

Psychological Research & Intervention

Understanding the Dynamics of Self-discrepancy Formation of Self-injurious Adolescents: A
Case Study of Self-injury
Muhammad Abdul Hadi & Banyu Wicaksono

The Role of Children's Age and Gender, and Friends' Gender in the Children's Interaction
towards Social Problem Solving Strategies in Preschool Children
Rita Eka Izzaty

Improving Mental Health during the COVID-19 Pandemic through Online Psychoeducation
**Kartika Nur Fathiyah, Tria Widyastuti, Farida Agus Setiawati,
Rahmatika Kurnia Romadhani, Yulia Ayriza, Yahya Abdullah, Lu'lu
Inayatul Lilmuallafah**

Relationship Between Child-Mother Secure Attachment Style and Violence in Adolescent
Romantic Relationship
Zarra Janna Muhammad & Yulia Ayriza

The Effect of Flexible Working Arrangements on Work Engagement of Online Motorcycle Taxi
Drivers
Umi Farida





Psychological Research and Intervention
ISSN 2614-7041 (online)
ISSN 2614-0403 (printed)

Publisher

Department of Psychology, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta

Editor-in-chief : Adi Cilik Pierewan
Managing Editor : Banyu Wicaksono
Tria Widyastuti
Editorial Board : Gavin Sullivan
Ruut Veenhoven
Mariani Binti Md Nor
Yulia Ayriza
Farida Agus Setiawati
Rita Eka Izzaty
Prima Vitasari

Journal Coordinator of Graduate School of Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta

Ashadi

Setting

Ririn Susetyaningsih
Rohmat Purwoko
Syarief Fajaruddin
Muhammad Dzakir Amaniey

Published biannually, in June and December

Psychological Research and Intervention is a biannual peer-reviewed scientific journal published by the Department of Psychology of Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, which focuses on theoretical and applied researches in psychology.

THE EDITORS ARE NOT RESPONSIBLE FOR THE CONTENT OF AND
THE EFFECTS THAT MIGHT BE CAUSED BY THE MANUSCRIPTS.

RESPONSIBILITY IS UNDER THE AUTHORS'

Editorial

Department of Psychology, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta
Jl. Colombo No. 1, Karangmalang, Depok, Sleman, Yogyakarta 55281
Telephone: 0274 586168 ext. 229 or 0274 550836, Facsimile: 0274 520326
Website: <https://journal.uny.ac.id/index.php/pri> | E-mail: jurnal_psikologi@uny.ac.id

Copyright © 2020, Psychological Research and Intervention

Foreword

We are very pleased that Psychological Research and Intervention is releasing its third volume in 2020 following its' successful publication in 2019. We are also very excited that the journal has been attracting papers from various regions in Indonesia.

Psychological Research and Intervention contains and spreads out the results of research and intervention in the science of psychology, and is aimed at facilitating discussion and discourse between scholars of psychology as well as further advancing the science of psychology. The editorial board expects comments and suggestions for the betterment of the future editions of the journal. Special gratitude goes to the reviewers for their hard work, contributors for their trust, patience, and timely revisions, and all of the journal team for their assistance in publishing this journal. Psychological Research and Intervention is continuing to grow and spread its wings to reach its aim in becoming a global initiative

Yogyakarta, December 2020

Editor in Chief

TABLE OF CONTENT

<i>Muhammad Abdul Hadi & Banyu Wicaksono</i>	Understanding the Dynamics of Self-discrepancy Formation of Self-injurious Adolescents: A Case Study of Self-injury	47 – 61
<i>Rita Eka Izzaty</i>	The Role of Children’s Age and Gender, and Friends’ Gender in the Children’s Interaction towards Social Problem Solving Strategies in Preschool Children	62 – 71
<i>Kartika Nur Fathiyah, Tria Widyastuti, Farida Agus Setiawati, Rahmatika Kurnia Romadhani, Yulia Ayriza, Yahya Abdullah, Lu’lu Inayatul Lilmuallafah</i>	Improving Mental Health during the COVID-19 Pandemic through Online Psychoeducation	72 – 79
<i>Zarra Janna Mubammad & Yulia Ayriza</i>	Relationship Between Child-Mother Secure Attachment Style and Violence in Adolescent Romantic Relationship	80 – 91
<i>Umi Farida</i>	The Effect of Flexible Working Arrangements on Work Engagement of Online Motorcycle Taxi Drivers	92 – 99



Understanding the Dynamics of Self-discrepancy Formation of Self-injurious Adolescents: A Case Study of Self-injury

Muhammad Abdul Hadi¹; Banyu Wicaksono¹

¹ Department of Psychology, Universitas Negeri,

¹ Jl. Colombo No. 1 Karang Malang Sleman, Yogyakarta

muhammad0723fip2016@student.uny.ac.id

Abstract

How the self-discrepancy of self-injurious adolescents was formed is yet to be understood clearly. Several studies have clearly stated that self-discrepancy contributes to propel adolescents to injure themselves. This study attempted to understand the dynamics of self-discrepancy formation in the sample of late adolescents who self-injure. This study used a descriptive qualitative research method and case study approach to examine this phenomenon. Data were obtained from six participants, using an open-ended questionnaire, which asks about how self-discrepancy in the participants was formed. Data were analyzed using thematic analysis to identify themes and subthemes that indicate how self-discrepancy was formed. The result showed that ten significant themes emerge in the self-discrepancy formation of self-injurious adolescents. Two factors contribute to form self-discrepancy among adolescents who self-injure: external dan internal. These factors are achieved from the familial and social interaction that are perceived negatively by the participants. Based on the results of this study, self-discrepancies in adolescent self-injurers should be considered when intervening in self-injurious adolescents.

Keywords: *Adolescence; self-discrepancy; self-injury*

Introduction

In recent years, self-injury has become acute mental health and clinical problem. It is estimated that more than 20% of adolescents worldwide have injured themselves intentionally (Wilkinson, 2013). Self-injury must be distinguished from attempted suicide. Self-injury is not intended to end the perpetrator's life but as a strategy to release stress (Martin & Hack, 2018).

Most of the self-injury was carried out by adolescents (13-21 years). This correlates with Hall's (1904) explanation that adolescents experience a storm and stress phase, with the idea that adolescents are often unable to consider their behaviour rationally. They generally relieve stress by doing problem-focused coping. However, adolescents' self-regulation process starts from diverting negative emotions by doing fun activities or dealing directly with the

uncomfortable effects resulting from stress (Ginsburg & Kinsman, 2014).

The negative possibility is that there are wrong stress-releasing strategies such as smoking, drug abuse, free sex, and self-isolation. This negative behaviour of relieving stress then leads to new problems that are more difficult to overcome. One of them is self-injury, which is considered a negative behaviour in relieving stress. This can be characterized as the emotion-focused coping strategy, in which individuals divert psychological stress by reducing negative emotions (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Noviekayati & Mandas (2016) stated that emotion-focused coping significantly correlates with self-injury, especially in the type of escape and avoiding the problem. Shapiro (2008) and Sheehy, Noureen, Khaliq, Dhingra, Husain, Pontin, Cawley, & Taylor (2019) also state that self-blame is a

form of emotion-focused coping leads to self-injury.

Regarding the causes of self-injury in general, Loesch (2015) states that the disorder tends to be due to the perpetrator's self-discrepancy. This is because adolescence is an individual phase to align the expected self-concept with the actual self, according to the wishes he or she hopes to attain. When there is a discrepancy between high and unrealistic expectations, followed by failure after failure, the adolescent is assumed to instil self-punishing behaviour.

At the same time, self-injury is related to disappointment (Martorana, 2015), which stems from self-discrepancy in actual/own versus ideal/own (Higgins, 1987). A person who experiences this discrepancy shows that his or her actual attributes do not match the ideal state that he or she hopes or wishes to attain. This discrepancy leads to disappointment, which is a predictor of self-injury (Reis, Tome, Ramiro, & Gaspar, 2017).

Self-injury is related to shame (McDonald, O'Brien, & Jackson, 2007: 302; Martin & Hack, 2018), which stems from self-discrepancy in actual/own versus ideal/other (Higgins, 1987). A person who experiences this discrepancy shows that his or her actual attributes do not match the ideal state that the person believes some significant other person hopes or wishes that he or she would attain. This discrepancy leads to shame, which is a predictor of self-injury (VanDerhei, Rojahn, Stuewig, & McKnight, 2013).

Self-injury is also related to fear (Liu, Cheek, & Nestor, 2016), which stems from self-discrepancy in actual/own versus ought/other (Higgins, 1987). A person who experiences this discrepancy shows that his or her actual attributes do not match the state that the person believes some significant other person considers to be his or her duty or obligation to attain. The emotional impact of this discrepancy is the

emergence of fear or a sense of being threatened.

Self-injury is also associated with guilt (McDonald, O'Brien, & Jackson, 2007), which stems from self-discrepancy between actual/own versus ought/own (Higgins, 1987). A person who experiences this discrepancy shows that their attributes do not match the state that the person believes it is his or her duty or obligation to attain. The discrepancy predicts the person to be vulnerable to guilt, agitated, dan disappointed. The guilt manifested in efforts to punish oneself is the reason for self-injury (Liu, Cheek, & Nestor, 2016).

Therefore, it is vital to study the self-discrepancy of adolescent self-injurers from the perspective of the perpetrators and how self-discrepant they are and how they interpret self-injury. From this study, we will find information regarding contributing factors to self-injury and its relation to self-discrepancy. This information can form the basis for psychological intervention, both in the clinical setting and in parental care.

Based on the factors mentioned, this study will answer this research question: "how does self-discrepancy in adolescent self-injurers be formed in terms of four types of self-discrepancy, including the discrepancy between actual/own versus ideal/own, the discrepancy between actual/own versus ideal/other, the discrepancy between actual/own versus ought/own, and the discrepancy between actual/own versus ought/other?"

Methods

Research Design

This qualitative exploratory study explores and describes the dynamics of self-discrepancy formation in self-injurious adolescents. The study of self-discrepancy and self-injury is an issue that is rarely raised in Indonesia. Since self-injury occurs in marginal groups in Indonesia, it is suitable to use the case study approach (Crowe,

Cresswell, Robertson, Huby, Avery, & Sheikh, 2011). Besides, the topic of self-discrepancy and self-injury could not be manipulated by researchers, so that it is suitable for the case study that relies on natural contexts.

Participants

The participants of this study were six adolescent self-injurers who were chosen on a theoretical sample based on the

classification of the impulsive self-injury term stated by Simeon and Favazza (2001) and Buresova (2016).

Participants were acquired through the snowball technique because some of the self-injurers imitated their peers. This self-injury trajectory could be traced to adolescents who were also affected by the same disorder. The following is a summary of all participants in this study:

Table. 1. List of The Participants

Pseudonym	Gender/Age	Adolescence stage	Method
P1: Arman	Male/19	Late adolescence	Face-to-face
P2: Desi	Female/21	Late adolescence	Face-to-face
P3: Putri	Female/21	Late adolescence	Face-to-face
P4: Auliya	Female/19	Late adolescence	Face-to-face
P5: Fadil	Male/21	Late adolescence	Face-to-face
P6: Rizki	Female/20	Late adolescence	Face-to-face

Note: P = *Partisipan*

Findings and Discussion

The characteristic of self-discrepancy in adolescent self-injurers

Four types of self-discrepancy explain the characteristics of self-discrepancy, according to Higgins (1987). The following is the characteristics of self-discrepancies based on the four types of it:

A. The characteristics of self-discrepancy between actual/own versus ideal/own

In the self-discrepancy between actual/own versus ideal/own, there are six characteristics of self-discrepancy, including unemployed versus working person, impoverished versus wealthy, closed person versus able to communicate well, difficulty in finding friends versus sociable person, irritable sibling versus patient sibling, and neglected child versus well-cared child. Each of these sub-themes is explained as follows:

1) Unemployed versus working person

The participant has ideal attributes that she or he wants to achieve. When this does not match the current state of his or her, self-discrepancy emerges. In the first characteristic, unemployment versus working person, the participant wants to work and earn money, but the participant is unemployed. This situation causes feelings of sadness and disappointment, which leads to self-injury. Arman told us that:

“I always hope I can work, even though I do not know what kind of work I can do. This jobless situation makes me confused and dizzy all the time” (P1/Arman).

2) Impoverished versus wealthy

Economic status has a significant influence on an individual’s life. A less prosperous participant is more vulnerable to depression. The discrepancy between

the actual self and the ideal attributes that he or she hopes to attain makes the participant feel sad and confused.

One of the participants, Fadil, openly mentioned that the impoverished condition he experienced strongly influenced his self-injury. When he did not have money, he felt that the other problems are getting heavier because his mind focuses on his deprived conditions.

3) Closed person versus able to communicate well

The ability to communicate and express opinions or feelings to others is a significant aspect of everyday life. All the participants are characterized as closed persons who have difficulty in expressing their minds. The gap between the ideal self versus the fact that they are closed persons makes participants are vulnerable to sadness and disappointment. Not infrequently, if their negative emotions are held back and cannot be expressed, self-injury is a way out to vent their emotions. Desi stated that:

“The problem is that if I tell my emotional problem slowly, no one will understand. I cannot tell my family and my friends about my problem. That is why I sometimes burst my emotion out [through self-injury]. No one understands either. I just want to show, you know, this is my annoyance. You know my fault, this is my fault ...” (P2/Desi).

4) Difficulty in finding friends and sociable person

The communication problem in participants has another negative impact, which makes them have difficulties making friends. Because they cannot convey their opinions and feelings well, they tend to be quiet, which makes them less able to get along with their peers. Arman stated that:

“Because I find it difficult to make friends, I am like being ostracized, shunned. I have no choice but to ignore it. I am not happy like this. I want to have

friends, just like others. I want that, but in fact, it does not happen.” (P1/Arman)

5) Irritable sibling versus patient sibling

Fraternal ties are a significant thing according to the perceptions of the participants. For example, Desi felt responsible for her sister’s mischief. She is accustomed to scolding her many times, and there is always a rivalry between them. She hopes that she can become more patient with her sister. She thought that she triggered her sibling’s rebellious and unruly action. The discrepancy between her actual state as an irritable sister and her ideal self to be a patient sibling makes her vulnerable to sadness and disappointment.

6) Neglected child versus well-cared child

The participants felt that their parents should pay attention to them. However, they thought that their parents were ignorant and did not care about their situation. When looking at their friends, they compared their neglected situation to them. The participants thought that other parents care so much for their children, not like theirs. The gap between the ideal self versus the actual self makes participants are vulnerable to sadness and disappointment. One of the participants, Putri, stated that:

“My mom and dad are working early in the morning. They came back late at night. Usually, we get together late at night. Automatically during that time, I was at home alone. No friends either. So I was at home alone and no friends to chat with. Then, what can I do? Sometimes I talk to my parents during dinner, but I feel that they did not listen to me at all.” (P3/Putri).

B. The characteristic of self-discrepancy between actual/own versus ideal/other

In this self-discrepancy, there are two characteristics, including average-intelligent versus intelligent and

rebellious/disobedient child versus obedient child, which is explained as follows:

1. Average-intelligent child versus intelligent child

The participants' parents wanted their children to be intelligent, as evidenced by high academic scores. However, participants only received an average score. This situation creates self-discrepancy, caused participants to be vulnerable to sadness, gloom, and disappointment. Desi stated that:

“No one understands me. At home, my mom often beat me for trivial matters like grades. My score is not ten, nine, just go down like that, then she beat me again to push me to study harder” (P2/Desi).

2. Disobedient/rebellious child versus obedient child

The dysfunctional family made the participants feel depressed. As a form of protest against overprotective parenting, Arman rebelled against family rules. He also let his hair long, even though he knows that his parents do not like it. Another participant, Putri, also rebelled by running away from home. She was uncomfortable because of familial criticism and hostility that made her dislike both her parents.

“I ran away from home, but my parents did not realize it. Nobody realized. Until my friend told me, ‘Come on, just come home, just go home. I did not want to. I did not want to go home. I did not want to be at home.’” (P3/Putri)

C. The characteristic of self-discrepancy between actual/own versus ought/own

In the self-discrepancy between actual/own versus ought/own, there is a characteristic of self-discrepancy, namely disobedient/rebellious child versus

obedient child, which is explained as follows:

Disobedient/rebellious child versus obedient child

In this study, the participants felt obliged to obey their parents, but they were not obedient in reality. This situation makes participants feel guilty and agitated. One of the participants, Riski, stated that: “I admit that I am an insolent child, not filial at all [to parents]. But I was so hurt by them, and I do not care anymore” (P6/Rizki).

D. The characteristic of self-discrepancy between actual/own versus ought/other

In the self-discrepancy between actual/own versus ought/other, there is a characteristic of self-discrepancy, namely filial piety versus impertinent, which is explained as follows:

Impertinent versus filial piety

In this study, the participants believe that the significant others want them to be devoted to their parents. However, in reality, the participants neglected their parents. This self-discrepancy makes participants are vulnerable to guilt and agitation-related emotions. Desi stated that:

“I hurt myself when my mother was sick because my uncle judged me: ‘You are an insolent child, your parents are sick, but you do not care. What kind of child are you?’” (P2/Desi).

The characteristics of self-discrepancy in adolescents self-injurer illustrated in the following table:

Table 1. The characteristics of the self-discrepancy on self-injurious adolescents

No	The characteristics of self-discrepancy	The type of self-discrepancy
1	Unemployed versus working person	Actual self versus ideal/own
2	Impoverished versus wealthy	
3	Closed person versus able to communicative well	
4	Difficulty in finding friends and sociable person	
5	Irritable sibling versus patient sibling	
6	Neglected child versus well-cared child	
7	Average-intelligent child versus intelligent child	Actual self versus ideal/other
8	Disobedient/rebellious child versus obedient child	Actual self versus ought/own
9	Disobedient/rebellious child versus obedient child	
10	Impertinent versus filial piety	Actual self versus ought/other

Contributing factors in forming self-discrepancy in adolescent self-injurers.

We found two factors that contributed to the formation of self-discrepancy in adolescent self-injurers, including external factors and internal factors, as follows:

A. External Factor

The external factors that contribute to forming self-discrepancy among adolescent self-injurers consist of four sub-themes, including growing up in a dysfunctional family, the victim of bullying, victims of sexual violence, and being trapped in a toxic relationship.

1) *Growing up in a dysfunctional family*

All of the participants in this study grew up in dysfunctional families. This means that the family that is expected to provide warmth, a sense of security, and conducive space for growing up is not experienced by the participants.

In this theme, the dysfunctional families consisted of four sub-themes: low attachment to the parents, low-cohesive family, overprotective parenting style, neglected parenting, and victims of domestic violence.

“Since the age of two months, my mother worked all day and rarely at home. Since

then, I lived with my grandparents. My father? I do not know how he looks like. Maybe they divorced since I was not born” (P5 / Fadil).

“They are very protective. Since I was little, I felt uncomfortable. I want to go anywhere, but I cannot. I am always monitored and controlled. I used to think, and maybe it is because I was little. Still underage. Not yet mature. Nevertheless, until now, it is just the same.” (P1/Arman).

2) *Victim of bullying*

Participants experience bullying that occurs in the school. They experienced bullying since childhood which left a profoundly negative impact on them. One of the participants, Arman, stated that:

“When I passed the school gang, I was teased. If they do not need me, they do not want to talk to me. They don’t want to hang out with me. They only come when they need me. For example, on the test, they asked me to do their test. I was told to write in their book. I was asked to buy this, to buy that, to buy cigarettes for the gang leader.” (P1/Arman).

3) *Victims of sexual violence*

Female participants in this study experienced sexual abuse that made a

negative impact on their mental health. The sexual violence varied, from unwanted touching and kissing to rape. One of the participants, Putri, stated that: "My uncle was touching mine [vagina]. He then rubbed it. I remember that, and it did not happen just once or twice. He liked to take me in and did that. Nevertheless, I never told my parent. If I remember now, I am still too little to understand, and I was not aware of it." (P3/Putri).

4) *Being trapped in a toxic relationship*

Having a toxic relationship contributes to forming self-discrepancy in adolescent self-injurers. This unhealthy romantic relationship is characterized by emotional turbulence and physical violence. The toxic relationships experienced by the participants consisted of overprotective romantic relationships and dating violence.

"... my boyfriend limit me to hang out with many friends, especially with boys" (P3/Putri).

"My boyfriend beat me. He beat me with a helmet in front of many people. He burned his cigarettes against my skin. I just realized it was scary" (P4/Auliya).

B. Internal Factor

The self-discrepancy is also formed due to internal factors that exist within the participants. We divide these internal factors into five themes: self-hatred, negative social comparison, problem in communication, problem in getting along, and loneliness.

1) *Self-hatred*

The self-hatred attitude in participants comes from a negative perception that they are not worthy of receiving acceptance from others, a low self-image, and a feeling that they are not valuable. This self-hatred consists of three sub-themes, including low self-image, self-blame, and feel like a failure.

"I failed. I was like a failure. I cannot do anything. My mom always judges me. Whatever I do will always be wrong. It must always be wrong, always. Oh God, you know? I just made coffee. My mother scolded me that the coffee was not good. Even though I made it for my guest, I had good intentions. I got scolded." (P3/Putri).

2) *Negative social comparison*

When the participants compare their condition with others, they feel that other people's situations are better than their own. As they were children, they felt not getting enough love and attention from their parents. They felt that their parents ignored them and did not pay enough attention. Therefore, the participant felt that they were unlucky and were born into a faulty family. Auliya told us that:

"I never feel at home. I want to be like other kids. I want to be paid attention by my parents? 'How can regular parents pay attention to their children? How come I don't?' I never asked my parents to bear me like this" (P4/Putri).

3) *Problem in communication*

All the participants in this study had some degree of problem in communicating with other people. Therefore, self-injury becomes a form of expression of thoughts or feelings that cannot be conveyed verbally to others.

"The problem is that if I tell my emotional problem slowly, no one will understand. I cannot tell my family and my friends about my problem. That is why I sometimes burst my emotion out [through self-injury]. No one understands either. I just want to show, you know, this is my annoyance. You know my fault, this is my fault ..." (P2/Desi).

4) *The problem in getting along*

The participants have difficulty in getting along with peers. This problem

makes participants experience social difficulties, especially when making friends.

“Sometimes, I am afraid to go to the crowd. I was scared because there was a voice in my mind telling me that I would never get along. So, when I am in a crowd, I am uncomfortable. Sometimes, I do not realize that I am crying” (P4/Auliya).

5) *Loneliness*

The participants experience loneliness because of difficulty in making friends. They felt that hardly anyone could understand their situation and that there was no one to share their opinions and feelings.

“My mom and dad are working early in the morning. They came back late at night. Usually, we get together late at night. Automatically during that time, I was at home alone. No friends either. So I was at home alone and no friends to chat with. Then what can I do? Sometimes I talk to my parents during dinner, but I feel that they did not listen to me at all?” (P3/Putri)

Discussion

The self-discrepancy experienced by adolescent self-injurers comes from their relationship with a dysfunctional family. Since childhood, children who grow up in dysfunctional families tend to develop long-term developmental problems because their needs are unmet (Allen, 2010). The family dysfunction in adolescent self-injurers in this study occurred in three ways: negative parenting styles, the inharmonious relationship between parents and children, and a less cohesive family.

Firstly, the parenting style adopted by parents has a significant impact on the mental and emotional development of children. Participants in this study grew up in an overprotective parenting style (P1/Arman) and neglective parenting (P2/Desi, P3/Putri, P4/Fadil, P5/Auliya,

& P6/Rizki). Overprotective and neglected parenting are categorized as extreme parenting styles. They are risk factors contributing to triggering self-injury in adolescents (Buresova, Bartosova, & Cernak, 2015).

The parents who neglect their children generally make them feel abandoned. This situation creates self-discrepancy in children, making them feel that they are emotionally distant from their parents and do not receive enough attention. This represents neglected children versus well-cared children (self-discrepancy between actual/own versus ideal/own).

Sadness, disappointment, and annoyance towards parents are negative emotions felt by children who grow up in this neglected parenting. This situation is exacerbated when parents often make familial criticism, sarcastic expressions, and familial hostility, which are considered emotional abuse of parents to children (Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2018). Unhealthy relationships between parents and children and emotional disappointment are factors that trigger children to self-injure (Mortana, 2015).

Besides, excessive demands on academic achievement, which are not accompanied by sufficient parental attention to children, also contribute to self-injury. Children who feel that they have low or average intelligence but are asked to achieve high academic scores makes them feel under pressure. The discrepancy between the actual self and the ideal self, according to the parents, is a factor that encourages children to self-injure (Brossard, 2018).

Arman’s parents apply overprotective parenting, which according to Thomasgard, Metz, Edelbrock, & Shonkoff (1995), consists of four factors, including careful supervision, separation problems, attachment to parents, and tight control. This type of parent adopts a parenting style that is too restrictive in

everyday life and limits the child's activities with rigid family rules. As a result, the child does not have enough space to explore his or her interests and talents. If the child feels depressed and uncomfortable with this overly protective state, according to Buresova, Bartosova, & Cernak (2015: 1107), there is a risk of leading to self-injury.

Secondly, the inharmonious relationship between parents and children is against the family culture in Indonesia, which requires children to obey and be devoted to their parents (Setiyani & Windsor, 2018). When a child is rebellious and disobedient, he or she feels guilty for breaching social rules and values that have been embedded in society. Therefore, a self-discrepancy is formed between the actual self and versus ought/own.

The participants' big family believes that the children are obliged to be devoted to their parents. This situation represents self-discrepancy between impertinent versus filial piety (discrepancy between actual/own versus ought/other). At the same time, the participants showed a rebellious or disobedient attitude. For example, Arman let his hair long and refuse to cut it, which was opposed by his father. Also, Desi refused to tidy up the house and take care of her sick family members. This rebellious expression is an attitude of protest against their parents' parenting style. This situation represents self-discrepancy between disobedient/rebellious children versus obedient children (self-discrepancy between actual/own versus ideal/other). However, when other family members blamed them for their rebellious behaviour, they feel guilty. When guilt runs high, it becomes problematic. According to Sheehy, Noureen, Khaliq, Dhingra, Husain, Pontin, Cawley, & Taylor (2019), this guilt is related to self-injury.

Guilt for adolescents who self-injure also emerges from bad sibling

relationships. Tschan, Ludtke, Schmid, & In-Albon (2019) stated that self-injurers have less warmth, less empathy, and more enmity with siblings. Besides, he or she also has weak emotional ties, does not care enough, and rarely gets along with his siblings. This study confirms the prior research, adding that despite their hostile attitude towards their siblings, adolescent self-injurers feel guilty about not getting along with their siblings. The discrepancy between the ideal self versus his actual self makes the participants vulnerable to sadness and guilt, leading to self-injury.

Thirdly, a less cohesive family associates with depressive symptoms and a lack of parent-child attachment (Rawatlal, Kliewer, & Pillay, 2015). According to Fortune, Cottrell, & Fife (2016), low family cohesion contributes to self-injury because it is a protective factor from deviant behaviour. The loss of protective factors has an association to propel children to self-injure.

Children also tend to model the behaviour of their parents. If parents do not provide enough space to express their opinions and express feelings, they tend to develop the same behaviour. When parents have less social contact with children, they develop difficulties in their social and communication skills (Arroyo, Nevarez, Segrin, & Harwood, 2012). Besides, dysfunctional families that do not teach enough social skills make it difficult for children to get along well. Typically, children need daily social space, but when this attribute does not match the reality due to a lack of social skills and difficulties in getting along, self-discrepancy emerges.

The lack of social and communication skills is also a predictor that allows children to experience bullying (Fox & Boulton, 2005). If a child becomes a victim of bullying, it will be easy for him to develop problematic behaviour, including self-injury (Karanikola, Lyberg, Holm, & Severinsson, 2018). Furthermore, lack of social skills is a

significant factor that causes social anxiety (Beidel, Rao, Scharfstein, Wong, & Alfano, 2010). According to Chartrand, Sareen, Toews, & Bolton (2012), social anxiety is associated with the emergence of suicidal ideation and self-injury.

Another problem that self-injurious adolescents often experience is being trapped in toxic relationships. In this study, female participants undergo an overprotective relationship, which leads to physical and emotional violence in dating. According to Wong, Wang, Meng, Phillips (2011), physical or emotional violence by intimate partners contributes to propel self-injury. Being stuck in an overprotective relationship keeps adolescents away from hanging out with their friends, which gradually makes them socially isolated. According to Ge, Yap, Ong, & Heng (2017), social isolation correlates with loneliness and symptoms of depression. At the same time, there is a significant association between loneliness and self-injury (Muthia and Hidayanti, 2015).

Undergoing these unpleasant experiences triggers adolescents to compare themselves with others. To a

certain degree, comparing oneself leads to a negative effect, making them feel unlucky and other people are in a better position than themselves. According to Gilbert, McEwan, Bellew, & Mills (2009), this negative self-comparison correlates with depression, anxiety, stress, and self-injury.

Another factor contributing to forming self-discrepancies among female adolescent self-injurers in this study was sexual violence, such as unwanted kissing, touching or rubbing her vital organs without her consent. This is in line with the study conducted by Swannell, Martin, Page, Hasking, Hazell, Taylor, & Protani (2012) that sexual abuse and violence contributes to triggering self-injury in adolescents.

Sexual abuse and violence have a strong emotional impact on adolescents. If left untreated, it can result in emotional trauma and make adolescents have a low self-image, guilt (Feiring & Taska, 2005), and self-hatred (Payne, Galvan, Williams, Prusinski, Zhang, Wyatt, & Myers, 2014). The discussion above can be summarized in figure 1.

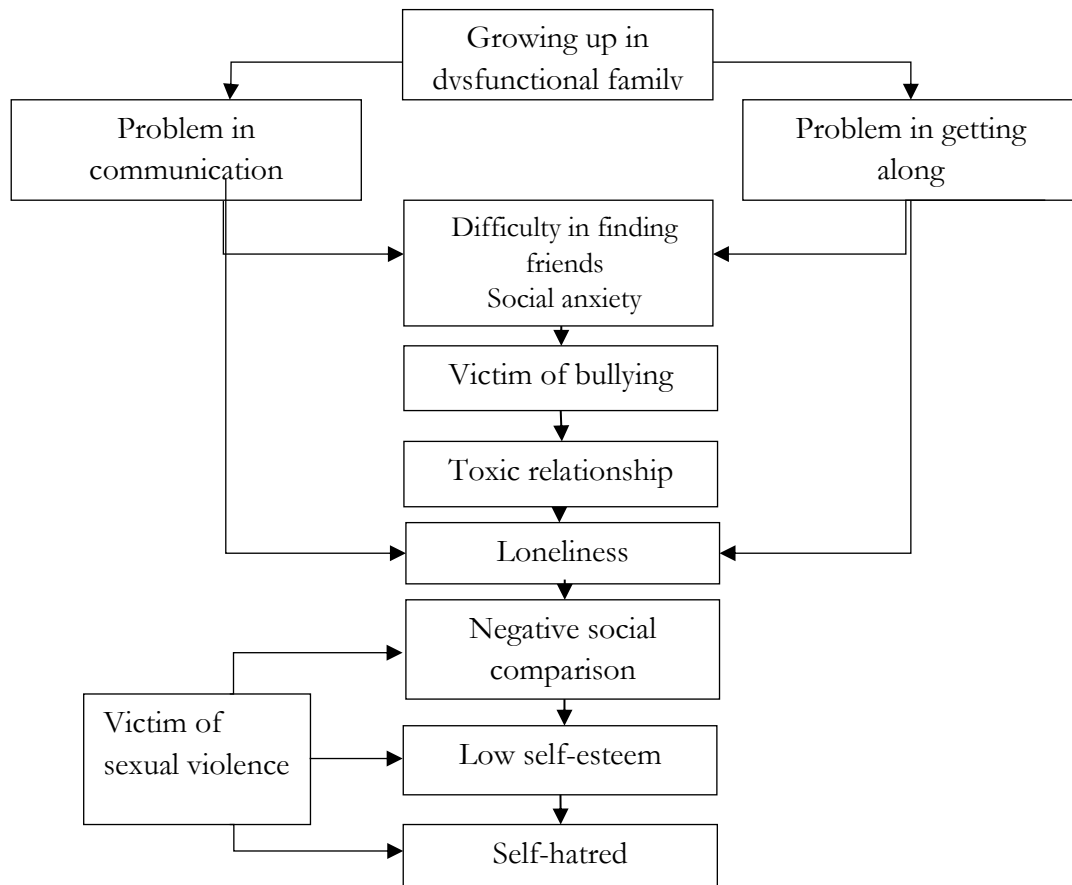


Figure 1. Formation of self-discrepancy in adolescents self-injurers

Conclusion

Based on the results of research and discussion, it concludes that the self-discrepancy experienced by adolescents starts from childhood when they grow up in dysfunctional families. The family was supposed to provide warmth, secure space, and teach essential communication and social skills, which the participants did not experience.

Furthermore, participants' social and communication skills are protective factors from bullying. When they are not maximally developed, participants are at risk of becoming victims of bullying in their social interactions. This runs the risk of making participants self-injure. Besides, other external factors, such as being trapped in a toxic relationship and sexual

harassment experienced by participants, make it more vulnerable to self-injury.

The self-discrepancy experienced by participants results from their upbringing in dysfunctional families, unhealthy social interactions, and victims of sexual harassment. These experiences are perceived negatively by the participants, which leads to self-injury.

Suggestion

The results of this study can be used as a reference for intervention for psychologists, psychiatrists, counsellors, or mental health researchers to understand self-discrepancies in self-injurious adolescents. This is also can base on developing measuring instruments and intervention techniques for adolescent self-injurers. Then, researchers interested

in conducting qualitative research on self-injury should use interview techniques and observation and other data collection techniques to contribute to stronger data credibility.

References

- Aji, R.F. (2010). Pengembangan Garuda (Garba Rujukan Digital) sebagai sumber rujukan karya ilmiah di Indonesia (The development of the Garuda (Garba Rujukan Digital) as a reference source for scientific work in Indonesia. *Proceedings of the National Seminar on Information Technology Application, Indonesia, 1(1)*, 98-102.
- Allen, D.M. (2010). *How dysfunctional families spur mental disorders*. California: ABC Clío.
- Arroyo, A., Nevarez, N., Segrin, C., & Harwood, J. (2012). The Association between parent and adult child shyness, social skills, and perceived family communication. *Journal of Family Communication, 12*, 249–264. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15267431.2012.686941>
- Beidel, D.C., Rao, P.A., Scharfstein, L., Wong, N., & Alfano, C.A. (2010). Social skills and social phobia: An investigation of DSM-IV subtypes. *Behaviour Research and Therapy, 48*, 992–1001. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.brat.2010.06.005>
- Buresova, I. (2016). Self-harm classification system development: theoretical study. *Review of Social Sciences, 4*, 13-20. <http://dx.doi.org/10.18533/rss.v1i4.21>
- Buresova, I., Bartosova, K., & Cernak, M. (2015). Connection between parenting styles and self harm in adolescence. *Procedia: Social and Behavioral Science, 171*, 1106-1113. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.01.272>.
- Chartrand, H., Sareen, J., Toews, M., & Bolton, J.M. (2012). Suicide attempts versus nonsuicidal self-injury among individuals with anxiety disorders in a nationally representative sample. *Depression and Anxiety, 29(3)*, 172–179. <http://dx.doi.org/doi:10.1002/da.20882>
- Child Welfare Information Gateway. (2018). *Parenting a child who has experienced abuse or neglect*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Children’s Bureau.
- Crowe, S., Cresswell, K., Robertson, A., Huby, G., Avery, A., & Sheikh, A. (2011). The case study approach. *BMC Medical Research Methodology, 11*, 100. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2288-11-100>.
- Estefan, G. & Wijaya, Y.D. (2014). Gambaran regulasi emosi pada pelaku *self-injury* (Characteristics of emotional regulation in self-injurers). *Jurnal Psikologi, 12*, 16-33.
- Favazza, A. R. (1987). *Bodies under siege. Self-mutilation in culture and psychiatry*. London: John Hopkins University Press.
- Fortune, S., Cottrell, D., & Fife, S. (2016). Family factors associated with adolescent self-harm: a narrative review. *Journal of Family Therapy, 38*, 226–256. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-6427.12119>
- Fox, C.L., & Boulton, M.J. (2005). The social skills problems of victims of bullying: Self, peer and teacher perceptions. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 75*, 313–328.

- <https://doi.org/10.1348/000709905X25517>
- Ge, L., Yap, C.W., Ong, R., Heng, B.H. (2017). Social isolation, loneliness and their relationships with depressive symptoms: A population-based study. *PLoS ONE* 12, e0182145
- Gilbert, P., McEwan, K., Bellew, R., & Mills, A. (2009). The dark side of competition: How competitive behaviour and striving to avoid inferiority are linked to depression, anxiety, stress and self-harm. *Psychology and Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice*, 82, 123–136. <https://doi.org/10.1348/147608308X379806>
- Ginsburg, K.R & Kinsman, S.B. (2014). *Guide adolescents to use healthy strategies to manage stress*. New York: American Academy of Pediatrics.
- Hall, G. S. (1904). *Adolescence: Its psychology and its relation to physiology, anthropology, sociology, sex, crime, religion, and education*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Higgins, E.T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: a theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review*, 3, 319-340. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.94.3>.
- Karanikola, M.N.K., Lyberg, A., Holm, A.L., & Severinsson, E. (2018). The association between deliberate self-harm and school bullying victimization and the mediating effect of depressive symptoms and self-stigma: A systematic review. *BioMed Research International*, 1–36. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/4745791>
- Larkin, C., Di Blasi, Z. & Arensman, E. (2014). Risk factors for repetition of self-harm: A systematic review of prospective hospital-based studies. *PLoS one*, 9, 1-21.
- Lazarus, R.S. & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. New York: Springer
- Liu, R. T., Cheek, S. M., & Nestor, B. A. (2016). Non-suicidal self-injury and life stress: A systematic meta-analysis and theoretical elaboration. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 47, 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2016.05.005>.
- Loesch, M.A., (2015). *My own worst enemy: Exploring factors that predict self-injury*. (Unpublished Thesis). University of North Florida.
- Lodebo, B.T., Moller, J., Larsson, J., & Engström, K. (2017). Socioeconomic position and self-harm among adolescents: a population-based cohort study in Stockholm, Sweden. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatry Mental Health*, 11, 46-55. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13034-017-0184-1>
- Martin, G. & Hack, J. (2018). Expressed emotion, shame, and non-suicidal self-injury. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 15, 890. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph15050890>
- Martorana, G. (2015). Characteristics and associated factors of non-suicidal self-injury among Italian young people: A survey through a thematic website. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions*, 4, 93–100. <https://doi.org/10.1556/2006.4.2015.001>
- McDonald, G., O'Brien, L., & Jackson, D. (2008). Guilt and shame: Experiences of parents of self-harming adolescents. *Journal of Child*

- Health Care*, 11, 298-310.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1367493507082759>
- Muthia, E.N. & Hidayanti, D.S. (2015). Kesepian dan keinginan melukai diri sendiri (Loneliness and the desire to self-harm). *Psymphatic, Jurnal Ilmiah Psikologi*, 2, 185 – 198.
- Noviekayati, G.A.A. & Mandas, A.L. (2016). Relationship between emotion-focused coping and tendency of self-poisoning in adolescents in Surabaya by gender and age. *Proceedings of 31st International Congress of Psychology, Japan*, 1(12), 296-230.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/ijop.12304>
- Payne, J. S., Galvan, F. H., Williams, J. K., Prusinski, M., Zhang, M., Wyatt, G.E., & Myers, H.F. (2014). Impact of childhood sexual abuse on the emotions and behaviours of adult men from three ethnic groups in the USA. *Culture, Health & Sexuality*, 16, 231–245.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13691058.2013.867074>
- Rawatlal, N., Kliewer, W., & Pillay, B. J. (2015). Adolescent attachment, family functioning and depressive symptoms. *South African Journal of Psychiatry*, 21, 80-85.
<https://doi.org/10.7196/SAJP.8252>
- Reis, M., Tome, G., Ramiro, L., & Gaspar, S. (2020). Understanding risk factors associated with self-harm behavior in adolescents -HSBC. *International Journal of Education Humanities and Social Science*, 3, 79-92.
- Santrock, J.W. (2011). *Life span development*. Jakarta: Erlangga
- Setiyani, R. & Windsor, C. (2019). Filial piety: From the perspective of Indonesian young adults, *Nurse Media Journal of Nursing*, 9, 1, 46-57.
<https://doi.org/10.14710/nmjn.v9i1.21170>
- Shapiro, S. (2008) Addressing self-injury in the school setting. *The Journal of School Nursing*, 24, 124-130.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1059840512344321>
- Sheehy, K., Noreen, A., Khaliq, A., Dhingra, K., Husain, N., Pontin, E.E., Cawley, R., & Taylor, P.J. (2019). An examination of the relationship between shame, guilt and self-harm: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 73, 101779.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2019.101779>.
- Simeon, D., & Favazza, A. R. (2001). Self-injurious behaviors: Phenomenology and assessment. In D. Simeon, & E. Hollander (Eds.), *Self-injurious behaviors: Assessment and treatment*. Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Publishing.
- Swannell, S., Martin, G., Page, A., Hasking, P., Hazell, P., Taylor, A., & Protani, M. (2012). Child maltreatment, subsequent non-suicidal self-injury and the mediating roles of dissociation, alexithymia and self-blame. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 36, 572-584.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2012.05.005>
- Thomasgard, M., Metz, W. P., Edelbrock, C., & Shonkoff, J. P. (1995). Parent-child relationship disorders. Part I. Parental overprotection and the development of the Parent Protection Scale. *Journal of Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics*, 16, 244–250.
<https://doi.org/10.1097/00004703-199508000-00006>
- Tschan, T., Ludtke, J., Schmid, M., & In-Albon, T. (2019). Sibling

relationships of female adolescents with nonsuicidal self-injury disorder in comparison to a clinical and a nonclinical control group. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatry Mental Health*, 13:15.
<https://doi.org/10.1186/s13034-019-0275-2>

VanDerhei, S., Rojahn, J., Stuewig, J., & McKnight, P.E. (2014). The effect of shame-proneness, guilt-proneness, and internalizing tendencies on nonsuicidal self-injury. *Suicide and Life-Threatening Behavior*, 44, 317–330.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/sltb.12069>

Wilkinson, P. (2013). Non-suicidal self-injury. *European Journal of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*. 22, S75–S79.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00787-012-0365-7>.

Wong, S.P.Y., Wang, C., Meng, M., & Phillips, M.R. (2011). Understanding self-harm in victims of intimate partner violence: A qualitative analysis of calls made by victims to a crisis hotline in China. *Violence Against Women* 17, 532–544.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801211404549>.



The Role of Children's Age and Gender, and Friends' Gender in the Children's Interaction towards Social Problem Solving Strategies in Preschool Children

Rita Eka Izzaty¹

¹ Department of Psychology, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta,
Jl. Colombo No. Depok, Sleman, Yogyakarta 55281, Indonesia
rita_ekaizzaty@uny.ac.id

Abstract

Social problem-solving strategy accepted by society is the essential accomplishments in the development of pre-school children. However, until recent studies, social problem-solving strategies among pre-school children in Indonesia is still rarely conducted. This research examines the role of age, gender in children, and friends' gender towards social problem-solving strategies. This research utilised a purposive sampling that voluntarily involved 162 children 4-6 years old. Those children were selected from an intact family consisting of a father, mother and children who lived together. A hypothetical social situation dilemma was utilised to gather social problem-solving strategies data from the subjects. The data were analysed with the use of cross-tabulation and chi-square test. Concerning the data analysis, the results reveal no significant difference in social problem-solving strategies when viewed in terms of age and gender of the children and friends' gender. This suggests that children ages 4 to 6 years for boys and girls still have the same patterns of social behaviour dealing with similar gender and different ones.

Keywords: *social problem-solving strategy; gender; children's interaction*

Introduction

Social competence has been an exciting topic among parents, educators, and school psychologists across the nation. Researchers and psychologists commonly use social competence to help explain why some children succeed while others fail in their peer interactions. It is believed that through cooperative interactions in the years from pre-school through early elementary school, children learn how to take turns, share resources, form and maintain positive peer relationships, and manage conflict (Parker, Rubin, Price, & DeRosier, 1995). A lack of skill in these areas may be detrimental to a child's social and emotional development. The Pre-school period is the stage when group games and continuous interaction with children's peer start. In this period, children can sometimes have conflicts with each other even if they are intimate friends

(Dereli-Iman, 2013). Furthermore, mastering how to handle conflict is essential for their social development because these early relationships are the foundation for future relationships. Thus, peer relation researchers have highlighted the importance of identifying the competencies associated with successful peer interactions in early childhood (Mize & Cox, 1990).

One definition of social competence is the ability to balance one's own needs in social situations while maintaining positive relationships with others (Rose-Krasnor, 1997). However, exactly how socially competent children master this balance is unclear. The balance between self and relationship goals is difficult to achieve when children's needs conflict with one another (Putallaz, 1983). Although historically, researchers have treated positive and negative behaviours,

cognitions, and emotions as opposite ends of one continuum, other researchers have proposed that these processes might be independent (Cillessen, 2011; Rodkin & Hodges, 2003). If this is true, socially competent children may display a mixture of prosocial and antisocial behaviours in conflict situations instead of either one exclusively (Green & Rechis, 2006)

In Indonesia, social behaviour has been taught since children were 4-6 years old through Kindergarten (TK). This is the implementation of Law No. 20/2003 National Education System Chapter 1, Article 1, and item 14. The behavioural indicator shows children's social competence is the children's ability to share with others, apologising, and solving problems when facing conflict. It is expected that children will interact with peers and adults within socially acceptable behaviour (National Education Department, 2007).

Related to socially accepted behaviour, Social Problem Solving Strategies (from now on referred to as SPSS) is part of social behaviour that becomes an essential antecedent for peer acceptance (Walker, 2004). In this case, SPSS is defined as a strategy used by children in dealing with problems arising from the children's conflict (Berk, 2008; Green & Rechis, 2006). Shantz (1987) claims that conflict occurs if there is a conflict of interest and the discrepancy between children's need and reality. For children, conflict often occurs because of the intention to use limited objects or friends' interference. Strategies used when resolving conflict issues result from an integration of children's cognitive, emotional, and social aspects development (Berk, 2012). However, the strategies used by children in solving social problems when they experience conflict must be either prosocial or antisocial (Dereli-Iman, 2013).

Previous research showed that a prosocial SPSS provides an effective solution while maintaining a good

relationship with peer correlated with peer acceptance in sociometric assessment. On the other hand, agonistic or forceful behaviour tend to hurt others negatively correlated with peer acceptance (Mize & Ladd, 1988; Musun-Miller, 1993). Aggressive children or likely to harm others is about 40% to 50% of the group of rejected children (Rubin, Coplan, Chen, Burkirk, Woljlawawics, 2005).

On the other hand, when facing problems in the social context, children who use passive strategies such as anxious, fearful and withdrawn tend to be reported as rejected. The group with these characters are 10% – 20% in a group of low peer acceptance. It is explained further that the relation between withdrawn attitude and low peer acceptance is getting stronger when children move to the end of childhood and early adolescence (Rubin et al., 2005). Rubin's research agreed by Asendorpf, Denissen and Aken (2008) show that 19-year longitudinal research on pre-school children is likely to be aggressive and withdrawn in solving their social problems. Apparently, at the age of 23, they still possess these attitudes.

Izzaty's observation (2009) on 131 children aged 4-6 (79 boys and 53 girls) in 45 Kindergartens in Yogyakarta showed ten types of SPSS occurrence when children face conflict. These SPSS types were grouped into three main categories: aggressive tendency, passive and prosocial behaviours. The results show that aggressive tendencies, including physical/verbal aggression, forceful, destroy things occur 50%, passive (crying, complaining, withdrawing and being silent) is 48% and has only 2 % prosocial, which showed by intervening, peaceful and asking for permission. This finding encourages this research to discover more about the antecedent and consequences of particular SPSS in children, which is assumed to affect self-development.

From the above literature, it can be concluded that SPSS affects individual

adaptive functions (Chang, D'zurilla, & Sanna, 2004) from pre-school to adolescence (Laundry, Smith, & Swank, 2009) and even in early adulthood (Asendorf, Denissen, & Aken, 2008). Therefore, children need to be taught and familiarised with acceptable social strategies on a daily basis. Some advantages for children with socially acceptable SPSS are that they will have many friends, fight rarely, work in a group more effectively (Crick & Dodge, 1994), and face a responsively social situation (Stormshak & Welsch, 2006). On the contrary, there is a relation among socially unaccepted SPSS and poor academic achievement, mental disorder, delinquency (Parker, Rubin, Price, & DeRosier, 1995), and various psychopathology forms in the next level of development (Asendorf, Denissen, & Aken 2008; Mayeux & Cillessen, 2003).

This study will examine whether age and gender different SPSS scores. Compared to younger children, various literature described elder children using a prosocial SPSS more than passive or coercive SPSS. Elder children have developed more social cognitive, which raise more effective strategies. It can be concluded that the solution to social problem develops gradually. In pre-school children, if it comes to read social cues, they tend to make a simple solution to satisfy themselves, not others—such a condition to a cognitive characteristic of pre-school children who are likely to be egocentric. However, by the time they experience more social diversity, they will learn to persuade and compromise and adapt for the sake of all parties involved. As for gender, previous studies showed that boys tend to use physical aggression SPSS while girls tend to use verbal aggressiveness SPSS. Besides, girls tend to use prosocial SPSS more than boys do.

In addition to age and gender, the role of interacting with friends' gender will also be examined further to see the differences in social problem-solving

strategies used by children. Rubin and Rose-Krasnor (1993) state that the effect of boys' domination toward girls is the cause of why girl tend to behave prosocially to boys than to other girls. Green, Cillessen, Rechis, Patterson, and Hughes (2008) proved that girls tend to be prosocial to other girls than deal with boys. The research on the influence of interact friends' gender on SPSS in children can describe how gender affects children's perception of solving conflict. Understanding the perception of children 4-6 years old will help the learning program, or the intervention aimed to improve children social skills.

Based on the research framework, there are two proposed hypotheses: 1) There are differences in social problem-solving strategies viewed from age and gender, and 2) differences in social problem solving strategies when children deal with a similar and different gender.

Methods

This research employed a purposive sampling technique to gain the data. These children are from intact family consist of a father, mother and children and living together. The subject of this study were 162 subjects (70 girls and 92 boys), and 212 children 4-6 year old who studied in kindergartens. The study conducted in 6 Kindergarten in Yogyakarta. 5 Kindergartens are in the Sleman Regency and a kindergarten in Yogyakarta city.

To collect the data, this research employed SPSS Instrument. It contains a hypothetical social situation dilemma. There were six social situations presented three situations concern with limited resources such as books, stationery and toys. Three other situations were joining into a group, maintaining position with friends' disturbance, and self-defence against the provocation of mockery. SPSS measuring tools consisted of four parts, two parts for girls interact with girls and boys, and two others were are for boys who

interact with the same and opposite gender. To validate the result of this measurement, a pilot test was employed. The result of the pilot test is considered valid it brings up answers in the form of SPSS with various categories of 90.4% of the total responses, while only 9.26% did not meet the objective response measured.

Meanwhile, to gain the reliability of this research, inter-rater reliability was employed. The average inter-correlation ratio results in all combination made (\bar{r}_{xx}) of 0.95 to 1. At the same time, the reliability of the average made by raters is ($r_{xx''}$) of 0.99 to 1.

Findings and Discussion

1. Hypothesis 1. There are differences in social problem-solving strategies based on children age and gender.

Descriptive statistical analysis of SPSS variables shows that subject on each category is not balanced. Subjects in the prosocial category are 47.5%, passive is 33.3%, and coercive much is 19.1%. The analysis shows no difference in SPSS based on the age and gender of the child. It means that 4 to 6-year-old children, both boys and girls, do not significantly differ SPSS in response to various conflict situations presented in the measuring instrument. The results of the cross-tabulation show that a comparison of the number of SPSS is used for children 4-5-year-old children and 5-6 year old above. For prosocial strategies, 5-6-year-old use it more than 4-5 year old.

For passive strategy, 4-5-year-old use it more than 5-6 year old, while children over the age of 5 years old respond with coercive strategies more than 4-5 year old. These differences are then tested using the chi-square test to see if the difference in age between SPSS is significant or not. The chi-square test results with a value of $\chi^2 = 1.074$ and $p = 0.585$ ($p > 0.05$) show no significant difference in SPSS viewed from age. Although there is no difference in the number of prosocial and coercive

categories, the chi-square test results show that $\chi^2 = 1.686$ with a probability of significance of 0.430 ($p > 0.05$) no significant difference in the SPSS when from the gender has.

2. Hypothesis 2. There are differences in social problem-solving strategies when dealing with similar the opposite gender.

From the results of cross-tabulation, it is known that in girls, 28 children consistently used a prosocial SPSS either when dealing with friends of the same or different gender, 15 children consistently use passive strategies, and seven children consistently use coercive strategies. Meanwhile, 35 of the 44 children consistently use prosocial strategies for the boys, 26 children consistently use passive strategies, and 21 children use coercive strategies when dealing with friends of the same or different gender.

Furthermore, from the chi-square test results, it is found that both girls and boys are proved to have no significant role that interacts with friends' gender on social problem-solving strategies. Chi-square test results show the value of $\chi^2 = 42.065$ with a significance level of $p < 0.05$. It means a significant correlation between girls using SPSS when dealing with similar gender or the opposite gender. This result is also seen in young boys with the value $\chi^2 = 39.548$ with a significance level of $p < 0.005$. It can be concluded that are both girls and boys use the same strategy when dealing with friends of the same and different genders.

Discussion

This research shows that prosocial strategies are the most widely used by children, with 47,5 % occurrences. Meanwhile, passive strategy places on the second rank with 33,3% occurrences and coercive strategies is in the third rank with 19.1% occurrences.

Based on these results, it can be concluded that although children cognition

is in the age of 4 to 6 year old. They know what to do when facing various social dilemma situations, but it does not always indicate that the children will display similar behaviour to what they think of. Based on studies conducted by Choi (2000), one of the reasons the SPSS in pre-school children revealed by interviews and observation producing different values is the lack of training to practice social strategies in various conflict situations. Whereas, according to Piaget, the fact that children experience conflict plays a vital role in the development of children (Dereli-Iman, 2013). Furthermore, from the development of children 4 to 6-year-old, the discrepancy between thought and behaviour does not mean that something has gone wrong. However, it shows the development process, which is relatively unstable (Santrock, 2007). It shows that age was not related to social problem-solving competence in preschooler (Walker & Henderson, 2012).

Along with age development, there will be suitability between the understanding and the action. Therefore, children need to do repetitive exercises to refine positive behaviour to be internalised in children. This is confirmed by Mills and Rubin (1998) research which shows statement which shows that children 4 to 6-year-old still have the same patterns of social behaviour. In terms of Child Development Psychology, children 4-6 years old are still in the same stage of development. Development tasks on the social aspect of this period are directed to children to learn different kinds of rules beyond their family rules. Parental direction and parental scaffolding can predict children's social competence (Wieland, Green, Ellinsen, & Baker, 2014). At the end of this period, the children are expected to give and accept something, behave empathically, adequately express themselves, and listen when others are speaking (Berns, 2007; Berk, 2012).

For the role of gender differences in children, this research shows differences from some research. Dodge, Coie, and Lyanam (2006) stated that boys are more physically aggressive than girls, especially when provoked. While Eisenberg, Fabes, and Spinrad (2006) suggests that girls are more prosocial than boys. In line with the second hypothesis, the research also shows that friends interact gender does not significantly contribute to the differences in children SPSS used. The results of this study diversify some previous research results. Research conducted by Rose-Krasnor and Rubin (1983) find out that girls tend to use prosocial SPSS to boys compared to other girls because of the dominance effects. As with the research conducted by Green et al. (2008) and research by Parker and Asher (1993), girls tend to bring out the prosocial SPSS to girls than to boys.

There are two statements to explain why the children gender and friends interact gender do not significantly contribute to SPSS differences:

- a. First, It may be caused by the absence of parenting differences for boys and girls. Mothers who do not differentiate the rearing between boys and girls become a model for children to respond to gender differences (Hastings, Mcshane, Parker, & Ladha, 2007). Although since the age of 3 until the end of early childhood (Hartup, 2002), children interact more with similar gender. Children's learning experiences from their mother do not cause them to act socially differently based on gender.
- b. Secondly, based on the researcher's observations and interviews with educators and principals on the site, the learning activities program in Kindergartens facilitate both boys and girls to play and learn in a group. Educational training can influence children's SPSS (Malik, Balda, Punia &

Duhan, 2010). Experiences at home and school mutually reinforce and stimulate children to explore and try different things without any gender differences. There is continuity between what is taught and socialised at home and at school, which establishes assertive behaviour in children. Greater communication between home and school was related to levels of children behaviour (McComick, Capella, O'Connor, & Mc Clowry, 2013). Cooperation between parents and the school that affect children's development can also be used to illustrate how the mesosystem layers based on ecological theory affect children's development.

Conclusion

Age and gender do not influence the children's strategy to solve their social problems. Theoretically, this research supports several earlier research, which revealed that 4 to 6-year-old children still have the same social behaviours. Besides, there is no difference in the children's strategy to solve social problems when interacting with friends who have the same or different gender. It is explained by the possibility that maternal behaviour methods on 4 to 6-year-old children do not differentiate gender. The learning programs in kindergartens did not distinguish the rearing and activities for boys and girls.

Recommendations

1. For parents and teachers
 - a. Based on the fact that 4 to 6 years old children's seems to have no correspondence on the strategy they thought and the implementation when faced with social problems, and that they have average acceptance towards their peers, children should be trained continuously to practice various social skills. Johnson, Ironsmith, Snow, dan Poteat (2000) said that several skills support the development of prosocial behaviour and peers' acceptance, which should be trained on pre-school children by suitable methods—for instance, sharing and helping each other, taking turns to use toys, listening when other people speak, expressing their want or feelings in proper language and cooperative having self-control, and repressing coercive behaviour. Orobio de Castro, Verman, Koops, Bosch, and Monshouwer (2005) and Rubin et al. (2005) added that pre-school children should also be trained to control emotions and empathetic. Furthermore, before or after the skills were introduced and trained, children should understand the meaning and importance of the social skills and friends by showing several examples. When the children show positive behaviours, parents and teachers should encourage affective and rewarding statements. Teaching and reinforcing positive social skills and utilising collaborative and cooperative learning can also promote prosocial behaviour displays (Wentzel & Brophy, 2014). Habitual and consistent training will encourage strong prosocial behaviour. Teachers can create an emotionally supportive classroom environment at the pre-school level through a positive relationship with their students and promote positive interactions among students themselves (Wentzel, 2015).
 - b. Intervening children who tend to have a passive or coercive strategy is essential. Every time children show passive or coercive strategy, parents and teachers should ask why they do such things. From their answers, parents and teachers can understand the situation and the way children think about it. Passive children should be encouraged to participate in activities that need cooperation and express their

thoughts and feelings. Giving examples of making a good strategy in various conflicts/situations and explaining the benefits they would get will encourage pre-school children to try. Conflicts enable them to understand that others have different viewpoints, thoughts, feelings, motives and needs (Dereli-Iman, 2013). Besides support and reward from parents and teachers, peers' role is also essential to help children accomplish the skills needed for interacting with friends. Coercive children should be given examples on the proper behaviour in conflict situations. For instance, when a child snatches his or her friend's toy, parents and teacher should ask him or her to imitate verbal expression, such as "I want to play with that toy, could you please lend it to me now?" In conducting the behaviour, parents and teachers would have to make sure that they imitate it properly. Besides giving a direct example, parents and teachers can make a mutual agreement, such as giving a certain amount of time to use toys, crayons, or books. As a result, the child can take turns with his or her friends. Finally, school-initiated parent involvement programs should highlight practices that can promote prosocial behaviour at home, including the use of inductive reasoning and parental modelling positive social interactions (Wentzel, 2015).

2. For further research

Evaluate the influence of the children who tend to have a coercive strategy towards children who tend to have passive SPSS. The alternative theoretical perspective that can be used is the Theory of Social Learning from Albert Bandura. According to Dereli (2009), with this theory, it can be learned how the imitation and observation of the social behaviour between children could influence or change the children's earlier strategy. Further,

Dereli also said that peers are effective models for children, so it has a strong influence in shaping other children's behaviour.

References

- Asendorpf, J. B., Denissen, J. J. A., & van Aken, M. A. G. (2008). Inhibited and aggressive pre-school children at 23 years of age: Personality and social transitions into adulthood. *Developmental Psychology*, 44, 997-1011.
- Berk, L. E. (2008). *Infants and children: Prenatal through middle childhood*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Berk, L. E. (2012). *Development through lifespan: Dari prenatal sampai remaja* (edisi kelima). Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.
- Berns, R. M. (2007). *Child, family, school, community; Socialisation and support*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Thomson Learning.
- Chang, E.C., D'zurilla, T. J., & Sanna, L.J. (2004). *Social problem solving: Theory, research, and training*. Washington DC: American Psychological Association.
- Choi, D. H. (2000). Changes of pre-school children's social strategy (cognition) and social behaviors after participating in a cognitive-social learning. Proceedings of the Lilian Katz Symposium. Diunduh dari <http://ericece.org/pubs/books/katzsym/choi.pdf>/ tanggal 22 Oktober 2012.
- Cillessen, A. H. N., & Bellmore, A. D. (2011). Social skills and social competence in interactions with peers. In Peter K. Smith & Craig Hart. *The wiley-blackwell handbook of social childhood development, second edition*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

- Crick, N. R., & Dodge, K. A. (1994). A review and reformulation of social information-processing mechanisms in children's social adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 115, 74–101.
- Departemen Pendidikan Nasional. (2007). *Kompetensi aspek perkembangan anak usia 3-4 dan 5-6 tahun*. Jakarta: Depdiknas.
- Dereli, E. (2009). Examining the permanence of the effect of a social skills training program for the acquisition of social problem solving skills. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 37(10), 1419-1428.
- Dereli-Iman, E. (2013). Adaptation of Social Problem Solving for Children Questionnaire in 6 Age Groups and its Relationships with Preschool Behavior Problems. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*. 13(1) pp. 491-498.
- Dodge, K., Coie, J., & Lynam, D. (2006). Aggression and antisocial behavior in youth. In W. Damon & R. Lerner (Series Eds.) & N. Eisenberg (Vol. Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 3. Social, emotional, and personality development* (6th ed., pp.719–788). New York: Wiley.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R A, & Spinrad, T L. (2006). Prosocial development. In W. Damon (ed): *Handbook of child psychology, volume 3: Social, emotional, and personality development*. 5th edition. New York: Wiley.
- Green, V. A., & Rechis, R. (2006). Children's cooperative and competitive interactions in limited resource situations: A literature review. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 27, 42–59.
- Green, V. A., Cillessen, A. H. N., Rechis, R., Patterson, M. M., & Hughes, J. M. (2008). Social problem solving and strategy use in young children. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 169(1), 92–112.
- Hartup, W. W. (1992). Peer relations in early and middle childhood. In V. B. Van Hasselt & M. Hersen (Eds.), *Handbook of social development: A lifespan perspective* (pp. 257–281). New York, NY: Plenum Press.
- Hastings, P. D., McShane, K. E., Parker, R., & Ladha, F. (2007). Ready to make nice : Parental socialisation of young sons and daughter's prosocial behaviors with peers. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 162(2), 177-200.
- Izzaty, R. E. (2009). Strategi Pemecahan Masalah Sosial pada Anak Taman Kanak-kanak. *Laporan Penelitian*. Yogyakarta: Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta.
- Johnson, C., Ironsmith, M., Snow., C. W., & Poteat, G. M. (2000). Peer acceptance and social adjustment in pre-school and kindergarten. *Early Childhood Education Journal*. 27(4), 207-212.
- Laundry, S. H., Smith, K. E., & Swank, P. R. (2009). New directions in evaluating social problem solving in childhood : Early precursors and links to adolescent social competence. *New directions in Child and Adolescent Development*, 123, 51-68.
- Malik, S., Balda, S., Punia, S., & Duhan, K.(2010). Educating Aberrant Children for Social Problem-Solving. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, Vol 2(2): 75-79.
- Mayeux, L., & Cillessen, A. H. N. (2003). Development of social problem solving in early childhood: Stability, change, and associations with social competence. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 164, 153-173.
- McCormick, M. P., Capella, E., O'Connor, E. E., & McClowry, S. G. (2013). Parent involvement, emotional

- support, and behavior problems: an ecological approach. *Chicago Journal* Vol. 144, No. 2 pp. 277-300.
- Mize, J., & Cox, R. A. (1990). Social knowledge and social competence: Number and quality of strategies as predictors of peer behavior. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 151, 117-127.
- Musun-Miller, I. (1993). Social acceptance and social problem solving in pre-school children. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 14, 59 - 70.
- Orobio de Castro, B., Veerman, J. W., Koops, W., Bosch, J. D., & Monshouwer, H. J. (2002). Hostile attribution of intent and aggressive behavior: A meta-analysis. *Child Development*, 73(3), 916–934.
- Parker, J. G., & Asher, S. R. (1993). Friendship and friendship quality in middle childhood: Links with peer group acceptance and feelings of loneliness and social dissatisfaction. *Developmental Psychology*, 29, 611-621.
- Parker, J. G., Rubin, K. H., Price, J. M., & DeRosier, M. E. (1995). Peer relationships, child development, and adjustment: A developmental psychopathology perspective. In D. Cicchetti & D. J. Cohen (Eds.), *Developmental psychopathology: Risk, disorder and adaptation* (pp. 96–161). New York, NY: Wiley.
- Putallaz, M. (1983). Predicting children's sociometric status from their behavior. *Child Development*, 54, 1417-1426.
- Rodkin, P.C., & Hodges, E. V. E. (2003). Bullies and Victims in the Peer Ecology: Four Questions for Psychologists and School Professionals. *School Psychology Review*, 32(3), 384-400.
- Rose-Krasnor, L., & Rubin, K. H. (1983). Preschool social problem solving: Attempts and outcomes in naturalistic interaction. *Child Development*, 54, 1545-1558.
- Rose-Krasnor, L. (1997). The nature of social competence: A theoretical review. *Social Development*, 6, 111-135.
- Rubin, K. H., & Rose-Krasnor, L. (1992). Interpersonal problem solving and children's social competence. In Van Hasselt, V. B., Hersen, M. *Handbook Of Social Development : A Lifespan Perspective*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Rubin, K. H., Coplan, R., Chen, X., & Buskirk, A. A., & Wojslawowicz, J. C. (2005). Peer relationship in childhood. Diunduh dari <http://www.rubinlab.umd.edu/pubs/> Akses tanggal 27 Juni 2010.
- Santrock, J. W. (2007). *Perkembangan anak* (ed. 2). Jakarta: Penerbit Erlangga.
- Stormshak, E. A., & Welsh, J. A. (2005). Social competence : A developmental framework. In Teti, D. M. I. *Handbook of Research Methods in Developmental Science*. Carlton, Victoria: Blackwell Publishing.
- Walker, S. (2004). Teacher reports of social behaviour and peer acceptance in early childhood: Sex and social status differences. *Child Study Journal*, 34(1), 13-28.
- Walker, O. L., & Handerson, H. A. (2012). Temperament and Social Problem Solving Competence in Preschool: Influences on Academic Skills in Early Elementary School. *Social Development*. Vol. 21 (4) pp. 761-779.
- Wentzel, Kathryn. (2015). Prosocial behavior and schooling. *Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development*. Department of Human Development and Quantitative Methodology, University of Maryland USA.

*The Role of Children's Age and Gender, and Friends' Gender
Izzaty*

- Wantzel, K.R., & Brophy, J. (2014).
Motivating Students to Learn. 4th ed.
New York, Ny: Taylor Francis.
- Wieland, N., Green, S., Ellingsen, R., &
Baker, B. L. (2014). Parent-child
problem solving in families of
children with or without intellectual
disability. *Journal of Intellectual Disability
Research*. Vol 58 (1) pp17-30.



Improving Mental Health during the COVID-19 Pandemic through Online Psychoeducation

Kartika Nur Fathiyah¹; Tria Widyastuti¹; Farida Agus Setiawati¹; Rahmatika Kurnia Romadhani¹; Yulia Ayriza¹; Yahya Abdullah¹; Lu'lu Inayatul Lilmuallafab¹

¹ Department of Psychology, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta,
Jl. Colombo No. Depok, Sleman, Yogyakarta 55281, Indonesia
kartika@uny.ac.id

Abstract

The COVID-19 pandemic alters many aspects of everyday life that we have grown accustomed to. The enactment of various new policies to curb the spread of the disease, i.e., social distancing, work and study from home, restrictions on large-scale activities and restriction in travelling, compel each one of us to adjust. Not to mention the fear of being infected with COVID-19. These conditions led to various psychological problems such as anxiety, low hope, and negative emotions. Efforts to improve people's mental health are urgently needed. One such step is to increase one's understanding of self-management in facing psychological problems due to COVID-19. This study aims to improve the community's mental health, namely the residents of Blotan hamlet during the COVID-19 pandemic through online self-management psychoeducation. To test the effectiveness of psychoeducation, this study used a one-group pre and post-test design. A total of 31 subjects participated in the activity in full. We can infer the effectivity through the anxiety score, hope, and positive emotions on the pre and post-test measurements. The results found that self-managed psychoeducation facing psychological problems during the pandemic significantly increased positive emotions ($t = -2,753$, $df = 30$, and $p < .05$). As for the measurement of anxiety and hope, there was no significant change due to the subject's anxiety score and hope were already in the medium category.

Keywords: *COVID-19; positive emotion; mental health; psychoeducation*

Introduction

The spread of the COVID-19 virus threatens public health around the world. Reporting from the World Health Organization website, on April 14, 2020, there were 1,848,439 confirmed cases of Covid-19 with 117,217 deaths (World Health Organization, 2020b). In Indonesia, COVID-19 was first detected on March 2, 2020, and the number of victims is increasing from time to time. As for Indonesia itself, there have been 4,839 confirmed positive cases of Covid-19, with 459 people dying related to COVID-19 (World Health Organization, 2020a). To minimize the spread of the COVID-19 virus, the government issued social/physical distancing policies,

lockdowns, policies for studying, doing activities, and working at home, as well as limiting large-scale activities. Implementing these various policies creates psychological problems for the community (Grover et al., 2020). Increased stress due to termination of employment, closure of business premises, lonely sales, demands for adjustment to a new lifestyle as access to various policies creates pressure (stressors) for the community. Stress also arises due to financial uncertainty, insufficient food supply, and limited activities (Khan et al., 2020). These various circumstances trigger the emergence of helplessness. In some individuals, there is a failure to tolerate the situation. Inability to tolerate circumstances

makes the stressor feel exaggerated, exceeding one's capacity to face it. This raises various psychological problems.

Psychological problems that arise include anxiety, depression, and stress (Ho et al., 2020; Khan et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020; Xia et al., 2020). Research by Li, Wang, Xue, Zhao, and Zhu (2020) also reported an increase in negative emotions (anxiety, depression, and anger) and sensitivity to social risks and decreased positive emotions and life satisfaction after the Covid-19 declaration. The longer the quarantine period is also reported to have a role in psychological distress (Ho et al., 2020). The existence of various psychological problems indicates the need for efforts to increase self-capacity in dealing with COVID-19. Steps that can be made include providing self-management understanding or psychoeducation to face psychological issues due to the COVID-19 outbreak. This can make people able to survive and carry out their daily activities optimally. Efforts to foster positive emotions during the Covid-19 outbreak are entirely meaningful because positive emotions are a source of personal coping in facing various problems. This is evidenced by multiple experimental studies in positive psychology that have found the role of positive affects such as joy, love, interest, contentment, hope, and gratitude in developing resilience to grow out of an adverse situation (Fredrickson et al., 2003).

Strengthening psychological capacity through the provision of material on hope is also considered essential. Hope is often closely related to the goal of survival or survival of humans. When hope is gone, then a person's desire to end their life arises. That is what happens to people who experience depressive disorders. Hope is often associated with optimism, future thoughts, and future orientation, a cognitive, emotional and motivational mental attitude towards the future (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Therefore, hope is proclaimed for the future when

people face difficulties overcoming challenges and achieving the expected goals. There are three steps in the process of building hope (Snyder, 2000), namely: (1) Goal, (2) Agency, and (3) Pathways.

One way to reduce anxiety levels (Rummel-Kluge et al., 2009), foster positive emotions, and instil hope (Long et al., 2015) is psychoeducation. Psychoeducation is a good alternative because it is relatively easy to do and does not require much money (Donker et al., 2009). However, in the current COVID-19 pandemic, there is a need for adjustments in the implementation of psychoeducation because it will be challenging to do in person or face to face. Providing online psychoeducation is a safe choice during the COVID-19 pandemic. Several online mental health services were already in place during the COVID-19 pandemic in China (Liu et al., 2020). Some of the mental health services that have been implemented in China include online mental health education with WeChat, Weibo, TikTok during the Covid-19 pandemic for medical and general personnel. In addition, WeChat-based online psychological counselling is also carried out by various health institutions and universities.

Based on this background, we can conclude that one of the problems that arise due to the COVID-19 pandemic is mental health problems, including social restrictions that do not allow face-to-face mental health services that can be overcome with the implementation of online service. Regarding the described issues, this study aims to examine the role of online psychoeducation to improve people's mental health during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Methods

Research design and data collection

The research conducted is a quasi-experimental study that aims to test the effectiveness of online psychoeducation in

improving mental health during the COVID-19 pandemic. The experimental design used was a one-group pre and post-test design. The research was conducted online on August 19, 2020, through the Google Meet platform.

Research Subject

A total of 36 study subjects filled out a pretest and took part in online psychoeducation on self-management of

mental health during a pandemic. Then 32 participants filled out the post-test. The final number of research subjects involved in the final analysis was as many as 31 people. Details of research subjects from each stage of analysis can be seen in Figure 1. The final research subjects consisted of 2 men and 29 women aged 17 to 57 years (Mean = 37,193, SD = 12.31) with a junior high / high school education background (49.4 %), S1 (38.7%), S2 (6.5%), and S3 (6.5%).

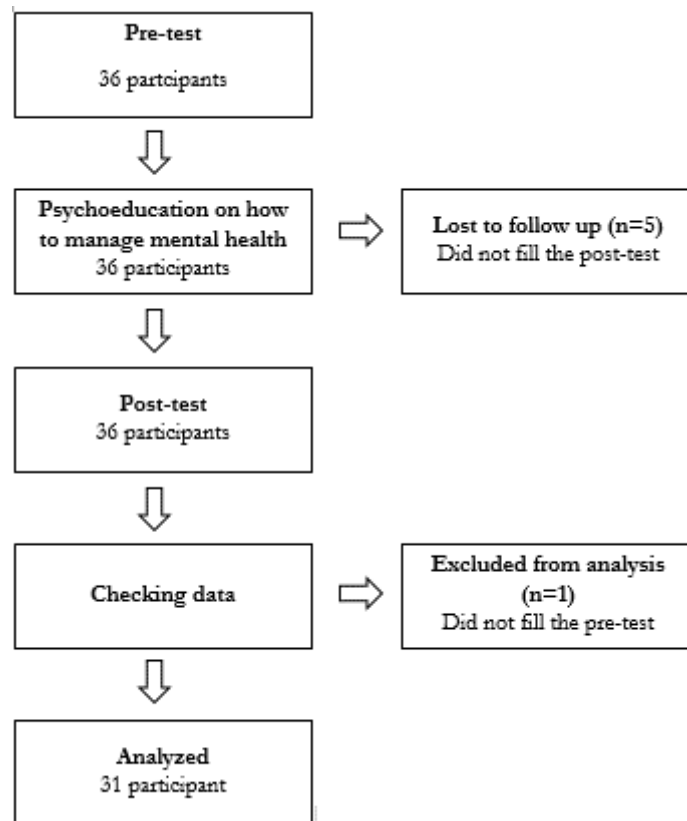


Figure 1. *Flowchart of participants*

Research Instruments

Researchers measured changes in participants' attitudes and behaviour after being given online psychoeducation about self-management of mental health using three measurement scales. The instruments used include: (1) the state part of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI), (2) the hope scale, and (3) the positive emotion scale.

Anxiety measurements were performed using S-anxiety from the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory developed by Marteau and Bekker (1992). STAI measures state anxiety (S-anxiety) and trait-anxiety (T-anxiety). S-anxiety is a temporary emotional condition associated with tension, anxiety, nervousness, and worry whose intensity varies and changes over time (Spielberger & Reheiser, 2004). Meanwhile, T-anxiety refers to anxiety

that is relatively stable or part of the personality. STAI is still being developed in several countries, especially the short version of STAI (Zsido et al., 2020). This study used a 6-item version of S-anxiety from Marteau and Bekker's (1992) study. This version consists of 3 favourable items (items no. 2, 3, 6) and three unfavourable items (items nos. 1, 4, 5). In favourable items, the response option "not at all" was assigned a score of 1, "somewhat appropriate" was assigned a score of 2,

"quite appropriate" was assigned a score of 3, and "very appropriate" was assigned a score of 4. As for unfavourable items, the scoring was reversed. The 6-item S-anxiety score ranges from 6 to 24. The 6-item version was found to have an alpha reliability coefficient of .82 and a high correlation of .95 with the long version of STAI. In this study, the reliability of the 6-item S-anxiety was measured again and was found to be .626.

Table 1.
 Psychometric property of the research instruments

Instrument	Total Item	Corrected-item total correlation	Reliability α
State Anxiety	6	.230-.423	.626
Hope Scale	4	.716-.893	.919
Positive emotion scale	3	.315-.538	.585

The researcher compiled hope and positive emotions scale. The hope scale consists of 4 favourable items with a choice of responses from "very inappropriate", assigned a score of 1, to "very suitable", assigned a score of 5. The hope score ranges from 4 to 20. The reliability estimate of the four hope items is 0.919. The scale of positive emotions consists of 3 favourable items. The response options consisted of 5 choices from "very unsuitable", assigned a score of 1, to "very suitable", which was assigned a score of 5. Positive emotional scores ranged from 3 to 15. The reliability of the three items of positive emotions was 0.585. The instrument reliability information can be seen in Table 1.

Research Procedure

The study consisted of three stages, namely: (1) measurement before giving online psychoeducation (pretest), (2) giving online psychoeducation, and (3) measuring after giving online psychoeducation.

1) *Pretest*

The pretest was conducted to determine the subject's score of anxiety, hope, and positive emotions before being given psychoeducation about self-management of mental health. The pretest was carried out by asking the subjects to fill in the scale online via the google form. In filling the scale, the subjects were guided by the researcher through google meet.

2) *Online Psychoeducation*

Self-managed mental health psychoeducation is conducted online, which includes the following materials: (1) challenges and the other side of the COVID-19 pandemic, (2) hope and survival during the COVID-19 pandemic, (3) mental health with positive emotions, (4) meaningful life, and (5) mindfulness.

3) *Post-test*

At the end of the session, the final measurement (post-test) was carried out via google form guided by the researcher.

Data Analysis

The pretest and post-test scores of the final 31 subjects who completed both measurements were then analyzed. The analysis was carried out by using paired sample t-test using SPSS version 20 software.

Findings

Evaluation of the effectiveness of the provision of online mental health self-management psychoeducation was carried out by testing the pretest and post-test results. In addition, the researcher also asked the subject to write a qualitative written evaluation related to the given online psychoeducation. The paired sample t-test result from the pretest and post-test measurements of anxiety, hope, and positive emotions can be seen in Table 2

Table 2.
Paired sample t-test result

		Mean	Mean diff.	t	Df	sig
Anxiety	CPRE	11.064	.612	1.218	30	.233
	CPOST	10.451				
Hope	HPRE	15.225	-.064	-.113	30	.911
	HPOST	15.290				
Positive Emotion	EMPRE	9.935	-1.193	-2.753	30	.010
	EMPOST	11.129				

The average anxiety score decreased after training, from 11,064 to 10,451 in the post-test ($\Delta = .613$). However, this decrease in anxiety score was not significant ($t = 1.218$, $df = 30$, and $p > .05$). Thus, there is no difference in anxiety before and after training. The average expected score increased from 15,225 in the pretest to 15,290, with a pre-post mean difference of -.0635. However, the increase in the hope score was not significant ($t = -.113$, $df = 30$, and $p > .05$). Thus, there is no difference in hope before and after training. The mean score of positive emotions increased from 9,935 to 11,129 ($\Delta = -1.1935$). The increase in positive emotional scores was significant ($t = -2,753$, $df = 30$, and $p < .05$). Thus, there are differences in positive emotions before and after training. The positive emotions of the research subjects increased after attending the training.

Discussion

Based on the results of pretest and post-test measurements, the provision of self-managed mental health psychoeducation during the COVID-19 pandemic which consists of materials on: (1) challenges and the other side of the pandemic, (2) mental health by managing positive emotions, (3) managing hope, (4) managing the meaning of life, and (5) mindfulness significantly increasing participants' positive emotions. This is in line with Yu, Yu, and Li (2020) findings that mindfulness can minimize the negative impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on mental health. In addition, the material for managing positive emotions or emotion regulation also plays a role in increasing positive emotions. This finding is also reinforced by previous research that effective emotion regulation

helps deal with the adverse effects of the COVID-19 pandemic (Restubog et al., 2020).

Even though anxiety decreased, the anxiety score decreased significantly. This is possible because the subject's anxiety score before giving psychoeducation (pretest score) was classified as moderate, namely 10,451. As explained in the method section, the 6-item S-anxiety score range ranges from 6 to 24. This also occurs with the hope score, which is quite good from the start, with an average score of 15,225 as it is known that the score range for four items on the hope scale ranges from 4 to 20. This may be explained by the adjustment of the community in facing the COVID-19 pandemic. When the pandemic situation has become a daily routine, where people are used to living with masks and lockdown policies, the level of optimism starts to rise (Kaur et al., 2020).

The qualitative evaluation results after the post-test measurement showed that the subjects felt the benefits of providing mental health self-management psychoeducation. In terms of usefulness, the subject expressed appreciation that the psychoeducation activities provided were very good, helpful, provided enlightenment, provided understanding, to be more able to deal with psychological problems during the COVID-19 pandemic, and provided motivation not to be trapped in stress. In terms of implementation, the subject gave suggestions so that this psychoeducation activity could be carried out routinely. In terms of delivery, the subject reveals that the material presented is easy to understand.

Apart from appreciation, organizing psychoeducation online is inseparable from its shortcomings. The first limitation is technical constraints from the participants, such as an unstable internet connection. The second obstacle was that some participants could not

attend until the end due to technical problems, such as low or exhausted cellphone batteries for participating in online psychoeducation activities.

Conclusion

Based on the measurement results before and after mental health self-management psychoeducation, it can be concluded that the provision of mental health self-managed psychoeducation can significantly increase participants' positive emotions. Qualitatively based on a written evaluation of the subject, giving psychoeducation helps subjects better face psychological problems during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Suggestion

This activity may be carried out routinely because it is considered beneficial for the training participants. Further, the meeting might be divided into several meetings to discuss the material more deeply.

References

- Donker, T., Griffiths, K. M., Cuijpers, P., & Christensen, H. (2009). Psychoeducation for depression, anxiety and psychological distress: A meta-analysis. *BMC Medicine*, 7, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1741-7015-7-79>
- Fredrickson, B. L., Tugade, M. M., Waugh, C. E., & Larkin, G. R. (2003). What good are positive emotions in crises? A prospective study of resilience and emotions following the terrorist attacks on the United States on September 11, 2001. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84(2). <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.84.2.365>
- Grover, S., Dua, D., Sahoo, S., Mehra, A., Nehra, R., & Chakrabarti, S. (2020).

- Why all COVID-19 hospitals should have mental health professionals: The importance of mental health in a worldwide crisis! *Asian Journal of Psychiatry*, 51(April), 102147. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajp.2020.102147>
- Ho, C. S., Chee, C. Y., & Ho, R. C. (2020). Mental Health Strategies to Combat the Psychological Impact of COVID-19 Beyond Paranoia and Panic. *Annals of the Academy of Medicine, Singapore*, 49(1), 1–3.
- Kaur, S., Kaul, P., & Zadeh, P. M. (2020). Monitoring the Dynamics of Emotions during COVID-19 Using Twitter Data. *Procedia Computer Science*, 177, 423–430. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2020.10.056>
- Khan, A. H., Sultana, M. S., Hossain, S., Hasan, M. T., Ahmed, H. U., & Sikder, M. T. (2020). The impact of COVID-19 pandemic on mental health & wellbeing among home-quarantined Bangladeshi students: A cross-sectional pilot study. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 277(June), 121–128. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2020.07.135>
- Li, S., Wang, Y., Xue, J., Zhao, N., & Zhu, T. (2020). The Impact of COVID-19 Epidemic Declaration on Psychological Consequences: A Study on Active Weibo Users. *Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17. <https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17062032>
- Liu, N., Zhang, F., Wei, C., Jia, Y., Shang, Z., Sun, L., Wu, L., Sun, Z., Zhou, Y., Wang, Y., & Liu, W. (2020). Prevalence and predictors of PTSS during COVID-19 outbreak in China hardest-hit areas: Gender differences matter. *Psychiatry Research*, 287, 112921. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2020.112921>
- Long, C. G., Fulton, B., & Dolley, O. (2015). Using psychoeducation to motivate engagement for women with personality disorder in secure settings. *Journal of Psychiatric Intensive Care*, 11(01), 18–26. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s1742646413000344>
- Marteau, T. M., & Bekker, H. (1992). The development of a six-item short-form of the state scale of the Spielberger State–Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI). *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 31(3), 301–306. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8260.1992.tb00997.x>
- Peterson, C., & Seligman, M. E. P. (2004). *Character strengths and virtues: A handbook and classification*. American Psychological Association.
- Restubog, S. L. D., Ocampo, A. C. G., & Wang, L. (2020). Taking control amidst the chaos: Emotion regulation during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 119(May), 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2020.103440>
- Rummel-Kluge, C., Pitschel-Walz, G., & Kissling, W. (2009). Psychoeducation in anxiety disorders: Results of a survey of all psychiatric institutions in Germany, Austria and Switzerland. *Psychiatry Research*, 169(2), 180–182. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2008.10.016>
- Snyder, C. R. (2000). *Handbook of hope: Theory, measures, and applications*. Academic Press.
- Spielberger, C. D., & Reheiser, E. . (2004). Measuring anxiety, anger, depression, and osity as emotional

states and personality traits with the STAI, STAXI, and STPI. In M. J. Hilsenroth & D. L. Segal (Eds.), *Comprehensive handbook of Psychological assessment*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

World Health Organization. (2020a). *Update on coronavirus disease in Indonesia*. April 14.

World Health Organization, W. H. O. (2020b). *Coronavirus disease (COVID-19) Pandemic*. April 14.

Xia, J., Meng, Y., Wen, F., Li, H., Meng, K., & Zhang, L. (2020). Caring for anxiety among adults in the face of COVID-19: A cross-sectional online survey. *Journal of Affective Disorders Reports*, 1(September), 100014.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadr.2020.100014>

Yu, Y., Yu, Y., & Li, B. (2020). Effects of mindfulness and meaning in life on psychological distress in Chinese university students during the COVID-19 epidemic: A chained mediation model. *Asian Journal of Psychiatry*, 53, 102211.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajp.2020.102211>

Zsido, A. N., Teleki, S. A., Csokasi, K., Rozsa, S., & Bandi, S. A. (2020). Development of the short version of the spielberger state—trait anxiety inventory. *Psychiatry Research*, 291(January), 113223.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2020.113223>



Relationship Between Child-Mother Secure Attachment Style and Violence in Adolescent Romantic Relationship

Zarra Janna Muhammad¹; Yulia Ayriza¹

¹ Department of Psychology, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta,
Jl. Colombo No. Depok, Sleman, Yogyakarta 55281, Indonesia
zarra98janna@gmail.com

Abstract

This study aimed to assess the correlation between the secure attachment style of child-mother and violence in adolescents' romantic relationships. A quantitative approach with a correlational method is used in this research. The subject in this study were 408 adolescents aged 18-22 years who were in romantic relationships and lives in the Special Region of Yogyakarta. The data collection method used in this study is the questionnaire method with the instrument used are the IPVAS-R scale and IPPA-M scale. Both scales used convergent validity with correlations of 0,18-0,78. Then the two scales were re-validated by expert judgement. Reliability for the IPVAS-R was 0,76, and the IPPA-M was 0,87. The data analysis used a non-parametric correlation test. The research results showed a negative correlation between child-mother secure attachment style and dating violence with $r=-0,221$ and $\alpha=0,000$ ($p<0,01$). The higher the secure attachment style between child and mother, the lower the violence in romantic relationships.

Keywords: *attachment style; dating violence; adolescent*

Introduction

According to Hurlock (1996, in Ardi, Ibrahim, & Said, 2012: 1), adolescence's most challenging developmental task is related to social adjustment, one of which is adjusting relationships with peers of the opposite sex. Relationships with friends of the opposite sex can lead to an attraction that leads to romantic relationships or better known as courtship. According to Santrock (2012: 449), courtship is a form of recreation, status, a setting for studying close relationships, and also a way to find a partner.

According to Wolfe and Feiring (2000, in Trifiani & Margaretha, 2012: 75), dating can support psychological development and provide many positive meanings (Connolly & Johnson, 1996; Feiring, 1996; Gray & Steinberg, 1999; Wolfe & Mash, 2006 in Trifiani & Margaretha, 2012: 75). Teenagers who have a partner can develop social

cognition, namely the ability to understand others as unique in nature, interests, values, and feelings (Yusuf, 2011; Ardi, Ibrahim, & Said, 2012: 2). The development of social cognition can certainly help adolescents achieve one of their developmental tasks, namely social adjustment. These benefits are obtained if the romantic relationship that exists has a positive and harmonious atmosphere. Building a harmonious relationship is very important so that the dating relationship that is lived can develop each other between partners. An excellent romantic relationship occurs when individuals can resolve conflicts due to existing differences, but not all individuals can accept differences and resolve conflicts efficiently.

Late adolescence has developmental characteristics in stable psychological and physical aspects, an increased level of realistic thinking and a good perspective,

more maturity in dealing with problems, and increased emotional calm to master feelings (Gunarsa & Gunarsa, 2001; Mappiare, 2000 in Putro, 2017: 29). This is very much needed in establishing a harmonious romantic relationship. However, not all late adolescents have the characteristics and developmental tasks they should. This, of course, will impact the people around them, including their partners, especially when faced with a problem. When a relationship is hit by conflict and cannot resolve properly, violence in romantic relationships can arise or violence in courtship.

Violence in romantic relationships, both verbal and non-verbal, is an attempt by one partner to control or dominate his partner, either sexually, psychologically, or physically, which can cause harm to his partner (Wolfe and Feiring, 2002 in Yuliani & Fitria, 2017: 276). Cases of violence in dating (KDP) in Indonesia show a relatively high number. According to the 2019 Annual Records of Violence against Women by the National Commission on Violence against Women (Komnas Perempuan), there were 2,073 cases of KDP that occurred throughout 2018 in Indonesia. The Special Region of Yogyakarta also has a relatively high number of KDP cases. According to data listed on the website of an NGO engaged in the protection of women, the Rifka Annisa Women's Crisis Center Yogyakarta, 140 cases of domestic violence were handled from 2012 to 2017. In addition, cases of violence in dating in Yogyakarta mainly occurred in their late teens, aged 14-25, where there are 14 cases out of 32 cases.

One factor that influences violence in this romantic relationship is the history of violence in the family. The existence of violence in the family by parents or other family members will make children imitate it and can form an aggressive personality (Soeroso, 2010 in Adiswanisa & Kristiana, 2012: 4; Purnama, 2016: 62). Therefore, it

can be concluded that the interaction between parents and children in the family during childhood has an essential role in creating a positive personality. This will prevent children from committing violence in the future when interacting with people around them, including partners. The interaction that is formed between children and parents or caregivers is called attachment.

Attachment is an interaction based on a solid emotional bond between two individuals (Santrock, 2012: 219). Attachment is created since the individual is born from the mother's womb. Good experiences and interactions in early life with parents, especially mothers, have an essential role because children will develop an internal representation called an internal working model (Bowlby, 1988 in Pace, San Martini, & Zavattini, 2011: 83).). The internal work model contains expectations and strategies for regulating emotions, managing interpersonal relationships and exploratory behaviour, and dealing with conflict or challenging circumstances. This model also plays a role in the formation of the adhesive force. The attachment style itself is divided into two, namely, secure and insecure. The secure attachment style is where babies use caregivers as a safe base to explore their environment (Santrock, 2012: 221). Insecure attachment style is divided into two, namely avoidant and ambivalent. The avoidant attachment shows insecure attachment by avoiding behaviour from caregivers, and ambivalent attachment is often attached to the caregiver and then rejects it by pushing or kicking (Santrock, 2012: 221).

Attachment is a benchmark for future individual interactions because of the nature of continuous or continuous attachment. The child will be guided and apply the attachment style of the caregiver or his attached figure with the people around him, including his romantic relationship partner. The attachment style

formed with the mother in the early stages of life will guide thinking, feeling, and behaving in romantic relationships (Hazan & Shaver, 1994: 9). Children with a secure attachment style have good skills in managing interpersonal relationships, have emotional regulation skills, and can handle conflicts and difficult situations. When in a romantic relationship, he has the characteristics of a relationship that is full of happiness, trust, acceptance, has adaptive emotions, and compromises in solving problems (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Pistole, 1989 in Maysel, 1991: 24; Cooper, Shaver, & Collins, 1998: 1392). These things are necessary for establishing a good romantic relationship with a partner to avoid violence in romantic relationships. Therefore, it is essential to apply a safe attachment style between the child and mother from an early age to prevent violence in romantic relationships.

Several previous studies on secure attachment style and violence in romantic relationships still focused on attachment to parents, not explicitly measuring the attachment between child-mother or child-father. Research conducted by Sanjaya (2016) immediately combines both parents as attachment figures but does not explicitly distinguish how much attachment the child and mother have or the child and father. According to the researchers, this may lead to not knowing exactly which relationship is more strongly associated with violence in romantic relationships.

In addition, this study focuses on late adolescence, where the emotional, cognitive, and social aspects that are starting to mature are expected to establish romantic relationships without violence. However, the fact is that perpetrators of violent cases in romantic relationships in Yogyakarta are still dominated by late teens, causing a gap. Therefore, the researcher views it necessary to re-examine the relationship between violence

in romantic relationships and secure attachment styles, focusing on attachment figures, namely mothers and late adolescent subjects. It is hoped that through this research, parents can apply a safe attachment style as a form of good parenting to children in order to prevent violence when establishing romantic relationships.

Methods

This study is a correlational research aiming to test the relationship between variables without manipulating variability (Azwar, 2018: 25).

Research time and place

The research was conducted since the proposal was made, starting from September 2019 to July 2020. The research was carried out in the Special Region of Yogyakarta by distributing online questionnaires through an online survey application (google form) from March to April 2020.

Research Subject

The population in this study are teenagers who live in the Special Region of Yogyakarta and are aged 18-22 years, which is late adolescence. The estimated number of the late adolescent population in the Special Region of Yogyakarta according to the projection data of the Central Statistics Agency (BPS) in 2020 is 289,870 people. Sampling using the type of sampling incidental or accidental sampling. The number of samples was determined by the Slovin formula and obtained a sample size of 399. The data obtained by the researcher was 413 subjects, but five subjects filled out the scale with the same value from the beginning to the end of the statement. The five subjects were then eliminated, and the remaining 408 subjects could be analyzed.

Data Collection Techniques Research and Instruments

Data collection techniques in this study using the questionnaire method. The research was conducted by distributing online questionnaires with an online survey application (google form). There are two instruments used in this study. The scale of violence in romantic relationships uses the Intimate Partner Violence Attitude-Revised (IPVAS-R) by Fincham, Cui, Braithwaite, & Pasley (2008), which was created by Smith, Thompson, Tomaka, & Buchanan (2005). The IPVAS-R scale measures three aspects of violence in romantic relationships: abuse, violence, and control. The scale of safe attachment with mother uses the Inventory Parents and Peer Attachment-Mother Version (IPPA-M) developed by Armsden & Greenberg (2009). This scale measures the dimensions of secure attachment, namely trust, communication, and alienation.

The IPVAS scale is 17 items, and the IPPA is 25 items, so the total items in this research instrument are 42 items. This research instrument includes items that are favourable and unfavourable. The number of favourable items is 31 items, and the number of unfavourable items is 11 items. Each scale includes aspects and dimensions of the two variables according to the existing theory. The form of the scale on the instrument used is five alternative answers. Alternative answers on the scale of violence in romantic relationships are very inappropriate (score one), not appropriate (score two), doubtful (score three), appropriate (score four), and very appropriate (score five). The attachment scale with the mother has alternative answers ranging from almost never or never correct (score one), rarely correct (score two), sometimes correct (score three), often correct (score four) and almost always or always correct (score 5).

Validity and Reliability

Instruments are valid if the measuring instrument used to obtain data (measure) can be used to measure what should be measured (Sugiyono, 2012: 121). Measurement of validity in this study uses content validity to assess the relevance of each statement to its purpose. It examines whether the overall content of the questionnaire is comprehensive following the information domain to be studied (Azwar, 2018: 149). Content validation is then consulted with an expert in the field of psychology.

The results of the total item test on the IPVAS-R scale contained three items (item numbers 2, 16, and 17) that did not meet the criteria ($r = 0.20$), so they had to be eliminated. After eliminating items that do not meet the criteria, the violence in romantic relationship scale has 14 items remaining with coefficients ranging from 0.22 to 0.58. Both instruments use convergent validity. Convergent validity showed that the control subscale scores on the IPVAS-R had a significant inverse correlation with the Pro-divorce Attitude scale ($r = -0.18$). The highest correlation is found in the “violence” subscale score on the IPVAS-R with the Revised Conflict Tactic Scale (CTS-2) subscale score, namely “physical assault” ($r = 0.39$), and the “abuse” and “control” subscales correlate with subscale score “psychological aggression” with $r = 0.43$ and $r = 0.27$ (Fincham et al., 2008: 265-266).

Parental attachment scores on the IPPA scale have a moderate to a strong relationship with the “family self-concept” and “social self-concept” subscale scores on the TSCS scale, which have correlation coefficients of 0.78 and 0.46. In addition, parental attachment scores also have a relatively strong relationship with most of the subscales on the FES scale, with correlation coefficients ranging from 0.36-

0.56. There is a moderate to a strong relationship between parental attachment and most subscales in the Family and Peer Utilization. This subscale has a correlation coefficient range of 0.54-0.62 (Greenberg & Armsden, 1987: 438-439; 2009: 2).

A reliable instrument is an instrument that can produce accurate scores with minor measurement errors (Azwar, 2017: 111). Reliability refers to the reliability or consistency of the measurement results, which means how high the accuracy of the measurement is. Reliability on the attachment scale to the mother has a very high reliability coefficient with a reliability coefficient of 0.87 (Greenberg & Armsden, 2009: 2). The scale of violence in romantic relationships has high reliability with a reliability coefficient value of 0.76. Reliability is calculated based on the try out using the Cronbach's Alpha formula with the help of SPSS for windows.

Data Analysis

The data obtained is then analyzed descriptively and categorized based on the Azwar (2017: 149) formula. The categorization norm can be seen in Table 1. The results of the prerequisite test show that the data obtained are not normally distributed. In addition, the random requirement was also not met because it used accidental sampling, so non-parametric correlation test analysis was used to test the hypothesis.

Table 1. Categorization Norm

Score Interval	Criteria
$\mu + 1,0\sigma \leq X$	High
$\mu - 1,0 \sigma \leq X < \mu + 1,0\sigma$	Moderate
$X < \mu - 1,0\sigma$	Low

Finding

The data of this study were obtained from 408 subjects with the following details:

Table 1. Research Subject Data Based on Age

Age	n	%
18	20	4,9%
19	54	13,2%
20	74	18,1%
21	135	33,1%
22	125	30,6%
Total	408	100%

Table 2. Research Subject Data Based on Length of Establishing Romantic Relationships

Length	n	%
≤ 6 months	70	17%
6 – 12 months	64	16%
12 – 24 months	85	21%
24 – 36 months	57	14%
≥ 36 months	132	32%
Total	408	100%

Based on Table 2, most subjects were 21 years old, namely 135 people or 33.1%. In addition, from Table 3. it can also be concluded that most of the subjects have been in a romantic relationship for more than 36 months, which is 32%.

The data that has been collected is then categorized by calculating the mean, maximum score, minimum score, and standard deviation. The calculation is done manually, and in detail can be seen in Table 4.

Table 3. Description of Violence Variable Data in Romantic Relationships

Mean	42
Standard Deviation	9,33
Minimum	14
Maximum	70

Table 4. shows that the maximum score obtained is 70, while the minimum score obtained is 14. The hypothetical average obtained is = 42, with a standard deviation of 9.33. Based on the mean and standard deviation obtained, the categorization of violence in romantic relationships is presented in Table 5. Furthermore, the distribution of the frequency of categorization of violence in romantic relationships is presented in a diagram as shown in Figure 1.

Table 4. Results of Categorization of Violence Variables in Romantic Relationships

Category	Range	Freq.	Percentage
High	$51,33 \leq X$	2	0,5%
Moderate	$32,67 \leq X < 51,33$	76	18,6%
Low	$X < 32,67$	330	80,9%
Total		408	100%

Table 5. Description of Safe Attachment Variable Data with Mother

	Trust	Communication	Alienation
Mean	42	27	18
Standard Deviation	9,33	6	4
Minimum	14	45	30
Maximum	70	9	6

Table 6. shows that on the scale of safe attachment with mother, maximum and minimum scores for each dimension are obtained, namely the dimensions of trust of 50 and 10, dimensions of communication of 45 and 9, and dimensions of alienation of 30 and 6.

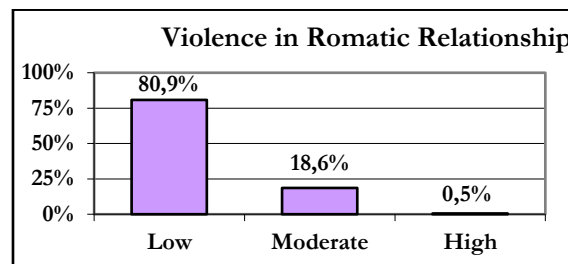


Figure 1. Frequency Categorization Distribution of Violence in Romantic Relationships

Based on Table 5. and Figure 1., it is known that the low level of violence in romantic relationships is 80.9%, the medium level is 18.6%, and the high level is 0.5%. Therefore, it can be concluded that most of the subjects in this study tend to commit violence in romantic relationships in the low category.

Furthermore, for safe attachment to the mother, the same thing was done in determining the categorization. However, for this variable, categorization is carried out on the total score of each of its constituent dimensions, namely the dimensions of trust, communication, and alienation. Details of the calculation of the categorization formula can be seen in Table 6.

obtained for the dimensions of trust, communication, and alienation are 30, 27, and 18 with standard deviations of 6.67, 6, and 4. Based on the mean and standard deviation obtained, the categorization of each dimension is presented in Table 7.

Table 6. Categorization of Safe Attachment Dimensions with Mother

Score Interval			
Category	Trust	Communication	Alieniation
High	$36,67 \leq X$	$33 \leq X$	$22 \leq X$
Moderate	$23,33 \leq X < 36,67$	$21 \leq X < 33$	$14 \leq X < 22$
Low	$X < 23,33$	$X < 21$	$X < 14$

The secure attachment style or “high security” classification seen from the total value of the dimension of trust or communication dimension is in the medium or high category. The total value of the alienation dimension is in the low or medium category. Based on these criteria, the distribution of the attachment style with the mother is obtained as presented in Table 8. Furthermore, the frequency distribution of the categorization of safe attachment with the mother is presented in a diagram as shown in Figure 2.

Table 8. Categorization of Attachment Variables with Mother

Category	n	%
High Security	274	67,2%
Low Security - Ambivalent	72	17,6%
Low Security - Avoidant	62	15,2%
Total	408	100%

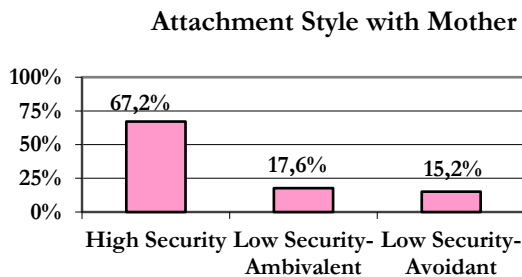


Figure 2. Frequency Distribution of Attachment Categorization with Mother

Based on Table 8 and Figure 2, it is known that the subjects who have a secure attachment style with their mother as many as 274 people or 67.2%, insecure-ambivalent attachment style as many as 72 people or 17.6%, and insecure-avoidance attachment style as many as 62 people or by 15.2%. It can be concluded that most of the subjects in this study have a secure attachment style with their mother.

After that, the hypothesis was tested using Spearman’s Rho non-parametric correlation test analysis with the help of the SPSS program. If Sig. < 0.05, it can be concluded that there is a significant correlation between the variables studied. If Sig. > 0.05, then there is no significant correlation between the variables studied. The results of hypothesis testing can be seen in Table 9.

Table 9. Hypothesis Test Results

<i>Spearman’s Rho</i>		Violence in Romantic Relationships
Secure Attachment to Mother	<i>Correlation coefficient</i>	-0,221
	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	0,000
	<i>N</i>	274

Based on Table 9., it is known that the correlation coefficient value is $r = -.221$

with Sig. (2-tailed) of = .000 ($p < 0.01$). This shows a significant negative relationship between mother-child secure attachment style and violence in romantic relationships. The higher the secure attachment style between the child and mother, the lower the violence in romantic relationships.

Discussion

Data analysis shows a significant negative relationship between child-mother secure attachment style and violence in romantic relationships. This means that the higher the secure attachment style between children and mothers, the lower the violence in romantic relationships. When an individual has a secure attachment, they can regulate emotions, manage interpersonal relationships, and deal with conflicts or difficult situations that befall him well. Individuals need these things, especially teenagers, to establish good relationships with their partners to avoid violence in romantic relationships.

This study also has results that align with the research conducted by Dutton et al. (1994), in which secure attachment style has a negative relationship with partner violence (Dutton et al., 1994: 1376). In addition, the research of Dutton et al. (1994: 1376) also found a negative relationship between secure attachment and emotional reactivity in the form of anger and jealousy. Based on Rohmah & Legowo (2014: 4) research results, anger and jealousy are among the factors that cause violence in romantic relationships. Jealousy can also make individuals tend to dominate and restrain their partners (Rohmah & Legowo 2014: 4).

According to Dutton et al. (1994: 1369), individuals with secure attachments have positive models of self and others who make themselves feel confident and comfortable with the intimacy in their romantic relationships. Individuals who

have a secure attachment style believe that they deserve to be loved, cared for, and cared for, while others are seen as trustworthy and always there (Pace, San Martini, & Zavattini, 2011: 83). A positive view of themselves makes them feel confident about their ability to handle their partner's needs without feeling overwhelmed (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2012: 265). A positive view of others makes it easy for them to interpret their partner as someone who deserves sympathy and support (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2012: 265). This is also in line with research by Maysel & Scharf (2007). According to Maysel & Scharf (2007: 26), adolescents with secure attachments have high levels of trust and high satisfaction and intimacy in romantic relationships.

The subjects in this study were late teens, the majority of whom were 21 years old, so emotionally, cognitively, and socially had reached maturity following their developmental characteristics. One form of emotional maturity is the ability to regulate emotions well. Emotion regulation can assess, manage, reveal, and deal with emotions appropriately so that unwanted actions do not occur (Gross, 2014 in Megawati, Anwar, & Masturah 2019: 216). Individuals with good emotion regulation can control their emotions and express their emotions appropriately when facing conflicts with their romantic relationship partners. Good emotional regulation can also reduce aggression so that when dealing with conflicts with partners, problem-solving is taken not to use violence.

The statement above is according to research conducted by Megawati, Anwar, & Masturah (2019), which states a relationship between emotional regulation and violence in romantic relationships among university students. Individuals with good emotional regulation ability can control their emotions and direct themselves according to their goals so that aggression does not occur (Shorey,

McNulty, Moore, & Stuart, 2015 in Megawati, Anwar, & Masturah, 2019: 217). In addition, according to the Ministry of Women's Empowerment and Child Protection (2018), one of the factors that can cause violence in romantic relationships is the lack of emotional control during fights. The lack of emotional control in this individual is undoubtedly related to the ability to regulate emotions. This is also reinforced by research by Larasati & Desiningrum (2017). The study results revealed a positive relationship between emotional regulation and attachment style with the mother, especially the secure attachment style. This means that the higher the emotional regulation possessed, the higher the secure attachment to the mother.

In addition, according to Mikulincer & Shaver (2012: 263), individuals with secure attachments also tend to have more positive beliefs about conflict and conflict resolution. This is done by maintaining open communication, negotiating during the conflict, and relying on effective conflict resolution such as compromise and integration of needs and behaviours between partners. They use interpersonal conflict as an opportunity to increase harmony, satisfaction, and stability in relationships. In addition, they feel comfortable with intimacy and interdependence, which helps in responding positively when partners ask for help and express feelings of need (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2012: 265).

The correlation coefficient obtained in this study is -0.221, which means that violence in romantic relationships and secure attachment with mothers has a low correlation value. This may occur possibly because of other variables that affect violence in romantic relationships. Some of these possibilities are social learning processes and outcomes, childhood abuse, attitudes and beliefs, relationship history and

experiences, low levels of education, drug use, and exposure to violent media (Wolfe, Scott, & Crooks, 2005: 394-399). It is hoped that through this research, parents can apply a secure attachment style as a form of good parenting to children in order to prevent violence when establishing romantic relationships.

Conclusion

Based on the results of research and discussions carried out, it can be concluded that there is a significant negative relationship between mother-child secure attachment style and violence in romantic relationships. This means that the higher the secure attachment that the child has with the mother, the lower the violent behaviour in romantic relationships during adolescence.

Suggestion

Based on the research that has been done, the following are some suggestions given by researchers for related parties, namely:

1. Parents or Caregivers

It is hoped that parents, especially mothers, can pay more attention and realize the importance of good parenting. Good parenting cultivates a secure attachment style between children and parents to create trust, good communication and avoid feeling alienated. Parents with a secure attachment style will be responsive to the needs and desires of children from birth which form the essential trust so that the child's perception and perspective on the world is a safe place. Parenting based on a secure attachment style impacts the psychological development of children, especially in social relationships. It is also hoped that with this research, parents can instil awareness that parenting given from birth will have a lifelong impact on

children because of the nature of continuous attachment. In addition, with this research, it is hoped that parents can pay more attention to issues and signs of violence in romantic relationships in their children.

2. Teenagers

It is hoped that teenagers will be more aware of the issues and signs of violence in romantic relationships and what underlies this. In addition, it is hoped that adolescents can realize what attachment style they and their romantic partners have so that by realizing as early as possible, adolescents can anticipate the occurrence of violence in romantic relationships and create healthy romantic relationships.

3. Practitioners/Stakeholders/ Government

Based on the results obtained in this study, it is hoped that it can be an alternative consideration in intervening in violence cases for practitioners. In addition, preventive counselling on good parenting and attachment is also needed to know and understand what attachment is and its effect on children. Counselling about acts of violence in romantic relationships also needs to be done so that preventive efforts can be carried out immediately. Perpetrators of counselling may be carried out by the Ministry of Women's Empowerment and Child Protection, the BKKBN, and agencies or communities related to parenting and protection from acts of violence.

4. Further research

For further research, it is expected to spread the scale with a broader subject and use a random sampling technique so that the possibility of data distribution will be more evenly distributed and the data can be normally distributed. If the data

distribution is evenly distributed and the data is normally distributed, then parametric analysis can be used so that the results obtained can be generalized. In addition, it is hoped that further research can develop research on relationships or the influence of other variables that may be stronger on violence in romantic relationships. Other variables in question include childhood violence or abuse, attitudes and beliefs about aggressive behaviour, peer social support, relationship history and experiences, drug and alcohol use, education level, and economic needs.

References

- Ardi, Z., Ibrahim, Y., & Said, A. (2012). Capaian tugas perkembangan sosial siswa dengan kelompok teman sebaya dan implikasinya terhadap program pelayanan bimbingan dan konseling. *Konselor*, 1(2). <https://doi.org/10.24036/0201212522-0-00>
- Armsden, G. C., & Greenberg, M. T. (1987). The inventory of parent and peer attachment: individual differences and their relationship to psychological well-being in adolescence. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 16(5), 427–454. <https://doi.org/10.1007/bf02202939>
- Armsden, G., & Greenberg, M. T. (2009). Inventory of parent and peer attachment- revised. *College of Health and Human Development*, 1–12
- Azwar, S. (2017). *Penyusunan skala psikologi* (2nd ed.). Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar
- Azwar, S. (2018). *Metode penelitian psikologi* (2nd ed.). Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar
- Cooper, M. L., Shaver, P. R., & Collins, N. L. (1998). Attachment styles, emotion regulation, and adjustment in adolescence. *Journal of Personality*

- and *Social Psychology*, 74(5), 1380–1397.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.74.5.1380>
- Desiningrum, D. R. (2018). Hubungan secure attachment dengan ibu dan kecenderungan berperilaku agresi pada siswa SMA N 2 Ungaran. *Jurnal Empati*, 7(3), 80–89
- Dutton, D. G., Saunders, K., Starzomski, A., & Bartholomew, K. (1994). Intimacy anger and insecure attachment as precursors of abuse in intimate relationships. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 24(15), 1367–1386.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1994.tb01554.x>
- Erdianto, Kristian. 7 Maret 2016. Angka Kekerasan dalam Pacaran Tinggi, tetapi UU Belum Melindungi. *KOMPAS.com*. Diakses tanggal 27 Februari 2018 dari <https://nasional.kompas.com/read/2016/03/08/07513391/Angka.a.Kekerasan.dalam.Pacaran.Tinggi.tetapi.UU.Belum.Melindungi>
- Fadhilah, E. A., Arjawa, I. G. P. B. S., & Mahadewi, N. M. A. S. (2016). Perilaku posesif dalam gaya berpacaran di kalangan remaja Kota Denpasar. *Fakultas Ilmu Sosial Dan Ilmu Politik Universitas Udayana*, 1–12
- Fincham, F. D., Cui, M., Braithwaite, S., & Pasley, K. (2008). Attitudes toward intimate partner violence in dating relationships. *Psychological Assessment*, 20(3), 260–269.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/1040-3590.20.3.260>
- Hazan, C., & Shaver, P. R. (1994). Attachment as an organizational framework for research on close relationships. *Close Relationships: Key Readings*, pp. 186–214.
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203311851>
- Kementrian Pemberdayaan Perempuan dan Perlindungan Anak. 20 Maret 2018. Diakses tanggal 16 Desember 2019 dari <https://www.kemenpppa.go.id/index.php/page/read/31/1669/waspa-da-bahaya-kekerasan-dalam-pacaran>
- Larasati, N. I., & Desiningrum, D. R. (2017). Hubungan antara kelekatan aman dengan ibu dan regulasi emosi siswa kelas X SMA Negeri 3 Salatiga. *Empati*, 7(3), 127–133
- Mayselless, O. (1991). Adult Adult attachment patterns and courtship violence. *Family Relations*, 40(1), 21–28.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/585654>
- Mayselless, O., & Scharf, M. (2007). Adolescents attachment representations and their capacity for intimacy in close relationships. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 17(1), 23–50
- Megawati, P., Anwar, Z., & Masturah, A. N. (2019). Hubungan regulasi emosi dengan perilaku kekerasan dalam berpacaran pada mahasiswa. *Cognicia*, 7(2), 214–227. Retrieved from <http://ejournal.umm.ac.id/index.php/cognicia>
- Mikulincer, M., & Shaver, P. R. (2012). Adult attachment orientations and relationship processes. *Journal of Family Theory & Review*, 4(4), 259–274.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1756-2589.2012.00142.x>
- Pace, C. S., San Martini, P., & Zavattini, G. C. (2011). The factor structure of the inventory of parent and peer attachment (IPPA): A survey of italian adolescents. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 51(2), 83–88.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2011.03.006>

- Putro, K. Z. (2017). Memahami ciri dan tugas perkembangan masa remaja. *Aplikasia: Jurnal Aplikasi Ilmu-Ilmu Agama*, 17(1), 25–32. Retrieved from ejournal.uin-suka.ac.id/pusat/aplikasi
- Rohmah, S., & Legowo, M. (2014). Motif kekerasan dalam relasi pacaran di kalangan remaja muslim. *Paradigma*, 2(1), 1–9.
- Sanjaya, E. (2016). Hubungan antara gaya kelekatan dengan kekerasan dalam relasi romantis pada remaja. *Skripsi*. Universitas Sanata Dharma.
- Santrock, J. W. (2011). *Life-span development perkembangan masa-hidup jilid I (13th ed.)*. Jakarta: Erlangga
- Santrock, J. W. (2012). *Life-span development perkembangan masa-hidup jilid II (13th ed.)*. Jakarta: Erlangga
- Smith, B. A., Thompson, S., Tomaka, J., & Buchanan, A. C. (2005). Development of the intimate partner violence attitude scales (IPVAS) with a predominantly mexican american college sample. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 27(4), 442–454. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0739986305281233>
- Trifiani, N. R., & Margaretha. (2012). Pengaruh gaya kelekatan romantis dewasa (adult romantic attachment style) terhadap kecenderungan untuk melakukan kekerasan dalam pacaran. *Jurnal Psikologi Kepribadian Dan Sosial*, 1(02), 74–83
- Wolfe, D. A., & Feiring, C. (2000). Dating violence through the lens of adolescent romantic relationships. *Child Maltreatment*, 5(4), 360–363
- Wolfe, D. A., Scott, K. L., & Crooks, C. V. (2005). Abuse and violence in adolescent girls' dating relationships. In *Handbook of Behavioral and Emotional Problems in Girls* (pp. 381–414). https://doi.org/10.1007/0-306-48674-1_13
- Yuliani, A., & Fitria, N. (2017). Peran preoccupied attachment style terhadap kecenderungan mengalami stockholm syndrome pada perempuan dewasa awal. *Psymphatic : Jurnal Ilmiah Psikologi*, 4(2), 275–288. <https://doi.org/10.15575/psy.v4i2.1341>



The Effect of Flexible Working Arrangements on Work Engagement of Online Motorcycle Taxi Drivers

Umi Farida¹

¹ Department of Psychology, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta,
Jl. Colombo No. Depok, Sleman, Yogyakarta 55281, Indonesia

¹ umiffarida90@gmail.com

Abstract

This study aims to determine the effect of flexible working arrangements on the work engagement of online motorcycle taxi drivers. This research used a quantitative approach and included ex-post facto research. This study used 297 online motorcycle taxi drivers in the Special Region of Yogyakarta. The data collection technique used a measuring instrument in the form of a psychological scale that has been tested for validity and reliability. The psychological scale is the work engagement scale with Cronbach's Alpha 0.881 and the flexible working arrangements scale with Cronbach's Alpha 0.910. The data analysis technique to test the research hypothesis used a simple regression test. Based on the data analysis, the regression coefficient was 1.636 and sig. $0.000 < 0.005$ with $R^2 = 0.671$. These results indicate an effect of flexible working arrangements to work engagement positively and significantly by 67,1%.

Keywords: *work engagement; flexible working arrangements; online motorcycle taxi drivers*

Introduction

Industrial revolution 4.0 has led to an increase in the human economy due to the rapid development of digital technology. The rapid development of technology makes the world run fast and instantaneous. According to the World Economic Forum, Indonesia is predicted to be one of the countries affected in various sectors due to these changes. One of them is the employment sector, where the types of work become diverse with different work systems. One of these jobs is an online motorcycle taxi driver. Jobs as online motorcycle taxi drivers did not previously exist in Indonesia until they finally appeared in 2015. Based on the International Labor Organization (ILO) report on employment in Indonesia in 2017, there will be a change in the type of work from agriculture to jobs that focus on services or services in the next few years. Online motorcycle taxis are one of the new jobs that have emerged due to technological developments. Online motorcycle taxis serve customers by

offering services to deliver passengers and goods connected using an online-based application.

Jobs as online motorcycle taxi drivers are in demand by many people because of their convenience. However, on the other hand, work as an online motorcycle taxi driver also has a high risk because of working in the field. For example, the risk of having an accident on the road or a conflict with motorcycle taxi drivers who refuses to join the online motorcycle taxi driver platform. The increase in the number of drivers every year also makes the competition between drivers more stringent. These are a stressor for the driver itself.

In contrast to these conditions, a preliminary study in 2019 which measured work engagement of online motorcycle taxi drivers showed that the work engagement of online motorcycle taxi drivers was high. Work engagement is a positive appreciation of work characterised by vigour, dedication,

and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzales-Roma, and Bakker, 2002). Therefore, work engagement is essential for companies and employees, such as online motorcycle taxi drivers. Online motorcycle taxi drivers have not been fully engaged due to the heavy work risks.

Apart from the serious risks, work as an online motorcycle taxi driver has its charm. One of them is a flexible work system. However, nowadays, online motorcycle taxi drivers feel trapped in this flexible work system. Technically, online motorcycle taxi drivers will find it easier to modify their working hours and places. However, instead of working flexibly, drivers must work all day to chase points or bonuses. A flexible work system should make it easier for drivers to adjust the time and place of work. However, in practice, the drivers work harder even with working hours of more than 8 hours. In addition, sometimes you have to pick up to a location that is quite far from the driver's location, which makes work no longer flexible. This certainly has an impact on the psychological condition and work performance of online motorcycle taxi drivers.

These problems began to arise due to the high public interest in work as online motorcycle taxi drivers, thus making the number of online motorcycle taxi drivers uncontrollable. The number of online motorcycle taxi drivers is continuously increasing and even encouraging the government to limit online motorcycle taxi drivers' number to maintain this online transportation service business ecosystem (money.kompas.com). The increase in the number of drivers has resulted in tighter competition between drivers and a decrease in the income of online motorcycle taxi drivers. This shows the complexity of the problems related to a flexible work system.

On the other hand, Sadida & Febriani (2016) and Abednego (2015) mention that a flexible work system can also provide positive values and overcome several employee problems. According to Ali

(2019), flexible working arrangements can increase employee engagement through the leader-member exchange. Ugargol & Patrick (2018) also explain that flexible working arrangements are positively related to IT employee engagement.

Based on the description above, it can be said that there are differences between the results of the research and field conditions related to flexible working arrangements and work engagement of online motorcycle taxi drivers as described. This topic is also interesting because the job as an online motorcycle taxi driver is currently in great demand by the public.

Therefore, this study was conducted to discuss the effect of flexible working arrangements on work engagement on online motorcycle taxi drivers. The results of this study are expected to be considered for companies and drivers to regulate work systems that support drivers to become more engaged in their work.

Methods

This study uses a quantitative approach with the ex-post facto. According to Ibrahim et al. (2018), it is stated that ex-post facto research is research that aims to determine causal relationships without any manipulation or treatment of independent variables by researchers. This research was conducted in the city of Yogyakarta. This research began on November 7, 2019. Data collection was carried out from May 1 – June 30, 2020.

Research Subject

The subject of this research is an online motorcycle taxi driver operating in the city of Yogyakarta. The population of this study is not known with certainty. Therefore, the required sample is obtained through the Cochran formula, and the required number of 384 subjects is obtained.

Research Procedure

The data collection procedure was carried out using a purposive sampling technique with the condition that the respondent was an active online motorcycle taxi driver in the city of Yogyakarta. Furthermore, the data was collected using a questionnaire distributed online via a google form. The questionnaires were distributed through WhatsApp and Facebook groups containing online motorcycle taxi drivers active in Yogyakarta. After the data is collected, then the item selection is carried out. According to Azwar (2018), item choice is based on the total item correlation value <0.3 . After the item selection is made and the selected item has been determined, it is continued with data collection using a questionnaire after the trial.

Data, Instruments, and Data Collection Techniques

The data collection technique used in this research is using a psychological scale. Psychological scale is a data collection technique in which items do not directly reveal the measured attribute but reveal behavioural indicators of the attribute in question (Azwar, 2016). This study uses four alternative answers from a modified Likert-type scale.

The data collection instruments used in this study were the work engagement scale (Schaeufeli & Bakker, 2002) and the flexible working arrangements scale (Selby & Wilson, 2001).

The validity used in this study is content validity through expert judgment, meanwhile, for reliability using Cronbach's Alpha statistical test. The results obtained are the work engagement scale of 0.881 and the flexible working arrangements scale of 0.910.

Data Analysis

The data analysis technique used in this research is descriptive analysis to categorise the levels of the variables X and Y. Furthermore, the prerequisite tests are normality and linearity tests. Hypothesis testing was carried out using simple linear regression analysis.

Findings

The object of this research is an online motorcycle taxi driver operating in Yogyakarta. Online motorcycle taxi drivers work under the auspices of online motorcycle taxi service providers. However, these online motorcycle taxi drivers, independently from online motorcycle taxi associations or associations, facilitate communication between drivers. Online motorcycle taxi drivers work using android-based applications such as Grab, Gojek, Maxim and so on through their respective smartphones. The extensive area coverage makes the respondents of this study have various characteristics.

Based on the data obtained, online motorcycle taxi drivers willing to become respondents are 297 respondents. This is because not all online motorcycle taxi drivers are willing to become respondents voluntarily. Most of the respondents belong to the age group of 20 – 29 years, with 52% of the total respondents. 99% of the respondents are male, dominated by drivers from high school graduates/equivalent. The majority have worked for more than two years, and 65% of online motorcycle taxi drivers make this job their primary job. The application used the most is grab then *gojek*, and the rest are other applications.

Data Description

Based on the descriptive analysis, the data on work engagement variables can be seen, which can be seen in Figure 1.

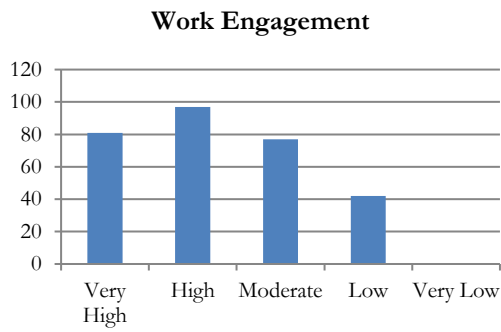


Figure 1. Work engagement variable graph

Based on Figure 1. It can be seen that the level of work engagement of online motorcycle taxi drivers tends to be high. Furthermore, the description related to the variable of flexible working arrangements can be seen in Figure 2.

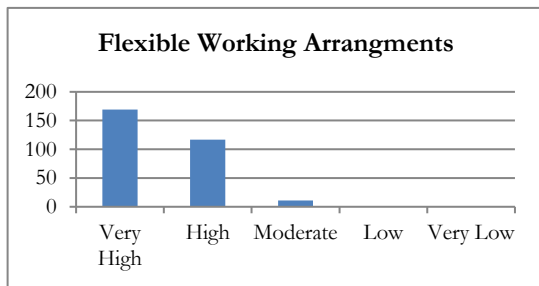


Figure 1. Variable Graph Flexible working arrangements

Based on Figure 2. It can be seen that the level of flexible working arrangements tends to be very high.

Data Analysis

The prerequisite test in this study consists of a normality test and a linearity test. The results indicate normal data distribution asymp. sig > 0,05 and linear relationship between X and Y variables (deviation from linearity p > .05)

Hypothesis testing in this study uses simple linear regression analysis consisting of a simple linear regression equation, the results of the t statistic test and the coefficient of determination. The simple linear regression equation is as follows.

$$Y = 34,122 + 1,636X$$

Based on this equation, it can be seen that the constant value of work engagement is 34,122. Meanwhile, it is known that for every 1% addition of flexible working arrangements (X), work engagement (Y) will increase by 1.636. the value of the regression coefficient is positive, so it can be interpreted that there is a positive effect of flexible working arrangements on work engagement.

Table 3. Statistical Test Results t

	t	Sig.
Constant	21,522	0,000
Fwas	24,526	0,000

The regression analysis results above show that the significance value (Sig.) of 0.000 is smaller than 0.05. So it can be concluded that there is an effect of flexible working arrangements (X) on work engagement (Y).

Table 4. Coefficient of Determination

R	R Square
,819 ^a	0,671

The results of the coefficient of determination or R Square obtained 0.671. This figure means that the variable, flexible working arrangements (X), affects the work engagement variable by 67.1%. Meanwhile, the remaining 32.9% are influenced by other variables outside this regression equation or other variables not examined.

Discussion

Work engagement is a condition felt by employees where employees feel they have positive feelings and trust in the company to create high work enthusiasm. Based on the data obtained, no online

motorcycle taxi drivers have low or very low work engagement. It can be said that the work engagement of the drivers is already high and can be maintained. This is also supported by the results of this study, where most of the respondents have worked for more than two years. This shows that the drivers feel comfortable as online motorcycle taxi drivers. In addition, 65% of the respondents make this job their primary job. Most of the respondents are known to be productive, where the productive age has greater work demands. This can encourage drivers to be engaged because the work of online motorcycle taxi drivers is their primary job.

Flexible working arrangements are conditions in which employees find it easy to arrange their place and work schedule flexibly (Selby & Wilson, 2001). Jobs as online motorcycle taxi drivers require drivers to work in the field and be ready at any time. Therefore, having flexible working arrangements is very helpful for online motorcycle taxi drivers. It can be seen from the results of this study that when viewed by age, most of the drivers are the millennial generation. Interestingly, the millennial generation is interested in work with high flexible working arrangements, one of which is as an online motorcycle taxi driver.

According to Selby & Wilson (2001), flexible working arrangements are only suitable for highly disciplined, result-oriented employees, can manage time and work and like challenges. Many millennials are interested in working as online motorcycle taxi drivers because of flexible working arrangements. As an online motorcycle taxi driver, flexible working arrangements can help drivers balance work and personal life. Many make online motorcycle taxi drivers an option, especially for people who want flexibility in their work, one of which is the millennial generation. Therefore, half of the respondents in this study were in the 20-year-old age group.

The results of the prerequisite tests and hypothesis testing that have been carried out in this study indicate an effect of flexible working arrangements on work engagement on online motorcycle taxi drivers. From the results of this study, it is known that flexible working arrangements positively affect work engagement. This is evidenced by the results of a simple linear regression analysis, where the significance value ($A.Symp$) is less than 0.05 ($0.000 < 0.05$). Therefore, it can be concluded that H_a is accepted and H_0 is rejected, which means that flexible working arrangements influence work engagement. Based on the results of this study, it is stated that flexible working arrangements have an effect of 67.1% on work engagement. Therefore, flexible working arrangements have a significant role in the work engagement of online motorcycle taxi drivers.

It is essential to implement flexible working arrangements to increase online motorcycle taxi drivers (Pri, 2018). Companies as management holders need to pay attention to this, that flexible working arrangements have a significant role in increasing work engagement. Looking at the effect of flexible working arrangements on work engagement, we can say that flexible working arrangements are effective for online motorcycle taxi drivers. According to Kelliher (2009), the freedom companies give to drivers will help drivers work according to their abilities. That way, drivers can work more productively, enthusiastically, and in prime condition. This condition is increasing day by day, which will make drivers become engaged in the work they do (Sadida & Febriani, 2016).

Limitations

During the research process, there were several limitations that the researchers encountered. Researchers have difficulty controlling respondents who fill out the psychological scale are online motorcycle taxi drivers. This is because the

psychological scale is distributed online, so there is a possibility that non-drivers will also fill in the scale.

Conclusion

Based on the research results, it can be concluded that flexible working arrangements positively affect work engagement on online motorcycle taxi drivers. Therefore, the higher the flexible working arrangements of the online motorcycle taxi drivers, the higher the work engagement of the online motorcycle taxi drivers. This is evidenced by the regression analysis results, which shows a significance value (A.Symp) less than 0.05. With an R Square value of 0.671, flexible working arrangements have an effect of 67.1% on work engagement on online motorcycle taxi drivers.

References

- Abednego, K. S., Gunawan, E. A., & Widjaja, D. C. (2015). Pengaruh Schedule Flexibility Terhadap Turnover Intention Dengan Kepuasan Kerja Sebagai Variabel Perantara Di Surabaya Plaza Hotel. *Jurnal Hospitality dan Manajemen Jasa*, 3(1), 12-25.
- Albion, M. J. (2004). A Measure Of Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Options. In *Australian Journal Of Management*, 29(1), 33-45.
- Ali Alqarni, S. Y. (2016). Quality Of Work Life As A Predictor Of *Work engagement* Among The Teaching Faculty At King Abdulaziz University. In *International Journal Of Humanities And Social Science*, 6(8), 8-23. www.ijhssnet.com
- Anderson, D., & Kelliher, C. (2009). Flexible Working And Engagement: The Importance Of Choice. *Strategic HR Review*, 8(2), 13-18. Doi.10.1108/14754390910937530
- Ayu, D. R., Maarif, M. S., & Sukmawati, A. (2015). Pengaruh job demands, job resources dan personal resources terhadap *work engagement*. *Jurnal Aplikasi Bisnis dan Manajemen (JABM)*, 1(1), 12-25.
- Azwar, S. (2016). Reliabilitas Dan Validitas Aitem. *Buletin Psikologi*. Doi.10.22146/Bpsi.13381
- Bakker, A. B., & Albrecht, S. (2018). *Work engagement: Current Trends*. In *Career Development International*, 23(1), 4-11. Emerald Group Publishing Ltd. Doi.10.1108/CDI-11-2017-0207
- Bengngu, A., Amtiran, P. Y., & Fanggalda, R. E. (2019). Impact of Part Time, Flextime and Reward on Productivity (Case Study on Grab Online Transportation Partners in Kupang City). In *International Conference on Tourism, Economics, Accounting, Management, and Social Science (TEAMS 2018)*. Atlantis Press.
- Carlson, D. S., Grzywacz, J. G., & Michele Kacmar, K. (2010). The Relationship Of Schedule Flexibility And Outcomes Via The Work Family Interface. *Journal Of Managerial Psychology*, 25(4), 330-355. Doi.10.1108/02683941011035278
- Cochran, W. G., & William, G. (1977). *Sampling Techniques*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Damayanti, S. A. S. (2017). *Transportasi Berbasis Aplikasi Online: Go-Jek Sebagai Sarana Transportasi Masyarakat Kota Surabaya* (Doctoral dissertation, Universitas Airlangga).
- Dantes, Nyoman. (2012). *Metode Penelitian*. Yogyakarta: CV Andi Offset.
- Davis, K. & Newstorm, J.W. (2007). *Organisational Behavior: Human Behavior at Work*. New York: McGraw Hill Education.

- Emmerink, R. H. M., & Van Beek, P. (1997). Empirical Analysis Of Work Schedule Flexibility: Implications For Road Pricing And Driver Information Systems. In *Urban Studies*, 34(2), 112-120.
- Gozhali, Imam. (2018). Aplikasi Analisis Multivariat dengan SPSS. Semarang: UNDIP Press
- Ibrahim. (2018). Metodologi Penelitian Kualitatif: Panduan Penelitian dan Contoh Proposal. Bandung: Alfabeta.
- Irawati, E. (2019). *Welcoming Flexible Working Arrangement For Civil Servant*. In *Jurnal Analis Kebijakan*. 2(1), 23-31.
- Juvonen, M. (2019). Flexible Working and Employee Engagement. *Metropolia University of Applied Science*.
- Kahn, W. A. 1990. Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(4), 692-724.
- Kelliher, C., & Anderson, D. (2009). *Flexible Working in Organisations: The Perspective of Co-Workers*. Paper at International Industrial Relations Association World Congress, Sydney.
- Kuok, A. C., & Taormina, R. J. (2017). *Work engagement: Evolution of the concept and a new inventory*. *Psychological Thought*, 10(2), 262-287.
- Maifanda, N., Muhammad,), Slamet, R., Negeri, P., Jurusan, B., Bisnis, M., Akuntansi, S., Jl, M., & Yani, A. (2019). Pengaruh Gaji, Jam Kerja Fleksibel dan Stres Kerja terhadap Kinerja Karyawan pada Perusahaan di Kota Batam. *Journal Of Applied Managerial Accounting*, 3(1), 25-34.
- Mathis, R. L., & Jackson, J. H. (2008). *Human Resource Management (12th ed)*. Thomson South-Western.
- Kemenhub. (2019). *Peraturan Menteri Perhubungan No. 12, Tahun 2019, tentang Pelindungan Keselamatan Pengguna Sepeda Motor yang Digunakan untuk Kepentingan Masyarakat*.
- Pri, R., & Zamralita, Z. (2018). Gambaran *Work engagement* Pada Karyawan Di Pt Eg (Manufacturing Industry). *Jurnal Muara Ilmu Sosial, Humaniora, Dan Seni*, 1(2), 295-303.
- Robbins, S. P., & Judge, T. A. (2015). *Perilaku Organisasi (Organizational Behavior) (16th ed)*. Jakarta: McGraw Hill dan Salemba Empat.
- Sadida, N., & Febriani, Z. (2016). Mengikat Karyawan Dengan Telecommuting (Studi Keterikatan Kerja Karyawan Telecommuting). *Jurnal Psikogenesis*, 4(1), 114-125.
- Selby, C., Wilson, F., Korte, W., Millard, J., & Carter, W. (2001). *Flexible Working Handbook*, Sofia, Bulgaria: Virtech.Ltd.
- Setiawati, F. A., Mardapi, D., & Azwar, S. (2013). Penskalaan teori klasik instrumen multiple intelligences tipe Thurstone dan Likert. *Jurnal Penelitian dan Evaluasi Pendidikan*, 17(2), 259-274. Doi.10.21831/Pep.V17i2.1699
- Simamora, T. V., Mustika, M. D., & Sjabadhyni, B. (2019). Effects Of Flexible Work Arrangements On Ethical Decision Making: Job Satisfaction As A Mediator. *Jurnal Psikologi Talenta*, 4(2), 113-121.
- Ugargol, J. D., & Patrick, H. A. (2018). The relationship of workplace flexibility to employee engagement among information technology employees in India. *South Asian Journal of Human Resources Management*, 5(1), 40-55.
- Yustrianthe, R. H. (2008). Pengaruh flexible work arrangement terhadap role conflict, role overload, reduced personal accomplishment, job satisfaction dan intention to stay. *Jurnal bisnis dan akuntansi*, 10(3), 127-138.

The Effect of Flexible Working Arrangements on Work Engagement
Farida

Widhiarso, W. (2016). Peranan Butir Unfavorabel Dalam Menghasilkan Dimensi Baru Dalam Pengukuran Psikologi. *Jurnal Psikologi Perseptual*, 1(1), 40-52.

Wright, P. M. & Nishii, L. H. (2007). *Strategic HRM and organisational behavior: Integrating multiple levels of analysis* (CAHRS Working Paper). Ithaca, NY: Cornell University, School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Center for Advanced Human Resource Studies.

