

Psychological Well-being among the School-going Adolescents of Assam during COVID-19 Pandemic

A Dissertation Submitted

To

Sikkim University



In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the

Degree of Master of Philosophy

By

Rishika Baruah

Department of Psychology

School of Human Sciences

June 2022

साइल, सामदुर, तादोंग - 737102
गंगटोक, सिक्किम, भारत
फोन - 03592-251212, 251415, 251656
फैक्स - 251067
साइट - www.cus.ac.in



सिक्किम विश्वविद्यालय SIKKIM UNIVERSITY

6th Mile, Samdur, Tadong-737102
Gangtok, Sikkim, India
Ph. 03592-251212, 251415, 251656
Telefax : 251067
Website : www.cus.ac.in

(भारत के संसद के अधिनियम द्वारा वर्ष 2007 में स्थापित और नैक (एनएएसी) द्वारा वर्ष 2015 में प्रत्यायित केंद्रीय विश्वविद्यालय)
(A central university established by an Act of Parliament of India in 2007 and accredited by NAAC in 2015)

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled "Psychological Well-being among the School-going Adolescents of Assam during COVID-19 Pandemic" submitted by Ms. Rishika Baruah (Roll No. 20MPPS02 and Reg. No.20/M.Phil/PSY/02) in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the award of M.Phil Degree in Psychology of Sikkim University has not been previously submitted for the award of any degree/diploma of this or any other University and it is her original work. She has been working under my supervision.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to be 'Dr. Satyananda Panda'.

Dr. Satyananda Panda

Supervisor

Associate Professor and Head,

Department of Psychology,

Head
Sikkim University
Department of Psychology
सिक्किम विश्वविद्यालय
Sikkim University

Place: Gangtok

Date: 06/06/2022



Scanned with
CamScanner

DECLARATION

The work embodied in the dissertation entitled “**Psychological Well-being among the School-going Adolescents of Assam during COVID-19 Pandemic**” was conducted at the Department of Psychology under School of Human Sciences, Sikkim University, in partial fulfillment of the required for the award of M.Phil Degree of Sikkim University. The work has not been submitted in part or full to this or any other university or institution, for any degree or diploma.

Rishika Baruah

(Ms. Rishika Baruah)

Roll No:20MPPS02

Regd. No: 20/M.Phil/PSY/02

I recommend this dissertation to be placed before the examiners for evaluation.



(Dr. Satyananda Panda)

Supervisor & Head,

Department of Psychology
Head
मनोविज्ञान विभाग
Department of Psychology
सिक्किम विश्वविद्यालय
Sikkim University



साइल, सामदुर, तादोंग - 737102
टोक, सिक्किम, भारत
फोन - 03592-251212, 251415, 251656
फैक्स - 251067
साइट - www.cus.ac.in



6th Mile, Samdur, Tadong-737102
Gangtok, Sikkim, India
Ph. 03592-251212, 251415, 251656
Telefax : 251067
Website : www.cus.ac.in

सिक्किम विश्वविद्यालय SIKKIM UNIVERSITY

(भारत के संसद के अधिनियम द्वारा वर्ष 2007 में स्थापित और नैक (एनएएसी) द्वारा वर्ष 2015 में प्रत्यापित केंद्रीय विश्वविद्यालय)
(A central university established by an Act of Parliament of India in 2007 and accredited by NAAC in 2015)

PLAGIARISM CHECK REPORT

This is to certify that plagiarism check has been carried out for the following M.Phil Dissertation with the help of URKUND Software and the result is 2% which is within the permissible limit (up to 10% tolerance rate) as per the norms of Sikkim University.

“PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AMONG THE SCHOOL-GOING ADOLESCENTS OF ASSAM DURING COVID-19 PANDEMIC”

Submitted by Ms. Rishika Baruah under the supervision of Dr. Satyananda Panda,
Professor, Department of PSYCHOLOGY, School of HUMAN SCIENCES, Sikkim
University, Gangtok, 737 102, INDIA.

Rishika Baruah

Signature of the Candidate

[Signature]
02/06/2022

Countersigned by the Supervisor

[Signature]
Signature by the Librarian















Scanned with
CamScanner

Curiginal

Document Information

Analyzed document	Rishika's MPhil Material for Plagiarism Check.docx (D138286861)
Submitted	2022-05-28T10:34:00.0000000
Submitted by	
Submitter email	spanda@cus.ac.in
Similarity	2%
Analysis address	spanda.sikkim@analysis.arkund.com

Sources included in the report

SA	Saranjeet_Education_chapter 1.docx Document Saranjeet_Education_chapter 1.docx (D40560201)		2
W	URL: https://5dok.net/document/dy465x0z-relationship-perceived-parenting-styles-resilience-emotional-intelligence-adolescents.html Fetched: 2022-04-25T21:43:45.7970000		1
SA	YRF Project Report .pdf Document YRF Project Report .pdf (D113356727)		1
SA	Gaurav Verma.pdf Document Gaurav Verma.pdf (D114858011)		1
SA	PROJECT(RASHA).docx Document PROJECT(RASHA).docx (D123482043)		6
SA	01 introNishaK.doc Document 01 introNishaK.doc (D47806718)		1
W	URL: https://dspace.nwu.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10394/17416/Mathibe_GE.pdf;sequence=1 Fetched: 2022-03-10T07:12:52.8830000		2
SA	JYOTIKA SHARMA Ph D thesis 04 Sep 16 Submitted.pdf Document JYOTIKA SHARMA Ph D thesis 04 Sep 16 Submitted.pdf (D34240493)		1
SA	Arulsubila M.docx Document Arulsubila M.docx (D93708528)		4
W	URL: https://worldwidescience.org/topicpages/p/parenting%2Bstyle%2Battitudes.html Fetched: 2021-10-22T23:52:56.1900000		3
SA	Revised_Ritika_Education_Chapter 1.doc Document Revised_Ritika_Education_Chapter 1.doc (D44894357)		2
SA	Megha Bansal Dissertation Draft 4.docx Document Megha Bansal Dissertation Draft 4.docx (D134617971)		1



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I am very much thankful and grateful to the Almighty for his mercies and blessings he showed to me till now. I would like to thank my mother Mrs. Deepthi Bhorali Baruah and my father Mr. Pulin Baruah and my beloved sisters Mrs. Sangeeta Baruah and Miss. Anakha Baruah for being encouraging and supportive in my studies.

And then I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Satyananda Panda, Associate Professor & Head, who gave me the wonderful opportunity to work under his supervision. He helped me in deciding this topic which had not been studied before. So, I am really blessed for I got such a nice opportunity to do a small study in this topic. This work would not have been possible without his guidance and support. I am really grateful to him for his continuous support and valuable time which he spent on my work to help me. He continuously inspired me to work hard with dedication for my dissertation. So, it has huge scope for its research and application. His encouragement and faith on my abilities have motivated me to complete this dissertation.

I would like to thank respective principals of schools in Dibrugarh district who gave me permission to collect data from their schools for my dissertation and helped me in completing my dissertation.

Last but not the least, I would like to give my big thanks to Kinnari Kashyap and Kakoli Das who have helped me and contributed in completing my work and have been supportive towards my work. Lastly, I would like to thank my friend's Kunal Kaushik and Koushik Baruah for their continuous support. My thinking and experience have broadened and increased to a big extent after doing such a hard work and I am satisfied with my work.

Rishika Baruah

(Rishika Baruah)



CONTENTS	Page/s
LIST OF TABLES	VIII
LIST OF FIGURES	X
LIST OF ABBREVIATION	XI
ABSTRACT	XII
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION	01-24
1.1 Parenting Style	5
1.2 Perceived Stress	10
1.3 Loneliness	14
1.4 Psychological Well-being	18
1.5 Operational Definition	23
CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	25-43
2.1 Parenting Style and Psychological Well-being among Adolescents	26
2.2 Perceived Stress and Psychological Well-being among Adolescents	29
2.3 Loneliness and Psychological Well-being among Adolescents	32
2.4 Gender differences in Parenting Styles, Perceived Stress, Loneliness, and Psychological Well-being among Adolescents	35
CHAPTER III: THE PRESENT STUDY	44-49
3.1 Need and Justification of the Study	44
3.2 Statement of the Problem	46
3.3 Hypothetical Framework	47
3.4 Objectives of the Study	47
3.5 Hypotheses of the Study	

CHAPTER IV: METHODOLOGY	50-60
4.1 Research Design	51
4.2 Geographical Area& Sample	54
4.3 Ethical Considerations	56
4.4 Tools Used	56
4.5 Procedure for Data Collection	59
4.6 Statistical Techniques	60
CHAPTER V RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	61-102
5.1 Quantitative analysis	63
5.2 Qualitative analysis	95
CHAPTER VI: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	103-116
REFERENCES	117-153
APPENDICES	I-VI
APPENDIX I: Participant Consent Form	
APPENDIX II: Socio-Demographic Data Sheet	
APPENDIX III: Parental Authority Questionnaire (<i>Buri,1991</i>)	
APPENDIX IV: Perceived Stress Questionnaire(<i>Levenstein et al., 1993</i>)	
APPENDIX V: UCLA Loneliness Scale (<i>Russell & Cutrona, 1978</i>)	
APPENDIX VI: Psychological Well-being Scale (<i>Ryff & Keyes, 1995</i>)	

TL. No.	LIST OF TABLES	Page No.
4.1	Variables used in the Study	53
4.3	List of Senior Secondary Schools of Dibrugarh District from where Data were Collected	55
5.1	Descriptive Statistics of Selected Socio-Demographic Variables (N=200)	63
5.2	Correlation Coefficient among Parenting styles, Perceived Stress, Loneliness and Different Dimensions of Psychological Well-being among the School-going Adolescents of Assam during COVID-19 Pandemic (N=200)	68
5.3	Prediction of Psychological Well-being by Parenting style, Perceived Stress and Loneliness among School-going Adolescents of Assam during COVID-19 Pandemic (N=200)	72
5.4	Mean, SD and t-value among School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Authoritarian Parenting Style (N=200)	76
5.5	Mean, SD and t-value among School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Authoritative Parenting Style (N=200)	78
5.6	Mean, SD and t-value among School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Permissive Parenting Style (N=200)	80
5.7	Mean, SD and t-value among School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Perceived Stress (N=200)	81
5.8	Mean, SD and t-value among School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Loneliness (N=200)	84
5.9	Mean, SD and t-value among School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Different dimensions of Psychological Well-being (N=200)	86
5.10	Effect of Selected Socio-demographic Variables on Psychological Well-being among the School-going Adolescents	93

	of Assam (N=200)	
5.11	Co-efficient of CATREG Model	93
5.12	Socio-Demographic Profile of the Participants (N=10)	95
5.13	Thematic Analysis of the Data of the Participants (N=10)	96

FR. No.	LIST OF FIGURES	Page No.
3.3	Hypothetical Framework	46
4.1	Exhibiting the Plan and Procedure of the Study	52
5.1	Represents the Percentage of Gender among the Participants	64
5.2	Bar Diagram Represents the Percentage of Different Streams among the Participants	64
5.3	Bar Diagram Represents the Percentage of Different Social groups among the Participants	65
5.4	Bar Diagram Represents the Percentage of Different Religion among the Participants	66
5.5	Bar Diagram Represents the Mean Value of Different Variables	69
5.6	Bar Diagram Represents Mean Value of Authoritarian Parenting Style	76
5.7	Bar Diagram Represents Mean Value of Authoritative Parenting Style	78
5.8	Bar Diagram Represents Mean Value of Permissive Parenting Style	80
5.9	Bar Diagram Represents Mean Value of Perceived Stress	82
5.10	Bar Diagram Represents Mean Value of Loneliness	84
5.11	Bar Diagram Represents Mean Value of Dimension of Psychological Well-being	87

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

PS	Parenting Style
P	Permissive
AN	Authoritarian
AT	Authoritative
PS	Perceived Stress
L	Loneliness
A	Autonomy
EM	Environmental Mastery
PG	Positive Growth
PRO	Positive Relations with Others
PL	Purpose of Life
SA	Self-Acceptance
CATREG	Categorical
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund

ABSTRACT

The Corona virus (COVID-19) pandemic has unleashed a tsunami of challenges for humanity over the last two years. COVID-19 has had a significant impact on people's lives all across the world, especially children and adolescents. The presented study examined the association of psychological well-being with parenting styles, perceived stress and loneliness among school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic. For this purpose, 200 school-going adolescents were chosen from four schools in Dibrugarh district, Assam. The purposive sampling technique was used for data collection using standardized scales like Parental Authority Questionnaire, Perceived Stress Questionnaire, UCLA Loneliness Scale, and Psychological Well-being Scale. The quantitative results of the study showed that there was a significant relationship between dimensions of parenting styles, perceived stress, loneliness and psychological well-being. Hierarchical regression showed that permissive parenting style and perceived stress significantly predicted psychological well-being among school-going adolescents. Moreover, gender differences in different dimensions of parenting styles showed that adolescent girls scored high on authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles, while adolescent boys scored high on permissive parenting style. In addition, adolescent girls scored high on perceived stress, loneliness and different dimensions of psychological well-being than adolescent boys. Furthermore, using thematic analysis five main themes were identified: personal problems faced by adolescents, physical and mental health, loneliness, socialization, and fear. Moreover, the students experienced decreased communications with peers, and home confinements during the pandemic, thereby undergoing feelings of loneliness. Although positive parenting ensures developmental outcomes in children and adolescents, it might be difficult to maintain healthier psychological well-being during the COVID-19 crisis. As such, along with a better quality of the home environment, parents could acknowledge their children's emotions and provide age-appropriate information as well as offer access to psychosocial support.

Key Words: COVID-19 pandemic, parenting styles, perceived stress, loneliness, school-adolescents, psychological well-being

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The corona virus (COVID-19) pandemic has unleashed a tsunami of challenges for humanity over the last two years. COVID-19 has had a significant impact on people's lives all across the world, especially children and adolescents. The SARS-CoV-2 virus causes corona virus disease (COVID-19), which is an infectious disease. Due to the emergence of the new corona virus many countries, including India, are experiencing an unprecedented health emergency. In December 2019, the virus was discovered in a fish market in Wuhan, China (Chen et al., 2020). In March 2020, the World Health Organization (2020) declared the virus as pandemic after it spread to practically all countries and territories. The pandemic prompted governments around the world to go into lockdown, resulting in people being forced to stay in their homes to prevent the spread of COVID-19 and a rise in the number of cases. The virus has affected the lives of billion people across the globe in many ways such as psychologically, physiologically and socially. This pandemic wreaked havoc on the health care system, the economy, education, and other areas. Work cultures were affected by the epidemic, which resulted in a transition from offline to online mode, while many others lost their jobs as a result of the pandemic's abrupt impact. The unexpected epidemic had an impact on schooling since students were confined to their homes and, in particular, children were prohibited from leaving their homes.

In India, there were 56,342 positive cases recorded in 2020. With a population of more than 1.34 billion people, India has battled to limit the spread of the corona virus, which causes severe acute respiratory syndrome, among its citizens. With 26.7

million recorded cases of COVID-19 infections as of May 28, 2020, India overtook the United States as the country with the highest number of confirmed cases (after the United States) and the third-highest number of COVID-19 deaths (after the United States and Brazil) with 307,231 deaths. On June 10, though, India's recovery began to outpace active falls for the first time. In September, infection rates began to drop, as did the number of new and active cases. The number of cases peaked in mid-September, with over 90,000 instances recorded per day, and then fell to less than 15,000 in January 2021 (Kumar et al., 2020).

On the 10th of February 2021, the second wave resurfaced, with India reporting 11,000 corona virus infections; for the next 50 days, the average number of COVID-19 cases was about 22,000. However, over the previous ten days, 89,800 cases were reported on a daily average. The majority of Indian cities were reporting a chronic scarcity of hospital beds, which was visible on social media platforms as a frantic call for assistance. Several state governments have pledged new facilities, but experts believe it will be difficult to keep up with the soaring number of diseases. The COVID-19 pandemic is causing considerable mental worry, dread, and psychological discomfort around the world because to its high transmission rate and lethal potential all over the world, including India (WHO, 2020).

Beyond the physical health consequences of the virus, the COVID-19 pandemic is expected to have a substantial impact on mental health, particularly for adolescents and young adults' high-risk category. There are more than 2.2 billion children around the globe, accounting for roughly 28% of the global population. According to the report of UNICEF, (2016) 16 per cent of the global population comprise of youngsters between the age of 10 to 19. Shen et al. (2020) indicated in their study that as

compared to adults, the pandemic might continue to have amplified long term negative consequences on children and adolescents. The nature and extent of the impact on this age group depends on various vulnerability factors such as the developmental age, current educational status, having special needs, pre-existing mental health conditions, being economically underprivileged and child/ parent being quarantined due to infection or fear of infection. Generally, the pre-lockdown education of children and adolescents chiefly involved face-to-face interaction with their mentors and peer groups. Lee (2020) found that 91% of the world's student population was adversely affected by the closure of schools and colleges. Home confinement due to the pandemic in children and adolescents is linked with uncertainty and anxiety which is ascribable to the disruption in their learning, physical activities, and opportunities for socialization (Jiao et al., 2020). The absence of a structured setting of the school for a long duration results in disruption in routine, boredom, and a lack of innovative ideas for engaging in various academic and extracurricular activities. Children have expressed a low level of affect for lack of accessibility to outdoor activities, poor in-person interaction, and school activities (Lee, 2020; Liu et al., 2020; Zhai & Du, 2020). As an outcome of these circumstances, these children have become adhesive, attention-seeking, and more dependent on their parents due to the long-term changes in their schedules. It is expected that children would avoid returning to school once the lockdown is lifted and that they will have trouble building rapport with their mentors once the schools reopen, thus jeopardizing the children's well-being. As a result, the imposed restrictions may have a long-term negative impact on their general psychological well-being (Lee, 2020).

Parents offer children a wholesome structure from which they can initiate develop and cultivate their own value system. This framework is established by

socialization, observation, and interactions that children have with their parents. Parenting is a family dynamic that often has a direct impact on and within a family. Hence, parenting is an essential area where research should be conducted. There are studies on parenting that illustrated and examined its impact on children in different ways (Baumrind, 1996; Muller & Kerbow, 2003). Appropriate parenting becomes vivacious during adolescence as this stage is a crucial stage for identity formation. The period of adolescence is a critical stage of human development which is particularly refers as “a phase of storm and stress”. Adolescence is categorized into three stages i.e. early adolescence (10-14 years), middle adolescence (15-16 years), and late adolescence (17-19 years). It is a transitional period where an individual develops both physically and psychologically from a child to an adult (Israel, 2021). Piaget defined adolescence as the time of life when egocentric thoughts decrease and more abstract thinking starts. This permits the individual to think and reason with a broader perspective. The changing mind-body relationships of the adolescent are often the cause of stress, which they perceive as something to be feared (Campbell & Ntobedzi, 2007).

Adolescents are more susceptible to stress due to manifold modifications and other internal/external influences. Amid the three phases, middle and late adolescence forms the beginning of an individual’s career and comprises numerous commitments such as education, domestic, peer and personal and romantic relationships, economic issues, and occupation which tremendously pushes throughout the process and makes a person vulnerable to develop stress. These factors become indispensable in the life of youngsters, so appropriate identification, stress management, and coping strategies should be arranged among middle and late adolescents in order to prevent them from developing early occurrence and problems of stress including psycho-somatic

disorders and associated health issues to maintain well-being (WHO,2017; UNICEF, 2006). Coping strategies during adolescence involve certain aspects such as problem-solving skills, interpersonal skills, and social skills that enable a supportive social environment to improve their well-being.

Previous research has revealed that parenting styles are one of the most imperative factors among other family factors that influence parent-adolescent relationships (Shek, 2002). Therefore, parenting becomes even more substantial at the stage of adolescence as it is the marching towards adulthood, especially in these tough times during pandemic parental care is of utmost priority for the growth of the child and their overall well-being.

Theoretical Background

1.1 Parenting Style

Parenting style refers to an amalgamation of parental behaviours which are constantly used across diverse settings and are considered by the quality of warmth, responsiveness, control, and punishment. Although many definition of parenting styles have been outlined, most of the studies are devoted to the amount and quality of responsiveness/warmth, control/demandingness, and discipline in the parent (Power, 2013). According to Brooks (1991), parenting refers to “a state where parents provide the child with nourishment, protection and guidance”.

Nancy and Laurance (1993) described the parenting styles as “a constellation of attitudes toward the child that are communicated to the child and that, taken together, create an emotional climate in which the parents’ behaviours are expressed”. The categorization by Baumrind (1971) has been globally accepted by most researchers which are mainly based on the relations between parents and children along two

dimensions: parental control/demandingness and parental warmth/ responsiveness.

Baumrind (1971) primarily classified three types of parenting styles, namely, authoritative, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles.

1.1.1 Authoritative Parenting Style

In this parenting style, the parents provide warmth, love, and acceptance for their children in a way that teaches them to become more autonomous. Parents who display this kind of style pay attention to their kids and provide love and warmth along with limits and fair discipline. This approach to parenting avoids using punishment and threats and instead adopts measures such as positive reinforcement. Another important characteristic that requires to be emphasised is a verbal give-and-take between parents and children. In this parenting style, open communication and reciprocal dialogue can be found (Dwairy & Menshar, 2006). Authoritative parents observe and control their children's attitudes and simultaneously give support and warmth (Baumrind, 1971). Even though they provide autonomy to their child the same time pay attention to their compliance and set standard rules. They acknowledge their children's perspectives, grant them liberty in making choices and respect their opinions on family matters (Berg, 2011; Zupancic et al., 2004). This kind of family environment offers young children with circumstances to trust in themselves within certain boundaries which help them cultivate healthy autonomy. Children of parents with authoritative parents develop strong characters that have self-confidence, good social skills, good emotional control and regulations, entrepreneurship, creativity, and are capable to express their thoughts and produce alternate solutions to problems (Kopko, 2007).

1.1.2 Authoritarian Parenting Style

The authoritarian parenting style is a kind of parenting style where parents exert high demand from their children but with low responsiveness (Huver et al., 2010). Authoritarian parents tend to exercise high intensity of demands on their children instead of nurturance and open communications. They generally punish their children when they don't follow the strict rules and regulations established by their parents. Authoritarian parents typically discourage decision making and deny autonomy (Bornstein & Zlotnik, 2008). Parents limit their child's self-expression and freedom, and even use dominant techniques such as physical force, withdrawal of love, order, and menace) in order to gain their desired outcome from their children (Zupancic et al., 2004). They are obsessed with the success of their children and love is conditional on accomplishment. Authoritarian parents are less nurturing than the other two mentioned parenting styles (Berg, 2011). They expect their children to obey the rules without any excuses. So, children of authoritarian parents turn out to be dependent and rebellious. During adolescence, they exhibit aggressive behaviour whereas submissive/ obedient adolescents depend on their parents (Baumrind, 1991).

1.1.3 Permissive Parenting Style

In this style of parenting, parents are forgiving and only interfere when a serious issue comes up. They are quite lenient and can grant permission if a child pleads for something. The parents of the permissive style generally assume the role of a friend rather than the parent. Even though they often encourage their children to share their problems with them, they generally don't go to a great extent to stop them from making regretful choices or behaviours. One of the noteworthy features of a permissive parent is that they have fewer demands from their children and offer great

autonomy. According to Maccoby and Martin (1983), the permissive parenting style was furthermore distinguished into permissive-indulgent and permissive indifferent parenting styles. Although permissive-indulgent parents (often referred to as permissive parents) are those parents who are greatly involved in children's lives and are greatly responsive towards them, the other hand, permissive indifferent parents (referred to as uninvolved or neglectful parents) are those parents who are detached and display low levels of both responsiveness and demandingness towards their children. Permissive parents grant autonomy and encourage decision-making by their children. They highly accept and support their children's needs, impulses, behaviours, etc., and thus, avoid using punishments and confrontation (Dwairy & Menshar, 2006). Permissive parents permit their children to explore freedom and do not inflict rules and regulations to confine their practices unless physical harm is anticipated (Rossman & Rea, 2005). On the other hand, Permissive-indulgent parents are highly warm, cuddly and receptive, and show less degree of parental control with little direction and orders to their children (Edwards, 1999). Even though they demonstrate a high level of parental support and emotional nurturance, this type of parenting may be problematic during adolescent periods in controlling them and may later result in their developing egocentric behaviours in them (Gullota et al., 2007; Baumrind, 1991). The children of such a parenting style turn out to be spoilt and expect that they will be given importance over the other people in the society. When they notice that they are not given priority, the person feels restless and uncomfortable and finds it difficult to deal with social relationships outside the family (Akca, 2012).

Further research by Maccoby and Martin (1893) also suggested the addition of a fourth parenting style –the uninvolved/ neglectful parenting style which is generally referred to as the indifferent parenting style (Chan & Koo, 2010). Uninvolved/

neglectful parenting styles in different parents are neither responsive nor controlling to their children (Pellerin, 2005). They are not involved in parenting roles and are not interested in guiding for development of their children. Besides that, children coming from indifferent parenting styles have fewer or no rules and regulations to obey. This parenting may create a lack of self-control in children. Moreover, children's self-respect and proficiency levels may be affected negatively (Baumrind et al., 2010). Perceived parenting styles are defined as an opinion of adolescents or children about styles of parental behaviors during their childhood. There are two types of perceived parenting styles: care and overprotection (Fonte, 2015). Student lives are said to be the best period for any person as the foundations for emotional intelligence, self-esteem, happiness, and success in life are laid in childhood and adolescence. It is imperative that parents give enough support and guidance for them to deal with the stressors at different stages, which will give them a secure future.

1.1.4 Parenting during the COVID-19 Pandemic

Being a parent is itself a strenuous responsibility and with the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic has added more to the list of concerns for parents. Prime et al. (2020) proposed using the family stress model (Conger & Elder, 1994) to investigate the COVID-19 pandemic's impact. The paradigm, which was initially established during the Great Farm Crisis (1980), states that when caregivers are exposed to high levels of stress; their mental and emotional resources are depleted, making the role of constructive family leadership extremely difficult. This results in an overreliance on ineffective parenting strategies such as being too harsh or coercion, or, in the current scenario of the pandemic, a lack of effective parenting techniques with heightened levels of parenting stress e.g. (more parental anguish, more difficulty

to understand parent-child communication). According to Prime et al. (2020), severe economic pressures are common in the present situation, which is combined with stressors related to COVID-19 bio-medical and social circumstances such as damage to loved ones, poor social support, and changes in work roles. In addition, due to the shutdown of day-care centres, parents are now responsible for all their children's requirements. This added a high degree of stress, which could be harmful to both the child-parent relationship (Chemtob et al., 2010).

For children and adolescents, the COVID-19 pandemic has brought about the closure of schools, constricted communications with friends, family members, and relatives, confined to indoor relaxation activities, and problems accessing mental health services. Similarly, parents have also been negatively affected by mental health problems, loss of employment, deaths of near and dear ones, and amplified duty of working from home and simultaneously fulfilling their children's needs at home.

1.2 Perceived Stress

“Perceived stress is the feelings or thoughts that an individual has about how much stress they are under at a given point in time or over a given time period” (Phillips, 2013).

Perceived stress includes feelings about the uncontrollability and unpredictability of one's life, how often one has to deal with displeasure and hassles, how many modifications are taking place in one's life, and the self-confidence of an individual ability to deal with difficulties, it does not guarantee the frequencies of stressful events that have occurred to a person, but rather how a person feels about the general stress in their life and how they are able to cope with such stress. A person may experience a similar negative life event but assess the impact or severity of it

differently based on factors such as personality, coping resources, and support. In this way, perceived stress reflects the interaction between a person and their environment, which they perceive as threatening or overtaxing their resources in ways that affect their life well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Perceived stress is commonly measured as the frequency of such a feeling via a questionnaire such as the Perceived Stress Scale (Cohen et al., 1983).

Stress is a psychological and perceived feeling which is identified as a potential threat to homeostasis due to the influence of inner or outer stimuli. The term stress has been derived from the Latin word “stringere” which means hunger, torture and pain in Latin (Selye, 1995). In the early 1900s, Walter .B. Cannon described the human body's bodily response to stress through the "fight-or-flight" response mechanism, which he coined the "neuroendocrine" mechanism (Stratakis et al., 1995).

Stress is an indispensable and unavoidable part of life. It is divided into eustress and distress. Eustress or positive stress is the essential stress that an individual needs/faces in life in order to carry out his positive, life-enhancing daily activities. The adherent or negative tension is the unpleasant form of the voltage that brings unpleasant emotional, physical and behavioural changes into a person (Lindberg, 2019).

1.2.1 Theoretical Framework of Perceived Stress

The feelings or thoughts a person has about how much stress they are experiencing at any given time or over a period of time is called perceived stress (Whittaker et al., 2013).

Transactional Model of Stress and Coping

According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), “Psychological stress is a specific relationship between an individual and his environment that is evaluated by the person as exceeding his or her resources and jeopardizing his or her well-being.” This relationship has two important phases, which are cognitive appraisals and coping. “The process of classifying an encounter, and its different facets, with relation to their significance of well-being” is defined as a cognitive appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In fact, a situation should be previously evaluated as a potential stressor before coping. So, this kind of appraisal undergoes two different cognitive mechanisms, which are primary and secondary appraisals. Primary appraisal evaluates whether there is any significant trouble present. If the answer is yes, the current situation is comprehended as a threat, a challenge, or a loss. Loss refers to the damages or harms that have already occurred; while threat and challenge appraisals are denotes the past events or the foreseen ones. Although threat refers to impending danger to their well-being and challenge proposes that individuals should focus on the success and the personal growth that go together with the situation. But the threat and challenges are not always communally exclusive. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) stated that threat and challenge appraisals are not two ends of a single continuum. Although they are negatively correlated (Skinner & Brewer, 2002; Berjot & Girault-Lidvan, 2011), threat and challenge appraisals can also occur simultaneously.

The secondary appraisal is the evaluation done by a person to know about the coping resources to deal with the current situation. This signifies the level of confidence in a person's ability to cope with the current circumstances; resources consist of different types such as social, material, psychological and physiological.

According to Lazarus and Folkman (1980-84), coping refers to the “cognitive and behavioural capacity to control, decrease or endure the internal and environmental demands produced by stressful circumstances.” They have proposed two kinds of coping styles. Firstly, a stress management technique attempts to reduce undesirable emotional responses that happen due to exposure to stressors (Emotion-focused coping), and the other stress management which focuses on the causes of stress in practical ways which confront the problem or stressor that is causing the problem, subsequently directly decreasing the stress (Problem-focused coping). However, both kinds of coping are utilized while encountering stressful situations but mostly depend on the way an individual evaluates the stressor. Still, most people are inclined to practice problem-focused techniques when the situation is comprehended as unpredictable and more emotion-focused approaches when the situations are evaluated as less changeable (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). In addition, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) have categorized two forms of antecedents that affect how individuals cope with a situation such as individual characteristics and features of the situation.

1.2.2 Perceived Stress among Adolescents during the COVID-19 Pandemic

Psychological stress is a displeasing feeling which is perceived when a person’s situation’s requirement exceeds his/her capacity. The situation which provokes stress is known as stressors, they are surrounded by a wide range of events. Many children especially, adolescents undergo the experience stress when they comprehend a situation as dangerous, complex, or difficult and they do not know how to cope with the situation. An excessive amount of mental stress leads to negative health outcomes such as depression, anxiety, and suicidal ideations. Similarly, the adolescents experience heightened levels of stress and are vulnerable to experiencing

adverse emotions and higher levels of mental distress during the COVID-19 pandemic (Qi et al., 2020; Magson et al., 2021; Batra et al., 2021).

The adolescent is confronted with multiple demands such as family, school, peer groups, and negative coping' responses (e.g., truancy, drug misuse, isolation) that can exacerbate the stressful transition to adulthood. Because the family, educational institution, and peer groups have such a strong socialization influence on adolescents, their expectations or demands can often become cross-pressures (Brittain, 1963). Research has shown that higher levels of stress predict future academic failure which has severe consequences on several phases (Needham et al., 2004). If a student is not able to handle academic stress effectively, it may result in severe psychological-emotional health issues (Arthur, 1998; Mac George et al., 2005; Tennat, 2002). These comprise educational failure, social misconduct, interpersonal issues, depression, and mental distress (Steinhardt & Dolbier, 2008). Individuals' socio-cultural influences help to identify which stresses they are likely to face, whether they will experience events as stressful or not, and how they believe stressors should be addressed (Berry, 2006). Poverty is one of the other factors that cause substantial stress for an adolescent and their families (Fairbrother et al., 2005).

1.3 Loneliness

“Loneliness, longing for closeness, a desire for a joining up, for integration, for a sense of the feeling whole. Loneliness ... signals a willingness to bring the experience to a close ...” - Olivia Laing (2016)

Loneliness is a depressing feeling that arises when a person's social contacts are thought to be insufficient in quantity and, more importantly, in quality. Loneliness

is a highly subjective feeling; one might be alone without feeling lonely, and one can feel lonely even while surrounded by others (Hawkley & Louise, 2018).

There are two kinds of loneliness; one sort of loneliness is social loneliness, while the other is emotional loneliness. According to Qualter et al. (2009), social loneliness refers to persons who feel excluded from society. Emotional loneliness refers to persons who do not have a peer group and not being able to form a strong emotional bond with others. They also explained that youngsters who are socially isolated have lower levels of anxiety and depression than youngsters who are emotionally lonely.

Lack of belongingness arises the feeling of loneliness. It is a universal and primitive need of humans, which represents a deeply rooted desire for human connections with other people (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Previous research has shown that loneliness during adolescence is associated with several psychological issues, which comprise poor self-esteem, low mood, and anxiety (Ernst & Cacippo, 1999; Heinrich & Gullone, 2006). Loneliness has also been linked to physical health issues such as cardiovascular disease and sleep problems, according to study studies by (Caspi et al., 2005).

Loneliness is sometimes considered a mental condition as it is a universal feeling ingrained with a feeling of unpleasantness and distressing experience. It is observed in a person's personality and experience attained in society (Rokach, 2012). People often regard it as a minor inconvenience that must be endured but cannot be resolved. It is a serious problem that afflicts people of all ages. As adolescence is a crucial period that is characterized by different changes in social assumptions, responsibilities, relationships, and recognition may elevate the possibility to

experience loneliness (Parkhurt & Asher, 1992). When compared to youngsters, these experiences become incredibly important throughout adolescents, when numerous changes in social connections and cognitive ability occur (Qualter et al., 2015). During adolescence, the feeling of loneliness is common when adolescents spend more time with themselves (Qualter et al., 2015). The evolutionary theory of loneliness proposed by Cacippo et al. (2015) portrayed that a person who is lonely feels insecure and more likely to be escorted by adverse feelings, including stress, anxiety, and continuous burden of pain (Hawkley & Cacioppo, 2010).

1.3.1 Loneliness among Adolescents during the COVID-19 Pandemic

According to research loneliness is mostly predominant during adolescence with more than 70% reported experiencing recurrent loneliness at the age of 18, which seems to decline to 60% by the age of 35-40, and 39% for older adults (Heinrich & Gullone, 2006; Parlee, 1979; Savikko et al., 2005). Existing research using a clinical and non-clinical sample of the U.S demonstrated that loneliness is directly related to poor mental and physical health during adolescence and early adulthood. For example, Koenig and Abrams (1999) in their study suggested that adolescents who are lonely reported higher rates of depression and anxiety, social withdrawal (Crick & Ladd, 1993), suicidal ideation (Heinrich & Gullone, 2006), and overall lower general health (Mahon et al., 1993).

During COVID-19, adolescents are adversely affected by a series of lockdowns due to the disruptions caused by the closure of schools, including poor access to mental health support and peer communications. As adolescence period is the crucial phase of human development marked by vital social development, and peer interactions are predominant components of how they access social support. Evidence

from different countries has indicated the link between increased loneliness with distress during the pandemic. Such as, one-third of parents of children between the age of (3-18) in Spain and Italy have reported that their children had undergone the feeling of loneliness after the implementation of quarantine measures (Orgiles et al., 2020). Other studies also reported that children were nervous, anxious, and angry and experienced low moods. Because many of the key tasks of adolescent development are accomplished through interactions with others, COVID-19 measures may have a greater negative impact among adolescents as a group than on adults or children (Papini et al., 1990; La Greca & Prinstein, 1999; Blake & Mills, 2014).

Contributing factors that lead to the occurrence of loneliness among adolescents comprise situational factors such as social distancing, death of significant ones, divorce, and other factors including psychological problems such as depression. Depression is one of the leading causes of social withdrawal which is caused due to isolation. Research indicates that loneliness can be one of the problems which give rise to the symptoms of depression (Erzen & Cikrikci, 2018).

Moreover, relationships among the peer groups become more important during adolescence, family relations continue to be core to adolescent social development (Flynn et al., 2017). Significant longitudinal studies showed that childhood experience of instability in the family and parent's comportment such as aggression is related to the psychological problem in adolescence (Bakker et al., 2012; Schwartz et al., 2014). Hence, a worthy parent-child relationship along as well as good peer communication contributes considerably to psychological well-being among adolescence. Prime et al. (2020) suggested that pandemic-associated factors such as stress related to confinement may adversely affect parent-child relationships. Therefore, measures

adopted during COVID-19 such as home quarantine, and social distancing which are envisioned to lower the risk of social contact may elevate the risk of loneliness and mental health issues as well as negatively impact adolescent-parent communication. So, it is essential to understand the relationship between loneliness, parental relationship, and mental health in adolescents to gain insight into the mental health difficulties in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic.

1.4 Psychological Well-being

According to the American Psychological Association (2022), well-being refers to, “A state of happiness and contentment, with low levels of distress, overall good physical and mental health and outlook, or good quality of life”.

Psychological well-being (PWB) is defined as one's level of psychological happiness/health, which includes feelings of achievement and satisfaction in life. Psychological well-being refers to a person's whole outlook on life, which includes not just physical health but also self-esteem, self-efficacy, interpersonal relationships, and life happiness. Psychological well-being has two significant aspects. The first aspects denote the extent to which a person experiences positive emotions and happiness. This facet of psychological well-being is sometimes, referred to as subjective well-being (Diener, 2000).

1.4.1 Types of Psychological Well-being

- ***Hedonic***: “Hedonic” well-being refers to the personal feelings of happiness of a person. It comprises two constituents which are cognitive (life satisfaction) and an affective component (high positive emotion and low negative emotion). It suggests

that a person undergoes the experience of happiness when positive emotion and satisfaction with life are both high (Carruthers & Hood, 2004).

- ***Eudaimonic***: The term “Eudaimonic” well-being defines the purposeful aspect of psychological well-being. According to the psychologist, Carol Ryff ‘eudaimonic’ has been broken down into six categories of well-being (Carruthers & Hood, 2004).

1.4.2 Carol Ryff’s Model of Psychological Well-being

The six-factor model of psychological well-being was proposed by eminent Psychologist Carol Ryff (1989). The author was inspired by two factors: first, well-being should not be limited to medical or biological definitions; rather, it is a philosophical inquiry about what it means to live a meaningful life. Secondly, contemporary psychological theories of happiness lacked empirical rigour—they had not been tested and could not be tested.

Ryff (1989) researched all of the various theories of well-being from Aristotle to John Stuart Mill, Abraham Maslow to Carl Jung, in order to develop the theory that connects philosophical problems with scientific empiricism. She noticed a pattern of recurrence and convergence in all of them. Her new concept of well-being was built on the intersections of these notions. Carol Ryff’s (1989) psychological well-being model differs from previous models in that it considers. Well-being is a multi-dimensional concept that encompasses more than just happy feelings or happiness. A person's life when it is balanced and whole, engaging all of the distinct parts, is deemed to be a good one, a sense of well-being rather than being narrowly focused.

The six dimensions of psychological well-being are:

1) Self-acceptance

Self-acceptance refers to a person's acceptance of overall attributes, including positive or negative. An individual who scores high on self-acceptance possesses a positive attitude towards himself/herself, acknowledges and accepts different aspects of their personality, both positive and bad qualities; and feels positive about their past life.

While low scorer depicts dissatisfaction with them and are unhappy with what has occurred over their past life and are disturbed by certain personal qualities and wish to be different from what they are.

2) Environmental Mastery

Environmental mastery is the ability to control surrounding settings or change the neighbouring context using physical or intellectual actions. A person with a strong sense of environmental mastery possesses the ability to manage the surroundings and control complex groups of external activities. They also make efficacious use of environmental opportunities and are able to select or create context beneficial to their personal needs.

A person with a poor sense of environmental mastery finds difficulty in managing daily affairs and is not able to alter or improve surroundings circumstances.

3) Purpose of Life

It refers to a consistent and broad desire to accomplish something that is both personally meaningful and leads to productive engagement with something outside of

one's own self. A high scorer in the dimension purpose of life, finds meaning in present and his past life, believes in the fact that life has a purpose and set goals and objectives for living.

A person with a weak sense of purpose in life, on the other hand, lacks a feeling of meaning in life, has few goals or objectives in life, and has a poor sense of direction, no purpose in life, and any vision or beliefs that life is meaningful.

4) Positive Relations with Others

It refers to the good relationships people establish with other people. An individual who has a strong positive relationship with others possess a sense of warmth and trust with them. They are concerned about the welfare of others, have empathy and affection as well as aware of the give and take in human relationships.

Whereas, a person with weak positive relations with others has few close and trusting relations, finds it difficult to be warm and open and is often isolated and annoyed in interpersonal relationships.

5) Personal Growth

Personal growth refers to an individual's total growth and development in terms of self-awareness and living efficacy. A person with a strong sense of personal growth enjoys the continuous development of self, sees themselves growing and exploring new horizons, possesses the ability to actualize their potential, and monitors their improvement and behaviour over the course of time.

While a person with a weak sense of personal growth remains to stagnate lacks improvements or expansion, is quite uninterested in their life and feels boredom.

6) Autonomy

Autonomy refers to self-reliance and regulation of one's life. People with high autonomy are self-determined and independent and withstand social pressures, act and think in a certain way, and evaluate themselves by their own personal standards.

While a person with low autonomy is concerned about the expectations and standards set by others. They also make crucial decisions based on the opinions of others, and they think and behave in accordance with societal influences (Ryff, 1989).

1.4.3 Psychological Well-being among Adolescents during COVID-19 Pandemic

Due to the fast-changing environment of the 21st century, adolescents are unquestionably the most affected segment of the population who are vulnerable to stressful situations. Adolescents are susceptible to ill habits such as smoking, drug abuse, psychosomatic symptoms, alcohol addiction and others (Ryff, 1995; Heaven, 2001). World Health Organization (2020) had also shared their concern over the well-being of adolescents and proposed interventions in adolescent health matters. In such a scenario, greater consideration should be given to adolescent's life in the part of well-being. Children traditionally begin to assume adult roles and responsibilities around the ages of 12-13 years old. The adolescent stage is characterized by a perpetual conflict between gaining competencies, accomplishing new milestones, and struggling for independence, all while trying to establish own place among new people and dealing with the new environment. They are more likely to undergo failure, sadness, worry, trauma, setbacks and anxiety with much more intensity than before. Even though there is individual difference in these feelings, they appear to be an integral component of every adolescent's existence. So, this is where psychological well-being takes an important role.

Studies have highlighted that quality of relationships among the family members, particularly with parents is the main influential factor in psychological well-being in adolescents (Shek, 1997; Sastre & Ferriere, 2000; Van Wel et al., 2000). Other significant factors which determine the level of psychological well-being among adolescents are stress, physical health, peer interaction and popularity as well as intimacy among peers.

Singh et al. (2020) mentioned that inattention, clinginess, and distraction were the most common psychosocial and behavioural disorders among children and adolescents throughout the COVID-19 pandemic. Those with a history of mental illness are at much higher risk circumstances of health conditions. Due to the precautions adopted by the government such as the closure of schools, lack of extra-curricular activities, changes in eating and sleeping routines, lack of peer interactions, monotony and varied neuro-psychiatric symptoms. This has erupted into an unprecedented worldwide mental health crisis, posing a unique challenge to psychological resilience around the globe. This could lead to a conflict in the near future which can be comprehended as a 'second epidemic' of mental health issues.

1.5 Operational Definition

Parenting styles: It refers to a psychological construct demonstrating standard strategies that parents use in their child-rearing during the COVID-19 pandemic.

There are three parenting styles: Permissive parenting style, Authoritarian parenting style, and Authoritative parenting style.

Perceived Stress: It is a physical or psychological tension resulting from the interaction between an individual and their environment which they appraise as threatening or overwhelming during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Loneliness: It is the feeling when a person is isolated from the external world and the feeling of loneliness and not being directly interacted with others during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Psychological well-being: It is a state in which an individual realizes his/her potential, possesses healthy interpersonal relationships and has complies with his/her desires, and is able to cope with the stresses of everyday life efficiently during the COVID-19 pandemic.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The main aim of the work literature review is to provide knowledge of prior studies in the concerned area, in order to provide scope out the main data collection requirements for the research to be directed, which in turn forms the upcoming research design procedure (Denscombe, 1998, p. 217). This provides the researcher with some insight into the work which has been carried out earlier and subsequently familiarizes them with the field's unknown territory.

Even before the study proposal is formalized, a major portion of the literature review must be completed. This is a basic research approach for ensuring that no one else has done similar research work in a specific field of study. In some circumstances, if the study proposal by one has been compromised previously, it results in a choice of adding another point of view to one's work or changing a sentence a fraction of the study methodologies for obtaining a different point of view similar to the previous effort and hence the chosen work would be more valuable.

Thus, the review of literature is additive imperative to highlight distinctions in opinion, conflicting discoveries or confirm, and the clarifications given for their decision and contracts by various writers.

The research studies are classified into the following headings:

- a. Parenting Style and Psychological Well-being among Adolescents
- b. Perceived Stress and Psychological Well-being among Adolescents

- c. Loneliness and Psychological Well-being among Adolescents
- d. Gender differences in Parenting Styles, Perceived Stress, Loneliness, and Psychological Well-being among Adolescents

2.1 Parenting Style and Psychological Well-being among Adolescents

Lavasani et al. (2011) investigated the relationship between parenting styles and social support on psychological well-being. A total of 398 female participants comprised the study from Public High School in Tehran. Baumrind's (1991) Parenting Style, Vaux's (1988) Social Support, and Ryff's (1998) Psychological Well-being were used for gathering data. The results of the study showed that authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were negatively related to psychological well-being. Moreover, an authoritative parenting style doesn't predict psychological well-being.

Ozdemir (2012) conducted a study to analyze the relationships between parental control, parental warmth, and parental education, the income of parents, gender, and age of the adolescents with respect to their subjective well-being. 643 adolescents within the age group of (14-19 years) were comprised in the study, where 58% were females and 42% were males. The results of the study indicated that parental income was related to great life satisfaction. While the age of the adolescents' was positively linked to negative affect. In addition, parental warmth was one of the predictors of life satisfaction and positive affect, but not parental control. Both paternal and maternal warmth and paternal control predicted negative affect.

Khodabakhsh and Kiani (2014) explored the relationship between psychological well-being and parenting styles on the mental health of the students. A total of 278 participants (124=boys and 154=girls) from Boukan's High Schools were

selected for the study. Psychological Well-being Inventory and Mental Health Parenting Style Questionnaire were used for gathering data. For analysis of data, Pearson correlation coefficient and regression analysis were used. Findings demonstrated that psychological well-being and authoritative parenting styles were significantly associated with the mental of the students. In addition, mental health was positively related to the permissive parenting style. Furthermore, regression analysis showed that both psychological well-being and parenting styles were predictors of mental health.

Zare et al. (2014) explored the relationship between parenting styles and the mental health of high school students. 375 students belonging to a city high school and their parents participated in the study. Parenting Style Questionnaire and General Health Questionnaire were distributed among both the students and their parents to collect data. The findings of the study demonstrated a positive significant relationship between the three subscales of parenting style and general health among the students and their parents.

Yerdaw and Rao (2018) systematic review explored the relationship between psychological well-being, parenting styles, and mental health during adolescence using content analysis. Analysis was done among four countries (the USA, Kuwait, India, and Ethiopia). The combined research documentation showed that there was a positive relationship between parenting styles, psychological well-being, and mental health. Moreover, the review indicated that mental health was strongly related to psychological well-being and authoritative parenting styles. Furthermore, it was seen that an authoritative/decent parenting style was positively related to mental health.

Kassa and Rao (2019) explored the relationship between parenting styles and psychological well-being with the mediating effect of academic achievement. 502 adolescents were randomly selected from 10th and 12th grade. Ryff's Psychological Well-being Scale and Perceived Parenting Style Scale were given to the participants. Findings of the study showed that reasonable and decent parenting styles positively predicted psychological well-being, while pampering and autocratic parenting styles negatively predicted psychological well-being among adolescents in six dimensions particularly (autonomy, environmental mastery, personal sense of growth, purpose in life, and self-acceptance).

Olema and Mollyrin (2019) conducted a study to explore the relationship between parenting styles, psychological well-being, and academic performance among school-going adolescents. 254 students were randomly selected among the target population of 767 students. The results of the study indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between parenting styles and psychological well-being. In addition, a positive significant relationship was found between parenting styles and academic achievement.

Francis et al. (2020) conducted a study to assess the relationship between psychological well-being and perceived parenting style among 554 adolescents from 8th to 9th grade. The results revealed a moderately positive relationship between psychological well-being and authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. It was also found that a negative relationship existed between psychological well-being and neglectful parenting style. The authoritative parenting style was shown to be the warmest and most consistent of the four and hence will enhance adolescents' psychological development among the four parenting styles.

Sahni (2020) conducted a study to find out the relationship of parenting style with emotional intelligence and general well-being of adolescents and to investigate the influence of gender, parenting style, and their interaction on emotional intelligence and general well-being among adolescents. The findings showed that authoritative parenting style efficaciously predicted a high degree of emotional intelligence and general well-being in adolescents and the effect of independent variables namely gender and parenting style was significant on emotional intelligence and general well-being among adolescents.

Yadav et al. (2021) carried out a correlational study to find out the role of emotional intelligence and parenting style in predicting psychological well-being among Indian adolescents. 150 participants (75=boys, 75=girls) within the age range of 15–18 years were selected. Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, Psychological Well-being Scale, and Parental Authority Questionnaire were used for data collection. The findings of the study showed that a significant positive relationship existed between well-being and authoritative parenting style, while authoritarian and autonomy, positive relationship and self-acceptance.

2.2 Perceived Stress and Psychological Well-being among Adolescents

Arulrajah et al. (2000) conducted a study to find out the relationship between psychological well-being with perceived stress, coping styles, and social support. A total of 421 undergraduate students from Universiti Putra Malaysia were chosen through a random cluster stratified sampling method. The results of the study showed that there was a positive relationship between coping styles, social support, and psychological well-being, while perceived stress was inversely correlated with psychological well-being after controlling the other variables.

Moeini et al. (2008) conducted a study to find out the relationships between perceived stress, general self-efficacy, and mental health status among the male adolescents of Iran studying in 12th standard (N=148). Instruments used in the study were the Perceived Stress Scale (Cohen et al., 1983), General Self-Efficacy (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995), and Psychological Well-being Scale (Goldberg & Hillier, 1979). The findings of the study revealed that a higher level of stress was associated with a low level of self-efficacy and poor psychological well-being. In addition, a negative relationship was found between self-efficacy and general health among the participants.

Heizomi et al. (2018) conducted a cross-sectional study to investigate the role of life satisfaction, happiness, hopefulness, and self-efficacy, on perceived stress and psychological well-being. A total of 289 female high school students from the 9th standard were selected randomly. The results of the study indicated that around 64.7% of students reported mental health issues and 74.3% reported greater stress levels. Findings also revealed that there was a positive relationship between psychological well-being and life satisfaction, happiness, hopefulness, and self-efficacy, but an inverse relationship between perceived stresses.

Sridevi and Govind (2018) investigated the relationship between perceived stress and psychological well-being among college students. For the study, an equal number of boys of girls (N=100) college students were randomly selected from various departments of Annamalai University. The measures used were the Perceived Stress Scale (Cohen et al., 1983) and Ryff's Psychological Well-being Scale (1995). Findings showed that girls had a high level of perceived stress and psychological well-being than boys. No gender difference was found in psychological well-being with

respect to age. Furthermore, a significant relationship was found between perceived stress and psychological well-being.

Eden et al. (2020) examined the relationship between the stress, anxiety, and psychological well-being of university students which was linked between specific types of media use with psychological well-being concepts for examining the moderating roles of traits (hope, optimism, and resilience) as buffers against negative relationships between stress and anxiety and psychological well-being. The findings indicated that stress was linked to more hedonic and less eudemonic media use, as well as more avoidant and escapist media-based coping.

Jiang (2020) conducted a study to find out perceived stress and daily well-being during a covid-19 outbreak. The results revealed that there was a negative relationship between daily perceived stress and high arousal positive affect and the positive relationship between daily perceived stress and high arousal negative effect was weaker in older than younger adults.

Kumar et al. (2020) conducted a study to find out the relationship between perceived stress and several indicators of people's health and the moderating role of proactive coping. A total of 359 emerging adults within the age group of 18-23 (male=203, female=156) comprised the study. Perceived Stress Scale (Cohen et al., 1983), Proactive Coping Inventory (Greenglass et al., 1999), and Psychological Well-Being Scale (Ryff's, 1989) were used to gather data. The findings of the study indicated that there was a negative relationship between perceived stress and the different dimensions of psychological well-being. In addition, coping was found to be a moderating factor in perceived stress and psychological well-being.

Malik et al. (2020) conducted a study to find out the association between stress and psychological well-being among the students of Malaysia. A total of 222 participants were recruited for the study using the Student Stress Inventory and Psychological Well-Being to collect data. The results of the study revealed that there was a significantly negative moderate relationship between stress and psychological well-being among the students.

Khodami et al. (2021) conducted a study to find out perceived stress, emotion regulation, and quality of life during the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic in Iran. A total of 3002 participants, both male and female comprised the study all over the world through an online survey. The results showed that the level of perceived stress was significantly high among the people, quality of life declined dramatically over time, and emotion regulation has become more difficult.

2.3 Loneliness and Psychological Well-being among Adolescents

Doman and Roux (2011) examined the relationship between loneliness and psychological well-being among students through a cross-cultural study. The findings of the study showed that there was a significant relationship between psychological well-being and loneliness, depression and a sense of positive well-being was significantly affected by loneliness. This suggests that students with a high level of psychological well-being will experience a low level of loneliness and vice versa.

Munir et al. (2015) conducted a study to investigate the impact of loneliness and academic stress on the psychological well-being of college students. A total of 165 students (67= males and 98= females) were chosen through a simple cluster sampling method within the age group of 15-19 years. Loneliness Scale, Academic Stress Scale and Psychological well-being Scale were used to gather data. The results

of the study showed that there was a significant relationship between loneliness, academic stress, and psychological well-being. Loneliness, academic stress, and the income of the family have all been shown as predictors of psychological well-being. Furthermore, it was found that loneliness and academic stress were inversely correlated with psychological well-being.

Bhagchandani (2017) conducted a study to investigate the effect of loneliness on the psychological well-being of college-going students. The results showed a negative relationship between loneliness and psychological well-being stating that the higher the loneliness, the lower the psychological well-being. As well as there was no significant difference between the males and females on both the variables of psychological well-being and loneliness.

Ishaq et al. (2018) conducted a study to find out the relationship between loneliness and psychological well-being among university students residing in hostels. The total sample (N=330) within the age group of 18-30 was chosen through a convenient sampling method from university hostel students. Psychological Well-being Scale, Rosenberg self-esteem Scale and UCLA Loneliness Scale were used to collect data. The results showed that there was a significant relationship between loneliness, self-esteem and psychological well-being among the students. Simple linear regression showed that loneliness was one of the vital negative predictors of psychological well-being.

Cahyadi (2019) conducted a study to find out the relationship between loneliness and the psychological well-being of international students at the State University of Yogyakarta. UCLA Loneliness Scale and Psychological Well Being Scale were used to collect data among 20 participants. The findings of the study

showed that there was a weak inverse relationship between loneliness and psychological well-being. In addition, it was found that participants with a low level of loneliness had a moderate level of psychological well-being.

Labrague et al. (2021) conducted a study on students to determine their influence of coping behaviours, resilience, and social support on emotional and social loneliness during the COVID-19 pandemic. The findings of the study indicated that loneliness among students was high during the coronavirus pandemic. Protective factors against loneliness were resilience, coping behaviours, and social support.

Lyyra et al. (2021) conducted a study to examine the relationship between loneliness, self-esteem and mental well-being among adolescents in four Nordic countries. The study was carried out on the basis of the data from the Health Behaviour in School-aged Children (HBSC) study which was conducted in Denmark, Finland, Iceland, and Sweden in 2018. The results of the study showed that high mental well-being was more prevalent among the boys whereas girls' scores were high on loneliness. Furthermore, loneliness was proved to be one of the significant predictors of poor mental well-being and low self-esteem in all the countries.

Ozdogan (2021) conducted a study to assess subjective well-being and social-emotional loneliness among university students through purpose and meaning of life. A total of 477 participants (370=females, 170=males) within the age group of (18-33) years were recruited for the study. The results of the study showed that there was a significant relationship between dimensions of subjective well-being and emotional loneliness, meaning and purpose of life.

2.4 Literature on Gender Differences among Adolescents

2.4.1 Gender Differences in Parenting Styles

Hein and Lewko (1994) examined parenting styles among high performing science students along, with differences in gender with an authoritative parenting style. A total of 363 participants were chosen who had competed in Canada Wide Science Fair, 1992. The findings of the study showed that the authoritative parenting style was a major kind of parenting style that was used among the participants and few students reported permissive, authoritarian, or inconsistent parenting styles.

Kausar and Shafique (2008) conducted a study in order to find out the gender differences in perceived parenting styles and socio-emotional adjustment among adolescents. 60 participants (30=girls, 30=boys) from 9th class students were recruited through purposive sampling. Parental Authority Questionnaire (Buri, 1991) and Socio-emotional Adjustment Scale (Najam & Simeen, 1991) were used for data collection. The results of the study revealed that girls perceived their parents as authoritative which depicted better socio-emotional adjustment among them as compared to the boys. In addition, boys perceived their mothers as more authoritative in comparison to the girls, but in the authoritarian parenting style, there was no gender difference.

Safdar and Zahrah (2016) conducted a study investigating the gender differences in parenting styles on the intensity of parental and peer attachment. Urdu translated version of the Parental Authority Questionnaire (Babree, 1997) and Inventory of Parental and Peer attachment, Urdu version was used to collect the information from the participants. A total of 284 adolescents were selected for the study with equal boys and girls of age 13 to 16. The results revealed that parenting styles are a strong predictor of the intensity of parental and peer attachment.

Nonetheless, the authoritative parenting style had a significant and positive influence on parental and peer attachment. Gender differences indicated that girls show great intensity of parental attachment and boys show greater peer attachment.

Yasmin (2018) conducted a study to examine the gender differences between parenting styles on the academic performance of students. 350 students within the age group (17-20) were selected through a stratified sampling technique. Parental Authority Questionnaire and Academic Performance Questionnaire were used by the researcher to gather data. The findings of the study showed that boys were found to have a better academic performance than girls. In addition, the results depicted that mothers showed an authoritative parenting style toward their sons. And fathers showed a more permissive style toward their sons. No significant gender difference was found among the adolescents on authoritative parenting style.

2.4.2 Gender Differences in Perceived Stress

Feizi et al. (2012) conducted a study to find out the association between stressful lives events with perceived stress and socio-demographic factors. A cross-sectional large-scale community-based study with a total of 4583 participants was recruited from the general population of Iran. The measures used in the study were General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12), Food frequency questionnaire (FFQ), and Stressful Life Events Questionnaire. Findings indicated that four stressful life events, conflicts among the family, and societal issues correlated with perceived stress and higher levels of physical exercise were linked to a lower experience of stress. Moreover, it revealed that the level of perceived stress was more among the females than the males and high stress was related to low or middle levels of income.

Wiklund et al. (2012) conducted a cross-sectional study to find out subject health complaints among older adolescents associated with perceived stress, and anxiety in Northern Sweden. The sample consisted of both gender with a total of 1027 participants within the age range of (16-18) years. Subjective Health Complaints Scale, Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale, and Perceived Stress Scale were used to gather data. Health issues and perceived stress were reported by a substantial percentage of both girls and boys. A strong gender difference was seen in perceived stress and health complaints where girls reported 2-3 times more concerns with headache, sleeping problems, weariness, and anxiety with 63.6% while boys reported 38.5%.

Watode et al. (2015) conducted a study to assess the prevalence of stress among school-going adolescents in Delhi. A cross-sectional study design was adopted with 397 participants using a random sampling method, from the central and eastern districts of Delhi. The Perceived Stress Scale was used for the purpose of data collection. Findings showed that 348 (87.6%) reported experiencing stress. Even though no statistically significant relationship was found but 89.7% of female adolescents had a higher level of stress as compared to 86.4% of male adolescents.

Aslan et al. (2020) explored the level of perceived stress among Turkey students during the COVID-19 pandemic. A cross-sectional method was used on a sample of 359 students from 14 institutions in Turkey. The instruments used in the study were the Generalized Anxiety Disorder 7-item scale, Patient Health Questionnaire, Satisfaction with Life Scale, Perception of COVID Impact on Student Well-Being, Perceived Stress Scale, and Physical Activity Scale. The findings of the study revealed that participants reported a great level of perceived stress, with mild

generalized anxiety and a low level of satisfaction with life. In addition, physically inactive students and females scored high on perceived stress. Furthermore, findings also showed that students' mental health was poor during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Singh et al. (2020) conducted a study among students to examine perceived stress and internet addiction during the COVID-19 lockdown in India. An online survey was conducted, comprising a total of 297 students. The results showed that around 62.2% of students reported usage of the internet. While (84%) of the participants reported a high level of perceived stress. Moreover, the level of perceived stress among the females was higher than the males.

Agarwal et al. (2021) conducted a study to find out factors related to psychological stress among adolescents and young adults in India during the COVID-19 pandemic. A semi-structured survey method with 235 participants both male and female comprised the study. Demographic details, COVID-19 awareness, Perceived Stress Scale (PSS-10) scores, and coping mechanisms were circulated to 12–24-year-olds and evaluated to learn more about the effect of stress. The findings of the study showed that among 235 participants nearly half of the respondents (53%) informed moderate level of stress, 42.3% low stress, and 7% severe level of stress. In addition, the means score of females was higher in the level of perceived stress, age, higher education, and occupation.

Hoyt et al. (2021) conducted a study to assess stress and anxiety among college students in the United States during the COVID-19 pandemic. Full-time college students (N= 707) within the age group of (18-22) were recruited for the study. On average, all students experienced stress and anxiety, particularly in the month of April when the level of stress was high. At both time points, women reported lower

levels of happiness than men, while transgender, gender diverse, and sexual minority kids reported worse results than their cisgender, heterosexual counterparts. Moreover, the COVID-19 epidemic has created educational, economic, and environmental pressures that are hurting college students' well-being, according to qualitative data.

Kaczmarek and Trambacz-Oleszak (2021) identified the relationship between school-going perceived stress and stressful stimuli such as school environment, peer connections, and family relationships. 1846 participants were recruited within the age group of (13-18) years using stratified sampling. Self-administered Questionnaires and Anthropometric Measurements were used for data collection. Perceived Stress Scale (PSS-10) was used to assess the level of perceived stress. Results showed that girls were more vulnerable to stress as compared to boys. As well as school environment was one of the important predictors of high perceived stress.

Radwan et al. (2021) conducted a study to examine perceived stress among school students in distance learning in Gaza during the COVID-19 Pandemic. A cross-sectional study was used among 385 school children to assess the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) as well as their concerns and emotions during an epidemic. The results revealed that female students (53.4%) scored significantly higher on perceived stress than their male students (38.2%) counterparts. Furthermore, it was observed that secondary school students had a considerably higher mean score of perceived stress level than elementary school pupils, according to the findings.

2.4.3 Gender Differences in Loneliness

Salimi (2011) examined the effects of social and emotional loneliness on life satisfaction among university students. A total of 396 students participated (172=males, 224=females) from Shiraz University. A Short Version of the Social and

Emotional Loneliness Scale for adults and Satisfaction Scales were used for data collection. The results of the study revealed that there was a significant impact of gender on loneliness among the students, while, in comparison to female students, male students reported significantly higher levels of emotional loneliness. In general, social and emotional loneliness were both found to be negative predictors of loneliness, while emotional loneliness was found to be a greater predictor of social loneliness.

Appel et al. (2012) conducted a study to examine the influence of parent-child communication quality perceived by adolescents on internal use and loneliness. Findings showed that perceived family support was controlled when the moderation effect was significant. No significant gender and age difference was found in relation to loneliness and perceived family support.

Rani and Kumar (2016) conducted a study to find the relationship between perceived loneliness with respect to gender and area. Perceived Loneliness Scale (Jha, 1971) was used among 100 girls and boys within the age group (16-22). Findings of the results showed that there was no significant gender difference in perceived loneliness. In, addition no difference was found in terms of areas such as urban and rural areas.

Vig and Gill (2016) conducted a study to explore loneliness among government senior secondary school students of Chandigarh City. The Loneliness Scale adapted by Arora (2008) was used to collect data. The findings revealed that the percentages of loneliness among females are higher than in male adolescents.

Wedaloka and Turnip (2019) demonstrated the gender differences in the experience of loneliness among adolescents in Jakarta. 662 participants (318=males,

344=females) between the age of 15-and 20 years. Findings showed that show that there were significant gender differences in loneliness among the male and female adolescents in overall, emotional and social dimensions. Moreover, the scores of female adolescents were significantly higher on loneliness compared to male adolescents, not only overall but also in emotional and social dimensions.

Javed et al. (2021) conducted a study to examine the gender difference in loneliness and obsession compulsions symptoms during the COVID-19 pandemic. 120 participants were taken in the study (60=females, 60=males) from Faisalabad, Punjab. The scales used for data collection were the UCLA Loneliness Scale version-3 (Russell, 1996) and Yales-Brown Obsessive-Compulsive Symptoms Scale (Y-BOCS, Goodman et al., 1989). The results revealed that females were more vulnerable to developing loneliness and obsessive-compulsive symptoms than their male counterparts.

Twenge et al. (2021) documented increases in loneliness and depression among adolescents in Canada U.K and U.S after 2012. The results of the documentation showed that school loneliness increased from 2012 to 2018. Increased level of loneliness was common among girls and boys in the countries. School loneliness was found to be favourably linked to bad effects and negatively linked to good effects and life satisfaction.

2.4.4 Gender differences in Psychological Well-being

Visani et al. (2011) explored the gender difference in psychological well-being and psychological distress during adolescence. 568 adolescents within the age group of (11-18) years from Northern Italy were selected for the study. Psychological Well-Being Scales (Ryff, 1989) and Symptom Questionnaire (SQ) (Kellner, 1987) were

used to gather data. The results revealed that girls reported higher levels of distress than boys. And there was no significant gender difference in the dimensions of psychological well-being.

Akhter (2015) conducted a study to investigate the gender difference in psychological well-being. A total of 100 students from the 10th standard comprised the study (50=boys, 50= girls) through a random sampling method. Psychological Well-being Scale (Carol Ryff, 1989) was used to gather data. The findings of the study showed that there was a significant gender difference in the levels of psychological well-being.

Chraif and Dumitru (2015) conducted a study to highlight the gender difference in psychological well-being and quality of life among college students. Undergraduate students within the age group of 19-22 were chosen for the study. Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scales (PWB) and Quality of Life Scale (QLS) were used for collecting data. The findings of the study showed that there was a significant gender difference in the dimensions of psychological well-being where females scored higher on personal growth, positive relations with others, autonomy, and self-acceptance, whereas males scored higher on control, the meaning of life, and quality of life.

Kaneez (2015) conducted a study to examine the association between family environment and the psychological well-being of adolescents. A sample of 60 adolescents (30= male; 30= female) between the ages of 16 to 19 years was selected. The findings showed a positive and significant association between psychological well-being and cohesion, expressiveness, acceptance and caring, and active

recreational dimensions of the family environment. Gender differences were also observed in psychological well-being girls scored higher than the boys.

Sun et al. (2016) conducted a study to find out the relationship between self-compassion components and psychological well-being among the adolescents of Hong Kong. A total of 277 participants were voluntarily chosen within the ages of 12-16 years. Self-Compassion Scale and Chinese version Psychological Well-Being Scale were used to gather data. The results of the study showed that girls showed better psychological well-being than the boys. Apart for autonomy and self-acceptance, girls scored high on other dimensions of psychological well-being like personal growth, purpose of life, self-acceptance and positive relations with others.

The above studies provide an idea regarding psychological well-being among adolescents in relation to parenting styles, perceived stress, and loneliness. Since not enough studies have been conducted to gain an insight into the well-being of adolescents in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, therefore, it is necessary to explore the consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic among adolescents.

CHAPTER III

THE PRESENT STUDY

3.1 Need and Justification of the Study

COVID-19 pandemic has created an unprecedented impact on the well-being of every individual, especially young individuals within the age group of 15-29 years. Adolescence is a period in which various psychological factors predominantly mediate an adolescent's well-being which shapes a long-term impact on individuals. Globally, it has been reported that 10-20% of adolescents are suffering from a mental health condition and statistics show that they are more vulnerable to developing mental health diseases (Bruining et al., 2021; WHO, 2020).

In such a situation parental care is of utmost priority, providing their children with appropriate measures. In terms of parent gender, parenting style and traditional gender norms in Asian countries such as India urge mothers to be caring caregivers, whilst fathers have traditionally been expected to have less involvement in child-rearing (Rothbaum & Trommsdorff, 2007). Even throughout adolescence, mothers are seen as a continuing source of nourishment and support for their children. Mothers are more emotionally expressive than fathers when it comes to their children's daily demands. As a result, regardless of gender, teenagers reported having a better relationship with their mothers than with their fathers. A father's position is commonly stereotyped as that of a provider, whereas a mother's job is that of a caretaker (Gerson, 2002).

Due to the multiple physiological, psychological, and social changes that occur during adolescence, the risk of development of stress and loneliness is higher in

adolescents (Laursen & Hartl, 2013), especially during pandemics where numerous negative changes have occurred such as (social distancing, home quarantine) may have an impact on adolescent's which may lead to feelings of loneliness (Cacioppo & Patrick, 2008).

Therefore, the present study tries to establish an understanding of different mothers' parenting styles, perceived stress, loneliness, and psychological well-being among the adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic. Since COVID-19 pandemic and lockdown have brought about a sense of fear and anxiety around the globe. For children and adolescents, this phenomenon has had both short and long-term psychological and mental health consequences. This study will provide insight to the parents, teachers, education policymakers, and other investigators about parenting style, perceived stress, loneliness, and psychological well-being in adolescents, both quantitatively and qualitatively. It will guide the teachers, parents, and education policymakers about the role of psychological well-being in developing the right parenting style, and coping with stress and loneliness among adolescents. It will help them to design their daily activities, interactions, and curriculum that may develop a feeling of contentment, evaluation of work efficiency, raise coping stress, and develop interpersonal relations among adolescents. It will collectively raise their psychological well-being which in turn would help enhance their abilities to cope with stress and loneliness in adolescents. Hence, the rising level of psychological well-being will enable them to tackle challenging situations in their everyday life. Parents will know about the effect and importance of their parenting styles on their child's ability in dealing with stressful situations. The investigation will guide parents to raise their children by practicing a healthy parenting style and providing them with a congenial environment, in which they may feel free to share their queries, opinions,

and emotions with their parents. It may help adolescents to share problems by using parents' advice, before implementing it.

As a result, a framework for building more effective interventions to cushion the components of well-being can be developed by knowing psychological predictors of some of the components of well-being.

3.2 Statement of the Problem

The problem under investigation in the present study was stated as “Psychological well-being among school-going Adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 Pandemic”.

3.3 Hypothetical Framework

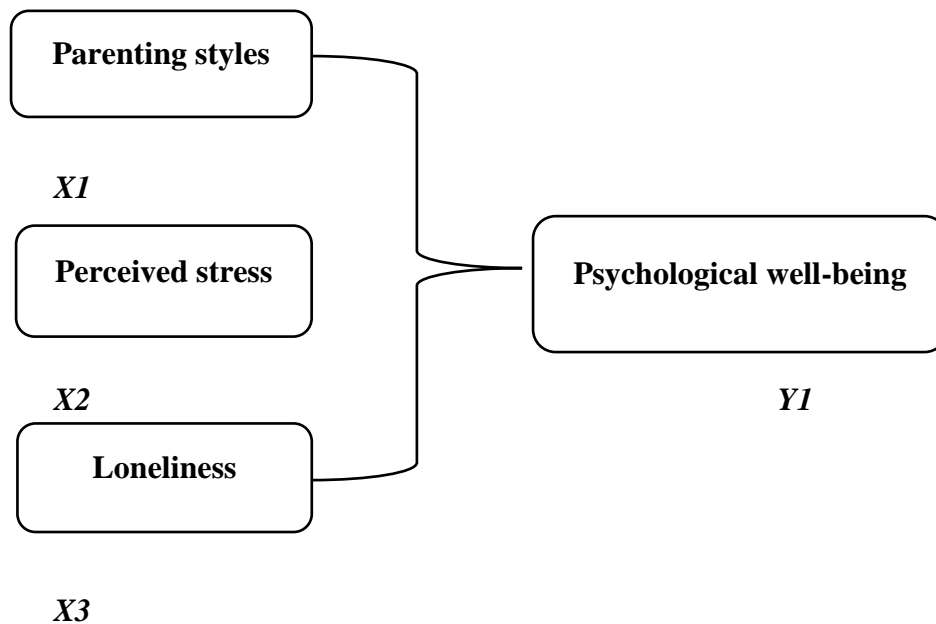


Fig 3.1: Association of Parenting Style (X1), Perceived Stress (X2), Loneliness (X3) with Psychological Well-being (Y1)

Objectives of the Study

O1: To find out the relationship between parenting style, perceived stress, loneliness, and psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

O2: To determine the significant predictors of parenting styles, perceived stress, and loneliness on psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

O3: To make a gender-wise comparison on the variables of parenting styles, perceived stress, loneliness, and psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

O4: To evaluate the effect of selected socio-demographic variables on psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Hypotheses of the Study

H1: There would exist a significant relationship between parenting styles, perceived stress, loneliness, and psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H2: Parenting styles, perceived stress, and loneliness would contribute significantly to predicting psychological well-being conjointly as well as independently among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H3a: School-going adolescent girls will score high on authoritarian parenting style compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H3b: School-going adolescent boys will score high on authoritative parenting style compared to the school-going adolescent girls of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H3c: School-going adolescent boys will score high on permissive parenting style compared to the school-going adolescent girls of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H4: School-going adolescent girls will score high on perceived stress compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H5: School-going adolescent girls will score high on loneliness compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H6a: School-going adolescent boys will score high on self-acceptance compared to the school-going adolescent girls of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H6b: School-going adolescent girls will score high on environmental mastery compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H6c: School-going adolescent girls will score high on purpose of life compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H6d: School-going adolescent girls will score high on positive relations with others compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H6e: School-going adolescent girls will score high on personal growth compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H6f: School-going adolescent boys will score high on autonomy compared to the school-going adolescent girls of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H7: There will be a significant effect of selected socio-demographic variables on psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

This chapter deals with the research method, the procedure adopted for conducting the study, the sampling design, a discussion of the measures or instruments, and statistical approaches employed for the analysis and interpretation of data. Reading books and conducting research are both essential. For a better reality with knowledge, both scientific and non-scientific disciplines of study require investigation. The difficulties that develop daily are looking for a solution. The main objectives of scientific research are to create novel and relevant facts, verify and put them on trial, monitor cause and effect relationships, to develop new scientific measures or tools, concepts, and theories to solve and explain problems (Rajasekar et al., 2013). According to Theodorson and Theodorson (1969), research refers to any honest attempt to study a problem systematically or to add to man's knowledge of a problem. The academic activity was used previously for the technical term "research". Clifford Woody proposed that research is a collection of steps such as: defining a problem, formulating a hypothesis, collecting, organizing, and evaluating data, making a deduction, drawing a conclusion, and lastly testifying they are comparable to the formulated hypothesis (Fisher, 1930). All the following activities lead to the generation of new knowledge and the resolution of problems (Degu & Yigzaw, 2006). Thus, Chapter IV comprised of research design, variables, sample, geographical locations, measures, procedure, and statistical techniques for analysis.

4.1 Research Design

"Research design is the plan and structure of investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research problems." - Kerlinger (1989)

Research design provides a comprehensive picture of research before starting the research. So, a systematic research design is necessary. In this study, the descriptive research design is adopted for the present study, where primary data was collected physically using specific standardized questionnaires. For this research, mixed-method (both quantitative and qualitative) was adopted comprising of two phases:

Phase I (Quantitative Phase) - The participants were given all the selected questionnaires to fill out individually.

Phase II (Qualitative Phase) - In-depth interview was conducted on participants (five boys and five girls) who scored high on perceived stress and loneliness; and a low score on psychological well-being variables. For this purpose, a few open-ended questions related to the above mentioned variables were asked individually.

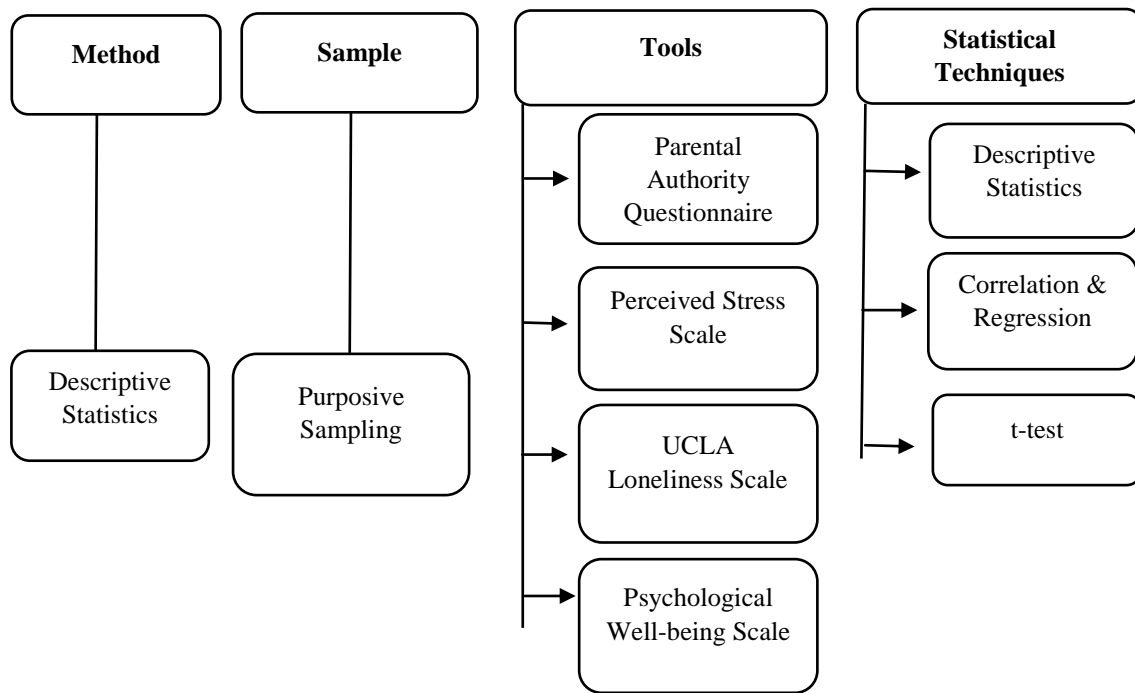


Fig 4.1 Exhibiting the plan and procedures of the study

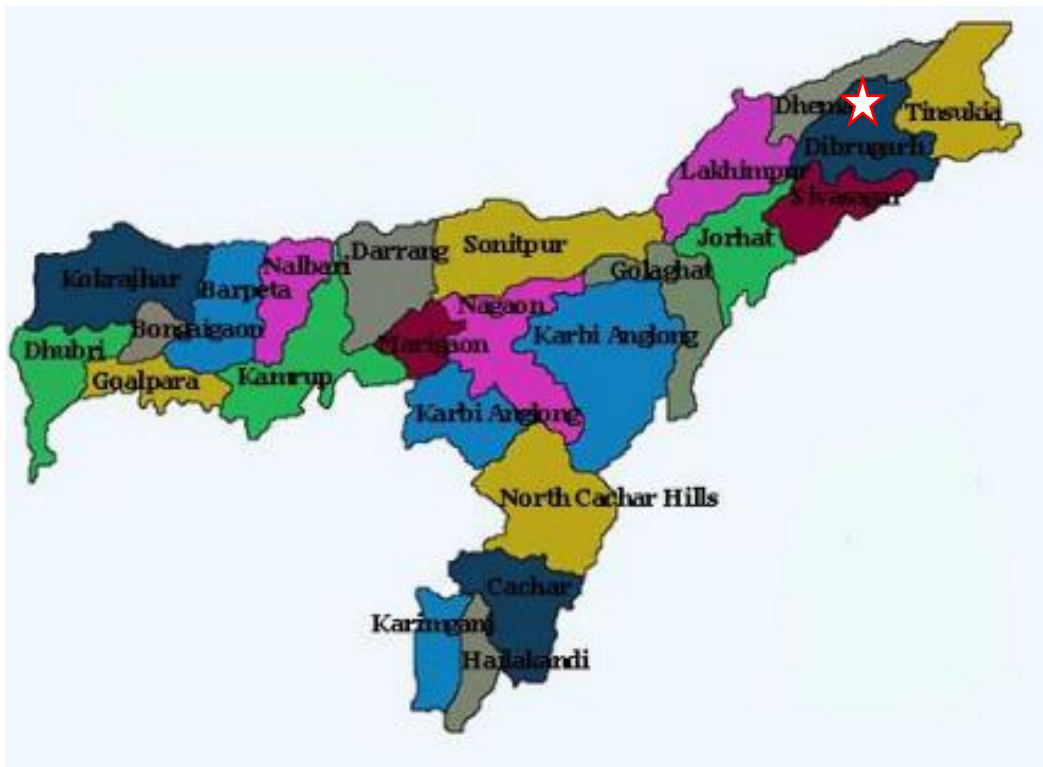
Table 4.1: Variables Used in the Study

<i>Independent variables with dimensions</i>		<i>Dependent variables with dimensions</i>		
(Mothers) Parenting styles	Permissive parenting style	Psychological well-being	Self-acceptance	
	Authoritarian parenting style		Environmental mastery	
	Authoritative parenting style		Purpose of life	
			Personal growth	
			Positive relations with other	
			Autonomy	
Perceived Stress	--			
Loneliness	--			
Gender	Boys			
	Girls			
Age	16-19 years			
Streams	Science			
	Commerce			
	Arts			

4.2 Geographical Area

The geographical location which was selected for the present study is Assam, a northeast state of India. Out of 33 districts in Assam, the Dibrugarh district was taken into consideration for the collection of data.

4.2.1 Map of Assam



Source: Retrieved from <http://www.onefivenine.com/india/villag/state/assam> on 25.10.2021

4.3 Sample

For the present study, a sample consisting of two-hundred (N=200) senior secondary school adolescents was selected from the Dibrugarh district of Assam. Both boys (n=100) and girls (n=100) from XII standard in the age group of 16 -19

years were included. The purposive sampling technique was used for the collection of data from the sample.

Table 4.2: *List of Senior Secondary Schools of Dibrugarh District from where Data were collected (N= 200)*

Sl. No.	Name of the Senior Secondary Schools	Class	No of Students (N=200)	
			Boys (N=100)	Girls (N=100)
1.	Salt Brook Academy	XII	25	25
2.	Dr. Radhakrishan School of Arts, Commerce, and Science	XII	25	25
3.	Gyan Vigyan Academy	XII	25	25
4.	Sri Sri Anirudhadeva Junior College	XII	25	25

4.4 Participants Inclusion Criteria

- Students from 12th standard
- Students aged between 16-19 years
- Students from different stream
- Students living with both their parents
- Private senior secondary schools affiliated with Assam State Board (SEBA)
- Students who did not have major physical/psychiatric illness
- Students who agreed for participation

4.5 Ethical Considerations

- Participation was voluntary and anonymous.
- Informed consent was taken from the participants
- All participants were assured of confidentiality and were also informed to assert this right to withdraw at any time.
- Permission was taken from all the school principals for data collection
- Permission was taken for conducting research from Institutional Ethical Committee, Sikkim University.
- All the personal information of the participants has been locked in their respective files and was assessed only by the researcher.
- The participants' details will be destroyed a few years after the study.

4.6 Tools Used

The following standardized questionnaires were utilized during the investigation:

1. Socio-demographic Datasheet (Self, 2021):

The socio-demographic datasheet consisted of the personal record of the participants like name, age, sex, community, religion, streams (Arts, Science, and Commerce), etc.

2. Parental Authority Questionnaire (Buri, 1991):

This questionnaire was based on Baumrind's (1971) three prototypes of parental authority: permissiveness, authoritarianism, and authoritative. There is a total of 30 items in the questionnaire covering three dimensions of parenting style i.e. permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative, each parenting style consists of 10 items.

The Cronbach coefficient alpha value of the sub-scale was reported to be ranging from 0.87-to 0.74 according to Buri (1991). In addition, the content, criterion, and discriminant validity were significantly high. The following is the detail of items included in each of the subscales of the Parental Authority Questionnaire:

Permissive- The items covered in this subscale are item numbers 1, 6, 10, 13, 14, 17, 19, 21, 24, and 28.

Authoritarian- The items covered in this subscale is item numbers 2, 3, 7, 9, 12, 16, 18, 25, 26, and 29.

*Authoritative/flexible-*The items covered in this subscale are item numbers 4, 5, 8, 11, 15, 20, 22, 23, 27, and 30).

Scoring and Interpretation

It is a five-point rating scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. The minimum score for each subscale is 10 and the maximum score is 50. The highest score indicates that significant parenting style.

3. Perceived Stress Questionnaire (Levenstein et al., 1993):

The perceived stress questionnaire was constructed by Levenstein et al. (1993). The Perceived Stress Questionnaire consists of 30 items which are self-report questionnaires. The items are rated on a 4- point scale where the responses range from almost never (1) to usually (4). The Cronbach's alpha score for this scale is 0.88 and reliability 0.88.

Scoring and Interpretation

Regarding the scoring of the items, participants indicate on a scale from 1 which signifies “almost never” to 4 signifies “usually” how often they experience certain stress-related feelings: 1 for almost never, 2 for sometimes, 3 for often, and 4 for usually. Positive items are 1, 7, 10, 13, 17, 21, 25, and 29 and all others are reversely scored. A total score is found by adding up the ratings. Higher scores indicate greater levels of stress.

4. UCLA Loneliness Scale (Russell & Cutrona, 1978):

This scale consists of a 20-item scale designed to measure one’s subjective feelings of loneliness as well as feelings of social isolation. It is a four-point rating scale where respondents choose each item as O which means (“I often feel this way”), S indicates (“I sometimes feel this way”), R indicates (“I rarely feel this way”) and, N indicates (“I never feel this way”). The items are reverse scored whereby the higher the score, the higher the loneliness. The coefficient alpha found in a sample of college students was 0.94 (Russell et al., 1980), while the coefficient alphas found in samples of early adolescents ranged from .81 to .88.

Scoring and Interpretation

The scoring of the scale is reversed where O=3, S=2, R=1, and N=0. It is a four-point rating scale where the scores range from 20 to 80.

5. Psychological well-being Scale (Ryff & Keyes, 1995):

This scale was developed by Ryff and Keyes (1995) which consisted of 18-item self-report scales in which the participants rate them. There are 6 dimensions in this

scale such as self-acceptance, environmental mastery, the purpose of life, positive relations with others, personal growth, and autonomy. The psychological well-being scale is a 7-point Likert scale in which the responses for each item range from strongly agree to strongly disagree (1=strongly agree to 7=strongly disagree). The score for Cronbach's alpha for this scale is 0.63 and the reliability was 0.88.

Scoring and Interpretation

The items Q1, Q2, Q3, Q8, Q9, Q11, Q12, Q13, Q17, and Q18 should be reverse-scored. Items that are reverse-scored are written in the opposite direction as the scale's measurement. The scores for positive questions are 1= strongly agree, 2= somewhat agree, 3= a little agree, 4= neither agree nor disagree, 5=a little disagree, 6=somewhat disagree, 7= strongly disagree and vice versa. A higher score indicates higher levels of psychological well-being.

4.7 Procedure for Data Collection

The purpose of this study is to measure parenting styles, perceived stress, and loneliness among school-going adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic and its association with their psychological well-being. The data collection began after attaining permission from the principals of respective schools. After receiving the permission, the data were collected using a standardized questionnaire by visiting the schools physically. The data was gathered in a two-phase:

Quantitative Phase (Phase I): After seeking permission from various schools, boys and girls were selected, and the participants were narrated regarding filling up the questionnaires. Any doubts or queries were clarified if the students find it difficult to understand any of the questions.

Qualitative Phase (Phase II): An in-depth interview was conducted among selected (10 students; 5 boys and 5 girls) students who scored high on perceived stress, and loneliness and low on psychological well-being. Questions were asked regarding the variables based on the responses provided by the students. Open-ended questions which were asked to the selected participants during the in-depth interview session are mentioned below:

- “Can you tell me how content you feel with your life during covid-19?”
- “Can you tell me how you perceived/accepted your life during covid-19?”
- “How often do you feel that you lack companionship during covid-19?”
- “What situations create stress in your everyday life during covid-19?”
- “When you are stressed by the situation of covid-19, how do you feel?”

4.8 Statistical Analysis

In order to analyze the data in light of the goals and hypothesis, differential statistical techniques were used which are given below:

- For descriptive statistics, frequency, mean, and SD were employed.
- Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to quantify any significant relationship between different variables under study.
- t-test was used to detect significant differences among different groups on the variables under study.
- Hierarchical regression was used to find predictions among the selected groups in the current study.
- For analyzing the research data, SPSS version 23 was used.
- Thematic analysis was employed for qualitative analysis.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After the data has been collected from the participants, the raw data are subjected to analysis. This is a crucial step in research that must be completed before the results may be disseminated. The data may have adequate, valid, and reliable features, yet it may not convey any information. Unless the information is carefully and systematically sorted, tabulated, and analyzed, it serves no useful function.

The present study was conducted with the aim of examining the impact of different dimensions of psychological well-being on parenting styles, perceived stress, and loneliness among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic. The data of 200 (100 boys and 100 girls) students was analyzed by calculating the coefficient of correlation (r), regression, and t-test besides the descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation).

Statistical Interpretation Section: The analysis of data and interpretation of results have been given in four sections:

Section I: Descriptive Analysis

The objective of the descriptive analysis was to find out the nature of socio-demographic variables understudy with gender, stream, social group, and religion in the case of the total sample, boys and girls.

Section II: Correlation Analysis

The aim of correlation analysis was to find out the relationship of the dependent variable 'psychological well-being' with the independent variables of perceived stress and loneliness, and different dimensions of parenting styles.

Section III: Regression Analysis

The aim of regression analysis was to find out the predictors (contributors) of the criterion (dependent) variable 'psychological well-being' from among the independent variables of perceived stress, loneliness, and different dimensions of parenting styles.

Section IV: Inferential Analysis

The aim of the inferential analysis was to find out the gender differences in the variables of perceived stress, loneliness, and different dimensions of parenting styles and psychological well-being.

Section V: Qualitative Analyses

A detailed description of section-wise analysis and interpretation is being given as follows:

SECTION I: Descriptive Analysis (Quantitative Phase)

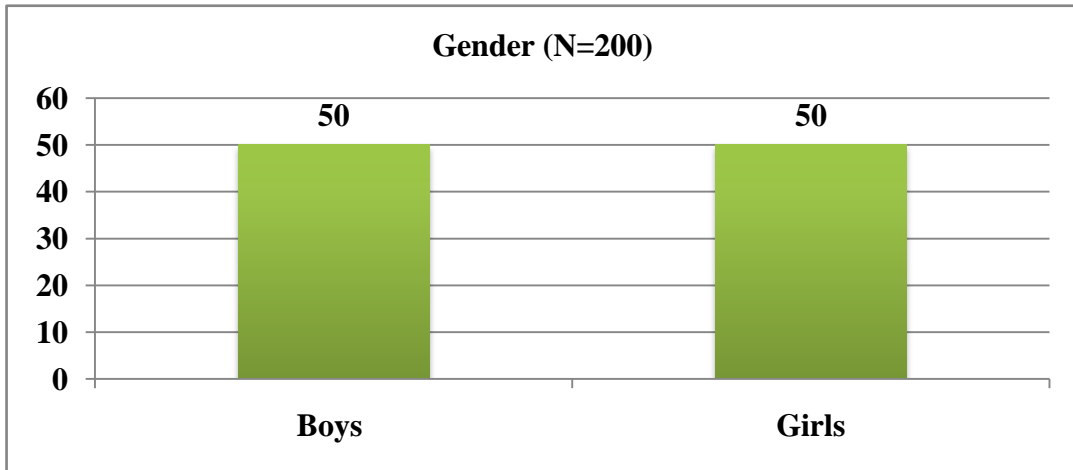
Socio-Demographic Variables

Table 5.1: Descriptive Statistics of Selected Socio-Demographic Variables (N=200)

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Sample</i>	<i>Categories</i>	<i>Frequency (%)</i>
Gender	1.50	.501	200	Boys	100 (50)
				Girls	100 (50)
Educational Stream	1.98	.802	200	Science	70 (35)
				Commerce	60 (30)
				Arts	70 (35)
Social group	2.85	1.23	200	General	51 (25.5)
				SC	15 (7.5)
				ST	50 (25)
				OBC	82 (41)
				Others	2 (1)
Religion	1.16	.442	200	Hindu	174 (87)
				Muslim	20 (10)
				Christian	6 (3)
				Buddhism	0
				Others	0

a. Gender-wise Distribution

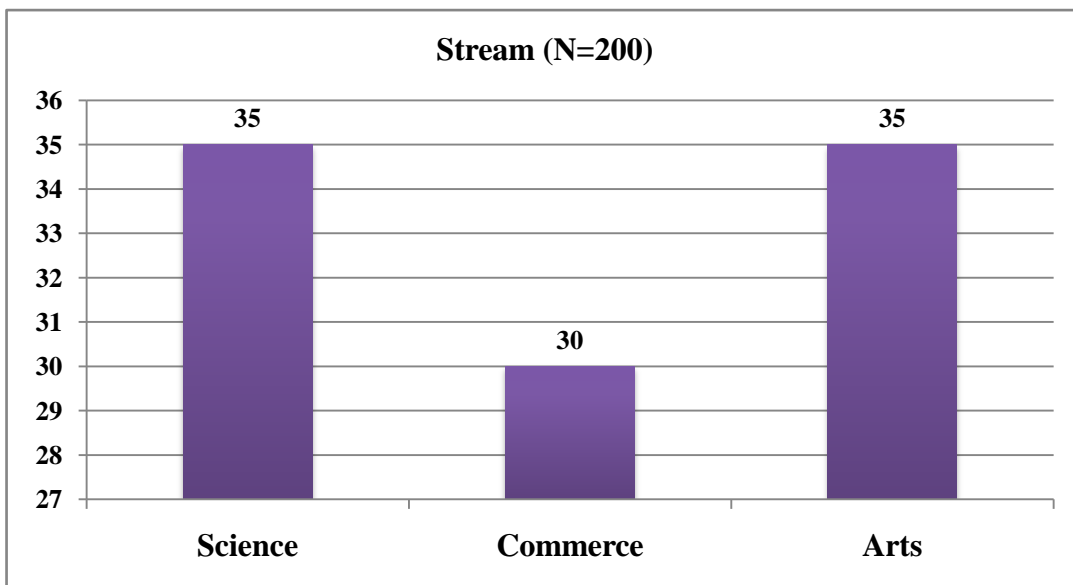
Gender is an important factor that needs to be understood to identify the behaviour, identity, and capacity of a person. Gender is one of the important aspects to include in every study (Harikrishnan & Sobhana, 2017). It can be observed from Table 5.1 that out of 200 participants, 50 percent were boys and 50 percent were girls. The bar diagram 5.1 also shows the same trend.



Bar Diagram 5.1: Represents the Percentage of Gender among the Participants.

b. Educational Stream-wise Distribution

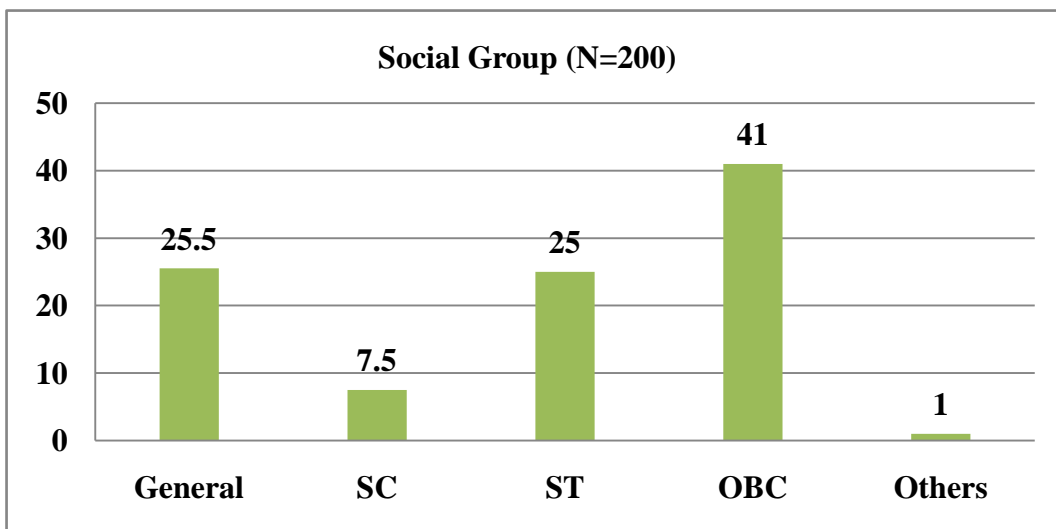
From Table 5.1, it can also be seen that the participants were classified into three different streams: science, commerce, and arts. The data showed that 35 per cent of the participants belonged to the science stream, 30 per cent to commerce, and 35 per cent to the arts stream. Bar diagram 5.2 also shows the same trend.



Bar Diagram 5.2: Represents the Percentage of Different Streams among the Participants

c. Social Group-Wise Distribution

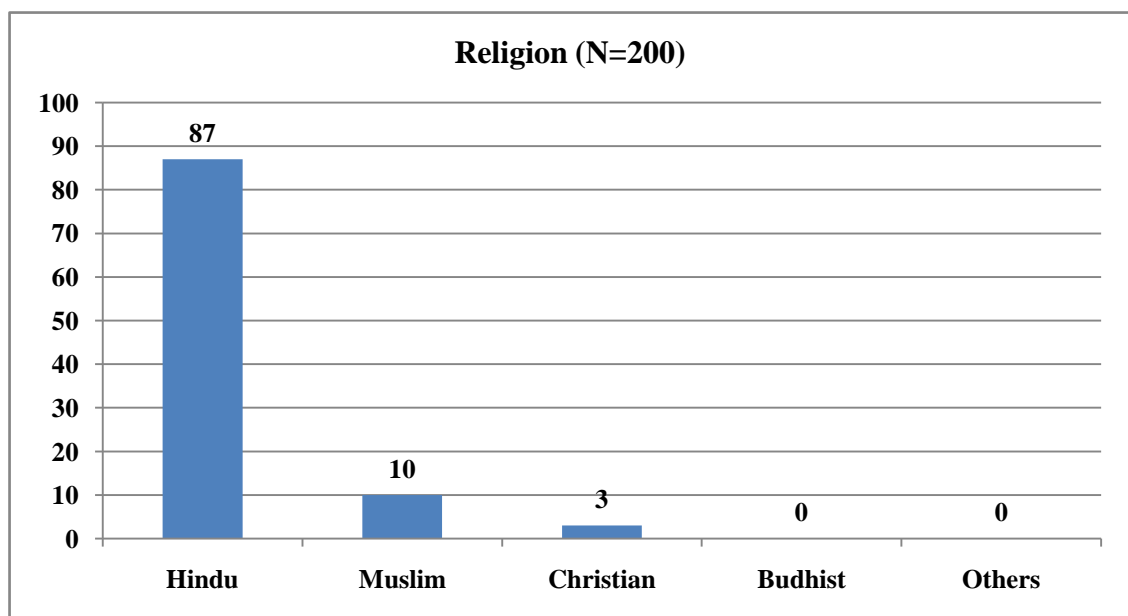
From Table 5.1, it can be seen that the participants were classified into five social groups such as General, OBC, SC, ST, and others. The data showed that 25.5 per cent of the participants were from the general category, 7.5 per cent from SC, and 25 per cent from ST, 41 per cent from OBC and 1 per cent from the other category. As per the Indian government rules of social group category, the present study accumulated four recognized reservation categories: General (unreserved), Other Backward Class (OBC), Scheduled Caste (SC), and Scheduled Tribe (ST). The classification was done based on economic and geographical locations in several regions of India. The reservation category variable is a significant component in understanding the background of the population in several areas, and it also includes studies on school-going adolescents. Bar diagram 5.3 also shows the same trend.



Bar Diagram 5.3: Represents the Percentage of Different Social Groups among the Participants.

d. Religion-wise Distribution

India is a diverse country composed of multiple religions and caste centre. Religion is a belief system in which people practice, live, and prays in order to honour a divine entity. Religion and caste variables are considered significant socio-demographic variables of school-going adolescents to understand their lifestyles and social status. Table 5.1 represents the percentage of school-going adolescent boys and girls. As per as religion is concerned, out of 200 participants, maximum of the participants belong to Hindu (87%) and Muslim (10%) religions. There were no participants from Buddhism and Others category. In Assam, Hindus account for 61 percent of the population while, Muslim accounts for 34 percent which is considered a religious minority group followed by other religions (Census, 2011). Bar diagram 5.4 also shows the same trend.



Bar Diagram 5.4: *Represents the Percentage of Different Religion among the Participants*

SECTION II: *Correlation Coefficient of Different Variables among the School-going Adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 Pandemic.*

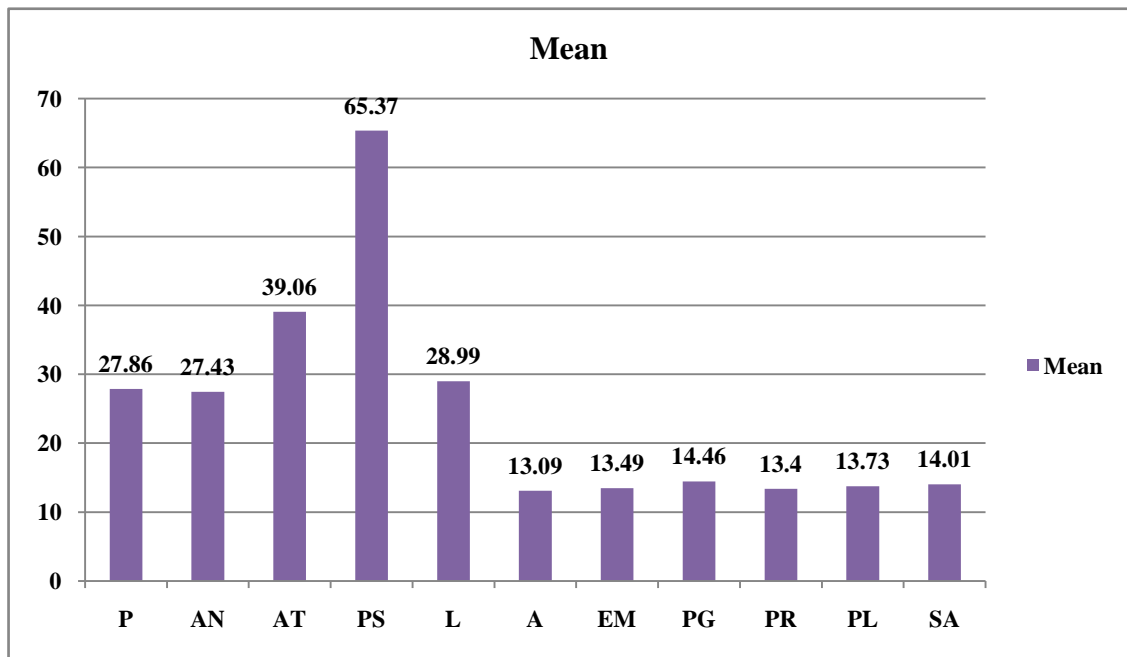
H1: There would exist a significant relationship between parenting styles, perceived stress, loneliness, and psychological well-being among the adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Table 5.2 represents the Mean, SD, and coefficient of correlation (using Pearson's product-moment correlation) on parenting styles, perceived stress, loneliness and, different dimensions of psychological well-being. There are six dimensions of psychological well-being such as self-acceptance, environmental mastery, the purpose of life, personal growth, positive relations with others, and autonomy.

Table 5.2: Correlation Coefficient among Parenting styles, Perceived Stress, Loneliness and Different Dimensions of Psychological Well-being among the School-going Adolescents of Assam during COVID-19 Pandemic (N=200)

Variables	Mean	SD	P	AN	AT	PS	L	A	EM	PG	PR	PL	SA
Permissive parenting style (P)	27.86	5.11	1	-.60**	-.13	-.68**	-.67**	-.45**	-.44**	-.35**	-.36**	-.40**	-.42**
Authoritarian parenting style (AN)	27.43	5.21		1	.22**	.60**	.61**	.25**	.28**	.36**	.24**	.40**	.44**
Authoritarian parenting style (AT)	39.06	3.02			1	.29**	.19**	.19**	.16**	.23**	.13	.10	.24**
Perceived stress (PS)	65.37	14.86				1	.82**	.57**	.48**	.48**	.38**	.50**	.56**
Loneliness (L)	28.99	11.22					1	.45**	.41**	.39**	.23**	.48**	.50**
Autonomy (A)	13.09	2.64						1	.48**	.51**	.48**	.50**	.50**
Environmental mastery (EM)	13.49	2.51							1	.64**	.61**	.64**	.57**
Personal growth (PG)	14.46	2.62								1	.61**	.54**	.58**
Positive relations with others (PRO)	13.40	2.55									1	.54**	.42**
Purpose of life (PL)	13.73	2.61										1	.57**
Self-acceptance (SA)	14.01	3.07											1

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



Bar Diagram 5.5: Represents the Mean Value of Different Variables (N=200)

Pearson’s correlation coefficient in Table 5.2 illustrated a significant negative relationship between permissive parenting styles and psychological well-being ($p < 0.01$) among the school-going adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic. This signifies that when a permissive parenting style increases psychological well-being decreases among the school-going adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Permissive parents place fewer demands or no adherence to rules or regulations and avoid confrontation with the child about bad and maladaptive behaviours (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). The previous study which is in line is by Francis et al. (2021) found a negative relationship between permissive parenting style and psychological well-being among adolescents. Adolescents’ poor psycho-social well-being is associated with permissive parenting, which typically manifested as antisocial conduct and other psychopathological symptoms such as misconduct, drug use etc. (Calafat et al., 2014).

Moreover, it was found that a significant positive relationship existed between authoritarian parenting styles and psychological well-being ($p < 0.01$) among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic. The result of the study is in line with the previous study of Francis et al. (2021) who suggested in their study that a positive relationship existed between authoritarian parenting style and psychological well-being. This kind of parenting style contributes to the warm and steady growth of the child. In contrast, Kassa and Rao (2019) showed that there was a significant negative relationship between autocratic parenting style and psychological well-being among adolescents.

In addition, it can be also seen from Table 5.2 that a significant positive relationship exists between authoritative parenting style and psychological well-being ($p < 0.01$) among school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic. The results of the study are consistent with previous studies by Parra et al. (2019) who indicated that authoritative parenting approaches increased well-being and positive temperament features like effortful control back up this conclusion. As a result of this parenting style, children will experience warmth, attentiveness, and guidance, as well as clear goals and boundaries. Most previous research has linked authoritative parenting to good behavioural outcomes such as enhanced competence, autonomy, and self-esteem, as well as improved problem-solving abilities, academic success, self-reliance, less deviance, and better peer interactions.

Moreover, a significant positive relationship was observed between perceived stress and all the dimensions of psychological well-being ($p < 0.01$) among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic. The results of the study contradict the previous findings of Kumar et al. (2020) who suggested that perceived

stress negatively correlated with the dimensions of psychological well-being among emerging adults in India. Similarly, a negative correlation was found between self-perceived stress and psychological well-being (Heizomi et al., 2018). During COVID-19, infection and mortality rates were widely reported in the newspaper and media so the level of fear among people especially adolescents was seen to be high (Lin, 2020; Polizzi et al., 2020). The pandemic situation of COVID-19 has heightened dread and worry, leading to stigmatization and anxiety (Guan et al., 2020). Radwan et al.(2021) pointed out that school students from Gaza Strip were suffering from moderate to high levels of stress during the COVID-19 pandemic. Despite, experiencing a heightened level of stress, school-going adolescents in this study managed to keep their psychological well-being throughout the COVID-19 pandemic.

Furthermore, the result of this study revealed a significant positive relationship between loneliness and psychological well-being ($p < 0.01$) among school-going adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic. The findings of the study are in line with the prior studies conducted by Ishaq et al. (2018) who found a relationship between loneliness and psychological well-being in university studies. The previous study has also reported results which are inconsistent with the findings of this study where Bhagchandani (2017) found a negative relationship between loneliness and psychological well-being. Van et al., (2010) reported that loneliness reaches its peak during early adolescence and is positively linked with aversive physical, behavioural and psychological outcomes. One possible explanation of this finding might be that, despite experiencing loneliness among the adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic, spending quality time with their family members help them to deal with the situation along with staying connected with their friends through virtual connections.

So, even though they felt lonely at a certain point, they managed to maintain their psychological well-being.

Therefore, hypothesis 1 which states “There would exist a significant relationship between parenting styles, perceived stress, loneliness and psychological well-being among the adolescents of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic” is accepted.

SECTION III: Hierarchical Regression Equations for Parenting styles, Loneliness, and Perceived Stress among the School-going Adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 Pandemic

H2: Parenting styles, perceived stress and loneliness would contribute significantly to predicting psychological well-being conjointly as well as independently among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Table 5.3: Prediction of Psychological Well-being by Parenting style, Perceived Stress and Loneliness among School-going Adolescents of Assam during COVID-19 Pandemic (N=200)

	Model I			Model II			Model III		
	SB	SE B	t	SB	SE B	t	SB	SE B	t
Parenting style (I)									
Permissive	-.410	.187	-5.47***	-.160	.200	-1.98*	-.163	.204	-1.99*
Authoritarian	.144	.186	.1.88	.011	.179	.154	.014	.183	.191
Authoritative	.138	.257	2.25*	.054	.244	.939	.053	.246	.913

Perceived stress	.497	.071	6.01**	.512	.092	4.7***
(II)						
Loneliness (III)				-.022	.116	-.217
R	.551	.643			.643	
R2	.304	.413			.413	
Adjusted R2	.293	.401			.398	
R2 change	.304	.109			.000	
F	28.52***	36.20***			.047	

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

Hierarchical regression was carried out to identify the predictors of psychological well-being by different parenting styles, perceived stress, and loneliness among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 5.3. In the first (Model I), different dimensions of parenting styles such as permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative were included, where R2 was found to be 30% and the variables significantly contributed to the model (F=28.52, p<.001 level). Dimensions of parenting style such as permissive parenting significantly contributed to psychological well-being at (.001). In Model II, the overall model remains significant (F=36.20, p<.001 level) with perceived stress with a permissive parenting style predicting psychological well-being. In Model III, loneliness explained 41% (R2 change=.000) of variance, even though psychological well-being did not predict loneliness significantly.

Psychological well-being depends on the interaction of different factors like parenting styles, perceived stress, and loneliness. The quality of psychological well-

being of an individual's life is a result of a complex interaction between internal and external factors. Mental health is one of the important factors in determining the psychological well-being and parenting style among school students (Khodabakhsh et al., 2014). Yadav et al. (2021) showed that all the dimensions of psychological well-being such as (autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations, purpose in life, and self-acceptance) were predicted by permissive parenting style. In addition, it can be seen from the above table that permissive parenting is negatively determining the psychological well-being of adolescents during COVID-19. Azman et al. (2021) reported that a permissive parenting style for both mother and father significantly predicted psychological well-being among adolescents. Moreover, they suggested that parenting behaviour is one of the important predictors of children's and adolescents' mental health. Studies suggested that a permissive parenting style is characterized by a high level of warmth and low demandingness, control, and psychological pressure from their children. One possible explanation for this might be that as already parents were going through a lot of stress, pressure, and turmoil during the COVID-19 pandemic, mothers provided moderate emotional support to their children but placed a low emphasis on adherence to boundaries and norms. In the context of COVID-19, it can be said that mothers were lenient with their children, and supported them emotionally while exerting fewer demands on them.

Model II reported the significant influence of perceived stress on the psychological well-being of school-going adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic. This result is consistent with the previous findings of Jirathikrengkrai et al. (2021) who suggested that perceived stress, resilience, social support, and coping strategies significantly predicted psychological well-being in late adolescents. Different types of stress have been reported to have an impact on psychological and

physical well-being, ranging from daily pressures to main life events (King et al., 2014). Adolescents are frequently subjected to a variety of pressures, such as their career goals, academic work, dating, and social identity issues. Similarly, during the COVID-19 pandemic, elevated stress related to COVID-19 was associated with an increase in depressive symptoms in adolescents. Adolescents who rated the stressful changes brought on by the traumatic incident as more dangerous were more likely to develop depressive symptoms. Reduced stress was found to be a key factor in improving psychological well-being, as a higher level of happiness and self-efficacy were linked to lower stress was linked to higher psychological well-being (Ozbay et al., 2007).

Model III highlighted that loneliness was not a significant predictor of psychological well-being among school-going adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic. The findings of the current study are contradicting the prior studies which showed that loneliness is a predictor of psychological well-being. Tuason et al. (2021) reported that psychological well-being was significantly predicted by physical health, social loneliness, and emotional loneliness. One possible explanation for this might be that everyone was at home during the COVID-19 pandemic, spending time with their parents and siblings, and most of the parent's and children's work was done online, which may have lessened feelings of loneliness among school-going adolescents of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic.

Therefore, hypothesis 2 which states “Parenting styles, perceived stress and loneliness would contribute significantly to predicting psychological well-being conjointly as well as independently among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic” is partially accepted.

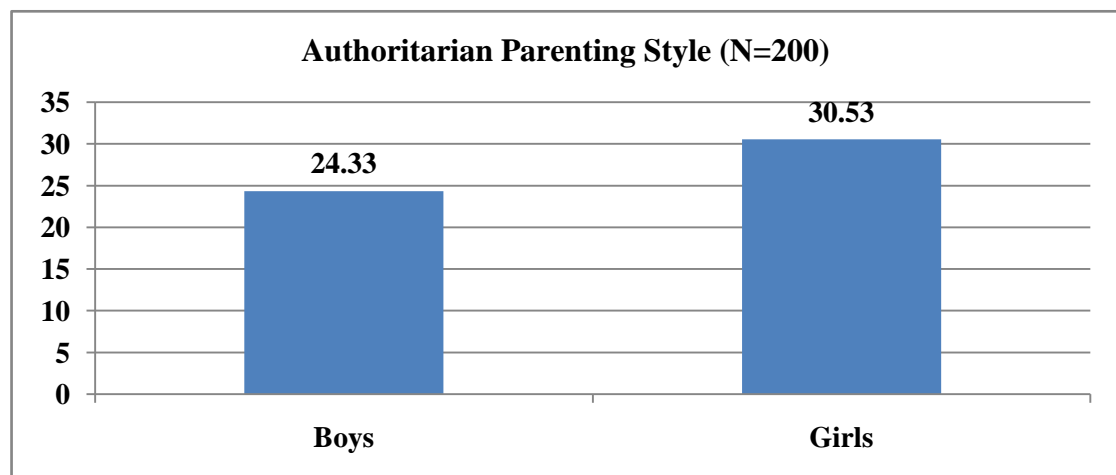
SECTION IV: Gender Differences in Parenting Styles, Perceived Stress, Loneliness and Psychological Well-being among the School-going Adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 Pandemic

H3a: School-going adolescent girls will score high authoritarian parenting style compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Table 5.4: Mean, SD and t-value among School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Authoritarian Parenting Style (N=200)

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Sig
Authoritarian Parenting Style	Boys	100	24.33	4.41	-10.44	.000
	Girls	100	30.53	3.97		

****p<.01**



Bar Diagram 5.6: Mean Value of School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Authoritarian Parenting Style (N=200)

The t-test in Table 5.4 portrayed a significant gender difference in authoritarian parenting style among the school-going adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic. It is evident from the table that the t-value of the authoritarian parenting style of boys and girls is (-10.44) which is significant. Moreover, the mean score of adolescent girls (M=30.53) is higher than that of adolescent boys (M=24.33). The findings of the study are in line with the previous study by Shafique (2008) in reference to the Pakistani context, which depicted mothers were stricter when it came to raising their daughters. Considering the majority of the primary caregivers were mothers (82%) in comparison to the fathers, which is similar to the findings conducted by Kausar and Shafique (2008). As a result, mothers were more dictatorial with their daughters, while sons were given more freedom. Overall, previous studies indicated that Indian adolescents were most likely to experience authoritarian parenting styles from their mothers.

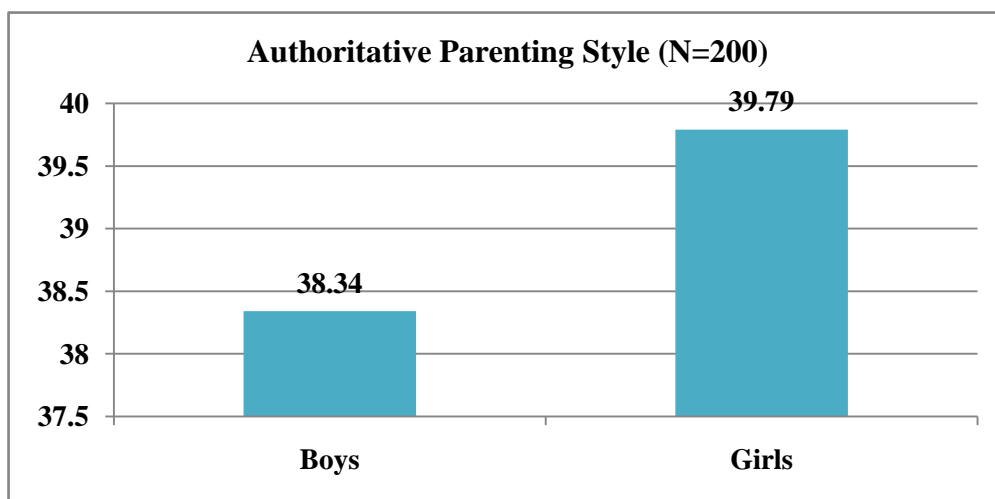
Therefore, hypothesis 3a which states “School-going adolescent girls will score high authoritarian parenting style compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic” is accepted.

H3b: School-going adolescent boys will score high on authoritative parenting style compared to the school-going adolescent girls of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Table 5.5: Mean, SD and t-value among School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Authoritative Parenting Style (N=200)

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Sig
Authoritative Parenting Style	Boys	100	38.34	3.00	-3.48	.001
	Girls	100	39.79	2.87		

****p<.01**



Bar Diagram 5.7: Mean Value of School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Authoritative Parenting style (N=200)

Table 5.5 depicts a significant gender difference in authoritative parenting style among the school-going adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic. It is evident from the table that the t-value of the authoritative parenting style of boys and girls is (-10.44) which is significant. Moreover, the mean score of adolescent girls (M=39.79) is higher than that of adolescent boys (M=38.34). Few studies have been conducted to investigate the difference in parenting techniques adopted by parents, and the ones which had been conducted mostly focus on parental involvement rather

than choices of child-rearing techniques (Fagan, 2000). Other research has revealed that mothers of adolescents mostly adopt authoritative parenting rather than the fathers, based on both parental self-report and adolescent judgments (Milevsky et al., 2008; Smetana, 1995). Adolescent girls in this study perceived their mothers to be more authoritative than the boys which is in line with the prior studies conducted by Nazim et al. (2021) where girls reported their parents to be significantly more authoritative than boys (Brand et al., 2011) reporting of same trends. This could be because parental strategies for enforcing discipline change greatly depending on the child and parental gender (Carter & Wojtkiewicz, 2000; Porter et al., 2005) which leads to the differential perception of parental practices. Parents are sometimes more involved in their child's education and decision particularly, of females (Beyers & Goossens, 2008). As a result, daughters received more favourable parenting from their mothers than sons during a pandemic.

Mothers who use authoritative parenting approaches, set rational limits, form their children and discipline them in non-punitive ways and continue to provide them assistance and availability, and encourage them to use positive emotions. As such authoritative mothers may be able to compensate for an absent father, whereas an absent father may not be able to compensate for a disinterested mother. From the above results, it can be summarized that school-going adolescent girls perceived their mothers' as more authoritative than the adolescent boys.

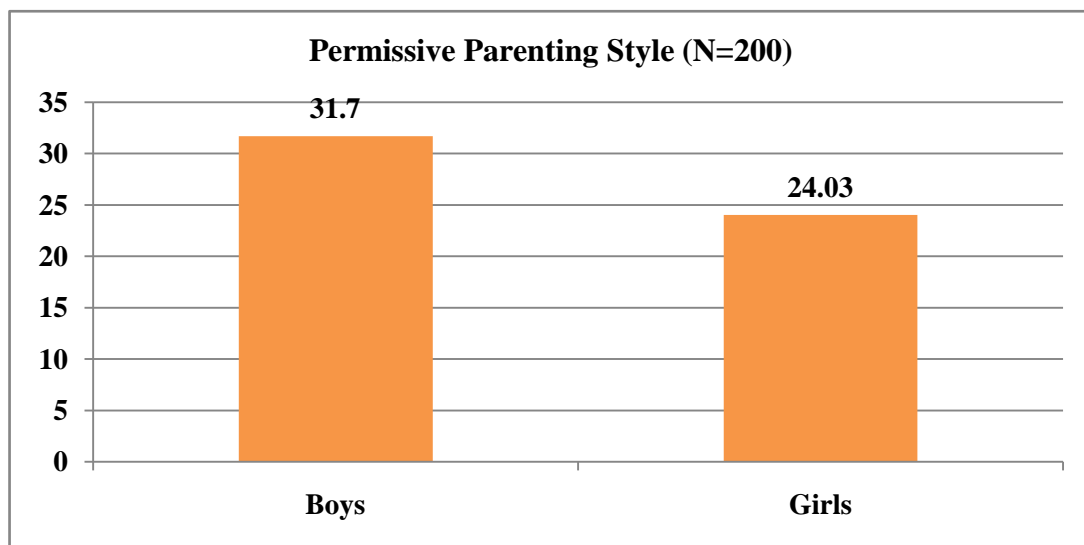
Therefore, hypothesis3b which states "School-going adolescent boys will score high on authoritative parenting style compared to the school-going adolescent girls of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic" is not accepted.

H3c: School-going adolescent boys will score high on permissive parenting style compared to the school-going adolescent girls of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Table 5.6: Mean, SD and t-value among School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Permissive Parenting Style (N=200)

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Sig
Permissive Parenting Style	Boys	100	31.70	3.75	16.05	.000
	Girls	100	24.03	2.95		

****p<.01**



Bar Diagram 5.8: Mean Value of School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Permissive Parenting style (N=200)

Table 5.6 illustrates a significant gender difference in permissive parenting style among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

It is evident from the above table that the t-value of the permissive parenting style of boys and girls is (16.05) which is significant. It indicates that child-rearing strategies vary among the school-going adolescents in Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic. Moreover, the mean score of the adolescent boys (M=31.70) is higher than adolescent girls (M=24.03), which indicates that adolescent boys perceive their mother's more permissive than adolescent girls. One possible explanation for this result could be that mother-son relationships have been demonstrated to elicit more emotion than mother-daughter relationships. Affection from a same-sex parent has been connected to a child's beneficial developmental outcomes (Bornstein, 2002). The prior study which is in line with the finding was Biswas (2019) found that boys perceive their mothers as more permissive than girls.

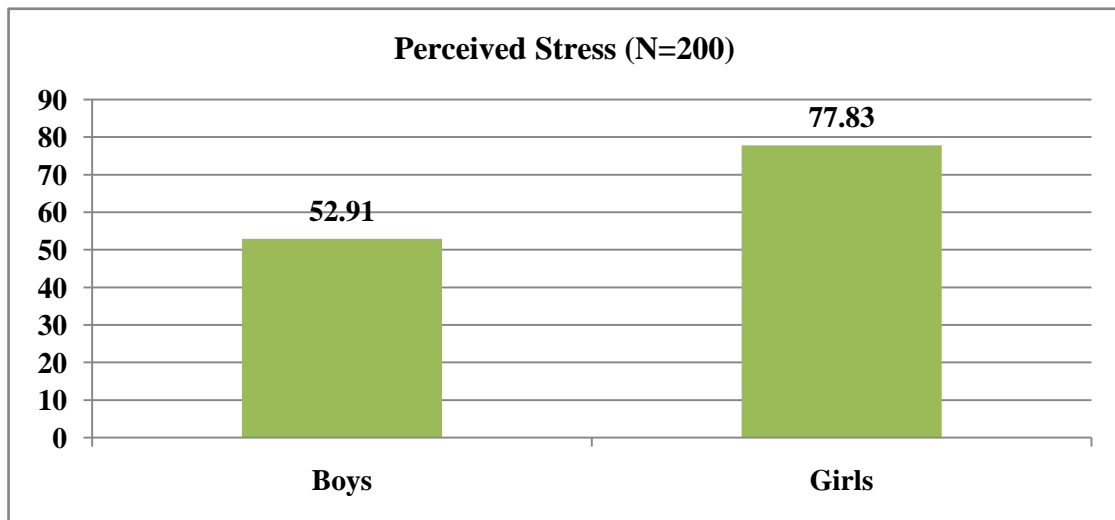
Therefore, hypothesis 3c which states “Adolescent boys will score high on permissive parenting style compared to the school-going adolescent girls of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic” is accepted.

H4: School-going adolescent girls will score high on perceived stress compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Table 5.7: Mean, SD and t-value among School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Perceived Stress (N=200)

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t-vale	Sig
Perceived Stress	Boys	100	52.91	6.95	-21.807	.000
	Girls	100	77.83	9.07		

****p<.01**



Bar Diagram 5.9: *Mean Value of School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Perceived Stress (N=200)*

The t-test in Table 5.7 portrayed a significant gender difference in perceived stress among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic. It is evident from the table that the t-value of perceived stress of boys and girls is (-21.80) which is significant. It indicates that school-going adolescents of Assam differ considerably in perceived stress during the COVID-19 pandemic. Further, the mean score reveals that adolescent girls (M=77.83) are found to be higher than boys (M=52.91). It implies that school-going adolescents have perceived stress differently during the COVID-19 pandemic. From the development perception, during adolescence dependence or self-generation may be especially vital (Cohen et al., 1987). This phase of life is increased with experimentation with new roles, which makes teenagers susceptible to a high level of stress-inducing behaviours. Adolescents may suffer from weariness, guilt, depressive mood, discontent, a sense of failure, anger, and other symptoms associated with depression when they perceive an increase in stress (Choi & Dancy, 2009).

From the perspective of COVID-19, Agarwal et al. (2021) conducted a study to find out factors related to stress among adolescents and young adults in India during the COVID-19 pandemic. Findings showed that among 235 participants, nearly half of the respondents (53%) informed moderate level of stress, 42.3% low stress, and 7% severe level of stress. In addition, the mean scores of females were higher in perceived stress in terms of age, higher education, and occupation. However, the result of the current study is in line with a recent study conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic (Rehman et al., 2021). Due to the shift from a physical mode of education to e-learning through different digital platforms students have experienced many obstacles because e-learning tools sometimes create difficulty in understanding the subjects effectively, assignments, and management of time. Students were stressed and nervous about their academic performance and achievements. In this study, girls scored higher than boys in perceived stress. The discrepancy between girls and boys could be accounted to risk perception such as an increase in the perception of risks of dropping their academic performance when they dropped out of their educational duties. Moreover, Wang et al. (2020) in their study mentioned that women was one of the significant predictors of the adverse psychological impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, where they have undergone adverse psychological effect of the COVID-19 pandemic and intensified level of stress, anxiety, and low mood as compared to the males. Furthermore, prior evidence stated that female adolescents are more vulnerable to experiencing adverse emotions and higher levels of mental distress than their male counterparts during the COVID-19 pandemic (Qi et al., 2020; Batra et al., 2021; Magson et al., 2021). Gender differences such as heightened sensitivity to stressful events could explain why females have a higher rate and prevalence of psychological morbidity than males (Chaplin et al., 2008).

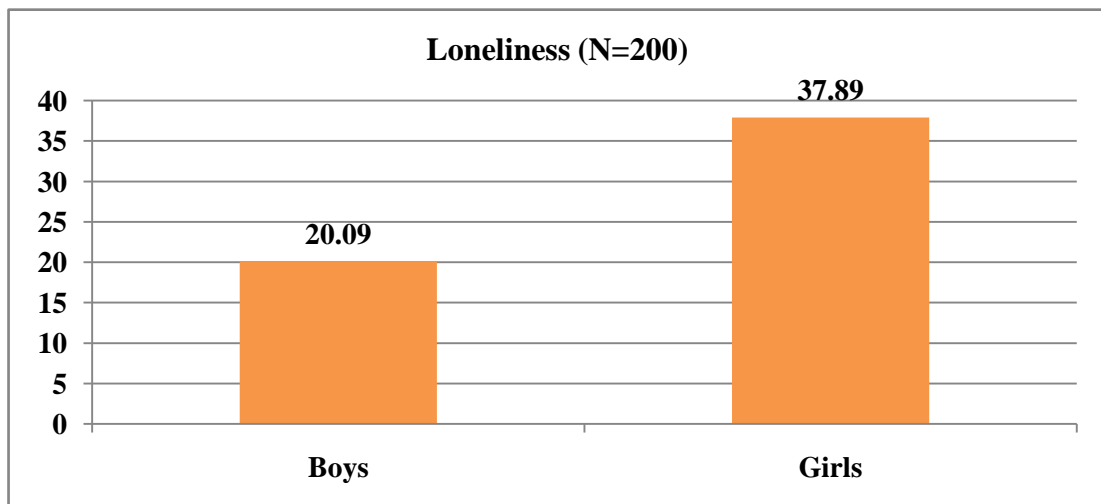
Therefore, hypothesis 4 which states “School-going adolescent girls will score high on perceived stress compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic” is accepted.

H5: School-going adolescent girls will score high on loneliness compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Table 5.8: Mean, SD and t-value among School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Loneliness (N=200)

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Sig
Loneliness	Boys	100	20.09	6.77	-18.44	.000
	Girls	100	37.89	6.87		

****p<.01**



Bar Diagram 5.10: Mean Value of School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Loneliness (N=200)

The t-test in Table 5.8 portrayed a significant gender difference in loneliness among the school-going adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic. It is evident from the table that the t-value of perceived stress of adolescent boys and girls is (-18.44) which is significant. It signifies that adolescent boys and girls of Assam differ considerably in perceived stress during the COVID-19 pandemic. Further, the mean score reveals that the girls (M=37.89) are found to be higher than the boys (M=20.09). The result of the present study is consistent with the previous study by Wang et al. (2021) indicated that COVID-19 measures had dissimilar effects on adolescents' mental health among six Asian countries, particularly Bangladesh and Indonesia high percentage of adolescents experienced stress and isolation because of pandemic than the other countries. Compared to males, females had more anxieties related to the COVID-19 pandemic. In addition, female adolescents in India were 1.13 times more likely than male adolescents to feel alone or anxious. Another factor contributing to the rise in anxiety and despair is the loneliness caused by physical distancing attempts intended to control COVID-19 from spreading (Lee et al., 2020; Ruggieri et al., 2021). Javed et al. (2021) found that females are more prone to loneliness than males. Another argument offered by Ang (2016) was that women suffer or complain about loneliness more than men because women favour socializing and connections overpower, whereas men prioritize power over relationships, and hence women have more close relationships than men. One recent study by Christ and Gray (2022) suggested even nine months after the epidemic, adolescents were still suffering from high levels of loneliness, with more than half reporting that they were lonelier at that time than they were before the outbreak.

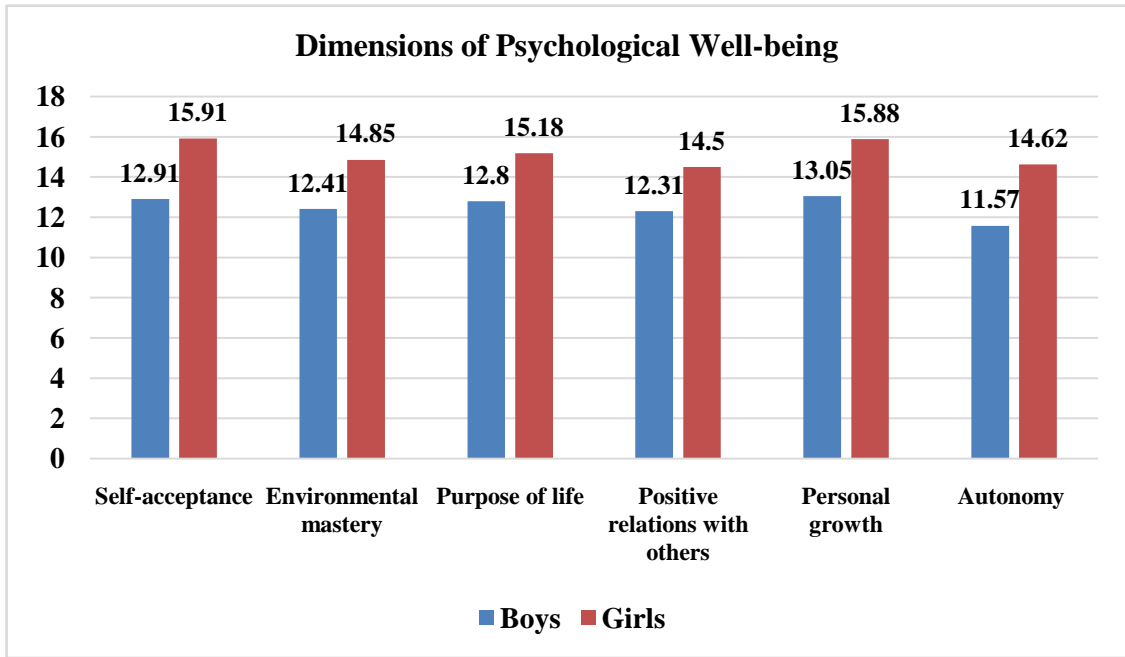
Therefore, hypothesis 5 which states “School-going adolescent girls will score high on loneliness compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic” is accepted.

H6a: School-going adolescent boys will score high on self-acceptance compared to the school-going adolescent girls of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic.

Table 5.9: Mean, SD and t-value among School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on Different dimensions of Psychological Well-being (N=200)

Dimensions	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Sig
Self-acceptance	Boys	100	12.91	2.72	-11.04	.000
	Girls	100	15.91	2.09		
Environmental mastery	Boys	100	12.41	2.24	-9.04	.000
	Girls	100	14.85	1.98		
Purpose of life	Boys	100	12.80	2.13	-9.38	.000
	Girls	100	15.18	2.48		
Positive relations with others	Boys	100	12.31	2.13	-9.38	.000
	Girls	100	14.50	2.48		
Personal growth	Boys	100	13.05	2.24	-9.01	.000
	Girls	100	15.88	2.18		
Autonomy	Boys	100	11.57	1.69	-9.94	.000
	Girls	100	14.62	2.55		

****p<.01**



Bar Diagram 5.11: Mean Value of School-going Adolescent Boys and Girls on the Dimension of Psychological Well-being (N=200)

The t-test in Table 5.9 portrayed a significant gender difference in the dimension of psychological well-being (self-acceptance) among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic. It is evident from the table that the t-value of self-acceptance among adolescent boys and girls is (-11.04) which is significant. In addition, the mean score of adolescent girls (M=15.91) is higher than that the adolescent boys (M=12.91). The finding of the current study contradicts the previous study conducted by Perez (2012) where males scored high on self-acceptance than females. Similarly, Pumpuang et al. (2021) conducted a study on psychological well-being among senior secondary students in Thailand, where the result indicated that boys scored higher on self-acceptance than girls. But research conducted by Folkman (2021) revealed that women’s experience increases their level of confidence over time. One possible explanation might be that due to the changes in the new

generation girls have become more liberal and tend to accept themselves in a positive matter than before.

Therefore, hypothesis 6a which states “School-going adolescent boys will score high on self-acceptance compared to the school-going adolescent girls of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic” is not accepted.

H6b: School-going adolescent girls will score high on environmental mastery compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic.

The t-test in Table 5.9 portrayed a significant gender difference in the dimension of psychological well-being (environmental mastery) among the school-going adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic. It is evident from the table that the t-value of environmental mastery among adolescent boys and girls is (-9.04) which is significant. Moreover, adolescent girls scored high on environmental mastery (M= 14.85) than adolescent boys (M=12.41). This signifies that adolescent girls have a better sense of their surroundings, are aware of opportunities around them, and can exert control over their external world. However, prior research contradicts the present findings such as Visani et al. (2011), who mentioned that no significant gender differences existed in this dimension of psychological well-being. But on the other hand, the findings of Sun et al. (2016) suggested that there was a significant gender difference in the dimensions of psychological well-being where girls scored high on environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, and purpose of life. One possible explanation may be that adolescent girls in Assam are capable of managing or handling day-to-day responsibilities in general as well as in difficult situations like the COVID-19 pandemic.

Therefore, hypothesis 6b which states “School-going adolescent girls will score high on environmental mastery compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic” is accepted.

H6c: School-going adolescent girls will score high on purpose of life compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic.

The t-test in Table 5.9 portrayed a significant gender difference in the dimension of psychological well-being (purpose of life) among the school-going adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic. It is evident from the table that the t-value of the purpose of life among adolescent boys and girls is (-9.38) which is significant. In addition, adolescent girls scored higher (M=15.18) than boys (M=12.80) in the purpose of life. The result of the present study is in line with the previous study by Perez (2012), where Filipino college-going female students yield high scores on the purpose of life dimension of psychological well-being than the males. This finding may be explained by the fact that school-going adolescent girls of Assam have more defined life goals and a sense of directedness, have a sense of meaning in their current and previous lives, and may hold beliefs that give them life purpose, and maybe directed toward life goals and objectives. Moreover, the results of the study do not seem to support the functionalist view which states that males are more oriented toward accomplishment and competitiveness than women because they pursue instrumental goals. The functionalist perspective may be useful in explaining differences between men and women in terms of interpersonal connections, but not in terms of meaning and direction. Possibly, the sex difference in developmental patterns of brain development of humans may help in enlightening this fact. A sense of purpose demands a particular amount of mental maturity which varies between males

and females during adolescence. As females reach full brain development maturity between the age of 21 and 22, whereas men do not reach full brain development maturity until they are 30 years old (Lenroot et al., 2007).

Therefore, hypothesis 6e which states “School-going adolescent girls will score high on purpose of life compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic” is accepted.

H6d: School-going adolescent girls will score high on positive relations with others compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic.

The t-test in Table 5.9 portrayed a significant gender difference in the dimension of psychological well-being (positive relations with others) among the school-going adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic. It is evident from the table that the t-value of positive relations with others among adolescent boys and girls is (-6.69) which is significant. It can be observed that adolescent girls scored higher in the dimension of positive relations with others (M=14.50) as compared to adolescent boys (M=12.31). The findings are in line with the previous studies of Colarossi & Eccles (2003) where they indicated that females report more support and care from friends or peers, as well as greater satisfaction for them. In general, females are more likely to engage in the relationship than males. This can be explained by the theory of gender-role socialization of Gilligan (1982) who highlighted a significant and pervasive difference in how boys and girls receive and perceive social and personal components of their interpersonal connections. Females are more concerned with interpersonal relationships whereas, males are more concerned with mastery and exploration of the world. According to evolutionary theory, Geary et al. (2003) boys

are more prone to pursue rivalry and domination in groups, while girls are predisposed to engage in personal relationships marked by caring and nurturance.

Therefore, hypothesis 6d which states “School-going adolescent girls will score high on positive relations with others compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic” is accepted.

H6e: School-going adolescent girls would score high on personal growth compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic.

The t-test in Table 5.9 portrayed a significant gender difference in the dimension of psychological well-being (personal growth) among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic. It is evident from the table that the t-value of personal growth among adolescent boys and girls is (-9.01) which is significant. Moreover, the mean score of adolescent girls (M=15.88) is higher than that of adolescent boys (M=13.05). The result is in line with the prior studies of Chraif and Dumitru (2015) who found a gender difference in personal growth, where girls scored reportedly higher than the boys depicting those adolescent girls feel a continuous development, are optimistic, are good at realizing their potential, and monitor their sleeves and behaviour over time. Similarly, Viejo et al. (2018) found girls scored higher than boys on the life development scale which corresponds to the personal growth dimension of Ryff’s psychological well-being scale, indicative of a developmental trend.

Therefore, hypothesis 6e which states “School-going adolescent girls will score high on personal growth compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic” is accepted.

H6f: School-going adolescent boys will score high on autonomy compared to school-going adolescent girls of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic.

The t-test in Table 5.9 portrayed a significant gender difference in the dimension of psychological well-being (autonomy) among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic. It is evident from the table that the t-value of autonomy among adolescent boys and girls is (-9.94) which is significant. Moreover, school-going adolescent girls have also scored high on autonomy (M=14.62) as compared to the boys (M=11.57) with a significant t-value (-9.94). The result of the study contradicts the previous findings of Perez (2012) where males scored high on autonomy than their female counterparts, which also confirms the study (Fleming, 2005). But the studies which are in support of these current findings are by Chraif and Dumitru (2015) who reported that there was a significant gender difference in the dimensions of psychological well-being where females scored higher on personal growth, positive relations with others, autonomy, and self-acceptance, whereas male participants scored higher on control, the meaning of life and quality of life. Adolescents generally develop a sense of autonomy through relationships with parents, family members, and peer groups. In general, individuals begin to have more opportunities to take responsibility for their own actions during preadolescence and adolescence. So, when they spend more time with peers and stay away from adults, they learn to handle situations and develop into more healthy and independent individuals (Russell et al., 2002).

Therefore, hypothesis 6f which states “School-going adolescent boys will score high on autonomy compared to school-going adolescent girls of Assam during COVID-19 pandemic” is not accepted.

H7: There will be a significant effect of selected socio-demographic variables on psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Table 5.10: *Effect of Selected Socio-demographic Variables on Psychological Well-being among the School-going Adolescents of Assam (N=200)*

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Sig.
.704	.496	.472	.000

Table 5.11: *Co-efficient of CATREG Model*

Model	Unstandardized Co-efficient	Sig.
Gender	.686	.000
Stream	.120	.004
Social group	.038	.000
Religion	.032	.878

The effect of gender, stream, social group, and religion on psychological well-being was examined to determine which of these selected socio-demographic variables has a significant effect on psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic. From Table 5.10, it can be observed that Categorical Regression Analysis (CATREG) was performed on all of the independent socio-demographic variables i.e. gender, stream, social group, and religion. The results showed that gender, stream, and social group except religion are significantly predicting psychological well-being ($F=8.24$, $p<.001$). Stepwise linear regression was applied to the transformed variables so that the results of the standardized and the unstandardized coefficients were the same. Therefore, the factors

affecting the psychological well-being of adolescents are gender, stream, and social group. The findings of the study are consistent with the previous studies of McKay (2020) who reported gender as a significant predictor of well-being among adolescents. Similarly, Thavorn et al. (2018) found gender as a predictor among Thailand students along with Waghmare (2017) who reported the same trend. Fernandes and Vasconcelos-Raposo (2012) found that the psychological well-being of adolescents is linked to specific socio-demographics such as gender, age, family structure, and place of residence. Shalini et al. (2021) conducted a study to find significant predictors of psychological well-being among school-going adolescents and found that socio-demographic determinants such as age, gender, medium of education religion, social group, education of parents, and occupation of parents significantly predicted psychological well-being.

Therefore, hypothesis 7 which states, “There will be a significant effect of selected socio-demographic variables on psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic” is accepted.

Qualitative Phase

Section (V)-Analysis of Qualitative Data

The qualitative data were analyzed to gain a piece of in-depth knowledge regarding the factors associated with perceived stress, loneliness, and psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-10 pandemic. The interview recordings and verbatim of the participants were transcribed using the thematic analysis method. Categories and sub-categories were formed with the help of the concepts.

Table 5.12: *Socio-Demographic Profile of the Participants (N=10)*

Participants	Age	Gender	Stream	Class
P1	17	Female	Science	XII
P2	18	Female	Science	XII
P3	17	Female	Commerce	XII
P4	17	Female	Commerce	XII
P5	18	Female	Arts	XII
P6	17	Male	Science	XII
P7	17	Male	Science	XII
P8	17	Male	Science	XII
P9	18	Male	Commerce	XII
P10	18	Male	Commerce	XII

From Table 5.12, it can be seen that ten participants were chosen who scored low on psychological well-being, and high on perceived stress and loneliness during

the COVID-19 pandemic. The majority of the participants belonged to the science background followed by commerce and arts.

Table 5.13: *Thematic Analysis of the Data of the Participants (N=10)*

Sl. no	Themes	Sub-themes
1.	Personal problems faced by adolescents	Worried, adjustment
2.	Physical and Mental health	Acceptance, mass media
3.	Loneliness	Virtual world, family structure
4.	Socialization	Lack of social support from family members and relatives, anxiety
5.	Fear	Contracting diseases, academic stress

Theme 1: Personal Problems Faced by Adolescents

Adolescents have faced numerous difficulties and distress during the COVID-19 pandemic with a wide range of problems and challenges which had psychological health consequences for everybody. The participants shared different aspects of their sense of distress and two sub-themes were revealed such as mode of education and adjustment, which provided a deeper understanding of their challenges during the COVID-19 pandemic.

(a) Worried

The participants have reported that they were anxious about the mode of education. Participants have mentioned that the transition from offline to online

classes has made it difficult for them to keep up with their daily studies. They have expressed concerns about "too much homework" and "educational quality". This can be identified from the verbatim of the participants such as - *"Because of COVID-19, we were not allowed to attend physical classes like before. So, attending online classes is not easy at home. Chapter's remains unclear, so if the basic is not clear it becomes difficult for us to understand the following chapters"* (Participant 5).

(b) Adjustment

The participants expressed difficulty adjusting to new circumstances such as social isolation, house confinement, and online schooling, as well as de-motivating environmental settings. These can be seen from the comments such as *"I am very afraid of the situations now even though we are staying at home anything could have"* (Participant 8). *"I am having a hard time adjusting as; there are lots of people in my house, as well as with the online classes"* (Participant 5).

Theme 2: Physical and Mental Health

Due to home confinement under COVID-19, people's physical activities and outdoor time decreased and adolescent's experienced comparable issues such as being sluggish and lethargic, which negatively impacted their mental health. Participants expressed feelings of loneliness, boredom, and anxiety, showing that they were unwilling to accept the pandemic's viewpoint. As a result, it may be concluded that adolescents were suffering from poor mental health and significant hardship.

(a) Acceptance

The participants mentioned difficulty in embracing the current circumstances while pondering over what the future will bring. A widespread, negative atmosphere

has brought about the feeling of negative emotions and a pessimistic attitude toward life. The direct quotes from the participant showed that- *“Newness in life, which have brought about sickness and chaos”*. (Participant 3)

(b) Mass Media

Mass media have spread awareness regarding the positive measure which was taken to prevent COVID-19 disease in the community. Moreover, participants have perceived negative emotions during the COVID-19 period because mass media have also come up with aversive news which has created anxiety, fear, and sadness among adolescence. As the news channels, primarily focused on death and grave consequences leading to public panic. The comments made by the participants were *“I was worried for my health, we saw so much depressing news from various sources which cause us to worry about ourselves as well as our parents”* (Participant 10). One more comment made by the participants was *“Even though we daily see the negative news all around but at the same time, we came to know about the positive health measures to fight with COVID-19 through media”* (Participant 2).

Theme3: Loneliness

During the interview, the participants were asked if they could describe how frequently they felt lonely. One consistent pattern that emerged was the use of virtual connections, which restricted emotional attachment among adolescents as a result of the COVID-19 measures. The participants said they felt quite lonely during the lockdown since they couldn't go outside, which affected the quality of their social interactions with their peers.

(a) Virtual World

To compensate for in-person engagement, virtual communication may function as a neutral complement rather than a replacement. Participants in the study stated that, despite being virtually connected with their friends and relatives, some aspects of their lives were lacking that could not be compensated for. These could be comprehended from the direct quote of the participants such as *“As humans are social animals spending time and hanging out with friends was missing, even though we were connected through online games and in social media but it cannot compensate the physical interaction”*(Participant 7).

(b) Family Structure

Family structure plays a vital role in dealing with catastrophic situations. In times of crisis, support from friends and family is of utmost priority. According to the participants' verbatim, the pandemic has both negative and positive effects on them. As a single child in a nuclear family, one participant reported feeling lonely at times. However, one of the other participants stated that COVID-19 was beneficial to her because she had always stayed at a hostel as a child and was able to spend quality time with her parents. *“I am an only child who used to stay in hostels with my friends and felt quite lonely at home at times”* (Participant 1). *“During COVID-19 I could spend more time with my mother and sisters because from a very young age I have been staying in a hostel”* (Participant 3).

(4) Socialization

The virus affected the social life of people through the imposition of restrictions by the government. Limited or no access to outdoor activities as well as

school closure made it difficult to participate in recreational activities. Hence, two sub-themes emerged such as-

(a) Lack of Social Support from Family Members and Relatives

Social support from other members of society has decreased as a result of social alienation and home isolation, despite the presence of emotional support. The calming effect of friends, relatives, and acquaintances can be conceived of as social support, especially during pandemics may help them relieve their physical and mental distress. The direct quotes from the participants show that *“During the first waves my parents suffered from COVID-19 and I took care of them, even though relative supported us emotionally but there was no helping hand”* (Participant 7).

(b) Anxiety

The closure of schools and the suspension of classes have increased the level of stress and anxiety among students. The majority of participants stated that online classes were inconvenient which leads to learning difficulties for them. The direct quotes from the participants can be seen *“I am afraid for the board exam since we saw that previous year no board exam was held so, this year if the pandemic hit again with increase cases, it could be a problem”* (Participant 1). *“I’m worried about my board exam and the forthcoming entrance exam, which makes me nervous”* (Participant 6).

(5) Fear

Fear of COVID-19 arose from anxiety and fear, as well as a lack of knowledge about the disease, resulting in societal stigma. Participants expressed concern about their parents, as well as the stigma connected with COVID-19 sickness and the lack of necessities. The two sub-themes which were discovered are:

(a) Contracting the Disease

Responses from the participants reflected challenges associated with exposure or contracting the virus for themselves or their family members which caused fear development. The comments made by the participants such as *“I am scared to go outside”* (Participant 10).

(b) Academic Stress

One of the biggest concerns has been the pandemic's impact on adolescents' academic achievement. Educational institutions all across the world were shut down for extended periods due to the lockdowns and movement restrictions, and schools were forced to shift from offline teaching to online. The participants reported that their basic concepts remained unclear, and there is a compromise in the quality of teaching. More importantly, the participants from science backgrounds reported poor understanding of scientific or mathematical areas. Moreover, throughout the pandemic, adolescent academic motivation was lower in online mode in comparison to physical school days. The comments made by participants were *“Because of COVID-19, we were not allowed to attend physical classes like before. So, attending online classes is not easy at home. The chapter remains unclear, particularly regarding the mathematical problem. If the basics are not clear it becomes difficult for us to understand the following”* (Participant 7).

Overall, the analysis revealed that the adolescents were concerned and anxious about their future goals. Adolescents' daily routines were disrupted as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, resulting in adjustment issues to the new normal. Moreover, because socialization was restricted due to the COVID-19 protocols, they experienced

loneliness to some extent. Furthermore, academic stress, limited socialization, and adjustment issues all had an impact on psychological well-being.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

COVID-19 pandemic has created an unprecedented impact on the well-being of every individual, especially young individuals within the age group of 15-29 years. Globally, it has been reported that 10-20% of adolescents are suffering from a mental health condition and statistics show that they are more vulnerable to developing mental health diseases (Bruining et al., 2020; WHO, 2020). So, there is a requirement for enthusiastic help to reduce mental health problems among adolescents in order to maintain their psychological well-being. In such a situation parental care is of utmost priority, providing their children with appropriate measures. Parents will know about the effect and importance of their parenting styles on their child's ability in dealing with stressful situations.

Due to the multiple physiological, psychological, and social changes that occur during adolescence, the risk of development of stress and loneliness is higher in adolescents. This study will provide insight to the parents, teachers, education policymakers and other investigators about parenting style, perceived stress, loneliness, and psychological well-being in adolescents, both quantitatively and qualitatively.

It will guide the teachers, parents, and education policymakers about the role of psychological well-being in developing the right parenting style, and coping with stress and loneliness among adolescents. It will help them to design their daily activities, interactions, and curriculum that may develop a feeling of contentment, evaluation of

work efficiency, raise coping stress, and develop interpersonal relations among adolescents.

Hence, the rising level of psychological well-being will enable them to tackle challenging situations in their everyday life. The investigation will guide parents to raise their children by practising a healthy parenting style and providing them with a congenial environment, in which they may feel free to share their queries, opinions, and emotions with their parents. It may help adolescents to share problems by using parents' advice, before implementing it.

Objectives

O1: To find out the relationship between parenting style, perceived stress, loneliness and psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

O2: To determine the significant predictors of parenting styles, perceived stress, and loneliness on psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

O3: To make a gender-wise comparison on the variables of parenting styles, perceived stress, loneliness and psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

O4: To evaluate the effect of selected socio-demographic variables on psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Hypotheses

H1: There would exist a significant relationship between parenting styles, perceived stress, loneliness and psychological well-being among the adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H2: Parenting styles, perceived stress and loneliness would contribute significantly to predicting psychological well-being conjointly as well as independently among the school going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H3a: Adolescent girls will score high on authoritarian parenting style compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H3b: Adolescent boys will score high on authoritative parenting style compared to the school-going adolescent girls of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H3c: Adolescent boys will score high on permissive parenting style compared to the school-going adolescent girls of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H4: Adolescent girls will score high on perceived stress compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H5: Adolescent girls will score high on loneliness compared to the school-going adolescent girls of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H6a: School-going adolescent boys will score high on self-acceptance compared to the school-going adolescent girls of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H6b: School-going adolescent girls will score high on environmental mastery compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H6c: School-going adolescent girls will score high on purpose of life compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H6d: School-going adolescent girls will score high on positive relations with others compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H6e: School-going adolescent girls will score high on personal growth compared to the school-going adolescent boys of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H6f: School-going adolescent boys will score high on autonomy compared to the school-going adolescent girls of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

H7: There will be a significant effect of selected socio-demographic variables on psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Methodology

Sample

The sample for the present study comprised 200 school-going adolescents who were chosen through a purposive sampling method (100= girls, 100 boys) from four schools in Dibrugarh district, Assam (Salt Brook Academy, Gyan Vigyan Academy, Dr Radha Krishna School of Arts, Commerce and Science, Sri Sri Aniruddha Deva Junior College. The age group of participants was between 16 to 19 years.

Measures

The following standardized instruments are to be utilized during the investigation:

1. Socio-demographic Datasheet (*Self, 2021*):

The socio-demographic datasheet consisted of the personal record of the participants like name, age, sex, community, religion, streams (Arts, Science, and Commerce), etc.

2. Parental Authority Questionnaire:

This questionnaire was based on Baumrind's (1971) three prototypes of parental authority: permissiveness, authoritarianism, and authoritative. There are 30 items present in the questionnaire covering three dimensions of parenting style i.e. permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative, each parenting style consists of 10 items.

3. Perceived Stress Questionnaire:

Levenstein et al. (1993) developed the perceived stress questionnaire. The perceived stress questionnaire consists of 30 items which are self-report questionnaires. The items are rated on a 4- point scale where the responses range from almost never (1) to usually (4). The Cronbach's alpha score for this scale is 0.88 and reliability 0.88.

4. UCLA Loneliness Scale:

This scale consists of a 20-item scale designed to measure one's subjective feelings of loneliness as well as feelings of social isolation. It is a 4-point rating scale, the scores range from 20 to 80. The items are reverse scored whereby the higher the score, the higher the loneliness.

5. Psychological well-being Scale:

This scale was developed by Ryff and Keyes (1995) and consisted of 18 item self-report scales in which the participants rate themselves. There are 6 dimensions in this scale such as self-acceptance, environmental mastery, the purpose of life, positive relations with others, personal growth and autonomy. The psychological well-being scale is a 7-point Likert scale in which the responses for each item range from strongly agree to strongly disagree and vice-versa.

The Procedure of Data Collection

The concerned principals in the various schools were contacted for permission to collect data from the participants. After the respondent's assent, the main aim of the study was explained, and clear instructions were given to fill out the questionnaire. After assuring the participants that their responses would be kept confidential, the questionnaire was collected from them along with the detailed demographic data. Furthermore, the interview was conducted with the selected participants.

Statistical Techniques Used

Different statistical techniques were employed keeping given the objectives and hypothesis. For quantitative analysis, SPSS version 23 was used to compute the data. For descriptive statistics, Pearson's correlation coefficient, t-test, and hierarchical regression were used to find out any significant relationship, difference, and prediction among the selected variables. Moreover, for qualitative analysis, the thematic analysis method was used.

Major Findings

Section I: Findings on Socio-demographic Variables

- Among the 200 participants, 50 percent were adolescent boys and 50 percent were adolescent girls.
- Out of the 200 participants, in terms of stream-wise distribution, 35 percent belonged to science, 30 percent to commerce, and 35 percent to arts.
- In terms of social group 25.5 percent belonged to the general category, 7.5 percent were SC, 25 percent were ST and 41 percent were OBC and 1 percent from the other category.
- Religion-wise most of the participants were Hindu comprising 87 percent; Muslims were 10 percent and 3 percent were Christian. No participants belonged to Buddhism and Others category.

Section II: Findings on Relationship among the Variables

- Permissive parenting style significantly correlated with psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.
- Authoritarian parenting style significantly correlated with psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.
- Authoritative parenting style significantly correlated with psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.
- Perceived stress significantly correlated with psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

- Loneliness significantly correlated with psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.
- Permissive parenting style significantly predicted psychological well-being among school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.
- Perceived stress significantly predicted psychological well-being among school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Section III: Findings on Gender Difference among the Variables

- School-going adolescent girls scored high on perceived stress than school-going adolescent boys.
- School-going adolescent girls scored high on loneliness than school-going adolescent boys.
- A significant gender difference exists among different dimensions of psychological well-being among school-going adolescents of Assam during the COVID-19 pandemic.
- School-going adolescent girls scored high on self-acceptance than school-going adolescent boys.
- School-going adolescent girls scored high on environmental mastery than school-going adolescent boys.
- School-going adolescent girls scored high on the purpose of life than school-going adolescent boys.

- School-going adolescent girls scored high on personal growth than school-going adolescent boys.
- School-going adolescent girls scored high on positive relations with others than school-going adolescent boys.
- School-going adolescent girls scored high on autonomy than school-going adolescent boys.

Section IV: Findings on Selected Socio-demographic Variables

- Stepwise linear regression showed that independent socio-demographic variables such as gender, stream, and social group except religion predicted psychological well-being among school-going adolescents.

Section V: Findings on Qualitative Data

- Thematic analysis revealed that the adolescents were concerned and anxious about their future goals.
- Adolescents' daily routines were disrupted as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, resulting in adjustment issues to the new normal.
- Moreover, they experienced loneliness to some extent because socialization was restricted due to the COVID-19 protocols.
- Furthermore, academic stress, limited socialization, and adjustment issues all had an impact on their psychological well-being.

6.1 Strengths and Limitations of the Study

The study's strengths and limitations have been discussed. According to my understanding, studies have been carried out to know the impact of COVID-19 on the mental health of adolescents globally, but no studies have been conducted to know the combined effect of parenting styles, perceived stress, loneliness, and psychological well-being among the school-going adolescents in the North-Eastern area of India particularly using mixed-method research. The study provides a new perspective to the existing literature on the psychological well-being of adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic. This study revealed that adolescent girls' levels of felt stress and loneliness were much higher than adolescent boys' levels. Despite their weak coping skills, they were able to retain a higher level of psychological well-being than the adolescent boys. This information may aid parents, teachers, or school counsellors in recognizing a child's risk of developing various mental health issues and initiating intervention programs. In the qualitative study, adolescents discussed their challenges during the COVID-19 pandemic, including fear of contracting the disease, stigmatization, loneliness owing to limited socialization, anxiety about academic performance, and adjustment problems due to the new normal. The study has enlightened how different domains of psychological well-being such as self-acceptance, environmental mastery, the purpose of life, personal growth, positive relations with others and autonomy might be related to adolescents and its association with perceived stress and loneliness. Furthermore, the study's strength is that the questionnaires have aided in identifying the reasons for perceived stress, loneliness, and psychological well-being adopted by the adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Some of the limitations of this current study are as follows-

- Due to the limited time, few samples were considered for the study, so it may not be generalizable to the whole population.
- The sample was confined to 200 students from class XII.
- The present study was restricted to Co-Ed. senior secondary students only.
- The sample of the students belonged to schools studying in private schools.
- The sample of the urban schools was restricted to the Dibrugarh district.
- However, a longitudinal study with a larger sample would lead to a better to gain a proper understanding of the psychological well-being of adolescents during a traumatic situation as such.
- Father's parenting style should be adopted in future studies to analyze the effect of the parenting style of both the parents.

6.2 Implications of the Study

The implications of the study are as follows:

- School counsellors should be appointed in all schools, whether private or public, to look after the overall well-being of adolescents.
- Mental health awareness programs should be organized for both parents and children in order to get an overview of vulnerable psychological problems faced by children and adolescents.
- To raise awareness of the relationship between parenting styles and psychological well-being, school meetings or family seminars can be organized.
- Mental health promotion interventions for adolescents should be introduced in schools by concerned authorities with the help of mental health experts such as the

Bounce Back program and Bright Ideas for fostering resilience and coping skills, the Penn Resiliency Program for boosting optimism and preventing depression, and the Stress Inoculation training for preventing anxiety in children and adolescents.

- Life skills programs should be taught to adolescents in order to deal effectively with challenging situational demands and various life stressors such as the COVID-19 pandemic.
- The practice of yoga should be introduced in schools as a curriculum to train their mind and body to maintain emotional balance.

6.3 Conclusion

COVID-19 has disrupted the lives of many people including children and adolescents. During the initial phase of COVID-19, adolescents experience a cloud of a novel or intensified stressor that affected their psychological well-being. The findings of the study indicated a strong connection between perceived stress and psychological well-being among school-going adolescents of Assam. Research has confirmed that the spread of COVID-19 has lowered the mental health of adolescents (Hawes et al., 2021). Because adolescents' peer networks were constrained by stay-at-home during COVID-19, the results indicated that adolescents experienced a substantial degree of loneliness, especially adolescent girls.

However, the experience of psychological well-being is characterized by both positive and negative feelings among adolescents. Some might report benefits and adjust while others experienced sadness and unsatisfied. In that kind of situation, parental social support may have been a significant component of effective adolescent adjustment. The findings of the study have shown that a significant relationship

existed between parenting styles such as permissive, authoritarian, authoritative and psychological well-being among school-going adolescents. Even when both parents work full-time, mothers are believed to spend more time caring for their children than fathers (Hochschild, 2003). As a result, it is critical to study how adolescents cope with pandemic-related stress daily, as well as which coping techniques and supports protect them from the negative effects of stress on their mental health. This shows that parenting styles should not be considered in isolation as they contribute significantly to how parenting styles are communicated to children.

Moreover, this research has also highlighted qualitative analysis to inquiry for a greater understanding of how stress and loneliness have influenced the well-being of adolescents and the changes brought throughout the pandemic. Overall, the analysis of adolescents indicated that they have experienced hardship which includes stress about academic performance, learning difficulties, socialization and adjustment problems.

Therefore, the findings of the study provided a direction to the parents, teachers and school counsellors to provide better stress management skills for the school-going adolescents, providing adequate guidance and support to help them deal with loneliness, stressful situations in general as well as in traumatic situations to maintain their psychological well-being.

6.3 Recommendation for Further Research

Various kinds of problems are faced by adolescents such as loneliness, stress, anxiety, depression, self-esteem, and well-being. The present study however revealed few interesting results about loneliness, perceived stress, and psychological well-being among school-going adolescents. Some of the suggestions for further research are given below:

- The study was conducted only on Assam school sample providing general courses. Efforts need to be made to broaden the size of the sample including more schools. Larger samples would definitely help to generalize the results.
- This study may also be replicated in other north-eastern states like Sikkim, Manipur, Tripura, Nagaland, etc.
- A comparative study may also be carried out to find the differences between rural and urban area school-going adolescents on psychological well-being.
- Since the parenting style of mothers was considered, therefore, father's parenting style can also be conducted to gain a deeper understanding of the psychological well-being of school-going students.
- Future research should focus on post-COVID psychological well-being and adjustment difficulties in adolescents to determine which individual, family, or school factors may help to mitigate the long-term psychosocial effects of a multi-systemic disease.

Thus, current research studies established good scope in the area of psychological well-being and will contribute to making a noteworthy and sensible contribution in the future.

REFERENCES

- Agarwal, N., Harikar, M. M., Shukla, R., & Bajpai, A. (2021). Factors Determining Psychological Stress among Indian Adolescents and Young Adults during the COVID-19 Outbreak. *Indian Journal of Social Psychiatry*, 37(1), 82-87. <https://www.indjsp.org/text.asp?2021/37/1/82/312872>
- Ahmedbookani, S. (2014). Psychological well-being and Parenting styles as Predictors of Mental Health among Students: Implication for Health Promotion. *International Journal of Pediatrics*, 2(3.3), 39-46. <http://eprints.mums.ac.ir/id/eprint/6797>
- Ahsan Khodami, M., Hassan Seif, M., Sadat Koochakzadeh, R., Fathi, R., & Kaur, H. (2021). Perceived Stress, Emotion Regulation and Quality of Life during the COVID-19 Outbreak: A Multi-Cultural Online Survey. *Annales Médico-Psychologiques, Revue Psychiatrique*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amp.2021.02.005>
- Akca, C. (2012). Dogme Unplugged [Paper presentation]. First International Symposium on Language and Communication. Izmir, Turkey.
- Akhter, S. (2015). Psychological Well-being in Student of Gender Difference. *The International Journal of Indian Psychology*, 2(4), 153-161. <https://ijip.in/wp-content/uploads/2020/05/B00337V2I42015.pdf>
- American Psychological Association Dictionary of Psychology (2022). 750 First St. NE, Washington, DC 20002-4242
- Ang, C. S. (2016). Types of Social Connectedness and Loneliness: The Joint Moderating Effects of Age and Gender. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, 11(4), 1173-1187. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-015-9428-5>

- Appel, M., Holtz, P., Stiglbauer, B., & Batinic, B. (2012). Parents as a Resource: Communication Quality Affects the Relationship between Adolescents' Internet use and Loneliness. *Journal of Adolescence*, 35(6), 1641–1648.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2012.08.003>
- Arthur, N. (1998). Gender Differences in the Stress and Coping Experiences of First Year Post-secondary Students. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy*, 12(4), 21–36. https://doi.org/10.1300/j035v12n04_03
- Arulrajah, A. A., & Harun, L. M. H. (2000). Relationship of Psychological Well-Being with Perceived Stress, Coping Styles, and Social Support amongst University Undergraduates. *Speeches/Meeting Papers*.
- Aslan, I., Ochnik, D., & Çınar, O. (2020). Exploring Perceived Stress among Students in Turkey during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(23), 8961.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17238961>
- Assam Population Census Data (2011). Ministry of Health & Family Welfare, Nirman Bhawan, New Delhi – 110011
- Azman, Z., Mauz, E., Reitzle, M., Genee, R., Hölling, H., & Rattay, P. (2021). Associations between Parenting Style and Mental Health in Children and Adolescents Aged 11–17 Years: Results of the KiGGS Cohort Study (Second Follow-Up). *Children*, 8(8), 672. <https://doi.org/10.3390/children8080672>
- Babree, S. (1997). *Aggressive and Non Aggressive Children's Perception of Parental Acceptance-Rejection and Control* (Unpublished M. Phil Dissertation). National Institute of Psychology, Quaid -i-Azam University, Islamabad.

- Bakker, M. P., Ormel, J., Verhulst, F. C., & Oldehinkel, A. J. (2012). Childhood Family Instability and Mental Health Problems during Late Adolescence: A Test of Two Mediation Models—the TRAILS Study. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology, 41*(2), 166–176. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15374416.2012.651990>
- Batra, K., Sharma, M., Batra, R., Singh, T. P., & Schvaneveldt, N. (2021). Assessing the Psychological Impact of COVID-19 among College Students: An Evidence of 15 Countries. *Healthcare, 9*(2), 222. <https://doi.org/10.3390/healthcare9020222>
- Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The Need to Belong: Desire for Interpersonal Attachments as a Fundamental Human Motivation. *Psychological Bulletin, 117*(3), 497-529. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.117.3.497>.
- Baumrind, D. (1966). Effects of Authoritative Parental Control on Child Behaviour. *Child Development, 37*(4), 887-907. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.2307/1126611>
- Baumrind, D. (1967). Child Care Practices Antecedent Three Patterns of Preschool Behavior. *Genetic Psychology Monographs*.
- Baumrind, D. (1971). Current Patterns of Parental Authority. *Developmental Psychology, 4*(1, Pt.2), 1–103. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/h0030372>
- Baumrind, D. (1991). The Influence of Parenting Style on Adolescent Competence and Substance Use. *The Journal of Early Adolescence, 11*(1), 56–95. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0272431691111004>
- Baumrind, D., Larzelere, R. E., & Owens, E. B. (2010). Effects of Preschool Parents' Power Assertive Patterns and Practices on Adolescent Development. *Parenting:*

Science and Practice, 10(3), 157-201.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/15295190903290790>

Berg, B. (2011). The Effects of Parenting Styles on a Preschool Aged Child's Social Emotional. *Developmental Science*, 12(1), 94-200.

Berjot, S., & Gillet, N. (2011). Stress and Coping with Discrimination and Stigmatization. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 2(33).

<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2011.00033>

Berry, J. W., Phinney, J. S., Sam, D. L., & Vedder, P. (2006). Immigrant Youth: Acculturation, Identity, and Adaptation. *Applied Psychology*, 55(3), 303–332.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2006.00256.x>

Berry, J.W. (2007). Acculturation in J.E. Grusec & P.O. Hastings Handbook of Socialization, New York Gailford.

Beyers, W., & Goossens, L. (2008). Dynamics of Perceived Parenting and Identity Formation in Late Adolescence. *Journal of Adolescence*, 31(2), 165-184.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2007.04.003>

Bhagchandani, R. K. (2017). Effect of Loneliness on the Psychological Well-being of College Students. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 7(1), 60-64.

Biswas, S. (2019). To Study the Gender-wise Difference in Parenting Styles of Mother and Father. *Scholarly Journal of Psychology and Behavioral Sciences*, 2(5).

<https://doi.org/10.32474/sjpbs.2019.02.000148>

- Blakemore, S. J., & Mills, K. L. (2014). Is Adolescence a Sensitive Period for Socio-cultural Processing? *Annual Review of Psychology*, 65(1), 187–207.
<https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-010213-115202>
- Bornstein, M. H. (2002). *Handbook of Parenting: Practical Issues in Parenting*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Bornstein, M. H., & Zlotnik, D. (2008). Parenting styles and their Effects. *Encyclopedia of Infant and Early Childhood Development*, 496-509.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/B978-012370877-9.00118-3>
- Brand, S., Gerber, M., Beck, J., Kalak, N., Hatzinger, M., Pühse, U., & Holsboer-Trachsler, E. (2011). Perceived Parenting styles Differ between Genders but not between Elite Athletes and Controls. *Adolescent Health, Medicine and Therapeutics*, 2, 9-14. <https://dx.doi.org/10.2147%2FAHMT.S16992>
- Brittain, C. V. (1963). Adolescent Choices and Parent-Peer Cross-pressures. *American Sociological Review*, 28(3), 385–391. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2090349>
- Brooks, J. B. (1991). *The Process of Parenting*. Mayfield, California: Palo Alto.
- Brougham, R. R., Zail, C. M., Mendoza, C. M., & Miller, J. R. (2009). Stress, Sex Differences, and Coping Strategies among College Students. *Current Psychology*, 28(2), 85–97. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-009-9047-0>
- Bruining, H., Bartels, M., Polderman, T. J., & Popma, A. (2021). COVID-19 and Child and Adolescent Psychiatry: An Unexpected Blessing for Part of our Population? *European Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, 30(7), 1139-1140.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00787-020-01578-5>

- Bu, F., Steptoe, A., & Fancourt, D. (2020). Loneliness during a Strict Lockdown: Trajectories and Predictors during the COVID-19 Pandemic in 38,217 United Kingdom Adults. *Social Science & Medicine*, 265, 113521. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2020.113521>
- Buri, J. R. (1991). Parental Authority Questionnaire. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 57(1), 110-119. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1207/s15327752jpa5701_13
- Cacioppo, J. T., & Cacioppo, S. (2018). Loneliness in the Modern Age: An Evolutionary Theory of Loneliness (ETL). *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 127–197. <https://doi.org/10.1016/bs.aesp.2018.03.003>
- Cacioppo, J. T., & Patrick, W. (2008). *Loneliness: Human Nature and the Need for Social Connection*. WW Norton & Company.
- Cahyadi, M. D. (2019). Loneliness and Psychological Well-being on International Students of the Darmasiswa Program at Universities Negeri Yogyakarta. *Psychological Research and Intervention*, 2(2), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.21831/pri.v2i2.30326>
- Calafat, A., García, F., Juan, M., Becoña, E., & Fernández-Hermida, J. R. (2014). Which Parenting Style is more protective against Adolescent Substance Use? Evidence within the European Context. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, 138, 185–192. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2014.02.705>
- Campbell, A., & Ntobedzi, A. (2007). Emotional Intelligence, Coping and Psychological Distress: A Partial Least Squares Approach to Developing a Predictive Model. *E-Journal of Applied Psychology*, 3(2). <https://doi.org/10.7790/ejap.v3i2.91>

- Carruthers, C., & Hood, C. D. (2004). The Power of the Positive: Leisure and Well-Being. *Therapeutic Recreation Journal*, 38(2), 225-245.
<https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2004-19333-008>
- Carter, R. S., & Wojtkiewicz, R. A. (2000). Parental Involvement with Adolescent's Education: Do Daughters or Sons get more Help? *Adolescence*, 35(137), 29-44.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10841295/>
- Caspi, A., Moffitt, T. E., Cannon, M., McClay, J., Murray, R., Harrington, H., ... & Craig, I. W. (2005). Moderation of the Effect of Adolescent-Onset Cannabis Use on Adult Psychosis by a Functional Polymorphism in the Catechol-O-Methyltransferase Gene: Longitudinal Evidence of a Gene X Environment Interaction. *Biological Psychiatry*, 57(10), 1117-1127.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopsych.2005.01.026>
- Chan, T. W., & Koo, A. (2010). Parenting style and Youth Outcomes in the UK. *European Sociological Review*, 1-15.
<http://users.ox.ac.uk/~sfos0006/papers/esr2010.pdf>
- Chaplin, T. M., Hong, K., Bergquist, K., & Sinha, R. (2008). Gender Differences in Response to Emotional Stress: An Assessment across Subjective, Behavioral, and Physiological Domains and Relations to Alcohol Craving. *Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research*, 32(7), 1242–1250. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1530-0277.2008.00679.x>
- Chemtob, C. M., Nomura, Y., Rajendran, K., Yehuda, R., Schwartz, D., & Abramovitz, R. (2010). Impact of Maternal Post-traumatic Stress Disorder and Depression Following Exposure to the September 11 Attacks on Preschool Children's

- Behavior. *Child Development*, 81(4), 1129–1141. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2010.01458.x>
- Chen, N., Zhou, M., Dong, X., Qu, J., Gong, F., Han, Y., ...& Zhang, L. (2020). Epidemiological and Clinical Characteristics of 99 Cases of 2019 Novel Corona virus Pneumonia in Wuhan, China: A Descriptive Study. *The Lancet*, 395(10223), 507-513. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(20\)30211-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30211-7)
- Choi, H., & Dancy, B. L. (2009). Korean American Adolescents' and their Parents' Perceptions of Acculturative Stress. *Journal of Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Nursing*, 22(4), 203-210. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6171.2009.00200.x>
- Chraif, M., & Dumitru, D. (2015). Gender Differences on Well-being and Quality of Life at Young Students at Psychology. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 180, 1579–1583. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.02.310>
- Christ, C. C., & Gray, J. M. (2022). Factors Contributing to Adolescents' COVID-19 related Loneliness, Distress, and Worries. *Current Psychology*, 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-022-02752-5>
- Cohen, L. H., Burt, C. E., & Bjorck, J. P. (1987). Life Stress and Adjustment: Effects of Life Events Experienced by Young Adolescents and their Parents. *Developmental Psychology*, 23(4), 583-592. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.23.4.583>
- Cohen, S., Kamarck, T., & Mermelstein, R. (1983). A Global Measure of Perceived Stress. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 24(4), 385–396. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2136404>

- Colarossi, L. G., & Eccles, J. S. (2003). Differential Effects of Support Providers on Adolescents' Mental Health. *Social Work Research*, 27(1), 19–30.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/swr/27.1.19>
- Conger, R. (2020). *Families in Troubled Times: Adapting to Change in Rural America*. Routledge.
- Conger, R.D., & Elder, G.H. (1994). *Families in Troubled Times: Adapting to Change in Rural America*. New York: Aldine De Gruyter.
- Cooper, K. (2020). Don't Let Children be the Hidden Victims of COVID-19 Pandemic.
<https://www.unicef.org/press-releases/dont-let-children-be-hidden-victims-covid-19-pandemic>.
- Coronavirus (COVID-19) Weekly Report (WHO) 2020.
- Crick, N. R., & Ladd, G. W. (1993). Children's Perceptions of their Peer Experiences: Attributions, Loneliness, Social anxiety, and Social avoidance. *Developmental Psychology*, 29(2), 244–254. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.29.2.244>
- Darling, N., & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting Style as Context: An Integrative Model. *Psychological Bulletin*, 113(3), 487–496. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.113.3.487>
- Deatherage, S., Servaty-Seib, H. L., & Aksoz, I. (2013). Stress, Coping, and Internet Use of College Students. *Journal of American College Health*, 62(1), 40–46.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/07448481.2013.843536>

- Degu, G., & Yigzaw, T. (2006). Research Methodology. Retrieved from Ethiopia:
[https://www.cartercenter.org/resources/pdfs/health/ephti/library/lecture
notes/health_science_students/ln_research_method_final.pdf](https://www.cartercenter.org/resources/pdfs/health/ephti/library/lecture_notes/health_science_students/ln_research_method_final.pdf).
- Denscombe, M. (2017). *EBOOK: The Good Research Guide: For Small-Scale Social Research Projects*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- Diener, E. (2000). Subjective Well-being: The Science of Happiness and a Proposal for a National Index. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 34-43.
<https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.34>
- Doman, L. C., & Le Roux, A. (2012). The Relationship between Loneliness and Psychological Well-being among Third-year Students: A Cross-Cultural Investigation. *International Journal of Culture and Mental Health*, 5(3), 153–168.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/17542863.2011.579389>
- Dwairy, M., & Menshar, K. E. (2006). Parenting Style, Individuation, and Mental health of Egyptian Adolescents. *Journal of Adolescence*, 29(1), 103-117.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2005.03.002>
- Eden, A. L., Johnson, B. K., Reinecke, L., & Grady, S. M. (2020). Media for Coping during COVID-19 Social Distancing: Stress, Anxiety, and Psychological Well-Being. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.577639>
- Edwards, C. D. (1999). *How to Handle a Hard-to-Handle Kid: A Parents' Guide to Understanding and Changing Problem Behaviours*. Free Spirit Publishing, Inc., 400 First Avenue North, Suite 616, Minneapolis, MN 55401-1724.

- Ernst, J. M., & Cacioppo, J. T. (1999). Lonely Hearts: Psychological Perspectives on Loneliness. *Applied and Preventive Psychology*, 8(1), 1-22.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0962-1849\(99\)80008-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0962-1849(99)80008-0)
- Erzen, E., & Çikrikci, Z. (2018). The Effect of Loneliness on Depression: A Meta-analysis. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry*, 64(5), 427–435.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0020764018776349>
- Fagan, J. (2000). African American and Puerto Rican American Parenting styles, Paternal Involvement, and Head Start Children's Social Competence. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 46(4), 592-612.
- Fairbrother, G., Kenney, G., Hanson, K., & Dubay, L. (2005). How Do Stressful Family Environments Relate to Reported Access and Use of Health Care by Low-Income Children? *Medical Care Research and Review*, 62(2), 205–230.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1077558704273805>
- Feizi, A., Aliyari, R., & Roohafza, H. (2012). Association of Perceived Stress with Stressful Life events, Lifestyle and Socio-demographic Factors: A Large-scale Community-based Study using Logistic Quartile Regression. *Computational and Mathematical Methods in Medicine*. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/151865>
- Fernandes, H., & Vasconcelos-Raposo, J., & Brustad, R. (2012). Factors Associated with Positive Mental Health in a Portuguese Community Sample: A Look through the Lens of Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Model. *Essential Notes in Psychiatry*, 496-514. <http://www.intechopen.com/books/essential-notes-in-psychiatry/factors-associated-with-positive-mental-health-in-a-portuguese-community-sample-a-look-through-the>

- Fisher, R.A. (1930). *The Genetical Theory of Natural Selection*, Clarendon Press, Oxford.
- Fleming, M. (2005). Gender in Adolescent Autonomy: Distinction between Boys and Girls Accelerates at 16 years of Age. *Electronic Journal of Research in Educational Psychology*, 3(6), 33-52. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ846206>
- Flynn, H. K., Felmlee, D. H., & Conger, R. D. (2017). The Social Context of Adolescent Friendships: Parents, Peers, and Romantic Partners. *Youth & Society*, 49(5), 679-705. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1177/0044118X14559900>
- Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1980). An Analysis of Coping in a Middle-Aged Community Sample. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 219-239. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2136617>
- Folkman, Z. (2021). The Confidence gap in Men and Women: How to overcome it. <https://zengerfolkman.com/articles/the-confidence-gap-in-men-and-women-how-to-overcome-it/>
- Fonte, B. A. (2015). Relationship between Parenting style, Emotional Intelligence and Self-esteem. Thesis submitted to Washington College. Retrieved from: <http://hdl.handle.net/10090/7271>.
- Francis, A., Pai, M. S., & Badagabettu, S. (2021). Psychological Well-being and Perceived Parenting Style among Adolescents. *Comprehensive Child and Adolescent Nursing*, 44(2), 134-143. <https://doi.org/10.1080/24694193.2020.1743796>

- Geary, D.C., Byrd-Craven, J., Hoard, M.K., Vigil, J., & Numtee, C. (2003). Evolution and Development of Boy's Social Behavior. *Developmental Review* 23(4), 444–470. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dr.2003.08.001>
- Gerson, K. (2002). Moral Dilemmas, Moral Strategies, and the Transformation of Gender: Lessons from Two Generations of Work and Family Change. *Gender & Society*, 16(1), 8-28. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0891243202016001002>
- Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a Different Voice: Psychological Theory and Women's Development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Goodman, W. K., Price, L. H., Rasmussen, S. A., Mazure, C., Fleischmann, R. L., Hill, C. L., ... & Charney, D. S. (1989). The Yale-Brown Obsessive Compulsive Scale: I. Development, Use, and Reliability. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 46(11), 1006-1011. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1001/archpsyc.1989.01810110048007>
- Greene, A. L., & Larson, R. W. (1991). Variation in Stress Reactivity during Adolescence. In E. M. Cummings, A. L. Greene, & K. H. Karraker (Eds.), *Life-Span Developmental Psychology: Perspectives on Stress and Coping* (pp. 195–209). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Greenglass, E., Schwarzer, R., Jakubiec, D., Fiksenbaum, L., & Taubert, S. (1999). The Proactive Coping Inventory (PCI): A Multidimensional Research Instrument. *20th International Conference of the Stress and Anxiety Research Society (STAR)*, 12(14). <https://doi.org/10.1037/t07292-000>
- Guan, W. J., Ni, Z. Y., Hu, Y., Liang, W. H., Ou, C. Q., He, J. X., ... & Zhong, N. S. (2020). Clinical Characteristics of Corona virus Disease 2019 in China. *New*

England Journal of Medicine, 382(18), 1708-1720. DOI:

10.1056/NEJMoa2002032

Gullotta, T. P., Blau, G. M., & Ramos, J. M. (2007). *Handbook of Childhood Behavioural Issues: Evidence-Based Approaches to Prevention and Treatment*. London, England: CRC Press.

Haleh, H., Hamid, A., Shahrzad Bazargan, H., Mohammad Asghari, J., & Anaheed, S. (2018). Factors associating Perceived Stress and Psychological Well-being among Iranian Female Adolescents. *International Journal of Depression and Anxiety*, 1:003. <https://doi.org/10.23937/ijda-2017/1710003>

Haleh, H., Hamid, A., Shahrzad Bazargan, H., Mohammad Asghari, J., & Anaheed, S. (2018). Factors Associating Perceived Stress and Psychological Well-being among Iranian Female Adolescents. *International Journal of Depression and Anxiety*, 1(1). <https://doi.org/10.23937/ijda-2017/1710003>

Harikrishnan, U., Arif, A., & Sobhana, H. (2017). Assessment of Mental Health Status among School going Adolescents in North East India: A Cross Sectional School based Survey. *Asian Journal of Psychiatry*, 30, 114-117. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajp.2017.08.021>

Hawes, M. T., Szenczy, A. K., Klein, D. N., Hajcak, G., & Nelson, B. D. (2021). Increases in Depression and Anxiety Symptoms in Adolescents and Young Adults during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Psychological Medicine*, 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0033291720005358>

Hawkley, L. (2018). Loneliness. Encyclopedia Britannica. <https://www.britannica.com/science/loneliness>

- Hawkley, L. C., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2010). Loneliness Matters: A Theoretical and Empirical Review of Consequences and Mechanisms. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine: A Publication of the Society of Behavioral Medicine*, 40(2), 218–227. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12160-010-9210-8>
- Heaven, P. C. (2001). *The Social Psychology of Adolescence*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hein, C., & Lewko, J. H. (1994). Gender Differences in Factors related to Parenting Style: A Study of High Performing Science Students. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 9(2), 262–281. <https://doi.org/10.1177/074355489492008>
- Heinrich, L. M., & Gullone, E. (2006). The Clinical Significance of Loneliness: A Literature Review. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 26(6), 695–718. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2006.04.002>
- Heizomi, H., Allahverdipour, H., Hejazi, S. B., Jafarabadi, M. A., & Shirazi, A. (2018). Factors Associating Perceived Stress and Psychological Well-being among Iranian Female Adolescents. *International Journal of Depression and Anxiety*, 1(003).
DOI: 10.23937/IJDA-2017/1710003
- Hochschild, A., Machung, A. (2003). *The Second Shift*. Family & Society Studies Worldwide. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/The_Second_Shift.html?id=St_6kWcPJS8C&redir_esc=y
- Hoyt, L. T., Cohen, A. K., Dull, B., Castro, E. M., & Yazdani, N. (2021). “Constant Stress has become the New Normal”: Stress and Anxiety Inequalities among US

- College Students in the Time of COVID-19. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 68(2), 270-276. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2020.10.030>
- Huppert, F. A. (2005). Positive Mental Health in Individuals and Populations. In F. A. Huppert, N. Baylis, & B. Keverne, *the Science of Well-being* (pp. 307–340). Oxford University Press.
- <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780198567523.003.0012>
- Huver, R. M., Otten, R., De Vries, H., & Engels, R. C. (2010). Personality and Parenting Style in Parents of Adolescents. *Journal of Adolescence*, 33(3), 395-402.
- <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2009.07.012>
- Ishaq, G., Malik, N. I., & Asif, M. (2018). Relationship of Loneliness and Psychological Well-being among University Hostels Students: Moderating Role of Self-Esteem. *Journal of Research in Social Sciences*, 6(2), 242-255.
- Israel, A. (2021). *Personality in Adolescence: School as a Developmental Context*. (Doctoral thesis, University of Hamburg, Germany). Retrieved from https://ediss.sub.uni-hamburg.de/bitstream/ediss/9060/1/Dissertation_Personality%20in%20Adolescence_publication.pdf
- Javed, H., Arjmand, A., Arshid, M., & Zahid, S. (2021). Gender Difference in Developing Loneliness and Obsession Compulsion Symptoms during COVID-19 Pandemic. *International Journal of Advance Research, Ideas and Innovations in Technology*, 7(3), 713-1735. <https://www.ijariit.com/manuscript/gender-difference-in-developing-loneliness-and-obsession-compulsion-symptoms-during-covid-19-pandemic/>

- Jha, P. K. (1971). "Manual of Perceived Loneliness Scale", National Psychological Corporation, Agra.
- Jiang, D. (2020). Perceived Stress and Daily Well-Being during the COVID-19 Outbreak: The Moderating Role of Age. *Frontiers in Psychology, 11*.
<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.571873>
- Jiao, W. Y., Wang, L. N., Liu, J., Fang, S. F., Jiao, F. Y., Pettoello-Mantovani, M., & Somekh, E. (2020). Behavioural and Emotional Disorders in Children during the COVID-19 Epidemic. *The Journal of Pediatrics, 221*, 264-266.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpeds.2020.03.013>
- Jirathikrengkrai ข., Vongsirimas น., Thanoi ง., & Phetrasuwan ส. (2021). Factor in Predicting Psychological Well-being in Late Adolescents. *Nursing Science Journal of Thailand, 39*(2), 77–89.
- Kaczmarek, M., & Trambacz-Oleszak, S. (2021). School-related Stressors and the Intensity of Perceived Stress Experienced by Adolescents in Poland. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 18*(22), 11791.
<https://doi.org/10.3390%2Fijerph182211791>
- Kaneez, S. (2015). Family Environment and Psychological Well-being among Adolescents. *Indian Journal of Positive Psychology, 6*(3), 306-308.
<https://doi.org/10.15614/ijpp%2F2015%2Fv6i3%2F147227>
- Kassa, E. Y., & Rao, A. T. (2019). Parenting Styles and Psychological Well-Being: The Mediating Role of Academic Achievement. *Journal of Advances and Scholarly Researches in Allied Education, 16*(1), 28-36. <http://ignited.in/a/58393>

- Kausar, R., & Shafique, N. (2008). Gender Differences in Perceived Parenting styles and Socio-Emotional Adjustment of Adolescents. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research*, 23(3-4), 93-105. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2011-21818-004>
- Kellner, R. (1987). A Symptom Questionnaire. *The Journal of Clinical Psychiatry*, 48(7), 268–274. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1988-25223-001>
- Kerlinger, F. N. (1986). *Foundations of Behavioral Research*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston. <https://www.worldcat.org/title/foundations-of-behavioral-research/oclc/12135319>
- Khodabakhsh, M. R., & Kiani, F. (2014). Effects of Emotional Eating on Eating Behaviors Disorder in Students: The Effects of Anxious Mood and Emotion Expression. *International Journal of Pediatrics*, 2(4.1), 295-303. <https://dx.doi.org/10.22038/ijp.2014.3200>
- Khodabakhsh, M., Kiani, F., & Ahmedbookani, S. (2014). Psychological Well-being and Parenting Styles as Predictors of Mental Health among Students: Implication for Health Promotion. *International Journal of Pediatrics*, 2(3.3), 39–46. <https://doi.org/10.22038/ijp.2014.3003>
- King, K. A., Vidourek, R. A., Merianous, A., & Singh, M. (2014). A Study of Stress, Social Support, and Perceived Happiness among College Students. *Journal of Happiness and Well-being*, 2(2), 132-44. <https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/A-study-of-stress%2C-social-support%2C-and-perceived-King-Vidourek/f917e8786c2fad5d5e884407e62efce36c9a64ed#citing-papers>

- Koenig, L. J., Abrams, R. F., Rotenberg, K. J., & Hymel, S. (1999). *Loneliness in Childhood and Adolescence*. Cambridge Press University.
<http://www.cup.cam.ac.uk/>
- Kopko, K. (2007). Parenting Styles and Adolescents. Cornell Cooperative Extension, Research submitted to Cornell university. Retrieved from
<http://www.human.cornell.edu/pam/outreach/parenting/research/upload/Parenting-20Styles-20and-20Adolescents.pdf>
- Kumar, S. K., Mandal, S. P., & Bharti, D. A. (2020). Perceived Stress and Psychological Wellbeing: The Moderating Role of Proactive Coping. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, 46(2), 200-209.
http://www.jiaap.org.in/Listing_Detail/Logo/65240359-3dce-4698-a4c6-c71919471cbc.pdf
- Kumar, S. U., Kumar, D. T., Christopher, B. P., & Doss, C. G. P. (2020). The Rise and Impact of COVID-19 in India. *Frontiers in Medicine*, 7, 250.
<https://doi.org/10.3389/fmed.2020.00250>
- La Greca, A. M., & Prinstein, M. J. (1999). Peer group. In W. K. Silverman & T. H. Ollendick (Eds.), *Developmental Issues in the Clinical Treatment of Children* (pp. 171–198). Allyn & Bacon. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1998-06545-011>
- Labrague, L. J., de Los Santos, J. A. A., & Falguera, C. C. (2021). Social and Emotional Loneliness among College Students during the COVID-19 Pandemic: The Predictive Role of Coping Behaviors, Social Support, and Personal Resilience. *Perspectives in Psychiatric Care*, 57(4), 1578–1584.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/ppc.12721>

Laing, O. (2016). *The Lonely City Adventures in the Art of Being Alone*. Canon gate Books Ltd, Edinburgh. <https://canongate.co.uk/books/2101-the-lonely-city-adventures-in-the-art-of-being-alone/>

Laursen, B. (1998). Closeness and Conflict in Adolescent Peer Relationships: Interdependence with Friends and Romantic Partners. In W. M. Bukowski, A. F. Newcomb, & W. W. Hartup (Eds.), *The Company they keep: Friendship in Childhood and Adolescence* (pp. 186–210). Cambridge University Press. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1998-07411-008>

Laursen, B., & Hartl, A. C. (2013). Understanding Loneliness during Adolescence: Developmental Changes that Increase the Risk of Perceived Social Isolation. *Journal of Adolescence*, 36(6), 1261-1268. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2013.06.003>

Lavasani, M. G., Borhanzadeh, S., Afzali, L., & Hejazi, E. (2011). The Relationship between Perceived Parenting styles, Social Support with Psychological Well-being. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 15, 1852–1856. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.04.014>

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, Coping and Adaptation*. New York:Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-1005-9_215

Lee, C. M., Cadigan, J. M., & Rhew, I. C. (2020). Increases in Loneliness among Young Adults during the COVID-19 Pandemic and Association with Increases in Mental Health Problems. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 67(5), 714–717. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2020.08.009>

- Lee, J. (2020). Mental Health effects of School Closures during COVID-19. *The Lancet Child & Adolescent Health*, 4(6), 421. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2352-4642\(20\)30109-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2352-4642(20)30109-7)
- Lenroot, R. K., Gogtay, N., Greenstein, D. K., Wells, E. M., Wallace, G. L., Clasen, L. S., Blumenthal, J. D., Lerch, J., Zijdenbos, A. P., Evans, A. C., Thompson, P. M., & Giedd, J. N. (2007). Sexual Dimorphism of Brain Developmental Trajectories during Childhood and Adolescence. *NeuroImage*, 36(4), 1065–1073. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2007.03.053>
- Levenstein, S., Prantera, C., Varvo, V., Scribano, M., Berto, E., Luzi, C., & Andreoli, A. (1993). Development of the Perceived Stress Questionnaire: A New Tool for Psychosomatic Research. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 37(1), 19-32. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-3999\(93\)90120-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-3999(93)90120-5)
- Lindberg, S. (2019). Eustress: The Good Stress. Health line. <https://www.healthline.com/health/eustress#eustress-vs-distress>
- Liu, J. J., Bao, Y., Huang, X., Shi, J., & Lu, L. (2020). Mental Health Considerations for Children Quarantined because of COVID-19. *The Lancet Child & Adolescent Health*, 4(5), 347-349. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2352-4642\(20\)30096-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2352-4642(20)30096-1)
- Lyyra, N., Thorsteinsson, E. B., Eriksson, C., Madsen, K. R., Tolvanen, A., Löfstedt, P., & Välimaa, R. (2021). The Association between Loneliness, Mental Well-being, and Self-Esteem among Adolescents in Four Nordic Countries. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 18(14), 7405. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18147405>

- Maccoby, E. E., & Martin, J. A. (1983). Parent-Child Interaction. *PH Mussen (Series Ed.) & EM Hetherington (Vol. Ed.), Handbook of Child Psychology, 4*, 1-101.
- Magson, N. R., Freeman, J. Y., Rapee, R. M., Richardson, C. E., Oar, E. L., & Fardouly, J. (2021). Risk and Protective Factors for Prospective changes in Adolescent Mental Health during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 50*(1), 44-57. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-020-01332-9>
- Mahon, N. E., Yarcheski, A., & Yarcheski, T. J. (1993). Health Consequences of Loneliness in Adolescents. *Research in Nursing & Health, 16*(1), 23-31. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1002/nur.4770160105>
- Malik, M., Saidin, N., Abd Wab, R., & Nordin, N. (2020). Investigating the Relationship between Stress and Psychological Well-Being among Foundation Students of UiTM. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 10*(14), 93-101. <https://doi.org/10.6007/ijarbss/v10-i14/7366>
- McKay, M. T., Andretta, J. R., Cole, J. C., & Clarke, M. (2020). Socio-demographic Predictors of Well-being in United Kingdom Adolescents, and The Impact of Well-being on a Range of Health-related Outcomes. *Psychiatry Research, 285*, 112728. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2019.112728>
- Milevsky, A., Schlechter, M., Klem, L., & Kehl, R. (2008). Constellations of Maternal and Paternal Parenting styles in Adolescence: Congruity and Well-being. *Marriage & Family Review, 44*(1), 81-98. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01494920802185447>
- Moeini, B., Shafii, F., Hidarnia, A., Babaii, G. R., Birashk, B., & Allahverdipour, H. (2008). Perceived Stress, Self-efficacy and its Relations to Psychological Well-

being Status in Iranian Male High School Students. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 36(2), 257–266.

<https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2008.36.2.257>

Morelli, M., Cattelino, E., Baiocco, R., Trumello, C., Babore, A., Candelori, C., & Chirumbolo, A. (2020). Parents and Children during the COVID-19 Lockdown: The Influence of Parenting Distress and Parenting Self-Efficacy on Children's Emotional Well-being. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11.

<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.584645>

Muller, C., & Kerbow, D. (1993). Parent Involvement in the Home, School, and Community. In Schneider, B., and Coleman, J. S. (eds.), *Parents, their Children, and Schools*, 13-39. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED396049>

Munir, T., Shafiq, S., Ahmad, Z., & Khan, S. (2015). Impact of Loneliness and Academic Stress on Psychological Well-being among College Students. *Academic Research International*, 6(2), 343-356.

Najam, N., & Simeen, A. (1991). Comparative Study of Social and Emotional Development of Children Living in Orphanages in SOS Villages and Children Living with Parents. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research*, 23, 93-105.

Nazim, A., Malik, S. R., & Suneel, I. (2021). A Study of Association between Temperament and Perceived. *Global Social Sciences Review*, 6(4), 136-143.

[http://dx.doi.org/10.31703/gssr.2021\(VI-IV\).13](http://dx.doi.org/10.31703/gssr.2021(VI-IV).13)

Needham, B. L., Crosnoe, R., & Muller, C. (2004). Academic Failure in Secondary School: The Inter-related Role of Health Problems and Educational

Context. *Social Problems*, 51(4), 569-586.

<https://doi.org/10.1525/sp.2004.51.4.569>

Olema, M. (2019). *Parenting styles, Psychological Well-being, and Academic Performance among Adolescents in Secondary Schools* (Doctoral dissertation, Makerere University).

Oosterhoff, B., Palmer, C. A., Wilson, J., & Shook, N. (2020). Adolescents' Motivations to Engage in Social Distancing during the COVID-19 Pandemic: Associations with Mental and Social Health. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 67(2), 179-185.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2020.05.004>

Orgiles, M., Morales, A., Delvecchio, E., Mazzeschi, C., & Espada, J. P. (2020).

Immediate Psychological Effects of the COVID-19 Quarantine in Youth from Italy and Spain. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11.

<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.579038>

Ozbay, F., Johnson, D. C., Dimoulas, E., Morgan, C. A., Charney, D., & Southwick, S. (2007). Social support and Resilience to Stress: From Neurobiology to Clinical Practice. *Psychiatry (Edgmont (Pa: Township))*, 4(5), 35–40.

<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20806028/>

Ozdemir, Y. (2012). Examining the Subjective Well-being of Adolescents in terms of Demographic Variables, Parental Control, and Parental Warmth. *Education & Science/Egitim ve Bilim*, 37(165), 20-33.

Ozdogan, A. A. (2021). Subjective Well-Being and Social-Emotional Loneliness of University Students: The Mediating Effect of the Meaning of Life. *Journal of Pedagogical Research*, 5(1), 18–30. <https://doi.org/10.33902/jpr.2021066865>

- Papini, D. R., Farmer, F. F., Clark, S. M., Micka, J. C., & Barnett, J. K. (1990). Early Adolescent Age and Gender Differences in Patterns of Emotional Self-disclosure to Parents and Friends. *Adolescence*, 25(100), 959.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/2275449/>
- Parkhurst, J. T., & Asher, S. R. (1992). Peer Rejection in Middle School: Subgroup Differences in Behavior, Loneliness, and Interpersonal Concerns. *Developmental Psychology*, 28(2), 231-241. <https://psycnet.apa.org/buy/1992-23089-001>
- Parlee, M. B. (1979). The Friendship Bond. *Psychology Today*, 13(4), 43-54.
- Parra, G., Sánchez-Queija, I., García-Mendoza, M. D. C., Coimbra, S., Egídio Oliveira, J., & Díez, M. (2019). Perceived Parenting Styles and Adjustment during Emerging Adulthood: A Cross-National Perspective. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(15), 2757.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16152757>
- Pellerin, L. A. (2005). Applying Baumrind's Parenting Typology to High Schools: Toward a Middle-range Theory of Authoritative Socialization. *Social Science Research*, 34(2), 283–303. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssresearch.2004.02.003>
- Perez, J. A. (2012). Gender Difference in Psychological Well-being among Filipino College Student Samples. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 2(13), 84-93. <http://dx.doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.28271.25766>
- Phillips, A. C. (2013). Perceived Stress. In M. D. Gellman, *Encyclopedia of Behavioral Medicine* (pp. 1453-1454). Springer: New York

- Polizzi, C., Lynn, S. J., & Perry, A. (2020). Stress and Coping in the Time of COVID-19: Pathways to Resilience and Recovery. *Clinical Neuropsychiatry*, 17(2), 59.
<https://dx.doi.org/10.36131%2FCN20200204>
- Porter, C., Hart, C., Yang, C., Robinson, C., Frost Olsen, S., Zeng, Q., ...& Jin, S. (2005). A Comparative Study of Child Temperament and Parenting in Beijing, China and the Western United States. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 29(6), 541-551. DOI: 10.1080/01650250500147402
- Power, T. G. (2013). Parenting Dimensions and Styles: A Brief History and Recommendations for Future Research. *Childhood Obesity*, 9(1), 14-21.
<https://doi.org/10.1089/chi.2013.0034>
- Prime, H., Wade, M., & Browne, D. T. (2020). Risk and Resilience in Family Well-being during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *American Psychologist*, 75(5), 631–643.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/amp0000660>
- Pumpuang, W., Vongsirimas, N., & Klainin-Yobas, P. (2021). Do Gender Differences Affect the Psychological Well-being of High Schoolers in Thailand? *Journal of Population and Social Studies*, 29, 207-222.
<http://doi.org/10.25133/JPSSv292021.013>
- Qi, M., Zhou, S. J., Guo, Z. C., Zhang, L. G., Min, H. J., Li, X. M., & Chen, J. X. (2020). The Effect of Social Support on Mental Health in Chinese Adolescents during the Outbreak of COVID-19. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 67(4), 514–518.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2020.07.001>
- Qualter, P., Brown, S. L., Munn, P., & Rotenberg, K. J. (2009). Childhood Loneliness as a Predictor of Adolescent Depressive Symptoms: An 8-year Longitudinal Study.

European Child & Adolescent Psychiatry, 19(6), 493–501.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00787-009-0059-y>

Qualter, P., Vanhalst, J., Harris, R., Van Roekel, E., Lodder, G., Bangee, M., ...&

Verhagen, M. (2015). Loneliness across the Life Span. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 10(2), 250-264.

<https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1745691615568999>

Radwan, E., Radwan, A., Radwan, W., & Pandey, D. (2021). Perceived Stress among School Students in Distance Learning During the COVID-19 Pandemic in the Gaza Strip, Palestine. *Augmented Human Research*, 6(1).

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s41133-021-00050-6>

Rajasekar, S., Philominathan, P., & Chinnathambi, V. (2013). *Research Methodology*.

<https://arxiv.org/pdf/physics/0601009.pdf>

Rani, S., & Kumar, R. (2016). Perceived Loneliness in Relation to Gender and Area of Adolescents. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)*, 21(12), 57-62. DOI: 10.9790/0837-2112015762

Rehman, U., Shahnawaz, M. G., Khan, N. H., Kharshiing, K. D., Khursheed, M., Gupta, K., Kashyap, D., & Uniyal, R. (2021). Depression, Anxiety and Stress among Indians in Times of COVID-19 Lockdown. *Community Mental Health Journal*, 57(1), 42–48. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10597-020-00664-x>

Revised UCLA Loneliness scale. The Fetzer Institute.

https://fetzer.org/sites/default/files/images/stories/pdf/selfmeasures/Self_Measures_for_Loneliness_and_Interpersonal_Problems_UCLA_LONELINESS_REVISION_D.pdf

- Rogers, C. R. (1950). The Significance of the Self-regarding Attitudes and Perceptions. In M. L. Reymert (Ed.), *Feelings and Emotions; the Mooseheart Symposium* (pp. 374–382). McGraw-Hill. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1952-02004-035>
- Rokach, A. (2012). Loneliness Updated: An Introduction. *The Journal of Psychology, 146*(1-2), 1-6. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980.2012.629501>
- Rossmann, B. B. R., & Rea, J. G. (2005). The Relation of Parenting Styles and Inconsistencies to Adaptive Functioning for Children in Conflictual and Violent Families. *Journal of Family Violence, 20*(5), 261–277. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-005-6603-8>
- Rothbaum, F., & Trommsdorff, G. (2007). *Do Roots and Wings Complement or Oppose One Another? The Socialization of Relatedness and Autonomy in Cultural Context*. The Guilford Press.
- Ruggieri, S., Ingoglia, S., Bonfanti, R. C., & Lo Coco, G. (2021). The Role of Online Social Comparison as a Protective Factor for Psychological Well-being: A Longitudinal Study during the COVID-19 Quarantine. *Personality and Individual Differences, 171*, 110486. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2020.110486>
- Russell, D. W. (1996). UCLA Loneliness Scale (Version 3): Reliability, Validity, and Factor Structure. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 66*(1), 20-40. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa6601_2
- Russell, D., Peplau, L. A., & Cutrona, C. E. (1980). The Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale: Concurrent and Discriminant Validity Evidence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 39*(3), 472–480. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.39.3.472>

- Russell, S. T., & Bakken, R. J. (2002). *Development of Autonomy in Adolescence*. Cooperative Extension, Institute of Agriculture and Natural Resources, University of Nebraska-Lincoln.
- Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness is Everything, or is it? Explorations on the Meaning of Psychological Well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57, 1069-1081. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.57.6.1069
- Ryff, C. D., & Keyes, C. L. M. (1995). The Structure of Psychological Well-being Revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69(4), 719-727. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0022-3514.69.4.719>
- Safdar, S., & Zahrah, S. M. (2016). Impact of Parenting Styles on the Intensity of Parental and Peer Attachment: Exploring the Gender Differences in Adolescents. *American Journal of Applied Psychology*, 4(2), 23-30. doi: 10.12691/ajap-4-2-1
- Sahni, M. (2020). Perceived Parenting Style, General Well-being and Emotional Intelligence among Adolescents. *Research Journal ARTS*, 19(1), 1-14. <http://www.mdu.ac.in/Journals/about.html>
- Sahu, P. (2020). Closure of Universities due to Corona virus Disease 2019 (COVID-19): Impact on Education and Mental Health of Students and Academic Staff. *Cureus*, 12(4). DOI: 10.7759/cureus.7541
- Salimi, A. (2011). Social-emotional Loneliness and Life satisfaction. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 29, 292-295. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.241>

- Sastre, M. T. M., & Ferrière, G. (2000). Family 'Decline' and the Subjective Well-being of Adolescents. *Social Indicators Research*, 49(1), 69-82.
<https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1023/A:1006935129243>
- Savikko, N., Routasalo, P., Tilvis, R., Strandberg, T., & Pitkälä, K. (2005). Predictors and Subjective Causes of Loneliness in an Aged Population. *Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics*, 41(3), 223–233.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.archger.2005.03.002>
- Schwartz, O. S., Byrne, M. L., Simmons, J. G., Whittle, S., Dudgeon, P., Yap, M. B. H., Sheeber, L. B., & Allen, N. B. (2013). Parenting during Early Adolescence and Adolescent-Onset Major Depression. *Clinical Psychological Science*, 2(3), 272–286. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2167702613505531>
- Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1995). Generalized Self-efficacy Scale. *J. Weinman, S. Wright, & M. Johnston, Measures in health psychology: A User's Portfolio. Causal and Control Beliefs* (pp 35- 37).
- Selye, H. (1956). *The Stress of Life*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., Trade Department, 330 West 42d Street, New York 36, New York.
- Shalini, S., Gupta, S.A., Sharma, M., Verma, S., Verma, N. (2021). Assessment of Status of Psychological Well-being and its Determinants among Adolescent School Students Residing in Raipur City, Chhattisgarh. *International Journal of Community Medicine and Public Health*, 8 (2), 394-400.
<https://dx.doi.org/10.18203/2394-6040.ijcmph20211763>
- Shek, D. T. (2002). The Relation of Parental Qualities to Psychological Well-being, School Adjustment, and Problem Behavior in Chinese Adolescents with

- Economic Disadvantage. *American Journal of Family Therapy*, 30(3), 215-230.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/019261802753577548>
- Shek, D. T. L. (1997). The Relation of Family Functioning to Adolescent Psychological Well-Being, School Adjustment, and Problem Behavior. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 158(4), 467–479. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00221329709596683>
- Shen, K. L., & Yang, Y. H. (2020). Diagnosis and Treatment of 2019 Novel Corona virus Infection in Children: A Pressing Issue. *World Journal of Pediatrics*, 16(3), 219–221. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12519-020-00344-6>
- Singh, B., Singh, P., Singh, U., Jangid, P., & Gupta, R. (2020). Students' Perceived Stress and Internet Addiction during the Lockdown in India. *Indian Journal of Private Psychiatry*, 14(1), 30-34. DOI: 10.5005/jp-journals-10067-0055
- Singh, S., Roy, D., Sinha, K., Parveen, S., Sharma, G., & Joshi, G. (2020). Impact of COVID-19 and Lockdown on Mental Health of Children and Adolescents: A Narrative Review with Recommendations. *Psychiatry Research*, 293, 113429. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2020.113429>
- Skinner, N., & Brewer, N. (2002). The Dynamics of Threat and Challenge Appraisals Prior to Stressful Achievement Events. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83(3), 678-692. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0022-3514.83.3.678>
- Smetana, J. G. (1995). Parenting Styles and Conceptions of Parental Authority during Adolescence. *Child Development*, 66(2), 299-316.
<https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.2307/1131579>

- Sridevi, S., & Govind, D. K. (2018). Perceived Stress and Psychological Well-being among College Students. *Research Guru: Online Journal of Multidisciplinary Subjects*, 12(2), 815-820.
- Steinhardt, M., & Dolbier, C. (2008). Evaluation of a Resilience Intervention to enhance Coping Strategies and Protective Factors and Decrease Symptomatology. *Journal of American College Health*, 56(4), 445-453.
<https://doi.org/10.3200/JACH.56.44.445-454>
- Stratakis, C. A., Gold, P. W., & Chrousos, G. P. (1995). Neuroendocrinology of Stress: Implications for Growth and Development. *Hormone Research in Paediatrics*, 43(4), 162-167. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000184269>
- Sun, X., Chan, D. W., & Chan, L. K. (2016). Self-Compassion and Psychological Well-being among Adolescents in Hong Kong: Exploring Gender Differences. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 101, 288-292.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2016.06.011>
- Thavorn, T., Pimroon, S., & Thanoi, W. (2018). Correlated Factors of Psychological Well-being among High School Students. *Nursing Science Journal of Thailand*, 36(3), 59-70. <https://he02.tcithaijo.org/index.php/ns/article/view/146982>
- Theodorson, G. A., & Theodorson, A. G. (1969). A Modern Dictionary of Sociology.
- Tuason, M. T., Güss, C. D., & Boyd, L. (2021). Thriving during COVID-19: Predictors of Psychological Well-being and Ways of Coping. *PLOS ONE*, 16(3): e0248591.
<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0248591>

- Twenge, J. M., Haidt, J., Blake, A. B., McAllister, C., Lemon, H., & le Roy, A. (2021). Worldwide Increases in Adolescent Loneliness. *Journal of Adolescence*, 93(1), 257–269. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2021.06.006>
- UNICEF. (2016). Global Population of Children 2100. Statista
- UNICEF. (2020b, April 14). UNICEF. UN News. <https://news.un.org/en/tags/unicef>.
- Van Roekel, E., Scholte, R. H., Verhagen, M., Goossens, L., & Engels, R. C. (2010). Loneliness in Adolescence: Gene × Environment Interactions Involving the Serotonin Transporter Gene. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 51(7), 747–754. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.2010.02225.x>
- Van Wel, F., Linssen, H., & Abma, R. (2000). The Parental Bond and the Well-being of Adolescents and Young Adults. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 29(3), 307-318. <https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1005195624757>
- Vataliya, A. P. (2014). Psychological Well-being in Adolescence of Gender Difference. *Global Journal for Research Analysis*, 3(3), 17-22.
- Vaux, A. (1988). *Social Support: Theory, Research, and Intervention*. Praeger Publishers. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1988-98509-000>
- Viejo, C., Gómez-López, M., & Ortega-Ruiz, R. (2018). Adolescents' Psychological Well-being: A Multidimensional Measure. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 15(10), 2325. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph15102325>
- Vig, P., & Gill, D. S. (2016). Assessment of Loneliness: A Study of Chandigarh Adolescents. *International Journal of Applied Research*, 2(5), 1-4.

<https://www.allresearchjournal.com/archives/2016/vol2issue5/PartA/2-4-76.1-174.pdf>

Viner, R. M., Russell, S. J., Croker, H., Packer, J., Ward, J., Stansfield, C., ... & Booy, R. (2020). School Closure and Management Practices during Corona virus Outbreaks including COVID-19: A Rapid Systematic Review. *The Lancet Child & Adolescent Health*, 4(5), 397-404. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2352-4642\(20\)30095-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2352-4642(20)30095-X)

Visani, D., Albieri, E., Offidani, E., Ottolini, F., Tomba, E., & Ruini, C. (2011). Gender Differences in Psychological Well-being and Distress during Adolescence. *The Human Pursuit of Well-being*, 65-70. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-1375-8_6

Waghmare, R. D. (2017). Gender Differences between Psychological Well-being. *International Journal of Indian Psychology*, 4(4), 23-30. <https://doi.org/10.25215/0404.123>

Wagner, B. M., & Compas, B. E. (1990). Gender, Instrumentality, and Expressivity: Moderators of the Relation between Stress and Psychological Symptoms during Adolescence. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 18(3), 383-406. <https://doi.org/10.1007/bf00938114>

Wang, C., Pan, R., Wan, X., Tan, Y., Xu, L., Ho, C. S., & Ho, R. C. (2020). Immediate Psychological Responses and Associated Factors during the Initial Stage of the 2019 Corona virus Disease (COVID-19) Epidemic among the General Population in China. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(5), 1729. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17051729>

- Wang, J., Aaron, A., Baidya, A., Chan, C., Wetzler, E., Savage, K., Joseph, M., & Kang, Y. (2021). Gender Differences in Psychosocial Status of Adolescents during COVID-19: A Six-Country Cross-Sectional Survey in Asia Pacific. *BMC Public Health*, 21(1), 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-021-12098-5>
- Wang, J., Liu, W., Zhang, Y., Xie, S., & Yang, B. (2021). Perceived Stress among Chinese Medical Students Engaging in Online Learning in Light of COVID-19. *Psychology Research and Behavior Management*, Volume 14, 549–562. <https://doi.org/10.2147/prbm.s308497>
- Watode, B. K., Kishore, J., & Kohli, C. (2015). Prevalence of Stress among School Adolescents in Delhi. *Indian Journal of Youth Adolescent Health*, 2(4), 5-9. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/296846088_Prevalence_of_Stress_among_School_Adolescents_in_Delhi
- Wedaloka, K. B., & Turnip, S. S. (2019). Gender Differences in the Experience of Loneliness among Adolescents in Jakarta. *HUMANITAS: Indonesian Psychological Journal*, 16(1), 33-42. <https://doi.org/10.26555/humanitas.v16i1.11311>
- Wiklund, M., Malmgren-Olsson, E. B., Öhman, A., Bergström, E., & Fjellman-Wiklund, A. (2012). Subjective Health Complaints in Older Adolescents are related to Perceived Stress, Anxiety and Gender—a Cross-Sectional School Study in Northern Sweden. *BMC Public Health*, 12(1), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-12-993>

World Health Organization (2020). WHO Announces COVID-19 Outbreak a Pandemic.

<https://www.euro.who.int/en/health-topics/health-emergencies/coronavirus-covid-19/news/news/2020/3/who-announces-covid-19-outbreak-a-pandemic>

Yadav, P., Shukla, P., Padhi, D., & Chaudhury, S. (2021). A Correlational Study between Perceived Parenting Style, Psychological Well-being, and Emotional Intelligence among Adolescents. *Industrial Psychiatry Journal*, 30(1), 108–114.

<https://doi.org/10.4103/0972-6748.328798>

Yasmin, S. (2018). Gender Differences between Parenting Styles on Academic Performance of Students. *Science International*, 30(1), 59-62. <http://www.scint.com/pdf/636541577168843129.pdf>

<http://www.scint.com/pdf/636541577168843129.pdf>

Yerdaw, E., & Rao, T. A. (2018). A Systematic Review of Associations among Psychological Well-being, Parenting styles and Adolescent Mental Health. *International Journal of Research in Humanities, Arts and Literature*, 6(12), 177-184.

Zare, F., Bakhshipour, B., & Hassanzadeh, R. (2014). Parenting Style and Mental Health in Iranian Adolescents. *Journal of Novel Applied Sciences*, 3(3), 274-277.

<https://jnasci.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/03/274-277.pdf>

Zhai, Y., & Du, X. (2020). Mental Health Care for International Chinese Students affected by the COVID-19 Outbreak. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 7(4), e22.

[https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(20\)30089-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(20)30089-4)

Zupancic, M., Podlesek, A., & Kavčič, T. (2004). Parental Child-care Practices of Slovenian Pre-Schoolers' Mothers and Fathers: The Family Environment

Questionnaire. *Horizons of Psychology*, 13(3), 7-26.

<https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2004-20478-001>

APPENDIX I

CONSENT LETTER

From

.....

.....

.....

I am hereby willing to participate in the study initiated by Ms. Rishika Baruah title for her M.Phil. Dissertation is “*Psychological well-being among the School-going Adolescents of Assam during COVID-19 Pandemic*”. Ms. Rishika Baruah has explained in detail the procedural aspects of the study well in advance. I agree to be part of the study in my wish and not by force. I have not been paid any amount by the researcher to provide information.

Signature of the Participant (with date):

Name and Signature of the Researcher:

APPENDIX II

<u>SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DATA</u>											
1.	NAME										
2.	ADDRESS										
3.	NAME OF SCHOOL										
4.	AGE										
5.	GENDER	Male <input type="checkbox"/>	Female <input type="checkbox"/>								
6.	FAMILY TYPE	Tick below <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; margin-top: 5px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 33%;">Nuclear</td> <td style="width: 33%;">Joint</td> <td style="width: 33%;">Extended</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="height: 20px;"></td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> </table>				Nuclear	Joint	Extended			
Nuclear	Joint	Extended									
7.	EDUCATION										
8.	PARENTS' OCCUPATION										
9.	SOCIAL GROUP (Caste)	Gen	SC	ST	OBC	Others					
9.	RELIGION	Tick below <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; margin-top: 5px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 16.6%;">Hindu</td> <td style="width: 16.6%;">Muslim</td> <td style="width: 16.6%;">Christian</td> <td style="width: 16.6%;">Buddhist</td> <td style="width: 16.6%;">Others</td> </tr> </table>				Hindu	Muslim	Christian	Buddhist	Others	
Hindu	Muslim	Christian	Buddhist	Others							
10. Any psychiatric history? (If yes, give details)											
11. Any family history of psychiatric illness?											
12. Mobile no. of the Participant:											

APPENDIXE III

Parental Authority Questionnaire

Instructions: For each of the following statements, circle the number of the 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) that best describes how that statement applies to you and your mother. Try to read and think about each statement as it applies to you and your mother during your years of growing up at home. There are no right or wrong answers, so don't spend a lot of time on any one item. We are looking for your overall impression regarding each statement. Be sure not to omit any items.

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

Sl. No	Items	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	While I was growing up my mother felt that in a well-run home the children should have their way in the family as often as the parents do.					
2.	Even if her children didn't agree with her, my mother felt that it was for our own good if we were forced to conform to what she thought was right.					
3.	Whenever my mother told me to do something as I was growing up, she expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions.					

APPENDIX IV

Perceived Stress Questionnaire

Instruction: The following statements on how you have been feeling after the changes due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Choose the number which suits you better.

Almost never-1, Sometimes 2, Often -3, Usually 4

Sl.no	Statements	Almost never	Sometimes	Often	Usually
1.	You feel rested.				
2.	You feel that too many demands are being made on you.				
3.	You are irritable or grouchy.				
4	You have too many things to do.				
5.	You feel lonely or isolated.				
6.	You find yourself in situations of conflict.				
7.	You feel you're doing things you really like.				
8.	You feel tired.				
9.	You fear you may not manage to attain your goals.				

APPENDIX V

UCLA Loneliness Scale

Instruction: The following statements on how you have been feeling after the changes due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Choose the number which suits you better.

C indicates “I often feel this way”

S indicates “I sometimes feel this way”

R indicates “I rarely feel this way”

N indicates “I never feel this way”

Sl.no	Statements	C	S	R	N
1.	I am unhappy doing so many things alone.				
2.	I have nobody to talk to.				
3.	I cannot tolerate being so alone.				
4.	I lack companionship.				
5.	I feel as if nobody really understands me.				
6.	I find myself waiting for people to call or write.				
7.	There is no one I can turn to.				
8.	I am no longer close to anyone.				
9.	My interests and ideas are not shared by those around me.				
10.	I feel left out.				
11.	I feel completely alone.				

APPENDIX VI

Psychological Well-being Scale

Instruction: The following items focus on how you feel during the COVID-19 pandemic. Please respond by to the following questions by choosing the number that best applies to you. **1- Strongly agree, 2- Somewhat agree, 3- A little agree, 4- Neither agree nor disagree, 5- A little disagree, 6- Somewhat disagree, 7- Strongly disagree.**

Sl.no	Statements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	I like most parts of my personality.							
2.	When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out so far.							
3.	Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them.							
4.	The demands of everyday life often get me down.							
5.	In many ways I feel disappointed about my achievements in life.							
6.	Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me.							
7.	I live life one day at a time and don't really think about the future.							
8.	In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.							