand, were found to be higher on forgiveness of situation, Being comfortable with self, negative affect and positive affect.

**Jaggi (2008)** in a study of psychological aspects of Happiness found significant gender differences in male and female adolescents. Females
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scored higher on optimism, whereas males scored higher on presumptive stressful life events, accepting responsibility, planful problem solving (ways of coping) and trait anger.

Fred et al. (2009) affirmed that men typically express emotions associated with power and status. Fred further reported that girls tended to report more gratitude than boys. Boys experience more gratitude if they have high levels of familial support, but girls with less familial support might still experience gratitude because of their tendency to be more dispositionally grateful compared with boys. Gratitude seems to promote relational strengthening. Therefore, because gratitude, indebtedness, and dependency are associated with each other in some ways but not all (Watkins et al., 2006), men may view the experience and expression of gratitude as verification of weakness, which may threaten their masculinity and hurt their social status (Levant and Kopecky, 1995). Consequently, to protect themselves from any associated negative emotions or social consequences, men might avoid experiencing and expressing gratitude.

Gordon et al. (2009) found that women, compared with men, seem more likely to experience, and express gratitude and derive more benefit from it. Women, compared with men, evaluated the expression of gratitude to be less novel, complex, uncertain, and conflicting, and more interesting and exciting. When asked to describe a recent episode when they were the beneficiary, women, compared with men, reported less burden and obligation, and greater gratitude. Women with greater gratitude, but not men, were more likely to satisfy the psychological needs of belongingness and autonomy. Furthermore, the willingness to openly express emotions, which was greater in women, mediated these gender differences. Women might be at an advantage compared with men to experience and derive benefit from gratitude.

Joshi and Srivastava (2009) with regard to gender, found that adolescent girls tend to rate higher in interpersonal relationship than boys. This is because girls have a greater tendency to value close relationships, to rely on relationships as a resource, and to be concerned about
maintaining harmonious relationships (Rudolph, 2002). They further affirmed that gender differences may be caused by a combination of biological and social factors. This study examined the social factors. This study confirmed that girls experience more psychosomatic symptoms than boys according to the descriptive statistics. This finding is consistent with most previous research on psychosomatic symptoms and with other non-clinical population studies of psychosomatic symptoms among adolescents (Piko and Noemi, 2006). Subjects with better mother-adolescent, father-adolescent, sibling, teacher-student and peer relationships demonstrated less psychosomatic symptoms. Conversely, when adolescents perceive their mothers, fathers and sibling, teacher and peer relationships as not good, psychosomatic symptoms are more likely to be demonstrated. The female adolescents were found significantly superior on academic achievement than male adolescents. The research literature reveals that sex differences have been studied by many researchers in academic achievement of school going adolescents, but there is no unanimity in the findings. Dornbusch et al. (1987) reported that girls students tended to get higher grades than boys, which in turn worked to enhance the well being and achievement among adolescents.

Kashdan et al. (2009) found that gender differences in social values and regulatory goals are important because the expression and sharing of positive emotions is strongly related with social adjustment (Ingoldsb et al., 2005). Gratitude is another-focused emotion, and men may find gratitude to be less familiar and more discomforting compared with women. Moreover, with less practical experience and values that are inconsistent with the open expression of gratitude, men might find gratitude to be more challenging and anxiety provoking. If men are less oriented to the experience and expression of emotions, especially in social situations, then they are at a disadvantage for benefiting from gratitude. Men would be less likely to capitalize on how gratitude aids in the savoring of pleasant life experiences, validates social worth (i.e., gifts being objective evidence of acceptance by others), strengthens social bonds, and promotes
prosocial behavior that creates opportunities for additional positive experiences. Kashdan et al., asserted that based on gender differences in values, whether or not men and women differ in emotional experience, expression, and benefits might depend on the situation in which gifts are recognized. For example, men are more likely to express emotions compared with women after achievement related events (Scherer et al., 1986). Yet gratitude often occurs in social situations in the absence of overt achievement. Gender differences in the emotional experience of gratitude might be related to different social-emotional skills for women compared with men and varied social consequences. For example, women tend to be more aware of their emotions and how to use them intelligently to obtain desired outcomes (Barrett et al., 2000). Greater gratitude experiences and more positive and less negative reactions reinforce the willingness to openly express future gratitude experiences. Relative to women, men exhibited a slight deprivation in this valuable source of intrapersonal and interpersonal benefits. Both relatedness and autonomy are considered to be fundamental human needs and are posited as essential in the facilitation of personal growth and happiness, and the repair of emotional disturbances (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Women seemed to reap more benefits than men from being a grateful person. We found evidence to suggest that the general willingness to be emotionally expressive functions as a mediator of gender differences in relations between gratitude and well being. In women, trait gratitude was positively related to emotion expressiveness; the opposite effect was found in men. In turn, women derived greater psychological benefits from gratitude as a function of their willingness to share and express emotion experiences with others. A tendency to share grateful experiences might allow women to initiate, maintain, and strengthen relationships by acknowledging and validating the importance of others in their life. Emotion expression might also lead to positive mood contagion, leading others to show a preference for spending more time with grateful individuals. Expressing emotions may encourage mutual social support and facilitate the development of the
types of lasting, significant social connections that are at the core of pleasant, engaging, and meaningful living (Diener and Seligman, 2002). Expressing emotions facilitates the savoring of events, allowing people to recall memories of positive emotional experiences to buffer themselves during times of emotional stress. The willingness to openly express emotion might also provide access to clarifying values and living in accordance with them, satisfying the need for autonomy and not just relatedness. Thus, emotion expressiveness in women appears to be a critical mechanism connecting well being and gratitude.

Albert et al. (2010) studied adolescents in various situations and said that in contrast, there was no support for emotion expressiveness as a mechanism of action in men. As discussed earlier, women in general are more willing than men to express emotions (Kring and Gordon, 1998). Men's preference for concealing emotions in general seems culturally proscribed with the expression of gratitude being associated with additional negatively evaluated feelings of vulnerability, dependence, or indebtedness. An unwillingness to be in contact with negatively evaluated emotions may lead to efforts to avoid, conceal, or alter the emotional experience at the expense of other values or psychological benefits (Hayes et al., 1999). Men's preference to avoid feelings of perceived vulnerability or indebtedness costs them opportunities to develop and strengthen relationships with others. These consequences may unintentionally limit the benefits associated with gratitude for men. Interventions designed to increase psychological flexibility (e.g., reduce negative evaluations, generate alternative value consistent appraisals of gratitude) may result in an increase in men's willingness to express feelings of gratitude and, over time, promote psychological well being. Including these types of add-on modules might enhance the therapeutic utility of gratitude interventions. There are data to show that men are not born less emotionally expressive than women, but in fact the teaching and internalization of socially proscribed gender norms influences the experience, expression, and regulation of specific emotions (Brody, 1999).
These processes tend to be malleable. Thus, there is great promise in examining ways to change how men relate to feelings, thoughts, and behaviors linked to receiving gifts.

Taylor and Guimond (2010) suggested that perhaps gender differences in levels of social maturity may lead to the developmental processes of ethnic identity being engaged later in adolescence for male adolescents, compared to female adolescents. The current findings suggest that perhaps for male adolescents the familial context can facilitate the developmental process of ethnic identity resolution during middle adolescence to late adolescence.

Few studies have been found which do not support the present hypotheses.

Caprara et al. (2003) reported that men presented higher levels of positive thinking and experienced more frequent and intense positive emotional states, confirming what literature typically reported about men's higher self-acceptance and self-worth (Kling et al., 1999) and women's numerous anxiety and depression diseases (Culbertson, 1997).