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Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka 1100, Bangladesh

E-mail : kazisaifuddin@psy.jnu.ac.bd

Phone : +880-2-9583791 off

Cell : +880-1712 119 309

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Cognitive Mechanisms of Investigators Intuition in a Task of Detection of Suspicious Persons

Popov. A.Yu¹, Vikhman A.A.¹ & Vasilieva I.V.²

Abstract

This study looks into cognitive mechanisms underlying intuitive expert judgment about the probability that criminals will commit a repeated offense. The study used a computer-based online procedure which required studying incomplete criminal records and making a decision on which of the criminals are most dangerous. Results and discussion shows that precision of intuitive judgment is not dependent on professional experience ($r = 0.16$), but does depend on the time used to complete the task ($r = 0.47$, $p < 0.01$). The result suggests that accuracy of decisions in this setting can be more efficiently predicted by the ways experts' process information rather than by mere tenure. It seems that successful judgment in this situation may consist of two stages: 1) anchoring on the most evident marker differences, and 2) deciding on the less evident cases. This is indicated by the fact successful respondents would go back to already-seen pages multiple times.

Key-words: Criminals, repeated offense, precision of intuitive judgement, cognitive field research and cognitive risk analysis, judgement and decision making, social security

Beginning with the first innovative works by DeGroot (DeGroot, 1965), Klein et al., (Klein, 1986), research into the cognitive mechanisms of expert intuition has been accompanied by a clear interest on the part of practitioners from various fields of social security. Expert intuition is an important element of everyday work among fire fighters, nuclear station operators, military and police officers, doctors, etc. (Kahneman & Klein, 2009). Research into heuristics and cognitive biases (Tversky & Kahneman, 1971, 1974) has revealed a number of weaknesses in expert intuition, but its only strengthened interest toward the problem.

The study described here was aimed at the practical risk of providing social security in relation to potentially dangerous persons. The major aim of the research is discovering cognitive mechanisms of expert intuitive judgment of the probability that a criminal will commit a repeated dangerous offense. Experimental situation was characterized by incompleteness of information. An important task is to study the relations between precision of expert intuition and the factors of age (professional experience) and time spent on data analysis. An indirect aim of the research is demystification of intuition through revealing concrete cognitive mechanisms of expert decision-making in an experimental procedure.

¹ Perm State Humanities & Teacher Training University, Russia. E-mail: popov-research@mail.ru

² University of Tuymen, Russia

Hypotheses of the study

The dependent variables of the study were: 1) total number of correct responses (out of 6); 2) time spent on each of the 49 pages of the website (in seconds); and 3) sequence of movement from page to page (the “trajectory” of expert’s movement across different pieces of information presented in the criminal records). The last two variables were measured latently (subjects did not guess these parameters were measured). Thus, the hypotheses of the study were given herein:

1. Probability of correct response (i.e. precision of expert intuition) will be higher in investigators with large work tenure (in years).
2. Probability of correct response will depend on the total time spent to study for the information in the criminal records.
3. The pattern of movement across the pages of the criminal records (trajectory) will be different for successful and unsuccessful investigators. The investigators did not forecast any concrete specificity of these “trajectories”, hoping to study it inductively, in an exploratory fashion.

Method**Sample**

The present empirical study involved 37 police investigators. Participants varied in terms of tenure (number of years in the position) and age. Both the variables were coded and studied. Participants were recruited from the municipal police station following random sampling technique. Experimenters contacted each of the participants independently and met face-to-face interview session. The study was supported by the police station chief executive officers and presented as part of the participants’ professional development, thus ensuring sufficient level of motivation. After the experimental procedures, debriefing was held and detailed feedback given.

Procedure

The method used for the study was a specially designed diagnostic computer-based online procedure. As participants completed registration on the web-page, they were presented with 12 photos of alleged criminals. Clicking on any of the photos resulted in redirection to the web-page giving more detailed information about the person in the photo. This information included height, weight, sex, racial background, eye and hair color, date of birth, date of first conviction. This page also gave possibility to follow three more specific links zooming into three types of additional information: 1) special features– scars, tattoos, etc. 2) history of prior imprisonments such as- dates and length of being imprisoned where applicable; and 3) history of prior convictions and charges i.e. when and for what the person was convicted and what was the court’s decision. Thus, the main webpage contained photos leading to pages with individual information, and each of these pages had three more links to more specific data about the person in focus. Overall, the experimental procedure allowed surfing through 4 x

12 + 1 = 49 web-pages. Each of the pages contained cross-references so that subjects could return to the main page any time they wanted. Photos and information used in the study were taken from the website of penitentiary system of Florida. This website provides open access to criminal records of people currently in state prisons. This database was used for the study as all the photos and records followed the same format and also the database included features of standardized search which enabled the investigators to randomly choose 12 persons strictly matched on objective criteria like age or severity of offense. The task can be called realistic because this kind of activity is performed by police investigators on a regular basis. Among the elements that could potentially bring artificiality to the procedure were the on-screen mode of presentation (the majority of criminal records in a typical Russian police station are still in paper format) and knowledge of the participants that they are taking part in the experiment. However, the computer mode was necessary as the investigators fixed the temporal parameters of working with the criminal records, and demand characteristics in this particular study could not be avoided. Subjects were given the task to analyze information on the criminal records and determine which 6 people are now in prison for murder and 6 people are now in prison for fraudul charge.

Results

To address the first and the second hypotheses the investigators computed Spearman's correlation analysis among precision in detection of suspicious subjects convicted for murder, professional experience as an investigator (tenure), and total time spent on studying criminal records. Results are given in Table 1.

Table 1

Correlations among precision in detection of subjects convicted for murder, total experience as an investigator, and total time spent on studying criminal records (police investigators, N = 37)

	Number of correct responses	Professional experience	Total time of studying criminal records
Number of correct responses	1	0.158 (p=0.364)	0.411* (p=0.012)
Professional experience (tenure)		1	-0.149 (p=0.394)
Total time of studying criminal records			1

Partial correlation between time of studying the protocols and precision of intuition, controlling for the effect of years of professional experience, is 0.468 (p < .005).

Discussion

Results of the analysis shows that professional experience is not significantly related to precision of intuitive decisions among investigators, while conscientiousness of studying criminal records is. Moreover, this correlation becomes larger when the investigators subtract the variability accounted for by the years of professional experience. Besides, there is a negative (insignificant) correlation between years of professional experience and total time studying criminal records, which slightly suggests that the more a person works as an investigator, the more they rely on their intuitive judgment. Though statistically insignificant (which can result from a small sample size), this result is similar to the conclusions drawn by decision-making researchers (e.g. Oskamp, 1965; and Lichtenstein, Fischhoff, 1977) on the phenomenon of “overconfidence” in experienced experts. The more a person works with something, the more they think their intuition does not let them down – the more it does let them down in reality.

To test the third hypothesis the investigators compared the *trajectories* of studying criminal records between most and least successful investigators. First, the investigators looked at a group of 8 subjects who correctly identified 5 out of 6 criminals (no participant succeeded in correctly placing all the criminal records). A total of 48 pages of the criminal records were coded using numbers (indicating the sequence number of the personal file) and letters (indicating the section type of the criminal record). For example, in the first (out of 12) personal file 1 indicated the page with general information (height, weight, sex, racial background, hair and eye color, date of first imprisonment), 1a. indicated the page with special features, 1b. indicated the page with the history of former imprisonments, and 1c. indicated the page with the history of prior convictions and charges. Studying these *trajectories* in a qualitative and somewhat subjective way enables us to make several preliminary conclusions:

1. It seems that the correct intuitive conclusion depends on the degree of *conscientiousness* in information processing, i.e. on the thorough study of all protocols without exception and creation of a *latent map* of the task.
2. Success in performing this kind of task can also be determined by the initial concretization of the basis for comparison e.g. a subject may choose the history of prior convictions and charges as the leading criterion for contrasting personal files against each other.
3. It seems likely that intuitive judgment in this type of situation may be achieved in two stages: first most evident marker differences and deciding on a small number of people who *definitely* belong to one of the two categories, after that (at the second stage) consideration of less evident cases and relating them to the specimen from stage 1. This is indicated by the fact respondents sometimes would go back to the pages that they had already studied multiple times. This also confirms conclusions of Tversky and Kahneman regarding *anchoring heuristics*. First, the expert chooses some starting point, then compares all the following stimuli with this starting point (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974).

An overwhelming part of variability in the answers can then be due to this initial choice of the starting point.

4. It was difficult to analyze the *trajectory* of studying criminal records for those participants who were less successful in correct judgments (1 or 2 correct answers) because they generally spent too little time on the task. This leads us to hypothesize that a confounding factor might have operated in this study, namely lack of attention or low motivation among some of the respondents. Future research should bring more clarity to this issue.

Conclusion

Analysis of the main results of this study enables us to outline further research directions that would depend on our understanding of investigators' intuition when detecting potential danger.

1. One of our findings is that precision of intuitive judgment in this task does not depend on professional experience but does depend on how thoroughly the respondent studies personal files. This gives rise to a number of additional questions. Can the research team empirically separate means of intuitive information processing from its length? Did more time spent on the personal files in the study mean more conscientiousness, or was it an effect of pure knowledge acquisition? Questions like this could be answered in replications where time of work is the same for all participants.
2. A negative (though statistically insignificant) correlation was found between professional experience and total time spent on the task.
3. As depth of cognitive processing leads to an increase in the probability to give correct intuitive judgments, it is of interest to find out what exactly happens in the mind of an expert while browsing through a section of a criminal's personal file. In this respect, think-aloud protocols can be useful to gain a deeper understanding of the process.
4. A typical investigator would first make a number of simple and evident specimen judgments and then use them as an anchor to compare to all the rest of less evident judgments. The research team try to interpret this fact from the point of view of context: "*intuition depends on prior experience, and this experience seems to be reduced to nul when context changes*". New context in the study is following experimental procedure. This goes in line with some research in the area. Various authors have found intuitive information processing to be performed in a stepwise manner. First, most general and evident aspects of the situation, after that these aspects serve as an anchor for all the rest of the aspects. Manipulating the order of presenting information one can achieve incredibly strong cognitive biases that would be interpreted as "intuitively evident". Specially controlled experiments should be devised to measure the influence of the order of presenting information on naturalistic decision-making.

At this stage of research the investigators are inclined to think that professional investigators' intuition is no more successful or precise than that of lay persons when it comes to detection of potentially dangerous people. This auxiliary hypothesis should also be tested in a separate study involving both a group of professional investigators and a group of college students.

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Identity Marker or Functionality: Significance of Veil for Young Educated Muslim Females

Heena Parveen¹ & Roomana N. Siddiqui²

Abstract

Wearing of veil by Muslim females has always been considered as an act of religious duty. Often this act of covering oneself has been misinterpreted by the western world as a sign of oppression and conservatism. Given the current geo-political dynamics, it is observed by scholars that the wider social and political context has changed the perception of veil, both in the Muslim as well as the non-Muslim world. In recent times the trend of covering oneself fully or just wearing a headscarf has increased manifold, especially amongst young educated females. The present study attempts to explore the narratives of these educated females in relation to the headscarf. Through open-ended questions, an attempt is made to understand the subjective perception of these young females and what significance does veil/hijab have in their life. The information was gathered from 30 young educated females pursuing higher education in different streams. The narratives do highlight that religious sentiment was a major reason for many girls adopting veil/headscarf, but they also strongly felt that it was a symbol for asserting their identity. As young educated females they did not perceive veil as an impediment in their mobility, on the contrary it provided them with a sense of security.

Key-words: Veil/headscarf, identity, distinctiveness, social mobility, activism

Dress codes adopted by a selected group of people, community or nations are symbols that have social significance. They serve as identity markers where these dress codes are used as tools to create the 'us' versus 'them' divide. On the psychological level these markers get internalized in the self-concept of people who identify with these groups. As a result, these dress codes assume social psychological significance. The veil, adopted by Muslim females, is one such identity marker that has attracted a lot of attention in recent times. Apart from making a religious statement it serves various functions. It is seen as capable of maintaining proper boundaries between men and women in public sphere. Further, it ensures respect and moral behavior between them and serves as an indicator of their social status, and belief system. Looking at the history of veiling it appears that the veil has acquired different meaning in different contexts. The meaning of the veil has changed dramatically for both Muslims as well as non-Muslims. In the 19th century only upper class urban women practiced veil rather than working class or peasant women. Initially people associated the veil with the patriarchal mindset of the Muslim community, where women were forced to wear veil, and this segregated them from the public space. But with the passage of time, this interpretation has assumed political, cultural, and moral overtones. The debate around the veil is due to the

¹ Department of Psychology, AMU, Aligarh, India. E-mail: hina.amu16@gmail.com

² Department of Psychology, Women's College, AMU, Aligarh, India. E-mail: roomana17@gmail.com

fact that at one level it projects the practice of veiling as a fundamental symbol of conservatism, backwardness and discrimination against women in the Muslim societies. On the other hand it is regarded as a sign of liberation. This dichotomy creates confusion amongst practitioners as well as non-practitioners. When veil/headscarf is perceived as a symbol of suppression, women are urged strongly to uncover it. They often are exhorted to create a new and right place in the public sphere. According to Yegenoglu (1998) this act of uncovering veil has become a convenient tool to establish a new modern identity in response to the backward Ottoman identity. On the contrary those wearing veils see it as a rejection of negative stereotype and assertion of the Muslim identity in face of prejudice (Ahmed, 2011).

Dress code as a symbol of identity

In our present multicultural society people have a natural tendency to categorize themselves in distinct social groups. Tajfel (1978) observed that our group memberships play a significant role in determining who we are, of what we are like, and how we are similar to and different from others. According to the social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) individuals derive part of their self-concept through belonging to these social categories. Research has shown that objectively more distinctive social category memberships are often more salient in the self-concept (McGuire, McGuire, Child, & Fujioka, 1978). Thus, social identification not only enhances the self-esteem but also provides a sense of meaning (Abrams & Hogg, 2001) and sustains the validity of that meaning when tested against social reality (Abrams, 1994). Brewer (2003) rightly argues that meaningful self-conceptualization is not merely a by-product of cognitive categorization but is a psychological need. People seek a level of distinctiveness, which combines a certain level of assimilation into a category with a degree of uniqueness for that category vis-à-vis, other categories. Thus, the need for distinctiveness holds interesting implications for members of a minority group. As Muslims constitute a minority, where females find them marginalized within the community (a double minority) their increasing preference for a particular dress code may provide that distinctiveness in comparison to members of other religious groups and also from the male members of their community. It is this display and assertion of group behavior in public that has attracted attention of researchers and policy makers.

Since the mid 1980s, headscarf has become a contentious topic and has attracted the attention of researchers (Ahmed, 1992; ElGuindi, 2003; and Secor, 2002). The most recurrent theme in these writings is regarding the wearing of the headscarf in public places. Egalitarian societies advocate secularism, which means separation of religion from public affairs. As religion is considered a private affair the problem accrues when anything associated with religious practices enters the public domain. So, here arises a room for confusion as to whether veiling should be practiced in public, like it is in countries as Iran, and Saudi Arabia; whether it should be banned in schools, as it is in France and Turkey; or whether it should be left for the women to decide. The contemporary debates especially in European countries do not focus much on the basic religious motive behind veiling, i.e., to avoid sexuality and unwanted encounters between sexes. They assign different meanings to the scarf, particularly in relation to gender equality, multicultural excess and the undermining of the separation of state and church. Societal debate often sees headscarf as a marker of women's oppression. Often

headscarf is taken as a sign of gender inequality and a signal of difference. Supporting this view, Turkish researcher Nilufer Gole (1996) says: “No other symbol than the veil reconstructs with such force the “otherness” of Islam to the west. According to Said (1978) and Kabbani, (1986), this sense of ‘otherness’ is rooted in a long tradition of Orientalism. The West’s perceptions of the East are based on an ontological and epistemological distinction between the ‘Orient’ and the ‘Occident’. Orientalism is a source of the cultural inaccuracies, and as orientalism is the foundation of western thought towards the Middle East, there is an existence of a subtle and persistent Eurocentric prejudice against Arabo-Islamic people and their culture (Said, 1978). It projects Islam as Contra European. In this context the popular debate pertaining to the practice of veiling suggests that as this practice does not belong to the west it is seen as a sign of backwardness, which reflects the oppressive nature of Islam (Delaney, 1994; and Secor, 2005).

Generally the common rhetoric around the veil has been that it is seen as a religious obligation in Islam and not a cultural tradition or a political statement. It is considered an integral part of the Islamic religious belief where females are supposed to adopt this dress code. Islamic religious scholars are in agreement that Muslim women are required to cover their hair and therefore, it is mandatory for them to put some kind of head covering. In different cultures one comes across different styles of this dress code. For example, in Iran there is a tradition of a *chador*, an ample black cloth that fits over the head and reaches to the ground. While in Saudi-Arabia, women practice an oblong black *scarf* flipped twice over their heads along with the *abaya*, a loose black robe. Many women also like to wear a square piece of cloth called ‘*niqab*’ that covers the mouth and nose, or sometimes hides the entire face with only a slit for the eyes. In Afghanistan, there is a practice of a long billowy smock, called ‘*burqa*’ that totally covers a woman from head to toe, including her face. These powerful images fuel the Imperialist notion of veiling as a sign of backwardness

Despite the controversies, the latest trend indicates an unprecedented popularity for the veil and headscarf among Muslim women. In mid 1950’s Hourani had predicted that the veil would soon be a thing of the past (Hourani, 1955) but in mid 1980’s there was a steady return of the veil and it was increasingly adopted by young educated women (Ahmed, 2011). Women believe that the veil not only addresses freedom and dignity but it also provides greater social mobility in a world that considers women only as an object of sexuality. It enables them to function as an autonomous being in the public sphere. Contrary to the feminist perspective that veiling was an assault on the freedom of women and resulted in invisibility and disempowerment, Jacobsen (2002) and Roald (2001) pointed out that Muslim women by adopting this traditional cloth attempted to protest against the ‘oppression’ of western image model. Researchers (Duval, 1998; ElGuindi, 1999; and Yegenoglu, 1998) have revealed that veiling has nothing to do with the old tradition of bounding women to the home environment. Hessini (1994) conducted a study on women wearing veil in Morocco. She noticed the salience of division of space in Muslim communities. It highlights the phenomenon of difference between men and women. As a consequence, it was assumed that in public space veiled women signal distance and unavailability to unrelated males. It is seen as an object of respect, which helps them to get rid of any kind of unwanted approaches.

Ahmed (2011) rightly points out that the veil is imbued with powerful symbolism and is a badge of individuality and justice.

Rationale of the study

Looking at the phenomenon in the present changing cultural scenario it appears that this dress serves many functions. It is instrumental in making a social, political as much as a religious statement of identity and ideological commitment. At the macro level one can witness a movement towards assimilation of small groups with larger groups. But simultaneously one also comes across groups, be it the tribal communities, linguistic minorities or females, which are fighting for their separate identity. The need for 'recognition' or the painful experiences of 'misrecognition' (Taylor, 1994) may compel people to adopt visible identity markers. It was this observation that made us interested in the dress code that is increasingly being adopted by educated women not only in Islamic countries but also in the West. The main objective of this study was firstly to understand the meaning of veil/headscarf among those young educated females who practiced this dress code and secondly to explore the main reasons as to why they were attracted to this dress code.

Method

Sample

Data was collected on 30 females who adopted the veil/headscarf on a regular basis. All of them were enrolled in the PhD program in different disciplines at Aligarh Muslim University. The students' age ranged from 22 to 25 years.

Measure used

As the main purpose of this study was to explore the meaning of veil/headscarf for an educated Muslim female the qualitative technique was adopted. Each respondent was requested to tell her views on the veil or headscarf that they adopted on a regular basis. In order to initiate the narrative open-ended questions were asked: What does a veil/headscarf mean to you? What are the reasons that have influenced you to wear the veil/headscarf? Respondents were encouraged to give their opinion and their responses were tape-recorded.

Procedure

The research was done in a university where majority students belonged to the Muslim community and quite a sizeable came from other communities as well. As the university had a coeducational setup both boys and girls were present on the campus. Of the girls present only those were contacted who adopted the veil or just covered their heads with a headscarf. All the respondents contacted were pursuing their doctoral courses. They were briefly told about the purpose of the study and requested to participate. Once they agreed to participate they were encouraged to give their opinions on the veil or headscarf as the case may be. As their responses had to be tape-recorded their permission was taken for the recording. They were assured that their responses would be used mainly for research purpose and would be kept confidential.

Results

The narratives of educated females in this study reveal interesting insights. Apart from being seen as a religious obligation it conjures different meaning for those who wear the veil.

Veil as a religious obligation

Majority of the girls wearing a hijab or covering their head associated the dress code with religion. Their increasing interest in the preaching of Islam on the campus is to a large extent due to an active presence of a group of female students who regularly hold meetings referred as 'ishtema'. Through these small group congregations they try to spread awareness on all aspect of religion ranging from ideology to personal etiquettes. These gathering not only serve as a religious platform but also satisfy the need for bonding and connectivity with other fellow beings. The dress is an expression of their commitment to their religion and is worn out of obligation to their religious duties. Thus, Muslim women are quietly changing the course of events. Their main objective is to emphasize on a religiously defined social identity which ends up creating a boundary between the dominant out group.

Assertion of visibility

Women across groups have always occupied a secondary position. Right from the family to the workplace their presence is almost negligent. Amongst Muslims this scenario is more deplorable. The conservative interpretation of Islam had resulted in the confinement of Muslim women within the fore walls of their home. Their main duty was to look after the family and husband. Their exposure to mainstream educational institutions was almost negligible and they were just given religious education. In India the scene was not encouraging. It was only due to the consorted efforts of Muslim reformers that the issue of education for Muslim girls were taken up and families started educating there daughters. The interesting aspect of exposure to education for these women resulted in the awareness of the world around and to the various opportunities available. It was this exposure to quality education that led to the questioning of their lack of visibility. Most of the responses clearly reflect that these educated women adopted the veil on their own and it was not a family compulsion for them. With a veil thrown around them they became more socially mobile without being targeted by fundamentalist elements. The veil served two pronged function for them. It not only gave them visibility in comparison to the males of their community but also made them visible in comparison to other groups and their members.

Functional aspect of the veil

Rising crime amongst women especially of a sexual nature generally gets attributed to the dressing style of females. This blaming the victim syndrome often creates a fear psychosis amongst females and their family members. As the aspirations of females across groups are changing they want to break this sexualized interpretation of themselves. The responses of many of these young women clearly highlight the fact that they considered the veil as a convenient dress that desexualizes them. It helps them to enter the public space without any fear or anxiety. It gives them mobility and as a result they feel more empowered to enter public discourse. Most of the narration mentioned veil as a protective shield. According to the

respondents veiling is an act of adopting a form of dress that signals respectability through an image of modesty and chastity and at the same time giving an opportunity for an active public life.

Psychological dimension: Interestingly the act of veiling also has a socio-psychological dimension. On the psychological level females associated it with the feeling of confidence, satisfaction and the experience of positive affect. Gureyeva (2003) noted that females wearing the veil in Azerbaijan felt more empowered as they gained a sense of stability and strength both in the present context and also about their future. At the social level, many females linked it with a sense of security, convenience and protection. They claimed that the headscarf enables them to be the observer and not the observed. It protects them from male gaze. In the words of the respondents “beneath every headscarf and veil there is a real women who wants to live with dignity, pride and self respect”.

Related to threat perception: The rising trend of veiling across the world is seen as a reaction to the increasing Islamophobia of the West. The 9/11 incident in America proved to be a catalyst where Muslims across the world were seen with contempt and suspicion. The divide between the West and the Muslim world widened to an alarming level which not only was visible at the international level but it also affected the day to day interactions between people coming from these two distinct and identifiable groups. This resulted in a threat perception on both sides which was felt more intensely by the Muslims. Moten (2005) further observes that another factor responsible for the perception of threat is the process of modernization and globalization which many Muslims felt that it was an attempt by the West to homogenize the world that undermines Islamic identity, which has aroused anxiety, suspicion, and opposition among them. Thus, in order to preserve their distinct identity they started asserting salient markers associated with their group, dress being an important one. The rising trend of veiling amongst young educated Muslims women appears to be a reaction to this threat perception.

Identity Marker

The response of most of the participants clearly indicates that they considered the veil as an important marker of their Muslim identity. As one of the female respondents said “the headscarf was a statement of her identity, because anyone who sees a woman covering her head will know that she is a Muslim and has a good moral character”. For another woman, “the headscarf represents my personality. It makes us a unique individual and is an integral aspect in defining who they are”. Thus, the identity issue plays at several levels for these young educated Muslim females. At one level it is an embodiment of their religious identity and at another spectrum it is symbolic of their pious character. In the gender discourse the same veil represents the female identity both within and outside their community. It has become a gendered symbol and a tool around which the contestation of identity takes place.

Discussion

The symbolism associated with the veil/headscarf conjures different meaning for different people. Interestingly the voices of females who adopt these dress codes do not get heard in the entire debate. This study attempted to unravel the voices of girls who adopted veiling and the main finding shows that the overall reason why young educated girls practiced veiling was due to religious purpose. These women perceived the veil as a religious obligation in Islam and considered it as a part of Islamic religious belief. They denied the argument that head covering was a sign of women's repression and that it curbs their autonomy at home or on the job. They believe that "Allah ordered us to wear head scarf-to protect our dignity, to protect women, (so we would) not be looked at just as a beautiful body, a beautiful face, (so others would) look at our minds and our personalities". It is argued that the Islamic dress code is a visual statement, taken to be as serious as a verbal one (Moore, 2007).

Apart from being a religious statement the veil also embodies the Islamic identity. It symbolizes the difference between 'us' and 'them' and accentuates the process of 'othering'. In this 'us-them' discourse the veiled women presumes the role of 'Other' in a cultural sense which is different from the dominant cultural order. The tendency of the dominant West to be ambivalent towards the East and its traditions often leads to misrepresentations. The western imagery of the Orient creates a kind of imagined binary ontology (Said, 1978) and as a result Islam is seen as anti west. Since the veil constitutes an important aspect of the Islamic culture it reveals or gets linked to the group identity and as a result it gets contested. Group identities are actively produced through everyday social practices and in the context of inter-group relations the symbolism associated with the dress code is seen as an attempt to assert the Islamic identity. According to the social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978, 1982; Tajfel and Turner, 1979) social identity process involves the making of inter-group comparisons and the establishment of the group's positive distinctiveness in relation to other group identities. In the modern and non-traditional form veil has become a symbol of religious identity. It has become a marker that signals in-group boundaries of a pan Islamic community.

In the narratives of females the notion of traditional and modern are questioned. Traditionally in societal debates, the veil/headscarf is often framed as a marker of women's suppression in Islam. The demonstrative nature of the dress evokes an imagery of excesses against the Muslim female. The predominant thinking influenced by the Western mindset interprets it as denial of women's independence and rights to their bodies. This viewpoint appears contrary to the modern western notion of gender equality. What is striking in the articulation of the entire discourse is that the decency angle does not find mention in the arguments of the opponent (Duits & van Zoonen, 2006). When the decency angle gets neglected in the debate it becomes easy for cultural groups to oppose this dress. The results of the present study also highlight the fact that veil/headscarf for many educated females was a matter of personal choice and was not imposed by family members. In this highly mobile and competitive society the veil served various social and psychological purposes for them. They did not view it as denial of rights but as a measure for self-protection, security and convenience. Heyat (2008) also did not find any association between veiling and infringement of women's rights in public discourse amongst veiled women. On the contrary veil has provided women a moral

standard, which expresses their protest against western consumerist culture (Jacobson, 2002). Wearing the veil was a way of rejecting negative stereotypes and affirming pride in Muslim identity (Ahmed, 2011).

Thus, this argument attaches veil to human equality or equal dignity. Gureyeva (2003) reported that women wearing veils felt more empowered as the veil gave them a sense of stability and strength and helped them gain confidence in themselves and their future. Jacobsen (2002), and Roald (2001) pointed out that Muslim women, even those in the western societies, considered veil as a protective symbol. It liberates them from the sexualized gaze of men. In their opinion, it hides the gender and sexual dimensions and provides them with a sense of prestige as a human being. A great deal of studies has been conducted on the new veiling phenomenon (Duval, 1998, El Guindi, 1999) that has underlined certain common features. This new veiling phenomenon is a voluntary act of self-assertion, to practice a form of dress that signifies respectability. It has nothing to do with the old tradition of veiling, which had bounded women to the home environment. Most of the women are of the view that adoption of this Islamic dress has provided them a great amount of mobility in the public sphere.

Conclusion

In conclusion one can say that the phenomenon of veiling need not to be interpreted in its essentialist perspective as it relegates it to the level of tokenism. Veil may be seen as a religious practice or an attempt by minorities to demonstrate their distinctiveness and hence it evokes different interpretations. In societies where it is seen as signifying differences the debate has always taken emotional overtones. In societies where there has been attempts to ban these dress codes the minority groups have taken it as an act of disempowerment. Interventions designed to reduce the psychological distance between minority and majority may be experienced as destroying important aspects of minority group identity itself (Worchel, 1986). In such cases minorities may try to reclaim the definition of their minority group and assert more positive self-definitions. Hence it becomes important to attend to the group members' concerns about their group's positive distinctiveness (Hewstone and Brown, 1986). Abrams et al., (2007) rightly observed that this public display of behavior identified with a group can be seen as an expression of identity rather than merely as strategic self presentation.

It is also observed that the phenomenon of veiling takes a different dimension when it is not seen through the lens of a particular ideology, whether western or patriarchal in nature. When the voices of females are given cognizance the interpretation takes a new angle. Those females who adopt it as a matter of personal choice and freedom without any compulsion from either society or families see it as a tool for agency. Ahmed (2011) observed that once an emblem of patriarchy, today carries multiple meanings for its practitioner. It serves as a call for women's right. The veil makes the presence of a religious minority more visible, and highlights their need for justice and equality. It is an emblem of activism through which females are trying to assert their identity and fighting for their space in society. Thus, it is

clear that as long as the discourse of decency, feminism, Islam and consumer culture articulates girls' garments with their sexuality this dress will be seen as a lack of agency. Since the veil signifies a whole spectrum of life style, one needs to understand it in its concern with segregation, education, social mobility, the family and the role of woman in society.

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Mental Health Status of Eve-Teased Girls between Pre and Post Counseling Sessions

Asoke Kumar Saha¹, Kazi Sai fuddin¹ & Ruma Shikder²

Abstract

Eve-teasing is a euphemism used in Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Nepal and Bhutan for public sexual harassment or molestation of women by men, where Eve alludes to the very first woman, according to the biblical creation myth. Considering a crucial social problem the researchers were interested to measure the mental health of the eve-teased girl and arrange psychological counseling for them to improve their mental health. A total of 47 eve-teased girls were identified from different educational institutions and measured their mental health through Goldberg (1972) Mental Health Questionnaire (Andrich and Schoubroeck (1989), the clients were given periodic counseling for the eve-teased girl as long as they feel they need psychological counseling to improve their mental health. Most of the victims of eve-teasing attended counseling session on an average 3-4 times in approximately within six month duration. At the end same mental health questionnaire (Goldberg 1972) were administered to obtain mental health status of eve-teased girls. The t-test was computed to see the mean difference of mental health between pre versus post counseling sessions. Significant mean differences of mental health scores were obtain for pre-counseling and post counseling sessions. A total of 25 case studies were also prepared based on their narrative given by the client. Narrative analyses of the case studies were also done to understand the clients' mental health status of the eve-teased girls and discussed in the perspective of socio-cultural context of Bangladesh.

Key-words: Eve-teasing, mental health, pre and post counseling sessions

Eve-Teasing is a euphemism used in India and sometimes Pakistan, Bangladesh and Nepal for public sexual harassment, street harassment or molestation of women by men, with eve being a reference to the biblical Eve. Considered a problem related to delinquency in youth it is a form of sexual aggression that ranges in severity from sexually suggestive remarks, brushing in public places, catcalls, to outright groping. Sometimes it is referred to with a coy suggestion of innocent fun, making it appear innocuous with no resulting liability on the part of the perpetrator. Many feminists and voluntary organizations have suggested that the expression be replaced by a more appropriate term. According to them, considering the semantic roots of the term in Indian English, eve-teasing refers to the temptress nature of Eve, placing responsibility on the woman as a tease, as though the aggressive response of the males was normal rather than criminal.

¹ Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka 1100, Bangladesh, E-mail: asoke_saha@yahoo.com

² MS Student, Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka 1100, Bangladesh

Eve-teasing has been a notoriously difficult crime to prove, as perpetrators often devise ingenious ways to attack women, even though many feminist writers term it as "little rapes", and usually occur in public places, streets, and public transport. Some guidebooks to the region warn female tourists that eve teasing may be avoided by wearing conservative clothing, though eve teasing is reported both by Indian women and by conservatively-dressed foreign women.

Mental health as describes either a level of cognitive or emotional well-being or an absence of a mental disorder. From perspectives of the discipline of positive psychology or holism mental health may include an individual's ability to enjoy life and procure a balance between life activities and efforts to achieve psychological resilience. Mental health is an expression of our emotions and signifies a successful adaptation to a range of demands.

An unpunished violation

'Eve teasing' is a euphemized term in Bangladesh for sexual harassment of women and girls in public spaces. It severely infringes on a woman's freedom and right to mobility, and affects more than 90 percent of girls between the ages 10-18. Despite the hideous nature of these crimes, they continue to go unpunished. It is high time that relevant authorities as well as respective communities take steps to address the issue (www.thedailystar.net/magazine/2010).

The glares, gestures, taunts and jeers haunt her as she makes her way across the street. By now, she should be used to the constant and unapologetic stares and inappropriate touches from strangers wherever she goes- on buses, in front of schools and colleges, in market places, crowded roads and lonely alleyways. But even though it happens all too often, every time someone makes a lewd comment about her body, whistles at her, pinches or nudges her, she feels dirty, humiliated and angry.

Almost every Bangladeshi woman has to face harassment in public places on a daily basis. She could be any woman in Bangladesh- a young garments worker, a student, a middle-aged housewife, a 60 years old executive- who has to undergo harassment every day, subjected to what we commonly call 'eve-teasing'. It's a seemingly innocent term for something that encompasses ogling, molestation, humiliation, harassment, verbal and physical assaults and stalking, and which, in extreme cases, can lead to rape, abduction, suicide or murder.

"I can't even keep count of how many times a day I have to hear unacceptable and disgusting remarks from men on my way to and from my college, and how many times I shudder from unwanted physical contact in buses and crowded streets. I don't know what to do but to meekly walk away from most of these situations, knowing that no one will come to my defense if I decide to charge them," says Sharmila Guha, a student of City College.

Like Sharmila, most girls and women in the country, especially those living in cities, towns and mufassol areas, are frustrated with the physical and verbal harassments they face on a daily basis. Rasna Ahmed, who works at a retail store, asserts, "The men have no shame, no sense of embarrassment. It's almost like they feel entitled to do whatever they want." The perpetrators victimize women and violate their rights without so much as an ounce of guilt, and society continues to turn a blind eye towards it, even blaming the women in many instances for attracting notice.

Even the term 'eve-teasing' refers to the Biblical Eve, the beautiful temptress who lures men, and shifts culpability from the men who partake in such actions to the women who, allegedly, 'tempt' them to do so. Discussions about sexual harassment thus inevitably lead to questions like, "what was she wearing?" and "what was she doing there?" instead of "how can we stop this from happening?"

Understanding mental health

The World Health Organization defines mental health as "*a state of well-being in which the individual realizes his or her own abilities, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to his or her community*" (WHO). It was previously stated that there was no one 'official' definition of mental health. Cultural differences, subjective assessments, and competing professional theories all affect how 'mental health' is defined. There are different types of mental health problems, some of which are common, such as depression and anxiety disorders, and some not so common, such as schizophrenia and bipolar disorder (Straede and Richard, 1993). Most recently, the field of Global Mental Health has emerged, which has been defined as '*the area of study, research and practice that places a priority on improving mental health and achieving equity in mental health for all people worldwide*'

Psychological resilience

"Resilience" in psychology is the positive capacity of people to cope with stress and adversity. This coping may result in the individual "bouncing back" to a previous state of normal functioning, or using the experience of exposure to adversity to produce a "steeling effect" and function better than expected (much like an inoculation gives one the capacity to cope well with future exposure to disease). Resilience is most commonly understood as a process, and not a trait of an individual.

More recently, there has also been evidence that resilience can indicate a capacity to resist a sharp decline in functioning even though a person temporarily appears to get worse. A child, for example, may do poorly during critical life transitions (like entering junior high) but experience problems that are less severe than would be expected given the many risks the child faces.

There is also controversy about the indicators of good psychological and social development when resilience is studied across different cultures and contexts. The American Psychological Association's Task Force on Resilience and Strength in Black Children and Adolescents, for example, notes that there may be special skills that these young people and families have that help them cope, including the ability to resist racial prejudice. People who cope may also show "hidden resilience" when they don't conform to society's expectations for how someone is supposed to behave (in some contexts, aggression may be required to cope, or less emotional engagement may be protective in situations of abuse).

In all these instances, resilience is best understood as a process. It is often mistakenly assumed to be a trait of the individual, an idea more typically referred to as "resiliency". Most research now shows that resilience is the result of individuals interacting with their

environments and the processes that either promote well-being or protect them against the overwhelming influence of risk factors. These processes can be individual coping strategies, or may be helped along by good families, schools, communities, and social policies that make resilience more likely to occur. In this sense "resilience" occurs when there are cumulative "protective factors". These factors are likely to play a more and more important role the greater the individual's exposure to cumulative "risk factors". The phrase "risk and resilience" in this area of study is quite common.

Commonly used terms, which are closely related within psychology, are "psychological resilience", 'emotional resilience', 'hardness', 'resourcefulness', and 'mental toughness'. The earlier focus on individual capacity, which Anthony described as the "invulnerable child", has evolved into a more multilevel ecological perspective that builds on theory developed by Uri Bronfenbrenner (1979), and more recently discussed in the work of Michael Ungar (2004, 2008), Ann Masten (2001), and Michael Rutter (1987, 2008). The focus in research has shifted from "protective factors" toward protective "processes"; trying to understand how different factors are involved in both promoting well-being and protecting against risk.

Significance of the study

Sexual harassment, often known as "eve teasing", is a regular occurrence for the women and girls of Bangladesh. A recent study by the Bangladesh National Women Lawyers' Association (BNWLA) showed that almost 90 percent of girls aged 10-18 have undergone the experience. The harassment can take a variety of forms and the perpetrators come from multiple walks of life; they are rich and poor, educated and uneducated; according to the BNWLA study, teenage boys, rickshaw pullers, bus drivers, street vendors, traffic police and often supervisors or colleagues of the working women had all been cited as "eve teasers".

For the girls and women who are subject to sexual harassment, the experiences are traumatic and can leave deep psychological scars. The BNWLA study also noted that in the past two years, at least 12 girls have committed suicide in circumstances stemming from "eve teasing". And the innocuousness of the label belies further violent implications. It is often associated with rape and murder. Rape is the most common form of violence against women in Bangladesh. Between 2002 and 2006, there were over five thousand reported incidents. Almost two thousands of those rapes were of girl children. 625 of the victims were killed after they were raped and 69 killed themselves. One has to wonder how many of these crimes could have been prevented if society took sexual harassment more seriously and did not wait until girls were raped and murdered to take action.

No one should have suffer with the experience of sexual harassment or the physical and sexual assaults that often come with it. As vicious and tormenting as sexual harassment is for the girls and women who endure it, however, the implications extend to the entire nation.

Considering the above circumstances it is necessary to improve the mental health of the eve teased girl as it has already a great concern of the present education minister. Finally, being a psychologist our concern is to help a person who needs such psychological counseling.

Objectives of the study

The major objectives of the study are given as follows:

1. To diagnose the status of mental health of eve teased girls i.e. emotional state, psychological trauma, and level of resilience.
2. To assess the mental health of the eve-teased girls and to help those through psychological counseling to reduce their trauma and to increase their resilience and mental health.
3. To compare the differences of mental health status i.e. emotional state, psychological trauma, and level of resilience under pre-counseling and post-counseling sessions.

Method

Considering the objectives of the study a pre-test and post-test sessions of data collection and then comparison was made between the two for mental health status. To measure the level of mental health status General Mental Health Questionnaire was used for the present study.

Material used

General Mental Health Questionnaire (GMHQ): A questionnaire for measuring mental health status of eve-teased girls has been used. The Clinical Psychologist has been using a Bengali version of the general mental health questionnaire (GMHQ-12) of Goldberg (1972) for the eve-teased girl who was screened out by the field investigator. The questionnaire has twelve items so far were given to the clients to rate by them on a four point scale ranging from ('Not at All', 'Some What', 'To a Considerable Extent' and 'To a Great Extent'). This scale was originally developed by Goldberg (1972) but it was upgraded in 1981 to measure mental health of the client. This 12 item scale contains 6 positive and 6 negative items. Responses were given weights of 1, 2, 3 and 4. Positive items were scored 4 points from 3 to 0 and the negative in the reverse order also scored 4 points from 0 to 3. Total scores are the sum of all the items, with a range of 0 to 36. High score in the scale indicates the high mental health problems. The reliability of the Bengali version of the GMHQ was measure by parallel from method and was found to be quite satisfactory ($r = 0.69$).

Results and Discussion

Pre-counseling mental health status

Victims of Eve-Teasing at Dhaka city were screened out through by field investigator, clinical psychologist and project director. A notice was served in different colleges including notice board of all the 28 department of Jagannath University informing that free counseling facilities are providing for all at the department of psychology. A total of 60 eve-teased girls (client) were traced from different educational institutes of the Dhaka city reached for pre-counseling sessions at the department of psychology. Among 60 clients 47 of them only filled-out the General Mental Health Questionnaire (GMHQ). Rest 13 clients came to the counseling centre upon request but didn't fill-out the GMHQ. But it was only possible to registered their name and address only. Those 13 clients were not agreed to fill the questionnaire considering that although they are victims of eve-teasing but their mental health is not so bad to go for counseling. Further, they told the counselor that their condition is apparently good and has no severe complication now for counseling.

Among the 47, 25 clients has given their narratives about their trauma of their eve-teasing. All the 47 clients visited the counseling center 2-3 times till March 31, 2012 for their individual counseling sessions.

Counseling session

The entire client who had identified by field investigator as eve teased in last three years or so and had attended the pre counseling session to measure present Mental Health Status. Clients were asked to attend the counseling session as and when necessary. It was found that the clients were attending for counseling session for one to four times within next three months of their first visit to the counselor. Counseling psychologist of the project has maintained the registered, address and cell phone number of the clients during the entire counseling tenure.

Post-counseling mental health status

Post-counseling sessions would be arranged from April 01, 2012 onwards and the General Mental Health Questionnaire (GMHQ) would be administered to the same client who filled-out the same questionnaire before. A composite score was calculated for all individual client and 't'-test was computed to see the differences mental health between pre versus post counseling sessions.

All the 47 client girls who filled-out the General Mental Health Questionnaire used to come to the counseling centre for periodic counseling when necessary. General observation suggests that post-counseling effect increases the victims' mental health in a significant manner. The project has received the further grant to continue the work for the ongoing session 2012-2013. A narrative analysis would be done on the narratives given by clients are recorded and maintained. Thus, the analysis would be sufficient to achieve verify the three major objectives formulated at the proposal of the project.

Analysis of case studies

A total of twenty (20) case studies of victims of eve-teasing were prepared during the project tenure from those who were willing to tell their negative life event and narrate their story to the counseling psychologist of the project. The clients who came across our counseling centre all of them were victim of eve-teasing. Different girls were experience eve-teasing at diverse kinds of their different age levels. Most of them are expressed their negative unstable and abnormal emotional state, and also showed psychologically traumatic experiences. An analysis of the case studies expressed that most of the victims of eve-teasing shows hatred behavior towards all males and all the victims were very depressed and always feel afraid of unknown things. They cannot concentrate about their daily task. About 25% of victims were reported that they cannot adjust and cope with the surrounding situation and feel very bad about what happened in their life. Above all, every eve-teasing victim felt that the need of counseling to improve their mental health.

Conclusion

Most of the victims of eve-teasing are don't want to come to the counseling center and also don't want to fill-out any form for research purpose or whatever. Most of the victims want counseling at their own place only without visiting the counseling centre. Thus, many cases the counselor of the project visited the client's place for their counseling sessions. The clients are also wanted to keep secret of their name and address and identity before they go for counseling. The clinical psychologist is also very kind and assured to maintain the secrecy and privacy to each client.

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Personality Characteristics as Related to Job Satisfaction of the Bank Officers in Dhaka City

Sabiha Sultana¹, Shayla Arjumand Banu², & Noor Muhammad³

Abstract

In order to investigate the relationship between personality characteristics and job satisfaction of the Bank officers A type personality, depression, anxiety, and job satisfaction measuring questionnaires were administered on 200 Bank Officers respectively. The obtained data were analyzed by applying Pearson product moment and a stepwise multiple regression models. Results of correlation matrix indicate that there are significant positive relationships of job involvement and hard driving with job satisfaction. Results also suggest that there are significant negative relationships of depression, anxiety, and impatience with job satisfaction. Regression analyses showed that strongest predictor of job satisfaction was depression which alone explained 26.1% of variance. The results further indicated that three variables accounted for 33.1% of variance in job satisfaction. Thus, the findings of the present study confirm the formulated hypotheses.

Key-words: A type personality, depression, anxiety, impatience, hard driving, job satisfaction

One of the major tasks industrial/organizational psychologists perform is assessing employee attitudes about their jobs, especially their job satisfaction, and determining ways to improve it. Job satisfaction is an attitudinal variable that reflects how people feel about their jobs overall as well as various aspects of them (Spector, 2006). I/O researchers have extensively studied the causes and consequences of job satisfaction since the beginning of the I/O field itself. Job satisfaction, however, is not affected by only one variable another variables including organizational commitment, nature of work, personality characteristics, other demographics factors have also affect the job satisfaction. Considering the characteristics of human beings engaged in organizations the present authors feel that personal factors such as anxiety, depression, personality type etc. may be related to their job satisfaction. In the present study we have considered A type personality includes job involvement, impatience, hard driving; depression, and anxiety level as the predictor variables.

Literatures suggest that 'A' type personality including job involvement, impatience, hard driving is related to job satisfaction. A study of 117 life insurance salespersons in South Africa identified two dimensions of the type 'A' personality that are related to job satisfaction. Evidence indicates that people high in involvement generally choose tasks that

1Lecturer, Department of Psychology, Chittagong University, Bangladesh

2 Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, Govt. Badrunnesa College, Dhaka- 1100

3 Associate Professor, Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka-1100

are of intermediate difficulty (Speris & Frinch, 2006). People with high job involvement focus most of their attention on their job (Hackett et al., 2001). Adams et al., (1996) found that job satisfaction significantly relationship with job involvement. Muhammad et al., (2012) investigated that involved employees are satisfied as well as productive. The factor of impatience was negatively related to job satisfaction. The higher the impatience scores, lower the job satisfaction (Bluen, Barling, & Burns, 1990). People with a high fear of failure will stay from tasks of immediate difficulty, because they may fail where others have been successful (Martin & Marsh, 2002; Moreno et al., 2006). Mayer (2005) found that 'A' type employee's job satisfaction is lower than that of 'B' type employee. The higher one's identification or involvement with a job, the greater is the job satisfaction (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). Moreover, people tends to feel anxiety clear the imperfectly to explain neutral and new competitions as negative (Eysenck, 1997) and to look-out for possible signs of danger (Corr, 2008a).

So, the literatures mentioned above indicate that type A personality, anxiety, depression are the contributing factors in explaining the job satisfaction of employees. Findings also suggest that results of some studies were inconclusive and the researchers of the Western and Eastern countries have conducted many studies by means of different types of target populations. Here, the present authors have chosen Bank officers as target population taking into consideration their contributions in fulfilling the companies' goals. In addition, no such studies were conducted in Bangladesh on Bank officers. That is why; the present authors intended to carry out this study in Bangladesh. The findings of this study are likely to be useful to the managers of the Bank situated in Bangladesh and other countries that can help them to achieve their organizational goals as well as it will also help to enhance the employees' job satisfaction. Thus, the present study bears more important applied significance.

Objective

The main objective of the present study was to explore the relationship between personality characteristics and job satisfaction of the Bank officers n Dhaka city.

Hypotheses

Based on the findings of previous studies and above discussion, the following hypotheses were formulated to test in this empirical study:

- H₁: Depression of bank officers would be negatively correlated to job satisfaction.
- H₂: Anxiety of bank officers would be negatively correlated to job satisfaction.
- H₃: Significant positive relationship will be found between job involvement and job satisfaction;
- H₄: Significant negative relationship will be found between impatience and job satisfaction;
- H₅: Significant positive relationship will be found between hard-driving and job satisfaction;
- H₆: The variables of the present study would be interrelated.

Method

Sample

The target population of the present study was the bank officers employed in the different Banks of Dhaka city in Bangladesh. A total of (150 male & 50 female) bank officer was used as respondents in the present study. The respondents were between 35 years to 45 years of age. Mean age 39.23 years (SD = 5.24). The respondents were selected by purposive sampling method.

Measures

1. Job Satisfaction Scale: This scale was originally developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951). It consists 18 items. It was adapted by Khaleque (1976) to apply on Bangladeshi people. The lowest possible score is 18, highest possible score is 90. Cronbach alpha was found .89 and test-retest as well as split-half reliabilities of the Bangla version of the scale were found significant ($r = 0.85$, $r = 0.81$).

2. Personality A type measuring scale. In the present the Bangla version of A type personality measuring scale (Muhammad et al., 2011) was used to measure the respondents' a type personality factors. This test was originally developed by Matteson and Ivancevich (1982). It contains 21 items. It has three dimensions such as job involvement, impatience and hard driving. Significant correlations between scores of English and Bangla versions indicated translation reliabilities of the scale. The correlation coefficients [r (impatience) = .91, $p < 0.01$; r (job involvement) = .85 $p < 0.01$; r (hard driving) = .82, $p < 0.01$;] of both forms of A type personality scale were found significant. The test-retest reliabilities of the Bangla version of A type personality scale [r (impatience) = .87, $p < 0.01$; r (job involvement) = .88, $p < 0.01$; r (hard driving) = .80 $p < 0.01$] were also found significant. Cronach's alphas [α (impatience) = .91, $p < 0.01$; α (job involvement) = .89, $p < 0.01$; α (hard driving) = .87, $p < 0.01$] were measured to determine the inter item consistency of the scale.

3. Depression scale The scale was developed by Deeba (2002) for measuring depression of the population. It consists 36 items. The scale was designed in Likart format. Subjects were to response to each item on five point scale. For the response "never applicable", was given the weight of 1, "not applicable", was given the weight of 2, "moderately applicable", was given the weight of 3, "severely applicable" was given the weight of 4, and "profoundly applicable", was given the weight of 5, The sum of the item scores was the total score of the individual. The reliability of the Bangla version of the depression questionnaire was found significant $r = 0.844$.

4. Anxiety scale The scale was developed by Deeba (2002) for measuring anxiety of the population. It consists 36 items. The scale was designed in Likert format. Subjects were to response to each item on five point scale. An arbitrary value was assigned to each of five category of response from 0 to 4. For the response, "never occurs", was given the weight of 1, "mildly occurs", was given the weight of 2, "moderately occurs", was given the weight of 3, "severely occurs", was given the weight of 4, and "profoundly occurs" was given the weight

of 5, The sum of the item scores was the total score of the individual. The reliability of the Bengali version of the anxiety questionnaire was found significant $r = 0.837$.

Procedure

For collecting proper information from participants, at first, permission was taken from concerned authority and rapport was established with participants. After establishment of rapport, the researchers expressed the objectives of the study and also assured them the confidentiality of the responses. After that the respondents were requested to fill up personal information blank. When the personal information blank was filled up, the booklet of the Bangla versions of the scales were given to them. The respondents went through the instructions given on the front page of the booklet. Then the respondents were advised to start the task without wasting time. After the respondents had completed the task according to the instructions, the inventory booklet was collected from the respondents. After collecting information, respondents were thanked for their cooperation in the study.

Results

In order to analyze the data zero order Pearson correlation and multiple regression analyses were applied on the obtained scores. The mean, standard deviation, and correlation matrix of the variables are presented in Table 1 and Table 2 respectively.

Table 1

Mean and Standard Deviation among Anxiety, Depression, Job Involvement, Impatience, Hard Driving, and Job Satisfaction Scores

Variables	Mean	SD
Depression	61.96	19.52
Anxiety	57.46	16.35
Job Involvement	22.63	8.76
Impatience	22.28	6.34
Hard Driving	22.99	7.69
Job Satisfaction	62.10	13.46

To consider the effects of independent variables on officers job satisfaction, regression analysis is performed (Table 3 to 5).

Table 2

Correlation Matrix among Depression, Anxiety, Job Involvement, Impatience, Hard Driving and Job Satisfaction scores

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Depression	--					
2. Anxiety	.743**	--				
3. Job Involvement	-.228**	-.135	--			
4. Impatience	.225**	.335**	-.070	--		
5. Hard Driving	-.172	-.137	.567**	.074	--	
6. Job Satisfaction	-.511**	-.423**	.204**	-.352**	.224*	--

These results suggest that job involvement and hard driving are positively correlated to job satisfaction. On the other hand depression, anxiety, and impatience are negatively correlated to job satisfaction. Results of table-2 further indicated that there were strong inter-correlations among the variables.

Table 3

Regression of Job Satisfaction on Depression, Impatience, & Hard Driving

Variables	β	t	p
Depression	-.429	-7.008	.001
Impatience	-.232	-3.842	.001
Hard Driving	.133	2.236	.027

Dependent variable: Job satisfaction

The partial standardized betas (β s) indicated that only three variables in the model were predictors of job satisfaction.

Table 4

Selected statistics from Regression of Job Satisfaction on the personality Characteristics of the Bank Officers

Variables	R	R ²	R ² change	p
Depression	.551	.261	.261	.001
Impatience	.560	.314	.052	.001
Hard Driving	.575	.331	.017	.027

Predictors: Depression, impatience, hard driving

Table 4 indicated that the strongest predictor of employee job satisfaction was depression which alone explained 26.1% of variance. R² value indicated that three variables jointly explained 72.2% of variance of job satisfaction.

Table 5

The overall F-test for Regression of job satisfaction on the personality characteristics

SV	SS	df	MS	F	Sig. F
Regression	11917.819	3	3972.60		
Residual	24126.182	196	123.093	32.273	.001
Total	36044.000	199			

Predictors: personality characteristics (depression, impatience, hard driving).

Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Table 5 showed that the significant F- test [$F(3, 196) = 32.273, p < 0.001$] further indicated that variation in job satisfaction was accounted by joint linear influence of depression, impatience, and hard driving.

Discussion

Result presented in table 2 indicates that there is a significant negative relationship between depression and job satisfaction. Standardized betas (table-3) also indicate that job satisfaction is negatively related to depression. The results of the analysis further indicated that depression was the first predictor of job satisfaction. R^2 change indicated that 26.1% of variance in job satisfaction was accounted for by the depression. Herzberg, Mausner, and Synderman (1999) mentioned that if the motivation factors are present and in a positive direction of a job situation, employees will experience feelings of satisfaction. But when motivation factors are absent and negative in direction employees will not experience feelings of satisfaction. Results suggest that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and anxiety. The finding is consistent with Eysenck (1997) and Corr's (2008a) research evidence.

Research results suggest that job involvement is positively correlated with job satisfaction. In explaining this result it can be said, according to Schultz and Schultz (1998), that the higher one's identification or involvement with a job, the greater is the job satisfaction. Fourth hypothesis of the present research states that impatience would be negatively correlated to the job satisfaction. Result presented in table 2 indicates that there is a significant negative relationship between impatience and job satisfaction. Standardized betas (table-3) also indicate that job satisfaction is negatively related to impatience. The results of the analysis further indicated that impatience was the second predictor of job satisfaction. R^2 change indicated that 5.2% of variance in job satisfaction was accounted for by the impatience. The findings suggest that to complete assigned job properly need patience and satisfaction of employees. Satisfied employees always work with full patience and they don't leave their job until or unless its end result. Generally, patience helps the person to be involved in their job that's why they can complete their assigned duties perfectly and timely.

Fifth hypothesis of the present research states that hard driving would be positively correlated to the job satisfaction. Result presented in table 2 indicates that there is a significant positive relationship between hard driving and job satisfaction. Standardized betas (table-3) also indicate that job satisfaction is positively related to hard driving. The results of the analysis further indicated that impatience was the third predictor of job satisfaction. R^2 change indicated that 1.7% of variance in job satisfaction was accounted for by the hard driving. In explaining this result, according to McClelland et al., (1953), it can be said that people with high need for hard driving seek out situation in which they can complete against some standard-be grade, money, or winning at a game- and prove themselves successful. But they are not indiscriminate when it comes to picking their challenges. they tend to avoid situation in which success will come too easily and situation success is unlikely. Instead, people high in achievement motivation generally choose tasks that are of intermediate difficulty (Speris & Frinch, 2006). People with a high fear of failure will stay from tasks of intermediately difficulty, because they may fail where others have been successful (Martin & Marsh, 2002; Moreno et al., 2006).

Last hypothesis was depression, anxiety, job involvement, impatience, hard driving and job satisfaction will be interrelated. Results suggest that all the variables of the present study are significantly interrelated (table-2). These results are supported by many researchers' research findings. In case of hypotheses one to five, where the investigators have shown some reasons for getting these relationships which again support our last hypothesis.

Conclusion

Usually, organizational growth and strength depend on the manager' job satisfaction. Managers' job satisfaction is obviously affected by their personality characteristics. Considering the progress of the Bank organizations the present study was conducted on the Bank managers in Dhaka city. The results of this study suggest that managers' work performance or satisfaction is accounted for by the personality characteristics.

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Relations of Income with Interpersonal Relationship

Muhammad Akram Uzzaman¹, Mahadi-Ul-Morshed²,
Mohammad Afzal Hossain³ & Tamanna Yesmin⁴

Abstract

The aim of the present study was to investigate whether there are any relations between income and interpersonal relationship. The sample comprises of 100 adult people including 3rd and 4th class office staffs from Jagannath University (34), Kazi Nazrul Govt. College (33), and Govt. Shaheed Shorawardi College (33). Purposive sampling technique was followed. Almost 79% are male and the remaining 21% are female. Inventory of Interpersonal Problems (IIP) scale (Alden, Wiggins & Pircus, 1990) was used in this study which was adapted into Bangla by Yeasmin & Uddin (2008). The obtained data were analyzed by employing correlation and simple regression. The findings reveal that, there is a significant negative correlation ($r = -.288$) between income and interpersonal relations at .05 level. Regression analysis, for example, R^2 implies that income accounts for 8.3% of the variation in interpersonal relation. Inspection of cross-validity (by Stein and Wherry's formula) indicates that the model is moderately good and significant at .05 level. Again, ANOVA table indicates that the model is significantly ($F_{1,99} = 8.854$; $p < .005$) better at predicting the outcome (interpersonal relation) than using the mean as a best guess, and finally standardized beta (β) indicates that if income increases by one standard deviation ($SD = 2793.207$) interpersonal relation decrease by $-.288$ standard deviations.

Key-Words: Income, interpersonal relationship

From the 1990s the empirical study of relationships has emerged and referred to a new dimension called relationship science. Like living organisms, relationships have a beginning, a lifespan, and an end. By born, human beings are social and shaped by their experiences with others. They always need to feel love and acceptance from family, peer groups, neighbor etc. (Berscheid, 1999). According to Social Exchange theory (George, 1961), interpersonal relationship develops as results of cost-benefit analysis. An individual intends to involve in relations when they see there is reward for them or they have same sense of self, belief etc. Otherwise they will show reluctant to maintain relationship with others (Anderson & Chen, 2002).

Relationship has several dimensions. Close and intimate relationships are sometimes called interpersonal relationship. It is a connection between two or more people, who interact and fulfill one or more physical or emotional needs with friends, family, co-workers, strangers,

¹ Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka 1100, Bangladesh, Email: akrambro@gmail.com

³ Department of Psychology, University of Chittagong, Bangladesh

^{2&4} MS Student, Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka 1100, Bangladesh

chat room participants, doctors or clients etc. It is based on love, solidarity, commitment and formed in the context of social, cultural, and other influences. Relationship can vary and change as per family or kinship relations, friendship, marriage, place of worships, relation with associates etc. It may be regulated by law, custom, or mutual agreement, and are the basis of social groups and society as a whole (Berscheid & Peplau, 1983).

Strong interpersonal relationships exist between people who fill many of each other's emotional and physical needs. For example, a mother may have strong interpersonal relationships with her children, because she provides her child's shelter, food, love, affection and unconditional acceptance. Mild interpersonal relationships exist when people fill modest needs. Human beings always depend on others to satisfy their basic needs due to survive in the society. From this drive they always try to maintain relationship with others. It starts from family and smoothly diverges with the outer world. A very important question in the behavioral and social sciences is whether incomes produce good or bad interpersonal relationships. Most societies are now working toward material prosperity and producing higher incomes is the activity that occupies most of the time, and energy of individuals and governments. Individuals spend more time working than in any other working activity and governments highly emphasize economic growth. Thus, the issue of whether economic growth will improve people's relationships, subjective well-being is of both theoretical and applied important.

Easterlin (1974) postulated that social comparisons within nations were responsible for a hedonic treadmill because people's standards for incomes rise when the income of others in their society rise, and therefore there is no net gain in life satisfaction as average societal incomes increase. Easterlin (1974) caused widespread debate with his suggestion that the economic growth of nations does not produce rising happiness in them. He pointed to the apparent paradox that rich individuals within nations are happier than poor ones but that rising societal incomes do not seem to be associated with rising subjective well-being. However, he suggested that cross-sectionally the richest individuals in each nation would be on average most satisfied and that the poorest would be the least satisfied.

Several studies (Bhalla, 2002; Morris & Genetian, 2003) show that the direct income effect is only a moderate part of the observed relationship between low income and child development. The relationship between family income and child development appears to be non-linear, such that the income gradient tapers off at higher levels of income (Dearing, 2001). Graham and Pettinato (2002) found that "frustrated achievers" can become less satisfied even as their incomes rise because their aspirations increase even more quickly than their incomes. The effects of income could potentially be quite different for affect for positive and negative feelings (Diener, Helliwell, & Kahneman, 2010). Muntaner and Lynch (1999) conducted a study on income inequality, social cohesion, and class relations. They found that income inequality affect the class relationships which increase relationship with others and sometimes not increased. Contemplating the aforementioned literature in the present study one of the important variables is income which has incorporated to see whether it has any relations with interpersonal relationships. Income is the consumption of savings opportunity

gained by an entity within a specified timeframe which is generally expressed in monetary terms (Barr, 2004).

In the cultural context of Bangladesh income is important for every one for filling up their basic human needs, improving better life, survive in the society, maintaining interaction with others etc. It helps us to create sound interpersonal relations with family members, relatives, neighbor etc. But, sometimes, much more income may turn into unexpected relations with others. Considering this, in the present study it was expected to see how the nature of income affects interpersonal relations in the 3rd and 4th class office staffs of Public University and Government College.

Research question

Is there any significant relation between income and interpersonal relation?

Objective of the study

To investigate whether any significant relation between income and interpersonal relationship.

Method

Participants

In the present study, target populations were the office staffs of Jagannath University, Kazi Nazrul Govt. College, and Shaheed Sohrwardi College. The sample comprised of 100 adult people of 3rd and 4th class office staffs from Jagannath University ($n = 34$), Kazi Nazrul Govt. College ($n = 33$), and Govt. Shaheed Shorewardi College ($n = 33$). Data were collected through purposive sampling technique. Almost 79% were male and the remaining 21% were female. The age range of the participants were from 19 to 57 years with average age is 36 years.

Instruments

The following instruments were used for the present study to measure interpersonal relations

- Personal Information Form (PIF)
- Inventory of Interpersonal Problems (IIP)

The original Inventory of Interpersonal Problem (IIP) was developed by Alden, Wiggins, and Pincus (1990). An adapted Bangla version of IIP by Yeasmin & Uddin (2008) was used in the present study for data collection. The IIP consists of 47 items with 5-point Likert type response option ranging from "0" (not at all) to "4" (extremely). Total scores for any individual were obtained from summation of the scores of all items. Here higher score indicates higher interpersonal problems and lower score indicates lower interpersonal problems. The original IIP consists of good to moderate test-retest reliability ($r =$ from .56 to .76), and split-half reliability ($r = .91$). The IIP scale has also good face and content validity which was inspected by Subject Matter Experts (SMEs). The correlation between IIP- 64 and

Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) was found from .33 to .48. Finally, correlation between the Bangla and English version was highly significant ($r = .90, p < .05$).

Data processing and analysis

The data were analyzed by using SPSS (version 20) program. As the nature of the present study was correlational design where income was regarded as predictor variable and interpersonal relation was considered as criterion variable. Major assumptions of the data were checked before regression analysis. The assumption of linearity was examined by partial regression plot, normality by P-P plot, and homoscedasticity by scatter plot. All these aforementioned assumptions were confirmed in the present data.

Procedure

Standard data collection procedure was followed in the present study. For collecting data from participants, at first, permission was taken from concerned authority and necessary rapport was established with the participants. Participants were informed about the purposes and necessity of the present research in the context of Bangladesh both in verbally and written form. Again, they were simply briefed about the questionnaire and how to fill up these questions. Then, every participant was provided one questionnaire with Personal Information Form (PIF) which contains information such as age, gender, income, and number of family member etc. Participants were assured that their information will be used only for research purpose and will keep confidential until their permission. Participants were also requested for keeping silent in his room and not to talk with others during fill-up of questions. Participants were not received any credit for their work. After collecting data, respondents were thanked for their cooperation. Total 1 (one) month was required for data collection from 15th September to 15th October, 2013. A code number was assigned to each questionnaire before the data were examined. The data were stored in a secure area, and access to the data was limited to the research team.

Results

The results derived from the analyses are presented in the following tables

Table 1

Mean and standard deviation of interpersonal relations and income

Name of Variables	N	M	SD
Interpersonal relation	100	115.08	24.753
Income	100	12146.27	2793.21

As shown in the above Table the mean scores of interpersonal relation is 115.08 and standard deviation is 24.753, On the other hand, the mean and standard deviation of income is 12146.27 and 2793.21.

Table 2
Correlation between income and interpersonal relations

	Income	N	Sig
Interpersonal relation	-.288	100	.002

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (two tailed)

In the above Table it is shown that the correlation between income and interpersonal relation is *significant*, $r = -.288$, p (two tailed) $< .05$. But it can't measure the specific effect of income on interpersonal relation. That's why it was done further regression analysis.

Table 3
Regression Model Summary

Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate	F Change	df 1	df 2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.288 ^a	.083	.074	23.826	8.854	1	98	.004	1.762

a. Predictors: (Constant), income

b. Dependent Variable: interpersonal relation

In the aforementioned Table R indicates simple correlation between income and interpersonal relations whereas R^2 implies that income accounts for 8.3% of the variation in interpersonal relation. Again the adjusted R square denotes that the model is moderately good as the difference between R square and adjusted R square value ($.083 - 0.074 = .009$, about .9%) is small. This shrinkage means indicate that if the model was derived from the population rather than a sample, it would account for approximately 0.9% less variance in the outcome.

Cross Validity of the model

By using the following Stein's (1960) formula the adjusted R^2 value become .06

$$\text{Adjusted } R^2 = 1 - \left[\left(\frac{n-1}{n-k-1} \right) \left(\frac{n-2}{n-k-2} \right) \left(\frac{n+1}{n} \right) \right] (1 - R^2)$$

So, the adjusted R^2 value (.06) is moderately near to Wherry's (1931) adjusted R^2 value (.08), which tells that the cross validity of the model is moderately good. Finally, F change indicates that the change in R^2 is significant ($p < .05$).

Table 4
Analysis of variance (ANOVA) table of regression analysis

Model	Sum of Square (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Regression	5026.310	1	5026.310	8.854	0.004
Residual	55633.050	98	567.584		
Total	60659.360	99			

a. Predictors: (Constant), income

b. Dependent variable: Interpersonal relation

The above table indicate that the model is significantly ($F_{1,99} = 8.854$; $p < .05$) better at predicting the outcome (interpersonal relation) than using the mean as a best guess.

Table 5
Parameters of the model

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	sig	95% confidence interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Upper bound	Lower bound
(Constant)	146.065	10.682		13.674	.000	12.866	167.263
Income	-.003	.001	-.288	-2.976	.004	-.004	.000

a. Dependent Variable: interpersonal relation

The above table implies that as income increased by one standard deviation ($SD = 2793.20$) interpersonal relation decreased by $-.288$ (standardized β) standard deviations. Therefore, every more earn money decreased interpersonal relation, and the t value in the model is significant ($t_{98} = 13.674$; $p < .05$) which indicates that the predictor (income) is making a significant contribution to the model. Finally, the predictor (income) has moderately close confidence interval (from $-.004$ to $.000$), which denotes that the estimate for the current model are likely to be representative of the true population value.

Discussion

The objective of the present study was to investigate the relations of income with interpersonal relationship. After fulfill the assumptions, the obtained data were analyzed by using descriptive statistics and simple regression analysis. However, assumptions test of data (interpersonal relationship) indicate that the data is moderately good for regression analysis. Correlation analysis (Table 2) between income and interpersonal relations showed that, both have significant negative relation ($r = -.288$, $p < .05$) which implies that if income increase, then, interpersonal relation decrease. R^2 value from regression analysis (Table 3) denotes that income accounts for 8.3% of the variation in interpersonal relation. Again Adjusted R square indicates that the model is moderately good (as difference is $.009$ or about 0.9% which is small). The model has cross-validated as comparing between R^2 value ($.06$), and Wherry's adjusted R^2 value ($.08$) which confirmed that the model is moderately good.

Finally, F change indicates that the change in R square is significant ($p < .05$). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) table indicates that the model can significantly predict ($F_{1,99} = 8.854$; $p < .05$) the outcome variable (interpersonal relation). Parameters of the model also implies that the predictor (income) makes a significant ($t_{98} = 13.674$; $p < .05$) contribution to the model. Generally, it is seen that when a person earns money, he becomes sometimes egoistic. He starts thinking himself superior to others. He looks down upon those who earn less money. As a result, his interpersonal relationship with others decreases day by day. When income increases, the responsibility of a person also increases. He does not get adequate time to give to his near and dear ones. So, gradually his interpersonal relationships with others decrease, and sometimes badly damages. Thus, the increase of income may negatively affect

interpersonal relationship. Again, the addition of income makes a man proud, and he sometimes breaks his relationships with his poor neighbors, family members, and relatives. Sometimes for earning money, a person may engage much of his time in his work place. As a result, he can't give much time to his family and others.

So, his interpersonal relationship with them decreases day by day. Thus, the addition of income may affect negatively the interpersonal relationship of a person. When a person engage in business for earning money, ultimately they have to compete with others businessman for survive in the market. This unrest competition makes the person always busy. As a result, they can't give enough time to their relatives, even though their family members. In this situation their intimacy decline day by day which caused negative relationship with near and dear. Time gap is also caused for negative relation with others. When a person stays outside from his/her family day by day for different purposes such as earning money, job responsibility, distant job place etc. He doesn't get enough time to stay with his/her family members and relatives. In that reason, time gap is occurred and relationship are decreased among the family members, relatives, and others. Another important point is that the addition of income diverts the relationship of a person. When a person becomes rich, he gradually tries to form a good relationship with the rich, and also tries to shrink himself from the poor. So the increase of income affects the relationship of a man badly with the poor relatives. So, these may be the causes of negative relations between income and interpersonal relationships. However, all impacts of excessive income are not negative. There is some positive impact also. The increase of income makes a man able to help others financially. So, interpersonal relationship may increase due to the increase of income. On the contrary, if income decreases, then, people's business, involvement, outgoing tendency, and need also decrease which may lead to friendly relation with others.

Previous research showed that high income may harms public health through the psychological impact of relative deprivation, class conflict or the lack of social capital, and relationships (Muntaner and Lynch, 1999; Blau, 1999; and Easterlin, 1974). Taylor, Ronald, Budescu, & Mia (2013) found in their study that income affect kin relationship. When the income of a person increases, he does not get adequate time to attend different social events. As a result, he becomes segregated from the main stream for not attending in all those social events, the relationship of a person decreases. Again when a person earns more, he tries to invest his profit to make more money. He hardly gets time to spend with his family members, and neighbors. Thus, the increase of income causes the lack of time which reduces the close relationship.

The study has some drawbacks. Income can only explain 8.3% of variation in interpersonal relation which denotes that a large number of variations are out of explanation. Further studies can be done on a large number of samples combining all types of government and non-government employees from the whole country. Other predictors such as family stability, marital relation and conflict, adjustment, education should be considered in the future research with interpersonal relation for better understanding. In spite of these hurdles the study has both theoretical and practical implication in its nature. Psychologist, counselors, clinical social workers, educationist, economist can be benefitted and utilized from the findings of the study.

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Couples Perception of Personality and Effect on Marital Adjustment

Md. Shahinuzzaman¹ & Jannatul Ferdoushi Sraboni²

Abstract

The purpose of the present study was to identify some personality variables that are the best predictors of marital adjustment. For this purpose it investigated the relationship of interpersonal dependency, personal control, and trust with marital adjustment. A total of 200 married couple participated in this research. They were selected from different areas of Dhaka City by purposive sampling. The instruments used in this study were demographic and personal information questionnaire, Bangla version (Ilyas, 2003) of Hirschfield et al., (1977) Interpersonal Dependency Inventory (IDI), Bangla version (Ilyas, 2004) of Duttweiler's Internal Control Index, Bangla version (Ilyas, 2005) of Rotter's Interpersonal Trust Scale (1971), adapted Bangla version (Ilyas, 1986) of Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale. Results indicate that interpersonal dependency, personal control, and trust were predictors of marital adjustment. Mean, Standard deviation, correlation and stepwise multiple regressions were performed. Results indicated that interpersonal dependency ($\beta = .923$, $p < .0005$), personal control ($\beta = .174$, $p < .0005$) and trust ($\beta = -.227$, $p < .0005$) were significant predictors of marital adjustment. These three variables accounted for 69.2 % variance of marital adjustment. Among these three variables, interpersonal dependency was the strongest predictor, which alone explained 92.3% variance of marital adjustment.

Key-words: Interpersonal dependency, personal control, trust and marital adjustment

One of the most important relationships between a man and women is marriage. It involves emotional and legal commitment that is quite important in any adult life. Marital adjustment has long been a popular topic in studies of the family, probably because the concept is believed to be closely related to the stability of a given marriage. Well-adjusted marriages are expected to last for a long time, while poorly adjusted ones end in divorce. In the current study marital adjustment is defined as "a process, the outcome of which is determined by the degree of (a) troublesome marital differences; (b) interspousal tensions and personal anxiety; (c) marital satisfaction; (d) dyadic cohesion; and (e) consensus on matters of importance to marital functioning" (Spanier & Cole, 1976). Interpersonal dependency refers to thoughts, behaving and feeling the need to associate closely with valued people (Hirschfield, et al., 1977). Interpersonal dependency is defined by the extent to which two people depend on each other's outcomes (Kelley, 1979; Kelley & Thibaut, 1978). In close relationships, pair

¹ Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka- 1100, Bangladesh E-mail: zzamandu.508@gmail.com

¹ MS Student, Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka- 1100, Bangladesh

members control and attempt to control each other in a variety of ways. They often make requests to each other, and at times they make overt demands. On other occasions one person may influence another without even knowing it (Huston, 1983), as when an empathic partner compelled by the distress in intimate's demeanor he/she would try to provide some comfort. It seems that the fundamental motivation of the dependent person is a strong desire to obtain and maintain nurturing, supportive relationships. Dependency is associated with a general tendency to be influenced by the opinions of others, to yield, to comply with others expectations and demands.

Another important ingredient of personality is personal control. Here, personal control refers to our belief about the sources of control of reinforcement. Some people believe that reinforcement depend on their own behavior. These people are labeled as internals. Whereas others think it is controlled by outside forces (e.g. luck, fate, social context and other person or whatever). These people are labeled as externals (Rotter, 1966). Trust is defined as the expectation that the "word, promise, oral or written statement of another individual or group can be relied on" (Rotter, 1980). Research on dependency indicates that the dependent person prefer to look to others for nurturance, guidance, and support rather than initiating projects and activities on his or other (Birtehnell, 1987, 1988). They go to great lengths to develop and strengthen ties to potential nurturers and care takers (Bornstein, 1992). Empirical literature suggests that person with high dependency are better adjusted than person with low dependency (Doi, 1973; Felmlee, Sprecher, & Bassin, 1990). In a study, it was found that 36 couples who were separated or divorced within 3 years of their engagement showed lower interpersonal dependency than 106 stable married couples (Larsen and Olson, 1989).

Research considering the relevance of personal control to the marital relationship has primarily focused on the relation between personal control and marital adjustment and stability (Constantine & Bahr, 1981; Doherty, 1983; Doherty & Ryder, 1979; Mlott & Lira, 1977). The Miller marital locus of control scale (MMLOC; Miller, Lefcourt & Ware, 1983) measures individual personal control specifically for marital adjustment. Research with the MMLOC has related internality for marital satisfaction to degree of intimacy, sensitivity between spouses and marital satisfaction (Miller, Lefcourt, & Ware, 1983; White, 1984) Miller et al., (1986) conducted a research on personal control on a sample of 88 married couples. Results suggested that internals are more active and direct in their problem solving than are externals. They were also more effective in communicating and achieving their desire goals and reported higher levels of marital adjustment than externals.

Relationships are composed of trust, and sharing of intimate thoughts and feelings. They are built upon trust and sharing and they get stronger from these things (Finkenauer, Kerkhof, Righetti, & Branje, 2009). Trust is one of the most important components of a loving relationship (Regan et al., 1998). Also international studies have found trust to be a critical factor in the success of long-term marriages (Roizblatt et al., 1999; Sharlin, 1996). Scientific research of marital adjustment is important because it can make positive contribution to the quality of life. For better understanding of marital stability, divorce, separation and other intimate relationship research on marital adjustment is necessary. Besides it is speculated that marital adjustment associated with marital intimacy, marital instability, acid throwing,

including child abuse and other close interpersonal relationship. As a result, the responsibilities of marriage counselors related to this problem are increasing. The present research seeks to find the relationship of various personality factors (interpersonal dependency, trust, personal control) with marital adjustment. It is expected that the findings of the present study may help understanding the determinants and personality factors that underlying marital adjustment.

Objective

The objective of current study was to explore the relationship of interpersonal dependency, personal control, and trust with marital adjustments of couples.

Hypotheses

Based on previous research and the light of the above objective the hypotheses were formulated, interpersonal dependency, personal control and trust would contribute significantly to the variation of marital adjustment.

Method

Sample

A total of 200 couples participated in this research. They were selected by purposive sampling from different areas of Dhaka city. Their age ranged from 22 to 44 years, the mean age was 32 years. Most of them were working in different offices.

Instruments used Demographic and personal information questionnaire

This questionnaire was used to collect personal and demographic information of the participant, such as- sex, age, education, socio-economic status, occupation, income, marital status and duration of marital life of participants.

Interpersonal dependency inventory (IDI)

The Bangla version (Ilyas, 2003) of Hirschfield et al., (1977) interpersonal dependency inventory was used to measure dependency. Based on an initial pool of 98 items, 48-item scale was developed using factor analysis. Factor analysis revealed three subscales: (i) emotional reliance on others, (ii) Lack of self-confidence, and (iii) assertion of autonomy. Bangla version of IDI is a Likert type scale of 48 items, 28 items estimate dependent behavior and 20 nondependent behaviors. Participants respond to items on four-point scale. The sum of scores of all items from the total score of the scale for an individual is obtained. High scores indicate more dependency. Significant correlation [$r(48) = .734, p < .0005$] between score of English and Bangla version indicate that English and Bangla version measured the same characteristics. The high alpha coefficient ($\alpha = .9194$) indicate internal consistency of the scale (Ilyas, 2003).

Internal control index

Adapted Bangla version of Duttweiler (1984) Internal Control Index (Ilyas, 2000) was used to measure locus of control. This scale contains 14 external locus of control and 14 internal control items. For an external locus of control item, score 1 indicates “usually” score 2 “frequently” score 3 “sometimes” score 4 “occasionally” score 5 “rarely”. For internal locus of control scoring was in reverse order. The sum of scores of all items was total score on the scale for an individual. Higher scores indicate higher internal locus of control. The English and Bangla versions of the scale were administered to 50 participants with a gap of 7 days. Significant positive correlation [$r(48) = .632, p < .0005$] was obtained between scores of English and Bangla versions indicating high translation reliability of the scale.

Interpersonal trust scale

The Bangla version (Ilyas, 2005) of Interpersonal Trust Scale is a Likert-type scale containing 25 trust items. This scale was originally developed by Rotter in 1971. This scale is designed to measure one’s expectation that our behavior, promises, or statements of other individuals can be relied upon. 25 items of English version translated into Bangla. English and Bangla version were administered to 50 subjects with a gap of 7 days. Half of the subjects were administered English version first and the remaining half of the subjects were administered Bangla version first. Significant correlation between English and Bangla version [$r(48) = .906, p < .0005$] indicated translation reliability of the scale. The scale contains 12 positive and 13 negative items. Total scores are the sum of all the items, with a range from 25 (lowest trust) to 125 (highest trust), with a neutral score or midpoint is 75.

Marital adjustment scale

The adapted Bangla version of Spanier’s (1976) Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Ilyas, 1986) was used to measure marital adjustment. The adapted scale has 29 items. Three items that ask about frequency of kissing, differences for being too tired for sex, and for not showing love has been dropped from the scale. These items were omitted because it was anticipated that these items would offend the respondents and reduce the response rate. The remaining 29 items were translated into Bangla. Then both English and Bangla versions of the scale were given to six judges for carefully examining whether each item of both the version conveys the same meaning or not. They were also requested to give suggestion for improving the translations. Some changes in the translations were made according to the suggestions of judges. Then, English and Bangla version of the scale were administered to 50 subjects, half of the Ss were administered the English version first and then after an interval of 20 days the Bangla version was administered. The remaining half of the participants were administered the Bangla version first and the English version with 20 days gap between the two administrations. Significant correlation $r(50) = .78, p < .0001$ between scores of English and Bangla versions indicated that the English and Bangla version measured the same thing.

Procedure

Data were collected by personal interview. Each of couples was interviewed separately. Each of them were given separate instructions for the questionnaires and each scales and were allowed to ask freely if he or she has question regarding any item of each scale and the interviewer answered every question raised by them and gave all possible clarifications. The

respondents were assured that their answers would be kept confidential and will be used for research purposes. They were requested to answer all questions as honestly as possible. To give each question a moment thought and then answer each question a moment thought and then answer each questions independently of his/her partner. They were requested not to allow their partners to see or help them with the answers.

Results

The objective of current study was to explore the relationship of interpersonal dependency, personal control, and trust with marital adjustments of couples. For this purpose correlation of interpersonal dependency, personal control, and trust with marital adjustment were calculated. Stepwise multiple regression methods were conducted to estimate a model predicting marital adjustment. The mean and standard deviation of marital adjustment ($M = 126.34$, $SD = 9.99$), interpersonal dependency ($M = 127.19$, $SD = 8.24$) personal control ($M = 105.72$, $SD = 20.17$) and trust ($M = 96.21$, $SD = 6.81$) score indicates that the couples are more dependent on each other, higher internal locus of control and high trust and they are well adjusted in their life. Pearson correlations coefficients showed that there were a number of statistically significant relationships among variables. Interpersonal dependency, personal control, and trust were found to be significantly associated with marital adjustment. Marital adjustment had a significant relationship with interpersonal dependency [$r(400) = .808$, $p < .0005$]; trust [$r(400) = .654$, $p < .004$]; and personal control [$r(400) = .540$, $p < .0005$]. Thus, the results of correlation indicated that a person with a higher score on any of the independent variable had higher marital adjustment in his /her life.

Table 1
Predicting Marital Adjustment

	R	R ²	R ² change	β	SE	t	p	F	<i>p</i>
ID	.808	.653	.653	.923	.08	14.62	.0005	749.68	.000
PC	.825	.680	.02	.174	.02	5.397	.0005	422.24	.000
T	.832	.692	.011	-.227	.09	-3.81	.0005	295.92	.002

Adjusted R² = .72, Note: ID = Interpersonal dependency, PC = Personal control, T = Trust

The results of stepwise multiple regression methods were consistent, these results are presented in Table 1. Results suggested that interpersonal dependency ($\beta = .923$, $p < .0005$) personal control ($\beta = .174$, $p < .0005$) and trust ($\beta = -.227$, $p < .0005$) were significant predictors of marital adjustment. The results show that interpersonal dependency has the strongest contribution to the variance of marital adjustment. It contributes 92.3% of the variance in life marital adjustment. All three variables combined contribute 69.2% ($R = .83$) of the total variance of marital adjustment.

Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to identify some personality factors that influence marital adjustment. For this purpose the present study examined the relationship of interpersonal dependency, trust, personal control and liking with marital adjustment of spouses. The findings on interpersonal dependency and marital adjustment revealed that interpersonal dependency was the important predictor of marital adjustment. It explains 65.3% variance of marital adjustment. Significant positive correlation and significant standardized beta (Table 1) have confirmed the hypothesis. This findings of the study are in line with the previous relevant research (Doi, 1973; Felmlee, Sprecher, and Bassin, 1990).

But a question arises why person with high dependency are better adjusted than persons with low dependency? It may be that dependent spouses find comfort in sharing information with each other and their willingness to recognize and resolve conflicts between them is greater. Probably they are actively engaged in making joint decisions regarding their life style, finances and resources. They pay much attention on how to get a job done, and how to equally share childcare duties, cooking, cleaning etc. Another explanation may be that the dependent couples provide emotional support, inspirations, encouragement, interpersonal care etc to each other. In addition, the dependent persons are highly motivated to please other people in order to nature, give support and care. People with high dependency have more suggestible, interpersonal yielding, and compliance with other requests, demands, and expectations. Researchers say that lovers are always dependent. To them dependency merely means mature loves need affection and affirmation as being good, capable people (Bardwick, 1979).

Findings on personal control and marital adjustment revealed that personal control was the second important predictor of marital adjustment. It explains 2.0% variance of marital adjustment. Significant positive correlations (Table-1) and significant standardized beta (Table-1) have confirmed the hypothesis. But why internals are better adjusted than that of externals? Because, couples experience the love implicit in a partner's accommodations, they might be more effective problem solver because internal partners are more cooperative, responsive and communicating (Miller et al., 1986). Besides, when adult romantic partner have positive feelings about their relationships, they are more likely to accommodate (i.e., respond in a constructive manner, when other behaves badly). In addition, internal couple believes that they are responsible for the reinforcements experienced; and they are more likely to change the situation toward mutual joy and in life. Trust is an important predictor of marital adjustment. It explains 1.1% variance of marital adjustment. The result also confirmed the hypothesis that marital adjustment is positively correlated with trust. That means people adjust more with those people whom they trust. This result is consistent with previous findings (Roizblatt et al., 1999).

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Adaptation of the Family Relationship Characteristics Scale in Bangladesh

Fatema-Tu-Zohra Binte Zaman¹, Farzana Ahmed¹ & Md. Abdus Shabur Pramanik Semul²

Abstract

The Family Relationships Characteristics Scale (FRCS) is a pervasively used instrument that is applied to measure the four aspects of family relationship characteristics (i.e. cohesion, beliefs about family, structure, and deviant beliefs). The aim of this study was to translate this instrument into Bangla and adapted according to Bangladeshi culture. Following guidelines of the ITC, the researchers field tested the final Bangla version on a purposive sample of 130 secondary school students (aged between 12 to 16 years). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was found 0.888, which was highly satisfactory. Significant correlation between the subscales determined the convergent validity. Thus, the Bangla version of FRCS appeared psychometrically sound and hence suitable for use in Bangladesh.

Key-words: Family relationship characteristics, Bangladeshi scale adaptation

Family is the basic unit of our society. As family is made up of its members, it is very important to ensure sound, harmonious and communicative relationship among the members, because health of a society is directly related to the health of a family. Freely express of natural love, respect and care among family members can make human being a sensible person and help them to make responsible decisions to achieve his/her goals. In addition, a strong family foundation can serve as an important protective factor and help children to avoid risky behaviors. Experts believe that the interaction between parents and children will be more intimate, if there is a greater recognition of the psychological needs of children and a greater willingness on the part of parents to satisfy them (Kronjee, 1991). Tolan, Gorman-Smith, Huesmann and Zelli (1997) developed an instrument to measure the levels of Family Relationship Characteristics. FRCS is one of the widely used self-report family assessment measures. In this study, the researchers intend to focus on the adaption of the FRCS according to Bangladeshi ethnicity and culture. Adaptation is the process of changing something according to a new situation or culture. It is a well recognized psychological instrument which is used for maximizing cultural appropriateness and minimizing bias. It is the general expression for any method in which an apparatus that is developed for one language and ethnic group, is translated for practicing in another language and ethnic group. In the present study it has been ensured that adaptation process takes full account of linguistic cultural differences among the people for whom adapted version of the test are intended.

¹ Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka- 1100, Bangladesh E-mail: zamanfatema@hotmail.com

² MS Student, Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka- 1100, Bangladesh

FRCS contains four subscales which may assess the relation between family members and their views. This assessment distinguishes levels of family relationships by measuring cohesion, beliefs about family, structures, and deviant beliefs. Youth and their parents are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with various statements about their family.

All the four subscales of FRCS are scored by computing mean score of the item listed in the scale. Total number of item was 39. Respondents response on each item was measured using a Likert scale that ranged from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 4 and "not at all true" = 1 to "always true" = 4. Point values are summated and then divided by the total number of items for each subscale. Higher scores in items 1 to 10 indicate more positive beliefs about the family. A higher score in items 11 to 14 and 39 (in case of parent edition) indicates greater sense of deviant beliefs. Similarly, higher scores in items 15 to 26 indicate more cohesion among family members and items 27 to 38 indicates more family structure. The details about number of items and internal consistency of Family Relationship Characteristics Variables are shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Number of Items and Internal Consistency of Family Relationship Characteristics Variables

Family Relationship Variables	No. of Item	Total Item	Internal Consistency
1. Beliefs about family	01-10	10	.77
2. Deviant beliefs	11-14 & 39	5	.69
3. Cohesion among family member	15-26	12	.74
4. Family structure	27-38	12	.70

Rationale of the study

The necessity of adapting family relationship characteristics scale in Bangla is inevitable and crucial. It is not only useful for assessing family relationship but in some medical setting, this scale can be used for measuring correlation between family problems and different types of medical problems. Adapting FRCS in Bangla is a clinical demand, because a person's family problems can be related to other aspects of his/her personality problem. This scale will also help the psychologists for identifying different patterns of human personality problems. Thus, the researchers found it necessary to adapt the FRCS according to their country language and culture.

Method

Sample

This research was conducted for Field Test on a sample of 130 (age range was from 12 to 16 years) students recruited from the Dhaka city of purposive sampling technique. All participants belong to middle class or lower middle class as socio-economic status were considered. The details of the sample characteristics are shown in Table 2 below:

Table 2
Distribution of respondents by selected demographic, personal, and social variables

Phase	Total Participants	Gender		Age of Participants (Years)
		Male (%)	Female (%)	
1 st Phase (Pre-testing I)	50	25 (50.00)	25 (50.00)	12 to 16
2 nd Phase(Pre-testing II)	80	40 (50.00)	40 (50.00)	12 to16
Final Phase (Field test)	130	65 (50.00)	65 (50.00)	12 to 16

Note: Numbers in Parentheses represent Percentages.

The adaptation process (Geisinger, 1994; Hambleton, 2005; Hambleton & Patsula, 1999) of the FRCS consisted of the following six steps:

Step one: Ensuring construct equivalence

To determine whether the constructs namely FRCS have the same meanings in Bangladeshi culture as in foreign culture, available literature on these constructs published in different scientific journals and books written by Bangladeshi educational psychologists have been reviewed. Also, the judgments of experts from the Department of Psychology, Jagannath University have been taken about construct equivalence between the two cultures. It appeared convincing from literature review along with expert opinion that the constructs under study do exist and same definition equally applies to language and cultural group of Bangladesh.

Step two: Forward translation

Three translators were selected who without consulting one another independently translated the English version inventories into Bangla. Their mother tongue was Bangla, their medium of education was English, and they were familiar with foreign language and culture. They were very knowledgeable about the principles of test adaptation and were well conversant with the constructs being measured. The researchers headed together with the translated versions and selected the best words, expression, or items by arriving at a consensus. Thus, the preliminary Bangla version inventory was prepared. A teacher of the University of Dhaka was requested to check for the language structure and quality of translation, and conceptual equivalence of words or phrases, but not a word-for-word translation. Modifications of some words, expression, or items were made following his suggestions.

Step three: Backward translation

A teacher of Psychology, proficient in both English and Bangla language, was entrusted with the task of translating the Bangla version into English. A panel consisting of three psychologists having expertise in psychology and proficiency in English judges the equivalence of the original English version and the translated version of FRCS. There was perfect agreement among the panel members that the translated version of FRCS was very much similar to the original one which indicates the correctness of forward translation. The Bangla version was then subjected to subsequent processes.

Step four: Pre-testing I and cognitive interviewing

The first pre-testing was carried out by administering the Bangla version of FRCS on a group of convenience sample of 50 students of ages 12 to 16 years. The students were informed of the objectives and significance of the study. Only the students who showed interest to participate were selected. Three methods namely inventory administration, interview, and item analysis were done to get primary validity evidence for each item.

Scale administration: An examiner who is trained in assessment procedure administered the scale on the respondents in a classroom. At first, the students were asked to read the instructions on the top of the items of the scale very carefully. The examiner orally explained what was to be done, emphasizing that there were no right or wrong answers. The examiner directed the student to answer every question honestly and to select only one response for each question. The student responded to each item by indicating how frequently the statement was true for them. During the test, the students were allowed to ask questions about words or concepts which they did not understand. The words or expressions that the student asked about were noted by the administrator to check whether it was necessary to modify them. Students were allowed to change responses but it was made sure that the original response was completely erased.

Interview: Individual interview method was used to ask students about any word, concept, or expression that they found confusing, difficult, unacceptable or offensive. For some items there were several possible alternative words or expressions. In these cases the students were asked to choose the best option which conformed better to their usual language.

Item analysis: Students' responses in each subscale were analyzed to determine corrected item-to-total correlation which indicated the appropriateness of each item. Negative or low correlation of an item score with total score in an inventory indicates that the item is defective in measuring what the whole inventory is supposed to. Item analyses for each subscale separately revealed that a total of 10 items had low positive correlation and 03 low Negative correlations with total score. However, internal consistency reliability (alpha coefficient) for each subscale was very high ranging from .84 to .86. Interestingly, these were the items which the respondents criticized. The remaining items had significant and acceptable correlation with total score. The panel of psychologists who worked in the back translation phase had modified the language of the faulty items in consensus with each other which resulted in the revised preliminary Bangla Version of FRCS.

Step five: Pre-testing II

Second pre-testing was carried out to check the validity of the items of revised preliminary Bangla Version of FRCS. In this phase two methods were followed: scale administration and item analysis.

Scale administration

The inventories were administered to a purposive and conveniently selected sample of 70 students of ages between 12 to 16 years. Data were collected following the same procedure used during scale administration for the first pre-testing phase.

Item analysis

Corrected item-to-total correlation coefficients were highly satisfactory for items of each inventory. However, internal consistency reliability (alpha coefficient) for each subscale was very high and ranged from .870 to .884. The coefficients are comparable to those of the original English version of FRCS.

Step six: Field test

The field test was carried out to determine reliability and validity of the Bangla Version of FRCS. The study used purposive and convenience sampling techniques to collect data from 130 students aged from 12 to 16 years. Among them 65 were male and 65 were female. First, the testing was carried out conveniently in class rooms with kind permission from and cooperation of Institution authorities. The data were collected from the students who were available and willing to participate in the study. Second, though many students were available, performers purposively included in sample only those who met three inclusion criteria: (a) studied at Bangla medium schools, (b) attended the school regularly, and (c) had no severe physical or mental condition that might interfere with the assessment.

The students were informed the purpose of the study and they were told that their name would not appear on the tests, and the responses would be anonymous. Trained research assistants administered the scale following a detailed testing protocol. The number of students at test sites varied depending on the number of students available on the testing day. At the beginning of administration the examiner read the instructions aloud. Students were directed to read the written instruction on each subscale very carefully and answer every question in the way that was most true of them. Participants were told that there was no right or wrong answer but that it was important to answer honestly. Participants were assured that no one will know their responses since their names were not on the tests. Students were asked to answer the items silently while sitting on their chairs but to raise their hands if they faced any difficulty reading or understanding an item.

Results

The results of the present study involved the computation of the coefficients of reliability and validity of FRCS. Initially, Cronbach's alpha was computed to determine the internal consistency reliability of the instrument. The results are presented in Table-3 through Table-6. The reliability coefficients are quite comparable to those reported in the original instruments. Additionally, we computed corrected item-to-total correlations for each inventory to see how individual item goes with the total score.

Item analysis: The construct validity of a scale can be measured by assessing the correlation between individual item score and total test score. For the FRCS, primarily the 39 items were thoroughly analyzed and corrected item- total correlation was determined. From the corrected item-total correlation value of 39 items were found to have significant item validity in the context of Bangladesh (see Table-3). Additionally, data were computed 1st Phase (Pre-testing I) and 2nd Phase (Pre-testing II) corrected item-to-total correlations for each inventory to see how individual item goes with the total score (see Table-4).

Table 3
Item-Total Statistics and the Reliability of Final step of FRCS in Field Test Sample

Items of FRCS	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Items of FRCS	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
1	.214	.889	21	.519	.884
2	.547	.883	22	.498	.884
3	.367	.886	23	.505	.884
4	.262	.888	24	.513	.884
5	.292	.887	25	.458	.885
6	.491	.884	26	.207	.889
7	.365	.886	27	.750	.879
8	.393	.886	28	.684	.881
9	.318	.887	29	.475	.884
10	.549	.883	30	.604	.883
11	.513	.884	31	.793	.878
12	.684	.881	32	.310	.887
13	.511	.884	33	.249	.888
14	.297	.887	34	.282	.895
15	.251	.891	35	.276	.894
16	.208	.890	36	.210	.890
17	.480	.884	37	.205	.889
18	.304	.887	38	.476	.884
19	.636	.882	39	.084	.890
20	.634	.882			

Note. Total scale $\alpha = .888$

Table 4
Item Reliability of the Sub-scale and Scale of 1st Phase and 2nd Phase Sample

Sub-scale and Scale	Alpha	
	1 st Phase (N=50)	2 nd Phase (N=80)
Beliefs about Family (Items 10)	.646	.651
Deviant Beliefs (Items 5)	.666	.689
Cohesion (Items 12)	.647	.665
Structure (Items 12)	.652	.661

Cronbach alpha

In the scale of FRCS, responses of three alternative sub scales are measured. Thus to measure the reliability of the scale Cronbach alpha method was used. The Cronbach alpha was found 0.868. This value is highly significant with an alpha level of 0.01 (Table 5).

Table 5
Reliability of the Sub-scale and Scale of Field Test Sample

Total	FRCS Alpha (N of Items 39)				
					.888 (130)
Sub Scales	Beliefs about Family (Items 10)	Deviant Beliefs (Items 5)	Cohesion (Items 12)	Structure (Items 12)	
Alpha	.662 (130)	.701 (130)	.689 (130)	.670 (130)	

Note: Scores in parentheses indicate number of participants.

The results of the present study involved the computation of the coefficients of reliability and validity of each sub-scale. Initially, Cronbach's alpha is determine the internal consistency reliability of the instrument. The results in Table 2 show reliability separately for the sub-scales and total scale. The reliability coefficients are quite comparable to those reported in the original instrument. To examine whether scores of FRCS are stable over time, investigators administered them twice on a total of 16 students with an interval of 12 days. The interval was so chosen as to minimize the possibility of large fluctuations in The Family Relationships Characteristics of the students between two administrations (see Table 6). Research suggests that test-retest interval for measures used with students should be shorter (e.g., 1 week) if characteristics being measured fluctuate substantially over time due to rapid developmental changes (Mitchell, Crosby, Wonderlich, & Adson, 2000; McCauley, 2001).

Table 6
Test-Retest Reliability Coefficients for Each Inventory of FRC with an Interval of 12 Days (N = 15)

Family Relationship Characteristics Scale	First Testing		Second Testing		t test
	M	SD	M	SD	
Beliefs about Family	29.84	6.01	30.69	6.55	0.69
Deviant Beliefs	15.02	3.19	14.12	3.39	0.47
Cohesion	37.21	7.62	36.76	7.15	0.56
Structure	34.98	7.11	35.40	7.17	0.87

Coefficients of correlations between the two sets of data were computed for each subscale to see the temporal stability of the test scores. Additionally, the researchers computed *t* statistic to see the changes of scores over time.

Correlation among the subscale

Reliability refers to the degree to which measurements can be repeated that's why it can be assumed that the scores of each subscale will be significantly correlated with each other. The Inventory of family relationship characteristics has three subscales.

Table 7*Inter-Correlations among the Sub-scales of the FRCS for the Field Test Sample (N = 130)*

Variable	1	2	3	4
1 Beliefs about Family				
2 Deviant Beliefs	.659** (130)			
3 Cohesion	.763** (130)	.747** (130)		
4 Structure	.609** (130)	.735** (130)	.780** (130)	

Note: Numbers in Parentheses represent sample sizes.

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Discussion

To assess validity of the instruments, the researchers determined inter-correlations among the subscale of FRCS. These provided evidences for the internal structure of the instrument. Overall, inventory scores were significantly correlated with each other within the field test group. Among the inventories, correlations between the Beliefs about Family, Deviant Beliefs, Cohesion and Structure were the highest ranging from .609 to .780 for the whole sample (see Tables 7). A notably high correlation was observed between scores on the Cohesion and Structure among the whole sample ($r = .780$). Correlations between scores on the Structure and the other subscales were significant for the whole sample (see Tables 7). These again were comparable to those of the original version of the instrument.

One of the most serious limitations was the difficulty to collect information from all corners of Bangladesh. When some participants knew that they will not be benefited from this research directly then they showed their unwillingness to the researcher and didn't co-operate properly. The sample was non representative and also small in number. Some limitations like lack of financial support, time, resource, logistic support and manpower hindered the study in different ways. If the above limitations can be overcome then, it will be easy for future researchers to conduct this type of research with more perfection.

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Appendix

Family Relationship Characteristics

No	Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Family togetherness is very important.				
2	Kids should value a close relationship with their family and not have to be asked to spend time at home.				
3	No matter what, family members should stick together.				
4	Family members should be able to speak their minds with one another.				
5	Parents should teach their children what they need to know to make it in the world.				

<i>No</i>	<i>Items</i>	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>
6	Children should always talk to their parents with respect.				
7	Kids should obey their parents even when they don't agree with them.				
8	Parents should expect kids my age (kid's _____ age) to do some work around the house.				
9	Kids my age (kid's _____ age) should call home if they think they might be late.				
10	Kids my age (kid's _____ age) should clean up for themselves without having to be told.				
11	It's O. K. to lie to someone if it will keep you out of trouble with them.				
12	It's O. K. to steal something from someone who is rich and can easily replace it.				
13	It's O. K. to skip school every once in a while.				
14	It's O. K. to fight if the other guy says bad enough things about you or your family.				
15	My family knows what I mean when I say something.				
16	My family and I have the same views about what is right and wrong.				
17	I am able to let others in the family know how I really feel.				
18	My family and I have the same views about being successful.				
19	I'm available when others in the family want to talk to me.				
20	I listen to what other family members have to say, even when I disagree.				
21	Family members ask each other for help.				
22	Family members like to spend free time with each other.				
23	Family members feel very close to each other.				

<i>No</i>	<i>Items</i>	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>
24	We can easily think of things to do together as a family.				
25	Family members attend church, synagogue, Sunday school, or other religious activities fairly often.				
26	We often talk about the religious meaning of Christmas, Passover, or other holidays.				
27	My family expects too much of me.				
28	My family doesn't care about me.				
29	I often don't understand what other family members are saying.				
30	If someone in the family has upset me, I keep it to myself.				
31	I have trouble accepting someone else's answer to a family problem.				
32	My family doesn't let me be myself.				
33	I am tired of being blamed for family problems.				
34	The children make the decisions in our family.				
35	It is hard to identify the leaders in our family.				
36	It is hard to tell who does which household chores.				
37	I sometimes get headaches or other aches and pains after I fight with my family.				
38	I sometimes use feeling sick to get out of doing something.				
39	When you feel someone is out to get you, it's better to get them first.				

পারিবারিক সম্পর্কের বৈশিষ্ট্যসমূহ

নির্দেশনা : অনুগ্রহ করে নিচের বিবৃতিসমূহ পড়ুন। কতগুলো বক্তব্য দেয়া আছে। প্রত্যেকটি বক্তব্যের ৫টি উত্তর দেয়া থাকবে, আপনাকে সেখান থেকে যে কোন একটি নির্বাচন করতে হবে যেটি আপনার জন্য প্রযোজ্য। আপনার দেওয়া তথ্যগুলো গোপন রাখা হবে এবং সেগুলো শুধুমাত্র গবেষণার কাজে ব্যবহার করা হবে। আপনার সহযোগীতার জন্য ধন্যবাদ।

ক্রমিক নং	পদ / বিবৃতি সমূহ	সম্পূর্ণ ভিন্নমত	ভিন্নমত	একমত	সম্পূর্ণ একমত
১	পারিবারিক একতা খুবই গুরুত্বপূর্ণ।				
২	কিশোরদের পারিবারিক সম্পর্কের মূল্যায়ন করা উচিত এবং তাদের বাসায় থাকার ব্যাপারে কোন বাধ্যবাধকতা থাকা উচিত নয়।				
৩	পরিবারের সবাইকে এক সাথে থাকা জরুরি নয়।				
৪	পরিবারের সদস্যদের মনের কথা একে অন্যের কাছে প্রকাশ করার সুযোগ থাকা উচিত।				
৫	পিতা-মাতার তাদের সন্তানদের পৃথিবী সম্পর্কিত প্রয়োজনীয় জ্ঞান দান করা উচিত।				
৬	কিশোরদের পিতা-মাতাকে সম্মান রেখে কথা বলা উচিত।				
৭	কিশোরদের পিতা-মাতাকে মান্য করা উচিত এমনকি পিতা-মাতার সাথে একমত না হলেও।				
৮	আমার বয়সের ছেলে-মেয়েরা বাড়ির কিছু কাজ করবে এমনটিই পিতা-মাতা প্রত্যাশা করতে পারে।				
৯	বাসায় ফিরতে দেরি হওয়ার সম্ভাবনা থাকলে, আমার বয়সী ছেলে-মেয়েদের বাসায় ফোন করে জানানো উচিত।				
১০	কারো বলার অপেক্ষায় না থেকে আমার বয়সী ছেলে-মেয়েদেরও নিজের পরিষ্কার পরিচ্ছন্নতার কাজগুলো নিজেকেই করা উচিত।				
১১	কারো সাথে বামেলা এড়ানোর জন্য তার সাথে মিথ্যা কথা বলা দোষের নয়।				
১২	ধনী ও সামর্থ্যবানদের কাছ থেকে কোন কিছু চুরি করা দোষের নয়।				
১৩	মাঝে মাঝে বিদ্যালয় পালানো দোষের নয়।				
১৪	তোমার অথবা তোমার পরিবার সম্পর্কে কেউ খারাপ কিছু বললে তার সাথে ঝগড়া করা দোষের নয়।				
১৫	আমি কি বুঝতে চাই, আমার পরিবার সেটা বুঝতে পারে।				

ক্রমিক নং	পদ / বিবৃতি সমূহ	সম্পূর্ণ ভিন্নমত	ভিন্নমত	একমত	সম্পূর্ণ একমত
১৬	কোনটি সঠিক আর কোনটি ভুল এ ব্যাপারে আমার মতামত ও আমার পরিবারের মতামত একই।				
১৭	আমি সত্যিকার ভাবে কেমন অনুভব করি, তা পরিবারের অন্যান্য সদস্যরা বুঝতে পারে।				
১৮	সফল হওয়ার ব্যাপারে আমার এবং আমার পরিবারের দৃষ্টিভঙ্গি একই।				
১৯	পরিবারের কেউ আমার সাথে কথা বলতে চাইলে আমাকে সহজেই পায়।				
২০	আমি একমত না হলেও পরিবারের অন্যান্য সদস্যদের কথা শুনে থাকি।				
২১	পরিবারের সদস্যরা একে অন্যের কাছে সাহায্য চেয়ে থাকে।				
২২	পরিবারের সদস্যরা একে অন্যের সাথে অবসর সময় কাটাতে পছন্দ করে।				
২৩	পরিবারের প্রত্যেককে একে অন্যের সান্নিধ্য অনুভব করে।				
২৪	কোন কাজ সবাই এক সাথে করার কথা, আমরা সহজেই ভাবতে পারি।				
২৫	পরিবারের সদস্যরা প্রায়ই বিভিন্ন ধর্মীয় অনুষ্ঠানে অংশগ্রহণ করে থাকে।				
২৬	আমরা প্রায়ই বিভিন্ন ধর্মীয় বিষয় নিয়ে আলোচনা করে থাকি।				
২৭	আমার পরিবার আমার কাছ থেকে খুব বেশি প্রত্যাশা করে।				
২৮	আমার পরিবার আমার প্রতি যত্নশীল নয়।				
২৯	পরিবারের অন্য সদস্যরা কি বলছে, আমি প্রায়ই তা বুঝতে পারি না।				
৩০	পরিবারের কেউ আমাকে কষ্ট দিলে আমি তা গোপন রাখি।				
৩১	পারিবারিক সমস্যার ব্যাপারে অন্য কারো মতামত আমি গ্রহণ করতে অসমর্থ হই।				
৩২	আমার পরিবার আমাকে আমার মত থাকতে দেয় না।				
৩৩	পারিবারিক সমস্যার ব্যাপারে আমাকে দায়ী করা হয় বলে আমি খুব ক্লান্ত।				
৩৪	আমাদের পরিবারের কিশোররা সিদ্ধান্ত গ্রহণ করে।				

ক্রমিক নং	পদ / বিবৃতি সমূহ	সম্পূর্ণ ভিন্নমত	ভিন্নমত	একমত	সম্পূর্ণ একমত
৩৫	আমাদের পরিবারের প্রধান নির্বাচন করা কঠিন ।				
৩৬	পরিবারের কে কোন কাজ করবে তা বলা কঠিন ।				
৩৭	মাঝে মাঝে পরিবারের সাথে তর্ক করে আমি মাথা ব্যথাসহ নানা শারীরিক অসুস্থতায় ভুগি ।				
৩৮	কোন কিছু করতে গেলে আমি মাঝে মাঝে অসুস্থ হয়ে পড়ি ।				
৩৯	যখন তুমি বুঝতে পারো কেউ তোমাকে খুজছে, তখন তার আগে তুমি তাকে খুজে নিতে সাচ্ছন্দ্য বোধ করি ।				

The Relationship of Happiness and Depression with Self-Control

Farjana Ahmed¹, Md. Asadujjaman Raju² & ASM Azizul Islam³

Abstract

The objectives of the study were, i) to investigate whether there is any relationship between happiness and self control and ii) any relationship between depression and self control. The data was collected from the 200 students those who were purposively selected from Jagannath University, Dhaka University, and National University respectively. The instruments used in this study were Personal Information Questionnaire, Bangla version of Happiness Questionnaire (Hills & Argyle, 2002), Bangla version (Uddin & Rahman, 2005) of Depression Scale and Bangla version of Self-control Questionnaire (Tangney, Baumeister & Boone, 2004). The result showed that there is a significant positive correlation between happiness and self control, and negative correlation between depression and self control.

Key-words: self-control, happiness, depression, life satisfaction, self-regulation

Sometimes, individuals experience strong impulses, emotions, or thoughts to enact behaviors that diverge from their personal goals or social norms. They might, for example, want to save money, consume healthy food, work diligently, fulfill their promises, and suppress their anger. They often need to suppress or control impulses that deviate from these goals. The capacity to inhibit these impulses, emotions, thoughts, or behaviors is called self control (e.g., Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1994). Self-control is the ability to control one's emotions, behavior, and desires in order to obtain some reward, or avoid some punishment. Presumably, some (smaller) reward or punishment is operating in the short term which precludes, or reduces, the later reward or punishment. In psychology, human self-control research is typically modeled by using a token economy system in which human participants choose between tokens for one choice and using obtained for humans and non-humans, with the latter appearing to maximize their overall reinforcement despite delays, with the former being sensitive to changes in delay. Self-control varies widely and includes delay of gratification, effortful control, willpower, executive control, time preference, self-discipline, self-regulation, and ego strength. Moffitt et al., 2011 used (1) the term self-control synonymously with conscientiousness, a large class of personality traits that includes responsibility, industriousness, and orderliness (2) Self-controlled individuals are more adept than their impulsive counterparts at regulating their behavioral, emotional, and attentional impulses to achieve long-term goals.

¹ Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka, Bangladesh E-mail: ahmedfarjana@gmail.com

² MS Student, Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka, Bangladesh

³ Ph.D., Fellow, Bangladesh University Grant Commission, Dhaka

Depression is a state of low mood and aversion to activity that can affect a person's thoughts, behavior, feelings and sense of well-being. Depressed people may feel sad, anxious, empty, hopeless, worried, helpless, worthless, guilty, irritable, hurt, or restless. They may lose interest in activities that once were pleasurable, experience loss of appetite or overeating, have problems concentrating, remembering details, or making decisions, and may contemplate or attempt suicide. Insomnia, excessive sleeping, fatigue, loss of energy, or aches, pains, or digestive problems that are resistant to treatment may also be present. Depressed mood is not necessarily a psychiatric disorder. It may be a normal reaction to certain life events, a symptom of some medical conditions, or a side effect of some drugs or medical treatments. Depressed mood is also a primary or associated feature of certain psychiatric syndromes such as clinical depression.

Happiness is a mental or emotional state of well-being characterized by positive or pleasant emotions ranging from contentment to intense joy. A variety of biological, psychological, religious, and philosophical approaches have striven to define happiness and identify its sources. Various research groups, including positive psychologists, endeavor to apply the scientific method to answer questions about what "happiness" is, and how it might be attained. It is of such fundamental importance to the human condition that "life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness" were deemed to be unalienable rights by the independence. The 2012 World Happiness Report stated that in subjective well-being measures, the primary distinction is between cognitive life evaluations and emotional reports.

Wilhelm Hofmann and his team (2004) of researchers at the University of Chicago stated that self control is one of humanity's most valuable assets— not only because it allows us to be better people, but because it makes us happier. As part of this study, 414 adults completed an online survey, in which they rated their self-control by indicating how much they agreed with 14 statements, for example: "I do certain things that are bad for me, if they are fun". They were also asked to rate their current emotional state, as well as their overall life happiness.

Then, 205 adults were given smartphones and prompted to report their emotions at random moments throughout the week. At the same time, they were also asked to report whether they were experiencing any desires, and if so, how hard did they try to resist them, and if they ultimately acted on them. The results were found, yet conclusive— the more self control people have, the more satisfied they reported being with their lives— not only in the long run, but also in the short run! According to TIME journalist Maia Szalavitz (2013) in an article entitled "Self-Disciplined People are Happier than (and Not as Deprived as You Think)," there is a direct link between self-discipline and fulfillment:

More than 230 participants were asked to list three important goal conflicts they experienced regularly. They were then asked to rate how strongly the goals conflicted, how frequently they experienced the conflict, and how they managed to balance their goals. The highly self-control showed a distinct difference from those with less discipline over their lives. They tended to avoid creating situations in which their goals would conflict and reported fewer

instances of having to choose between short-term pleasure and long-term pain. They experienced fewer negative emotions. Further, the study shows that self-control doesn't always mean self-denial. It may mean saving now to get a big payoff later. In short, "self-control isn't the best route to instant gratification, but it may bring something even better: long-term contentment."

Rationale of the study

Self control is the ability to exercise restraint or control over one's feelings, emotions, reactions, etc. Depression & happiness are two aspects of self control which affect the whole control of the individual in phase of feelings, emotions or reactions. In this way depression and happiness can play a vital role on self control. So the aim of this research is to identify the relationship of happiness and depression with self-control.

Objectives of the study

The objectives of the present study were-

1. to investigate whether there is any relationship between happiness and self control;
2. to investigate whether there is any relationship between depression and self control.

Method

Sample

The participants of the present study comprised of 200 adults. They were taken purposively from different institutions, such as Dhaka University, Jagannath University, and National University. In selecting participant's age, sex and educational status were considered as per objectives.

Instruments

The following instruments were used for collecting data:

Personal Information Questionnaire: Personal information of participant as age, sex and educational status were collected by a questionnaire.

Bangla version of Happiness Questionnaire: Happiness Questionnaire was developed by psychologists Hills Peter and Argyle Michale (2002) at Oxford University. Calculation process of score: Step 1- Items marked (R) should be scored in reverse: If subject give a "1," cross it out and change it to a "6.", Change "2" to a "5", Change "3" to a "4", Change "4" to a "3", Change "5" to a "2", Change "6" to a "1". Step 2- by adding the numbers for all 29 questions. (Use the converted numbers for the 12 items that are reverse scored.). Step 3- Divided by 29. So happiness score is the total (from step 2) of divided by 29. The questionnaire was translated in to Bangla. Then English and Bangla versions of the scale were administered to 50 participants with an interval of 7 days. Significant positive correlation ($r = .822$) was obtained between scores of English and Bangla versions indicating high translation reliability of the scale.

Bangla version of Depression Scale: Bangla version (Zahir Uddin and Mahmudur Rahman, 2005) of Depression Scale was used to measure depression. The scale is a 5 point Likert-type consisting of 30 items. The response options are “not at all applicable = 1”, “not applicable = 2”, and “Uncertain = 3”, a bit applicable = 4”, and “totally applicable = 5”. All items were scored in positive direction. Total score of any individual was obtained from sum total of scores of all the 30 items. A high score indicates higher depression. The adapted translating reliability is 0.67.

Bangla version of Self-control Questionnaire: Self control questionnaire by Tangney, Baumeister & Boone (2004) was used for measuring self-control. Participants answered 10 of Tangney et al., (2004) self control items as part of a study on consumption behavior. since Tangney et al., (2004) have a longer (36 item) and shorter (13 item) version of the measure, both of which correlate similarly across behavior. The key measures of interest were from responses to each of the 10 items on a scale of Not at all like me = 5 to Very much like me = 1 Item 4, 5, 6 were reverse scoring. By adding all the points and divided by 10 we get the score of the scale. Maximum score in this scale is 5 (extremely self-controlled) and the lowest score on this scale is 1 (not at all self-controlled). The questionnaire was translated in to Bangla. Then English and Bangla versions of the scale were administered to 50 participants with an interval of 7 days. Significant positive correlation ($r = .756$) was obtained between scores of English and Bangla versions indicating high translation reliability of the scale.

Procedure

Data of the present study were collected individually. Necessary level of rapport was established before administrating the questionnaire. The participants were ensured this answer will be completely anonymous as well confidential and will be used only for research purpose. The participants are requested to fill up the personal information sheet carefully. Then they are told to leave the first page and please try to give the following questions answer. They were instructed to complete their task according to the instruction. They were asking to give tick (\checkmark) mark in the appropriate box. Then the answer sheets were collected from them. In this way data were collected from other workers.

Results

Data were analyzed by means of some statistical point of view, as such; Mean, Standard Deviation and Co-relation were calculated. They are presented in the Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 1

Distribution feature as central tendency and its deviation (M= Mean, SD=standard deviation, Number=200)

Variables	M	SD
Happiness	1.191	14.598
Depression	77.875	17.329
Self-control	3.260	1.385

Table 2
Correlations of self-control with Happiness & Depression

Correlation of self control with	r	Significant level
Happiness	.394	.000
Depression	-.496	.000

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 2 shows the correlation of self-control with happiness and depression. Table shows that there is a significant co-relation of self-control with happiness & depression. Here we can see there is positive correlation ($r = .394$) between happiness and self control which indicate if people feel happy then their self control is good and there is negative correlation ($r = -.496$) between depression and self-control which means if the people feel depressed then their self control is weak.

Discussion

The Objectives of the present study were, to investigate whether there is any relationship between happiness and self control, and any relationship between depression and self control. A total of 200 students were taken from various universities of Bangladesh as the sample for the current study. Three standard questionnaires were used in the present study. The findings showed a significant co-relation with happiness and self control as well a negative correlation with depression and self-control. This result indicates if people feel happy then their self control poses well. On the other hand if the people feel depressed then their self control is weak.

Depression can impact on individuals at any level of age. People with frequent depression also have weak self control. The causes of depression appear to be complicated. While there may be a biochemical cause, meaning that certain chemicals as neurotransmitters in the brain may be low. It is not clear if the low level of the neurotransmitter is the primary cause of the depression, or simply a marker for the cause of depression. When people feel depressed then they have no much control on self. This study reveals that people with good self-control, or an ability to refrain from acting on impulses, are happier. Additionally, it found that self-control is linked to healthy weight management, academic success, financial success, and healthier relationships. Once people meet their basic needs of food, shelter, and comfort our life becomes concern about maximizing happiness. The challenge is that we often get lost our requirements then we feel depressed. According to our research more self-control people reported having, the more satisfied they reported being with their lives. And contrary what the researchers were expecting, people with more self-control were also more likely to be happy for the short-term.

Depressed people often find it very difficult to motivate themselves and often reject new interests and activities without trying them or after one attempt. But even happy people don't enjoy interests without first cultivating them. People often don't enjoy a new activity right

away. Instead, it may take time to become accustomed to a new activity and for interest and pleasure to grow. People may need to learn to relax in the new situation or to develop some expertise or skill before we can learn to enjoy it.

Negative thinking habits play a very important role in getting depression. Research shows depressed people tend to minimize their accomplishments, talents, and qualities. They tend to see themselves as inferior and incompetent, despite being comparable to other people in qualities and skills. Their thinking habits focus on or exaggerate problems and faults and minimize or fail to see the good things in their lives. They tend to recall negative things more often than positive ones, and they tend to minimize, overlook, or forget feelings of pleasure in their lives. They may feel preoccupied with loss or personal problems, perhaps wallowing in thoughts about self-pity, inability to cope, or escaping their problems.

Happy people experience failure, disappointment, rejection, negative emotions, pain, and great sorrows, too, just like depressed people. But happy people keep a positive attitude by gracefully accepting sadness and suffering as normal parts of life, while doing what they can about their problems. This also makes them more pleasant to be around and improves their social lives. Part of happiness is a courageous choice of loving life in the face of suffering, a chosen position or view of things.

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Adolescents Beliefs about Conflict and Gender Stereotyping in Relation to Gender and Streams of Education

Md. Ali Hossain¹ & Md. Nore Nobi Nirobe²

Abstract

The purpose of the present study was to study adolescents beliefs about conflict and gender stereotyping in relation to gender and streams of education. A sample of 150 adolescents was selected from 2 general medium, 2 English medium and 2 madrasah medium school located in Dhaka city. They were purposively selected from the readily available respondents. 50 (25 male and 25 female) adolescents were taken from each stream and cross-sectional survey design was followed to conduct the study. Translated Bangla version of "Beliefs about conflict" (Division of adolescent and school health, CDC, 1993) and Translated Bangla version of "Gender stereotyping scale" (Gunter & Wober, 1982) were used in this study. It was found that there was no significant difference in beliefs about conflict of adolescents according to their gender, but there was a significant difference in the beliefs about conflict of adolescents in relation to their educational streams. In terms of gender stereotyping, significant differences was found in relation to gender and also their educational streams of adolescents. Results also showed that male students have more gender stereotype than female and madrasah students have more gender stereotype than the other streams (General and English).

Key-words: Beliefs, conflict, gender stereotyping

Education has been recognized as an investment not only for creating human capital, but also for inducing social change and promoting overall development. This vision of education as a proactive intervention for desired change got grudging recognition over time in development thinking; although, the case for emphasizing labor productivity for creating surplus for investment has been advocated by Adam Smith and others since the 18th century. Bangladesh Development Plans followed the constitutional directive principles about education which recognized the responsibility of the state in establishing a uniform, mass oriented universal system of education which would relate education to the needs of society and promote values including patriotism, humanism and an urge to perform in a competitive world without losing compassion and caring virtues.

The streams of education in Bangladesh are divided into three different branches. Students are free to choose any of these branches provided that they have the means. These branches are: The English Medium, The Bengali Medium, and The Religious Branch. The term beliefs means inward convictions, a feeling of certainty about what something means. They are what

¹ Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka-1100, Bangladesh E-mail: nirobdu@gmail.com

² MS Student, Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka-1100, Bangladesh

you hold dear and are rooted deeply within. A belief is both mental and emotional state. It is imbedded in the mind and in the heart. Conflicts occur when people (or other parties) perceive that, as a consequence of a disagreement, there is a threat to their needs, interests or concerns. Although conflict is a normal part of organizational life, providing numerous opportunities for growth through improved understanding and insight, there is a tendency to view conflict as a negative experience caused by abnormally difficult circumstances.

Considering differences in gender (i.e. between males and females), there is often a differentiation made between two sets of influences: the biological, which consists of genetic and physiological factors and the environmental, including learning, social and cultural determinants. Greenglass (1982) defines gender and gender-roles as being culturally assigned to an individual on the basis of sex. Gender refers to an individual's status as feminine, masculine or androgynous; and gender-roles include the prescribed behaviors, attitudes and characteristics culturally associated with a particular gender.

The perpetration of certain attitudes or behavioral bias against certain individuals because of their membership in a specific sexual category is referred to as "sex-role stereotyping" (Zegman, 1979). Because of the adoption of Unger's (1979) and Greenglass (1982) definitions of gender and sex, this term will be modified to read gender-role stereotyping. These stereotypes are resistant to change and are often approved of and considered ideal (Cooley, Chauvin & Karnes, 1984).

Studies (Meehan & Janik, 1990; Susskind, 2003) have demonstrated that illusory correlation operates in 2nd- and 4th-grade children in a way that is consistent with developing gender stereotypes. Furthermore, these studies indicated that children's tendency to gender stereotype creates distortions in their memory for gender-related information. The perception of correlations can be an important factor in maintaining stereotypes for both children and adults; when people believe that activities are related to one or the other gender, and then they feel comfortable in thinking in terms of these categorizations. This perceptual bias acts to maintain stereotypes.

Susskind (2003) indicated that children do not ignore counter stereotypical information, and the presentation of such information may be a way to diminish gender stereotyping. Thus, when children see fathers cooking and mothers performing home repairs, these observations may act to decrease stereotyping by breaking down illusory correlations. Gender stereotyping follows age-related trends similar to the development of other gender knowledge. That is, younger children show less gender stereotyping than older children (Durkin & Nugent, 1998), men are subject to harsher stereotyping than women, and girls stereotype less strongly than boys.

Rationale of the study

The study applies the adolescent students, for them to see the difference between their beliefs about conflict and gender stereotyping to assess their violence related beliefs, behaviors and influences in relation to gender and streams of education.

Thus, the research question was to specify whether there is any significant difference in beliefs about conflicts and gender stereotyping of adolescent in relation to their gender and educational streams?

Objectives

There are some objectives in the present study which are given here in:

- To see whether there is any significant relation between beliefs about conflict and gender stereotyping of adolescents.
- To see whether there is any differences of beliefs about conflict of the adolescents in relation to gender.
- To see whether there is any differences of gender stereotyping of the adolescents in relation to gender.
- To see whether there is any differences of beliefs about conflict of the adolescents in relation to different streams of education.
- To see whether there is any differences of gender stereotyping of the adolescents in relation to different streams of education.

Method

Participants

A total of 150 adolescent (Age 14 to below 18 years) students participated in the present study. They were purposively selected from the readily available participants. Among the participants 50 students (25 male, 25 female) were from general educational streams (Adarsha Biddya Niketon, Manikdee & Balughat High School and College), 50 students (25 male, 25 female) were from English educational streams (Golden Eagle English Medium School & Shaheen English medium School), 50 students (25 male, 25 female) were from Madrasah educational streams (Manikdee Islamia senior Madrasah & Al Kashim Islamia Madrasah) from Dhaka City.

Instruments

Beliefs About Conflict-NYC Youth Violence Survey Scale- Beliefs about conflict-NYC youth violence survey scale (Division of Adolescent and School Health (DASH), Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion, 1993) was used to assess beliefs about conflict of adolescents. The items of the scale were translated by many researchers and university teachers. Then the researchers choose the best one to use in this study. It is a 9-item scale. Items can be considered separately or as an index of beliefs about conflict resolution. If considered separately, point values are assigned to correspond to the response categories. To create an index using items 2-9, point values can be assigned as follows: Yes = 3, don't know = 2 and No = 1. Items 3 and 5 should be reverse coded. Scores are derived by summing across all responses. A total of 24 points is possible, with high scores indicating poor conflict resolution beliefs.

Gender Stereotyping Scale

Gender stereotyping (Gunter & Wober, 1982) was used to measure gender stereotyping of adolescents. The items of the scale were translated by many researchers and university teachers. Then the researchers choose the best one to use in this study. Internal consistency of this scale is 0.55 (Foshee & Bauman, 1992). It is a 7-item scale. Point values for items 1-6 are assigned as follows: Strongly agree = 4, Agree = 3, Disagree = 2, and strongly disagree = 1. Item 7 should be reverse coded. Point values are summed for each respondent and divided by the number of items. The intended range of scores is 1-4, with a higher score indicating a more stereotypical attitude.

Procedure

The questionnaire was administered individually. Necessary rapport was established before administering the questionnaire. Data were collected through questionnaires survey method. For administering instruments, each participant was given the appropriate instructions. To invite the interest of the respondent to participate in the research, researchers discussed with the respondent about the Adolescents Beliefs about Conflict and Gender Stereotyping. After that respondent were given a questionnaire. At first, they fill-up their educational background information such as- institutional type, and gender etc. After that they answered the statement, researcher informed the participants that their answer will be completely anonymous and confidential and will be used only for research purpose. Respondents were allowed to ask questions freely if they had regarding any item of the scale. Finally, every individual respondent were given thanks for helping the research.

Results

By analyzing the data through with SPSS 16, following results obtained:

Table 1

Mean and SD of Beliefs about Conflict and Gender Stereotyping

	N	Mean	SD
Beliefs about conflict	150	15.32	3.46
Gender stereotyping	150	18.85	3.01

In Table-1, the mean scores and standard deviation of beliefs about conflict and gender stereotyping of adolescents are shown. It was found that the mean and standard deviation of belief about conflict were 15.32 and 3.46 respectively. Mean and std. deviation of Gender stereotyping were 18.85 and 3.01 respectively.

Table 2

Pearson's product moment correlation between Beliefs about conflict and Gender stereotyping

Variable	r-value
Beliefs about conflict × Gender stereotyping	0.20*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

In Table-2, Correlation between beliefs about conflict and gender stereotyping is 0.20 which is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3

Mean differences of Beliefs about conflict and Gender stereotyping in relation to Gender

		N	Mean	SD	df	t	Significant level (2-tailed)
Beliefs About Conflict	Male	75	15.52	3.62	148	.707	.481
	Female	75	15.12	3.30	148		
Gender Stereotyping	Male	75	19.47	3.14	148	2.540	.012
	Female	75	18.24	2.76	148		

In Table-3, beliefs about conflict of adolescents by Gender (Mean of male = 15.52 and Mean of female = 15.12) is not significant. Gender stereotyping of adolescents by gender (Mean of male = 19.47 and Mean of female = 18.24) is significant, which is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4

Mean differences of Beliefs about Conflict and Gender stereotyping in relation to streams of education

		N	Mean	SD	Sum of squares	df	F	Significant level (2-tailed)
Beliefs About Conflict	General	50	15.98	3.53	Between groups	88.92	2	3.85 0.02 3
	Madrasah	50	15.74	3.48				
	English	50	14.24	3.17	Within groups	1695.7 2	147	
	Total	150	15.32	3.46				
Gender Stereotype	General	50	19.32	3.13	Between groups	223.69	2	14.59 0.00
	Madrasah	50	20.06	2.57				
	English	50	17.18	2.57	Within groups	1127.0 8	147	
	Total	150	18.85	3.01				

In table-4, Beliefs about conflict of adolescents by their educational streams (Mean of General stream = 15.98, Mean of Madrasah stream = 15.74, and Mean of English medium stream = 14.24) is significant, which is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). And Gender stereotyping of adolescents by their educational streams (Mean of General stream = 19.32, Mean of Madrasah stream = 20.06, and Mean of English stream = 17.18) is significant (2-tailed).

Discussion

The objective of the present study was to see beliefs about conflict and gender stereotyping of adolescents, Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient was used and t-Test and ANOVA were performed to see the significant differences. As shown in the table-1, it was found that, maximum adolescent's beliefs were poor about conflict, and maximum adolescents attitude were more stereotypical. As shown in the table-2, it was found that correlation between beliefs about conflict and gender stereotyping of adolescents was significant. As shown in the table-3, it was found that mean differences of beliefs about conflict according to gender is not significant, but gender stereotyping is significant according their gender. Male students are more stereotyped than female students. Possibly, it is due to their social environment as they learnt from their parents and their educational institution. The perception to the opposite gender can be an important factor in maintaining stereotypes for both children and adults; when people believe that activities are related to one or the other gender, and then they feel comfortable in thinking in terms of these categorizations. This perceptual bias acts to maintain stereotypes. However, one study (Susskind, 2003) indicated that children do not ignore counter stereotypical information, and the presentation of such information may be a way to diminish gender stereotyping. As shown in the table-4, it was found that beliefs about conflict and gender stereotyping of adolescents according to streams of educational system is significant. General institutional student's beliefs were poor about conflict. Madrasah students are more stereotyped than general and English medium students. May be it is due to their stream of education is religion centered.

However, more research is necessary in this area with more extensive sample. The sample was taken from few school in Dhaka city only. Neither the sample size of the present study was large enough but yes, it is good beginning of a pilot study. In this study, two scale-beliefs about conflict and gender stereotyping are used. Both of scales are developed in different culture in different country. It could have an impact on the country and the culture of this result.

The objective of the present study was to see whether there is any difference of Beliefs about conflict and gender stereotyping of adolescents according to gender and different streams of education in Bangladesh. Among the Adolescents violence are increasing day by day in Bangladesh. For controlling violence in Bangladesh, violence prevention specialists are working. To prevent adolescent's violence prevention specialists need to assess violence-related beliefs, behaviors, and influences. Result of this study may be helpful for violence prevention specialist to assess and reduce adolescent's violence. The nature, frequency and seriousness of violence involved cases in relation to their educational background. The findings of this study indicate that concerned professionals are to give more emphasis in curriculum development, integration of the streams.

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Adolescent Adjustment between Nuclear and Extended Families

Kishor Roy¹, Md. Mohabbat Hossain² & Ummee Habiba Shithee²

Abstract

The present study was conducted to investigate whether there is any significant difference in adjustment between adolescents from Nuclear and Extended family. The study was conducted on 80 adolescent males and females from different schools situated in urban and rural areas. Among them 40 were from nuclear family and other 40 were from extended family. An adapted Bangla version (Faruk, 1986) of Bell Adjustment Inventory (Bell, 1962) was used to collect the data from the adolescents. Obtained data were analyzed by *t*-test. The results indicate that there was a significant difference in adjustment of the adolescents from nuclear and extended family ($t = 2.18, df = 78, p < .05$). It was also found that there was a significant difference in adolescent's adjustment ($t = 2.23, df = 78, p < .05$) according to gender but no significant difference in adjustment according to area of residence ($t = .18, df = 78, p < .05$).

Key-words: Adolescence, nuclear and extended family

Every human being belongs to a family. Changing the way people in the family are related to each other leads to changes in the individuals. At the same time it demands adjustment on many fronts. This study will help to understand the nature of adolescence and the challenges and major tasks faced by adolescents, the influences that shape them and some of the important problems faced by adolescents. The word adolescence comes from the Latin verb adolescence, which means to grow or to grow to maturity. Adolescence is a period of transition when the individual changes physically and psychologically from a child to an adult. Period of life from puberty to adulthood characterized by marked physiological changes, development of sexual feelings, efforts toward the construction of identity, and a progression from concrete to abstract thought (Macmillan Dictionary, 1981). It is a period demanding significant adjustment to the physical and social changes which distinguish childhood behavior from adult behavior. Marking off the beginning of adolescence is difficult because the age of sexual maturing varies greatly. On the average the period of adolescence extends from 13 to 18 years for girls and from 14 to 18 years for boys (Hurlock, 1973).

Very noticeable changes in intellectual development take place during adolescence. The adolescent becomes able to think in more abstract and logical terms. The quality of thinking in terms of great ideals also emerges during the period. The developmental tasks during this period are: achieving new and more mature relationships with age mates, achieving social

¹Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka, Bangladesh E-mail: kishorkumar433@yahoo.com

²MS Student, Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka, Bangladesh

roles i.e. becoming responsible members of society, achieving values etc. One of the most difficult developmental tasks of adolescence is related to social adjustment. To achieve the goal of socialization the adolescent seeks for acceptance in the peer group, develop new values in social acceptance and rejection, selection of social groups and leaders, and modify a social behavior according to social norm.

The physical and psychological characteristics of adolescents and the nature of developmental tasks which they are expected to perform often pose certain challenges and problems for adjustment. Adjustment is a process by which an individual achieves the best balance feasible between conflicting demands. There are various factors which contribute to make the adjustment a success or failure. According to Sinha et al., (1988), adjustment is a precarious and ever changing balance between the needs and desires of the individual on the one hand and the demands of the environment or the society on the other. The adjustment is a process of interaction between oneself and one's surrounding environment and so it is inseparably bound up with the nature of human personality. Adjustment is the process by which a living organism maintains a balance between its needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs. If the individual is able to cope with his/her wishes, desire and the circumstances and maintaining equilibrium, he/she is said to be well adjusted. The adjusted person is said to be mentally sound, who seems to be happy in every walk of life. On the other hand, a maladjusted person is disturbed with marked failures in life and unsatisfactory relations with others. Srivastava (1997) observed that sex and caste play an important role in adjustment. He found that male students are better adjusted than female students while scheduled caste students showed poor adjustment than that of non schedule caste students. Rahman and Rumana (2005) found that female students showed better home adjustment, less hostility, and less masculinity than their male counterpart; however, male students had better emotional adjustment than females.

Basically adolescents face problems at their home, school and society. Family is probably the most important faction of the society and also the most powerful social institution. Anthropologists most generally classify family organization as matrilocal (a mother and her children); conjugal (a husband, his wife, and children; also called nuclear family); and consanguine (also called an extended family) in which parents and children co-reside with other members of one parent's family. Nuclear families typically center on a married couple; the nuclear family may have any number of children. The term extended family defines a family that extends beyond the nuclear family, consisting of grandparents, aunts, uncles, and cousins all living nearby or in the same household. Edlund and Rahman (2005) explore household structures and child outcomes in Bangladesh and found that children are worse off living in extended families where their paternal grandfather is head of the household than in nuclear families. Nevertheless, they are better off living in households that include their grandmother. They find that children do better in terms of food allocation and education both are important determinants of human capital and future productivity, when they reside in nuclear household.

Begum and Banu (1978) observed the relationship between parental attitudes toward child rearing and children's home, health, emotional and social adjustment and found that paternal acceptance was positively related to daughters' home, health, social and emotional

adjustments. They also found that, maternal acceptance was positively related to girls' health adjustment only. Mother's high acceptance was associated with girl's poor social adjustment. Unlike girls, boys' adjustments were hardly related to their parental acceptance, except that their social adjustment was positively associated with their fathers' more accepting attitudes'. However, there is very little published work on evaluation of different aspects of adolescent's adjustment. In this communication the researchers bring into focus the observations made in this study designed to evaluate the adjustment of adolescents from nuclear and extended families.

Rationale of the study

The adolescents face many adjustment problems. The young adolescent is more of a problem to himself/herself than to others. He/she does not have any prior knowledge about his new role in life and the adjustment he or she has to make because of this new role and as a result he or she is confused, uncertain and anxious. For them this is a crisis period when they want to know themselves. The adolescent who can cope with any situation will be able to make the transition into adulthood successfully and lead a happy life. The period of adolescence is a gate way through which one passes from childhood to adulthood. Because of the importance of this particular stage of life the present study aimed to investigate adolescents' behavior. Again family is the main agent in socialization. Gender and family size are external factor which influence adjustment. The social system of Bangladesh imposes that the boys and girls should behave differently. It is apparent to the male that they will get more freedom than girls. This traditional belief leads the parents to show a different attitude towards their male and female children in Bangladesh. Traditionally the children born in extended families are supposed to have higher adjustment. Thus the present study was designed to investigate the following issues.

Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are to investigate-

1. Whether there is gender variation in adolescence adjustment.
2. Whether adjustment of the adolescent prefer due to difference in the family structure.
3. Whether the different in adolescence adjustment according to area of residence.

Method

Sample

The number of participants of the study consist 80 respondents who were selected from different schools of urban and rural areas, 40 of whom were from nuclear family and other 40 were from extended family. Each group was equally subdivided into different area of residence (rural = 20 and urban = 20). Each group was again equally subdivided into boys (N = 10) and girls (N = 10). Their age range was from 13 to 18 years and they were selected following purposive sampling technique.

Measuring instruments

The following instruments were used to collect data of the present study. Demographic and personal information questionnaire is used. This questionnaire was used to collect personal and demographic information such as age, gender, place of residence, family types, socio economic status, occupation and educational qualification of the parents.

Bell Adjustment inventory

The Bell Adjustment Inventory (BAI) is a self report of the individual's life adjustment inventory (BAI) as experiment by him or her. It was first translated in Bangla by Faruk, T. (1986). The 1952 revised edition of BAI provides six measures of personal and social adjustments: Home adjustment, Health adjustment, Submissiveness, Emotionality, Hostility, and Masculinity-femininity. The 1962 revised BAI is adapted in Bangla because this has been proven to be exceptionally useful with persons of high school and college or university levels. It is suitable for using upon both sexes. The coefficients of reliability (original inventory) for each of the sections of the inventory are: home adjustment (.89), health adjustment (.80), submissiveness (.89), emotionality (.85), hostility (.83), masculinity-femininity (.84). The English and Bengali versions of Bell Adjustment Inventory are significantly correlated at .05 levels. To verify the reliability of the adapted BAI, the reliability coefficients of the six adjustments were obtained. These coefficients are shown in the table 1.

Table 1

Reliability coefficients of the six adjustments of Bell's Adjustment Inventory

Sex	N	df	Co-efficient of reliability					
			Home	Health	Submissive	Emotional	Hostility	Mas-Fem
Male	10	8	.94	.97	.96	.82	.86	.97
Female	10	8	.92	.64	.85	.77	.85	.91

The content validity of BAI (translated) depends on the consensus judgment given by the majority of the subject oriented experts. The inventory contains 200 items. In answering question of the Adjustment Inventory, the student may indicated one of three answers: "Yes", "No", "Or"? The questionnaire was administrated to each adolescent separately. They used cross mark in "Yes", "No", "Or"?. Total number of "Yes" response to each category will be formed adjustment scores. In this method the maximum possible score can be 200 and minimum 0 points. In other words, the range of scoring will be (0 - 200) on total adjustment and higher scores indicate poorer adjustment.

Procedure

After getting permission from the authority of each school a date was fixed for collecting data. On a pre-fixed date the researcher went to a particular school. The Bell Adjustment Inventory was randomly administered to 80 students. For the collection of data the respondents were approached individually and requested to participate in the study. After having consent and establishing necessary rapport they were administered the inventory

individually. Before administration of the BAI necessary instructions were given in both written and oral formats. Then they were asked to express their feelings by putting a tick mark (✓) on the statement which they think appropriate. There was no time limit after completion the respondents were thanked for their kind co-operation.

Results

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the “adolescent adjustment between nuclear and extended families”. Obtained data were analyzed using *t*-test. The findings are presented in the following table.

Table 2

Mean, SD and t of Adjustment Scores of the Male and Female Adolescence

Adolescent adjustment	N	M	SD	df	t
Male	40	78.30	17.73	78	2.32*
Female	40	87.00	15.77		

*p < .05

Table 2 indicates that mean difference in adjustment scores of male and female adolescents is significant ($t = 2.32$) at .05 level. Moreover, it is also evident from table 2 that the mean scores obtained by the female adolescents ($M = 87.00$) is higher than the mean scores obtained by the male adolescents ($M = 78.30$).

Table 3

Mean, SD and t of Adjustment Scores of the Adolescents of Nuclear and Extended Family

Adolescent adjustment	N	M	SD	df	t
Extended family	40	86.75	16.55	78	2.18*
Nuclear family	40	78.55	17.13		

*p < .05

Table 3 indicates that mean difference in adjustment scores of nuclear and extended families adolescence is significant ($t = 2.18$) at .05 level. Moreover, it is also evident from table 3 that the mean scores obtained by the adolescents extended families ($M = 86.75$) is higher than the mean scores obtained by the adolescents in nuclear families ($M = 78.55$).

Table 4

Mean, SD and t of Adjustment Scores of the Rural and Urban Adolescents

Adolescent adjustment	N	M	SD	df	t
Rural area	40	83.00	17.07	78	.18
Urban area	40	82.30	17.62		

p < .05

Table 4 indicates that mean difference in adjustment scores of rural and urban areas adolescents is not significant ($t = .18$) at .05 level. Moreover, it is also evident from table 4 that the mean scores obtained by the rural adolescents ($M = 83.00$) is approximate to the mean scores obtained by the urban adolescents ($M = 82.30$).

Discussion

The present study was undertaken to find out whether adjustment of the adolescents differ due to difference in the family structure, and place of residence and to find out whether there is any gender difference in adolescence adjustment. In this connection, the Bangla version of the Bell Adjustment Inventory was used to collect data from 80 adolescents age between 13 to 18 years. For the sake of conveniences discussion of the findings are presented in below.

Significant mean difference in the adjustment was found between male and female adolescents, whose adjustment level is higher in male than female (table2). This finding is consistent with the findings of other researchers (Hawkins and Weis, 1985), who found significant difference between male and female where male adjustment level is high than female. Theoretically, well adjusted students who develop a positive affiliation, or social bond, with their school are more likely to remain academically engaged and less likely to become involved in school misconduct and other antisocial behaviors, than students who develop a negative affiliation with school. The child rearing practice and gender roles are different in our society. Females are deprived from many facility and males are given more freedom and attention than females. Male adolescents get more privilege than female adolescents such as in education, food and nutrition, school, books etc. Besides this, the female are less involved in social activities, communication, self-management and self-control skills, their work is considered as less important. In this way they cannot achieve sufficient competency. Social learning theory believes that there are differences in behavior of boys and girls because they are brought up in different ways. Girls are educated for maintaining the disciplines and attitude for dependency, whereas, boys are educated to be successful and independent. In our society, girls are allowed limited independence and are subjected to prejudice. They are also deprived from religious point of view. Another reason for this gender difference is that, females are less emotionally adjusted, they are more emotionally unstable, and they feel fear, guilt, and insecurity relatively more than male students. The present findings tend to lend support to the empirical evidence. Srivastava (1997) found that male students are better adjusted than the female student in all areas of adjustment.

Findings also revealed that the extended family adolescents were less adjusted than nuclear family (table 3). Findings from this study are consistent with those of others (Smoll & Schutz, 1990). The nuclear and extended family adolescents differed in adjustment because of the nature of their family structures, and situations. Traditionally, nuclear family adolescents feel secured and satisfied in their home as well as their family lives. They try to adjust well in all family situations than extended family.

Adolescents of extended family sometimes cannot adjust with each other, because they cannot put more time for sharing their emotions, create decision making problems, and conflicting situations, on the other side in nuclear families adolescents grow up psychologically well being. Adjustment, in psychology, refers to the behavioral process by which humans and other animals maintain equilibrium among their various needs or between their needs and the obstacles of their environments. Health, emotion adjustment of nuclear family adolescents found to be better than extended family. Extended family adolescents had poor health, emotion adjustment because their too many family members in an extended family so that individual attention to physical and mental well being cannot give all time. The findings of the present study (table 4) also reveal that the different in adolescent adjustment according to area of residence is not significant. It may be assumed that due to increasing social security, health care, educational and occupational facilities, facilities of child rearing, parental consciousness, and social support for rural people, there was no significant difference in adolescent adjustment in urban and rural area.

Conclusion

Findings of the present research show that there was a significant difference in adjustment of the adolescents from nuclear and extended family. However, the study has its limitations too. The sample is not representative. Because of some practical reasons like time and financial constraint the sample size was relatively small. Moreover, there was no empirical study available to prove the present study. There are many other variables which influence adjustment of adolescents which could not be investigated in the present study. Therefore, further research with representative sample including variables like socio-economic status, parent's educational qualification, parental behavior, relationships with parents, genetic and environmental factors etc. is suggested for the generalization of the findings as well as to have better understanding of the concept of adolescent adjustment.

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Maternal Stress, Anxiety and Some Specific Impairment of Adolescents

Rajeka Fardosh Tany¹ & Md. Rasel Shikdar²

Abstract

The aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between maternal stress, anxiety and their adolescent's emotional and social impairment. To find out whether maternal stress, anxiety have any effect on adolescent emotional and social impairment? A total of 100 paired respondents-adolescents and their mothers were selected by purposive sampling technique from Dhaka city. Life stress questionnaire (Fahima, 2001), an anxiety scale by Deeba and Begum (2004) and Bangla version (Islam, 2010) of BECK Youth Inventories of Emotional and Social Impairment were used in the present study. In current study correlation, linear regression and descriptive analysis were used. Correlation analysis indicates that maternal stress, anxiety have positively correlated with adolescent emotional and social impairment. Results of regression analysis indicated that maternal stress and anxiety explained 31.9% and 44% of variance in adolescents emotional and social impairment. The result also shown that girls were higher emotionally and socially impaired ($M = 98.3$, $SD = 22.41$) than the boys ($M = 81.29$, $SD = 24.35$).

Key-words: Adolescents, maternal stress, anxiety and impairment

People need to experience stress and anxiety at some stage in their life. These difficulties usually involve some conflict, which causes discomfort or worst still outright distress and hurt. Stress and anxiety can emerge in their own right as different people clash, or it may be a symptom of other underlying problems such as depression, disruptive behavior, interpersonal problems and others. Physiological or biological stress is an organism's response to a stressor such as an environmental condition or a stimulus. Stress is a body's method of reacting to a challenge. According to the stressful event, the body's way to respond to stress is by sympathetic nervous system activation which results in the fight or flight response in human, stress typically describes a negative condition or a positive condition that can have an impact on a person's mental and physical well-being.

Physiological stress represents a wide range of physical responses that occur as a direct effect of a stressor causing an upset in the homeostasis of the body. Upon immediate disruption of either psychological or physical equilibrium the body responds by stimulating the nervous, endocrine, and immune system. The reaction of these systems causes a number of physical changes that have both short and long term effects on the body. Anxiety is an

¹ Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka, Bangladesh E-mail: rajekafardosh@yahoo.com

² MS Student, Department of Psychology, Jagannath University, Dhaka, Bangladesh

unpleasant state of inner turmoil, often accompanied by nervous behavior, such as pacing back and forth, somatic complaints and rumination. It is the subjectively unpleasant feelings of dread over something unlikely to happen, such as the feeling of immune death. Anxiety is not the same as fear which is a response to a real or perceived immediate threat; whereas anxiety is the expectation of future threat. Anxiety is a feeling of fear, worry, and uneasiness, usually generalized and unfocused as an overreaction to a situation that is only subjectively seen as menacing. It is often accompanied by muscular tension, restlessness, fatigue, and problems in concentration. Anxiety can be appropriate, but when it is too much and continues too long, the individual may suffer from an anxiety disorder.

Anxiety is distinguished from fear which is an appropriate cognitive and emotional response to a perceived threat and is related to the specific behaviors of defensive behavior or escape. Anxiety occurs in situations only perceived as uncontrollable or unavoidable, but not realistically so. Another description of anxiety is agony, dread, terror, or even apprehensive. In positive psychology, anxiety is described as the mental state that results from a difficult challenge for which the subject has insufficient coping skills. The word 'Adolescence' is Latin in origin, derived from the verb 'adolescere', which means 'to grow into adulthood'. In most of the societies, adolescence is a time of growing up, of moving from the immaturity of childhood into the maturity of adulthood. The metamorphic changes of adolescence turn a child into an adult.

There is no single definition of emotional and social impairment which is accepted by all. Different developmental psychologists describe social and emotional impairment in different ways and use their own terminology in their definition. According to Herbert (1998) 'Emotional and behavioral problems refer to a large and heterogeneous collection of disorders ranging from depression, anxiety, inhibition and shyness to noncompliance, destructiveness, stealing and aggressiveness'. The definition of emotional and social impairment also changes with the passage of time. Social and emotional impairment may vary in type as well as in severity. The definition of social and emotional impairment also to a great extent depends on particular social and cultural beliefs and on cultural expectations and norms for appropriate behavior for each sex and age group.

Early adolescence is a time when mother-adolescent conflict escalates beyond Parent-child conflict (Montemayor, 1989; Weng & Montemayor, 1997). This increase may be due to a number of factors. Such as the biological changes of puberty, cognitive changes involving increased idealism and logical reasoning, social changes focused on independence and identity, violated expectation, and physical, cognitive and social changes in parents associated with middle adulthood. Mother-adolescent conflict decreases in late adolescence (Laursen & Ferreira, 1994); although conflict with mother does increase in early adolescence. A high degree of conflict characterizes some mother-adolescent relationships. It has been estimated that in about 20 percent of families, mothers and adolescents engage in prolonged, intense, repeated, unhealthy conflict (Montemayor, 1982). And this conflict is associated with a number of adolescent problems-moving away from home, juvenile delinquency, school dropout rates, pregnancy and early marriage, membership in religious cults, and drug abuse (Brook & Others, 1990).

Afrose and Chowdhury (1993) examined the factors that are related to problem behavior in school children of Bangladesh. A study of identity change among college student from freshman year to the senior years revealed that there was a significant increase in identity achievement by the senior years (Waterman et al., 1974). In another study, Protinsky (1975) compared young adolescents age 13 and 14 with older adolescents aged 19 to 24. It showed that the younger adolescents experienced more anxiety and had less self-certainty the older the younger adolescents tended to feel that time was passing them by. One of the most difficult development tasks of adolescence related to social adjustment. To achieve the goal of socialization the adolescent seek for acceptance in the peer group development new in social acceptance and rejection selection of social groups and leaders and modify social behavior according to social norms (Barber et al., 1997). A lack of social competency may reveal in immature social behavior and also antisocial behavior, disruptive behavior.

Child development, educational progress, child rearing and mother-child communication are related to maternal stress and interpersonal problem. Mother-adolescent communication is related to maternal anxiety, depression, poverty, marital relationship. Childhood conduct problem is related to parental perception about children. In early adolescence the effect of academic achievement and social competence is associated on family disharmony (Cookston & Finlay, 2006). Young adolescents because of the multitude dimensions of adjustment and decision making and because of their lack of experience are easy preys to social and emotional impairment. Moreover young adolescents, in particular may be at substantial risk when body changes are most pronounced and self-concept is least stable. It is thus essential to be aware and to understand, identify the positive and negative development of adolescence to ensure effective socialization and provide a positive foundation for a successful transition to adulthood.

Young adolescents have also been found to be under greater stress and typically suffer from confusion, conflict moodiness and outburst of anger and in some cases reversion to infantile fears (Cohen & Frank, 1975). This is may be because their ability to cope with stress is at low ebb. This is a time when strong parental guidance is required otherwise the young adolescents may acquire habits of alcohol drug intake, or develop other sorts of antisocial habits or get involved with gangsters. It is thus essential to be aware, understand and identify the problem of young adolescents in each and every society in order to life successfully. However, survey of the literature shows that there are very few studies on young adolescents in Bangladesh and most of them are centred on the changes, adjustment and delinquency. This concern stimulated the present study. It is expected that the knowledge gained from the present research may be helpful in understanding the social and emotional impairment, and self-concept in early adolescence as well as the important deterrent factors of these psychological traits in young adolescents. It is hoped that the finding of present study would be helpful for the young adolescents of Bangladesh to make this crucial period of life less stressful and more industrious.

Objective of the study

The objectives of the study were to investigate the relationship between maternal stress, anxiety and their adolescent emotional and social impairment and also to find out whether maternal stress, anxiety have any effect on adolescent emotional and social impairment.

Method

Participants

Sample of the present study consisted of 100 pair of participants of whom 100 were adolescent and 100 were their mother. Among 100 adolescents 50 were boys and 50 were girls. The age ranges of the adolescents were 11-14 years and they were student of class six to class ten. The participants were selected by using purposive sampling technique from different area of Dhaka city.

Measures

Life Stress Questionnaire, An Anxiety Scale and Bangla version (Islam, 2010) of BECK Youth Inventories of Emotional and Social Impairment were used in the present study.

Life Stress Questionnaire

The original stress questionnaire was “How stressful is your life scale?” (Cohen,1999). That was translated into Bangla by Fahima (2001). This questionnaire was used to measure life stress. The Life stress Questionnaires consists of 10 items measuring stress. It was a 5 point Likert format ranging from very strongly disapproved to very strongly approve. There were 4 positive items and 6 negative items in the questionnaire. The positive items were scored 4, 3, 2, 1, 0 and the negative items were in the reverse order or 0, 1, 2, 3, 4. The correlation coefficient of the Bangla version of the Life Stress Questionnaire with the English was found to be $r = .90$, which was significant at 0.01 level. Test-retest reliabilities over a period of 2 weeks were $r = .94$, which was significant at 0.01 level. This means that the reliability of the questionnaire was satisfactory. Higher score indicate high life stress and low score indicate low life stress.

An Anxiety Scale

An Anxiety Scale was used in the present study for measuring anxiety on mothers. This scale was developed by Farah Deeba and Roquia Begum (2004) in the department of Clinical Psychology, University of Dhaka. The present scale was appropriate for Bangladeshi population. The initial Scale consists of 36 items in 5 points Likert format. On the basis of item total correlation and discrimination value both significantly at 0.01. Split-half reliability of the scale was .916 and the Cronbach-alpha reliability was .9468. The test-retest correlation was .688. The content validity of the scale was assessed by strictly following the sequential system model of scale development and by experts in different stages of items construction. Three external criteria were selected to assess the criterion related validity and all the three were found to be positively correlated with the present scale score (Psychiatrists rating $r =$

.317; patients self-rating $r = .591$; HADS $r = .628$; $p < .01$). Construct validity was assessed by discrimination ability of the scale among clinical and non-clinical samples ($F = 60.275$ at $p < 0.01$) and total correlation (which ranged from $r = .399$ to $r = .748$, $p < 0.01$). Both severity and screening norms were developed for the current anxiety scale.

BECK Youth Inventories of Emotional and Social Impairment

BECK Youth Inventories of Emotional and Social Impairment were used to measure adolescent social and emotional impairment. Any researcher may be used separately or in any combination to assess an adolescent's experience of self-concept, anxiety, depression, anger, and disruptive behavior. Each inventory contains 20 statements about thoughts, feelings or behaviors associated with emotional and social impairment in youth. The test and norms are approved for adolescents (11-14 years). Cronbach's alpha coefficients computed for each of the five inventories within each of the four norm groups indicated high internal consistency ranging from .89 to .92. Corrected test-retest reliabilities for youth aged 11 to 14 ranged from .84 to .93. Every item consisted of a 4 point scale ranging from 0 (never), 1 (sometimes), 2 (often), 3 (always). The total raw score of the inventory is obtained by adding the scores, which are 0, 1, 2 or 3 for each item. The range of possible raw score totals on the every sub scales is 0 to 60. The range of the total scores was 0 to 300.

Procedure

After taking permission of school authority and with the help of the class teacher, 100 adolescents of whom 50 boy and 50 girl participants were selected. After administration of 'BECK Youth Inventories of Emotional and Social Impairment' to the adolescents, each adolescent was given a life stress questionnaire, an anxiety scale with a letter requesting the mother to fill up the questionnaire in a sealed envelope to take to their mother. The mothers will also request to return the filled up questionnaire in a sealed envelope to the class teacher. The researcher of the present study collected the envelopes from the class teacher. They were also assured that the information supplied by them would be kept strictly confidential and be used for research purpose only.

Results

The aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between maternal stress, anxiety and their adolescent emotional and social impairment and also to find out whether maternal stress, anxiety have any effect on adolescent emotional and social impairment. In current study correlation, enter or forced entry method linear regression and descriptive analysis were preformed for the data analysis. The result indicated that maternal anxiety and stress had highly correlated with their adolescent's emotional and social impairment. The result presented in this section revealed that maternal anxiety ($r = .663$) and maternal stress ($r = .312$) were significantly positively correlated with their adolescent's emotional and social impairment. All of this correlation was significant at .01 level.

Standardized beta reveal that maternal stress ($\beta = .312, p < 0.01$) was predictor of adolescents emotional and social impairment and R^2 Change further indicated that maternal stress explained 31.9% variance of adolescents emotional and social impairment. The significant F-test [$F = 47.43, p < 0.01$] further indicated that variation of adolescent emotional and social impairment was accounted by liner influence of maternal stress. Standardized beta further reveal that maternal anxiety ($\beta = .663, p < 0.01$) was predictor of adolescents emotional and social impairment. R^2 Change indicated that maternal anxiety explained 44% variance of adolescent's emotional and social impairment. The significant F-test [$F = 47.43, p < 0.01$] further indicated that variation of adolescent emotional and social impairment was accounted by liner influence of maternal anxiety. It can conclude that maternal stress and anxiety was most important predictor of adolescent emotional and social impairment. The result indicated that gender had significant effect on adolescent emotional and social impairment. Girls were higher emotionally and socially impaired ($M = 98.3, SD = 22.41$) than the boys ($M = 81.29, SD = 24.35$).

Discussion

Maternal stress, anxiety and adolescent emotional and social impairment are highly correlated. Mothers role is very important for the development of their children. Mothers not only supply food and love but also guide their children. This guidance is important for children's future life. If mothers have problems about values, norms then children suffer for their whole life. Because of maternal instruction and direction play effective role in the development of children. Sometimes mothers have problems and they live a stressful life. This situation is unhealthy and harmful for both mothers and children. So adolescent's mental and physical health is influenced by maternal stress and anxiety. Adolescence represents a period of adjustment crisis. It is the biological and psychosocial transition that every adolescent goes through by virtue of being an adolescent. Mother-Child relationship has a life-long effect on growth, development and trust. Unhealthy relation contains different adolescent emotional and social impairment i.e. anxiety, depression, anger, disruptive behavior and others.

Results also indicate that maternal stress and anxiety are predictors of adolescent's emotional and social impairment. This means that, increase in maternal stress and anxiety leads to increase in adolescences emotional and social impairment. These findings are very much expected. If maternal stress and anxiety level are low then adolescents with positive self concept, have good control over their impulses and emotions. They are satisfied with their body and self image and they are well adjusted to society and family. Moreover they face life situation with little fear and with a reasonable amount of confidence. Positive self images are associated with positive mental health. Eryuksel and Varan (2007) also found that adolescent behavior problem, loneliness, depression, anxiety, health condition were associated with maternal mental and physical condition.

Adolescent represent a period of adjustment crisis and vulnerability. Adolescents whose mothers have fewer problems and are more industrious they are more empathetic during later

stage of adulthood. They are less anxiety more mature, have high self esteem, enjoying intimate relationships and have an ability to share feelings with other people. They tend to have trusting and long-term relationships. When mothers are in problematic situation they cannot take proper care and guide the adolescent and are not interested to discuss with the children about their crisis because they themselves are disturbed. As a result adolescent often display depressive behavior, and are emotionally withdrawn from social situation. These adolescents tend to be socially incompetent because their mothers are not responsive.

Esme and Anna (2005) found that adolescent behavior problem like anger, disruptive behavior are highly correlated with maternal mental health and social competence. Mother plays the roles of caregiver, teacher, counselor, friend and educator when taking care of their children. When adolescent have a loving mother consistently responding to their needs, they build a secure and healthy life. This life long bond affects growth, development, trust and the ability to build relationships. Maternal stress and anxiety are associated with adolescent's anger. Anger is a human emotion that frequently results in aggression and violence. Adolescents experience a number of social challenges and developmental changes that require effective coping skills in order to function adaptively in society. When mothers cannot guide properly and direct their children, the adolescents will demonstrate poor self control and will exhibit elevated anger and consequently will tend to have histories of delinquency and antisocial behaviors. Disruptive behavior refers to irregular patterns of behavior and adolescent with disruptive behavior exhibit some kind of behavior which are not expected to be present in a normal adolescent of his or her age or sex. A lack of maternal supervision may be revealed in immature social behavior and also in antisocial and disruptive behavior.

In the present study, significant gender difference was found for adolescent emotional and social impairment. Adolescent girls were showing more emotional and social impairment than adolescent boys. At the same time the imposition of social restrictions and control, block their access to outer world as well as development of their potentialities. This may be another reason for experiencing greater impairment by the girls. These findings are consistent with some findings (Joshi, 1993). They found that adolescent girls consistently show higher rates of depressive disorder and mood problems than adolescent boys.

Conclusion

The period of adolescence is a very crucial time of life as self concept takes a final shape. Proper socialization pattern, social expectation and readiness for adolescence changes are very important factors in making effective adjustment with emotional and social impairment at the period and to handle the problems skillfully. Any wrong step may lead an adolescent choose a wrong path and land in a dark hole. This is very sensitive age too, when guidance and control must go together with affection, support, freedom and chances to explore, in equal proportions. Finally, it is worthwhile to suggest further in-depth research with larger and representative sample in this area so as to find out more variables revealing significant relationships which may help to take proper measures for guiding this vulnerable young age to become healthy and happy individual and thus be the resources of the society.

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