

SOCIAL EXCLUSION AND EUDAIMONIC WELL-BEING: A CHILDREN PERSPECTIVE

Gemma Crous Parcerisas

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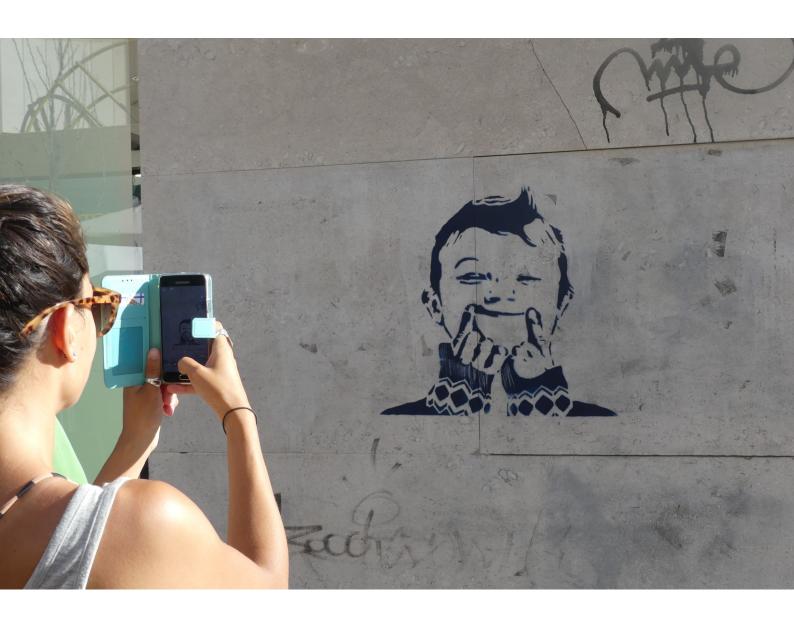
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DOCTORAL THESIS

SOCIAL EXCLUSION AND EUDAIMONIC WELL-BEING: A CHILDREN'S PERSPECTIVE



GEMMA CROUS PARCERISAS
2018



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Gemma Crous Parcerisas 2018

Doctoral Programme in Psychology, Health and Quality of Life

Supervisors: Dr. Ferran Casas & Dr. Mònica González-Carrasco

Tutor: Dr. Ferran Casas

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements to obtain the doctoral degree at the University of Girona

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Prof. Dr. Ferran Casas and Dra. Mònica González-Carrasco, of the University of Girona,

WE DECLARE:

That the thesis titled 'SOCIAL EXCLUSION AND EUDAIMONIC WELL-BEING: A CHILDREN'S PERSPECTIVE', presented by Gemma Crous Parcerisas to obtain the doctoral degree from the Universitat de Girona, has been completed under our supervision and meets all the requirements to opt for the International Doctor mention. The thesis is formed by a compendium of four publications of work done during the doctoral period.

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Prof. Dr. Ferran Casas

Dr. Mònica González-Carrasco

Girona, January 29th 2018



Prof. Dr. Ferran Casas and Dr. Mònica González-Carrasco, as co-authors of the following publications:

Authors: Gemma Crous, Ferran Casas, & Mònica González-Carrasco.

Title: What aspects are important to adolescents to achieve full satisfaction in life?

Reference: Crous, G., Casas, F., & González-Carrasco, M. (in press). What aspects are important to adolescents to achieve full satisfaction in life? *Child Indicators Research Journal*. Online first. doi: 10.1007/s12187-018-9535-6

Authors: Gemma Crous, Mònica González-Carrasco, & Ferran Casas. Title: The use of mixed methods to study in depth adolescents' perceptions and assessment of their autonomy, life goals and positive relations with others. Sent to *Journal of Adolescent Research*.

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Prof Dr. Jonathan Bradshaw of the University of York, as co-author from the following publications:

Authors: Gemma Crous & Jonathan Bradshaw.

Title: Child social exclusion

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SOCIAL POLICY RESEARCH UMIT

Prof. Dr. Jonathan Bradshaw

York, 8th September 2017

"And now here is my secret, a very simple secret it is only with the heart that one can see rightly; what is essential is invisible to the eye"

Antoine de Saint-Exupéry, The little prince

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LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

The results of this doctoral thesis have been published or submitted in scientific journals included in the Journal Citation Report.

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- ✓ Crous, G. (2017). Child psychological well-being and its associations with material deprivation and type of home. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 80, 88-95. doi: 10.1016/j.childyouth.2017.06.051
- ✓ Crous, G., Casas, F., & González-Carrasco, M. (in press). What aspects are important to adolescents to achieve full satisfaction in life? *Child Indicators Research*. Online first. doi: 10.1007/s12187-018-9535-6
- ✓ Crous, G., González-Carrasco, M., & Casas, F. (submitted October 2017). The use of mixed methods to study in depth adolescents' perceptions and assessment of their autonomy, life goals and positive relations with others. *Journal of Adolescent Research*.

Children and Youth Services Review has an impact factor of 1.226 and it is in the second quartile (Q2) in the 'Social work' category (© 2016 Journal Citation Reports Science Edition, published by Thomson Reuters).

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Journal of Adolescent Research has an impact factor of 1.433 and it is in the third quartile (Q3) in the 'Developmental psychology' category (© 2016 Journal Citation Reports Science Edition, published by Thomson Reuters).

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AFSL Aspects to achieve full satisfaction in life

BHPS British Household Panel Survey

BMSLSS Brief Multidimensional Student's Life Satisfaction Scale

B-Sem Bristol Social Exclusion Matrix

CFA Confirmatory Factor Analyses

CMEPSP Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and

Social Progress

EUROPEAN Economic Community

ERIDIQV Research team on Childhood, Adolescence, Children's Rights and

their Quality of Life

ESS European Statistical System

EU European Union

EU-SILC European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions

FS Flourishing Scale

GDP Gross Domestic Product

HBSC Health Behaviour in School-aged Children

HOL Happiness Overall Life

INE Instituto Nacional de Estadística

ISCI International Society for Child Indicators

ISCWeB International Survey on Children's Well-being

MINECO Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness of the Spanish

Government

OECD Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

OLS Overall Life Satisfaction

ONS Office for National Statistics

PEAQ Personally Expressive Activities Questionnaire

PG Personal Growth scale

PIL Purpose In Life scale

PISA Programme for International Student Assessment

PSE Poverty and Social Exclusion Survey

PWB Psychological well-being

PWBS Psychological Well-Being Scale

PWI Personal Well-being Index

PWI-SC Personal Well-being Index - School Children

QEWB Questionnaire for Eudaimonic Well-Being

QOLPAV Quality of Life Profile - Adolescent Version

SDT Self Determination Theory

SPSS Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

SWB Subjective well-being

SWLS Satisfaction With Life Scale

SWLS-C Satisfaction with Life Scale adapted for Children

UK United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

UN United Nations

UNCRC United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child

UNICEF United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund

USA United States of America

WHO World Health Organization

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1. ABSTRACT



1.1. ABSTRACT

he concept of social exclusion emerged to broaden the analysis of poverty, trying to understand it highlighting the contextual dimension and being more useful for cross-country comparisons (Jones & Smyth, 1999). Levitas and colleagues' (2007) social exclusion definition is considered for this thesis, pointing out its complexity, multidimensionality, the lack of resources, the inability to participate in activities and having relationships the same as the rest of the society and the effects that being excluded can have on people's quality of life and the cohesion of the society as a whole.

The study of well-being from the quality of life paradigm and from positive psychology later on, is founded on two traditions: the hedonic and the eudaimonic. The eudaimonic tradition is concerned with living well and realizing one's human potential as opposed to an outcome or a psychological state and it is focused on psychological well-being (PWB) (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Distinguishing it from the hedonic tradition, which generally focuses on the presence of positive affect, the absence of negative affect and the degree of satisfaction with one's own life, studied through subjective well-being (SWB) (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

Social scientists have intensely debated the link between poverty and SWB with children. There is no significant relationship between children's SWB and child poverty when the latter was reported by adults (Knies, 2011; Rees et al., 2012). However, when poverty was reported by children and adolescents, it was more strongly related to low SWB than it was to high SWB (Main & Bradshaw, 2012). It is important therefore to understand that child-reported poverty measures capture some of the information that is missed when incomefocused and adult-derived measures are utilised (Main, 2014).

Children's and adolescents' SWB and the subjective concept of child poverty - and consequently the social exclusion concept - have common roots: the Social Indicators and the Child Indicators Movements. However, when it comes to the relationship between eudaimonic well-being, poverty and social exclusion, no information has been found so far despite the fact that recent studies have examined the protective benefits of eudaimonic well-being in the context of social inequality.

There is a lack of information about social exclusion and eudaimonic well-being from a children's and adolescents' point of view. With both affecting their lives to large extent, it

should be necessary to better understand what they mean from children's and adolescents' perspective and to know a better a method of assessment.

The arguments presented in this thesis defend the importance of studying the social exclusion factors that can hinder and diminish the probabilities for experiencing living well as understood from an eudaimonic sense and from a child-centric perspective, this being a novel contribution of the work done.

Accordingly, the main objective of this thesis is to explore eudaimonic (psychological) well-being and social exclusion from children's and adolescents' perspective and the associations between these constructs and with other related ones such as hedonic (subjective) well-being. This is more concretely detailed in the following specific aims: 1) To operationalise child social exclusion in empirical research using data from children and to evaluate how the instrument developed works in different countries, this including, among others, well-being indicators; 2) To explore the relationship between children's PWB and social exclusion indicators in different countries; 3) To explore and understand which aspects contribute most to achieving full satisfaction in life from the adolescents' point of view, as well as to explore its relationship with subjective and psychological well-being, measured using different instruments; and 4) To explore three dimensions (life goals, autonomy and positive relations with others) for adolescent's eudaimonic living and their relationship with different levels of SWB.

This is a doctoral thesis developed through publications, and each publication faces one of the aforementioned specific aims. The findings put into evidence the contribution of all of them to respond to the main objective and the need to use different types of methodologies. The data used comes from two projects: the international project Children's Worlds and a regional project carried out in Girona province (Catalonia, north-east of Spain). The first and the second publications use data from 16 countries (15 in the second one) and the sample used is formed by a total of 19,212 children who answered a questionnaire. Almost half of them are boys (48.8%) with some variations among countries, and the mean age is 12.02 years-old (SD = 0.610) for the pooled sample. The third and fourth publications use the regional data: a total of 940 participants from 16 educational centres aged between 9 and 17 answered the questionnaires (44.1% were boys and 55.9% girls), and 100 of them participated in a focus group over two consecutive years. A composite index was calculated with scores from three psychometric scales to classify participants into higher and lower

SWB levels for the qualitative stage. The third publication analyses quantitative data and the last one uses a mixed methods approach.

The first study entitled **Child social exclusion** is one of the first attempts to operationalise social exclusion for children. The study used the domains of the Bristol Social Exclusion Matrix (B-Sem: Levitas et al., 2007) as a theoretical base to build an instrument using children's opinions and perceptions with the aim of comparing child social exclusion across countries. The social exclusion indicators have been summarised into 3 domains (material and economic resources, participation and quality of life) and 7 sub-domains, including well-being indicators, among others.

The second study **Child psychological well-being and its associations with material deprivation and type of home** explores the relationship between PWB and two social exclusion indicators. The results of the article show that child material deprivation and the fact of not living with the family are more strongly related to 'low PWB' than the absence of material deprivation and living with the family are for 'high PWB'. Therefore, the contexts (concerning deprivation and households) in which children live seem to strongly influence their PWB.

The third study What aspects are important to adolescents to achieve full satisfaction in life? analyses which aspects are considered important for achieving full satisfaction in life (AFSL) and the relationship between them and subjective and psychological well-being measured through psychometric scales. The AFSLs that were considered as most important for the students were being happy, having a good time, having new experiences and feeling that I make other people happy. The AFSLs that were considered to be most important were not necessarily those that contribute most to explaining SWB and PWB. Appreciating the small things in life is the AFSL that contributes to explaining all the psychometric instruments used in the study (the Overall Life Satisfaction scale, the Happiness with Overall Life scale, the Personal Well-being Index, the Satisfaction With Life Scale and the Brief Multidimensional Student's Life Satisfaction Scale), and feeling that I am a fair and honest person also contributes to explaining all the instruments except the Overall Life Satisfaction scale.

The fourth study entitled The use of mixed methods to study in depth adolescents' perceptions and assessment of their autonomy, life goals and positive relations with others analyses three important dimensions for the adolescent's eudaimonic living and their

relationship with SWB. The results put into evidence the relevance of these 3 PWB dimensions reported by adolescents themselves. The differences found between the groups with higher and lower SWB mean scores are statistically significant in almost all comparisons and for all three eudaimonic dimensions. Results suggest the existence of a link between hedonic and eudaimonic traditions (Ryan & Deci, 2001): adolescents with the highest levels of SWB also displayed higher scores in the variables related with these 3 dimensions and, in contrast, participants with the lowest levels of SWB also displayed lower scores in these dimensions.

The results help in knowing what aspects decision makers should take into account in order to prevent child social exclusion and to improve their well-being through policies. Children and adolescents in this study are reporting an interesting and alternative point of view to the policies made from an adult-centric view to tackle poverty and social exclusion. Policy makers should include their opinions in the decision making process. For example, it is known from children that they have a higher risk of social exclusion if they are not satisfied with the place or area where they live or if they are not participating in organised leisure time activities. Both of these aspects can be acknowledged and improved through social policies.

To conclude, the results leave a challenging mission on the table. Social exclusion and eudaimonic well-being cannot be reduced to a single number. However, if the aim is to keep track of the progress made in reducing social exclusion and increasing eudaimonic well-being, an assessment of them is needed, this thesis is providing tools on how to do that.

Keywords: social exclusion, eudaimonic well-being, subjective well-being, children, adolescents.

1.2. RESUM

l concepte d'exclusió social va sorgir per ampliar l'anàlisi de la pobresa, intentant entendre el concepte tot destacant la dimensió contextual i fent-la més útil per a les comparacions entre països (Jones & Smyth, 1999). Per a la present tesi doctoral, es considera la definició d'exclusió social de Levitas et al. (2007) que destaca la complexitat i multidimensionalitat del concepte, la manca de recursos i la incapacitat per participar en activitats i relacions com la resta de la societat, i també els efectes que l'exclusió pot tenir sobre la qualitat de vida de les persones i la cohesió de la societat en general.

L'estudi del benestar des del paradigma de la qualitat de vida i, més tard, de la psicologia positiva es basa en dues tradicions: l'hedonisme i l'eudaimonia. La tradició eudaimònica fa referència al viure bé i la realització del potencial humà enlloc d'un resultat o un estat psicològic, i se centra en l'estudi del benestar psicològic (PWB) (Deci & Ryan, 2008); distingint-lo de la tradició hedònica, que generalment es centra en la presència d'afectes positius, l'absència d'afectes negatius i el grau de satisfacció amb la vida, i s'estudia a través del benestar subjectiu (SWB) (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

Els científics socials han debatut intensament el vincle entre la pobresa infantil i el SWB. La relació entre ambdós conceptes no és significativa quan es mesuren a través de les opinions dels adults (Knies, 2011; Rees et al., 2012). En canvi, sí que trobem relació entre un baix nivell de SWB i la manca de recursos materials quan es pregunta als infants i adolescents (Main & Bradshaw, 2012). És important entendre que la pobresa mesurada tenint en compte els infants i adolescents permet obtenir una informació que no tenim quan avaluem la pobresa infantil a través d'opinions adultes o considerant només els ingressos econòmics (Main, 2014).

El SWB dels nens i adolescents i el concepte subjectiu de pobresa infantil - i en conseqüència, el concepte d'exclusió social - tenen arrels comunes: el moviment dels indicadors socials i dels indicadors infantils. No obstant això, quan es tracta del benestar eudaimònic i de la pobresa i l'exclusió social, no s'ha trobat encara informació sobre la seva relació. Tanmateix, recentment s'han estudiat els beneficis protectors del benestar eudaimònic en el context de la desigualtat social.

Ens trobem amb un buit d'informació sobre l'exclusió social i el benestar eudaimònic des de la perspectiva dels infants i adolescents. Essent dos constructes que afecten a les seves vides, és necessari estudiar-los des del seu punt de vista per aprendre millors maneres d'avaluar-los.

Els arguments presentats en aquesta tesi doctoral defensen la importància d'estudiar els factors d'exclusió social que poden dificultar i disminuir les probabilitats d'experimentar el viure bé entès des d'un sentit eudaimònic i des de la perspectiva dels infants, resultant una contribució innovadora del treball realitzat.

En conseqüència, l'objectiu principal de la tesi és explorar el benestar eudaimònic (psicològic) i l'exclusió social des de la perspectiva dels infants i els adolescents, i les associacions entre aquests constructes i d'altres relacionats, com ara el benestar hedònic (subjectiu). Això es detalla de forma més concreta en els següents objectius específics: 1) Operacionalitzar l'exclusió social infantil en la recerca empírica utilitzant dades d'infants i avaluar com funciona l'instrument desenvolupat en diferents països, incloent, entre d'altres, indicadors de benestar; 2) Explorar la relació entre el PWB infantil i els indicadors d'exclusió social en diferents països; 3) Explorar i comprendre quins aspectes contribueixen a assolir una vida plenament satisfactòria des del punt de vista dels adolescents, així com explorar la seva relació amb el benestar subjectiu i psicològic, mesurat a través de diferents instruments; i 4) Explorar tres dimensions (objectius vitals, autonomia i relacions positives amb els altres) de la vida eudaimònica en l'adolescència i la seva relació amb els diferents nivells de SWB.

Tractant-se d'una tesi doctoral desenvolupada a través de publicacions, cada publicació té com a repte un dels objectius específics esmentats. Els resultats posen en evidència la contribució de tots ells per respondre a l'objectiu principal i la necessitat d'utilitzar diferents tipus de metodologies. Les dades emprades provenen de dos projectes: el projecte internacional *Children's Worlds* i un projecte regional dut a terme a la província de Girona (Catalunya, nord-est d'Espanya). La primera i segona publicació utilitzen dades de 16 països (15 a la segona) i la mostra utilitzada està formada per un total de 19.212 infants que van respondre el qüestionari. Un 48,8% són nens i el 52,2% nenes i l'edat mitjana és de 12,02 anys (DS = 0,610). El tercer i quart article utilitzen les dades regionals: un total de 940 participants de 16 centres educatius d'entre 9 i 17 anys van respondre als qüestionaris (44,1% nois i 55,9% noies), i 100 d'ells van participar en un *focus group* durant dos anys consecutius. Amb les puntuacions de tres escales psicomètriques es va calcular un índex per classificar els participants en dos grups per a la fase qualitativa: el grup amb puntuacions més altes en

SWB, i el de puntuacions més baixes. La tercera publicació analitza les dades quantitatives i l'última utilitza una metodologia mixta.

El primer article porta per títol *Child social exclusion* [Exclusió social infantil] i es tracta d'un primer intent per avaluar l'exclusió social infantil. L'estudi utilitza les dimensions de la Bristol Social Exclusion Matrix (B-Sem: Levitas et al., 2007) com a base teòrica per desenvolupar un instrument partint de les opinions i percepcions dels infants amb l'objectiu de comparar l'exclusió social en diferents països. Els indicadors d'exclusió social han estat resumits en 3 dimensions (recursos materials i econòmics, participació i qualitat de vida) i 7 sub-dimensions, entre les quals s'inclouen indicadors de benestar.

El segon estudi *Child psychological well-being and its associations with material deprivation and type of home* [Benestar psicològic infantil i la seva associació amb la privació material i la tipologia de llar] explora la relació entre el PWB i dos indicadors d'exclusió social. Els resultats de l'article mostren que la manca de recursos materials dels infants i el fet de no viure amb la pròpia família estan fortament relacionats amb un baix nivell de PWB. Per tant, els contextos (considerant la tipologia de llar i els recursos materials) en els quals viu l'infant influencien el seu PWB.

El tercer estudi What aspects are important to adolescents to achieve full satisfaction in life? [Quins aspectes són importants pels adolescents per aconseguir una vida plenament satisfactòria?] analitza els aspectes que es consideren importants per aconseguir una vida plenament satisfactòria i la relació entre ells i el benestar subjectiu i psicològic, avaluat mitjançant escales psicomètriques. Els aspectes que els participants consideren més importants eren ser feliç, passar-ho bé, tenir noves experiències i sentir que faig feliç als altres. Els aspectes que es consideren més importants no són necessàriament els que més contribueixen a explicar el SWB i el PWB. Apreciar les coses petites de la vida és l'aspecte que contribueix a explicar tots els instruments psicomètrics utilitzats en l'estudi (Overall Life Satisfaction scale, Happiness with Overall Life scale, Personal Well-being Index, Satisfaction With Life Scale i Brief Multidimensional Student's Life Satisfaction Scale), i sentir que sóc una persona justa i honesta també contribueix a explicar tots els instruments excepte la Overall Life Satisfaction scale.

El quart article titulat The use of mixed methods to study in depth adolescents' perceptions and assessment of their autonomy, life goals and positive relations with others [L'ús de la

metodologia mixta per analitzar en profunditat les percepcions i avaluacions dels adolescents

de la seva autonomia, objectius vitals i relacions positives amb els altres] analitza tres

dimensions importants per al benestar eudaimònic dels adolescents i la seva relació amb el

SWB. Els participants d'aquest estudi subratllen la rellevància d'aquestes tres dimensions

segons els mateixos adolescents. Les diferències entre els grups amb les puntuacions més

altes i més baixes en SWB són estadísticament significatives en gairebé totes les

comparacions i per a les tres dimensions. Els resultats suggereixen l'existència d'una relació

entre les tradicions hedònica i eudaimònica (Ryan & Deci, 2001): els adolescents amb

puntuacions més altes en SWB també presenten puntuacions més altes en les variables

relacionades amb les 3 dimensions. Pel contrari els participants amb les puntuacions més

baixes en SWB presenten puntuacions baixes en les tres dimensions.

Els resultats ajuden a conèixer quins aspectes haurien de tenir en compte els responsables de

la presa de decisions per evitar l'exclusió social dels infants i adolescents i millorar el seu

benestar a través de polítiques socials. Els participants als estudis d'aquesta tesi presenten un

punt de vista interessant i alternatiu a les polítiques elaborades d'una perspectiva adulta per

afrontar la pobresa i l'exclusió social. Els responsables polítics haurien d'incloure les opinions

dels més joves en el procés de presa de decisions. Per exemple, sabem que els infants i

adolescents presenten un risc d'exclusió social més alt si no estan satisfets amb el lloc on

viuen o si no participen en activitats d'oci. Aquests aspectes es poden reconèixer i millorar a

través de les polítiques socials.

En conclusió, els resultats deixen un repte encoratjador damunt la taula. L'exclusió social i el

benestar eudaimònic no es poden reduir a un sol número. Tanmateix, si l'objectiu és fer un

seguiment dels progressos realitzats en la reducció de l'exclusió social i l'augment del

benestar eudaimonic, cal fer-ne una avaluació, i aquesta tesi proporciona un conjunt d'eines

per fer-ho.

Paraules clau: exclusió social, benestar eudaimònic, benestar subjectiu, nens, adolescents.

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1.3. RESUMEN

I concepto de exclusión social surgió para ampliar el análisis de la pobreza, intentando entender el concepto, destacando su dimensión contextual y haciéndola más útil para las comparaciones entre países (Jones & Smyth, 1999). Para la presente tesis doctoral, se considera la definición de exclusión social de Levitas et al. (2007) que destaca la complejidad y multidimensionalidad del concepto, la falta de recursos y la incapacidad para participar en actividades y relaciones como el resto de la sociedad, así como los efectos que la exclusión puede tener sobre la calidad de vida de las personas y la cohesión de la sociedad en general.

El estudio del bienestar desde el paradigma de la calidad de vida, y de la psicología positiva más tarde, se basa en dos tradiciones: el hedonismo y la eudaimonia. La tradición eudaimónica hace referencia al vivir bien y a la realización del potencial humano en lugar de un resultado o un estado psicológico, y se centra en el estudio del bienestar psicológico (PWB) (Deci & Ryan, 2008); distinguiéndolo de la tradición hedónica, que generalmente se centra en la presencia de afectos positivos, la ausencia de afectos negativos y el grado de satisfacción con la vida, y que se estudia a través del bienestar subjetivo (SWB) (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

Los científicos sociales han debatido intensamente el vínculo entre la pobreza infantil y el SWB. La relación entre ambos conceptos no es significativa cuando se miden a través de las opiniones de los adultos (Knies, 2011; Rees et al., 2012). En cambio, sí que encontramos relación entre un bajo nivel de SWB y la falta de recursos materiales cuando se pregunta a los niños y adolescentes (Main & Bradshaw, 2012). Es importante pues entender que la pobreza infantil medida teniendo en cuenta los niños y adolescentes se obtiene una información que no tenemos cuando la evaluamos a través de opiniones adultas o considerando solamente los ingresos económicos (Main, 2014).

El SWB de los niños y adolescentes y el concepto subjetivo de pobreza infantil - y en consecuencia, el concepto de exclusión social - tienen raíces comunes: el movimiento de los indicadores sociales y de los indicadores infantiles. No obstante, cuando se trata del bienestar eudaimonico y la pobreza y la exclusión social, no se ha encontrado aún información sobre su relación. Sin embargo, recientemente se han estudiado los beneficios protectores del bienestar eudaimonico en el contexto de la desigualdad social.

Nos encontramos con un vacío de información sobre la exclusión social y el bienestar eudaimonico considerándolos desde la perspectiva de los niños y adolescentes. Siendo éstos dos constructos que afectan a sus vidas, es necesario estudiarlos desde su punto de vista para aprender mejores maneras de evaluarlos y entenderlos.

Los argumentos presentados en esta tesis doctoral defienden la importancia de estudiar los factores de la exclusión social que pueden dificultar y disminuir las probabilidades de experimentar el vivir bien entendido desde un sentido eudemónico y des de la perspectiva de los niños, siendo ésta una contribución innovadora del trabajo realizado.

En consecuencia, el objetivo principal de la tesis es explorar el bienestar eudaimónico (psicológico) y la exclusión social desde la perspectiva de los niños y los adolescentes, y las asociaciones entre estos constructos y otros relacionados como el bienestar hedónico (subjetivo). Esto se detalla en los siguientes objetivos específicos: 1) Operacionalizar la exclusión social infantil en la investigación empírica utilizando datos de niños y evaluar cómo funciona el instrumento en diferentes países, incluyendo indicadores de bienestar, entre otros; 2) Explorar la relación entre el PWB infantil e indicadores de exclusión social en diferentes países; 3) Explorar y comprender qué aspectos contribuyen a alcanzar una vida plenamente satisfactoria desde el punto de vista de los adolescentes, así como explorar su relación con el bienestar subjetivo y psicológico, evaluado a través de diferentes instrumentos; y 4) Explorar tres dimensiones (objetivos vitales, autonomía y relaciones positivas con los demás) para la vida eudaimónica de los adolescentes y su relación con los diferentes niveles de SWB.

Al tratarse de una tesis doctoral desarrollada a través de publicaciones, cada artículo científico da respuesta a uno de los objetivos específicos mencionados. Los resultados ponen en evidencia la contribución de todos ellos para responder al objetivo principal y la necesidad de utilizar diferentes tipos de metodologías. Los datos utilizados provienen de dos proyectos: el proyecto internacional *Children's Worlds* y un proyecto regional llevado a cabo en la provincia de Gerona (Cataluña, noreste de España). La primera y segunda publicaciones utilizan datos de 16 países (15 en la segunda) y la muestra utilizada está formada por un total de 19.212 niños que respondieron el cuestionario. Un 48,8% son niños y 52,2% son niñas y la edad media es de 12,02 años (SD = 0,610). La tercera y cuarta publicaciones utilizan los datos regionales: un total de 940 participantes de 16 centros educativos de entre 9 y 17 años respondieron a los cuestionarios (44,1% chicos y 55,9% chicas), de los cuales 100

participaron en un *focus grup* durante dos años consecutivos. Con las puntuaciones de tres escalas psicométricas se calculó un índice para clasificar los participantes en dos grupos para la fase cualitativa: el grupo con puntuaciones más altas en SWB, y el de puntuaciones más bajas. La tercera publicación analiza los datos cuantitativos y la última utiliza una metodología mixta.

El primer artículo lleva por título *Child social exclusion* [Exclusión social infantil] y se trata de un primer intento para evaluar la exclusión social infantil. El estudio utiliza las dimensiones de la Bristol Social Exclusion Matrix (B-Sem: Levitas et al., 2007) como base teórica para desarrollar un instrumento utilizando las opiniones y percepciones de los niños y niñas con el objetivo de comparar la exclusión social en diferentes países. Los indicadores de exclusión social han sido resumidos en 3 dimensiones (recursos materiales y económicos, participación y calidad de vida) y 7 sub-dimensiones, incluyendo indicadores de bienestar entre otros.

El segundo estudio *Child psychological well-being and its associations with material deprivation and type of home* [Bienestar psicológico infantil y su asociación con la privación material y la tipología de hogar] explora la relación entre el PWB y dos indicadores de exclusión social. Los resultados del artículo muestran que la falta de recursos materiales de los niños y el hecho de no vivir con la propia familia están fuertemente relacionados con un bajo nivel de PWB. Por lo tanto, los contextos (considerando la tipología de hogar y los recursos materiales) en los que vive el niño influencian a su PWB.

El tercer estudio What aspects are important to adolescents to achieve full satisfaction in life? [¿Qué aspectos son importantes para los adolescentes para lograr una vida plenamente satisfactoria?] analiza los aspectos que se consideran importantes para lograr unavida plenamente satisfactoria y la relación entre ellos y el bienestar subjetivo y psicológico evaluado a través de escalas psicométricas. Los aspectos que los participantes consideran más importantes son ser feliz, pasarlo bien, tener nuevas experiencias y sentir que hago feliz a los demás. Los aspectos que se consideran más importantes no son necesariamente los que más contribuyen a explicar el SWB y el PWB. Apreciar las cosas pequeñas de la vida es el aspecto que contribuye a explicar todos los instrumentos psicométricos utilizados en el estudio (Overall Life Satisfaction scale, Happiness with Overall Life scale, Personal Wellbeing Index, Satisfaction With Life Scale y Brief Multidimensional Student's Life

Satisfaction Scale), y *sentir que soy una persona justa y honesta*, también contribuye a explicar todos los instrumentos excepto la Overall Life Satisfaction.

El cuarto artículo titulado *The use of mixed methods to study in depth adolescents'* perceptions and assessment of their autonomy, life goals and positive relations with others [El uso de la metodología mixta para analizar en profundidad las percepciones y evaluaciones de su autonomía, objetivos vitales y relaciones positivas con los demás] analiza tres dimensiones importantes para el bienestar eudaimónico de los adolescentes y su relación con el SWB. Los resultados evidencian la relevancia de estas dimensiones según los propios adolescentes. Las diferencias entre los grupos con las puntuaciones más altas y más bajas en SWB son estadísticamente significativas en casi todas las comparaciones y para todas las dimensiones. Los resultados sugieren la existencia de un vínculo entre las tradiciones hedónica y eudaimónica (Ryan & Deci, 2001): los adolescentes con puntuaciones más altas en SWB también presentan puntuaciones más altas en las variables relacionadas con las 3 dimensiones. Por el contrario los participantes con las menores puntuaciones en SWB presentan puntuaciones bajas en las tres dimensiones.

Los resultados ayudan a conocer qué aspectos deben tener en cuenta los responsables de la toma de decisiones para evitar la exclusión social de los niños y adolescentes y mejorar su bienestar a través de las políticas sociales. Los niños y adolescentes de esta tesis presentan un punto de vista interesante y alternativo a las políticas elaboradas desde la perspectiva adulta para afrontar la pobreza y la exclusión social. Los responsables políticos deberían incluir las opiniones de los más jóvenes en el proceso de toma de decisiones. Por ejemplo, sabemos que los niños y adolescentes presentan un riesgo de exclusión social más alto si no están satisfechos con el lugar donde viven o si no participan en actividades de ocio. Ambos aspectos se pueden reconocer y mejorar a través de las políticas sociales.

En conclusión, los resultados dejan un reto alentador sobre la mesa. La exclusión social y el bienestar eudaimonico no se pueden reducir a un sólo número. Sin embargo, si el objetivo es hacer un seguimiento de los progresos realizados en la reducción de la exclusión social y el aumento del bienestar eudaimonico, hay que hacer una evaluación, y esta tesis proporciona las herramientas para poder hacerlo.

Palabras clave: exclusión social, bienestar eudaimónico, bienestar subjetivo, niños, adolescentes.

2. INTRODUCTION



his doctoral thesis has been elaborated in the context of the ERIDIQV: the research team on Childhood, Adolescence, Children's Rights and their Quality of Life from the University of Girona. The research presented was jointly supported by the Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness (MINECO) of the Spanish Government through a grant. The purpose of the funding involved collaborating with the research team, specially helping with the design, data collection, analysis and divulgation of the results of the two main projects, a regional and an international one, conducted by the team. The thesis is a compendium of four publications, two already published and two sent to the journals. The four papers are the main part of the thesis. All publications used data from the ERIDIQV's projects.

The work is organised into seven sections.

Following a brief introduction, the third chapter, the theoretical background, is divided in three parts. The first part provides an overview of literature on conceptualisations of poverty and social exclusion. The second part details the theoretical and empirical background to the well-being research, distinguishing the hedonic and the eudaimonic dimensions and their differences and overlaps. Chapter 3 also includes a third part where the link between social exclusion and well-being is presented. The aim of this chapter is to assess the evidence for the need for this doctoral thesis and set the scene for the work presented in what follows.

Our own approach and the perspective within we situate ourselves, the justification of the study and the objectives are presented in the fourth chapter.

In the fifth chapter we give a description of the two projects in which we find the four studies that were carried out, including sampling, instruments, procedure and analysis. Whilst the two projects and the methodology used are presented in this chapter, specific details of methods are found in each publication in the sixth chapter.

Chapter 6 includes the four papers as main findings of the doctoral thesis. Two of the papers, already published, have comments from the reviewers and includes our responses to show the procedure followed.

Lastly, this is followed by chapter 7 with our discussion and conclusions. This chapter concludes the thesis providing a summary of the main discussions, details of limitations of this work and implications for future research.

3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND



3.1. FROM POVERTY AND DEPRIVATION TO SOCIAL EXCLUSION

3.1.1. POVERTY

owadays, poverty could be defined as:

"A complex and multidimensional situation that is characterized not only by observable features of some individuals in relation to income opportunities, education, or health but also by a higher risk of suffering adverse conditions and to recover worse from them than other people in society" (Goerlich, 2014, p. 4,977).

Goerlich's definition is one amongst dozens. However, poverty has not always been understood in that way. In 1960s, there were some authors who affirmed that poverty was a valuable judgement which was not possible to verify or demonstrate, because "poverty, like beauty, lies in the eye of the beholder" (Orshansky, 1969, p.37). Luckily, since this outrageous sentence, significant theoretical advances have been made in poverty research, and it has been proved that poverty is a social fact within all cultures (Gordon & Spicker, 1999).

Deprivation is a concept that has always been at the centre of the conceptualization of poverty, defining deprived as "prevented from possessing or enjoying the necessities of life leading to a damaging lack of basic material and cultural benefits" (Whelan & Nolan, 2014, p.1,575). Traditionally, absolute poverty lines such as household income have been used for measuring and monitoring poverty. However, awareness of monetary measures' limitations brought the field more interest in non-monetary and deprivation based assessments, and poverty definitions started changing and pointing out the relative dimension of poverty and the multidimensionality of the concept. Deprivation is concerned with what it is like to be poor, not only with identifying who is or who is not poor because of their income (Whelan & Nolan, 2014).

Some poverty definitions have had political repercussions with an impact on the poverty reduction strategies chosen by policymakers. For instance, in 1984, the Council of the European Union defined poor people as:

"Persons, families and groups of persons whose resources (material, cultural and social) are so limited as to exclude them from the minimum acceptable way of life in the Member States in which they live" (European Economic Community, 1985, p.24).

This definition, even if it is not precise enough, clearly defined poverty in multidimensional and relative terms. In 1995 at the World Summit for Social Development that took place in Copenhagen, the definitions of absolute and overall poverty were agreed by 117 countries. Absolute poverty was defined as:

"A condition characterised by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information. It depends not only on income but also on access to social services" (World Summit for Social Development, & United Nations, 1995, chapter II).

For policy purposes, this definition sees poverty in terms of minimum acceptable standards of living within the society where the person lives. The United Nations (UN) also went further and recognised other factors that could contribute to being poor:

"Lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterised by lack of participation in decision making and in civil, social and cultural life. It occurs in all countries: as mass poverty in many developing countries, pockets of poverty amid wealth in developed countries, loss of livelihoods as a result of economic recession, sudden poverty as a result of disaster or conflict, the poverty of low-wage workers, and the utter destitution of people who fall outside family support systems, social institutions and safety nets" (United Nations, 1995, chapter II).

The research of one of the most important authors in the field, Peter Townsend, resulted in a paradigm shift in poverty measurement methodology. His definition of poverty is well-known among researchers:

"Individuals, families and groups in the population can be said to be in poverty when they lack the resources to obtain the types of diet, participate in the activities and have the living conditions and amenities which are customary, or at least widely encouraged or approved, in the society to which they belong" (Townsend, 1979, p. 31).

With this definition, Townsend pointed out the importance of the society and the environment where the individual is living, as well as other variables apart from the resources domain and living conditions, such as participation. He added that poverty is a dynamic and relative concept, and the community (local, national or international) where the person lives is important to determine the fall of resources over time (Townsend, 1962). Townsend was a pioneer in the research field, using non-monetary indicators of deprivation and developing the first multi-dimensional deprivation index (1979).

Apart from the traditional and conventional definitions of poverty where the concept is seen largely in monetary terms (Haughton & Khandker, 2009), another view emerged parallel to the Townsend's one: Amartya Sen's Capability Approach (Sen, 1983). This approach is an alternative to the standard economic frameworks for thinking about poverty and inequality and emphasises the role of individual capabilities (Lee, 2014). A lack of those key capabilities (income, education, health, security, self-confidence, power) in a member of society makes poverty arise, whereas having those capabilities can help to achieve utility and human functioning. The author points out that well-being should be assessed in terms of functionings (beings and doings that the person values and has reason to value) and capabilities (the combinations of these functionings that can be achieved by the person) (Sen, 1992). This approach proposes moving from "concentrating on the means of living to the actual opportunities of living" (Sen, 2009, p.233). Hence, Sen (1987, 1992) affirms that poverty is a capability deprivation and that the standard of life lies in the living and not in having commodities. Identifying a minimal combination of basic capabilities would be a good way of measuring poverty (Sen, 1983) but the author refused to recognise a unique list of capabilities (Sen, 1993) although other authors generated them applying his framework (see e.g., Alkire, 2002; Alkire & Black, 1997; Clark, 2003; Nussbaum, 1990, 2000). The Capability Approach goes beyond poverty itself, and is concerned also with well-being in general (Clark, 2005). The author's framework is connected with Aristotle's theory of eudaimonia and human flourishing (see Nussbaum, 1990), Smith's (1776) analysis of necessities and living conditions, and Karl Marx's (1844, cited in Marx, Engels, Engels, Marx, & Engels, 1987) studies of human freedom and emancipation, among others.

3.1.2. SOCIAL EXCLUSION

xcluded people and groups have always existed "for as long as men and women have lived in communities and have wished to give a meaning to community life" (Estivill, 2003) but it was not until late 1980s when policymakers and researchers highlighted the importance of identifying people who lack resources and are unable to participate in society. Instead of talking about poor people, identifying those being excluded or experiencing exclusion, became a new trend in the field. Deprivation indicators helped to classify those socially excluded (Mack & Lansley, 1985), and more extensive sets of indicators started to be used for British poverty and social exclusion studies (Gordon et al., 2000).

Lenoir's (1974) publication of Les exclus was a "milestone in the emergence of social exclusion as a concept" (Estivill, 2003). The author's main concern was that one in ten French people were being economically and socially left out (Estivill, 2003). However, it is not until 1990s when the concept of social exclusion appeared in the discourse on poverty and living standards in France (sociale exclusion) and then spread all over Europe (Bradshaw, 2004). It was a concept developed by policymakers, not by social researchers. In England, the concept arrived after a Tory period when the word poverty was denied and expunged from official documents, 'low income' being the fashionable word that stood in its place. For this reason social exclusion was initially greeted with suspicion by some social scientists, especially by Levitas (1998) who published the book *The Inclusive Society* drawing attention to the political and ideological baggage that the concept had picked up. She distinguished between 3 types of discourses of social exclusion: the moral underclass discourse where the individual was blamed for his or her situation; the social integrationist New Labour or Third Way discourse where equal influence was for both rights and responsibilities and the solution for social exclusion was education and employment; and the traditional left redistributive egalitarian discourse where structural factors and policies were considered the cause of social exclusion, and redistributive taxation and public expenditure the solution. The last ones argued that the concept of social exclusion was similar to the social understanding of poverty, for example Townsend's definition from 1979 already included resources, community and a spatial element. The suspicion provoked by Levitas' book was general in the research arena, but some early advocates (Room, 1995) argued that the concept of social exclusion expanded income or expenditure based measures of poverty, to include multi-dimensional disadvantage and provided a more structural and dynamic perspective.

Probably because of the general agreement that poverty is not only about money and dissatisfaction with income measures of poverty, the need for a new concept emerged and helped to motivate researchers in moving beyond the traditional analyses and to include the non-monetary deprivation and the relational dimension of poverty, without being scared of using the social exclusion concept. Not surprisingly, the European Union (EU) grabbed and adopted the French concept in contradistinction to poverty, and in 1990, within the Third European Programme to Combat Poverty, the Observatory on National Policies to Combat Social Exclusion was created. For the first 3 years it was coordinated by Room and later on by Robbins. The objective of the Observatory was to study "the efforts of the public authorities within each member state to combat social exclusion" (Room, 1991, p.4). For the Observatory, the definition of social exclusion was "first and foremost in relation to the social rights of citizens" (Room, 1992, p.14), social rights being understood as the right to "a certain basic standard of living and to participate in the major social and occupational institutions of the society" (Room, 1992, p.14). At the Lisbon summit in 2000, the European Council adopted an Open Method of Coordination with the objective to make a decisive impact on the eradication of poverty and social exclusion by 2010. The first National Action Plans on Social Inclusion 2001-2003 were published in 2001. Later on, social exclusion and inclusion became a theme of the EU with poverty and social exclusion targets being set for 2020.

The definition of social exclusion has been widely discussed by many researchers but never agreed (Levitas, 2006; Micklewright, 2002). Studies make an emphasis on the differences between social exclusion and other more traditional concepts such as inequality, poverty and multidimensional deprivation (see e.g., Atkinson, Cantillon, Marlier, & Nolan, 2002; Room, 1995; Sen, 1998). Social exclusion is a relative, multidimensional and dynamic concept (Bellani & D'Ambrosio, 2014), and that makes it, at the same time, similar but different to the traditional concepts. The concept of social exclusion has helped to ensure equal opportunities and to reinforce the importance of basic social rights - access to education, employment and housing - and other essential resources and services (Böhnke & Silver, 2014).

Levitas et al. (2007) proposed a definition of social exclusion:

"Social exclusion is a complex and multi-dimensional process. It involves the lack or denial of resources, rights, goods and services, and the inability to participate in the normal relationships and activities, available to the majority of people in a society, whether in economic, social, cultural or political arenas. It affects both the quality of life of individuals and the equity and cohesion of society as a whole" (Levitas et al, 2007, p.25).

The scientific literature on social exclusion addresses three main themes (Gross-Manos, 2015; Room, 1998): the process and dynamics that produce inequality and that are part of a disadvantaged life (Levitas, 1998; Room, 1998); the context in which the excluded person relates to the services and resources provided by the community (Room, 1998; Saunders, 2003); and the inadequate participation and lack of social integration and power that is within social exclusion (Room, 1998). Atkinson (1998) added the term of agency as an important element in social exclusion. The author pointed out that a weakness of the poverty and social exclusion approaches is that there is low emphasis on agency processes as enabling or as oppressing the socially excluded person. Atkinson noted that actions by people and institutions have an impact in including or excluding them from the society. However, analysis of these actions should combine several factors such as geography, mental health, disability and ethnicity (Redmond, 2014).

3.1.3. MEASURING POVERTY AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION

hy measure poverty and social exclusion? Assessing poverty and social exclusion is essential if we want to keep track of the work done in attempting to reduce them. However, it is not as easy as choosing an index. The instruments used will depend on the definition of the concepts chosen and, at the same time, will determine the policies required to respond to them. So, there are as many ways of assessing poverty and social exclusion as there are ways of defining it. However, it is not impossible to do:

"Since poverty has such clear and damaging effects, it should and can be scientifically measured. Poverty may be multidimensional, relative and dynamic, but this does not mean it is impossible to measure" (Gordon & Nandy, 2012, p.63).

Measuring poverty

Measuring poverty involves two steps (Sen, 1976): identifying the criteria to distinguish between poor and non-poor, usually using poverty lines or thresholds; and aggregating data

collected from poor people into an overall indicator of poverty, usually choosing a particular index or measure. The headcount ratio, the poverty gap and the poverty severity are the most widely used poverty measures (Alkire & Foster, 2011; Ravallion, 1998). The first identifies the incidence of poverty, the percentage of population that is poor; the second identifies the poor shortfall or the depth of poverty, the difference or gap between the poor people's income and the poverty line, divided by the poverty line itself; and the third takes into account not only the distance between or the poverty gap, but also the inequality among the poor. A common problem when assessing poverty is to identify the best or the correct poverty line or threshold (Gordon & Pantazis, 1997), therefore poverty will always be conditional to this line exogenously determined (Goerlich, 2014).

Different types of poverty could divide up the world depending on: 1) the type of base information used; 2) the scale of reference used to set the thresholds; and 3) the length of duration of poverty. These types help to decide how to measure poverty. Table 1 seeks to summarize the information about the types of poverty, organising them for the first two coordinates presented. Within the third coordinate, the length of duration of poverty, the concept can be studied in a dynamic dimension, which would be able to detect long-term or persistent poverty, or in a cross-sectional dimension in a fixed year. According to the different approaches to poverty, different indices can be used and some of them are presented in table 1.

Objective and subjective poverty are the two main concepts easily distinguished in the field. The objective concept of poverty aims to study the phenomena through researcher's direct observation and using objective measures such as household income. Mostly all authors from the field agree on two main poverty concepts: absolute and relative poverty. Others add a third one, for instance Sach (2005) talks about moderate poverty which differentiates slightly from absolute poverty, considering that poor people have basic needs only barely covered; and Nandori (2014) pointed out welfare political poverty as an important concept because many types of public aid are distributed using it. The two main ones -absolute and relative poverty- are presented in what follows.

Table 1. Concepts, measures and indices of poverty

Type of base information used	Scale of reference used to set thresholds	Measures	Indices
Objective	Absolute and moderate	Absolute poverty lines	Rowntree line (Rowntree, 1901) \$1 per capita a day (World Bank, 2001) Orshanski line (Orshanski, 1963, 1965)
	Relative	Relative poverty lines	The Sen Index (Sen, 1976) The Thon Index (Thon, 1979) Poverty severity index or Family deprived index (Foster, Greer, & Thorbecke, 1984) The Hagenaars Index (Hagenaars, 1987) TIP poverty curves (Jenkins & Lambert, 1997)
Subjective		Subjective poverty lines	The Subjective Poverty Line (SPL: Kapteyn, van de Geer, & van de Stadt, 1985) The Leyden Poverty Line (LPL: Goedhart, Halberstadt, Kapteyn, & Van Praag, 1977) The Deleeck line (CPS: Deleeck & van den Bosch, 1989)
Multi- dimensional		Multi-dimensional deprivation index	The social indicator methodology (Gordon & Pantazis, 1997; Mack & Lansley, 1985; Townsend, 1979) Multidimensional Poverty Index (Alkire & Santos, 2010) Resources deprivation index (Muffels & Fouarge, 2004) Poverty and Social Exclusion survey (PSE: Gordon et al., 2000)

Source: own compilation based on Instituto Nacional de Estadística (2006) & Michalos (2014).

From the absolute poverty perspective, poor people are lacking the basic needs for survival, such as safe drinking water, shelter, education or healthcare. The absolute poverty lines, the criterion and threshold to distinguish poor and non-poor people, are adequate for developing countries, and the most common one is the "cost of basic needs approach" developed by Rowntree (1901). The author published the book *Poverty* about research that took place in his

native city, York (England), where he interviewed 46,754 people and got information about their household situation (street, rent, occupants, rooms, sharing water, yards, etc.). His work might not be considered scientific now and it has been criticised and ridiculed later on. However, at that time, Rowntree's analysis of the characteristics of a poor household was innovative and he affirmed for the first time that poverty was a result of structural factors, not behavioural (Bradshaw, 2000). Following Rowntree's framework, Bradshaw (1993) constructed a list of commodities supported by scientific and behavioural evidence, and then priced the budget and used it as an income standard and a threshold to classify poor people. Other budget standards have since been developed in the USA (Bernstein, Brocht, & Spode-Aquilar, 2000) and Australia (Saunders et al., 1998). Even now, the basic needs for the budget have still not been agreed as it depends on the lifestyle of a particular society (INE, 2006).

The relative concept of poverty considers that poor people lack the capability to participate in activities that are important for citizenship because their household income level falls below the average national income. Using this concept it is assumed that "individuals themselves are the best judge of their own situation" (Van Praag, Goedhart, & Kapteyn, 1980). The relative poverty lines are considered to be more adequate for developed countries and they aim to classify poverty as the bottom of the income distribution fixed at the mean or the median. Those lines are necessary for classifying poor and non-poor people, and they can be defined at different levels - international, national, regional or even local - depending on what they aim to assess.

In contrast, within the subjective component, poverty is self-reported: it takes into account people's perceptions of their situation, they are asked about the amount of resources they consider to be needed to satisfy basic needs, and the well-being approach is strongly linked with this perspective when it is based on subjective indicators. The subjective component emphasises the circumstances of the poor person, their comparison with the reference group and the influence that those can have on his perceptions of well-being. According to that, this approach presents a more comprehensive understanding of poverty (Camfield, 2006).

The change from an objective to a subjective concept of poverty was possible thanks to what Inglehart (1990) called the value change with the emergence of post-material values. This marked the beginning of no longer using only traditional economic criteria as measures of social growth, progress development and evolution, and the subsequent need to introduce

other types of measures, including subjective and psychosocial indicators. Bauer's Social Indicators Movement (Bauer, 1966; Land & Michalos, 2017) was born with the consequent consolidation and expansion of the concept of quality of life and the changes to the meaning of development and poverty (Seers, 1969). After that, well-being had political and macrosocial interest, not only individual or microsocial (Casas, 1989; Veenhoven, 1994).

Since then, the word well-being has been introduced into political discourse as a way to operationalise subjective poverty, and the basic needs approach expanded to include health and autonomy (Doyal & Gough, 1991). A big step for the movement took place in 2008 when Nicholas Sarkozy -French Republican president- asked Stiglitz, Sen and Fitoussi to create the Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress (CMEPSP) with the objective of identifying other social and economic indicators, considering GDP limitations (Stiglitz, Sen, & Fitoussi, 2009). In the report, the commission recommended the evaluation of subjective well-being as a complement to the traditional economic measurements in order to design and evaluate social policies, as well as to assess and influence the functionality of the market.

An important debate was held in the field about the best way to measure poverty and with this the relationship between subjective and objective concepts of poverty has been widely studied. Leading to the comparison of monetary and non-monetary measures, also including those based on happiness. From this debate, it is important to consider that as far as the social context has an influence on people's assessment of well-being and that comparison processes take place in this evaluation, people not only prefer having a high income level, but also to have more than others (Carlsson, Johansson-Stenman, & Martinsson, 2007). Hence the improvement of subjective well-being requires reducing inequality and poverty. To conclude, both objective and subjective assessments of poverty need to be described and taken into account to design good policies and interventions.

Beyond the relative and absolute concepts of poverty, another way to assess and define poverty is the multi-dimensional deprivation approach, widely used recently. Although poverty has been understood as a multidimensional concept since a long time ago, as explained before with some definitions as examples, it has traditionally been measured only through one dimension until recently (Alkire & Santos, 2013). The concept of multi-dimensional deprivation was born in the 80s from the need to check other poverty measures not only based on objective indicators, but on variables that could reflect the situation of

poverty. Townsend (1979), mentioned previously, was one of the first authors to develop a multi-dimensional deprivation index. He identified the goods and social activities that the majority of a society consider basic needs, but his technique was criticised to be an arbitrary choice and not distinguishing between the items that people do not have because they did not want them or could not afford them. Later on, Mack and Lansley (1985) modified this list focusing on a list of items that were socially perceived as a necessity for at least half of the population surveyed. Using the same methodology, Gordon and Pantazis (1997) improved it by developing a technique for weighting the items by the proportion of the population who already possessed them, what it is known now as prevalence weighting (Bradshaw, Holmes, & Hallerod, 1995).

The multi-dimensional deprivation approach started to be linked to social exclusion, because the joint use of relative and absolute measures help to better understand not only poverty but also how poor people feel about the situation. The concept differs from the subjective and objective ones because its link with social exclusion and its relationship with the lack of access to goods or services necessary for society. The dimensions from the multidimensional poverty indexes vary across indexes, but on the most part the main ones are material deprivation, education and health, and sometimes housing and accessibility to public services too (Alkire, 2008).

Moura Jr., Cidade, Ximenes, & Sarriera (2014) highlighted the importance of psychology and other elements to understand the poverty phenomenon in its multiple senses and as a result of several factors in which income is only one of them. They argued that the multidimensional poverty approach should help in identifying other policies to combat poverty further from the income based ones, focusing more in the personal, social and cultural dimensions. Moura et al. (2014) pointed out the limitations of the Capacities Approach regarding the psychosocial dimensions, and defended the role of psychology to consider the existence of psychosocial elements - such as personal well-being, community sense and discrimination - in multidimensional poverty.

Moving from a unidimensional to a multidimensional concept of poverty raises some doubts or questions, some of which have been widely discussed in literature:

"Which are the dimensions, and indicators, of interest? Where should cutoffs be set for each dimension? How should dimensions be weighted? How can we identify the multidimensionally poor? What multidimensional poverty measure(s) should be used?

Which measures can accommodate ordinal data? Should multidimensional poverty measures reflect interactions between dimensions, and if so, how?" (Alkire & Foster, 2011, p.4).

However, despite those doubts, it is not debatable nowadays that for measuring economic and social progress multidimensional instruments should be used to capture a wider perspective of the phenomena. In 2009 a report was published, under the French presidency and led by Nobel laureates, on the use of subjective well-being measures complementing the GDP per capita measures (Stiglitz, Sen, & Fitoussi, 2009). Since 2003 in the EU we have the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), an instrument anchored in the European Statistical System (ESS) that aims to collect timely and comparable cross-sectional and longitudinal multidimensional data on income, poverty, social exclusion and living conditions. This is a great instrument for cross-country comparisons.

Measuring social exclusion

After a long time being concerned with definitions and theories, various attempts were made to operationalise social exclusion in empirical research with many difficulties (Atkinson & Hills, 1998). The first ones where Gordon and colleagues (2000) who developed a questionnaire to measure social exclusion for the Poverty and Social Exclusion Survey (PSE). The PSE was funded by the Joseph Rowntree Foundation and was developed by researchers from the Universities of Bristol, York and Loughborough with the aim of assessing poverty and social exclusion of adults and children in the UK. Gordon et al. distinguished between four dimensions: impoverishment or exclusion from adequate income or resources (income threshold), labour market exclusion, service exclusion, and exclusion from social relations.

Later, Burchardt, Le Grand, and Piachaud (2002) developed the index of social exclusion using questions from the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS) and they defined a socially excluded individual as one who does not participate in key activities within society, distinguishing between four types of activities: consumption, production, political engagement and social interaction. Middleton & Adelman (2003) proposed another measure focused on three dimensions of social exclusion: school, local area, and participation in social activities.

Eventually Levitas and colleagues (2007) developed the Bristol Social Exclusion Matrix (B-Sem). Their framework (subsequently modified slightly) contained 10 sub-domains of

potential importance in social exclusion, grouped into three domains. The first domain is resources and includes material or economic resources, access to public and private services, and social resources. Participation is presented as the second domain with four sub-domains: economic participation, social participation, culture, education and skills, and political and civic participation. And the third domain is called quality of life and contains health and well-being, living environment and crime, harm and criminalisation sub-domains. These domains can be used as risk factors.

3.1.4. CHILDREN'S AND ADOLESCENTS' POVERTY AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION

n 1999, the Prime Minister Tony Blair declared a twenty-year mission to end child poverty in the UK (Blair, 1999). Child poverty was and is a reality, also in developed countries. However, it was not until 7 years later when the first international definition of child poverty was agreed by the United Nations General Assembly's Third Committee, which deals with social, humanitarian and cultural affairs:

"Children living in poverty are deprived of nutrition, water and sanitation facilities, access to basic health-care services, shelter, education, participation and protection, and that while a severe lack of goods and services hurts every human being, it is most threatening and harmful to children, leaving them unable to enjoy their rights, to reach their full potential and to participate as full members of society" (UNICEF press centre, 2007).

The definition meant a big step forward in the promotion and protection of children's rights, and it locates child poverty in a position that is not analysed anymore only on the basis of income, but also including other dimensions of poverty such as social exclusion, discrimination and safety. This definition brought a new perspective on the way of assessing child poverty, specifying that it can no longer be lumped together with general poverty assessments and that we must take into account the access to basic social services such as water, food, healthcare, shelter, education and information (UNICEF, 2007).

Academics are trying to better understand how poor people, particularly children and adolescents, perceive the sources of poverty (Shek, 2004) with the aim to help them to escape

from this situation (Bandura, 1997). However, how to address child poverty depends on the political approach chosen, as explained before with the social exclusion discourses (Levitas, 1998). To adults, the emphasis was traditionally on individual explanations of poverty: poor people are 'troubled' (Casey, 2012) who must 'take responsibility' of their situation (Duncan Smith, 2012). Applying this to children, child poverty is the result of parents' behaviours that 'transmitted' (Clegg, 2011) poverty to their children. The ways to solve would be either to provide resources to poor families, or to help them to overcome personal shortcomings focusing on parental skills and behaviours (Main & Bradshaw, 2014), this last one being widely criticised (Bradshaw, 2013).

Leaving apart the economic perspective of poverty and social exclusion, from a psychosocial point of view, the main interest is to know how people who live in poverty perceive the causes of their life conditions. It is obvious that there is an impact of poverty on childhood, and there is more than enough scientific evidence confirming that the experience of poverty in this stage of life can be highly damaging. For example, Ridge (2009) published a review of qualitative research with low-income children to summarise the evidence from 1998 until 2008 regarding their experience of poverty. The author reported 12 key areas of concern identified by children: economic deprivation, material deprivation, social deprivation, school deprivation, visible signs of poverty and difference, family pressures, tensions with parents, additional responsibilities, poor quality housing, homelessness, poor neighbourhoods, effects on children's current lives and also on their future opportunities. Using a quantitative approach, Griggs and Walker (2008) reviewed the impact of poverty on different outcomes, and they pointed out 3 important ones: 1) during the antenatal period, birth and childhood the impact of poverty on health is profound and also implies problems with later health, cognitive development, educational attainment, employment and earnings potential; 2) poverty is strongly linked to poor educational outcomes; and 3) the relationship between growing up in poverty and a negative future employment situation is strong. Moreover, it is known that a large number of children are excluded from basic activities that would define them as members of society (Aber, Gershoff, & Brooks-Gunn, 2001). With social relationships being an important aspect of children's lives for their identity and social capital development and enlargement, social exclusion affects them (Ridge, 2002). The most important thing to keep in mind about these consequences is that none are the fault of the child.

There is no exact equation to explain the causes and the consequences of child poverty and social exclusion. As Garbarino (2008) explained, everything depends on the characteristics of

the child - their gender, temperament, cognitive competence and age - and his/her context neighbourhood, society and culture-. From the ecological perspective family, (Bronfenbrenner, 1981, 1989) there is rarely or is never a unique cause-effect that acts the same way with all people in all situations. The accumulation of risks and assets of a child predict the causes and consequences of the situation (Garbarino, 2014). For certain groups of children, the experience of poverty can be difficult and they can face particularly damaging hardships. Some studies have identified those groups: children being maltreated, physically abused or neglected (Hewlett, 1993; Hooper, 2011; Sedlak & Broadhurst, 1996); children in families with disabled adults (Magadi, 2010); children having special educational needs (Keung, 2011); children with short and long term mental health problems (Bradshaw & Bloor, 2011; Bradshaw & Keung, 2011); children with unemployed parents (Magadi, 2010; Rees et al., 2012); and children from ethnic minorities (Magadi, 2010; Rees et al., 2012), to name some but a few. Moreover, a list of potential actors who can exclude - and at the same time include - children was drawn up by Micklewright (2002): government and its agents, the labour market, schools, parents, other children, and the children themselves.

It is obvious that a reduction in child poverty and social exclusion should be sought, and "the first step in reducing child poverty is measuring it" (UNICEF, 2016). Traditionally, household income is regularly used to measure child poverty (Bradbury, 2003; White, Leavy, & Masters, 2003), despite the fact that deciding poverty lines have major limitations for all populations (Gordon, 2006; Middleton & Adelman, 2003). Concerning children, these limitations are even more evident because of the little that is known about how the income is distributed within the household and because household income tells us little or nothing about how poverty impacts on children's lives (Main & Bradshaw, 2012). As a result of these limitations, income is often considered an indirect measure of child poverty while material deprivation would be a direct measure of child poverty (for a discussion of the differences between direct and indirect approaches to poverty see Ringen, 1988). Some authors (Gordon et al., 2000) argued that to be able to identify not only how many children are poor, but also how poverty affects them, direct measures of children's individual living standards are needed. That would allow a democratic definition of child poverty, to create a poverty line specifically for children, considering their opinions, and allow better understanding of the meaning of poverty in children's lives.

However, it was not until 1990 when Qvortrup put on the table the fact that children were usually invisible and no statistics were reported regarding their opinion directly, but of their

parents, households and teachers perspectives. Children were not taken into account when researching was conducted about their feelings, perceptions and points of view, even though the objective was to improve their life conditions. The way children were perceived in society and in the research domain changed once children's rights started to be considered relevant and childhood was understood as a stage in itself not only a transition to adulthood (Ben-Arieh, 2007). Qvortrup proposed for the first time in this research arena that children should be listened to on matters regarding their lives, as well as the other actors, within the context of the New Sociology of Childhood (James & Prout, 1997) that reconceptualised childhood as a social construction, the Child Indicators movement (Ben-Arieh, 2008) that promoted listening to children's voices to know about their lives, and following what the Children's Rights Article 12 claims:

"1. States Parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the views of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child. 2. For this purpose, the child shall in particular be provided the opportunity to be heard in any judicial and administrative proceedings affecting the child, either directly, or through a representative or an appropriate body, in a manner consistent with the procedural rules of national law" (United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child [UNCRC], 1989, p.5).

For the first time, children were questioned about their lives, instead of considering adults (parents, teachers, physicians, etc.) as the only experts on their lives. A few authors agreed on the importance of giving children a voice and letting them participate (see e.g., Ben-Arieh, 2005; Qvortrup, 2002). In addition, several studies demonstrated the difference between studying childhood by asking children directly and by asking their parents or tutors (see e.g., Casas et al., 2007; Casas et. al, 2008). Since then, things have changed in both politically and on a research level and some initiatives have been established to measure and track poverty and social exclusion from children's point of view.

At first, proxies for income poverty were used and adults asked children whether they received free school meals or how many adults had a paid job at home (Main & Bradshaw, 2012). Later, in 2008, The Children's Society survey asked children about how they thought their family compared with others, but children tended to describe their family as 'about average' whatever their objective material situation was.

With the aim of having a subjective measure of child poverty and considering the socially perceived necessities index (Mack & Lansley, 1985) developed following Townsend's (1979) material deprivation framework, a few authors attempted to develop this index from a childcentred perspective (Gross-Manos, 2015; Main & Bradshaw, 2012; Noble, Wright, & Cluver, 2006; Swords et al., 2011). Main & Bradshaw (2012) created a material deprivation index developed and answered by children. The authors conducted six focus groups with children aged 8-14, and through these groups children generated a list of deprivation items and experiences. Thematic analysis was conducted and the result was a list of 20 items that were included in a pilot survey with 300 parent-child pairs. A 10-item deprivation scale formulated after this process, including pocket money, saving money, branded trainers, iPod or similar, cable or satellite TV, garden or similar, access to family car, clothes to fit in, annual family holiday and monthly day trips. Main & Bradshaw (2012) reported that "child-derived measure of deprivation offered greater insight into the impact of material circumstances on the subjective well-being of children than conventional poverty measures" (p.519), child deprivation being more associated with children's subjective well-being than family poverty. Their findings offered insight into the value of a material deprivation measure made and answered by children. Differences but also consensus have been found between lists of items that are a socially perceived as necessity for adults and for children (see e.g., Barnes & Wright, 2010; Middleton and Adelman, 2003).

In 2011, the Children's Worlds project (www.isciweb.org) the instrument used to measure deprivation was adapted from Main & Bradshaw's (2012) material deprivation index. The items were changed, with the awareness in mind that the relevance of some items and activities could vary over time and place (Saunders, 2004) and that the cultural consumption of children's leisure is quickly changing (Munné & Codina, 1992). Material deprivation was calculated asking children whether they have access or not to 8 items: clothes in good condition to go to school in, a computer at home, the Internet, mobile phone, books to read for fun, family car for transportation, own room, and own stuff to listen to music (Sarriera et al., 2015).

Regarding social exclusion, the B-Sem (Levitas et al., 2007) mentioned before, was used empirically in a series of studies for the UK Cabinet Office exploring multi-dimensional social exclusion across different stages of life and including families with children (Oroyemi, Damioli, Barnes, & Crosier, 2009) and young people (Cusworth, Bradshaw, Coles, Keung, & Chzhen, 2009).

Also, the PSE survey, named before, aimed to assess children's poverty and social exclusion. The direct measures of social exclusion used in this survey include: exclusion from social activities, from children's local services, and from school resources, as three vital elements for children's development considering mothers opinions (Middleton, Ashworth, & Walker, 1994). Some studies have been done using this data (see e.g., Main & Bradshaw, 2016).

Because all these studies about social exclusion were based on household surveys and adult respondents, further research was needed to take into account children's perceptions of exclusion asking them directly about their experiences (Ridge, 2002). As far as we know, the first and only author to have attempted to operationalise social exclusion using a children's survey seems to be Gross-Manos (2015) following Middleton and Adelman's (2003) framework and using the Israeli data on 12 year olds from the first pilot phase of the Children's Worlds survey. Starting with 22 items related to social exclusion, then using factor analysis, she first reduced these to three domains relating to school, area and services, and participation in social activities (Gross-Manos, 2015). She explored the association between these domains and a deprivation index based on child reported lack of items and then related this to subjective well-being (Gross-Manos & Ben-Arieh, 2016). Meaning her measure was only reliable when the participation in social activities dimension was omitted, she decided to keep only two dimensions to define child social exclusion (Gross-Manos, 2017).

3.2. WELL-BEING

3.2.1. HAPPINESS AS A STARTING POINT FOR WELL-BEING STUDIES

uring many years psychologists have focused their attention on the study of illness and its absence. It was not until 1946 when the World Health Organization declared in its constitution that the first basic principle to happiness, harmonious relations and security is health understood as "a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity" (World Health Organization [WHO], 1946, p.119).

It was in the 1990s when Positive Psychology took off with an emphasis on happiness and quality of life to enhance human potential and having a desirable life (Baumeister, Vohs, Aaker, & Garbinsky, 2013) thanks to the work of psychologists such as Bradburn (1969), Diener (1984) and Deci and Ryan (1985).

However, the interest in happiness was not new. We can find a large variety of meanings and ideas about the good life in ancient Greek texts. Michalos and Robinson (2012) identified twelve concepts of happiness in the period from the VIII to the III century BCE, and Vittersø (2016) summarised them later on, evidencing the existence of only a vague communality across the dozen ideas about the good life. The number of definitions of happiness has increased at an alarming rate over the years, and nowadays we can find an overwhelming number of researchers interested in this topic, working hard to understand what the good life is, how to measure it, how to promote it, and how to achieve it.

3.2.2. THE DUALITY OF HAPPINESS

s if studying happiness and well-being was not a challenging enough mission in itself, the existence of different concepts and definitions make it even harder. Hence, the multifaceted nature of the concept of "happiness" brought up different ways to define it, to the point it seems that each leading author and his/her group of researchers supporting them are talking in different languages. However, all converge in defining happiness using binary concepts (Vittersø, 2016): hedonic enjoyment and personal expressiveness (Waterman, 1993); objective and subjective qualities of life (Glatzer, 2015; Veenhoven, 1996); hedonic and eudaimonic well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2001); cognitive and

affective well-being (Schimmack, 2008); being happy in your life and being happy with your life (Kahneman & Riis, 2005); experiential and evaluative well-being (Stone & Mackie, 2013); psychological eudaimonia and philosophical eudaimonia (Tiberius, 2013); simple and complex kind of human goodness (Vittersø, 2016).

As the study of well-being was taking shape, two primarily and very different traditions were beginning to emerge - the hedonic and the eudaimonic traditions- and also two concepts - Subjective Well-Being (SWB) and Psychological Well-Being (PWB) (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Both traditions are presented separately. After that, some overlaps and differences between them are exposed.

3.2.2.1. Subjective well-being: the hedonic dimension

The hedonic tradition is founded on two perspectives: the antecedents of the happiness perspective, Bradburn's positive and negative affects (1969), and Cantril's satisfaction with life perspective (1965), and this last one is not always strictly considered a hedonic concept (Deci & Ryan, 2008). It is based on the study of SWB since the book written by Kahneman, Diener, and Schwarz (1999): Well-Being: The Foundation of Hedonic Psychology. The study of SWB takes place both at the individual and collective level (Casas, 2010).

The definition of SWB refers to the presence of positive affect, the absence of negative affect and the degree of satisfaction with one's life (Ryan & Deci, 2001). As Diener (1994) postulates, subjective well-being is based on three components: the experience of the subject, assessments and perspectives of this experience- not only the absence of negative aspects but also the presence of positive ones- and an overall assessment of life and satisfaction. In other words, cognitive and affective processes combine (Cummins & Cahill, 2000) as independent but often interrelated aspects to create an individual perception of well-being (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976; Diener, 1994; Veenhoven, 1994).

From a theoretical point of view, different ideas have been formulated to explain SWB. Diener (1984) was one of the first to classify the explicative theories and sub-theories of well-being that had been proposed until that time, with a psychological basis, including telic, pleasure and pain, activity, top-down versus bottom-up, associative and judgment theories. Various authors have since put forward other theories, including Cummins' Homeostasis Theory (1995, 2010, 2014) and Csikszentmihalyi's Flow Theory (1990).

Measuring subjective well-being

Until the 1960s, psychosocial intervention was largely understood within the perspective of studying and coping with social problems. It was at this time that the debate on positive social change based on the quality of life structure -one of the first seeds of current positive psychology- began (Casas, Rosich, & Alsinet, 2000). This change was parallel with the shift from objective to subjective perspective of poverty, as explained before, and with Inglehart's (1990) value change, the emergence of post-material values and the beginning of no longer using only traditional economic and absolute criteria as measures of social growth, as mentioned before. This change brought the need to introduce subjective and psychosocial indicators and the Social Indicators Movement (Bauer, 1966; Land & Michalos, 2017) was born with the consequent consolidations and expansion of the concept of quality of life. Quality of life was seen in two dimensions: the objective and the subjective (Veenhoven, 1996) and encompassed cultural, social, physical and mental well-being (Shye, 2014). As said, from then on, well-being was no longer a matter of only individual or microsocial interest, but also political and macrosocial (Casas, 1989; Veenhoven, 1994).

Since then, but with more strength these last few years, theories, definitions and ways to operationalise well-being (considering the hedonic tradition) have been introduced into the political discourse. As mentioned, a big step for the movement took place with the creation of the commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress in 2008. The commission recommended the evaluation of SWB as a complement to the traditional economic measurements in order to design and evaluate social policies (Stiglitz, Sen, & Fitoussi, 2009). Later on, in 2013, The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) designed the guidelines for SWB evaluation. Currently, in Europe it is possible to find some countries where SWB is measured nationally. For example, in 2010 David Cameron, as the first minister in the UK, announced the need of collecting national information about SWB throughout the Office for National Statistics (ONS) and this is how the British National Well-being Program was launched (Main, 2014).

The scientific literature describes two non-exclusive ways of measuring SWB: by making an overall assessment of satisfaction with life or vital satisfaction (Veenhoven, 1994), or by assessing satisfaction with specific aspects of life, such as family, friends, health, work, free time, etc. (Casas, 1996; Diener, 2006). Even though there is clear disagreement about the exact number of aspects and their characteristics, there is a certain consensus in considering

that overall satisfaction with life is more than the simple sum of satisfactions with aspects of life (Veenhoven, 1994), which is why the scales based on aspects are usually complemented with a single-item scale measuring overall satisfaction. However, we must take into account that life satisfaction, despite it is considered a hedonic component and is widely used to evaluate SWB, it undoubtedly includes eudaimonic elements (Deci & Ryan, 2008), so it is the less representative component of hedonic tradition.

Different authors have given their contributions regarding instruments used for measuring SWB, but there is still no agreement about the indicators to measure or conceptualize SWB (Cummins, 2014). Two of the most used examples of psychometric scales in adults are: the Personal Well-being Index (PWI: Cummins, 1998; Cummins, Eckersley, Van Pallant, Vugt, & Misajon, 2003) which evaluates SWB considering satisfaction with different domains or aspects of life (health, quality of life, security, interpersonal relationships, future, personal achievements, community belongingness and spiritual feelings); and the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS: Diener, 1994; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) which evaluates context-free satisfaction, that is to say, without considering domains or aspects of life and using five items with an agreement scale. Beside these scales, the most frequently used single-item questions are the Overall Life Satisfaction (OLS: Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976) and the Happiness Overall Life single-item Scale (HOL: Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976).

Children's and adolescents' subjective well-being

Children's SWB can be defined as "the expressed views of children about their personal well-being and their relationships" (Bradshaw, Rees, Keung, & Goswami, 2010).

When referring to children's SWB we can see a similar path to the adults' one: the first and oldest indicator to measure well-being amongst this population was the child poverty index. An example of this is the first UNICEF's report The State of The World's Children from 1979 (UNICEF, 2016), which informed about basic indicators for survival and child development and aimed to create global consciousness on monitoring children's well-being. It was not until the beginning of the XXI century, when the first efforts were made to understand what child quality of life means from a child's perspective and from a positive concept beyond the absence of illness (Bradshaw et al., 2010). As said before, once Children's Rights -with Article 12 about respect for the children's view- started to be

considered relevant and childhood was understood as a stage in itself not only a transition to adulthood, the way children were perceived in society and in the research arena changed (Ben-Arieh, 2007). Children started being asked about their lives instead of just questioning their parents, teachers and other adults as if they were the only experts of their lives. Since then, things have changed in both politically and at a research level and some initiatives have been established to measure and track children's well-being (Rees, Bradshaw, Goswami, & Keung, 2010). Comparative studies of the well-being of children in rich countries began by focusing on the well-being of children mainly using adult reported data on household income poverty and material deprivation (Cornia & Danziger, 1997; UNICEF, 2000). Then, because it was felt that this provided too narrow a perspective on children's lives, scholars began to introduce a multi-dimensional perspective using indicators derived from administrative sources and the PISA and HBSC surveys of children, to represent a variety of additional domains of well-being – health, education, relationships, behaviour, housing and subjective well-being (Bradshaw, Holscher, & Richardson, 2007).

The social indicators movement previously mentioned, also influenced the Child Indicators movement (Ben-Arieh, 2008) that promoted listening to children's voices to understand their views and perceptions and gain better understanding of their lives. The first comparative study of child well-being, which included an evaluation of SWB, was a 25 cross-country study in the EU (Bradshaw et al., 2007).

Around the same time, in 1996 about 35 experts from 17 different countries met in Jerusalem (Israel) for the first International Workshop on 'Measuring and Monitoring Children's Well-Being: Beyond Survival' (isci-haruv.org/) to discuss child and childhood social indicators. The International Society for Child Indicators (ISCI) was founded there. Afterwards, a series of meetings and workshops gave way to a multinational indicators project on 'Measuring and Monitoring Children's Well-being' under the Jerusalem Project organised by professor Ben-Arieh. In 2005, coinciding with the Childhood Conference in Oslo (Norway), the creation of the ISCI took place as a society. It was formally established in 2006 with the first committee meeting and in 2007 with the first inaugural conference in Chicago (USA). In 2009, a group of researchers and ISCI members gathered at a meeting organized by UNICEF to debate the necessity of conducting an international survey about children's lives. In turn, the International Survey on Children's Well-being (ISCWeB), currently known as the Children's Worlds project, started. The project started with a pilot test in six countries during 2010. After adapting the survey, in 2012, data from 14 countries worldwide was collected as a large

scale pilot test. Later, between 2013 and 2016 and thanks to the Jacobs Foundation funding, the questionnaire was administered to over 61,000 children aged 8, 10 and 12 years old from 18 countries worldwide, obtaining information about their lives and their SWB. Currently, this is the largest database with information about children's SWB. Throughout this data, Children's Worlds researchers aim "to improve children's well-being by creating awareness among children, their parents and their communities, opinion leaders, decision makers, professionals and the general public" (Rees & Main, 2015, p.4).

Despite all the existing evidence about the importance of asking children, some authors argue that methodological expertise in surveying children is still scarce (Borgers, Hox, & Sikkel, 2004). However, some authors offered strong contributions to these methodological issues by considering children crucial actors within the research process, and they reported ideas to design a study and a questionnaire suitable for children of different ages (see e.g., Casas et al., 2013).

Regarding measuring SWB in children and adolescents, many of the instruments created for adults have been adapted for children, for example the Quality of Life Profile - Adolescent Version (QOLPAV: Raphael, Rukholm, Brown, Hill-Bailey, & Donato, 1996), the Satisfaction with Life Scale adapted for Children (SWLS-C: Gadermann, Schonert-Reichl, & Zumbo, 2010) or the Personal Well-being Index - School Children (PWI-SC: Cummins & Lau, 2005). All of which were transformed into adolescents and children versions by adapting the scales used with adults. Other instruments were developed exclusively for this age group, such as the Brief Multidimensional Student's Life Satisfaction Scale (BMSLSS: Huebner, 1994) which was designed to collect information regarding life satisfaction throughout five aspects: family, friends, school, self-evaluation and environment. The SWLS and SWLS-C, the PWI and PWI-SC and the BMSLSS are the most frequently used to evaluate children's and adolescents' SWB (Holte et al., 2014).

Considering these instruments as measures of SWB, the results of cross-sectional and longitudinal studies in different countries show that subjective well-being tends to decline progressively throughout adolescence in both genders (see e.g., Bălţătescu, 2006; Casas, 2011; Casas et al., 2012; Casas & González, 2017; González-Carrasco, Casas, Malo, Viñas, & Dinisman, 2017a; Tomyn & Cummins, 2011). Depending on the gender, the decrease follows different patterns, with a more marked and probably longer lasting decline for girls (González-Carrasco et al., 2017a; Holte et al., 2014). Gender differences are detected not as

much in overall subjective well-being, but in some specific aspects of SWB, such as girls reporting greater satisfaction with school than boys (Casas et al., 2007).

3.2.2.2. Psychological well-being: the eudaimonic dimension

Eudaimonia's concept was born from Aristotle's philosophy of happiness articulated in his book Nicomachian Ethics in 350 BCE which was translated by different authors at different times (e.g. trans. 1925, 2002, 2012). However, the word eudaimonia was not created by Aristotle: it was already included in the Greeks vocabulary (Haybron, 2016) and the etymology of the term was not a point of interest for the author, as he was using it as a substitute for the expression 'eu zên' which means living well (Kraut, 2010). The etymological meaning of the word eudaimonia has been debated, but Kraut (2010) mentioned that eudaimonia is composed of 'eu' that means well and 'daimon' which means divinity or spirit.

Under this eudaimonic aspect, what happens with happiness? In his book, Aristotle talks about happiness as a life representing human excellence and realization. He made a distinction between happiness as experiencing pleasure - hedonia - and happiness as living well - eudaimonia (Ryan, Huta, & Deci, 2008). Hence, for eudaimonist thinking, happiness does not exclude pleasure, but the idea that happiness could just be pleasure is refused (Annas, 2011), at the same time, Aristotle pointed out that "the highest good is necessarily pleasant" (Broadie, 1991, p.313).

To sum up, Aristotle's definition of eudaimonia is quite complex and has been interpreted in different ways. However he pointed out some important aspects: eudaimonia not as a mental state, a positive feeling, or a cognitive appraisal of satisfaction, but as a way of living; the importance of pursuing the right end voluntarily (he talks about generosity, courage, fairness, and wisdom as the right ends); the importance of being reflective when making decisions; and the importance of active chosen engagement in excellent activities (Ryan, Huta, & Deci, 2008). Aristotle's use of the word eudaimonia matches with the current one in some ways, but there are also some differences as will be seen in what follows.

Eudaimonia is also a concept dating back to the work of psychologists such as Jung, Maslow, Allport and Rogers and their psychodynamic and humanistic work (Ryff & Singer, 2008). Eudaimonia has a cognitive and emotional evaluation about the purpose and value of one's

life and it is concerned with living well and realizing one's human potentials more than an outcome or a psychological state (Deci & Ryan, 2008), distinguishing it from SWB. So, eudaimonia is a "way of living that is focused on what is intrinsically worthwhile to human beings" (Ryan, Huta, & Deci, 2008, p. 147) and its focus is the study of psychological well-being.

Measuring psychological well-being

In the literature on eudaimonia, one of the first theories to be defined was Waterman's Eudaimonic identity theory with self-realization as the most important part of it (Waterman, 1984, 1993). Waterman defines eudaimonia as a condition that is raised by the "efforts to live in accordance with the daimon, to realize those potentials (self-realization)" (Waterman, 1993, p. 678). The author proposed the Personally Expressive Activities Questionnaire (PEAQ: 1993), a single scale to assess eudaimonia and also hedonia in relation to particular activities, to what extend a particular activity leaves one feeling fulfilled (self-realization values) or is expressive of what one truly is. So, the intention is to assess both hedonic and eudaimonic aspects of well-being. Later on, Waterman and colleagues (2010) proposed another instrument, the Questionnaire for Eudaimonic Well-Being (QEWB: Waterman et al., 2010) to assess eudaimonic functioning at the trait level.

Based on the ideas of Aristotle, Carol D. Ryff (1989) was the one who tagged and defined the eudaimonic concept of PWB -to differentiate it from SWB- and later presented the theoretical and multidimensional Model of Psychological Well-being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). It defines PWB and names 6 dimensions and characteristics of it: self-acceptance, autonomy, personal growth, relatedness, purpose in life and environmental mastery. Ryff identified these key components based on a few theoretical underpinnings from other important authors who described components of optimal human functioning (Ryff, 2016): maturity (Allport), individualisation (Jung), mental health (Jahoda), will to meaning (Frankl), self-actualization (Maslow), executive processes of personality (Neugarten), basic life tendencies (Bühler), personal development (Erikson) and fully functioning person (Rogers). To measure these dimensions, an instrument was developed: the Psychological Well-Being Scale (PWBS: Ryff, 1989). The first version had 20 items per dimension. Due to its length, other versions were developed (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Ryff, Lee, Essex, & Schmutte, 1995). Finally, Keyes, Shmotkin, and Ryff (2002) proposed the 3 items per scale instrument and then Van

Dierendonck (2004) improved it with a 6 to 8 items per scale instrument with better psychometric properties.

Deci and Ryan (1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) articulated the theory of the three psychological needs –autonomy, competence and relatedness- considered basic to achieve personal growth, integrity and well-being. Their Self Determination Theory (SDT) theorises to what extent motivations (differentiating between intrinsic and extrinsic) satisfy or do not satisfy these three needs, which at the same time facilitate or do not facilitate the optimal functioning of the human inner resources, and in what way this might improve or not improve people's wellbeing (Ryan, Huta, & Deci, 2008). With the SDT as the basis, these three authors, Ryan and colleagues (2008), presented a model of eudaimonia, that is concerned with how people live their life rather than the well-being outcome. They do not forget that living well is related to feelings of happiness and pleasure (hedonic) but also with the sense of meaning and fulfilment (eudaimonic), and they emphasize the processes which represent eudaimonic living and that has well-being as a result. Eudaimonic living processes take into account motives, goals and behaviours that satisfy the three basic psychological needs. Hence, these eudaimonic living processes consider the pursuit of intrinsic life goals - to satisfy the competence need -, the autonomous regulation of behaviour - to satisfy the autonomy need and the awareness of the engagement - to satisfy the relatedness need. However depending on the type of life goals or aspirations (intrinsic, such as for personal growth, deep relationships and generativity, or extrinsic, such as those for wealth, fame or image), that could be related to well-being positively or negatively (Kasser & Ryan, 1996).

Vittersø (2016) illustrates the broad spectrum of eudaimonia descriptions in a two-page table containing 41 different definitions of eudaimonia. Although he considered theories by Waterman, Ryff and Deci and Ryan as the 'big' three, he suggested that "the different conceptualizations offered by the big three reflect only a fraction of the variability that exists in understanding psychological eudaimonics" (Vittersø, 2016, p. 9). This wide range of definitions of eudaimonia has been criticised and pointed out as an element that could be a problem for promoting a global science of eudaimonic well-being (Kashdan, Biswas-Diener, & King, 2008). Hence, Vittersø (2016b) proposed another way to define the duality of happiness: he does not talk about neither eudaimonia nor hedonia, but instead simple and complex kinds of goodness, following the analogy of the two systems of information processing, system 1 and 2 (Kahneman, 2011). The complex goodness would be similar to eudaimonic goodness and it is related to the need to manage change and other psychological

mechanisms not determined by satisfaction and pleasure (Law & Staudinger, 2016; Magnusson & Mahoney, 2003; Piaget, 1952; Valsiner, 1998).

Aside from Ryff's scale and Waterman's questionnaires, there are other instruments created and used to measure eudaimonic living in adults, for instance the Purpose In Life scale (PIL: Crumbaugh, & Maholick, 1969), the Flourishing Scale (Diener et al., 2009) and the Personal Growth scale (PG: Vittersø, Oelmann, & Wang, 2009).

Children's and adolescents' psychological well-being

As far as we know, there is no author who has developed a specific eudaimonic theory for children and adolescents. In fact, considering Aristotle's life context - being a teacher of elite male Athenian citizens in the IV century BCE (Annas, 2011) - women and children were a part of the population not taken into account in his theories. Hence, revisions of context should be considered to include these large groups in his theory.

Based on Ryff's model (1989), literature and research have demonstrated that the six dimensions are very important to improve adolescents' PWB (e.g., see Keyes et al., 2002; Ryff, & Singer, 1998; Ryff, & Singer, 2002; Schulenberg et al., 2008). Different studies employed SDT as a theoretical framework and evidenced this relationship between the satisfaction of the three basic needs, some aspects of human's lives, and its impact on adolescents' well-being: see Katz, Madjar, and Harari (2015) to know more about SDT and dieting; Ryan, Rigby, and Przybylski (2006) for the investigation about motivation for computer game play, SDT and well-being; or Vansteenkiste, Lens, De Witte, De Witte, and Deci (2004) for the work about SDT and job hunting. Moreover, regarding SDT and life goals, Kasser, Ryan, Zax, and Sameroff (1995) reported that supports for autonomy and relatedness for children were prospectively predictive of intrinsic or extrinsic goal outcomes: children that are provided with supports for basic needs will develop a more eudaimonic lifestyle, while those that grew up in controlling ways or who have experienced rejection from parents or caregivers were more susceptible to insecurity and low self-esteem and that would make them more prone to extrinsic goals.

As what had happened with the instruments to measure SWB with children, the story seems to repeat again: there is a lack of instruments and information from children and adolescents in the research on PWB. Almost all the instruments and also the theories from Ryff, Waterman, and Deci and Ryan, described before, were all developed thinking about adults'

eudaimonic living and from evaluating adults' PWB. The lack of a long tradition evaluating these constructs accepting adolescents and children as key informants makes it difficult to know if what we have been measuring until now is biased by our adult-centric view. That makes important to check whether different age groups understand the PWB concept and whether it is understood in different ways according to their developmental stage.

As far as we know, until the Children's Worlds survey (www.isciweb.org), only researchers in the UK had collected data from young people about their psychological well-being. In 2013 The Children's Society included some questions in The Good Childhood Report as a first attempt of developing a measure of self-reported children's PWB. Since then, the instrument has been improved and is now used for the Children's Worlds survey too. In 2013, the items were administered to almost 18,000 12-year-old children from 16 different countries. The measurement consists of six items related with the six Ryff's dimensions (table 2), providing the mean score from these items a unique score for measuring PWB.

Table 2. Psychological Well-being multi-item measure and its relation with Ryff's dimensions

Items	Ryff's Dimensions
I like being the way I am	Self-acceptance
I am good at managing my daily responsibilities	Environmental Mastery
People are generally pretty friendly towards me	Positive Relations with others
I have enough choice about how I spend my time	Autonomy
I feel that I'm learning a lot at the moment	Personal Growth
I feel positive about my future	Purpose in Life

3.2.2.3. Differences and overlaps between hedonia and eudaimonia

In general, hedonic perspective focuses on subjective well-being, while eudaimonic does so on psychological well-being (Chen, Jing, Hayes, & Lee, 2013). However, as we said before, not all authors agree with this distinction. On the one hand, authors such as Besser (2016) point out that the concept of well-being should be partitioned into more precise and specific components to be properly understood, as far as it is a multidimensional concept. But on the other hand, we can find other authors such as Fredrickson (2016), who states that eudaimonia can be seen as a positive outcome of hedonia, but not as a different concept.

Chen and colleagues (2013) published a paper where they put the following question on the table: SWB and PWB, two constructs or two perspectives? Are SWB and PWB two constructs and distinct aspects of well-being, even when they are both concerned with the subjective nature of well-being, as some authors defend? (e.g., see Fredrickson, 2013; Hirata, 2016; Keyes et al., 2002). Or are they two perspectives or traditions of well-being as there are more similarities than differences between them? (e.g., see Kashdan et al., 2008). Chen and colleagues studied these two hypotheses using the bi-factor model as a statistical approach to examine the specific variance of each and the common variance shared by them. However, even with their results, the question is still under debate, and the authors considered that it depends on the focus you adopt when analysing well-being: more specific or more general. The overall constructs of PWB and SWB are obviously conceptually related to each other. However, they also can form specific and distinct factors with unique variances, which are related to a wide range of external and independent variables. So the findings of Chen et al. provided support for both views on relations between PWB and SWB: they could be considered as two constructs and also two approaches. When studying them at a general level, SWB and PWB are more similar than different as they represent two perspectives on the general well-being construct; but when examining well-being with PWB and SWB as specific components, partialling out - giving them, as variables, a fixed value while considering the relationship between them and the overall well-being construct – the common variance shared with well-being, they represent two different constructs or concepts. Chen and colleagues concluded that both perspectives are possible so they recommended studying both types of well-being simultaneously.

The literature has been discussing the overlaps and differences between subjective and psychological well-being, hedonia and eudaimonia, happy and meaningful life. These differences and similarities will be exposed henceforth.

Different targets: meaningful life versus pleasure

Before proposing the relationship between eudaimonia and the SDT exposed before, Ryan et al. (2008) clearly distinguished the two conceptions: they are different because they have different targets. While eudaimonic conceptions focus on the person's life and the processes involved in living well, hedonic conceptions focus on the outcomes, such as pleasure and the absence of pain. The authors also pointed out that although eudaimonic conceptions are interested in what is living well and in identifying the consequences of this living; these

outcomes might include hedonic satisfactions. However, the concept of eudaimonia is especially interested in other consequences, for instance the sense of meaning, and eudaimonia as a guide to a more complete and meaningful life, which also might yield more stable hedonic happiness (Huta & Ryan, 2006, as cited in Ryan et al., 2008).

Meaningfulness versus happiness

For some authors, meaning is a completely eudaimonic concept that cannot be hedonic because the search of meaning does not correlate with SWB (King & Hicks, 2009; Steger, Frazier, Oishi, & Kaler, 2006; Steger & Kashdan, 2007; Ward & King, 2016). In the same line, Baumeister et al. (2013) affirmed that "meaningfulness may be considerably more complex than happiness, because it requires interpretive construction of circumstances across time according to abstract values and other culturally mediated ideas" (p. 505). The authors support the theory that meaningfulness - and, therefore, eudaimonia - is more related to cultural aspects, while happiness - so SWB - is to natural human needs, basic motivations and wants. At the same time, meaningfulness involves the understanding of life, taking into account the past, the present and the future as a whole; while happiness is a subjective evaluation about the present moment considered as positive and negative affects, and an evaluation about the past but from the present perspective if satisfaction of life is thought of as a whole. However, some authors found that individuals who feel positive effects are more predisposed to report more meaning in life (Hicks & King, 2007; King, Hicks, Krull, & Del Gaiso, 2006).

Simple versus complex kinds of goodness

As mentioned before, Vittersø (2016) adopted the strategy by Evans and Over (1996) when they used type 1 and type 2 rationality to avoid dozens of words that were used for the same phenomenon to study thinking and decision making. Hence, the author referred to happiness 1 and happiness 2 instead of looking for two different words. Considering happiness 1 as the term used for the subjective kind of happiness and comprising the sub-components being happy IN, WITH and FULFILLING your life; happiness 2 is the term used for the complex sense for being complete, the global end a person aspires to by living well, comprised of only one sub-component HAVING a happy life. Consequently, happiness 2 considers the person's life as a whole, being more than what he or she thinks about it (Annas, 2011; Vittersø, 2016). Summing up, the duality of happiness would be between simple and complex kinds of

goodness. However, happiness 1 and 2 are not comparable with hedonic and eudaimonic well-being, because being happy and fulfilling your life has always been considered an important part of eudaimonic well-being but in Vittersø's concepts this is an element within happiness 1 while happiness 2 is unidimensional.

Pursuits: short-term versus long-term benefits

Huta and Ryan (2010) explored the relationship between hedonic and eudaimonic pursuits and their benefits, and they found that the benefits are long-term ones if they come from eudaimonic activities, while benefits are short-term if they come from hedonic activities. That's why having a purpose in life is strongly linked to PWB and eudaimonia.

Interpersonal relationships: being happy with your friends versus making them happy or helping them

As humans we are social and relationships are a very important aspect of our life, especially when seeking happiness and meaningfulness. However, there is a difference between having relationships with others, which leads to people being satisfied and happy, and making positive contributions to other people, such as making them happy or helping them (Baumeister et al., 2013). This last aspect is not only about making the person happy (hedonism), but it also has a significant role and big impact on one's own PWB (eudaimonia). It has been found that altruism and helping others are also strongly related with positive affects (Batson & Powell, 2003).

Across-country comparisons: individualistic and market-based perceptions of happiness versus societal level well-being

When it comes to the study of well-being at the social level, such as with cross country comparisons, Ryan et al. (2008) pointed out that studying eudaimonic outcomes might avoid the cultural influences and the individualistic and market-based perceptions of happiness suggested by some authors such as Ferguson (1990). So, eudaimonic research may allow a focus on societal wellness and can play a critical role with respect to socioeconomic policies.

Measuring both concepts

There is an evident overlap between eudaimonia and hedonia, especially if measured with self-report instruments (see e.g., Disabato, Goodman, Kashdan, Short, & Jarden, 2016; Røysamb & Nes, 2016). As Ward & King (2016, cited in Vittersø, 2016) said: "Whenever eudaimonic goodness is articulated, good feelings and life satisfaction are never far away" (p.16). However, the concern may be the complexity of evaluating those concepts - especially eudaimonia as a more complex concept not so easy to quantify (Proctor & Tweed, 2016) - through self-report measurements that may be contaminated with a biased towards hedonia (Vittersø, 2016b).

To sum up, although hedonia - understood as looking for pleasure and happiness - and eudaimonia - seeking the improvement of one's human potentials - have been usually seen as opposite poles, there is no doubt that they both contribute to well-being. Despite the fact that the two traditions have evolved separately, evidence draws connections between them, hence SWB and PWB are related but with different aspects of positive functioning. The eudaimonic and hedonic traditions can help in defining the numerous conceptualizations of well-being and its constructs, deciding research questions and discussing the results from the point of view chosen (Lambert, Passmore, & Holder, 2015). Considering them as two complementary constructs to understand well-being that are better measured through different instruments is the approach adopted in this study.

3.3. SOCIAL EXCLUSION AND WELL-BEING: TWO STRONGLY RELATED CONCEPTS

3.3.1. THE APPROACH

onsidering the theoretical background previously exposed and this being a doctoral thesis, this work is a non-pretentious attempt to add a grain of sand at the top of this big mountain full of definitions, authors' names and theories accumulated since the ancient times up until now. However, this attempt will include children's point of view.

Before proceeding with the objectives of the study, some clarity on the theoretical approach chosen would be helpful, because it is axiomatic that before measuring a phenomenon or concept, we first have to define it.

Poverty and social exclusion

There is no universally agreed definition of these concepts. However, after the discussion of the literature on concepts of poverty, deprivation and social exclusion presented above, it can be concluded that academics agree on considering the social context as a transcendental characteristic of all those concepts and are indispensable to measuring it.

For the last 70 years, and thanks to Rowntree's book (1901), poverty in Europe (not in the USA) has been considered a structural social problem rather than a behavioural one, this contributed to a shift in the tendency to blame the poor to blaming poverty (Bradshaw, 2000). This shift influenced policies and determined the way social researchers understand the concept. Beyond Rowntree's framework, but thanks to it, the concept of social exclusion emerged broadening the analysis of poverty, helping to understand it, highlighting the spatial dimension and being more useful for cross-country comparisons (Jones & Smyth, 1999).

We consider the concept of social exclusion as the best to study the situation of people who lack not only economic and material resources, but also access to services, participation and quality of life. This doctoral thesis considers Levitas and colleagues' (2007) definition presented above as the best one to achieve our objectives. They defined social exclusion pointing out its complexity, multidimensionality, the lack of resources, the inability to

participate in activities and have relationships the same as the rest of the society, and the effects that being excluded can have on people's quality of life and the cohesion of society as a whole. That is to say, my approach considers social exclusion as a construct that integrates the concepts of poverty and deprivation. The difference is that poverty emphasises material and social deprivation, while social exclusion indicates the inability to participate in social, economic and cultural life. Poverty effects on some social exclusion aspects but not all, and there are more factors such as gender, age, ethnicity, etc.

Despite the great importance of social exclusion as a global concept, the concepts of deprivation and poverty cannot be left aside according many authors and institutions. For example, the EU target is set to fight against both poverty and social exclusion and the documents still mention poverty and social exclusion as being complementary to each other. Social scientists report that social exclusion is related to income and other dimensions of poverty, but not all them. For instance, social relationships do not seem to be related to poverty (Bradshaw, 2004). Middleton and Adelman (2003) argue that not all poor children are excluded or vice versa, so having both measures in the same survey is important to understand the overlap between them.

After the discussions presented above, we understand that to study social exclusion we need to take into account the fact that that there are differences depending on the society in which people live. There is not only one minimum acceptable way of life for all countries, but the answer can be found from the person's perspective and opinion. The Social Comparison Theory (Festinger, 1954) argues that people need to compare themselves with others for a better understanding of themselves. Concerning exclusion, people, at some point, need to be able to give their opinion about how they feel being in the situation they are in and they should be able to self-evaluate comparing with other groups, especially with reference to their own group (Hyman, 1968; Merton & Rossi, 1968). Regarding exclusion, social comparison is essential and a very important phenomenon to understand deprivation in society (Runciman, 1966). Therefore a relative and subjective concept of exclusion where people are asked is the best way to measure the concept in our opinion. This subjective component emphasises the importance of the circumstances of the poor person and presents a more comprehensive understanding of poverty (Camfield, 2006). Moreover, we cannot forget the importance of adopting a multidimensional approach to capture a wider perspective of the phenomena.

Well-being

In this work we have assumed both the hedonic and eudaimonic dimensions of well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2001), and, therefore, we define it in terms of SWB and PWB simultaneously, in line with what some authors defend (Cheng et al., 2013) far beyond considering them as two different perspectives from which to study well-being. To clarify the terminology, SWB refers to the presence of positive affect, the absence of negative affect and the degree of satisfaction with one's life (Ryan & Deci, 2001); while PWB is concerned with living well and realizing one's human potential more than an outcome or a psychological state (Deci & Ryan, 2008). However, we also allow ourselves to doubt life satisfaction as only a hedonic component, reminding that it may include eudaimonic elements (Deci & Ryan, 2008). We believe that it is better to study both types of well-being simultaneously (Cheng et al., 2013).

We understand SWB and PWB as complex concepts to evaluate, especially because they are difficult (but not impossible) to quantify (Proctor & Tweed, 2016) and there is an evident overlap between them especially if measured through self-report instruments (e.g., Disabato et al., 2016; Røysamb & Nes, 2016). Moreover, lack of information about how to measure eudaimonic well-being with children and adolescents will be a handicap for the development of research, but also an opportunity to propose a new path in the field.

3.3.2. DO POVERTY AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION AFFECT CHILDREN'S AND ADOLESCENTS' WELL-BEING?

Poverty, in developing countries, is a murderous social fact that kills millions of children (Black, Morris, & Bryce, 2003) and the World Health Organization (1995) has argued that extreme poverty is the world's biggest killer and it classified it as the international disease Z59.5. In "rich" countries poverty exists too, but in a different way. It does not kill people as frequently and it is much less severe in countries with a welfare state. However, premature death is a fact resulting from poverty even in countries like the UK or Spain where healthcare is free (Commission on Social Determinants of Health [CSDH], 2008; Gordon & Nandy, 2012). In developed countries poverty does cause real suffering, a situation where well-being is noticeably deprived (World Bank, 2001) and clearly poverty is not the fault of those who experience these conditions.

Social exclusion as a construct includes poverty understood as lack of resources, but it is considered to be socially excluded when lacking participation, access to services and well-being. Social exclusion reduces the capability to achieve other essential functionings (Sen, 1992) and that affects people's well-being. To sum up, the link between well-being and social exclusion is direct, for adults and also for children.

Because poverty has been in the political and research discourses since a long time ago, more studies about poverty than social exclusion can be found. Social scientists have intensely debated the link between poverty and well-being (see e.g., Morris, 1979; Seers, 1969; Sen, 1982; Streeten, 1984). The Easterlin Paradox (1974) suggests that above a certain level of income at which basic needs are met, increases in income do not lead to increases in well-being. Stevenson and Wolfers (2013) said that because the association is not linear the point of satisfaction beyond which income does not impact SWB is not known yet. Some authors argue that the strength of the association decreases when the standards of life improve (Biswas-Diener & Diener, 2001), and increases in wealth have a positive influence in the outcome for all children but effects are stronger in poorer families (Cooper & Stewart, 2013). Cummins (2000) added to the debate that internal and external 'buffers', such as health, mediate the relationship between SWB and income, so the effects of income could be stronger predictors of SWB.

Tiwari (2009) discusses in depth the understanding of both concepts, while addressing the gap that exists with the perception of poor people about their well-being. She concludes that "mapping a more holistic understanding of poverty and well-being will have important long term policy implications for poverty reduction" (p.1).

With adults, some studies reported positive correlations between income and SWB (see e.g., Clark, Frijters, & Shields, 2008) but others revealed the opposite (e.g., see Deaton, 2010). The discordant results might be explained by relative income comparisons: subjective measures of poverty and subjective well-being are usually very negatively correlated (Stevenson & Wolfers, 2008). Bellani and D'Ambrosio (2011) provided empirical evidence of the association between the multidimensionality aspect of material deprivation and social exclusion and SWB. Regarding social exclusion, contrary results are presented: income and unemployment are weakly associated with sociability and community participation in Britain (Pantazis, Gordon, & Levitas, 2006); social support is only lacking for a minority of the materially disadvantaged (Russell & Whelan, 2004); and in Mediterranean countries the link

between material and social disadvantage is weaker than in northern European countries (Paugam & Russell, 2000).

Taking children into account, it is known that every facet of their lives is affected by poverty: economic and material disadvantages, social and relational exclusions, and personal aspects such as shame, sadness and fear of stigma and difference (Ridge, 2009). Hence, it seems obvious that, for the consequences of poverty on children, this situation has an affect on children's well-being. Bradshaw (2011) covered many of the domains of children's lives that could be impacted by child poverty. There are other studies with various results about the specific association between being deprived or socially excluded and having low subjective well-being with children, and they are presented below.

Some studies have been trying to identify the associations between SWB and poverty with children. However, they did not find a significant relationship between children's SWB and child poverty when the latter was reported by adults (Knies, 2011; Rees et al., 2012). It was not until 2012 that Main and Bradshaw, as mentioned before, developed the child-centric material deprivation measurement. It was found that when material deprivation was reported by children it was more strongly related to low SWB than the absence of deprivation was to high SWB (Main & Bradshaw, 2012). The conclusion was that the adult-reported child poverty was not a valid representation of the self-reported child poverty, and the child-reported poverty measure captures some of the information missed in income-focused and adult-derived measures (Main, 2014).

Some subgroups of children reported lower SWB: adolescents that perceived their families to be less rich than the other ones, adolescents without any adult with a paid job at home, young people that repeated a course, and the ones who are not living with the same people - parents or carers - as the year before (Casas & Bello, 2012). Moreover, adolescents living with only one of both parents or in care also reported lower SWB than those living with their families (Casas & Bello, 2012; Dinisman, Montserrat, & Casas, 2012; Schütz, Sarriera, Bedin, & Montserrat, 2015). Rees, People, and Goswami study (2011) found associations between child SWB and their families' economic conditions: less household income and families with more worries about the future had a statistically significant relationship with their kids having lower SWB.

The different results obtained up to now seem to make evident that the association between SWB and poverty or social exclusion depends on the chosen indicator and the voice taken into account when measuring.

Children's and adolescents' subjective well-being and the subjective concept of child poverty - and consequently the social exclusion concept - are strongly linked by its same roots: the Social Indicators and the Child Indicators Movements. However, the association is not that evident when considering eudaimonic well-being. When it comes to the relationship between eudaimonic well-being and poverty and social exclusion, no information has been found so far. However, recently some studies have examined the protective benefits of eudaimonic well-being in the context of social inequality, in terms of education level (see e.g., Morozink, Friedman, Coe, & Ryff, 2010; Ryff, 2016), health level (see e.g., Ryff, Radler, & Friedman, 2015), or racial/ethnic minorities (see e.g., Keyes, 2009; Ryff, Keyes, & Hughes, 2003). Another study from Tsenkova, Love, Singer, and Ryff (2007) reported that lower incomes predicted worse cross-time profiles of glycosylated hemoglobin - connected to type 2 diabetes - but some dimensions of subjective and psychological well-being (purpose in life, personal growth and positive affect) moderated this relationship, highlighting the importance of psychological factors as protective resources to face inequality.

This doctoral thesis wants to take into account this perspective and the previous findings, to explore and understand not only the concepts of eudaimonic well-being and social exclusion for children and adolescents but also their associations, taking into account children's voices. Our epistemological approach is to recognise children as the main characters of their lives and the one's to whom we must ask if we are interested in studying their well-being. This is an innovative approach considering the lack of information regarding the relationship between PWB and social exclusion.

4. RATIONALE AND OBJECTIVES



4.1. THESIS RATIONALE

educing social exclusion and promoting well-being are two important objectives in our society. Poverty, and particularly child poverty, has been on the agenda of politics and researchers since a long time ago. Currently, one of the targets of the European Union set for 2020 is to fight against poverty and social exclusion. The EU's strategy for reducing them puts the emphasis on social inclusion and the development of social and community economy, for instance, their interventions are in the direction of creating jobs and improving work conditions. Social exclusion is, on its own, a condition that contributes to decreasing people's well-being. Hence, with reducing social exclusion the EU objective also implies promoting well-being.

There is a lack of information about social exclusion and eudaimonic well-being from a child's point of view. With both being important concepts for children's lives, it would be necessary to better understand what they mean from a child's perspective and how to operationalise them.

Despite progress made on studying how social exclusion can affect a child's SWB, as far as we know there has still been no attempt to explore the relationship between PWB and those socially excluded children and adolescents. We don't know if the relationship is similar to the one with SWB, or completely different, but it is important to find out because of the significance of the PWB dimensions for young people's lives.

The arguments presented explain and justify the relevance of studying both concepts independently to better understand what they mean from a child-centric perspective. At the same time, that justifies the importance of studying the social exclusion factors that can hinder and diminish the probabilities for experiencing living well as understood in an eudaimonic sense.

The environment where the child lives and his/her social context is very important and it determines social exclusion and well-being, As Sen pointed out when proposing the Capability Approach (Sen, 1983), the lack of key capabilities as a member of a society makes poverty arise, and having those capabilities can help to achieve human functioning. In terms of well-being, the lack of resources and low levels of eudaimonic well-being - without forgetting that we all are members of a society and that has an influence on it - could make social exclusion arise. At the same time, promoting those resources and eudaimonic well-

being aspects such as personal growth, autonomy or environmental mastery, could help to achieve human functioning and promoting social inclusion. We consider that culture is also an important variable to take into account when studying social exclusion and eudaimonic well-being, because of the subjective and objective aspects that both constructs include. There is no unambiguously single list of aspects that could improve eudaimonic well-being and reduce social exclusion. Rather there are multiple ones, and culture has a relevant role in that. That's why, we point out the importance of country-comparison to be able to explore the cultural differences within the social exclusion and the psychological well-being constructs.

4.2. THE AIMS OF THE THESIS

acing some of the challenges explained in the theoretical background, the general aim is to explore eudaimonic (psychological) well-being and social exclusion from children's and adolescents' perspective, and also the associations between these constructs and with other related ones such as hedonic (subjective) well-being. This is more concretely detailed in the following specific aims:

- 1) To operationalise child social exclusion in empirical research using data from children and to evaluate how the instrument developed works in different countries, this including, among others, well-being indicators (Study 1).
- 2) To explore the relationship between children's psychological well-being and social exclusion indicators in different countries (Study 2).
- 3) To explore and understand which aspects contribute most to achieving full satisfaction in life from the adolescents' point of view, as well as to explore its relationship with subjective and psychological well-being, measured using different instruments (Study 3).
- 4) To explore three dimensions (life goals, autonomy and positive relations with others) for adolescent's eudaimonic living and their relationship with different levels of subjective well-being (Study 4).

This being a doctoral thesis developed by publications, each article addresses one of these specific objectives. Each publication has specific aims and they are presented in the following.

4.2.1. OBJECTIVE 1. STUDY 1

This article has the following aims:

- 1) To operationalise child social exclusion in empirical research adapting the Bristol Social Exclusion Matrix (Levitas et al., 2007);
- 2) To examine how the instrument works across 16 countries;
- 3) To explore the associations between the sub-domains;

4) And to evaluate (overall and by country) the risk of being materially deprived and also excluded in different sub-domains.

4.2.2. OBJECTIVE 2. STUDY 2

The article has the following objectives:

- 1) To examine how the PWB instrument works across 15 countries using data from children;
- 2) To explore the associations between PWB and material deprivation;
- 3) To explore the associations between PWB and type of home.

4.2.3. OBJECTIVE 3. STUDY 3

The specific aims are:

- 1) To explore the relationship between sociodemographic variables (age and gender) and the aspects considered important to achieve full satisfaction in life (AFSLs: Casas et al., 2013);
- 2) To explore the association between AFSLs and different psychometric scales to measure subjective well-being;
- 3) To explore the association between AFSLs and psychological well-being using the Flourishing Scale;
- 4) And to explore to what extend AFSLs contribute to explaining the scores obtained in the indicators to measure subjective and psychological well-being.

4.2.4. OBJECTIVE 4. STUDY 4

The aims of the study are the following ones:

1) To explore whether adolescents with higher and lower mean SWB scores attribute different importance to autonomy to achieve full satisfaction in life and whether this importance varies over two waves of data collection.

- 2) To explore whether adolescents with higher and lower SWB mean scores attribute different importance to life goals to achieve full satisfaction in life and whether this importance varies over two waves of data collection.
- 3) To explore whether adolescents with higher and lower SWB mean scores attribute different importance to positive relations with others to achieve full satisfaction in life and whether this importance varies over two waves of data collection

5. METHODOLOGY



e consider the quantitative and qualitative methodological approaches as complementary ways of studying child well-being and social exclusion. Depending on the objectives, quantitative or mixed-methods approaches will be considered in each article. Additionally, longitudinal data will be used in the last study.

With the aim to operationalise child social exclusion using data from children and to evaluate how the instrument works in different countries, an international dataset is needed. That is the same case for the second aim, where an international dataset is convenient for exploring the relationship between children's psychological well-being and social exclusion indicators in different countries. However, in order to study the eudaimonic dimension of well-being the international dataset is not enough because the questionnaire did not include other eudaimonic instruments apart from the one explored within the second aim. That is the reason why a dataset from a regional project has been used to explore and understand which aspects contribute most to achieving full satisfaction in life from the adolescents' point of view, as well as to explore its relationship with subjective and psychological well-being, measured using different instruments (specific objective 3). Finally, taking advantage of the fact that a longitudinal dataset (2 data collections) that includes quantitative and qualitative information was available, we explored three of the six eudaimonic dimensions and their relationship with different levels of subjective well-being (specific objective 4). To sum up, using different datasets has been useful and convenient in order to achieve the objectives of the study.

Even though the sample used is from two different datasets, the participants are from the same age group and mean ages are similar: 12.02 years-old (SD = 0.610), 12.05 years-old (SD = 0.595), and 13.09 years (SD = 1.49), for the first, second and third studies respectively. For the fourth study, considering that it is a longitudinal study, mean ages are 12.02 years-old (SD = 1.5) and 13.09 years-old (SD = 1.49) for the 1st and the 2nd data collections respectively. Despite the fact that the age is similar, in the publications added at the results section the participants are sometimes named as 'children' and sometimes as 'adolescents'. With it not being the aim of this thesis to determine at what age the different stages of life start and end, it was decided to call them children or adolescents indistinctly, depending on the scientific journal chosen for the publication.

Methodological details from each study can be found in the results section within each publication. However, some information about the two projects that framed the four studies is

presented below. Additionally, a concluding table to sum up the methodology section is presented.

5.1. STUDY 1 AND 2. INTERNATIONAL PROJECT

he information of this section can be found in The Children's Worlds (2016), Rees (in press), Rees & Main (2015) and the project's website (www.isciweb.org), unless otherwise stated.

5.1.1. THE CHILDREN'S WORLDS PROJECT

The Children's Worlds project (ISCWeB) is an international, intercultural and multilinguistic survey created with the objective of studying "children's worlds in as many countries as possible around the globe" (www.isciweb.org). The survey aims to support cross-national comparative work that was lacking in the field until its creation. The funders believe that is essential to "provide children with an environment in which they can fully blossom and attain their highest potential" (www.isciweb.org). The perception of their subjective well-being is the most important factor to assess this environment. Asking children and allowing them to give their opinions and perceptions of their well-being is the best way to collect data for the project.

The project aims:

"To collect solid and representative data on children's lives and daily activities, their time use and, in particular, their own perceptions and evaluations of their well-being. This data will be used to improve children's well-being by creating awareness among children, parents and communities to the everyday lives of children, their environment, their relationships with others, their beliefs and satisfaction. By studying children's worlds in as many countries as possible, we also aim to influence opinion leaders, decision makers, professionals and the general public, both in the project countries and internationally." (www.isciweb.org)

The project began in 2009. However, as mentioned before, a group of researchers interested in children's social indicators started 'cooking' this project a long time before that, in 1996 at the first International Workshop on 'Measuring and Monitoring Children's Well-Being: Beyond Survival' when the ISCI was founded.

The project uses a quantitative approach to collect solid and representative data from children themselves, making the information from children's lives available for researchers and policymakers.

The project started with a pilot test in Brazil, England, Germany, Honduras, Israel and Spain during the summer and autumn of 2010. Findings were presented and discussed in a meeting in Germany and this led to a second draft version of the questionnaire. After adapting the survey, in the first half of 2011 the questionnaire was piloted in Germany, Romania, South Africa, Spain and Turkey (Dinisman & Rees, 2014). After reviewing the survey and creating separate versions for children aged 8, 10 and 12 years, in 2012, data from over 34,000 children from 14 countries worldwide was collected (for detailed findings there is a special issue in the journal of Child Indicators Research, 2015; for an overview see Dinisman, Fernandes, & Main, 2015).

Between 2013 and 2016 and thanks to the Jacobs Foundation funding, the second wave of the survey took place. The questionnaire was administered to over 61,000 children aged 8, 10 and 12 years old from 18 countries worldwide, obtaining information about their lives and their SWB. Currently, this is the largest database with information about children's SWB (for detailed results there are two special issues in the journals of Children and Youth Services Review and Child Development, first form 2017 and the second still in press).

A third wave is planned to start by the end of 2017 and will run for at least two years. More than 40 countries across five continents have joined this wave so far.

For this doctoral thesis, data from the second wave was used. However, we have only used data from 16 countries, those who administered the questionnaires between 2013 and 2014, as data for the two remaining countries was available after starting this doctoral thesis. From now on, the information given is only from the data used.

5.1.2. PROCEDURE

ith the aim to obtain the most representative sample possible of children in the relevant age groups within each participating country, it was decided to conduct a large-scale survey through mainstream schools. That evidently places a limitation on representativeness as it excludes children not attending school or not attending mainstream schools.

The sample was representative in Estonia, Ethiopia, Germany, Israel, Malta, Nepal, Norway, Romania and South Korea. In Algeria (Western region), Colombia (Antioquia), Poland (Wielkopolska), Turkey (Istanbul), South Africa (Western Cape), Spain (Catalonia), and the UK (England) the sample only included part of the country and was representative in that specific region. Some form of stratification was used in all countries, using different variables depending on the specific context - type of school, population density, geographical regions, etc.

For the sampling strategy researchers took into account the already existing conceptual frameworks of country categorisations (Ajzenstadt & Gal, 2010; Arts & Gelissen, 2002; Esping-Anderson, 1990). The project had a sampling panel made up of four experts to review sampling strategies (Rees, in press). Each country's draft strategy was reviewed independently by two members of the panel who gave a feedback and made suggestions for improvement. Sampling was different in each country because of the diverse information available in them. For instance, some countries could access data about the numbers of children in all schools and so were able to use random selection with probabilities proportional to the size of the schools. In contrast, other countries didn't have this data and they selected more than one class in larger schools to reduce the need for high weighting coefficients in the final sample.

All participating countries collected data from the three age groups of children: 8, 10 and 12 years old. However, the survey was targeted at year groups within schools and high-schools, usually with some children younger or older than this.

All countries gained approval for the survey from an ethics body. Parental informed consent differs in each country depending on this ethics body's practices and legal requirements: some countries did not need parental consent as schools are the ones who approved children participation; other countries require passive parental consent; and in two countries active parental consent was required. In contrast, children's consent was compulsory and required in all countries. All children were informed verbally and in the introductory information on the questionnaire about their right to not participate or even leave some questions empty if they did not feel comfortable with them.

Headmasters were contacted by the national research team to ask for participation. The data administration took between 45 and 60 minutes and it was done at school. Representatives of the research team were present in the classroom to be able to answer any queries, with the

exception of the UK, where guidance and information was provided to school staff and they managed the process and administered data. That is a common practice in this country. Paper questionnaires were used in most countries, while in the England and in many cases in Spain and Poland the survey was administered online.

Each national research team input the data into computer using standard coding templated in SPSS and Excel formats. Once data was ready in each country, consistency of responses and identification of cases with systematic responding were checked in all files by a central data co-ordinator. Weightings were used to render the data sets as representative as possible of the target population.

The final data set is available online at the project's website on request.

5.1.3. PARTICIPANTS

n the first publication, the sample used is formed by a total of 19,212 children from 16 countries worldwide, almost half of them boys (48.8%) with some variations among countries, and the mean age is 12.02 years-old (SD = 0.610) for the pooled sample (table 3).

In the second publication, Israel is not included in the sample because the instrument used was not included in that country. The sample used is formed by a total of 18,286 children, and mean age is 12.05 years-old (SD = 0.595) for the pooled sample.

In both publications, we have focussed on the 12 year olds and not on the 8 and 10 year old samples and this is because the 6 items from the instrument used were only asked to the oldest ones.

Table 3. Distribution of participants, mean ages and gender distributions by countries

	N	%	Boys (%)	Girls (%)	Mean age (years)
Algeria	1,283	6.7	57.1	42.9	11.47
Nepal	995	5.2	49.5	50.5	12.00
Estonia	1,029	5.4	51.0	49.0	12.09
Spain	1,667	8.7	52.0	48.0	12.12
Colombia	975	5.1	49.2	50.8	12.00
Turkey	1,018	5.3	48.6	51.4	11.95
Ethiopia	980	5.1	49.9	50.1	12.33
S Korea	2,597	13.5	42.9	57.1	12.00
Germany	852	4.4	48.3	51.7	12.43
England	1,319	6.9	51.5	48.5	12.48
Israel	926	4.8	49.9	50.1	11.39
Romania	1,507	7.8	51.6	48.4	12.05
Norway	974	5.1	39.5	60.5	12.32
Poland	1,017	5.3	49.5	50.5	12.43
S Africa	1,131	5.9	45.9	54.1	12.00
Malta	942	4.9	46.1	53.9	11.09
Total	19,212	100.0	48.8	51.2	12.02

5.1.4. INSTRUMENTS

here were three versions of the questionnaire for the different age groups. Each version was adjusted to take into account the age of children in terms of the total number of questions included - being shorter for the 8 year olds - and the wording and format of the individual questions - for example using school or high-school when convenient. The 12-year-old's English version of the Children's Worlds questionnaire is available in Annex I. All items used for this doctoral thesis are highlighted in yellow.

The survey has 4 formats of questions: frequency-based questions about how often children did things or things happened (5 points scale), satisfaction scales about specific aspects of life in large and specific domains or factors (11 points scale), agreement-based items with states and events (from not at all agree to totally agree), and factual-based questions about sociodemographic characteristics. The three versions all covered the following key aspects of children's lives: basic characteristics (age, gender, country of birth), living situation, home and family relationships, money and economic circumstances, friends and other relationships, local area, school, time use, self, overall subjective well-being, and children's rights. Moreover, the 12 years old version also covered the recent changes in children's lives and the qualities aspired to for the future. The questionnaires contained modified versions of psychometric scales of SWB: there was a context-free scale intended to measure overall cognitive SWB (SLSS: Huebner, 1991; Huebner, Suldo, & Valois, 2003); two domain based SWB scales (PWI-SC and BMSLSS); two single-item questions (OLS and HOL); and one scale for measuring affective SWB which relates to children's moods and feelings (Russell's Core Affect short version: Russell, 2003). A scale for measuring psychological well-being was added also.

Extensive piloting was done to ensure the good functioning of the items in each country, checking whether the life domains and the items were relevant for children in varied socio-cultural regions. For piloting, large scale samples and focus groups and interviews with children were used. Questionnaires were translated into each language from the initial English version and then independently back-translated into English.

The instruments used in the two publications are explained in detail following.

Social exclusion

Child social exclusion was operationalised by adapting the Bristol Social Exclusion Matrix (B-Sem: Levitas et al., 2007), being the creation of this instrument an objective itself. To develop the social exclusion measure, we used available items in the ISCWeB questionnaire. We took into account the three original B-Sem domains: resources, participation and quality of life. The original domains are represented by 4, 4 and 3 sub-domains respectively. We have adapted the original B-Sem sub-domains to take account of the lives of children, and also taking into account that not all the elements of the B-Sem index could be represented by the indicators available in Children's Worlds survey. Hence, in the adapted B-Sem, the

resources domain is represented by 3 sub-domains, the participation domain has only 1 sub-domain, and the quality of life domain has 3 (table 4). Education and skills have been dropped as an indicator from the original resources domain. The same happened with crime from the original quality of life domain. In the participation domain, the sub-domains have been dropped out and instead a global domain called participation has been used, because of the lack of questions about different kinds of participation in the Children's Worlds survey.

Table 4. Domains and sub-domains of the original B-Sem and the instrument adapted for children

Domains	Original sub-domains	Adapted sub-domains	
	Material and economic resources	Material and economic resources	
Resources	Access to public and private services	Access to services	
	Social resources	Social resources	
	Education and skills		
	Economic participation		
Participation	Cultural participation	Participation	
	Political and civic participation		
	Social participation		
	Health and well-being	Health and well-being	
Quality of Life	Living environment	House and local environment	
	Crime, harm and criminalisation	Social harm	

The sub-domains are represented by a number of indicators. When adapting the original B-Sem we used indicators available in the survey. So, for example, in the material and economic resources subdomain, instead of using income or bills or borrowing money as indicators, we used a material deprivation index asked to children, the satisfaction with all the things that they had, and the number of adults in the house with a paid job.

The process was started by selecting indicators - items or an index from a psychometric scale - from the questionnaire which prima facie were relevant to each sub-domain. Sixteen

indicators were used for the resources domain, 6 for the participation sub-domain, and 18 for the quality of life sub-domain.

These indicators were weighted and standardised using z scores. Then the z scores for the indicators were averaged to produce an individual score for each child. Within each subdomain the reliability of the indicators was assessed using Cronbach's alpha and the correlation matrix was assessed to ensure indicators were operating in the same direction but that the associations were not too high to indicate redundancy.

Psychological well-being

The instrument used was presented before (table 2). It is the set of six items related with Ryff's six dimensions (Ryff, 1989): self-acceptance, autonomy, personal growth, relatedness, purpose in life and environmental mastery. It was piloted for the first time in a study in the UK by The Children's Society (Rees et al., 2013). The question was *How much do you agree with each of the sentences?* and response options were from 0, *not at all agree*, to 10, *totally agree*. The PWB score is the sum of the 6 items and their mean. The reliability of the indicators was assessed using Cronbach's alpha, and it was assessed in the pooled sample and also for each country. The alpha score for the pooled sample was 0.84, and all the countries had an alpha score over 0.75, except Colombia (alpha = 0.726) and Ethiopia (alpha = 0.722).

Material deprivation

Material deprivation was a multidimensional index calculated asking children whether they have or do not have access to 8 items: clothes in good condition to go to school in, a computer at home, the Internet, mobile phone, books to read for fun, family car for transportation, own room, and own stuff to listen to music. The instrument is an adaptation from the original material deprivation measurement developed by Main and Bradshaw (2012).

Type of home

To explore what type of home children had, a single item was used. The question was *Which* of the following best describes the home that you live in? and they could choose between 4 options: with my family, in a foster home, in a children's home, or in another type of home.

5.1.5. DATA ANALYSIS

he pooled sample analysis (when taking into account all countries as a whole) use weightings to make sure that each country makes an equal contribution to the overall statistics.

As we were attempting comparative analysis, the degree of overlap between different variables, the risk of low PWB and the risk of being socially excluded, and also the odds ratios of scoring low PWB or being socially excluded are presented. The odds are all statistically significant considering p-value <.05. To obtain those overlaps, binary variables were produced. Different thresholds were used in each case; more information is available in each publication.

To define and calculate the material deprivation index we first aggregated items and dimensions and then weighted them. To be able to produce a binary variable, the process started by a prevalence weighting (Bradshaw et al., 1997). That is to say, each deprivation item was weighed with the proportion of respondents in the pooled sample who had responded to the item. Then, the weighted scores for each item were standardized as z scores. To finish, the z scores were summed and averaged, giving a score for measuring material deprivation. Following Hagerty et al. (2001) in combining indicators to form components, components to form domains, and domains to form the overall index, we did not impose any weights. In fact, there is an implicit weight when summarising the data using z scores.

5.2. STUDY 3 AND 4. REGIONAL PROJECT

5.2.1. THE PROJECT

he ERIDIQV (Research Team on Childhood, Adolescence, Children's Rights and their Quality of Life) received funding from the Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness (Spanish Government) for a project between 2011 and 2013 called Evolución del bienestar personal entre los 10-15 años. Aspectos evaluados por distintos instrumentos, correlatos y consistencia temporal en diferentes cohortes de sujetos [Personal well-being evolution between 10 and 15 years-old. Aspects evaluated by different instruments, correlates and temporal consistency in different cohorts of subjects] (ref. PSI2010-19404). Quantitative and qualitative data was collected during 2 consecutive years with the same children and adolescents in the province of Girona (Catalonia, Spain). Also, qualitative data was collected during these same 2 years.

From these two data collections, a different sample was used in each publication depending on the objectives. For the third publication, only data from the second data collection was used. For the fourth publication, both years of data collection were used. Characteristics from the whole sample are detailed in what follows.

5.2.2. PARTICIPANTS

total of 940 participants aged between 9 and 17 answered the questionnaires, and 100 of them participated in a focus group during two consecutive years. Of which 44.1% were boys and 55.9% girls. They were all students from 16 educational centres from the province of Girona, from both state-run (54.1%) and state-subsidized schools (45.9%).

The same questionnaire and focus groups were administered to each participant during two consecutive school-years: in 2011-12 and 2012-13. Participants were organized in different cohorts. In the 1st cohort participants were students from Year 5 (10yo) and Year 6 (11yo) of Primary School, in the 2nd cohort participants were students from Year 6 (11yo) of Primary School and Year 1 (12yo) of Secondary School, and so on (table 5). In the 1st data collection, mean age is 12.02 years (SD=1.5), and on the 2nd data collection is 13.09 years (SD=1.49).

In Spain, compulsory education lasts from 6 to 16 years of age. Primary education usually starts at 5 or 6 years of age and continues until 11 to 12 years of age, from Year 1 to Year 6 of Primary School. Then children continue with secondary education until they are 15 to 16 years old, attending from Year 1 to Year 4 of compulsory Secondary School.

Table 5. Distribution of cohorts and number of participants by age (years-old) and school year

School year*	Expected age		Cohorts and	d number of	participants	S
Year 5 Primary School	10-11	1 st				
Year 6 Primary School	11-12	(N=177)	2 nd			
Year 1 Secondary School	12-13		(N=154)	3 rd	•	
Year 2 Secondary School	13-14			(N=229)	4 th	•
Year 3 Secondary School	14-15		•		(N=174)	5 th
Year 4 Secondary School	15-16					(N=206)
Total						N=940

^{*}School years taking into account the Spanish educational system

5.2.3. INSTRUMENTS

5.2.3.1. Quantitative data collection: questionnaires

wo equivalent versions of the same questionnaire were used: one for primary school students and another for secondary school students. The first was a shorter version of the second with less questions and a simpler expression to facilitate understanding. Seven instruments common to the two versions were used in the publications and are described below (see Annex II).

Aspects to Achieve Full Satisfaction in Life (AFSL)

Because of the lack of instruments to assess eudaimonia in children and adolescents, Casas and colleagues (2013) decided to create a list of aspects to achieve full satisfaction in life (AFSL). These aspects are based on the results obtained from group discussions with this

population, where they were asked what aspects were important for achieving well-being and also from debates with a group of expert researchers in this field. The instrument is neither completely eudaimonic nor completely hedonic because it mixes the word 'satisfying', which has hedonic connotations, with the word 'full' as a sense of life, which has eudaimonic implications. The aim was to know what aspects of their lives adolescents perceive as most important and to explore which of these are the aspirational aspects that they consider contribute to achieving full satisfaction in life. This is the first step to obtaining indicators to measure both eudaimonic and hedonic well-being that is specific to this age group.

The AFSL is composed of 28 items, which had to be assessed in relation to their importance to achieve full satisfaction in life. The basic question was To what degree are each of these things important for achieving full satisfaction in life?. Answers were assessed on an 11-point scale, from 0 meaning Not at all to 10 meaning Extremely. The items are: knowing that a lot of people love me, feeling that I am a fair and honest person, having plenty of money, knowing that a lot of people admire me, being convinced that my life has a goal, loving intensely, having experiences that make me feel alive, acting in line with my principles, appreciating the small things in life, knowing how to see the best in the people I know, appreciating nature, believing that there is something after death, practicing a religion, being at peace with myself, enjoying a lot of intense experiences, not being afraid of being alone, seeing that I produce things, being happy, feeling that I make other people happy, having a good time, having what I want, doing whatever I want, feeling that I am a useful person for others, having power over others, doing things well, leaving others with a good memory of me and having new experiences. In the shorter version for primary school students there is 1 item not included which refers to the importance of feeling connected to a higher being.

Instruments for measuring SWB

Subjective well-being was assessed by means of two types of frequently used psychometric scales for these ages - single and multi-item scales - (Holte et al., 2014) that have good psychometric properties. All the instruments were translated from English to Catalan, piloted in different samples in this language and back-translated into English. A detailed description of the translations and adaptations of these instruments can be found in Casas et al. (2008).

The OLS (Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976) is a single-item scale that assesses overall satisfaction with life and was answered through an 11-point scale where 0 means *completely dissatisfied* and 10 means *completely satisfied*.

The HOL (Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976) assesses degree of happiness on an 11-point scale, which goes from 0 meaning *extremely unhappy* to 10 meaning *extremely happy*.

The SWLS (Diener, 1994; Diener et al., 1985) is a context-free psychometric scale. It contains 5 items exploring aspects related to SWB: Most things in my life are close to what I want them to be; Things in my life are excellent; I am happy with my life; Up to now I have achieved the important things I want in life; If I was born again, I would want the same life. These aspects are assessed on a scale that goes from 0 meaning no, absolutely not to 10 meaning yes, absolutely. Internal consistency of the scale is good with a Cronbach's alpha of .850 in the first data collection and of .848 in the second one.

The PWI (Cummins, 1998; Cummins et al., 2003) uses seven items that refer to the different domains of satisfaction with life: health, standard of living, security, the groups of people to which we belong (community), personal achievements, future security and relations with others. They are assessed on a scale that goes from 0 meaning *completely dissatisfied* to 10 meaning *completely satisfied*. Internal consistency is good with a Cronbach's alpha of .800 in the first data collection and of .779 in the second one.

The BMSLSS (Huebner, 1994) includes six items to explore satisfaction with different life domains: family, friends, experience at school, themselves, where they live and life overall. Answers are assessed on an 11-point scale going from 0 meaning *Awful* to 10 meaning *Formidable*. Internal consistency is good with a Cronbach's alpha of .764 in the first data collection and of .789 in the second one.

Instrument for measuring PWB

The Flourishing Scale (Diener et al., 2009) is an 8-item psychometric scale assessed on an 11-point scale where 11 means Completely disagree and 10 means Completely agree. The items are: My life has got sense and meaning; My social relations are gratifying and I have got support; I am interested in and immersed in my everyday activities; I actively contribute to the happiness and well-being of others; I am capable and competent in the activities that are important to me; I am a good person and I live a good life; I am optimistic about the

future; People respect me. Internal consistency of the scale is good with a Cronbach's alpha of .885 in the first data collection and of .905 in the second one. The instrument was translated from English to Catalan, piloted in different samples in this language and backtranslated into English.

5.2.3.2. Qualitative data collection: focus groups

Two scripts to help focus the discussions were designed: one for the primary school students and the other for the secondary school students, being shorter the first one (see Annex III for the script in Catalan). Some questions were asked addressing different kinds of issues, and their relationship with well-being. First, a brief description of what well-being is for them was asked to the participants, and also they talked about which words they would use to express well-being. Next, we asked about things that can facilitate and hinder well-being. Finally, open-ended, follow-up questions were proposed to help identify the relationship between wellbeing and some aspects of their lives such as the area they live in, the technologies they use, the sense of life, mindfulness, optimism, openness to experiences and living new experiences, the past, the present and the future, and religion and spirituality.

5.2.4. PROCEDURE

ur research design includes two steps: (1) quantitative data collection, both cross-sectional and longitudinal; and (2) qualitative data collection, both cross-sectional and longitudinal. Both of them were organized once every school-year with the same participants during two consecutive years. Following suggestions from Guest (2012), a diagram of the steps conducted for the study is provided (figure 1), as a way to help understanding the process followed.

A procedure was required to collect data. An intentional sample of different schools in the province of Girona (north-east of Catalonia, Spain) was selected. Sixteen educational centres were chosen and contact was made with their headmasters to explain the aims of the research and to gain permission to proceed with the questionnaire with students from the school years selected. Consent forms explaining the aims of the study were provided to the schools that agreed to take part and the student's' parents or tutors signed these. Consent implied agreeing

to collaborate with data collection by answering a questionnaire and participating in focus groups if selected.

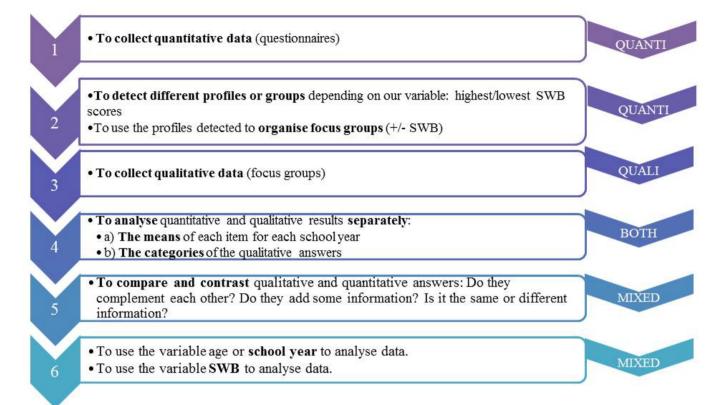


Figure 1. Procedure used to collect and analyse quantitative and qualitative data

Firstly, quantitative data was collected. Two or more researchers were present in the habitual classroom in order to answer some questions. The researchers informed the participants about the main aim of the study and gave basic guidelines needed to be able to answer the questionnaire. Data confidentiality was then guaranteed. They were told that it was an individual questionnaire that was to be completed voluntarily and that questions could be left unanswered. The duration of the data collection was between 35 and 45 minutes in the normal classroom.

Secondly, different profiles were identified depending on the levels of SWB using quantitative data already collected. A composite index was calculated with the scores from three psychometric scales: SWLS, PWI and BMSLSS. The SWB index obtained for each participant by summing the scores for these three scales was used to classify participants into two groups according to whether they had a high or low level of SWB. It is worth clarifying that the way to select participants and organize them in groups is done with the aim to

distinguish different profiles, but this not allows us to categorically define those adolescents with the lowest scores as vulnerable among children of their age. Moreover, this is not the objective of the present study and such statement would require further data collection and analyses.

Thirdly, between 2 and 4 months after the administering of the questionnaires but during same school-year, 10 focus groups were conducted in 9 of the 16 participant schools. In each focus group two researchers were present to guide and moderate the discussion, which lasted around 60 minutes. One of the researchers led each focus group and the other one was in charge of the recorders and supporting the interviewer. As with the quantitative collection, parents' permission was requested and also children's and adolescents' permission to record the discussions, always guaranteeing exclusive use for research and data confidentiality. Focus groups were organised taking into account the scores on the SWB psychometric scales - two groups of each cohort being organised: one with the participants with the highest scores and another with the lowest ones. Focus groups were mixed gender: half of the participants were girls and half boys (figure 2).

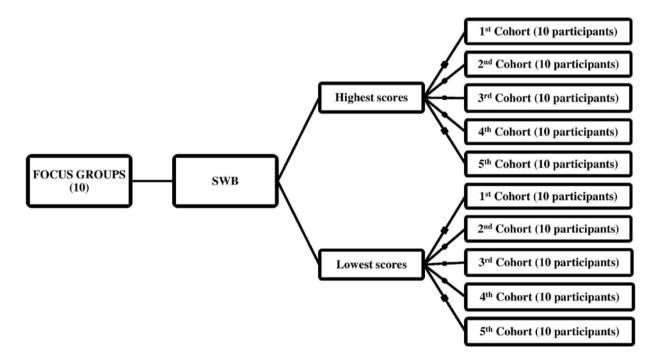


Figure 2. Groups and profiles definitions to organise focus groups

5.2.5. DATA ANALYSIS

uantitative data analysis was done using the statistical package SPSS23.0. Different analyses were conducted depending on the objective of the publication: descriptive analysis, comparative analysis using Student's T and the ANOVA with the Post hoc Test LSD, Pearson correlations and regression models. All the statistical analyses carried out were considered statistically significant when the p-value was <.05.

Many studies have explored adults' PWB using a quantitative approach (e.g., Díaz et al., 2015), a qualitative approach (e.g., Swindells et al., 2013) and a mixed method approach (e.g., Delle Fave, Brdar, Freire, Vella-Brodrick, & Wissing, 2011). However, few studies address children's and adolescents' PWB using a mixed methods approach and even fewer combine quantitative and qualitative methodologies to understand the relationships between SWB and PWB, despite the great potentiality in doing so. The fourth paper of this thesis aims to fill this gap. The mixed methods approach would help to illuminate some of the until now less known aspects of the three eudaimonic domains from a children's perspective. Moreover, the longitudinal approach of this paper would help to shed light on the association between the eudaimonic domains and different levels of SWB.

There are at least 5 ways to combine the results from qualitative and quantitative methodologies. In this study, the triangulation between them is used to seek convergence and corroboration and to contrast the results obtained with the two methodologies (Denzin, 1970).

In this way, all qualitative materials recorded were transcribed and analysed using QSR NVivo10. The information from focus groups was organised into different categories when appropriate. A content analysis was conducted following the three steps from Bardin (2002). Firstly, pre-analysis: we read information from the focus groups to familiarize ourselves with the material and decided on operational criteria for the analysis. Secondly, exploration of the material: we used the categorical content analysis to organize information into categories. To ensure the reliability of the categories, the process was done by inter-judges: three researchers did it independently and then information was compared and discussed (see Neuendorf, 2002). Thirdly, processing, inference and interpretation of results: data was interpreted and then triangulated with quantitative results taking into account the aims of the study. Due to the lack of information in the scientific literature on how data should be integrated, in the fourth publication from this thesis, a proposal is presented for studying adolescents' lives.

Henceforth, mixed-methods data analysis has been carried out. On the qualitative part participants are organised taking into account the highest and the lowest SWB mean scores. To be able to integrate quantitative with qualitative data, thresholds have been drawn to divide into 3 groups the 940 participants that answered the questionnaire: a) a group with the top 20% highest SWB scores (N=172), b) a group with the top 20% lowest SWB scores (N=168), and c) a group with the rest of the participants (N=600), which were not considered for the quantitative analysis.

5.3. SUMMARY

Summarised information about the four studies is presented in table 6.

Table 6. Concluding table to summarise the methodology of the four studies

		Study 1	Study 2	Study 3	Study 4
Project		International	International	Regional	Regional
Methodo approach		Quantitative	Quantitative	Quantitative	Mixed-methods
	N	19,212	18,286	763	940
Sample	Age (years) [M / SD]	12.02 / 0.610	12.05 / 0.595	13.09 / 1.49	12.02 / 1.5 13.09 / 1.49
	Age rank	11 to 13	11 to 13	11 to 16	9 to 17
Instruments				AFSL	
		Child Social Exclusion Matrix Child material deprivation index	PWB index	HOL	AFSL
			Child material	OLS	SWLS
			deprivation	SWLS	PWI
			index	PWI	BMSLSS
			Type of home	BMSLSS	Focus groups
			item	Flourishing	script
				scale	

6. RESULTS



6.1. CHILD SOCIAL EXCLUSION

Published version cannot be used

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Abstract

Social exclusion has been defined as a lack of resources, an inability to participate and a low quality of life. There have been a number of attempts to study the social exclusion of adults and at a country level. This paper attempts to operationalise the concept for children and comparatively using data derived from the Children's Worlds Survey of 12 year old children in 16 countries. It does this by adapting the Bristol Social Exclusion Matrix. Variables are selected to present sub-domains and combined using standardised scores. The results for the 16 countries are compared for each sub-domain. Analysis of the overlaps between the subdomains is undertaken using the pooled sample and for four selected countries. The material and economic resources sub-domain explains more of the variation in the other elements of social exclusion but by no means all. Being excluded from social resources seems to be less associated with other types of exclusion in all countries. Experiences of social exclusion in childhood are linked more strongly in some countries than others and in some sub-domains than in others and these variations need further investigation. There may be limits to the extent that social exclusion can be compared across such a diverse set of countries but a multidimensional approach provides a more complete picture than an exclusive focus on material deprivation.

Highlights

- Child social exclusion can be operationalised adapting the original B-Sem domains.
- Social exclusion domains are related to each other, distinct in country level.
- Participation subdomain appears to be the most associated with other subdomains.
- Material and economic resources seems to be a less important form of social exclusion.
- Results lead us to potentially policy relevant insights.

Keywords

Social exclusion, Resources, Participation, Quality of life, Childhood studies

6.2. CHILD PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND ITS ASSOCIATIONS WITH MATERIAL DEPRIVATION AND TYPE OF HOME

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Crous, G. (2017). Child psychological well-being and its associations with material deprivation and type of home. *Children and Youth Services Review, 80,* 88-95.

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Abstract

Psychological well-being (PWB) has been defined as a way of living well and realizing ones human potentials more than an outcome or a psychological state (Deci & Ryan, 2008). There have been a number of attempts to measure PWB of adults and at a country level such as the multidimensional model of psychological well-being, which proposed six psychological dimensions (Ryff & Keyes, 1995).

This paper attempts to analyse some PWB data from children across 15 countries, using the Children's Worlds Survey of 12-year-olds. The instrument used to measure PWB (The Children's Society, 2013) contains 6 items, one for each of Ryff's dimensions. First, the overall view is presented using descriptive information from the pooled sample and then from each specific country. Then, the overlaps between PWB and material deprivation and the overlaps between PWB and type of home are analysed for each country. Being deprived and not living with the family seems to be associated with PWB across all countries. In the countries studied, more than 25% of the deprived children also reported low PWB, reaching the huge percentage of 69% in S Korea. The same happens with the type of home: in all countries more than 21% of the children who are not living with their families also reported low PWB, reaching 100% in S Korea.

Some initial implications and recommendations based on this research are presented, but we need further investigation and more data from children to cover the lack of information about PWB from their point of view.

Highlights

- The psychological well-being multi-item is working across 15 countries.
- Romanian children reported the highest PWB means, and S Korean the lowest.
- The dimension personal growth has a tendency to be different in all countries.
- Being materially deprived is associated with a low PWB.
- Children who are not living with their family reported a lower PWB.

Keywords

Psychological well-being, Material deprivation, Type of home, Childhood studies

6.3. WHAT ASPECTS ARE IMPORTANT TO ADOLESCENTS TO ACHIEVE FULL **SATISFACTION IN LIFE?**

Published version cannot be used

Crous, G., Casas, F., & González-Carrasco, M. (in press). What aspects are important to adolescents to achieve full satisfaction in life? *Child Indicators Research*. Online first.

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Abstract

This study aims to add new knowledge about what aspects adolescents between 11 and 16 years old consider important to achieve full satisfaction in life (AFSL) and to explore the relationship between these aspects, sociodemographic variables and subjective and psychological well-being indicators. The sample is comprised of 763 secondary school pupils from Girona province (north-eastern Spain) who were subject to five psychometric instruments for measuring subjective well-being, one instrument for measuring psychological well-being and the list of aspects that they consider important to achieve full satisfaction in life (AFSLs: Casas et al. 2013). Being happy, having a good time, experiencing new things and feeling that I make other people happy are the AFSLs that score highest across all age groups. The OLS (Campbell et al. 1976) is the subjective well-being indicator that correlates with the most AFSLs. Appreciating the small things in life is an AFSL that contributes to explaining the well-being measured with all the psychometric instruments used and feeling that you are a fair and honest person contributes to explaining all of them except the OLS.

Keywords

Subjective well-being, Psychological well-being, Eudaimonia, Full satisfaction in life, Adolescents

6.4. THE USE OF MIXED METHODS TO STUDY IN DEPTH ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTIONS AND ASSESSMENT OF THEIR AUTONOMY, LIFE GOALS AND POSITIVE RELATIONS WITH OTHERS

Embargoed until publication

Crous, G., González-Carrasco, M., & Casas, F. (submitted October 2017). The use of mixed methods to study in depth adolescents' perceptions and assessment of their autonomy, life goals and positive relations with others. *Journal of Adolescent Research*.

Abstract:

This research aims to explore whether adolescents with higher and lower Subjective Well-Being (SWB) mean scores attribute different importance to the eudaimonic dimensions of their life goals, autonomy and positive relations with others to achieve full satisfaction in life and to see whether this importance varies over two waves of data collection using a mixed methods design. In two consecutive school years, 940 participants aged 9 to 17 years answered a questionnaire and 100 of them participated in a focus group, which was organised into two groups -higher and lower SWB mean scores- based on their previous quantitative answers. Participants were students (44.1% boys, 55.9% girls) from 16 schools in the province of Girona (Spain). Comparative analyses using Students T-test and repeated measures were used to examine statistically significant differences between the higher and lower scoring participants and between the two waves, respectively. Content analysis was conducted to organise the data from the focus groups into categories. Quantitative and qualitative data were triangulated. The results suggest that the three Psychological Well-Being (PWB) dimensions are very important for adolescents' eudaimonic living because in all the focus groups from both waves at least one of these dimensions was explicitly referred to.

Keywords: mixed methods; adolescence; positive youth development; family; peers/friends; psychological well-being; subjective well-being.

7. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION



acing some of the challenges explained in the theoretical background, eudaimonic (psychological) well-being and social exclusion have been explored from a children's and adolescents' perspective, and also the associations between these constructs and with other related ones such as hedonic (subjective) well-being. This has been done through four specific studies. The findings obtained from these studies puts into evidence the contribution of all of them to respond to the main objective of this thesis. Firstly, we explored social exclusion (studies 1 and 2) and PWB (studies 2, 3 and 4) from a child's and adolescents' perspective in different countries (studies 1 and 2). Then, the relationship of social exclusion indicators and PWB was studied (study 2). Finally, we studied the aspects that contribute most to achieving full satisfaction in life and three PWB dimensions for a better understanding of eudaimonic living (studies 3 and 4) and their relationship with PWB (study 3) and SWB (studies 3 and 4).

Operationalizing child social exclusion, including well-being indicators among others and using data from children, and to evaluate how this instrument works in different countries was the objective of the first study. With the second study, we have presented how a child-centric PWB instrument works across countries and also the links between reporting low PWB and being socially excluded in some aspects (taking into account the material deprivation and type of home as social exclusion indicators). Then, a third study wanted to understand the relationships between eudaimonia and hedonia, so we explored which aspects contribute most to achieving full satisfaction in life from an adolescents' point of view and their relationship with subjective and psychological well-being instruments. And lastly, the fourth study explored in more depth three psychological well-being dimensions from an adolescent's perspective and their relationship with different levels of subjective well-being.

7.1. SUMMARY OF SPECIFIC DISCUSSIONS FROM THE FOUR STUDIES

he first study entitled **Child social exclusion** is one of the first attempts to operationalise social exclusion for children. The study used the Bristol Social Exclusion Matrix (B-Sem) sub-domains as a theoretical base to build an instrument using children's opinions and perceptions with the aim of comparing child social exclusion across countries. The social exclusion indicators have been summarised into 3 domains and 7 sub-domains, including well-being indicators among others.

The results show the contribution of material deprivation to child social exclusion and the findings indicate that child poverty represented by deprivation is not a good proxy for other aspects of child social exclusion such as participation or quality of life. The degree of overlap with the participation and quality of life domains increases slightly when using material and economic resources sub-domains rather than deprivation. These findings have research insights that would be presented in the next section.

There are differences in the social exclusion rates in different domains in different countries. The cultural and political variations across countries put into evidence the importance of measuring child social exclusion worldwide and by country.

If children are listened to and taken into account by adults (parents, carers, teachers, town council, etc.), they are able to decide how they use their time, and they are able to participate in organised leisure time activities, they are less likely to be excluded on the material and economic resources and quality of life domains. These results are really important and have direct policy insights, but they contrast with Gross-Manos' social exclusion measure (Gross-Manos, 2015) where the measure is reliable only when omitting the participation in social activities dimension. A potential explanation is that it was measured only by the involvement in social activities (Gross-Manos & Ben-Arieh, 2016).

The second study Child psychological well-being and its associations with material deprivation and type of home explored the relationship between PWB and two social exclusion indicators. The PWB instrument with children's data from 15 countries was used and distribution was reported non-normal, with a large percentage (nearly 70%) of children scoring more than 8 on an 11-point-scale. The PWB instrument consists of 6 items related to

Ryff's PWB dimensions (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). The scalability of these items was assessed and the PWB measure worked across countries.

In general, children feel more competent in the dimensions of self-acceptance, purpose in life and positive relations with others and less in autonomy and environmental mastery. In all dimensions the ranking of countries mean scores is usually similar, except for the personal growth dimension, which has a tendency to differ one country to the other. Regarding country comparisons, South Korea is the only country with quite different scores in all dimensions compared with other countries, the same thing happens with SWB scores (see Rees & Main, 2015). Children from Germany and the UK, considering that they come from rich countries, show low scores in almost all dimensions; while children from Romania, Turkey or Colombia, despite their economic level, scored higher in almost all dimensions.

In all countries, more than 25% of the deprived children also reported a low PWB. In general, the risk of a low PWB is at least 1.4 times more likely when deprived, reaching an important percentage of 69% in South Korea. Also in South Korea, there were only a small percentage (0.1%) of children who reported not being with their family, but it is worrying that all of them scored less than 8 in PWB. A potential hypothesis is that children from South Korea are under lots of pressure from the society to have the best results at school and that could affect their PWB. In the UK or Poland a child is 2.31 and 2.27 times (respectively) more likely to report a low PWB when living in foster care or in a children's home, being the countries with the highest odds ratio of scoring low PWB. Even though there are only a few children in the sample who are not living with their families, it is important to take these results into account and try to find an explanation and a way to break the association between low PWB and not living with the family. Some policy and research insights related to these findings are also presented afterwards.

To sum up, the results of the article show that child material deprivation and the fact of not living with the family are more strongly related to 'low PWB' than the absence of material deprivation and living with the family. Therefore, the contexts (concerning deprivation and households) in which children live influence their PWB. Similar results can be found in other studies when analysing the relationship between SWB and the two social exclusion measures used in this second study (e.g., see Main & Bradshaw, 2012 regarding the relationship between SWB and material deprivation; e.g., see Llosada-Gistau, Montserrat, & Casas, 2015 concerning the association between SWB and household).

The third study What aspects are important to adolescents to achieve full satisfaction in life? had the objective to explore which aspects are considered important for achieving full satisfaction in life (AFSL) and the relationship between them and subjective and psychological well-being measured through psychometric scales. The instrument studied is comprised of a series of both eudaimonic and hedonic items. With this instrument, we wanted to take first steps in scientific literature towards creating indicators to assess the well-being of adolescents from these two perspectives. The results indicate that well-being is a construct that goes beyond the simple stability of long-term positive affect (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Schmutte & Ryff, 1997) and that many other aspects of an adolescent's life affect their well-being.

The AFSLs that were considered as most important for the sample group of students across the four school years considered were *being happy*, *having a good time*, *having new experiences* and *feeling that I make other people happy*. These aspects take just as much the relationship between the person and the environment into account (making others happy is a eudaimonic aspect) as individual variables related to positive and negative affect and satisfaction with life (being happy, having a good time and having new experiences are considered hedonic aspects) (Keyes & Magyar-Moe, 2003).

Regarding the relationship between age and the AFSLs, the scores for the list of AFSLs decrease throughout adolescence, even though only for seven of the 28 items these differences are statistically significant. Concerning gender, statistically significant differences were observed between boys and girls for 10 of the 28 aspects included. For aspects related to material values, such as money, the admiration of others and power, boys tended to score higher than girls. Girls, on the other hand, scored higher on aspects related to eudaimonia, like being happy, feeling that you are making others happy, leaving others with a good memory of you and appreciating the small things. These gender differences increased with age, because gender distinctions are less pronounced at young ages.

On exploring the associations between AFSLs and subjective and psychological well-being, it was revealed that the AFSLs that were considered to be most important were not necessarily those that contribute most to explaining subjective and psychological well-being. Appreciating the small things in life is the AFSL that contributes to explaining all the psychometric instruments used in the study (OLS, HOL, BMSLSS, SWLS and PWI), and

feeling that I am a fair and honest person also contributes to explaining all the instruments except for the OLS.

Results vary depending on the instrument used as other authors have previously reported (Casas et al., 2012). Because the single-item and context-free instruments (the OLS, the HOL and the SWLS) are more generic, they can capture a wider range of AFSLs that contribute to explaining them. Results confirm that the OLS and the HOL do not assess the same thing and cannot be used, therefore, indistinctly whereas more than one of them must be considered at the same time (Casas et al., 2012; González-Carrasco, Casas, Viñas, Malo, Gras, & Bedin, 2017b). Research insights related to this are presented in the next section.

The fourth and last study entitled **The use of mixed methods to study in depth adolescents' perceptions and assessment of their autonomy, life goals and positive relations with others** explored three important dimensions for the adolescent's eudaimonic living (life goals, autonomy and positive relations with others) and their relationship with SWB. The results put into evidence the relevance of these 3 PWB dimensions for adolescents' well-being, reported by adolescents themselves. Quantitative and qualitative results suggested that the three PWB dimensions are as important for the adolescents' eudaimonic living as the literature says they are for adults (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ryff & Keyes, 1995).

A mixed methods approach was used. Participants answered questionnaires and a few of them participated in focus groups. A composite index was calculated with scores from three psychometric scales to classify participants into higher and lower SWB levels for the qualitative data. The differences between SWB groups found are statistically significant in almost all comparisons and for all three eudaimonic dimensions. Results suggested the existence of a link between hedonic and eudaimonic traditions (Ryan & Deci, 2001): adolescents with the highest levels of SWB also displayed higher scores in the variables related with these 3 dimensions and, in contrast, participants with the lowest levels of SWB also displayed lower scores in these three dimensions.

Cummins (2014) suggested within the Homeostasis model of personal well-being, that SWB levels are maintained within a narrow range of values around a set-point both in adults and children. The results obtained here may be suggesting that something similar happens with autonomy, life goals and positive relations with others during adolescence. The tendency for the higher SWB group is to score higher than the other group in all three eudaimonic dimensions but then scores tend to decrease one year later. Mean scores from the lower SWB

group did not follow a clear pattern, but in almost all cohorts the tendency is to score higher the year after. That could also be explained through the existence of a homeostatic mechanism for PWB but more waves of data collection are needed to check this hypothesis.

Purpose in life seems to be important for participants belonging to all cohorts, but even more important for the ones with the highest SWB scores. Our results mimic those of Lanz, Rosnati, Marta, and Scabini (2001) and Yeager and Bundick (2009). They reported work goals as being the most frequent during adolescence while related to eudaimonic well-being and academic motivation, and the participants from this study mentioned having a future job, their own family and studying at the university as their life goals related to their well-being.

Autonomy, considered as one of the basic human needs in the context of the Self-Determination theory (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1995, 2000), has been mentioned in almost all focus groups from all cohorts. Results reveal that the older the participants, the more they understand the concept of autonomy as Ryff and Keyes (1995) and Ryan and colleagues (2008) defined it. Thus, while the younger ones describe behavioural autonomy as being less controlled by their parents and also being able to make decisions in the family, friends and school domains; the older ones take into account self-determination, being able to resist social pressures from family and friends and the importance of regulating ones own behaviours. This difference is also related with the two ways of defining autonomy described by Van Petegem, Beyers, Vansteenkiste, and Soenens (2012) as independence or as self-endorsed functioning.

The literature on interpersonal relationships considers that having satisfying and trusting relationships is important for adolescents (Richey & Richey, 1980). It provides the opportunity to receive and give help (Weiss, 1974) and make positive contributions to others, which have a significant impact on PWB (Baumeister et al., 2013), something corroborated by the participants' high quantitative scores and their responses in focus groups. With Adolescence being a stressful period and an important life transition, social support can be a mechanism to mediate it and help to accommodate new environments (Buote et al., 2007; Tokuno, 1986). In the results from the third study life goals also appeared as an explicative factor for the Flourishing Scale.

7.2. POLICY AND RESEARCH INSIGHTS

nce more, the evidence shows that knowing the situation of young people first requires critical consideration, without prejudice or protectionism (Aranguren, 1961). Things must be looked at from their point of view and they must be heard. Reality is not univocal but complex (González, 2006): the perceptions of the different social agents involved need to be considered to understand a particular phenomenon. Policy and research insights should come up as a result of children and adolescents' opinions.

Returning to what was set out in the approach section, it is important to remember that we consider social exclusion as a construct that integrates the concepts of poverty and deprivation while also emphasising the inability to participate in social, economic and cultural life. Our results put into evidence that child poverty represented only by material deprivation is not a good proxy for child social exclusion. That contrasts with the early work on child well-being poverty, where solely deprivation tended to be used to represent the whole concept. Hence, the use of more than one instrument to measure child poverty apart from material deprivation is recommended.

Concerning the theoretical approach of eudaimonia, we agree that there is a terminological disagreement that makes its research difficult especially when exploring the construct from a children and adolescents' perspective, due to a lack of theoretical background and empirical data. Our intention was not to be fuelling the debate, but to contribute to the existing scientific literature. In any case, we agree with Tiberius (2016) when it is said that technical terms should be regulated to move forward and be able to share data in a meaningful way. We decided to adopt an integrative approach by taking into consideration both traditions, hedonic and eudaimonic, as suggested by other authors to maximize the points of convergence between them (e.g., Díaz, Stavraki, Blanco, & Gandarillas, 2015). Our results reflect the existence of a link between both constructs, thus confirming that well-being can be conceived as a multidimensional concept including aspects of both traditions (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

In regards to the measure of eudaimonic well-being, on the one hand we used a PWB instrument already designed with the data available from 12-year-old children belonging to 15 different countries, and, on the other hand, we aimed to explore more deeply which aspects are considered important for achieving full satisfaction in life considering children's

and adolescents' opinions, to explore how they are related with three PWB dimensions, and to understand the links with SWB and PWB, this last one measured through an already existing psychometric scale: the Flourishing Scale (Diener et al., 2009).

Social exclusion cannot be reduced to a single number. However, if the aim is to keep track of the progress made in reducing social exclusion and measuring how it can affect children and adolescents' lives, a quantitative assessment of social exclusion, an index, is needed. This index can be extremely informative if it considers the multidimensionality of the construct. That's why we proposed the child social exclusion instrument using the theoretical background of Levitas and colleagues (2007) and the B-Sem structure.

There are big variations in the social exclusion rates in different domains and in different countries. These might lead us to potentially policy relevant insights as long as the results are highlighting the importance of measuring child social exclusion worldwide due to huge cultural and political differences.

New questions emerge from the results and a lot of them are related to country comparisons. Differences across countries were expected because we assumed that the evaluations of the PWB dimensions are strongly related with the culture of the country and cultural identity, the same as it happens with the closely related construct of a meaningful life (Baumeister et al., 2013).

Results point out that being socially excluded affects PWB in all the participating countries and that cannot be ignored. Therefore, social excluded children should be at the top of the agendas of our politicians from all over the world in order to break this association, because it is something affecting important aspects of young people's lives such as their autonomy, personal growth or purpose in life. Inclusion is the mechanism to combat exclusion, therefore social inclusion policies should be the targets for many societies.

We agree with Conti and Heckman (2014) who believe that high-quality early interventions on poverty and social exclusion, which are able to change early-life conditions, are the most effective ways to promote well-being and human flourishing across the lifespan.

The findings produce the evidence that the values of importance are those such as honesty, fairness, solidarity, help and friendship for adolescents. This results goes against the negative idea that today's neoliberal capitalist society has of young people, and it is in opposition the

negative stereotype of this group that can be found in our societies. The results show that youngsters who want to make the most of life and who have aspirations and goals; others are important to them, as it is making them happy; and they see values like trust, honesty and fairness as being important to achieve full satisfaction in life. They are fluid (Bauman, 2008) and they want a flexible life of constant novelty full of new emotions and experiences.

How should eudaimonia fit into social policy and planning? Maybe eudaimonia is or is not "the most important idea in the world" as Joar Vittersø (2016, p.1) suggested in the introduction of the Handbook of Eudaimonic Well-being. However, it is worth asking ourselves as researchers: what can be more important than eudaimonia if we consider it as living, feeling and acting well? We totally agree, and our results confirm so, that the right circumstances should happen to achieve an eudaimonic living and full satisfaction in life, hence the context has a great impact on that. We consider that this leads us to potentially policy relevant insights. It is necessary to have policy measures to improve children's and adolescents' eudaimonic living addressing specific domains such as helping them to develop their autonomy, their personal growth or their life goals in order to have societies with a high level of well-being.

The results can make us think about what aspects decision makers should take into account in order to prevent child social exclusion and improve their well-being through their policies. Usually, policy makers tackle poverty and social exclusion with policies made from an adult-centric view: the main objective is to cover children's basic necessities such as food and education. It is often turned into programmes that help to pay for instance school meals and books. However, children in this study are reporting an interesting and alternative point of view. This does not mean that we do not have to take into account the basic necessities, but also include children's opinions in the decision making process. For example, children have a higher risk of social exclusion if they are not satisfied with the place or area where they live, and if they are not participating in organised leisure time activities, and both of them can be improved through local policies. Knowing that they are some of the aspects that are important to achieving full satisfaction in life are different for boys and girls, it might be relevant to take the gender variable into account for designing interventions for specific groups.

Participation, concerning social exclusion, appears to be the most important domain that it is most closely associated with the other social exclusion sub-domains: quality of life and material and economic resources. Also, it is reported as an important aspect for adolescents'

well-being, especially for the ones with lower SWB mean scores. Concretely, they mentioned that there is a lack of opportunities to participate. As far as the literature on child participation has observed, participation is important for adolescents' life satisfaction (Navarro, 2011). Hence, this could be a factor that contributes to decreasing their SWB. Strategies to promote children's and adolescents' participation all over the world are recommended. Our results affirm the importance on this domain in children's lives and their social inclusion.

To conclude, the results leave a challenging mission on the table. We cannot ignore children's and adolescents' opinion, and it is time to make a move. We cannot stop studying and exploring those constructs: "Eternal vigilance and the appropriate use of evidence is still our best hope" (Bradshaw, 2004, p.239).

7.3. HIGHLIGHTS AND FINAL CONCLUSION

he main findings from this doctoral thesis and the new, novel messages are the following:

- ⇒ Child poverty represented only by material deprivation is not a good proxy for child social exclusion.
- The cultural and political variations across countries put into evidence the importance of measuring child social exclusion worldwide and by country.
- ⇒ If children participate, they are less likely to be excluded from other social exclusion domains.
- The contexts (concerning material deprivation and households) in which children live influence their PWB. The risk of a low PWB is higher when the child reports being materially deprived and when the child does not live with his/her family.
- ⇒ Well-being is a construct that goes beyond the simple stability of long-term positive affect and many other aspects of an adolescent's life affect their well-being.
- ⇒ Hedonic and eudaimonic are two dimensions of well-being: they are distinct but related aspects of positive psychological functioning.
- ⇒ A homeostatic mechanism to regulate children's PWB could exist, as it does for SWB.
- ➡ In opposition to the negative stereotype of children and adolescents that can be found in our societies, nowadays youngsters have aspirations and life goals, want to make the most of their lives, cares about others and their happiness, and they see values like trust, honesty and fairness as being important to achieve full satisfaction in life.
- Autonomy, purpose in life and positive relations with others are three important dimensions for children's eudaimonic lives, and they are related to their SWB level.

To conclude, child social exclusion is related to PWB, which at the same time is related to SWB. When socially excluded, there is a high risk of low PWB being reported. Moreover, considering the existence of a link between hedonic and eudaimonic traditions, these low PWB levels could also indicate low SWB for these socially excluded children. To this extent, some of the risk factors that point to social exclusion could also be seen as protecting factors. For instance, letting children participate in society, helping them to live with a family,

making sure they have a purpose in life, helping them to develop their autonomy, and encouraging them to have significant interpersonal relationships, are just some examples of measures that could be taken to protect children from social exclusion and to increase their well-being. It is important to not only detect the risk factors that point to social exclusion, but also highlight them as protective resources that could face exclusion.

7.4. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

he findings of this doctoral thesis should be considered within the context of some limitations in both the methodology and the sampling. In the Children's Worlds project a large-scale survey was conducted through schools. Although this was designed with the aim of obtaining representative samples of 8, 10 and 12 years old children within each country, the sampling procedure excluded children not attending school and children attending special schools.

For the regional study conducted in the province of Girona (Catalonia, Spain), convenience sampling was used drawing on the research teams contacts, and included administering data in 16 educational centres. The shortcomings of convenience sampling are well-known but were difficult to avoid due to time and funding restrictions. As long as the fact that the sample comes from the same sociocultural environment, it would be interesting to widen the study with data from other countries and with children from different socioeconomic situations. Also, concerning the methodology, the available time for the focus groups was limited and that made it difficult to delve deeper into all aspects mentioned by participants.

Our epistemological approach included children and adolescents as the main actors of their lives and we asked them to report about their lives. However, in order to consider the perspective of different stakeholders, it would have been interesting to include other people for instance, their teachers, parents or carers - to contrast with children's opinions and contribute a greater richness to the constructs studied. This is considered as an interesting area of future research.

The child social exclusion instrument was created adapting the original B-Sem sub-domains to take account of the lives of children. However, the indicators available in the Children's Worlds survey could not represent all the elements of the B-Sem index as they were not formulated having social inclusion in mind. We are planning further analyses to see how well the data fit the B-Sem original model (Levitas et al., 2007) using Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA).

In order to explore the associations between sub-domains - that is the proportion of children excluded on one sub-domain who are also excluded on another - it was necessary to establish a social exclusion threshold. A threshold, which included 20%, was taken - that is the bottom

20% of the distribution on each of the subdomain was treated as socially excluded on that domain for each country. A different threshold could be chosen, because there is not empirical or theoretical justification for this choice. As Levitas and colleagues (2007) stated, "in the present state of knowledge, such thresholds are almost always wholly arbitrary. They need to be established empirically" (p.120). Further research should be carried out on using other thresholds and comparing them.

As we did the first attempt to operationalize PWB from children's opinions and across countries, it would be useful to make the same analysis using other variables that would define subgroups, for instance: family structure, territorial context (urban, semirural or rural), religion, ethnic origin, auto-perceived social class, immigration, disabilities and others. This would give a wider perspective regarding the associations between PWB and being socially excluded in different ways, not only about the type of home and material deprivation.

Ryff's dimensions were developed thinking only in evaluating adults' PWB, but how do these dimensions work when studying young people's PWB? At the moment, we know that the six dimensions are very important to improving young people's psychological well-being (Ryff, & Singer, 2002; Keyes et al., 2002; Schulenberg, Hutzell, Nassif, & Rogina, 2008). However, how do we know that these are the right items to develop the six dimensions? The lack of a long tradition of evaluating these constructs and accepting children as key informants makes it difficult to know up to what point the instrument is biased by an adult-centric view. To understand young people's PWB more deeply, it would be useful to ask them using an open-ended question letting them elaborate on their answer if necessary, or even a qualitative study to learn more about it. Also, as a future research objective, it would be interesting to study in depth, children's and adolescents' perceptions and assessments of other eudaimonic dimensions.

Concerning the aspects which are considered important for achieving full satisfaction in life (AFSL), as a future line of research, the list of AFSLs could be converted into an instrument for measuring well-being in children and adolescents, taking both hedonic and eudaimonic traditions into account. We are planning further analyses to see how well the data fit using Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA) and this might give some indications as to knowing how the instrument could be improved by substituting the least relevant aspects.

Exploring differences in different cohorts (born in different years) along the 2 waves of data collection is a future line of research which would have exceeded the objectives of the study although it could be helpful to corroborate the existence of a homeostatic mechanism controlling PWB (Cummins, 2014). Future studies can help to fill in this gap.

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9. ANNEXES

ANNEX 1

CHILDREN'S WORLDS QUESTIONNAIRE (INTERNATIONAL PROJECT)

We are a group of researchers at the University of XX interested in knowing the opinions and points of view of young people of your age.

We would be very grateful if you would answer this questionnaire for us. It is ANONYMOUS, in other words, no one will know your answers.

There are no right or wrong answers, we are only interested in knowing your choices, opinions and feelings. This questionnaire is confidential (we won't know who you are and we won't pass on any information you give us).

You don't have to answer any questions you don't want to.

For each question, please tick the box or circle the number of the option that best corresponds to your personal situation or position.

Name of school:	
Town:	_ State school □ Part-funded □ Private □
School year: 12-year-o	lds Today's date://2012

Υ	O	u

1. I am years old.
2. I am a: Boy Girl G
3. I live in the town or city of:
4. I was born in this country: Yes No No
(If "no", name of the country:)

Your home and the people you live with

Some children usually sleep in t children sometimes or often sle which of the following sentence	eep in different homes. Please choose										
I always sleep in the same home											
I usually sleep in the same home sometimes sleep in other places example a friends or a weekend	(for										
I regularly sleep in two homes w different adults	ith										
6. Which of the following best des	cribes the home you live in most of the										
time?											
I live with m	y family 🗌										
I live in a fost	er home 🔲										
I live in a children	's home										
I live in another type	of home										
 Please tick all of the people who If you <u>always</u> live in the s If you live <u>regularly</u> in mo 	 7. This question is about the people you live with. Please tick all of the people who live in your home(s). If you <u>always</u> live in the same home, please just fill in Column A. If you live <u>regularly</u> in more than one homes with different adults, please fill in Columns A and B. 										
Column A: First home you live regularly	Column B: Another home / Another place you live regularly										
Mother	Mother										
Father \square	Father										
Mother's partner	Mother's partner										
Father's partner	Father's partner 🗌										
Grandmother \square	Grandmother 🗌										
Grandfather 🗌	Grandfather 🗌										
Brothers and sisters	Brothers and sisters										
Other children	Other children 🗌										
Other adults	Other adults 🗌										

8.	How much do you agree with each of these sentences?				ee a e bit	_		Agree a			ally ree		Don't know		
-	I feel safe at home														
•	I have a quiet place to study at home														
•	My parents (or the people who look after me) listen to me and take what I say into account														
-	We have a good time together in my family														
•	My parents (or the people who look after me) treat me fairly														
9. How satisfied are you with each of the following things in your life? 0 = Not at all satisfied													10 = Totally atisfied		
•	The house or flat where you live?		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	ç	10		
•	The people who live with you?)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	ç	10		
•	All the other people in your family?		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	ç	10		
•	Your family life?		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	ç	10		
10. How often in the past week have you spent time doing the following things with your family?						Not at or all twice			Most days		/ery lay		Don't know		
Talking together															
•	Having fun together														
•	Learning together														

Money and things you have

11. How often do you get pocket money?

I don't get pocket money						
I get pocket money, but not regularly						
I get pocket money every week (approximately, how much do you get every week: €)						
I get pocket money every month (approximately, how much do you get every month: €)						
Don't know						

12. Which of the following things do or don't you have?	No	Yes	Don't know
Clothes in good condition to go to school in			
 Access to computer at home 			
 Access to Internet 			
Mobile phone			
(Your own room)			
Books to read for fun			
 A family car for transportation 			
Your own stuff to listen to music			
A television at home that you can use			

13. How satisfied are you with all the things you have?

0 =										10 =
Not	at all								To	tally
satis	fied								sati	sfied
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

14.	How often	do you worr	y about how muc	h money your	family has?
-----	-----------	-------------	-----------------	--------------	-------------

Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Don't know

15. How many adults that you live with have a paid job?

None	One	Two	More than 2	Don't know

Your friends and other people

your area?

Your relationships with people in general?

16. How much do you agree with each of these sentences?	I do not agree a little bit somewhat		Agree a lot		otally agree		Don't know				
 My friends are usually nice to me 											
 I have enough friends 										1	
17. How satisfied are you with each of the following things in your life?	0 = Not s satis		l								10 = otally isfied
Your friends?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
• (The people who live in	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

18	. How often in the past week have you spent time doing the following things with your friends apart from at school?	Not at all	Once or twice	Most days	Every day	Don't know
•	Talking together					
•	Having fun together					
•	Meeting to study (apart from at school)					

The area where you live

19	How much do you agree with each of these sentences?	I do not agree	Agree a little bit	Agree somewhat	Agree a lot	Totally agree	Don't know
	The town council asks children and young people their opinion about things that are important to them						
•	In my area there are enough places to play or to have a good time						
•	I feel safe when I walk around in the area I live in						

20	. How satisfied are you with each of the following things about the area where you live?
-	The local police in your area?
•	How you are dealt with when you go to the doctors?
•	The outdoor areas children can use in your area?
•	The area where you live, in general?

0 = Not satis	at all fied									10 = tally sfied
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

2	I. How much do you agree with each of these sentences?	I do not agree	Agree a little bit	Agree somewhat	Agree a lot	Totally agree	Don't know
•	My teachers listen to me and take what I say into account						
•	I like going to school						
-	My teachers treat me fairly						
•	I feel safe at school						

22. How often, if at all, in the last month have you been	Never	once	2-3 times	More than 3 times	Don't know
Hit by other children in your school?					
Left out by other children in your class?					

23. How satisfied are you with each of the following things in your life?		at all									10 = stally
Other children in your class?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Your school marks?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Your school experience?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Your life as a student?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Things you have learned?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Your relationship with teachers?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

24. How often do you usually spend time doing the following activities when you are not at school?	Rarely or never	Less than once a week	Once or twice a week	Everyday or almost everyday	Don't know
 Taking classes outside school time on matters different than at school (like music, sports, dancing, languages,) 					
 Participate in organized leisure time activities (like youth movement, scout,) 					
 Reading for fun (not homework) 					
 Helping up around the house 					
Doing homework					
Watching TV or listen to music					
 Playing sports or doing exercise 					
Using a computer					
Spending time just being by myself					
 Taking care of brothers or sisters or other family members 					

25. How satisfied are you with each of the following things in your life?

How you use your time?
The freedom you have?
The amount of opportunities you have in life?
Your health?
The way that you look?
Your own body?
What you do in your free time?
How you are listened to by adults in general?
Your self-confidence?
Your life as a whole?

0 = Not satis	at all fied									10 = tally sfied
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

26. In the past year,	No	Yes
have you moved house?		
have you changed local area?		
have you changed schools?		

27. Are you living with the same parents or carers that you lived with one year ago?

...have you lived in another country for over a month?

No	Yes

How you feel about yourself

28. How satisfied are you with each of the following things in your life?

•	About how safe you feel?
•	With the things you want to be good at?
•	About doing things away from your home?
	About what may happen to you later in your life?
-	With your preparation for the future

0 = 10 Not at all Totall satisfied satisfie										
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

29. Overall, how happy have you been feeling during the last two weeks?

0 =										10 =	
Not at all									Totally		
happy									H	appy	
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	

Your life and your future

30. Here are five sentences about how you feel about your life as a whole. Please tick a box to say how much you agree with each of the sentences

My life is going well
My life is just right
I have a good life
I have what I want in life
The things in my life are excellent

0 = Not agre	at al	l							To	10 = tally gree
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

3	 Please answer the following questions about children's rights 	No	Not sure	Yes
•	I know what rights children have			
•	I know about the children's rights convention			
•	I think in my country, adults in general respect children's rights			

32. Imagine you are already an adult: at this age how much do you think you would like other people to appreciate the following qualities

-	Your friendliness
-	Your relationships with
	people
-	Your money
-	Your power
-	Your family
•	Your personality
-	Your kindness
•	Your image

0 =										10 =
Not	at all							٧	ery n	nuch
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

33. Below is a list of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Please read each word and then tick a box to say how much you have felt this way during the last two weeks

 Satisfied
■ (Happy)
• (Relaxed)
 Active
• Calm
Full of energy

0 = Not a	at all								Extre	10 = mely
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

34. Please say how much you agree with each of these sentences	0 = Not agre	at all e									10 = tally gree
 I like being the way I am 	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
 I am good at managing my daily responsibilities 	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
 People are generally pretty friendly towards me 	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
 I have enough choice about how I spend my time 	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
 I feel that I am learning a lot at the moment 	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
 I feel like I know where my life is going 	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
 I feel lonely 	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
 I feel positive about my future 	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

35. Please, think for a while which has been the BEST moment in your whole life - do not write anything, just think about.

Next, please, think for a while which has been the WORST moment in your whole life - do not write anything, just think about.

Keeping these two moments in your mind, please answer from minus 5 to plus 5, where you find yourself IN THE PRESENT PERIOD, that is the last two weeks.

-5										+5 =
I feel ba	ad as								I feel	good as
the WO	RST peri	od in my	/ life				th	e BEST p	eriod in	my life
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4	+5

Fi	na	l	lv
	···	•	٠y

We are currently testing this questionnaire and we would be interested in hearing your opinions to help us improve it.

36. Please tell us whether you agree with the following sentences about the questionnaire.

	I do not agree	I agree	I Don't know
The questionnaire is too long			
In the questionnaire I am asked things that I think are important			

Thank you very much for participating!!!!

Thank you very much for participating!!!!

ANNEX 2

QUANTITATIVE INSTRUMENTS (REGIONAL PROJECT)





Aspects to Achieve Full Satisfaction in Life (AFSL:Casas et al., 2013)

Quin grau d'importància dones a cadascuna d'aquestes coses, per aconseguir una vida plenament satisfactòria?:

0 = Gens	Moltissim = 10

Sentir que sóc una persona justa i honesta Tenir diners de sobres Saber que molta gent m'admira Estar convençut que la meva vida té un objectiu Estimar intensament Tenir experiències que em facin sentir viu/viva Ser coherent amb els meus principis (o ideals) Apreciar les petites coses de la vida quotidiana Saber veure els aspectes positius de les persones que conec Apreciar la grandesa de la natura Sentir-me connectat/da amb un ésser o poder superior Creure que hi ha alguna cosa més després de la mort Practicar una religió Estar en pau amb mi mateix Gaudir de moltes experiències intenses No tenir por a la soledat Veure que produeixo coses Ser feliç Sentir que faig feliç als demés Passar-m'ho bé Posseir el que desitjo Fer tot el que vull Sentir que sóc una persona útil pels demés Tenir poder sobre els demés Fer les coses ben fetes Deixar un bon record de mi	
Tenir diners de sobres Saber que molta gent m'admira Estar convençut que la meva vida té un objectiu Estimar intensament Tenir experiències que em facin sentir viu/viva Ser coherent amb els meus principis (o ideals) Apreciar les petites coses de la vida quotidiana Saber veure els aspectes positius de les persones que conec Apreciar la grandesa de la natura Sentir-me connectat/da amb un ésser o poder superior Creure que hi ha alguna cosa més després de la mort Practicar una religió Estar en pau amb mi mateix Gaudir de moltes experiències intenses No tenir por a la soledat Veure que produeixo coses Ser feliç Sentir que faig feliç als demés Passar-m'ho bé Posseir el que desitjo Fer tot el que vull Sentir que sóc una persona útil pels demés Tenir poder sobre els demés Fer les coses ben fetes Deixar un bon record de mi	Saber que molta gent m'estima
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Sentir que sóc una persona útil pels demés Tenir poder sobre els demés Fer les coses ben fetes Deixar un bon record de mi	Posseir el que desitjo
Tenir poder sobre els demés Fer les coses ben fetes Deixar un bon record de mi	Fer tot el que vull
Fer les coses ben fetes Deixar un bon record de mi	Sentir que sóc una persona útil pels demés
Deixar un bon record de mi	Tenir poder sobre els demés
	Fer les coses ben fetes
Tenir experiències noves	Deixar un bon record de mi
<u> </u>	Tenir experiències noves

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
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0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
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0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
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0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Overall Life Satisfaction (OLS: Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976)

Fins ara, com de **satisfet o satisfeta** estàs amb cadascuna d'aquestes **coses de la teva vida**?

0=Totalment	Totalment
insatisfet/a	satisfet/a = 10

Amb tota la teva vida considerada globalment		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
--	--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----





Happiness Overall Life single-item Scale (HOL: Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976)

Tenint en compte el **conjunt de la teva vida**, podries dir que ets:

Extremadament	in	felic
	,	,

Extremadament feliç

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS: Diener, 1984; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985)

Tot seguit tens cinc frases que reflecteixen com poden **pensar i sentir-se les persones respecte de la seva vida**. De 0 a 10, indica en quin punt et sents.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
No, de	No,	No	Relati-	Més no	\boldsymbol{A}	Més sí	Relati-	Sí,	Sí, molt	Sí, del
cap	gairebé	gaire	vament	que sí	mitges	que no	vament	força		tot
manera	gens		no				sí			

Per la majoria de coses la meva vida s'acosta al que jo vull que sigui	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Les coses de la meva vida són excel·lents	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Estic content/a amb la meva vida	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Fins ara he aconseguit les coses importants que vull a la vida	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Si tornés a néixer, voldria tenir la mateixa vida	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Personal Well-being Index (PWI: Cummins, 1998; Cummins et al., 2003)

Fins ara, com de satisfet o satisfeta estàs amb cadascuna d'aquestes coses de la teva vida?

0=Totalment	Totalment
insatisfet/a	satisfet/a = 10

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10





Brief Multidimensional Student's Life Satisfaction Scale (BMSLSS: Huebner, 1994)

Les sis preguntes que vénen tot seguit et plantegen la teva **satisfacció amb diferents àmbits de la teva vida**. Posa un cercle a la que consideris la millor resposta per tu.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Pèssima	Molt	Dolenta	Relati-	Més	Ni	Més	Relati-	Bona	Molt	Formi-
	dolenta		vament	aviat	bona	aviat	vament		bona	dable
			dolenta	dolenta	ni	bona	bona			
					dolenta					

Descriuria la meva satisfacció amb la meva família com a	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Descriuria la meva satisfacció amb els meus amics o amigues com a	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Descriuria la meva satisfacció amb la meva experiència d'estudiant com a	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
											10
											10
Descriuria la meva satisfacció amb la meva vida globalment com a	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Flourishing Scale (Diener et al., 2009)

En quina mesura estàs d'acord o en desacord amb cadascuna d'aquestes frases:

0 = Totalment en	Totalment d'acord =
desacord	10

Porto una vida amb sentit i significat
Les meves relacions socials em resulten gratificants i en rebo
suport
Estic interessat/da i involucrat/da (implicat/da) en les meves
activitats de cada dia
Contribueixo activament a la felicitat i benestar de les altres
persones
Sóc capaç i competent en les activitats que són importants per a mi
Sóc una bona persona i visc una bona vida
Sóc optimista davant del futur
La gent em respecta

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0)	2	4	١		7	5	>	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		_	2		_		_	0	0	1.0
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

ANNEX 3

FOCUS GROUPS SCRIPT (REGIONAL PROJECT)





GUIÓ DE LES ENTREVISTES GRUPALS

a) Obertura i presentació.

Benvinguda dels participants.

Presentació del moderador i del seu/s ajudant/s.

Agraïment per la seva col·laboració.

Recordar que és voluntari: qui vulgui es pot retirar en qualsevol moment i qui es quedi ha de sentir que ho fa lliurement.

Es gravarà la sessió. Cal registrar el consentiment informat (tothom hi està d'acord?).

b) Breu exposició del propòsit de l'estudi

Durant aquest curs escolar, un grup d'investigadors de la Universitat de Girona han vingut a aquest institut a passar un qüestionari. Potser vosaltres sou dels nois i noies que van contestar-lo. En el qüestionari es feien preguntes sobre el **benestar que us proporcionen diferents aspectes de la vostra vida** (les coses que apreneu, els amics, la família, entre d'altres).

Les respostes de tothom eren confidencials. Per tant, no sabem què va respondre ningú en concret, però tenim moltes dades que ens agradaria comprendre millor i, per això, demanem la vostra ajuda. Les vostres opinions són molt importants per nosaltres per poder conèixer el vostre punt de vista.

En aquesta segona fase de la recerca organitzem discussions més o menys d'una hora, en grups de 8. Ara bé, igual que en la primera fase, fora d'aquest grup ningú no sabrà qui ha dit què, perquè com a investigadors de la universitat us garantim també ara la nostra absoluta confidencialitat.

c) Explicació de les normes bàsiques de l'entrevista grupal

Cal dir als nois i noies que tinguin present:

- Que els investigadors/es donarem el torn de paraula per evitar que si es parla alhora, després la gravació no s'entengui.
- Convidem a que els que siguin més amics/gues s'assentin separats, per evitar la temptació de xiuxiuejar amb el del costat.





- Que intentin fer el menys soroll possible amb objectes (com els bolígrafs, les taules...) perquè a l'hora de transcriure les seves converses registrades amb el magnetòfon no hi hagin molts sorolls que ens dificultin aquesta tasca.
- Que no hi ha respostes bones ni dolentes, volem saber les diferents opinions o punts de vista dels joves de la vostra edat.

Comença la gravació:

Enregistrar: grup, data i nom del centre i el consentiment.

Roda de presentacions dels nois i noies que formen el grup i edat dels mateixos.

Els que esteu aquí, vau contestar el qüestionari? (ensenyar-lo).

d) Plantejament de les qüestions

!! Pregunta per la 2a recollida de dades

Fa un any que us vam entrevistar, ho recordeu?

Ens podeu dir què li ha passat al vostre benestar al llarg d'aquest any?

- (1) Hi ha hagut algun canvi important en la vostra vida aquest darrer any? (quin?).
- (2) Hi ha hagut algun canvi important amb el vostre benestar aquest darrer any? (a millor, o a pitjor? quin?).
- (3) Algun canvi en el vostre benestar ha tingut a veure amb algun canvi de la teva situació personal o en la vostra vida? (quin o quins?).

Quines coses creieu que han dificultat el tenir benestar al llarg d'aquest any?

Quines coses creieu que han facilitat tenir benestar al llarg d'aquest any?

1. Què és el benestar?

- 1.1. Què considereu que és el benestar personal per als joves de la vostra edat?
- 1.2. Quina seria la millor manera de dir o expressar aquesta idea de viure bé o estar bé amb la pròpia vida? (Cartolina 1)

2. Què està relacionat amb el benestar?

2.1. Les temàtiques que estan en aquestes llistes, que ja vam veure l'any passat, penseu avui que són importants pel vostre benestar?

Mostrar una a una les cartolines. No llegir-les.

3. Lloc de residència

3.1. El lloc i l'entorn en el què viviu, penseu que té a veure amb el vostre benestar?





- 3.2.Què vol dir viure bé en el vostre poble/ciutat/barri?
- 3.3. Quines coses creieu que ajuden a viure bé a la vostra edat al vostre poble/ciutat/barri?
- 3.4. Quines coses creieu que dificulten a viure bé a la vostra edat al vostre poble/ciutat/barri?
- 3.5. Vosaltres creieu que els nois i noies que viuen en un poble tenen més benestar que els que viuen en una ciutat?

4. Tecnologies

- 4.1. Les tecnologies tenen a veure amb el vostre benestar personal?
- 4.2. Què és el que us fa sentir bé de l'ús de les tecnologies?
- 4.3. Què és el que us fa disminuir el benestar?
- 4.4. Hi ha algunes tecnologies que us fan sentir més benestar que d'altres? Quines?

5. Objectius vitals i percepció de control

5.1. Penseu que segons les coses que us proposeu aconseguir a la vida pot ser que us sentiu millor o pitjor?

6. Mindfulness

- 6.1. Creus que les pràctiques com el ioga o la meditació poden ajudar a tenir més benestar? O sentir-te millor amb tu mateix/a?
- 6.2. Donar massa voltes a les coses que han passat o estar massa pendent del futur, us ajuda o pel contrari us disminueix el vostre benestar?
- 7. Com estàveu fa 4 anys, millor o pitjor que ara? Per què?
- 8. Com esteu en l'actualitat? Per què?
- 9. Com creieu que estareu d'aquí a 4 anys? Per què?

!! Preguntes només pels d'Educació Secundària

10. Espiritualitat i religió

- 10.1. La vostra espiritualitat té a veure amb el vostre benestar?
- 10.2. Les vostres creences religioses tenen a veure amb el vostre benestar?

11. Vida plena de sentit

- 11.1. Quines són les coses que us donen sentit a la vida, a la vostra edat?
- 11.2. Tenir la vida plena de sentit es troba relacionat amb el benestar personal, a la vostra edat?



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