

**MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT AND PSYCHOLOGICAL
WELL BEING OF ADOLESCENCE**

Seema Munaf

and

Riaz Ahmad

Institute of Clinical Psychology
University of Karachi

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present research was to determine the effects of Maternal Employment upon adolescent Children. The sample of the present research consisted of 256 adolescent children of the employed and unemployed mothers. Their age range was from 12 years to 18 years and their education qualification was from grade six to Intermediate. They were interviewed individually. Their personal information questionnaire was filled-in and Standard Progressive Matrices (SPM), Wide Range Achievement Test-3 (WRAT-3) and Reynolds Adolescents Adjustment Screening Inventory (Reynold, 2001) were administered on them. The results showed insignificant difference between adolescent children of employed and unemployed mothers on the variable of antisocial behavior ($t=1.553$, $df=254$, $p>.05$) significant difference was found on all other variables between the two groups i.e. anger control problem ($t= -3.072$, $df=254$, $p<.05$) emotional distress ($t= -2.470$, $df=254$, $p<.05$) positive self ($t= -2.674$, $df=254$, $p<.05$) and adjustment ($t= -.835$, $df=254$, $p<.05$). Further the relationship between the intellectual capacity and academic achievement of adolescent children of employed mothers was found to be more positive ($r=0.516^{**}$) as compared to the relationship between intellectual capacity and level of academic achievement of children of non-employed mothers (0.314^{**}).

MUNAF & AHMAD

INTRODUCTION

In Pakistan, majority of women are uneducated and the proportion of uneducated women is considerably high in rural than urban areas. An educated mother is generally more aware of her responsibilities especially when her child is sick she takes good care of her child. Educational attainment also brings rationality in her reproductive behavior.

Education is the key to acceptable and respectable jobs and careers. Lower middle class families would find it degrading to let their women take up jobs as domestic servants or to work on the factory floor (though some are driven to this out of desperation) i.e. jobs for which education is not a pre-requisite. But families who expect their women to take up jobs as teachers or office clerks (or better) tend therefore to put a higher value on women's education than was the case before though financing the education of sons still takes precedence. There is demand for women's education also from professional men who want to marry reasonably educated wives, although not too highly qualified (Alvi, 1996)

The continuous inflation in the cost of living in Pakistan over the decades has brought about a situation where as man's wage is no longer sufficient to keep the family. There was therefore a continuous pressure to broaden the base of the family economy. Gradually and steadily, more and more women were forced to find jobs to supplement family incomes. Initially only a few occupations were thought to be respectable enough for such women. As the pressure for jobs increased the concept of a 'respectable job' was progressively broadened to take in a wider range of jobs. Initially, apart from high status professional occupations, notably that of a doctor, what better), jobs in the teaching profession, especially in girls' schools and colleges, were considered to be respectable enough. About a third of the doctors and an equal proportion of school teachers were women. Gradually this changed. The mantle of respectability was now to cover also clerical jobs in open plan offices where women could work with men, but in public view. Today one finds women in a wide range of occupations, including laboratory assistants or ticket clerks at railway station or clerks at post office counters and so on, as well as lawyers, architects, engineers, journalists and broadcasters. With more and more women taking up salaried jobs and in keeping with an increasing number of women taking to higher education, new values have emerged. Women now desire jobs and careers for their own sake so that an increasing number of wives of well

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

heeled professionals and women from the upper classes take jobs not out of economic necessity but for self-fulfillment.

The main reason for the involvement of women in outdoor work are the disintegration of the family system and economic crisis. The economic crisis has given a heavy blow to the conservative and traditional thinking pattern, which confined women within huge-walled houses to just serve husbands, brothers and the rest of the family. Resurgent unemployment and economic disparity have forced the families to let their women go out to offices and industries (Manzoor, 2002).

The life of lower middle class women in salaried employment is subject to rather different kinds of pressures. Her working day starts early, for she must feed her husband and children and send them off to school before she herself rushes off to work. Traveling to work is itself quite a battle, given the state of public transport in Pakistani cities, especially Karachi. In order to attract women workers whom they need, many large companies maintain fleets of minibuses to pick up their women employees in the morning and take them home after work. In the case of a women who is the first to be picked up or the last to be dropped home this can add an hour, or even two, to the long day spent at work. She comes home tired. Whilst her husband relaxes with a cold drink under a fan, she has to rush straight into the kitchen to prepare the family evening meal. And there are umpteen little chores to be attended to, young children to be looked after and the family fed and put to bed (Alvi, 1996).

If a woman is working by choice, holds a job i.e. interesting and rewarding and has the moral and material support of her husband and family, then work can be a fulfilling experience and serve as a buffer against stress. If these conditions are not met, however, the working mother is likely to experience strain and find maintaining a job as stressful.

Teti, Gelfand, Pompa (1990) in a multidimensional study found that maternal employment have detrimental effects on children. In fact, positive consequences usually have been obtained, especially for girls. However, disquieting results that have appeared suggest that for middle class boys there may be some subtle adverse outcomes of a mother working full-time. The effects of maternal employment can be evaluated only in relation to other factors such as the reason why the mother is working, the mother's satisfaction with her role, the demands placed on other family members towards the mother's employment,

psychological problems of the mother, and the adequacy of substitute care provided for the children.

Maternal employment is associated with more egalitarian views of sex roles by their children, particularly by daughters (Gold and Andres, 1978; Hoffman, 1984a). Results of interview by Dellas, Gaier and Emihovich (1979) indicated that children of working mothers more frequently favored the working-mother idea; working mothers and daughters supported this notion more frequently than did sons, and working-mother children of managerial and working class families were more approving than those of professional-class families. Data suggest that full-time maternal employment has few effects on behaviors and attitudes of school-age children from intact families, with these effects diminishing along the developmental continuum.

College student daughters of employed women more often report that they resemble their mothers and more often report that they wish to be like them (Baruch, 1972 as cited by Hoffman, 1974).

The amount of time married mothers spend working for pay effects, not only their family and children, but also the mother's personal economic outcomes. The labor market experience of today's married mothers may influence the educational and career choice of their daughters, as well as the marriage and family formation patterns of the younger generation (Hayghe & Bunchi, 1994).

Blau, & Grossberg (1992) found maternal employment to have a negative impact when it occurs during the first year of the child's life and a potentially offsetting positive effect when it occurs during the second and subsequent years. The authors' findings suggest that maternal employment throughout a child's first three or four years would have no net effect on the child's cognitive ability.

According to Peters (1997) Good mothering does not require mothers to focus so intensely on their children that they give up crucial parts to their own identities. Indeed, such sacrifice is not even in their children's interest. For if women who are reared to participate economically, socially and politically stop doing so, they risk their sense of self, their contentment, and therefore their effectiveness as mothers.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

Pakistan is a male dominated society and women's status relative to men is worse than that in most other countries. Women have primary responsibility for the health of infants and small children and this is considered to be the women's work. They rarely have a choice of whom they marry, how many children they have, and whether they work. This patriarchal structure greatly limits the possibilities for women to be active outside the home. Two indicators of low female status in Pakistan are limited participation of women in economic activities outside the home and a high percentage of illiterate women (Sathar et al. 1988).

The purpose of the present research is to determine the psychological effect of Pakistani maternal employment upon children because analysis of Western literature indicates positive effect of maternal employment. Therefore we also believe that the effect of Pakistan employed mothers upon children will be positive. Hence the following hypothesis was framed.

1. Children of employed mothers will have less psychological problems as compared to children of unemployed mothers.
2. There will be more positive correlation between intellectual capacity and level of academic achievement of children of employed mothers than the correlation between intellectual capacity and level of academic achievement of children of unemployed mothers.

METHOD

Sample

Sample of the present research consisted of 256 children of the working and non-working mothers including 128 adolescent children in both the groups. Equal number of male and female were taken whose age range was from 12 to 18 years and who were students of grade 6 to 12.

Definition of various terms

The employed mothers: The employed mothers in the present research are those married mothers who are working full-time from 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. outside of their homes for which they are paid.

MUNAF & AHMAD

The unemployed mothers: They are defined as those married mothers who are housewives and are not working outside their homes for which they are paid. It excludes those working mothers who are involved in paid work at home.

Children of working mothers: These are children of married mothers who are working full-time outside their homes for which they are paid.

Children of non-working mothers: These are children of married mothers who are housewives and not involved in paid work.

Procedure

The entire sample was collected from different schools of Karachi (Pakistan). With the consent of school authorities the researcher approached the children belonging to working and non-working mothers. The researcher then established the rapport with the children individually. They were interviewed and questionnaire of personal information was filled in by the tester. The socio-economic class of children was established and only those children who were falling in the middle socio-economic class, to them Standard Progressive Matrices (Raven, 1977) was administered. After the administration of SPM, 20 minutes break was given and then Wide Range Achievement Test-3 (Jastak, 1993) and Reynolds Adolescent Adjustment Screening Inventory (Reynold, 2001) were administered. RAAI measures adolescent children on the variables of antisocial behavior, anger control problems, emotional distress, positive self and adjustment. Answer sheet were then scored. t-test was calculated to determine the difference of anti-social behavior, anger control problem, emotional distress and positive self between the adolescent children of working and non-working mothers. Further Pearson Product Moment Coefficient Correlation was applied to analyses the relationship between the intellectual capacity and academic achievement of the adolescent children of working and non-working mothers.

RESULTS

Table I

Table showing the difference in the level of Antisocial Behavior between Children of Working and Non-Working Mothers

Groups	N	Mean	St. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	df	Level of Significance	t	95 % Confidence Interval of the difference	
								Lower	Upper
Children of Working Mothers	128	2.95	2.78	0.25	254	0.127	-1.55	-1.11	0.14
Children of Non-Working Mothers	128	3.43	2.25	0.20					

t is -1.55, df=254, p >0.05 indicate insignificant difference between children of working and non-working mothers on the variable of Antisocial Behavior. The mean score of Anti social Behavior of these two groups do not differ significantly.

Graph a

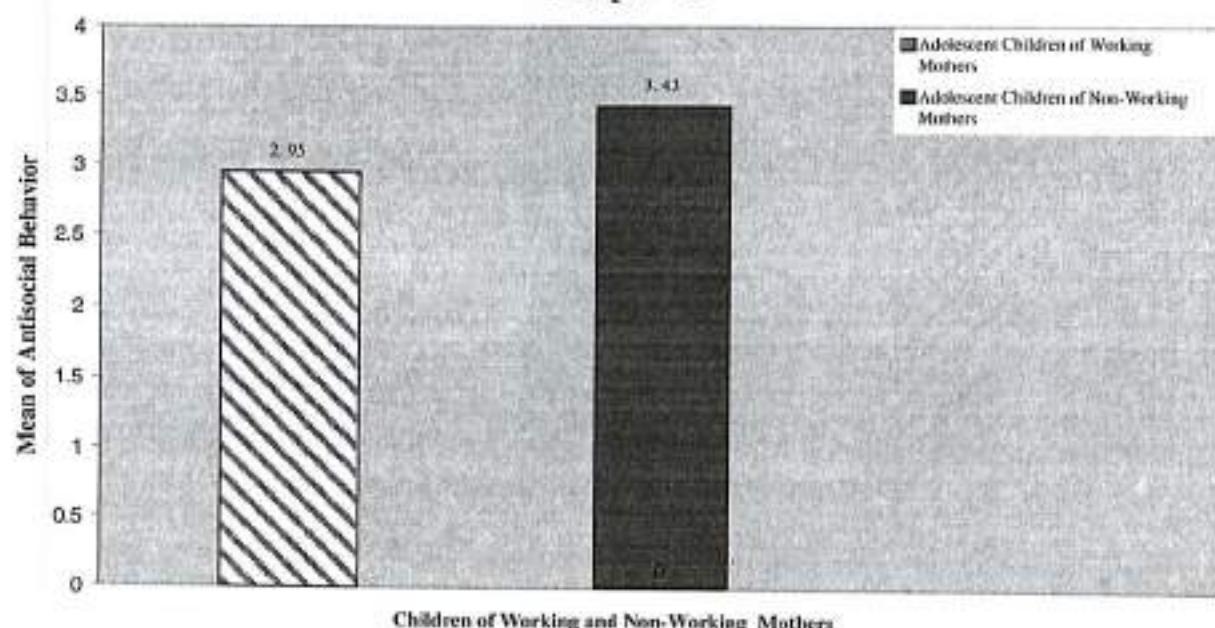


Table II

Table showing the difference in the level of Anger Control Problem between Children of Working and Non-Working Mothers

Groups	N	Mean	St. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	df	Level of Significance	t	95 % Confidence Interval of the difference	
								Lower	Upper
Children of Working Mothers	128	4.41	2.48	2.48	254	0.002	-3.07	-1.51	-0.33
Children of Non-Working Mothers	128	5.34	5.34	2.32					

t is -3.07, df=254, p< 0.05 indicate significant difference between children of working and non-working mothers on the variable of Anger Control Problem. The mean score of Anger Control Problem of these two groups differ significantly.

Graph b

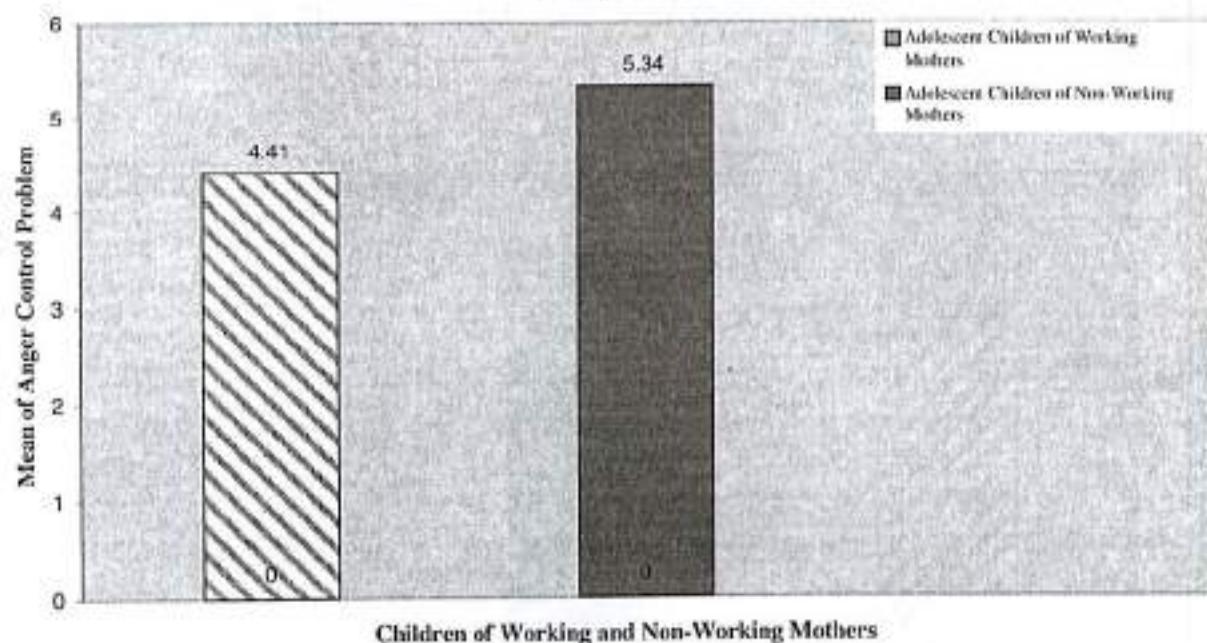


Table III
**Table showing the difference in the level of Emotional Distress between
 Children of Working and Non-Working Mothers**

Groups	N	Mean	St. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	df	Level of Signifi- cance	t	95 % Confidence Interval of the difference	
								Lower	Upper
Children of Working Mothers	128	7.09	3.40	0.30	254	0.014	-2.47	-1.83	-0.21
Children of Non- Working Mothers	128	8.11	3.17	0.28					

t is -2.47, df=254, p< 0.05 indicate significant difference between children of working and non-working mothers on the variable of Emotional Distress. The mean score of Emotional Distress of these two groups differ significantly.

Graph c

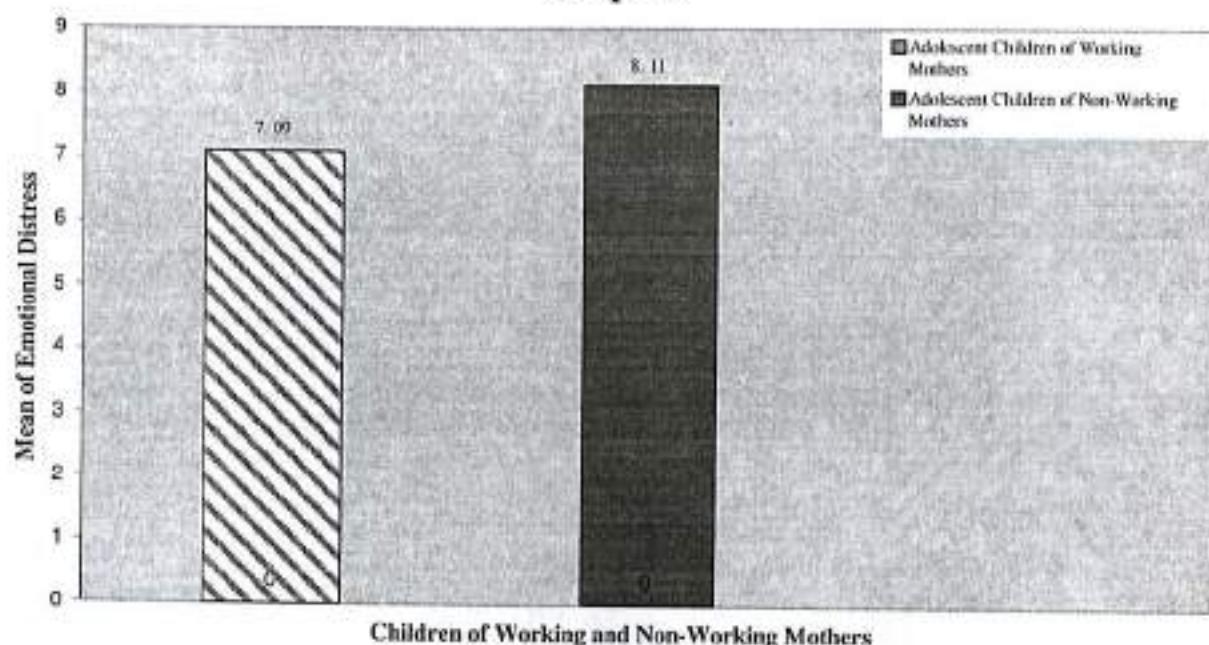


Table IV

Table Showing the difference in the level of Positive Self between Children of Working and Non-Working Mothers

Groups	N	Mean	St. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	df	Level of Significance	t	95 % Confidence Interval of the difference	
								Lower	Upper
Children of Working Mothers	128	2.88	1.84	0.16	254	0.008	-2.67	-1.07	-0.16
Children of Non-Working mothers	128	3.94	1.85	0.16					

$t = -2.67$, $df=254$, $p < 0.05$ indicate significant difference between children of working and non-working mothers on the variable of Positive Self. The mean score of Positive Self of these two groups differ significantly.

Graph d

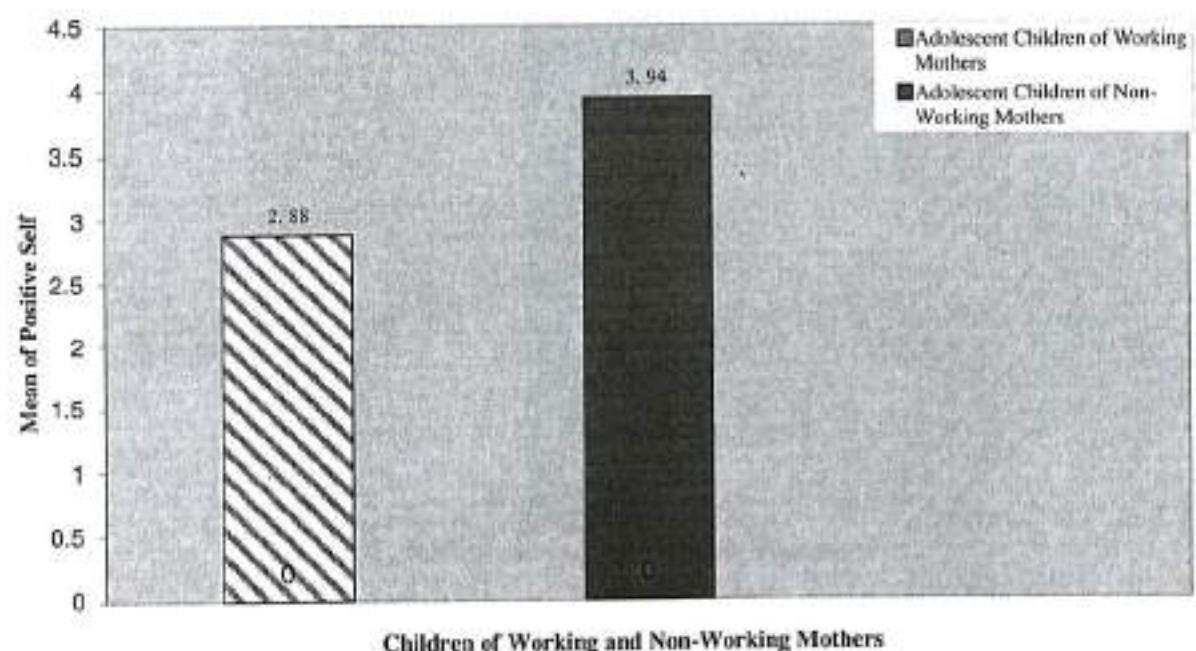


Table V

Table showing the difference in the level of Adjustment between Children of Working and Non-Working Mothers

Groups	N	Mean	St. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	df	Level of Significance	t	95 % Confidence Interval of the difference	
								Lower	Upper
Children of Working Mothers	128	17.13	6.93	0.61					
Children of Non-Working Mothers	128	20.33	6.39	0.56	254	0.000	-3.83	-4.84	-1.55

$t = -3.83$, $df=254$, $p < 0.05$ indicate significant difference between children of working and non-working mothers on the variable of Adjustment. The mean score of Adjustment of these two groups differ significantly.

Graph e

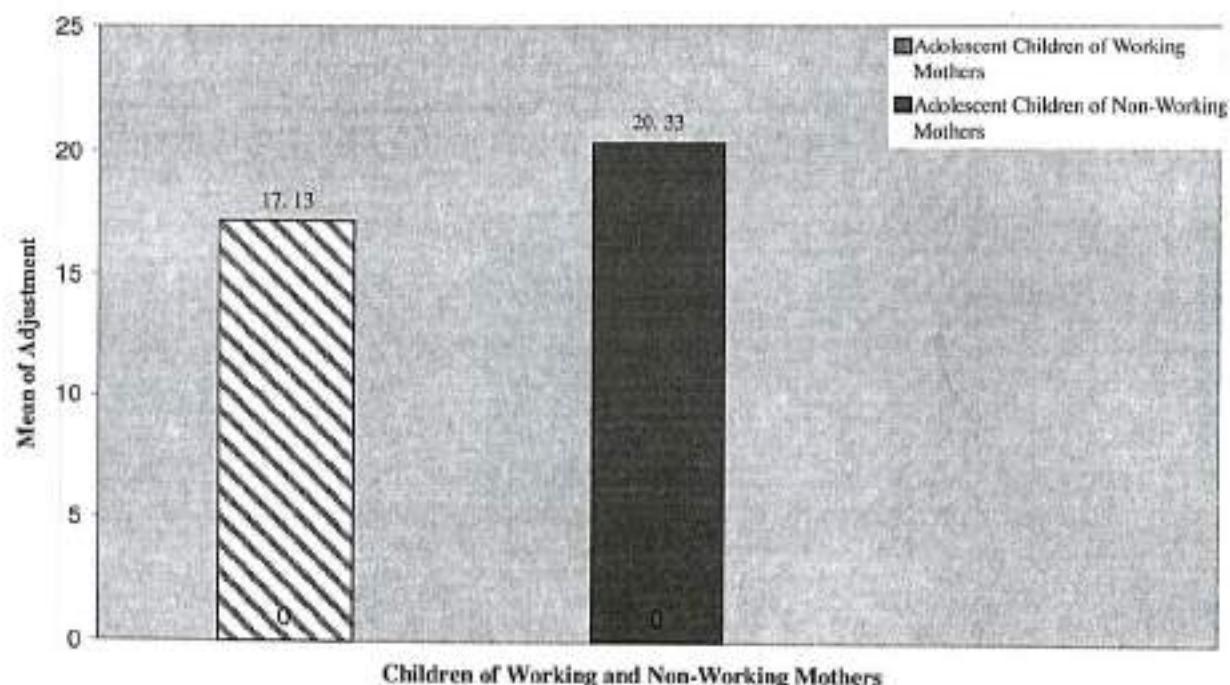
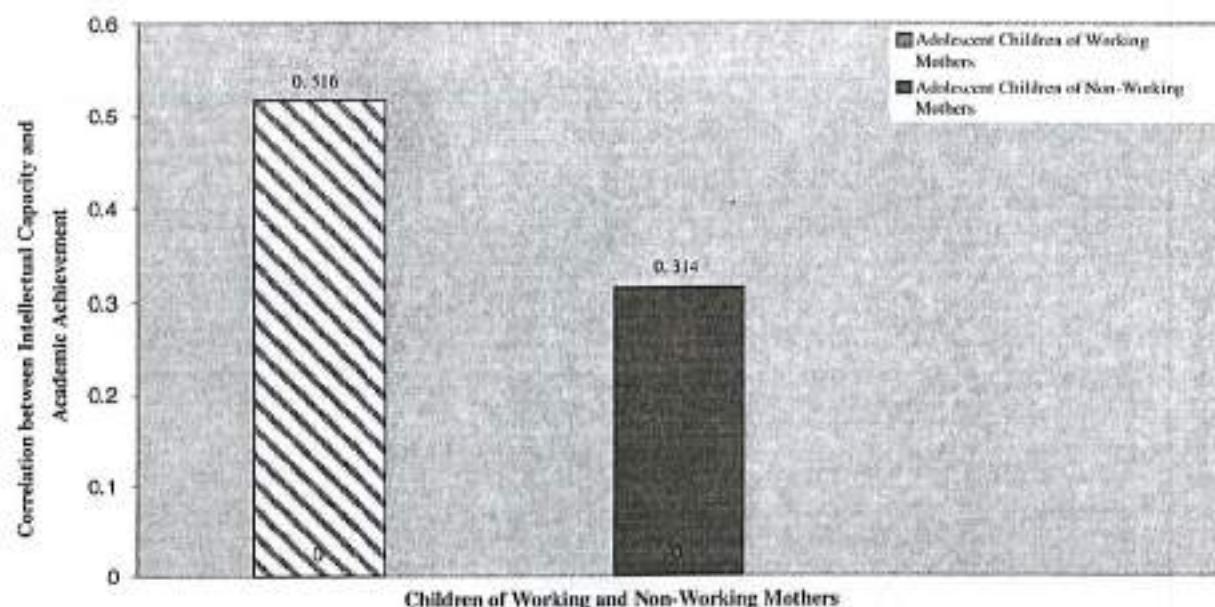


Table VI
Table Showing correlation between Intellectual Capacity and Academic Achievement of Children of Working and Non-Working Mothers

Groups	Variables	N	Mean	St. Deviation	r (Pearson Product)	z	95 % Confidence Interval of the difference	
							Lower	Upper
Children of Working Mothers	Intelligence	128	37.8438	8.7272	0.516**	1.94	-0.2978	0.2978
	Achievement	128	38.6508	5.0485				
Children of Non-Working Mothers	Intelligence	128	38.2109	9.0246	0.314**			
	Achievement	128	37.9793	4.5710				

The correlation (r) between Intellectual Capacity and Academic Achievement of children of working and non-working mothers= 0.516** and 0.314** respectively, whereas $z = 1.94$, $p < 0.05$ indicating more positive correlation between Intellectual Capacity and Academic Achievement of children of working mothers as compared to children of non-working mothers.

Graph f

DISCUSSION

Table I, II, III, IV&, V and graph a, b, c, d & e indicate that part 'a' of the first hypothesis was not confirmed where as part b, c, d, e were proved. Table VI and graph 'f' indicate that hypothesis No.2 was also proved.

The results in table I and graph 'a' indicate that $t = -1.55$, $df = 254$, $p > 0.05$, which clearly shows that there is not a significant difference in the level of antisocial behavior between children of working mothers and non working mothers. Vander et al (2001) after tracing the effects of work hours and occupational conditions through risk factors to delinquency, found that the characteristics of maternal work have relatively little or no influence on delinquency, but do have a slight in direct effect through the delinquency pathway supervision.

From results in table II, III, IV & V and graph b, c, d, & e it is clear that t is -3.07 , $df = 254$, $p < 0.05$, $t = -2.47$, $df = 254$, $p < 0.05$, t is -2.67 , $df = 254$, $p < 0.05$ and t is -3.83 , $df = 254$, $p < 0.05$ respectively, indicate that children of working mothers have less anger control problems, they experience less emotional distress, have high positive self and are more adjusted as compared to children of non working mothers.

Results in table VI and graph f, indicate that relationship between intellectual capacity and level of a academic achievement of children of working mother ($r = 0.516$) is more positive as compared to the relationship between intellectual capacity and level of academic achievement of children of non working mothers (0.314). Our research results go well along with the work of Western culture. Schneider et al, (1981) reported that there are several studies indicating that maternal employment has positive effects on adolescent children, particularly females. As reported previously Teti, Gelf and Pompa (1990) found positive consequences especially for girls. According to Hoffman (1984b), daughters of working mothers are reported to be more 'independent, outgoing, higher achievers, admire their mothers more, have more respect for women's competence and show better social personal adjustment. They are less likely to believe that specific traits, interests or occupations are uniquely associated with males or females (Hoffman, 1989). Lerner and Hess (1991) also found that children of employed mothers are better adjusted, are more independent, and do better in school. In middle class families maternal employment is related to higher educational and occupational goals in children. It associated with fewer

MUNAF & AHMAD

traditional feminine interests and characteristics in daughters (Douvan & Adelson 1966; Stein 1973). Shahzad (2002) also conducted a research in Pakistan and reported that children of working mothers have high achievement level as compared to children of non working mothers.

Hence we can conclude that majority of adolescent children of Pakistani employed mothers react positively upon working of their mothers. It do contribute in the psychological well being of their children. It is therefore recommended that Pakistani women may enter labor force without having any guilt feelings because quality of mothering is important not the quantity.

REFERENCES

- Alavi, H. (1996). Pakistani women in a changing society. socappeal@easynet.co.uk
- Blau, F.D. & Grossberg, A.J. (1992). Maternal labor supply & children's cognitive development. The review of Economics and Statistics. Vol.74. MIT Press. <http://mitpress.mit.edu/journals/>
- Dellas, M; Gaier, E. L. & Emihovich, C. A. (1979). Maternal Employment and Selected Behaviors and Attitudes of Preadolescents and adolescents. Adolescence, 14, 55, fall, 579-589.
- Douvan, E. & Adelson, J. (1966). The adolescent experience. New York: Wiley.
- Gold, D. & Andres, D. (1978). Developmental comparisons between 10-year-old children with employed and non-employed mothers. Child Development. 49, 75-84.
- Hayghe, H. V. & Bianchi, S. M. (1994). Married mothers' work patterns: The job-family compromise. Monthly Labor Review Online. Vol. 117, No.6.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

Hoffman, L. W. (1974). "Effects of maternal employment on child". In Memalon, F. B., Memalon, J. W., (1982) Psychology The Hybrid Science (4th Ed) Dorsey Press, Illinois.

Hoffman, L. W. (1984a). Work, family and the socialization of the child. In R. D. Parke (Ed). Review of Child Development Research, Vol. VII. The family Chicago: University off Chicago Press.

Hoffman, L. W. (1984b). Maternal employment and the young child. In Cole, M & Cole, S. R. (1989). The Development of Children. Scientific American Books, NY, Pg.No. 505.

Hoffman, L. W. (1989). Effects of maternal employment in two-parent family. In Kail, R. V.; Nelson, R. W. (1993). Developmental Psychology (5th Ed.), Prentice Hall. N. J. Pg.No. 296.

Lerner, J. V.& Hess, L. E. (1991). Maternal employment influences on adolescent development. In Kail, R. V.; Nelson, R. W. (1993). Developmental Psychology (5th Ed.). Prentice Hall. N. J. pp. 296.

Manzoor, R. (2002). The role of women in the trade unions and the struggle of the PTUDC. socappeal@easynet.co.uk

Peters, J.K. (1997). When mothers work: Loving our children without sacrificing ourselves. Addison Wesley. U.S.A.

Reynolds, W. M. (2001). Reynolds Adolescent Adjustment Screening Inventory: Professional Manual. Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc.: USA.

Sathar, Z. A., Crook N. Callum, C.& Kazi. S. (1988). Women's status and fertility change in Pakistan. Population and Development Review, 14 (3): 415-432. In D'Souza, R. M. (2001). Role of maternal autonomy on child mortality in slums of Karachi, Pakistan. Journal of Health and Population in Developing Countries. Vol 4. No. 1. <http://www.jhpdc.unc.edu/index.html>

MUNAF & AHMAD

Schnieder, L., Stephan, C.W, Zurcher, L.A., & Ekland-Olson, S.R. (1981). Human responses to social problems. The Dorsey Press, Illinois, 57,58.

Shahzad, A. (2002). Social and cognitive competence of adolescents in dual-working families. Unpublished M.Phil thesis. Islamabad: National Institute of Psychology, Quaid-e Azam University.

Stein, A. H. (1973). The effects of maternal employment and educational attainment on the sex-typed attributes of college females. Social Behavior and Personality. 1, 111-114.

Teti, D. M.,Gelfand, D. M. & Pompa, J. (1990). The Long Hall: The effects of home care on caregivers".Development and Psychopathology. Vol. 2(3), 259-270.

Vander Ven, T.M., Cullen,F.T., Carrozza, M. A., & Wright, J. R.(2001). Home Alone; The Impact of Maternal Employment on Delinquency. Social Problems. Vol 48(2), 236-257.

**TEAM SIZE, COMMUNICATION AND NEED FOR
ACHIEVEMENT AS PREDICTORS OF TEAM EFFECTIVENESS**

Zeenat Ismail

Institute of Business Administration

and

Amena Zahra Ali

Department of Psychology

University of Karachi

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationship of team effectiveness with team size, communication and need for achievement. Sample consisted of 40 male employees of different advertising agencies, who were working in a team. Team Effectiveness Inventory was administered to measure team effectiveness, communication within the team and need for achievement of team members. Personal data form was also administered to gather the demographic information and to find out the number of people working in the group. Pearson Product Moment Correlation was then applied. Negative correlation between team size and team effectiveness, and a positive correlation of team effectiveness with need for achievement and level of communication was found. Regression analysis also indicates team size, communication and need for achievement to be significant predictors of team effectiveness.

INTRODUCTION

A team can simply be defined as "a unit of two or more people who interact and coordinate their work to accomplish a specific goal" (Clark, 2002). This definition has three components. First, two or more people are required. Second, people in a team have regular interaction. Third, people in a team share a

performance goal. The team concept implies a sense of shared mission and collective responsibility.

Team members not only cooperate in all aspects of their tasks and goals, they share in what are traditionally thought of as management functions, such as planning, organizing, setting performance goals, assessing the team's performance, developing their own strategies to manage change, and securing their own resources.

According to Clark (2002) team has three major benefits for the organization:

1. It maximizes the organization's human resources. Each member of the team is coached, helped, and led by the other members of the team. All members, not just the individual, feel a success or failure. Failures are not blamed on individual members; this gives them the courage to take chances. Successes are felt by every team member, this helps them to set and achieve bigger and better successes.
2. There are superior outputs against all odds. This is due to the synergistic effect of a team – a team will outperform a group of individuals.
3. There is continuous improvement. No one knows the job, tasks, and goals better than the team. To get real change, you need their knowledge, skills, and abilities. When they pull together as a team they will not be afraid to show what they can do. Personal motives will be pushed to the side to allow the team motive to succeed.

A work group is a number of persons, usually reporting to a common superior and having some face-to-face interaction, who have some degree of interdependence in carrying out tasks for the purpose of achieving organizational goals (French, 1998).

The group process leads to a spirit of cooperation, coordination and commonly understood procedures and mores. If this is present within a group of people, then their performance will be enhanced by their mutual support, both practical and moral (Blair, 1991).

A team is a form of group, but has some characteristics in greater degree than ordinary groups, including a higher commitment to common goals and a higher degree of interdependency and interaction. Katzenbach and Smith (1993) define team as: "A team is a small number of people with complementary

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

skills who are committed to a common purpose, set of performance goals, and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable."

A team is a group of people coming together to collaborate. This collaboration is to reach a shared goal or task for which they hold themselves mutually accountable. A group of people is not a team. A team is a group with a high degree of interdependence geared towards the achievement of a goal or completion of a task. A group, by definition, is a number of individuals having some unifying relationship (Clark, 2002).

Work groups are generally of two types. The formal work group consists of individuals who work together as a team. Their direct and sustained work relationship offers substantial opportunity for one or more members to influence the consumption-related attitudes and activities of other team members. Informal friendship/work groups consist of people who have become friends as a result of working for the same firm, whether or not they work together as a team (Bednall & Kanuk, 1997).

When people work in groups, there are two quite separate issues involved. The first is the task and the problems involved in getting the job done. Frequently this is the only issue, which the group considers. The second is the process of the group work itself: the mechanism by which the group acts as a unit and not as a loose rabble. However, without due attention to this process the value of the group can be diminished or even destroyed; yet with a little explicit management of the process, it can enhance the worth of the group to be many times the sum of the worth of its individuals. It is this synergy that makes group work attractive in corporate organization despite the possible problems (and time spent) in group formation.

Team effectiveness includes team performance as well as members' satisfaction and commitment to the team. Mc Gregor (1996), gave a list of characteristics of well functioning effective groups (teams), as follows:

- a) The atmosphere tends to be relaxed, comfortable, and informal.
- b) The group's task is well understood and accepted by the members.
- c) The members listen well to each other; there is a lot of task-relevant discussion in which most members participate.
- d) People express both their feelings and ideas.
- e) Conflicts and disagreement are present but are centered around ideas and methods, not personalities or people.

- f) The group is self-conscious about its own operations.
- g) Decisions are usually based on consensus, not majority vote.
- h) When actions are decided upon, clear assignments are made and accepted by the members.

It was further pointed out that when these conditions are met, the team is likely to be successful in accomplishing its mission and simultaneously satisfying the personal and interpersonal needs of its members.

Although the nature of the task must be considered in determining the size of a work group, the general conclusion is that smaller groups perform better than larger groups because they interact more effectively and require less guidance from higher authority (Mc Grath, 1962).

In large groups, feedback is diminished, and assertive individuals may dominate the decision-making process. On the other hand, larger groups appear to be better for creative decision making (Gallupe, Dennis, Cooper, Valacich, Bastianutti & Nunamaker, 1992). In small groups, members may complain that the group is too small for effective decision-making. Some research (Hare, 1976) has suggested that the optimal size for decision-making is five, but other studies (Laughlin, Branch & Johnson, 1969; Laughlin, Kerr, Davis, Halff & Macinik, 1975) suggest that performance of high-ability members increases with group size and when members are of varied levels of intelligence.

Teams work best when there are a few members. The aboriginal hunting band had 7-15 members. So do teams in team sports such as football, baseball, and cricket. If a team gets much larger it become unwidely. Its strengths, such as flexibility and sense of responsibility of members, attenuate. Its limitations—lack of clarity, communication problems, over concerned with the internal mechanism and internal relationships—become crippling weaknesses (Magula, 1982).

The degree of closeness of a group is known as group cohesiveness. The greater the cohesiveness, the greater the power of the group over its members and the pressure exerted on them to confirm. Several factors influence cohesiveness. In general, cohesiveness declines, as the group gets larger because there is a less opportunity for frequent direct contact and more opportunity for the formation of subgroups or competing groups (Schultz & Schultz, 1986).

Wexley and Yukl (1984), suggest that the degree of group cohesion is affected by size (smaller groups are more cohesive), member homogeneity, stability of membership, the difficulty of entry (a long period of waiting before acceptance leads to greater cohesiveness) and agreement about the relative status of each member. Evidence from field studies – those done in workplace – suggest that higher levels of group cohesion do result in higher productivity (Shaw, 1976).

Communication is as necessary to an organization as the bloodstream is to a person. Just as people develop arteriosclerosis, a hardening of the arteries that impairs their efficiency, so may an organization develop "infosclerosis", a hardening of the information arteries that produces similar impaired efficiency (Davis & Newstrom, 1985).

Communication is the transfer of information and understanding from one person to another person*. It is a way of reaching others with ideas, facts, thoughts, feelings and values. It is a bridge of meaning among people so that they can share what they feel and know. Communication is the responsibility of both the speaker and the listener. The speaker must actively seek to express the idea in a clear and concise manner – the listener must actively seek to understand what has been said and to ask for clarification if unsure (Blair, 1991).

The dynamics of the small group will affect the activities of the team. Typically, a strong sense of group identity will develop in effective teams, as will trust and openness in communications. Individuals often emerge from the team-building experience with better understandings of the manner in which authority, control, and power affect organizational decision-making. Teams that do not develop a sense of trust and openness are likely to be limited in their effectiveness (Smith, 1988).

A research study was conducted by Curral, et al. (2001) on team task, team size and innovation-related group processes. Their hypothesis that large teams would have poorer team processes was confirmed. Another hypothesis concerned the interaction between size and innovation. The results suggested that large teams operating under a relatively high pressure to innovate have poorer

* General discussion of organizational communication are presented in a special symposium on "Application of Communication Theory to Communication Practice". In K. Davis & J. W. Newstrom (Eds.) Human behavior at work: Organizational behavior, 7th edition, New York: McGraw hill book company. Pp 424.

team processes than large teams that do not have a high requirement to innovate. As groups increase in size, each member of the group become less important. This inverse relationship both reduces self-centered behavior and the individual's sense of importance. The skill of the leader becomes a factor in such cases. As groups become larger, the demands on the leader become more numerous and complex (Hemphill, 1950 and Mass, 1950). Clique formation also increases with group size (Homans, 1950).

There has been considerable research devoted to ascertaining the most effective group size in terms of accomplishing both task and maintenance goals. A research conducted by Cummings et. al.(1974) leads to the following conclusion: (1) when quality of a complex group decision is paramount, the use of seven twelve members under a formal leader is most appropriate; (2) when consensus in a conflict situation is important, the use of three to five members with no formal leader will ensure that each members view will be discussed; and (3) when both quality and consensus are important, five to seven members seem most appropriate. There tends to be a greater group conflict in even-sized groups of two and four members than there is in those of six members. In large groups, there is greater member tolerance for autocratic leadership.

The present study was designed and conducted to find the relationship of team effectiveness with team size, communication and need for achievement.

The following hypotheses were framed:

1. There will be a negative correlation between team size and team effectiveness.
2. There will be a positive correlation between communication and team effectiveness.
3. There will be a positive correlation between need for achievement and team effectiveness.

METHOD

Sample

Sample consisted of 40 male employees of different advertising agencies of Karachi, who were working as a team. Team size varied from 2 members to 20 members. The educational level of the respondents was graduation and their age ranged from 25 to 40 years.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

Material

A personal data form: It included the information regarding age, educational level, designation, years of experience and number of members working in the team.

Team Effectiveness Inventory: This 20-item inventory measures team effectiveness and comprises of five sub scales. The sub scales measures Communication, Empowerment, Mission, Achievement and Roles and Norms.

Procedure

Team Effectiveness Inventory (Appendix) was individually administered, in order to measure team effectiveness, communication within a team and need for achievement in team members. Demographic information was explored through a personal data form, which also helped to determine team size. The items were scored on a five point rating scale as "strong disagree" which was scored as 1 and "strong agree" was scored as 5. Pearson product moment correlation and Regression analysis were applied to interpret the results in statistical terminology.

RESULTS

Table I

Mean and Standard deviation of Various Variables

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviations
Team size	9.5500	6.0847
Communication	14.9500	2.9867
Achievement	14.8750	3.0983
Team Effectiveness	72.9000	12.1714

Table II

Pearson Product Moment Correlation of Team Size, Communication and need for Achievement with Team Effectiveness

N=40	Team size	Communication	Need for Achievement
Team Effectiveness	-.458*	.824**	.787**
Sig. (2 tailed)	.003	.000	.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Table III

Partial Correlation controlling the effects of age and year of work experience

N=40	Team size	Communication	Need for Achievement
Team Effectiveness	-0.5695	0.8066	0.7743
Sig. (2 tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

Table IV

Model Summary of Regression Analysis for Team Effectiveness as a Dependent Variable

	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square
Team size	0.458	0.210	0.189
Communication	0.824	0.678	0.670
Achievement	0.787	0.619	0.609

Table V

Analysis of Variance for Team Effectiveness as Dependent Variable

Predictors		Ss	df	ms	F	Level of Significance
Team size	Regression	1213.690	1	1213.690	10.105	.003
	Residual	4563.910	38	120.103		
	Total	5777.600	39			
Communication	Regression	3919.968	1	3919.968	80.187	.000
	Residual	1857.632	38	48.885		
	Total	5777.600	39			
Achievement	Regression	3578.781	1	3578.781	61.849	.000
	Residual	2198.819	38	57.864		
	Total	5777.600	39			

DISCUSSION

The result shown in Table II indicates a significant negative correlation ($r=-0.458$, $df=38$, $p<.05$) between team size and team effectiveness, and significant positive correlations between communication and team effectiveness ($r=0.824$, $df=38$, $p<.01$). Positive correlation was found also between achievement and team effectiveness ($r=0.787$, $df=38$, $p<.01$). Similar trend emerged while controlling age and year of work experience, when partial correlation was applied (Table III).

Table V presents the summary of Analysis of Variance, which shows that team size ($F=10.105$, $df=1, 38$, $p=.003$), communication ($F=80.187$, $df=1, 38$, $p=.000$) and need for achievement ($F=61.849$, $df=1, 38$, $p=.000$) are significant predictors of team effectiveness.

It is clear from the results that for team effectiveness, the smallest or lowest numbers of members are required. Large groups are more difficult to handle and require a higher level of supervision (Mullins, 1996). As the teams become larger, the skills of the leader become more important. The leader has to make the decision and implement them. Whereas in a small team the task of the leader becomes easy. There is an effective two-way communication between leader and team member. McGrath (1962) also concluded that smaller groups or teams perform better than larger groups because they interact more effectively and require less guidance from higher authority. Individuals in larger groups generally will be less committed to group goals. As a consequence, the effectiveness of teams is likely to decline (Flippo, 1985).

Communication also tends to play an important role in the effectiveness of the team. The more easily one member can convey his viewpoint to the others, the more he feels satisfied with his work. The lower the level of communication within members, the more frustrated they get. This frustration produces inverse relationship with productivity. The number of members also affects communication level in a team. The more the members, the lower the level of communication within them. The members also do not get proper feedback on their performance.

According to Smither (1988), a strong sense of group identity develops in effective teams, with trust and openness in communications. Teams that do not develop a sense of trust and openness are likely to be limited in their effectiveness.

The strength of the team effect on the motivation of its members. When a small number of members accomplishes a task, they develop a sense of achievement and of importance. This need for achievement within the members also contributes to the effectiveness of the team (Table II). Motivation to achieve fills individuals with an inner energy or determination to work towards the goal. The more the members are achievement oriented, the more they work towards the goal of their teams.

Motivation of the members is also affected by the recognition and appreciation they get for their work. When members feel that their contribution has lead to the better performance of team, their productivity increases. This happens in a small team, where there is lesser number of people. In a large team, members often feel lack of identity and recognition. When they think their contribution to the team cannot be measured, they may lessen their output. Reason for this social loafing include a perception of unfair division of labor, a belief that co workers are lazy, or a feeling of being lost in the crowd and therefore unable to receive adequate individual recognition (Davis & Newstrom, 1985).

The present results also indicate that teams are more cohesive and perform better when team size is small. Large teams tend to have lower level of communication and achievement orientation. Motivation of teams increases with decrease in number of members in them. These are the ingredients of a better functioning and effective team.

REFERENCES

- Bednall, S. & Kanuk, W. (1997). Consumer behavior. Prentice hall: NY. Pp 313.
- Blair, G. M. (1991). Groups that work.
www.ee.ed.ac.uk/~gerard/Management/art0.html
- Clark, D. R. (2002). Teams – People who work for you.
www.nwlinkcom/~donclark/leader/leadtem.html
- Cummings, L. L., Huber, G. P. & Arendt, E. (1974). Effects of size and spatial arrangement in group decision making. In Flippo, E. B. (1985). Personnel management. 6th edition. McGraw hill book company. Pp 411.
- Curral, L. A., Forrester, R. H., Dawson, J. F. & West, M. A. (2001). Its what you do and the way that you do it. Team task, team size, and innovation-related group processes. Psychological Abstracts. 88, 8.
- Davis, K. & Newstrom, J. W. (1985). Human behavior at work: Organizational behavior. 7th edition. McGraw hill book company: NY. Pp 424.

Flippo, E. B. (1985). Personnel management, 6th edition. McGraw hill book company. Pp 411.

French, W. L. (1998). Human resources management. In French, W. L. & Bell, C. H. Organizational development: Behavioral science interventions for organization improvement, 6th edition. Prentice hall, NJ, pp 155-157

Gallupe, R. B., Dennis, A. R., Cooper, W. H., Valacich, J. S., Bastianutti, L. M. & Nunamaker, J. F. (1992). Electronic brain storming and group size. In Smither, R. D. (1994). The Psychology of Work and Human Performance, 2nd edition. Harper collins college publishers: NY. Pp.323.

Hare, A. P. (1976). Handbook of small group research. In Smither, R. D. (1994). The Psychology of Work and Human Performance, 2nd edition. Harper collins college publishers: NY. Pp.323.

Hemphill, L. (1950). Relations between the size of the group and the behavior of "Superior" leaders. Journal of Social Psychology. 32, 11-22.

Homans, G. C. (1950). The Human group. New York: Harcourt, Brace.

Katzenbach, J. R. & Smith, D. K. (1993). The Discipline of teams. In French, W. L. & Bell, C. H. Organizational development: Behavioral science interventions for organization improvement, 6th edition. Prentice hall, NJ, pp 155-157

Laughlin, P. R., Branch, L. G. & Johnson, H. H. (1969). Individual versus triadic performance on a unidimensional complementary task as a function of initial ability level. In Smither, R. D. (1994). The Psychology of work and human performance, 2nd edition. Harper collins college publishers: NY. Pp.323.

Laughlin, P. R., Kerr, N. L., Davis, J. H., Halff, H. M. & Marciniak, K. A. (1975). Group size, Member ability, and social decision schemes on an intellective task. In Smither, R. D. (1994). The Psychology of work and human performance, 2nd edition. Harper collins college publishers: NY. Pp.323.

Magula, M. (1982). Understanding organization: A guide for the nurse executive. Nursing resources: Massachusetts, pp. 64.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

Mass, H.S. (1950). Personal and group factors in leader's social perception. Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 45, 54-63.

McGrath, J. E. (1962). A summary of small group research studies. Arlington, Va: Human science research, Inc.

McGregor, D. (1996). The human side of enterprise. In French, W. L. & Bell, C. H. Organizational development: Behavioral science interventions for organization improvement. 6th edition. Prentice hall, NJ, pp 155-157

Mullins, L. J. (1996). Management and organizational behavior, 4th edition. Pitman: London. Pp 188.

Schultz, D, P. & Schultz, S. E. (1986). Psychology and industry today: An introduction to industrial and organizational psychology. 4th edition. Macmillan publishing company: New York. Pp 354.

Shaw, M. E. (1976). Group dynamics: The psychology of small group behavior. In Smither, R. D. (1994). The psychology of work and human performance. 2nd edition. Harper collins college publishers: NY. Pp.320

Smither, R. D. (1988). The psychology of work and human performance. Harper & Row publishers: New York. Pp. 272.

Team Effectiveness Inventory.
www.geocities.com/Athens/Forum/1650/qteameffectiveness.htm

Wexley, K. N. & Yukl, G. A. (1984). Organizational behavior and personnel psychology. In Smither, R. D. (1994). The psychology of work and human performance. 2nd edition. Harper collins college publishers: NY. Pp.320.

APPENDIX

Given below is a list of twenty statements. Read them and indicate to what extent is the following true for your team. Mark a tick (✓) in the appropriate box. Do not leave any statement unmarked.

SD =Strongly Disagree D = Disagree N = Neutral A = Agree SA = Strongly Agree

		<u>SD</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>SA</u>
1	Every one on my team knows exactly why the team does what it does.					
2	The team leader consistently lets the team members know how we're doing on meeting our customers' expectations					
3	Everyone on my team has a significant amount of say or influence that affects his or her job.					
4	If outsiders were to describe the way we communicate within our team, they would use the words as 'open', 'honest', 'timely', 'two-way'.					
5	Team members have the skills they need to accomplish their roles within the team.					
6	Everyone on the team knows and understands the team's priorities.					
7	As a team, we work together to set clear, achievable, appropriate goals.					
8	I would rather have the team decide how to do something rather than have the team leader give step- by – step instructions.					
9	As a team, we were able to work together to solve destructive conflicts rather than ignoring conflicts.					
10	The role each member of the team is expected to play makes sense to whole team.					
11	The team understands how it fits into the organization.					
12	If my team doesn't reach a goal, I'm more interested in finding out why we have failed to meet the goal than I am in reprimanding the team members.					
13	The team has so much ownership of the work that, if necessary, we would offer to stay late to finish a job.					

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

14	The team leader encourages every person of the team to be open and honest, even if people have to share information that goes against what the team leader would like to hear.					
15	There is a good match between the capabilities and responsibilities of each person on the team.					
16	Every one on the team is working toward accomplishing the same thing.					
17	The team has the support and resources it needs to meet customers' expectations.					
18	The team knows as much about what's going on in the organization as the team leader does, because the team leader always keep everyone up to date.					
19	The team leader believes that everyone on the team has something to contribute such as knowledge, skills, abilities and information. – that is of value to all.					
20	Team members clearly understand the team's unwritten rules of how to behave within the group.					

SMOKING, PERSON PERCEPTION AND INTERPERSONAL DISTANCE: AN EXPERIMENTAL INVESTIGATION

Rakhshinda Talat Hussain

and

Rubina Feroze

Department of Psychology
University of Karachi

ABSTRACT

In order to study attitude towards smoking an experiment was set up to study the effect of a smoking and non smoking confederate on interpersonal distances maintained by students. t-test values for independent group means of interpersonal distance did not show a significant difference between smoking and non-smoking conditions. Significant differences, however, was found between smoker and subject, due to sex or gender. The personality of the smoker was positively evaluated by both groups.

INTRODUCTION

For years during the 18th and 19th century, smoking was considered to be a sophisticated and manly habit. Characterization of gentry in the West often depicted men retiring to their drawing room, after dinner for cigars. In the East the cigar was substituted by the "Huqqa" or the "Beeri". Cigarette advertisements of the early 20th century built on this image and by 1995 more than 50% of the male population of the world was smoking. Women followed suit and more frightening was the rise in the percentage of teenage female smokers. In 1964 America published the first Surgeon Generals Report on smoking. This was accompanied by an extensive publicity campaign to highlight the dangers of smoking, warning that smoking is linked to cancer and other serious diseases (Akers, 1992). It was even said to be responsible for about one in every five

deaths in the country. 90% of all lung cancer deaths were attributed to cigarette smoking (Fishbean & Pease, 1996; Leventhal & Watts, 1996).

Today at the beginning of the 21st century, smoking is the greatest single cause of preventable death, and may also be the chief cause of death when all causes are considered (McGinnis et al. 1992). The dangers of smoking are not confined to the smoker alone. Studies of second hand smoke encountered by those in regular close contact demonstrate that spouses, family members and co-workers are at risk for a variety of health disorders. Two groups that maybe at particular risk are infants and spouses of smokers (Leventhal & Watts, 1996) and pregnant mothers and their fetuses (DiFranz & Robert, 1995). In Japan, Hiryama (1981) followed 540 non-smoking wives of smoking and non-smoking husbands for 14 years and examined mortality due to lung cancer. The wives of heavy smokers had a higher rate of lung cancer than those who smoked little or not at all. Reif et al. (1992) showed that even dogs whose owners smoked had 50% greater risk of developing lung cancer than those whose owners were non-smokers. Research is also accumulated to suggest that parental cigarette may actually lower cognitive performance among adolescents (Bauman, Koch & Fisher, 1989; Bauman, Flewelling & La Pelle, 1991). The likely mechanism whereby this occurs is that carboxyhaemoglobin is increased by exposure to tobacco smoke reducing the oxygen capacity of the blood and increasing carbon monoxide levels which adversely influence mental performance (Bauman, Koch & Fisher, 1989).

Where dangers of smoking have been researched and highlighted counter arguments to the smoking threat via the tobacco industry are also plentiful. Rumours persisted that the data linking smoking to cancer was based on studies of rats who smoked excessively in laboratories. Others pointed out that correlations between smoking and lung cancer were small and statistically significant only for males. Newspapers and magazine articles heralded the appearance of a tar free cigarette. On this basis many smokers felt that by the time smoking became a health risk for them there would be a tobacco alternative. Others switched from heavy tar and nicotine cigarettes to less strong brands believing they were taking a step towards good health.

The last few decades have seen an increasing world wide concern with promoting awareness and prevention programmes related to smoking. Attempts have been made at both government and non government levels. Anti smoking media campaigns, legislative action against smoking, multi model programmes

and therapies have been on the rise (Mogielnicki, & Neslin, 1986; Leventhal & Cleary 1980; Meyer, & Nash, 1980; Flay, 1987). Community approaches like not permitting smoking in public places, requiring non-smoking sections in restaurants and other public areas and protecting the rights of non-smokers have been implemented (Lichtenstein, Nettkoven & Ockene, 1991). Business organizations have also developed policies against smoking. Some also developed smoking cessation programmes for their employees, others restricted on the job smoking to particular times and places, and still others even banned smoking. These restrictions are expected to further increase in the coming years (Grundburg, 1991; Cummings, Hellman & Ermont, 1988).

In the context of the above it was of great interest to the researcher to study the attitudes of students against this deadly evil. It was however felt that to obtain data through questionnaires or interviews would be strongly confounded by the social desirability effect. So, an experimental design was so evolved that the data would be gathered in an indirect and unobtrusive manner. For this purpose, the concept of Personal Space/ Interpersonal Distance was employed as a dependent variable to obtain an indirect measure of the attitude towards a smoker/ non smoker.

The concept of Personal Space and Interpersonal Distance is a derivative of the work of two well known authors and their works, namely, "The Hidden Dimension" by Hall (1966) and "Personal Space" by Sommers (1969). Their work is related to the area of non verbal communication. There is ample evidence in Psychology that in most real life inter actions non verbal messages are sent and received in several channels simultaneously. We communicate with our gaze, facial expression, posture, gestures, vocal quality, dress and distancing behaviour simultaneously, and these messages are usually coordinated with each other as well as our verbal messages. Eye gaze and the use of space and territory are perhaps the most important universal, non verbal signals which have been used by researchers to study interaction behaviour. The role of distance in space has been studied through two different approaches. Hall (1966) took a descriptive, social, anthropological orientation and described various cultural roles and conventions which regulate the use of space. He segmented the social environment into four different spatial zones namely, the intimate, personal, social consultative and public zone. Each of these interactive zones was characterized by very different norms, expectations and behaviour. Intriguing differences in the use of space as an independent variable have been found by researches related to gender, status, race, culture, subculture, types of personality,

likes and dislikes, psychological disorders, relationships, situations, environment, and inappropriate distances (Argyle & Dean, 1965; Sommers, 1959; Mehrabian, 1969; Aiello 1977; Zuckerman 1983, & Rosenfield, Beck, Smith & Kehoe, 1984). Altman and Vinsel (1977) provide a thorough review of the first ten years of research findings related to Hall's hypothesis pertaining to these spatial zones.

A more experimental analysis of spatial behaviour was undertaken by Sommers (1969) who looked at how man made environments are used in interpersonal communication like the way people prefer different seating positions around a table depending upon the kind of interaction they are engaged in, or when working together, competing with somebody or sitting in a restaurant. Barker (1968) and Forgas & Brown (1977) analyzed such behaviour possibilities in a variety of situations like street corners, shops, offices, theaters etc. In the years to follow sociologists, ecologists, geographers, psychiatrists, and architects continued to add an interdisciplinary richness and diversity to this budding research domain (Grasha, Ichiyama & Kelley, 1986 and Salzmann & Grasha, 1991).

Looking at the growing concern about smoking and its harmful effects and the need to separate smokers from non smokers in public areas an attempt was made to study this phenomenon by using interpersonal distance as a non verbal measure to indicate attitudes towards smokers and non smokers. It was found that interpersonal distance had been used as a variable of interest in early role playing studies of approval seeking and attitude inference (Rosenfield, 1965 and Mehrabian, 1969). Literature revealed that little objective research had been done on spatial distance between smokers and non smokers; however, some experimental studies like those mentioned below revealed both a positive and negative attitude towards smokers. Bleda and Sandman (1977) working with male soldiers report a lot of hostility by non smokers towards smokers. Non smokers considered smokers regardless of whether they smoked courteously or blew smoke right at them to be less considerate, less polite, and less personally attractive than were subjects who did not smoke. Weir (1967) showed matched series of photographs of smokers and non smokers to high school students. The smoking models were perceived as being more adventurous and immature and having narrow interests while non smoking models were perceived as more mature, frank and having broader interests.

It can be concluded on the basis of the above that people's use of space provides many clues to their motives and feelings. The present study was

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

therefore designed to find if smoking would affect the conversational distance. Two hypotheses were formulated:

- 1) Subjects during a conversation would stand further away from someone who is smoking than from someone who is not smoking.
- 2) The personality of the smoker will be perceived negatively as compared to a non smoker.

METHOD

Sample

An incidental sample of 95 male and female students was selected from various departments of Karachi University. These students were from Honours and Masters level. Their average age range was between 17-25 years. They came from all income levels but were predominantly of a middle class socio-economic background. The sample selected therefore broadly represents the described population. The subjects although chosen on an incidental basis were selected with care that they were neither friends nor acquaintances of the smoking confederate in order to avoid any biases in the situation under study.

Design

An Independent Subjects Design was used where half the subjects were exposed to an experimental smoking condition and the other half to a control non smoking condition.

Procedure

Students in the Psychology lab were trained to play different roles in the experimental set up. This involved three specific categories.

- 1) Confederate (also referred to as the Research Assistant): This was a young well dressed male, final year student, trained to act as a smoker in an experimental condition called the smoking condition. He was also trained to uniformly stand, greet and converse with subjects while holding a lit cigarette in his hand. He was to hold the cigarette in such a way that it was definitely noticeable.

- 2) Experimenters: These were students who were trained to contact and call the subjects from different departments of the university and briefed them about taking part in a psychology experiment. They were trained to uniformly greet and assist these subjects to the lab where they were to collect questionnaires from a research assistant. After receiving the questionnaires they then took the subjects to an adjoining room to fill them out.
- 3) Helpers: These were also psychology students who were trained to make floor markings in advance and later measure the conversational distances between the confederate and the subjects.

Arrangements made prior to the experiment

- 1) On the desk next to which the research assistant was to stand was placed an ashtray, a pack of strong, local, branded cigarettes and a matchbox. All this was placed at angle to be easily noticed by the subjects. This was an attempt to create experimental realism.
- 2) Care was taken that the smell of cigarette smoke was present in the room throughout the experimental condition.
- 3) Distances were measured and marked on the floor between the confederate and various positions where the subjects might stand.
- 4) Time to converse between confederate and subject was fixed to be two minutes.

During the experiment the subjects were exposed to the experimental and controlled conditions separately. After this they were taken to the adjoining lab and made to fill out questionnaires which included one that required them to rank the research assistant on a list of five positive and five negative personality traits. The positive and negative traits were alternately and alphabetically placed in the list to safeguard against response sets.

Finally, during the course of conversation the experimenters checked if the subjects had noticed the lit cigarette in the hand of the confederate. The subjects were finally thanked for their co-operation to give time and were then allowed to leave.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

RESULTS

Table I

Comparison of Mean Distance (in feet) in Smoking and Non Smoking Conditions

Gender	N	SM Mean (in ft)	N	NSM Mean (in ft)	Obtained t value	df	Significance level
Females	23	2.68	24	2.67	0.086	45	P > .05
Males	24	2.12	24	1.14	0.6	46	P > .05
M+F	47	4.80	48	3.81	0.024	93	P > .05

SM = Smoking condition

NSM= Non smoking condition

Table II

Gender Differences in Smoking and Non Smoking Conditions

Condition	N	Male Mean (in ft)	N	Female Mean (in ft)	t value	df	Significance level
Smoking	24	2.12	23	2.68	2.35	45	P <.05
Non Smoking	24	1.14	24	2.67	2.78	46	P <.01

Table III
List of positive and negative traits

Traits
Aggressive
Ambitious
Bold
Immature
Impatient
Independent
Self-Confident
Selfish
Show off
Social

Top ranking traits in both conditions were as follows:

1. Bold
2. Independent
3. Self Confident

Table IV
Percentages of Male and Female Students Who Noticed the Cigarettes

Subjects	Noticed the Cigarette	Did Not Notice the Cigarette
Male	62.5%	37.5%
Female	76%	24%

Table V

Percentage of Males and Females Giving a Positive or Negative View on Smoking

Sample	Smokers		Non Smokers	
	Positive View	Negative View	Positive View	Negative View
Male	65%	35%	29%	71%
Female	---	---	66%	34%

DISCUSSION

The main aim of the study was to objectively measure and compare the interaction distances between smoking and non smoking conditions. These were to serve as indicators of pro or anti attitudes towards smoking. It was assumed that greater distances would point out to a spontaneous safe guarding reaction to a smoking environment or in other words to a reflection of an anti smoking attitude. An analysis of the results however gives a rather bleak picture. Results in Table 1 show that no significantly different mean interpersonal distances were found between smoking and non smoking conditions, either for males, females or both groups taken together. All these results based upon independent t-test values indicate $p > .05$. It can therefore be concluded that the experimental condition of smoking did not have any effect on the interpersonal distances maintained. No differences in attitude towards smoking or non smoking are suggested by the planned experimental setup.

It is however interesting to note that significantly different mean interpersonal distances were found to exist between female and male students and the confederate both in smoking ($p < .05$) and non smoking ($p < .01$) conditions. This is a clear cut indication of the role played by gender in eastern cultures. Living in a traditional Pakistani society the female students lived up to the role defined for them. This role requires the females to maintain a reasonable and greater distance from males as compared to a male-male situation. Although the distinction between the male and female role is universal but its importance in a country like Pakistan is more pronounced and has therefore truly showed up in the results.

Another interesting aspect of the results was the analysis of the questionnaire data. The aim of this data was to evaluate and compare the image of the confederate in the smoking and non smoking conditions and check for any differences. This evaluation was based upon ranking the confederate on a list of five positive and five negative traits. The traits assigned the first, second and third ranks were specially noted as describing the confederate both in smoking and non smoking conditions. Table 3 provides the analyzed data of these traits and indicates that students were not inclined to perceive smoking in a negative manner. The confederate was perceived and ranked as 1) bold 2) independent and 3) self confident in both conditions. The image of the smoking confederate thus was not regarded as negative as compared to the non smoking set up. Results like the above make one think of the positive image of a smoker inculcated by the media world over as one of the determinants of smoking. It may be pertinent here to refer to the sophisticated marketing campaigns on smoking in the West which have successfully promoted the perception of smokers as tough, sociable, liked by the opposite sex (Martin & Elisco, 1989) and mature, wealthy, happy, thin and sexy (Hostetler, 1995). Our younger generation being ardent admirers of their western counterparts, perhaps holds similar perceptions and likes and dislikes for many such important aspects of life.

Towards the end of the experiment the students serving as subjects had been asked if they had noticed the cigarette in the confederate's hand. This data was analyzed in terms of percentages of those who noticed and those who did not notice. The researcher felt that results would prove authentic only if the subjects did notice, were aware of the smoking and yet opted for a positive image of the smoker and did not maintain a wider distance between self and smoker. Results of Table 4 show that 63% of males and 76% of females definitely reported noticing the lit cigarette. The attitude towards smoking therefore even if not recognized as truly positive may definitely be regarded as one of "no concern". The important question now was whether such an attitude could be taken as a representative of the university population as a whole. One important method to make certain in such cases is to cross validate the results. The complications of the scenario involved in the experimental setup rendered repetition difficult. So another source was tapped for possible cross check. A sample of 50 male and female university students was further examined. Since the earlier (experiment proper group) and present group belonged to the same parent population therefore it was assumed that both samples would represent the same universe broadly speaking.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

The new sample of 50 males and females was interviewed about:

- 1) General Health Awareness
- 2) Attitudes towards Smoking
- 3) Perception of Cigarette Smoking as Adding to or Subtracting from personality.

This sample consisted of three types of groups:

- a) male smokers
- b) male non smokers
- c) female non smokers

No female smokers group was available due to non acknowledgement of indulgence into smoking by females at the university. Results of this interview indicated that all three groups seemed to think that there was not much awareness about health issues in Pakistan. Results were also analyzed in percentages with reference to positive and negative views about smoking and non smoking (Table 5). A greater percentage of smoking males and non smoking females viewed smoking positively as compared to non smoking males. They also reported that smoking adds to the personality of a smoker and gives him more "style" as depicted in novels, Television plays and films.

Thus the findings of the above mentioned rather small sampled opinion survey also provides evidence in the same direction as found earlier. It maybe relevant here to mention again that these views and opinions seem to be true for a vast majority of younger populations world over. In a not so old study Cecil, Evans and Stanley (1996) investigated the relationship between current smoking status, gender and believability ratings of health warning labels on cigarette packs on a sample of adolescents. Adolescent smokers were less likely to accept the specific health risks associated with smoking as compared to non smokers. In the light of the findings of this study, the positive views about smoking and smokers maybe considered a deep blow to the efforts being made world over to fight against the evils of smoking. What's more the fight against this health hazard is yet to continue in the third world countries like Pakistan but also in the West. One can marvel over the Herculean task that lies ahead for Pakistan in the new millennium and the great responsibility to be shared by psychologists, planners and health practitioners.

HUSSAIN & FEROZE

REFERENCES

- Aiello, J.R. (1977). Crowding and the Role of Interpersonal Distance Preference. *Sociometry* 40 (3) 271-282.
- Akers, R.L. (1992). *Drugs, Alcohol and Society*: Social Structure, Process and Policy. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Altman, I. & Vinsel, A.M. (1977). *Personal Space*. An Analysis of E.T. Hall's Proxemic Framework. In I. Altman & J.F. Wohlwill (eds.) *Human Behavior and the Environment*: Vol. 2. Advances in Theory & Research. N.Y., Plenum.
- Argyle, M. & Dean, J. (1965). Eye contact, distance & affiliation. *Sociometry*, 28, 289-304.
- Bauman, K.E., Flewelling, R.K., & La Pelle, J. (1991). Parental cigarette smoking and cognitive performance of children. *Health Psychology*, 10, 282-288.
- Bauman, K.E., Koch, G.G., & Fisher, L.A. (1989). Family cigarette smoking and test performance by adolescents. *Health Psychology*, 8, 97-105.
- Barker, R. G. (1968). *Ecological Psychology*. Stanford University Press.
- Bleda, P.R. & Sandman, P.H. (1977) In smoke's way. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 62, 452-458.
- Cecil, H., Evans, R.J., & Stanley, M.A. (1996). Perceived believability among adolescents of health warning labels on cigarette packs. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, Vol. 26 (6), 502-519.
- Cummings, K.M., Hellman, R., & Ermont, S.L. (1988). Correlates of participation in a worksite stop contest. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 11, 267-278.
- Di Franz, J. R. & Robert A.L. (1995). Effect of maternal cigarette smoking on pregnancy complications & Sudden Infant Death Syndrome. *The Journal of Family Practice*, 40: 385-394.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

Fishbeane, D. H., & Susan E. P. (1996). The Dynamics of Drug Abuse. Boston: Allger and Bacon.

Flay, B.R. (1987). Mass Media and smoking cessation: A Critical Review. American Journal of Public Health, 77, 153-160.

Forgas, J.P., & Brown, L.B. (1977). Environmental and behavioural cues in the perception of social encounters. American Journal of Psychology, 90, 635-644.

Grasha ,A.F., Ichiyama, M., & Kelley, D. (1986) Psychological size and distance in student teacher and other interpersonal interactions. Paper Presented at Annual Meetings of A.P.A. Washington D.C.

Grundberg, N. E. (1991). Cigarette smoking at work. Data, issues and models. In S. Weiss, J. Fielding & A. Baum (eds.) Perspectives in Behavioral Medicine (Vol. 8 pp. 75-98) Hillsdale N. J: Erlbaum.

Hall (1963). A system for notation of proxemic behavior. American Anthropologist, 65, 1003-1026.

Hall, E.T. (1966). The Hidden Dimension. N.Y: Doubleday

Hiryama, T. (1981). Non smoking wives of heavy smokers have a higher risk of lung cancer. A study from Japan. British Medical Journal, 282, 183-185.

Hostetler, A.J. (1995). "Joe Camel Blamed for Rise in Teen Smoking". Austin American Statesman (July 21): AZ.

Leventhal, H. & Cleary, P.D. (1980). The Smoking Problem. A review of the research and theory in behavioral risk modification. Psychological Bulletin, 88, 370-405.

Leventhal, H. & Watts, J.C. (1996). Sources of resistance to fear arousing communications in smoking and lung cancer. Journal of Personality, 34, 155-175.

Lichtenstein,E., Nette Koven, L. & Ockene, J.K. (1991). Community Intervention Trial for Smoking Cessation (COMMUNITY) Opportunities for

HUSSAIN & FEROZE

Community Psychologists in Chronic Disease Prevention. American Journal of Community Psychology, 19, 17-39.

Martin, Elisico, J. (1989). Stereotypes of smokers held by Hispanic and white Non Hispanic smokers. Vol. 24 (3). International Journal of Addiction, p. 203-213.

Mc Ginnis, J.M. (1992). Occupant protection as a priority in national efforts to promote health. Health Education Quarterly, 11, 127-131.

Mehrabian, A. (1969). Significance of posture and position in the communication of attitude and status relationships. Psychological Bulletin, 71, 127-131.

Meyer A. J., & Nash, J. (1980). Skills training in a cardio-vascular health education campaign. Journal of Consulting & Clinical Psychology, 48, 129-142.

Mogielnicki, R.P., & Neslin, S. (1986). Tailored media can enhance the success of smoking cessation clinics. Journal of Behavioral Medicine, 9, 141-162.

Reif, J.S.; Dunn, K.; Ogilvie, G.K. & Harris (1992). Passive smoking and canine lung cancer risk. American Journal of Epidemiology, 135, 234-239.

Rosenfield, H.M. (1965). Effects of an approval seeking induction on interpersonal proximity. Psychological Reports, 17, 120-122.

Rosenfield, H.M., Brech, R.E., Smith, S.E., & Kehoe. (1984). Intimacy and mediators of the proximity gaze compensation effect. Movement, Controversial role, acquaintance and gender. Journal of Non Verbal Behaviour, 8, (4) 235-249.

Salzmann, J. & Grasha, A.F. (1991). Psychological size and distance in Manager-Subordinate relations. Journal of Social Psychology, 131, 629-646.

Sommers, R. (1959). Studies in Personal Space. Sociometry, 22, 247-260.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

- Sommers, R. (1969). Personal Space. Eaglewood Cliffs, NJ. Prentice Hall.
- Weir, J.M. (1967). Male student perceptions of smokers in S. B. Zagora (ed.) Studies and Issues in Smoking Behaviour. Tucson. University of Arizona Press.
- Zuckerman, M. (1983). Civil inattention exists in elevators. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 9, 578-587.

**EMOTIONAL INDICATORS OF AGGRESSION IN HUMAN
FIGURE DRAWING OF AFGHAN REFUGEE CHILDREN**

Maher Bano

Erum Irshad

Department of Psychology

University of Peshawar

and

Riaz Ahmad

Institute of Clinical Psychology

University of Karachi

ABSTRACT

The main aim of the investigation was to explore emotional indicators of aggression in Afghan refugee children in refugee camps. The study was conducted on 150 school going children, seventy five males and seventy five females, age ranges from 5 to 13 years with a mean age of 9 years. The emotional indicators for aggression contained 24 items on Human Figure Drawing test (Gilbert, 1980). The findings reflect the frequency of occurrence of specific indicators related to aggression among refugee children, further differences between males and females were also observed. Chi square analyses for the frequently occurring indicators in males and females, were significant only for emotional indicators of "Pressure" and "Claw fingers".

INTRODUCTION

Children's behavior may be manifested in many socially approved as well as unapproved forms. Their behavior is a result of multiple variables for example, parent-child relationship, good orientation, values and barriers. One of the possible barriers may be frustration. It is also generally felt that aggression may be one of the responses under frustrating situations. Aggression is a

response that delivers noxious stimuli to another organism (Buss, 1961). Aggression is a basic reaction to frustrating circumstances whenever pleasure seeking or pain avoiding behavior is blocked. Aggression is primarily a self-destructive drive a "death instinct" that is directed from the self to others when released by external frustration. Whenever any organism is frustrated it will always show an increased tendency to respond aggressively and whenever an organism is responding aggressively, the behavior is always a consequence of frustration (Freud, 1917).

Berkowitz (1962), Bandura (1963) offer a spectrum of opinion about the origins of man's aggressiveness the arguments involve the familiar polarities of nature vs. nurture. Lorenz (1966) emphasized on the inherited instinctual origins of aggressiveness.

Bandura (1963) discuss various theories concerning the origins of aggressive feelings and behavior in man. In addition to the instinctual theory the concepts of frustration response, social learning and defensive requirements are important theories as to the source of human aggressiveness. Berkowitz (1962) discuss the frustration response theory of aggression contains the core idea that aggressive behavior comes from interfering with on going purposeful activity. When hopes aspirations and expectations are inhibited, a man may try to solve the conflict by behaving aggressively.

The social learning theory of aggressive behavior assumes that aggressiveness can be learned through socialization and schooling during a child's development, (Bandura, 1963). According to him in societies where violence is accepted or rewarded as an effective adoptive strategy for resolving conflicts, that culture may be in for significant difficulty as control over excess aggressiveness becomes more and more tenuous.

From 1979 to 1989 the war between the Soviet army and Afghan Non-Military forces forced millions of refugees to flee to Pakistan and other neighboring countries. As many as 175,000 Afghan arrived in Pakistan in less than six months from north and north east of Kabul, including a variety of ethnic and sectarian groups like Tajiks, Uzbek, Hazara and both Sunni and Shia Muslims. Many of these refugees arrived at Jalozi and New Shamshatoo Refugee Camps.

Azimi (1998) discusses that when a family immigrates to a new place where the socio-cultural system differs significantly from the one they are leaving behind, in this instance, the family pattern is rapidly undergoing change. Both the parents and children find it difficult and frustrating to be unable to communicate adequately.

The children, meanwhile, often dissociate themselves from their parents, both cognitively, and emotionally and become unsure of their identity and direction in life. Such families have not only lost their identity, but have also lost their cultural goals for functioning.

Azimi further states that "Afghans have a strong sense of individuality, which has historically ensured their self-preservation. This is most evident in the diversity of their opinion, and their behavior. Afghans traditionally live within nuclear and extended families, and loyalty to the family has been a basic value. They have been forced to flee their homeland, but many hope to return to it someday. The entry to this culture has occurred under traumatic conditions, and at times, has been marked by disappointment, failure, and hopelessness. They have been experiencing. The children's ability to cope with their new environment depends considerably on the parents' ability to cope with their own conflicting loyalties, anxiety, and worry. They may feel unaccepted, shy, may avoid peer relationships, or may develop school problems. They may also delay learning the new language, which makes any change more difficult".

Given the regional and ethnic diversity among Afghans, it is unlikely one could construct a single profile with universal applicability to their adjustment. In general, uncertainty accompanies feelings of alienation, frustration, and depression while they are attempting to adjust to the new culture. They view their future with uncertainty as they have lost their social position and power; many cannot even practice their professions. Consequently, Afghans have a high rate of incidence of symptomatology and problem in adjusting (Azimi, 1998).

Armed conflict, displacement and other crisis have a devastating impact on the psychological and social well being of children and adolescents. In case of children and adolescents psychological intervention aims to maintain or re-establish their normal development and social effects, each continually influencing the other. Psychological effects are those, which affect different levels of functioning including cognitive, perception and memory. Social effects pertain to altered relationships between family and community network, and

economic status. In situations of armed conflict, they are due to death, separation, and other losses, experiencing or witnessing physical violence, family and community break down, damaged human values and practices and destruction of environment, including facilities and services. Armed conflict shatters trust, destroys communities, diminishes opportunities for personal development, and creates deep psychological wounds.

The upheaval of the refugees lives is especially traumatic for the young victims. Ashabanner (1987) states that "caught between danger at home and loss of identity in a strange land, refugees seek safety in societies where they are isolated, different and often impoverished. In addition to loss of loved ones trauma of escape and separation, they experience cultural shocks which results in anger, fear and loneliness as well as insecurity". He further reported that nine out of every ten unaccompanied young refugees are caught in emotional crisis, reflecting in number of ways including sleep distresses, uncontrollable anger, and loss of appetite, sadness and depression.

Aggression can be studied in many ways. One of the suitable ways to measure aggressive responses is Human Figure Drawing Test. Lowenfeld (1947) have claimed that children exaggerate the size of drawings of topics which are important to them. Poor integration was shown frequently on the Human Figure Drawings of clinic patients, overtly aggressive children and brain-injured youngsters. Shading of the face was observed on the HFDs of the children who were overtly aggressive. Gross asymmetry of limbs seems to be associated with poor co-ordination, and impulsiveness and was present quite often on the drawings of the aggressive children (Koppitz, 1968). Hammer (1963) observed that long arms reflect externally directed aggressive needs.

A number of studies have been conducted to assess the sex differences on different variables; especially aggression is the most popular field in this respect. Eleanor Maccoby and Carol Jackelin (cited in Zafran & Zawitz, 1997) observed obvious differences in aggressive behavior, with males showing more aggression than females. Eagly and Stiffen (cited in Koppitz, 1968) report that in 50 out of 56 studies comparing male and female aggression, found that male behave at least slightly more aggressively than woman. This gender difference was larger for physical aggression than psychological aggression. On Human Figure, at all age levels, there appear to be some drawing items which are more masculine or "feminine" and which occur more often on the HFD'S of boys or girls respectively. Masculine items include profile drawing, ear and knee while feminine items

include hair, pupils, eyebrows, two lips and clothing (Koppitz, 1968). Koppitz emphasizes these items as developmental and the function of either maturation or environmental effects. The course of these developmental trends is divergent for males and females, Nursery school boys more often instigate, and are more often involved in, aggressive incidents than are girls (Maccoby&Jacklin, 1980). The aggressive patterns of boys and girls differ in the way that boys are more likely to retaliate after being attacked than are girls (Darvill&Cheyne, 1981). Therefore these differences might be present in between gender, on the basis of their innate differences in showing and dealing with their aggressive impulses. Rohner (1976) confirmed the well-known facts that American males, both men and boys are more aggressive than females; he found aggression by males and females as positively correlated. However in specific culture and ages the relationships might reverse but the difference do not disappear. He argued that diverse explanation could be given for these differences including genetic pre disposition.

Maccoby and Jacklin (1980), emphasized a measure, based on data pooled over societies, which does support an early sex difference. Accordingly some attention must be given to Rohner's explanation for sex difference in aggression, which posits a genetic pre disposition, which is subject to interaction with enculturative pressure.

Eme and Kavanagh (1995) summarize different views regarding gender difference in aggression indicating that some stresses biological vulnerability, some points to socialization factors, (parental reinforcement, same sex role modeling, peer group). An interesting hypothesis is that boys are more likely to manifest aggression in overt ways being physically aggressive, while girls engage in relational aggression, in less overt way like attempting to hurt other by ridiculing them, withdrawing friendship and spreading rumors (Crick and Grot peter, 1995).

As different emotional indicators related to aggression deals with aggression indifferent ways. Some are related to overt aggression and some to anxiety over aggressive impulses. Further some of them would be more prevailing in our culture than the others. Thus it can be safely assume that certain emotional indicators would appear more frequently than others. Indicators frequently used by females would be different from those, frequently used by males. It would be interesting to have descriptive

BANO, IRSYAD & AHMAD

information regarding the possible occurrence of emotional indicators in our culture with special reference to children victims of armed conflicts.

METHOD

Sample

Sample consists of 150-school going children,(75 male & 75 female).Their age ranged from 5 to 13 years with the mean age of 9 years. The children belonged to lower socio-economic group, resided in Shamshatoo Refugee camps and were approached at International aid schools.

Material

Human Figure Drawing as Projective test (Koppitz, 1968) was used. A list of emotional indicators for Aggression containing 24 indicators was drawn from the literature for the assessment of the human drawings of the subjects (Gilbert, 1980).

Procedure

Test was individually administered after building the rapport. All the subjects were required to draw a human figure on a 8" x 11" size paper with standardized instruction which is as follows:

"On this piece of paper, I would like you to draw a whole person. It can be any kind of person, you want to draw, just make sure that it is a whole person and not a stick figure or a cartoon Figure".

There was no time limit for HFD test. If a child was dissatisfied with his drawings, he was permitted to start over again on the back or on a second sheet upon request. The standard procedure of scoring was applied, after they have finished. To observe the frequency of emotional indicators, Percentages were calculated. Further chi square analyses were calculated to observe the differences between males and females on most frequently occurring indicators.

RESULTS

Table I presents emotional indicators in terms of percentage on human figure drawing by the subjects. Analysis of the results indicates that 36% subjects have drawn "arm extended" as an emotional indicator, 24% have drawn "pressure" as an emotional indicator for aggression, 16.6% subjects have drawn "powerful hands and 31.3% subjects long arms as emotional indicators. 19.3% subjects have drawn "teeth well defined", 14.6% have drawn "spear fingers", and 18% have made claw fingers, 14.3% have drawn "arms out with fists clenched" as an emotional indicators. Other categories of emotional indicators having frequency less than 13% have less interpretive value. 10% subjects have drawn squared shoulders as an emotional indicator on their HFD. 13.3% subjects of the present study emphasized on the eyes on their HFD. 0.6% children have drawn weapon knives as an emotional indicator. Table II and III shows the frequency of occurrence of 24 indicators of aggression on drawings of male and female subjects. Emotional indicators, ranked 1,2 and 3 on the basis of frequency of their occurrence were the same for both groups. Most frequently occurring indicators were "Arms out with fists clenched", "Arms extended from body and over long" and "Long arms". The emotional indicator of "Arms out with fists clenched" is especially an indicator of repressed aggression, which was the most frequently occurring indicator on the protocols of refugee children. Further when males and females were compared for four frequently occurring indicators, it appears that the three frequently occurring indicators i.e. "Arms out with fists clenched", "Arms extended from body and over long" and "Long arms", do not seem to differ in males and females. However, for "Pressure" and "Claw fingers" as the fourth priority of males and females respectively, the chi square analyses were significant (Table IV).

Table I

**Emotional indicators of aggression, their frequency of occurrence
in total sample on human figure drawing test**

Sr.No	Emotional indicators	Frequency of Response	Percentage
1	Long arms	47	31.3
2	Arms out with fists clenched	68	45.3
3	Arms extended from body and over long	54	36
4	Hands emphasized	20	13.3
5	Hands powerful	25	16.6
6	Long fingers	16	10.6
7	Spear fingers	22	14.6
8	Claw fingers	27	18
9	More than five fingers	7	4.6
10	Shoulders squared	15	10
11	Chin enlarged	2	1.3
12	Teeth defined	29	19.3
13	Eyes emphasized	20	13.3
14	Angular body	8	5.3
15	Heavy shading	7	4.6
16	Large figure shifted to left	6	4
17	Large same sex figure	12	8
18	Figure clothed with toes exposed	9	6
19	Middle page drawing	13	8.6
20	Few curves sharp edges	6	4
21	Straight lines	6	4
22	Strokes away from subject	1	0.6
23	Pressure	36	24
24	Weapons, knife, gun	1	0.6

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

Table II

**Emotional indicators of aggression used by male subjects (N=75)
on human figure drawing in order of preference**

Sr.No	Emotional indicators	Frequency of Response	Percentages
1	Arms out with fists clenched	34*	45
2	Arms extended from body and over long	30*	40
3	Long arms	26*	34
4	Pressure	21*	28
5	Teeth defined	15	20
6	Hands powerful	14	18.6
7	Spear fingers	13	17.33
8	Eyes emphasized	12	16
9	Hand emphasized	11	14
10	Long fingers	10	13.3
11	Claw fingers	8	10.66
12	Angular body	8	10.66
13	Heavy shading	7	9.33
14	Large arm same sex figure	7	9.33
15	Middle page drawing	7	9.33
16	Shoulders squared	6	8
17	Figure clothed with toes exposed	6	8
18	Straight lines	6	8
19	Large figure shifted to left	5	6.66
20	More than five figures	3	4
21	Few curves sharp edges	3	4
22	Chin enlarged	2	2.66
23	Strokes away from subject	1	1.33
24	Weapons, knife, guns	1	1.33

*Frequently used emotional indicators, used in further comparison with females

Table III

Emotional indicators of aggression used by female subjects (N=75)
On human figure drawing in order of preference

Sr.No	Emotional indicators	Frequency of Response	Percentages
1	Arms out with fists clenched	34*	45
2	Arms extended from body and over long	24*	32
3	Long arms	21*	28
4	Claw fingers	19*	25.33
5	Pressure	15	20
6	Teeth defined	14	18.66
7	Hands powerful	11	14
8	Hand emphasized	9	12
9	Shoulders squared	9	12
10	Eyes emphasized	8	10.66
11	Long fingers	6	8
12	Spear fingers	6	8
13	Middle page drawing	6	8
14	Large arm same sex figure	5	6.66
15	More than five figures	4	5.33
16	Few curves sharp edges	3	4
17	Figure clothed with toes exposed	3	4
18	Large figure shifted to left	1	1.33
19	Angular body	0	0
20	Heavy shading	0	0
21	Straight lines	0	0
23	Strokes away from subject	0	0
24	Weapons, knife, guns	0	0

*Frequently used emotional indicators, used in further comparison with males

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

Table IV

Table showing chi square values for frequently used emotional indicators, in distinguishing males from females

Emotional indicators	X ²	N	df	Level of Significance
Arms out with fists clenched	0.36531	150	1	p>.05
Arms extended from body and over long	2.59	150	1	p>.05
Long arms	0	150	1	p>.05
Claw fingers	8.9628	150	1	p<.01
Pressure	5.6237	150	1	p<.02

DISCUSSION

The results are consistent with the expectation about occurrence of large number of emotional indicators related to aggression. Majority of the subjects have drawn long, power hands, hands over long and extended on their human figure drawing and Machover (1965) also found those as emotional indicators among children who have aggressive tendencies among them. These emotional indicators have good interpretive value. Anderson Machover (1951) found pressure as an emotional indicator on human figure drawings. The heavy pressure is a valid emotional indicator for measurement of aggression on human figure drawing test for children.

Table 1 indicates that 19.3% children have drawn teeth well defined as an emotional indicator for oral aggression. Hammer (1963) found teeth well defined as an emotional indicator among children having aggressive tendencies. Teeth occurred most often on the records of the overtly aggressive children, it might also be concluded that teeth are a sign of aggressiveness and not only of oral aggression (Koppitz, 1968). Hammer (1963) suggested that presence of teeth might indicate not only oral aggression but also sadistic tendencies teeth seem to be a valid emotional indicator for measurement of aggression by HFD.

Machover (1965) found spear, claw fingers as an emotional indicator for aggression externalized 14.6% and 18% children have drawn spear and claw fingers on their HFD. This emotional indicator also seems valid for the measurement of aggression of HFD among children. It was further noted that arms out with fists clenched as an emotional indicator among children with aggressive tendencies. Hammer (1965) found clenched fists or closed as an indicator on HFDs for repressed aggression. The subjects have shown arms out with fist clenched with the highest frequency of 45.3%, which reflect the high tendency of refugee children to repress their anger.

Machover (1965) found spear fingers as an emotional indicator for externalized aggression 17.3% children especially boys from the sample drawn spear fingers as an emotional indicator. This emotional indicator seems to be valid for measurement of aggression. Our Sample has shown arms extended from body and over long and squared shoulders as an emotional indicator for aggression. Due to high frequency "Arms extended from boy over and long" has high interpretive value.

13.3% of subjects of present study emphasized eyes on their HFD. Hammervy (1963), and Machover (1965) found prominent eyes as emotional indicators for aggressive and assaultive subjects but due to low frequency, it has less interpretive value in this culture, 16.6% children have drawn powerful hands on their HFD. Hammer (1963) found powerful hands as an emotional indicator for aggression. Koppitz (1968) found this emotional indicator occurred particularly and frequently on the drawings of the overtly aggressive children. It has some interpretive value. About 4.6% children have drawn heavy shading on their human figure drawings. Machover (1965) also found shading as an emotional indicator drawn by children who have aggressive tendencies. Shading of body and limbs is common for girls through age 7 and for boys through age 8 years.

This item is not considered a valid emotional indicator until age 8 and 9 respectively (Koppitz, 1968). Only 0.6% children have drawn weapons, guns and knives as an emotional indicator on the HFDs. Hammer (1963) found weapons as an indicator for aggression. In our sample it occurred with very low frequency so it has less interpretive value. Human Figure Drawing Test measures aggressive behaviors among the children ranging in age from 8-18 years but all emotional indicators present in literature have different interpretive value. According to our results arms out with fists clenched, arms emphasized long arms, hands powerful,

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

spear and claw fingers, teeth well defined and pressure have more interpretive value as an emotional indicators for measurement of aggression on the HFDs of children.

When five frequently occurring indicators compared with reference to males and females. They seem to differ only on "drawing claw fingers" and "use of pressure". With high means of females associated with claw fingers and high means of males associated with use of pressure. The other three variables including arms fist clenched, arms extended from body and long arms were failed to differ in males and females. It appears that there is no difference in drawing of both with regard to expression of aggression. Significant difference on the indicators of claw fingers and use of pressure might be due to the developmental patterns of both sexes as Goodenough found that certain indicators are more likely to appear on drawing of either sex (Goodenough, 1926). Further it is also an indication of consistency, as mechanical aspects as size, pressure, and line are likely to be more consistent over time than such features as bizarre features, omissions, shading and else (Gasorek, 1951).

REFERENCES

- Alder, P.T. (1970). Evaluation of the Human Figure Drawing Technique, Reliability Factorial Structure and Diagnostic Usefulness. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, Vol 35. No 52-57.
- Ashabraner, B. & Ashbraner, M. (1987). Into a Strange Land. Unaccompanied Refugee Youth in America. In Kausar, S. & Kausar, S. (1998). Personality Characteristics of Refugees and non-Refugees. Pakistan Journal of Psychology – 29, 15-23.
- Azimi,A.(1998).Family ,Culture and Generation Gap: A Communication Model. Lemar Aftaab. kabul@bellsouth.net
- Bandura, A. & Walter, R.H. (1963). Social learning and personality development. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Berkowitz, L. (1983). The experience of anger as a parallel process in the display of impulsive "angry" aggression. In Green, R.G. (1990). Human Aggression. California: Breaks/Cole Publishing Company. Pp-122-123.

BANO, IRSYAD & AHMAD

Buss, A. H. (1961). The psychology of aggression. New York: Wiley, p-1

Crick, N.R. & Grotpeter, J.K. (1995). Relational Aggression, gender and social psychological adjustment. In Wenar, C. & Kerig, P. (2000). Developmental Psychopathology: From Infancy Through Adolescence. McGraw Hill. Singapore.

Darvill, D., & Cheyne, J.A. (1981). Sequential analysis response to aggression: Age and Sex effects. In Hethrington, E.M., & Parke, R.D. (1986). Child Psychology; A Contemporary View point (3rd edition). McGraw Hill. U.S.A.

Freud, S. (1917). Mourning and Melancholia. In Janis, L.L (1969). Stress and Frustration, New York: Harcourt Brace, Jovanovich Inc. pp-149.

Gasorek, K.A. (1951). A study of the consequences and the reliability of certain of the formal and structural characteristics of children's drawings. In Harris, D.B. (1963). Children's drawings as measures of intellectual abilities. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich. U.S.A.

Goodenough, F.L. (1926). Measurement of intelligence by drawings. In Harris, D.B. (1963). Children's drawings as measures of intellectual abilities. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich. U.S.A.

Gilbert, J. (1980). Interpreting psychological test data. Volume ii New York: n Nostrand Reinhold company, -- 13-63.

Hammer, E.F. (1963). Clinical Application of Projective Drawings. Springfield, Thomas.

Koppitz, E.M. (1968). Psychological Evaluation of children's Human Figure Drawing. New York: Grune and Stratton.

Lorenz, K. (1966). On Aggression. New York. Harcourt, Brace and World. Inc.

Lowenfield, V. (1947). Creative and Mental Growth. In Fax, T.J. and Thomas G.V (1990) Children's drawings of an anxiety-eliciting topic. Effects on the size of the drawing. British Journal of Clinical Psychology, 29, 71-78.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

Maccoby, E.E., & Jacklin, C. (1980). Sex Differences in aggression: A rejoinder and reprise. Child development. In Hethrington, E.M., & Parke, R.D. (1986). Child Psychology: A Contemporary View point (3rd ed). McGraw Hill, U.S.A.

Maccoby, E.E. & Jacklin, C.N. (1980). Sex Differences in Aggression: A rejoinder and reprise. In Goldstein, A.P. & Segall, M.H. (1983). Aggression in Global Perspective. Pergamon, N.Y.

Machover, K. (1965). Personality Projection in the Drawing of the Human Figure. A method of personality investigation. Springfield Thomas.

Rohner, R.P. (1976). Sex Differences in Aggression: Phylogenetic and enculturation Perspective. In Goldstein, A.P. & Segall, M.H. (1983). Aggression in Global Perspective. Pergamon, N.Y.

Zafran, A. & Zawitz, D. (1997). Gender & Sex roles. www. About.com.

**CONSUMERS' BEHAVIOR AS A FUNCTION OF LIFE STYLE
AND PERSONALITY TRAIT**

Zeenat Ismail

Institute of Business Administration

Seema Munaf

and

Ghaus-ur-Rehman

Institute of Clinical Psychology

University of Karachi

ABSTRACT

This research examines the relationship between Consumers' tendency to conform and their changes in the purchase plans, while they are shopping alone and shopping with a group. Need for Achievement, Aggression and Dominance of the consumers with a low and high tendency to conform was also compared. To investigate, 97 consumers belonging to middle, upper middle and upper socio economic class constitute sample for the study. On the basis of their response to ATSCI (Attention to Social Comparison Information) scale, consumers were divided into two groups i.e. low and high tendency to conform. Questionnaire measuring consumers change in purchase plan under 2 conditions i.e. while shopping alone and shopping with a group together with the Achievement, Aggression and Dominance scales of PRF (Personality Research Form) were administered. t correlated indicated non significant difference between the purchase plans in 2 conditions for consumers with low and high tendency to conform, but there was a significant difference in the level of Need for Achievement, Aggression, Dominance between Consumers with Low and High Tendency to conform, when t test was calculated.

INTRODUCTION

Mischel (1977), states that "Personality is the distinctive patterns of behavior, including thoughts and emotions, that characterize each individuals'

adaptation to the situations of his or her life". The phrase "distinctive patterns of behavior" connotes the idea that a personality characteristic cannot be shared by all consumers.

The consumer concept of life style is quite distinct from that of personality. Life style denotes how people live, how they spend their money and how they allocate their time. It is therefore, concerned with consumer's overt actions and behaviors, in contrast to personality, which describes the consumer from a more internal perspective (Anderson and Golden, 1984) that is, the consumer's "characteristic pattern of thinking, feeling, and perceiving" (Markin, 1974).

All consumers are not expected to think and behave in a similar way in one particular situation. Consumers purchase plans are also effected by their thinking tendency, vulnerability, style and trait. A trait is "any characteristic in which one person differs from another in a relatively permanent and consistent way (Hilgard, Atkinson & Atkinson, 1975). Trait theories describe people in terms of their predispositions on a series of adjectives. A person's personality results from a particular combination of traits. The early research on consumer personality done in the 1960s employed trait theories borrowed from psychologists e.g. Evans (1959), Westfall (1962), Kaponin (1960) and Kassarjian (1971).

Consumer researchers have assessed a number of other traits that have relevance to marketing managers among them, vanity (Netemeyer, Burton and Lichtenstein 1995) deal proneness (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton, 1995) Cognitive Complexity, (Zinkhan and Biswas, 1988) Verbal versus visual information processing (Gutman, 1988) gender Schema theory (Schmitt, Leclerc and Dube Rioux, 1988), anxiety (Hill 1987), Extroversion/Neuroticism (Mooradian, 1996) Need for emotion (Raman, Chatopadhyay and Hoyer, 1995), ethnocentrism, compliance, aggression and detachment (Shimp and Sharma, 1987).

One of the aspect of personality is that it moderates the effects of advertising messages and marketing situations on consumer behavior. A moderating variable is an individual - difference variable that interacts with the consumer situation and/or the type of message being communicated. Consumer situations are those temporary environmental factors that form the context within which a consumer activity occurs. One type of situation is the social context in

which purchases take place. Researchers have found that consumers act differently when other people are observing their purchase behavior than when they believe they are unobserved. This situational variable may interact with a personality characteristic that distinguishes individuals on their tendency to conform to social pressure when making purchases. The ATSCI (attention to social comparison information) Scale has been developed to measure this disposition to conform (Beardon and Rose, 1990). It has been found that a person who has a 'low tendency to conform' will tend to make her desired purchases whether she is shopping alone or with a group. In contrast, someone with a high tendency to conform will make many more changes in purchase plans when shopping with a group than when shopping alone.

Groups influence buying in two general ways. First, they affect the purchases made by individual consumers. Second, group members sometimes make decision as a group. Conformity to the group gives its member the sense of belongingness. Conformity is defined as a "change in behavior or belief toward a group as a result of real or imagined group pressure" (Kiesler and Kiesler, 1969). Two types of conformity can be identified. The first is simple "compliance", in which the person merely conforms to the wishes of the group without really accepting the groups dictates. The second is "private acceptance", in which the person actually changes his or her beliefs in the direction of the group.

Mowen and Minor (1995) writes that, three aspects of groups act to increase the conformity pressures felt by members. One is "cohesiveness", which refers to how closely Knit a group is. A group whose members feel a high degree of loyalty and identification can exert greater influence on its members. The "Expertise" of the group also affects conformity pressures. Because consumers are members of many groups, several different groups may have input into a particular purchase decision. The group whose members have more expertise relevant to the decision will have the greatest influence on the purchase.

The "size" of the group has also been found to influence decisions, particularly when the group is a transient one.

Apart from three aspects of groups, the ability of a group to make a person conform depends also on the nature and needs of the person as well as on the properties of the group. One such personal factor is the amount of information that the person has available for a decision. When little information is available or when the information is ambiguous, the group has a greater impact on the consumer's decision.

The attractiveness of the group and the person's need to be liked by it often work together to create conformity pressures. Usually, the more the person wants to be part of the group, the more he or she also wishes to be liked by its members. In such circumstances the individual tends to conform to group norms and pressures in order to fit in as well as possible.

The above literature clearly indicate the importance of group upon the consumer's decision on the one hand and individual personality style and trait on the other hand. Consumer's behavior is not only function of the conformity to social pressure but also the result of lifestyle and different personality traits for example submissiveness, dominance, aggression, achievement orientation, independence, cautiousness, rigidity, flexibility etc. which appears to play a vital role in the purchase plans of the consumer. The purpose of the present research is to find out the extent to which the life style and personality traits of the Pakistani consumers effect their purchase behaviors. After detailed literature review the following hypotheses were framed as:

1. Consumers with low tendency to conform will not make changes in purchase plans, whether they are shopping alone or with a group.
2. Consumers with a high tendency to conform will make many more changes in purchase plans when shopping with a group than when shopping alone.
3. Need for achievement of the consumers with a low tendency to conform will be more as compared to need for achievement of consumers with high tendency to conform.
4. Need for aggression of the consumers with a low tendency to conform will be more as compared to need for aggression of consumers with high tendency to conform.
5. Need for dominance of the consumers with a low tendency to conform will be more as compared to need for dominance of consumers with high tendency to conform.

METHOD

Sample

One hundred and twenty consumers, 60 males and 60 females participated in the present research. Out of which ninety seven consumers, belonging to middle, upper middle and upper socio economic class were selected to constitute the sample after they completed the form of demographic characteristics. Their age range was from 21 to 35 years, while their education level was from Inter to Masters.

Procedure

Consumers from different super markets of Karachi city were approached while they were shopping. They were individually requested to fill in forms for research purpose, in which firstly they were required to complete the form of demographic characteristics. On the basis of the features decided for the sample, twenty three subjects were excluded from the study. Secondly the remaining subjects were told to fill in the "Attention to Social Comparison Information" Scale (Bearden and Ross, 1990). Lastly the questionnaire measuring consumers change in purchase plan under 2 conditions i.e. while shopping alone and shopping with a group, together with the scales of achievement, aggression and dominance of personality research form (Jackson, 1984) was administered.

After the completion of forms ATSCI was scored on five point Scale.

The scoring for third questionnaire related to consumers change in style was scored 1 to 2 for item number a to c and 2 to 1 for item number d and e.

Following standard scoring instructions mentioned in the manual the hand scoring key was used for the scales of the PRF.

After scoring on the basis of the low and high scores of the ATSCI Scale, 2 groups were formed for further calculation i.e. group 1 represented sample who has a "Low tendency to Conform and group 2 represented sample who has a "high tendency to conform. For these 2 groups number of changes while shopping alone and number of changes while shopping in a group were calculated separately. t correlated was then applied in order to find out whether these 2 groups purchase according to pre planned while shopping alone and while

ISMAIL, MUNAF & REHMAN

shopping in a group or there is a change in purchase plan under 2 different hypothetical situations. Further t test was also applied to find out the difference in the level of achievement, aggression and dominance between 2 groups.

RESULTS

Table I

Difference in the level of purchase plans, while Shopping alone and with a Group, of Consumers with low Tendency to Conform

Conditions	N	X	S.D	SEM	t Correlated	df	Level of Significance
Shopping Alone	30	2.20	1.349	.246			
Shopping with a group	30	2.366	1.496	.273	-.796	29	.433 P>.05

Table - II

Difference in the level of purchase plans while shopping alone and with a group of consumers with high tendency to conform

Conditions	N	X	S.D	SEM	t Correlated	df	Level of Significance
Shopping Alone	67	2.014	1.296	.158			
Shopping with a group	67	2.194	1.258	.153	-.838	66	.405 P>.05

Table - III
Need for achievement of consumers with low and high tendency to conform

Consumers	N	X	S.D	SEM	t	df	Level of Significance
Low tendency to conform	30	10.533	2.080	.379			
High tendency to conform	67	8.985	2.931	.358	2.61	95	.011 P<.01

Table - IV
Need for aggression of consumers with low and high tendency to conform

Consumers	N	X	S.D	SEM	t	df	Level of Significance
Low tendency to conform	30	10.800	3.507	.640			
High tendency to conform	67	7.716	2.854	.348	4.575	95	.000 P<.01

Table V
Need for dominance of consumers with low and high tendency to conform

Consumers	N	X	S.D	SEM	t	df	Level of Significance
Low tendency to conform	30	12.4333	2.990	.546			
High tendency to conform	67	8.701	3.778	.461	4.777	95	.000 P<.01

DISCUSSION

The results given in Table-I ($t = .796$, $df = 29$, $p > .05$) indicate the level of difference in purchase plans of consumers with low tendency to conform under two different situations. It is clear that there is no significant difference between two conditions. Thus interpreted that when people who have low tendency to conform go for shopping alone ($x = 2.200$) or shopping with a group ($x = 2.366$), they do not significantly change their purchase plans, which shows that low tendency to conform helps in making much more independent decisions and such consumers do not come under group pressure. Hence our results of the first hypothesis go well along with the work of Bearden and Rose (1990), that "a person who has a low tendency to conform will tend to make her desired purchases whether she is shopping alone or with a group", but the result of our second hypothesis is not similar to that of second part of the research of Bearden and Rose which states that "In contrast, some one with a high tendency to conform will make many more changes in purchase plans when shopping with a group than when shopping alone".

Table II indicates that $t = -.838$, $df = 66$, $p > .05$, making it clear that again there is no difference in purchase plans of consumer with high tendency to confirm whether they are shopping alone ($x = 2.014$) or with a group ($x = 2.194$) thus disproving our second hypothesis that "consumers with high tendency to conform will make many more changes in purchase plans when shopping with a group than when shopping alone". One of the reasons for not having result in the expected direction may be that Pakistani people alike people of other societies like to be a part of their age group, they appreciate other members of group and also like to be appreciated, but they also look forward and want acceptance of their parents, grand parents and in our culture they are forced to go with the norms of the family laid down by their adults. Hence even though those who have a high tendency to conform may not come under too much pressure of group but go for pre planned shopping most of the times.

Discussion of our third, fourth and fifth hypotheses is written after analysis of Table III which indicate that there is a significant difference ($t = 2.61$, $df = 95$, $P < .01$) between the Need for Achievement of consumers with low tendency to conform ($X = 10.533$) and consumers with high tendency to conform ($X = 8.985$), Table IV which indicates that there is a significant difference ($t = 4.575$, $df = 95$, $p < .01$) between the need for Aggression of Consumers with Low Tendency to Conform ($X = 10.800$) and consumers with high tendency to

conform ($X = 7.716$) and table V which indicate that there is a significant difference ($t = 4.777$, $df = 95$, $P < .01$) between the need for Dominance of consumers with low tendency to conform (12.433) and consumers with high tendency to conform (8.701). The confirmation of hypotheses No.3, 4 and 5 give us a clear picture of consumers who have a low tendency to conform and consumers who have a high tendency to conform. The Need for Achievement, Aggression and Dominance of those Consumers who have a low tendency to conform is much more than the need for Achievement, Aggression and Dominance of Consumers with high tendency to conform. High Need for Achievement, Aggression and Dominance of Consumers with low tendency to conform help them to maintain their individuality, to make independent decision and not to be influenced by others. Not coming under group pressure and making their own purchase decision (Table I) may be because their need for Achievement, Aggression and Dominance is high as compared to the consumers with high tendency to conform.

Hence the present research work has enlightened the importance of consumers life style and personality traits in preference to purchase. Although it is a valuable contribution for understanding Pakistani consumers behavior but human behavior is not just simple stimulus response connection. In order to have a true picture of consumer's behavior, the understanding of person as a whole is required. Further studies may examine variety of other variables influencing consumers' decision.

REFERENCES

- Anderson W.T. & Golden L. (1984) "Lifestyle and Psychographics: A critical review and recommendation". In Advance in Consumer Research, Vol. II, Thomas Kinnear, ed. (Ann Arbor, MI: Association for Consumer Research, 1984), pp 405-411.
- Bearden W.O., & Rose R.L, (1990). Attention to Social Comparison Information: An individual difference factor affecting consumer conformity. *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 16, 461-471.
- Evans, F.B. (1959). "Psychological and objective factors in the prediction of brand choice. " *Journal of Business*, Vol. 32, 340-369.

Gutman, E. (1988). "The Role of Individual differences and multiple senses in consumer imagery processing: Theoretical Perspectives". In Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 15, Michael Houston, ed. (Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research), pp. 191-196.

Hilgard E., Atkinson, R., & Atkinson, R. (1975). Information to Psychology, 6th eds. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Hill, R. (1987). "The Impact of interpersonal anxiety on consumer information processing", Psychology and Marketing, Vol.4 pp. 93-105.

Jackson, D.N. (1984). Personality Research form Manual. Michigan: Research Psychologists Press, Inc.

Kaponin, A. (1960), Personality characteristics of purchasers. "Journal of Advertising Research, Vol. I. pp. 6-12.

Kassarjian, H. (1971). Personality and consumer behavior: A review. Journal of Marketing Research, Vol.8 pp.409-418.

Kiesler C.A. & Kiesler S.B. (1969). Conformity. Addison Wesely, P.7.

Lichtenstein, D.R., Netemeyer R.G. & Burton, S. (1995). Assessing the domain specificity of deal proneness: A field study. Journal of Consumer Research, Vol. 22, 314-326.

Markin, R.J. (1974). Consumer Behavior: A Cognitive Orientation, New York: Macmillan.

Mischel, W. (1977). On the future of personality measurement. American Psychologist, Vol.32 p.2.

Mooradian, T. A., (1996). Mooradian "Personality and Ad-Evoked feelings: The case for Extroversion and Neuroticism. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Vol., 24 (Spring 1996) pp.99-109.

Mowen, J.C., & Minor, M. (1995). Consumer Behavior (5th Eds.) New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., pp. 485, 487 and 488.

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

Netemeyer, R.G., Burton, S., & Lichtenstein, D.R. (1995). Trait aspects of vanity: Measurement and relevance to consumer behavior. Journal of Consumer Research, Vol.21 pp. 612-626.

Raman, N.V. Chatopadhyay, P. & Hoyer W.D. (1995). Do consumers seek emotional situations: The need for emotion scale. Advances in Consumer Research, Vol.22. Frank R. Kardes and Mita Sujan, eds. (Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research, pp. 537-542.

Schmitt, B. H, LeClerc, F. & Laurette Dube Rioux, (1988). Sex typing and consumer behavior: A test of Gender Schema Theory. Journal of Consumer Research, Vol. 15 (June 1988), pp. 122-128.

Shimp, T., & Sharma, S. (1987). Consumer Ethnocentrism Construction and Validation of CETSCALE. Journal of Marketing Research, Vol. 24, pp.280-289.

Westfall, R. (1962). Psychological Factors in Predicting Consumer Choice. Journal of Marketing, Vol. 26, pp. 34-40.

Zinkan, G., & Biswas, A. (1988). Using the repertory grid to assess the complexity of consumers' cognitive structures. In Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 15, Michael, Houston, ed. Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research, pp. 493-497.

ISMAIL, MUNAF & REHMAN

APPENDIX "A"

Questionnaire

Demographic Characteristics

Name: _____ Date of Birth: _____

Age: _____ Sex: _____

Marital Status: _____ Children: _____

Siblings: _____ Birth Order: _____

Occupation: _____

Socio economic class: Lower: _____ Lower Middle: _____

Middle: _____ Upper Middle: _____ Upper: _____

PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

APPENDIX "B" Attention to Social Comparison Information Scale

Name: _____

Instructions:

- a. Answer the following quickly
- b. Tick any from the five alternative

	Always False	Sometimes False	In Between	Sometimes True	Always True
Q.1. It is my feeling that if everyone else in a group is behaving in a certain manner, this must be the proper way to behave.					
Q.2. I actively avoid wearing clothes that are not in style.					
Q.3. At parties I usually try to behave in a manner that makes me fit in.					
Q.4. When I am uncertain how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues.					
Q.5. I try to pay attention to the reactions of others to my behavior in order to avoid being out of place.					
Q.6. I find that I tend to pick up slang expressions from others and use them as part of my own vocabulary					
Q.7. I tend to pay attention what others are wearing					
Q.8. The slightest look of disapproval in the eyes of a person with whom I am interacting is enough to make me change my approach.					
Q.9. It's important approach to me to fit into the group I'm with.					
Q.10. My behavior often depends on how I feel others wish me to behave					
Q.11. If I am the least bit uncertain as to how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues.					
Q.12. I usually keep up with clothing style changes by watching what others wear.					
Q.13. When in a social situation, I tend not to follow the crowd, but instead behave in a manner that suits my particular mood at the time.					