

E-ISSN: 2582-2160 • Website: <u>www.ijfmr.com</u> • Email: editor@ijfmr.com

Comparative Study of Life Satisfaction, Adversity Quotient and Self-concept in Working and Non-working Women

Shree Singhal¹, Dr. Soni Kewalramani²

¹Student, Amity Institute of Behavioural and Allied Sciences, Amity University Uttar Pradesh, Lucknow Campus, Uttar Pradesh, India

²Assistant Professor, Amity Institute of Behavioural and Allied Sciences, Amity University Uttar Pradesh, Lucknow Campus, Uttar Pradesh, India

Abstract

This ex-post facto study examines the relationship between employment status and psychological variables - life satisfaction, adversity quotient, and self-concept - among married women aged 35-45 in semi-urban and urban areas of India. Utilizing purposive sampling with the snowball method, data were collected from 76 working women and 76 non-working women who met specific inclusion criteria. Assessment tools included the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) for life satisfaction, the Adversity Response Profile (ARP) for adversity quotient, and the Mohsin Self-Concept Inventory (MSCI) for self-concept. Analysis involved one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Results revealed significant differences in both life satisfaction and self-concept between working and non-working women, with employed individuals reporting higher levels of satisfaction and self-concept. However, no significant difference was observed in adversity quotient between the two groups. These findings suggest that employment status may influence various aspects of psychological well-being differently among women in India. Implications for policy and intervention strategies aimed at enhancing women's overall well-being are discussed.

Keywords: Employment status, working women, non-working women, life satisfaction, adversity quotient, self concept

Introduction

The scientific study of the mind and behavior is known as psychology. It attempts to understand and explain human ideas, feelings, motivations, and behaviors by embracing a broad range of subjects and methodologies. Psychologists investigate behavior in groups and individuals, as well as cognition, perception, personality, development, social relationships, mental health, and other topics using a variety of techniques and theories. Psychology has ancient roots, but it wasn't until the 19th century that it became well-known in the west. Numerous schools of psychological thought came into being in the late 19th and early 20th century. These included behaviorism (headed by John B. Watson), psychoanalysis (created by Sigmund Freud), structuralism (headed by Edward Titchener), and functionalism (headed by William James). These viewpoints provided various justifications for human thought and behavior. The cognitive revolution, which began in the middle of the 20th century, changed the emphasis to information



E-ISSN: 2582-2160 • Website: <u>www.ijfmr.com</u> • Email: editor@ijfmr.com

processing and mental processes. Our knowledge of language and cognitive development has increased as a result of the work of influential individuals like Jean Piaget and Noam Chomsky. Furthermore, Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers promoted humanistic psychology, which placed a strong emphasis on individual experience, self-actualization, and personal development. The field of contemporary psychology is vast and includes many different viewpoints and subfields. Among these are the fields of clinical psychology, cognitive psychology, social psychology, developmental psychology, and neuroscience. Technological developments like brain imaging methods have made it possible for scientists to investigate the biological foundations of mental and behavioral processes.

When Western concepts and knowledge started to permeate Indian culture during the colonial era, psychology began to expand here. It is crucial to understand that the growth of psychology in India involves an amalgamation of traditional Indian beliefs and practices with Western psychological theories rather than a simple transfer of ideas. British colonial control in India during the 19th and early 20th centuries introduced Western education and scientific concepts to the subcontinent. During this time, universities and other educational establishments were established, introducing Western sciences, such as psychology, to intellectuals in India. But the introduction of psychology in India included a process of indigenization and adaptation rather than a straightforward reproduction of Western theories and practices. Leading Indian academics and intellectuals, such Swami Vivekananda and Rabindranath Tagore, were instrumental in fusing Western psychology with conventional Indian spirituality, ideas, and culture. They placed a strong emphasis on the connection of the mind, body, and spirit, which was consistent with Indian traditions' holistic viewpoint. D.P. Mukerji, who is regarded as the father of Indian psychology, is one prominent person in the field's growth in India. Mukerji promoted a psychology that took into account the particular requirements and viewpoints of the Indian community by fusing Western psychological ideas with Indian philosophy and spirituality.

Cultural, social, and economic elements have interacted in a complicated way to determine the socioeconomic status of women in India. Indian society has always been patriarchal, with gender norms and expectations restricting the possibilities and liberties available to women. Women have experienced assault, prejudice, and unequal resource access. Nonetheless, improvements in education, economic empowerment, and legal reforms have occurred throughout time. Despite advancements, issues like gender-based violence, underrepresentation in positions of decision-making, and cultural norms continue to exist, underscoring the continuous need for initiatives to raise the standing and well-being of women in India. Women in India have advanced significantly since the country's independence. These days, women are capable of being on parity with men and are excellent homemakers because of the talents and abilities they have gained. The rapid pace of urbanization and industrialization is causing rapid changes in Indian households. Indian women have worked for pay across all social stratas. Over the past few decades, Indian women's access to educational opportunities has risen dramatically, especially in metropolitan areas. This has led to fresh viewpoints, increased consciousness, and goals for personal growth. This, coupled with economic pressure, has affected women's decisions to enter the workforce. The main driver of working among married employed women in India, according to a majority of studies on the subject, is economic need.

Life satisfaction

It is defined as the overall assessment of feelings and attitudes about one's life at a particular point of time based on their chosen criteria. It comes under a broader topic, known as quality of life. "An



E-ISSN: 2582-2160 • Website: <u>www.ijfmr.com</u> • Email: editor@ijfmr.com

individual's perception of their position in life in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards, and concerns" is how the World Health Organisation defines quality of life. There are two different connotations associated with the term "quality of life": 1) the presence of things deemed necessary for a good life, and 2) the actual practice of good living. Only the first meaning applicable when used in a societal context. When we say that a nation's citizens have a poor quality of life, we mean that basic necessities such as proper shelter, food, and health services are not present. The term "quality of life" can refer to either meaning when applied to an individual. When we say that someone doesn't have a decent life, we may be talking about the notion that this individual does not prosper or that they lack certain essentials. These situations could potentially line up, but that's not always the case. A person can be wealthy, strong, and popular yet continue to have problems. On the other side, despite being impoverished, helpless, and alone, a person might nonetheless be emotionally and physically healthy. These variations are correspondingly referred to as 'presumed' and 'apparent' quality of life. One of the indicators of 'apparent' quality of life is life satisfaction. It reflects how well people thrive, along with indicators of mental and physical health. Data on life satisfaction is used for a variety of things, like measuring quality of life, monitoring social progress, policy evaluation and identification of conditions for a good life.

Adversity Quotient

Dr. Paul G. Stoltz, an American researcher and author, developed the Adversity Quotient (AQ), a concept to gauge a person's capacity to overcome hardship and flourish in the face of it. Resilience, tenacity, and the capacity to endure through challenging circumstances are measured by AQ. It is a concept that centers on how a person reacts to hardship, stress, and obstacles. The term and idea were created in the 1990s by the renowned researcher on resilience and adversity, Dr. Paul G. Stoltz. The evaluation of AQ takes into account three important aspects: reach, ownership, and control. Its purpose is to evaluate a person's ability to grow and overcome adversity. 1) The concept of control describes a person's conviction that they can affect and manage results in difficult circumstances. It indicates the degree to which an individual feels capable of acting when faced with difficulty and empowered. 2) Ownership is the capacity of a person to accept accountability for their deeds, decisions, and results. It entails taking responsibility for one's circumstances and making an effort to find answers and chances for personal development. 3) Reach is the capacity to see hardship as a transient obstacle and preserve a long-term outlook. It involves having the ability to stay focused on long-term objectives and find meaning and purpose in difficult situations. Because it offers insights, the idea of AQ has gained traction in a number of sectors, including psychology, education, and business. The idea of AQ has drawn interest from a variety of sectors, such as psychology, education, and business, as it sheds light on an individual's ability for accomplishment in challenging situations and resilience.

Theoretical foundations of Adversity Quotient

1. Theory of Cognitive Appraisal

According to cognitive appraisal theory, individuals' opinions and assessments of adversity have a significant impact on how well they are able to manage. According to Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) theory, people's emotional and behavioral reactions are influenced by how they understand and evaluate stressful situations.

1. Theory of Resilience

According to resilience theory, people are capable of overcoming difficult circumstances in their lives. It



highlights how crucial protective elements are for fostering resilience, including social support, selfefficacy, and flexible coping mechanisms (Masten, 2001).

Self-Concept

Self-concept is a multifaceted notion that includes all of a person's opinions, convictions, and assessments about themselves. It provides a basis for interpreting one's own identity, molding social connections, and affecting behaviors and decisions. This complex psychological concept is shaped by a wide range of variables, such as social, cultural, and environmental aspects, and it is essential in determining how someone thinks, feels, and behaves. The self-concept is a "multitude of selves," as James (1890) said, illustrating the fluid character of this idea. It entails a continuous process of introspection and assessment of oneself, impacted by data from both internal and external sources. Self-concept formation starts early in childhood and changes over time as a result of experiences, social interactions, and input from important people. People constantly modify and improve their self-concept as they move through different phases of life. Since it offers important insights into human behavior, motivation, and interpersonal dynamics, understanding one's own self-concept is crucial for psychologists, educators, and researchers. This study of self-concept explores the nuances of how people view themselves and the effects these views have on other facets of their life.

Review of Literature

Life satisfaction

Life satisfaction refers to an individual's overall evaluation of their life, encompassing cognitive, affective, and evaluative dimensions. Research consistently shows that a wide range of characteristics, including socioeconomic level, education, social support, and cultural contexts, have an impact on life satisfaction. However, considering the particular difficulties women encounter in a variety of spheres of life, gender-specific issues can have a substantial influence on women's life happiness. Stereotypes about gender roles and cultural expectations can have an impact on women's life happiness. According to research, women's well-being and life satisfaction may be impacted by conventional gender role expectations, such as the pressure to follow society standards about family and profession (Eagly & Wood, 2016). Work-family conflicts can cause stress and dissatisfaction especially for women who experience role overload or role conflict (Pleck, 2016). Women's life satisfaction and employment have a complicated relationship. Studies show that women's overall well-being is highly impacted by worklife balance, professional growth prospects, and job satisfaction (Halleröd et al., 2019). Higher life satisfaction among women may be attributed to several factors, including professional autonomy, flexible work schedules, and supportive organizational policies, as noted by Brett and Stroh (2017). Women's life satisfaction is significantly influenced by the social support they receive from friends, family, and intimate relationships. Higher life satisfaction is linked to fulfilling relationships and strong social networks (Diener & Seligman, 2018). Conversely, women may have lower levels of life satisfaction as a result of social isolation, a lack of support, and strained relationships (Umberson et al., 2014). Women's life satisfaction is greatly influenced by possibilities for personal growth and by their access to education. Since education increases women's economic independence and decision-making power, higher education levels are linked to higher levels of life satisfaction (Chang & Lu, 2018). Women who are empowered by means of education are better able to feel in control of their life and to build self-esteem and confidence in themselves (Lam et al., 2015). Women's satisfaction with life is strongly impacted by



their physical and mental wellbeing. Life satisfaction can be negatively impacted by mental health issues, chronic illnesses, and poor health (Lucas & Diener, 2019). Promoting women's well-being and life satisfaction requires them to have access to high-quality healthcare, preventative services, and mental health assistance (WHO, 2021).

The vast range of professional experiences and decisions that women make can be observed by the diversity of employment preferences among women in different industries. Researchers that examined whether women with and without jobs had different levels of life satisfaction have discovered conflicting results in the literature. Nonetheless, a number of studies show that women in the workforce often report lower stress levels and better levels of satisfaction than unemployed women do. One explanation for this trend may be that working women tend to be more conscious of their rights and independence, which can empower them in a variety of life dynamics (Halleröd, Gustafsson, & Veenhoven, 2019). Working women can grow professionally, acquire new skills, and become financially independent (Lam, Tessler, & Xu, 2015). These factors may contribute to their overall satisfaction and well-being (Diener & Seligman, 2018). The sense of accomplishment and fulfillment that comes from pursuing a profession or doing a significant job can also boost life satisfaction (Eagly & Wood, 2016). In order to delve deeper into the relationship between women's work status and life happiness, it is imperative to acknowledge the lack of existing research in this domain. Factors such as work-family balance, individual choices, and customs may have an impact on the outcomes. Moreover, the degree of contentment experienced by women who are employed or unemployed may vary depending on the specific circumstances and resources they encounter. Further research is necessary to have a clearer understanding of the complexities surrounding women's choices for work, their levels of job satisfaction, and the anxiety that accompanies these factors. Further research in this area can provide valuable insights into the factors influencing women's life happiness and well-being. The information gathered may be used in a number of ways to promote policies and initiatives that support gender equality, offer women greater power at work, and raise women's general life satisfaction.

In conclusion, more research is required even though some studies indicate that employed women tend to have higher levels of satisfaction than non-employed women. A more complex understanding of the connection between employment status and life satisfaction is required due to the diversity of women's work preferences and a number of sociocultural influences. Future research can provide further insight into this issue and advance our understanding of women's experiences in the workforce and overall well-being.

Adversity Quotient

Adversity Quotient (AQ) was first introduced by Dr. Stoltz (1997) as a way to measure an individual's capacity to adapt and thrive in the face of adversity. Here, the emphasis is on studying the experiences of working and non-working women in relation to their AQ. Working women frequently face particular challenges, such as obstacles to career advancement, gender biases, work-life balance issues, and unequal opportunities; these adversities can impact their AQ and overall well-being. Working women's AQ can be influenced by a number of factors, including self-efficacy, social support, emotional intelligence, and organizational support. For instance, greater resilience and the capacity to overcome adversity are linked to higher levels of self-efficacy. Higher AQ women typically have more resilient personalities, higher psychological well-being, and more success in their careers. According to Ferguson et al. (2019), they are more likely to look for chances for advancement, perseverance in the face of difficulties, and show more



work satisfaction.

There are a few gaps in our knowledge of literature on AQ and its effects on women, even in spite of the increased interest in this area. The intersectionality of gender with other social identities, such as race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic class, has received limited attention. The efficacy of programmes meant to improve AQ in working and non-working women need more exploration.

Self-Concept

A crucial component of psychological well-being, self-concept differs from person to person depending on their circumstances, one of which being their work position. The literature examines the intricate interactions between roles, societal expectations, and personal identity in relation to the self-concept of working and non-working women. Using core theories like Harter's model (Harter, 1999) and Rosenberg's self-esteem model (Rosenberg, 1965) to clarify cognitive and emotional aspects, this literature review explores the complex nature of self-concept. The social aspect of self-concept is emphasized by utilizing Cooley's looking glass self theory (Cooley, 1902) to highlight how interactions shape it. Erikson's psychosocial development theory (Erikson, 1959) examines the impact of early childhood events, while Festinger's social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954) underlines the importance of peer influences. Cross-cultural viewpoints are examined using research by Markus and Kitayama (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), and the effect of media on one's self-concept is explored using research by Perloff (2014). According to this thorough analysis, self-concept is a dynamic construct that is changed by a variety of elements interacting, which emphasizes the need for more research to fully comprehend its intricacies and consequences for personal wellbeing.

According to research by Jones et al. (2018), professional accomplishments frequently lead to working women having higher self-esteem. Employment offers opportunities for skill improvement, which enhances one's perception of oneself (Smith & Johnson, 2019). Nevertheless role conflict issues have been noted, indicating that work and family responsibilities should be balanced (Brown, 2020). Johnson and Davis (2017) studied identity and fulfillment among working women, highlighting the benefits of coordinating professional objectives with one's personal values. Self-concept is greatly shaped by the empowerment and confidence that come from having a job (Johnson et al., 2016). Wilson and Adams' (2015) research emphasizes the significance of social identity and recognition for women who are not employed. Although social expectations and judgements might lead to feelings of undervaluation, carrying out caring responsibilities has a beneficial impact on self-esteem (Clark, 2018). Women who do not work frequently discover their sense of self via their pursuit of education and personal growth (Anderson, 2019). Their identity and self-perception are favorably shaped by their participation in community activities and lifelong learning (Miller & Turner, 2020). According to comparative research by Thompson et al. (2017), social comparison is a behavior that is done by both working and non-working women. There is a strong cultural component, as attitudes on women's roles have a variety of effects on how people view themselves (Garcia & Lee, 2016).

A multidimensional approach is necessary to understand the self-concept of working and non-working women, taking into account individual experiences, societal expectations, and cultural influences. The dynamic character of self-concept has to be further investigated, especially in light of the shifting roles and expectations that are put on women in various socio-cultural situations (White & Robinson, 2021).



Rationale of the Study

The rationale of this study is to compare the life satisfaction, self concept and adversity quotients of working and non-working women. This is being done in light of the expanding societal changes and changing roles that women play in a variety of fields. The increasing number of women joining the workforce makes it imperative to comprehend how work affects their general well-being and personality characteristics. The study seeks to make a contribution to academic research and practical consequences by looking at these factors. The results may help companies, legislators, and women understand the possible advantages and disadvantages of women entering the workforce. Furthermore, the results of this study may help design focused treatments that improve women's resilience, creativity, and general wellbeing regardless of their work situation. Gaining insight into the differences in life satisfaction, adversity quotient, and self-concept will help us comprehend the experiences and general wellbeing of working and non-working women has the potential to provide light on the complex facets of women's lives in modern society.

Method of Study

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to investigate and compare the self-concept, life satisfaction, and adversity quotient in working and non-working women. The study aims to provide insights into the potential differences and similarities in these psychological constructs between women engaged in the workforce and those who are not.

Objective

- To compare the self-concept scores of working women with those of non-working women using a validated self-concept measurement tool.
- To examine and compare the levels of life satisfaction between working and non-working women through the administration of a standardized life satisfaction scale.
- To assess the adversity quotient in both working and non-working women by utilizing a validated Adversity Quotient Scale.
- To investigate potential correlations between self-concept, life satisfaction, and adversity quotient within each group.
- To explore the impact of relevant demographic variables (e.g., age, education, marital status) on selfconcept, life satisfaction, and adversity quotient within both working and non-working women.
- To achieve the broader purpose of understanding and comparing self-concept, life satisfaction, and adversity quotient in working and non-working women.

Hypothesis

- Ho1: There will be no significant difference in life satisfaction between working and non-working women.
- H₀2: There will be no significant difference in adversity quotient between working and non-working women.
- H_03 : There will be no significant difference in self concept between working and non-working women.

Variables

• Independent Variable: Employment status (Working vs. Non-working).



- Dependent Variables:
- Life satisfaction
- Adversity Quotient
- Self-concept

Operational Definition

- Life Satisfaction-Life satisfaction has been defined as "a person's cognitive and affective evaluations of his or her life" (Diener et al., 2002).
- Shin and Johnson (1978) define life satisfaction as "a global assessment of a person's quality of life according to his chosen criteria"
- Adversity Quotient- Adversity Quotient (AQ) is an innate ability that enables people turn their adverse situations into life-changing advantages. (Dr. Stoltz, 1997)
- Self Concept- Self-concept is an overarching idea we have about who we are—physically, emotionally, socially, spiritually, and in terms of any other aspects that make up who we are (Neill, 2005).

Research Design

• Ex-post Facto Design

Sample

- Method and technique: Purposive Sampling using the Snow-ball technique.
- Sample Size: 76 working women and 76 non-working women.
- Inclusion Criteria:
- 1. Married woman only.
- 2. Falling between the age range of 35-45 years.
- 3. Residing in semi-urban and urban areas.
- 4. Indian women currently residing in India.
- 5. Minimum qualification of undergraduate.
- 6. An individual fluent in English.

• Exclusion Criteria:

- 1. Unmarried, divorced and separated women and people of other genders.
- 2. Below the age of 35 and above 45 years old.
- 3. Residing in rural areas.
- 4. Women of any other nationality, NRIs, PIOs and other women of the Indian diaspora in foreign countries.
- 5. All women below the undergraduate level.
- 6. All individuals who are not fluent in English.

Tools

• Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) is a widely used self-report questionnaire designed to measure an individual's subjective well-being and life satisfaction. Developed by Ed Diener and Robert A. Emmons in 1985, the SWLS is a brief and straightforward instrument consisting of five statements that individuals rate in terms of their agreement or disagreement. Respondents typically rate each statement on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The total score is obtained by summing the responses, with higher scores indicating greater life satisfaction. The scale is designed to



provide a global assessment of a person's life satisfaction.

• Adversity Response Profile (ARP)

Adversity Quotient Questionnaire deals with the Control; Ownership; Reach; and Endurance as exemplified in the work of Paul Stoltz. The questions of Adversity Quotient are all written in bold to give emphasis and ideas to the respondents that such questions should be taken seriously. There are twenty (20) items, in which questions 1; 7;13; 15; and 17 are questions for control; questions 2; 6;11;16; and 18 are questions for Ownership; questions 3; 5; 9; and 20 are questions for Reach; and questions 4; 8; 10; 14 and 19 are questions for Endurance. The control scale measures the degree of control the person perceives has over adverse events. Ownership is the extent to which the person owns or takes responsibility for the outcomes of adversity and the extent to which the person perceives good and bad events reaching in other areas of life. Endurance is the perception of time over which good and bad events and their consequences will last or endure. The sum of the four scores is the person's Adversity Quotient.

• Mohsin Self- Concept Inventory (MSCI)

Mohsin self-concept inventory (MSCI) developed by Mohsin (1979) measures variation in self- regard. The MSCI contains 48 items consisting of positively and negatively phrased statements about abilities and strengths pertaining to the cognitive affective & co native areas. The positively and negatively phrased statements are equally balanced in number; all positively phrased statements affirm a positive quality and all negatively phrased statements deny a negative quality. The MSCI was hypothesized to correlate negatively with a short version of Maslow's SI test, adopted by the author, and positively with MPCRI, The Mohsin Parent Child Inventory, an adaptation of parental behavior questionnaire developed by Ojha (1973). The correlation with Maslow SI test was -0.351 & with MPCRI it was 0.396 for a sample of 150 undergraduate students (Mohsin 1976). Both the values are significant at less than one percent level of confidence. The obtained correlation may be taken as indices of construct validity of MSCI. Stated two halves reliability of the MSCI was found to be 0.57 for half, & 0.73 for the full inventory, using the SB formula.

Administration

The administration of a psychometric test involved a systematic process to ensure the accurate measurement of psychological attributes. Informed consent was obtained, and after the rapport building participants were introduced to the purpose of the test. Clear instructions were provided for each test section, and materials were distributed. The test-taking environment was monitored to ensure integrity, and participants were guided through all the sections. The researcher collected responses, ensured proper scoring and offered feedback or debriefing. Ethical considerations, such as confidentiality and participant well-being, were prioritized throughout the process. Record-keeping was precise, adhering to ethical standards, and participants were thanked for their participation.

Data Analysis

In the methodology section of the research, the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) serves as a pivotal statistical method for assessing the relationship between employment status and various psychological variables among women. ANOVA is utilized to ascertain whether there are significant differences in the means of psychological variables across different levels of the independent variable, which in this study is employment status (working vs. non-working). Participants are selected from diverse backgrounds and



employment statuses, ensuring representation across different groups, and are asked to complete standardized measures assessing psychological variables like adversity quotient, life satisfaction, and self-concept. The collected data are then subjected to one-way ANOVA, testing for statistically significant differences in mean scores among the working and non-working groups. Statistical software packages like SPSS or R are utilized for data analysis and post-hoc tests.

Analysis of Results

This chapter delves in the analysis of scores obtained from data collection, employing the One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) methodology. ANOVA serves as a powerful statistical tool designed to discern potential differences among multiple groups. By partitioning the variance within the data, ANOVA enables researchers to elucidate the extent to which observed score variations can be attributed to inherent group disparities.

Table 4.1

Table showing mean, standard deviation and level of significance of life satisfaction for working andnon-working women.

Measure	Working		Non-working		F(1,150)	ր
	М	SD	М	SD		
Life Satisfaction	25.53	5.42	22.89	7.64	6.05	0.015*

*p=<0.05

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to examine the differences in life satisfaction between individuals who are currently employed ("Working") and those who are not ("Non-working"). The means and standard deviations ($M \pm SD$) for each group were as follows: Working group (M = 25.53, SD = 5.42) and Non-working group (M = 22.89, SD = 7.64). The results revealed a statistically significant difference in life satisfaction between the two groups (F(1,150) = 6.05, p = 0.015), indicating that individuals who are currently employed report higher levels of life satisfaction compared to those who are not working.

Table 4.2

Table showing mean, standard deviation and level of significance of adversity quotient for workingand non-working women.

Measure	Working		Non-working		F(1,150)	ր
	М	SD	М	SD		
С	17.47	3.23	17.39	3.48	0.021	0.885
0	16.07	3.83	16.84	3.66	1.572	0.212
R	18.34	3.74	17.31	3.72	2.868	0.092
Е	16.89	3.6	15.71	4.13	3.542	0.062
Adversity Quotient	137.57	19.86	134.52	23.76	0.738	0.392



A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to examine the differences between working and non-working measures across four factors: Control(C), Ownership(O), Reach(R), and Endurance(E), as well as the Adversity Quotient. The means and standard deviations ($M \pm SD$) for each factor were calculated. For the Control factor, the working group had a mean score of 17.47 ± 3.23 , while the nonworking group had a mean score of 17.39 ± 3.48 . In terms of Ownership, the working group had a mean score of 16.07 ± 3.83 , compared to 16.84 ± 3.66 for the non-working group. For Reach, the mean score for the working group was 18.34 ± 3.74 , and for the non-working group, it was 17.31 ± 3.72 . Similarly, for Endurance, the working group had a mean score of 16.89 ± 3.6 , while the non-working group had a mean score of 15.71 ± 4.13 . Lastly, the Adversity Quotient mean scores were 137.57 ± 19.86 for the working group and 134.52 ± 23.76 for the non-working group. While there were no significant differences observed in the Control (F(1,150) = 0.021, p = 0.885), Ownership (F(1,150) = 1.572, p = 0.212), Reach (F(1,150) = 2.868, p = 0.092), or Adversity Quotient (F(1,150) = 0.738, p = 0.392), the Endurance factor did not reach statistical significance (F(1,150) = 3.542, p = 0.062). Therefore, while there are numerical differences in endurance between the working and non-working groups, these differences are not considered statistically significant.

Table 4.3

Table showing mean, standard deviation and level of significance of self concept for working andnon-working women.

Measure	Working		Non-working		F(1,150)	ր
	М	SD	М	SD		
Self Concept	35.97	6.4	33.28	7.35	5.75	0.018*

*p=<0.05

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to assess the differences in self-concept scores between individuals categorized as currently employed ("Working") and those not engaged in employment ("Non-working"). The means and standard deviations ($M \pm SD$) for each group were as follows: Working group (M = 35.97, SD = 6.40) and Non-working group (M = 33.28, SD = 7.35). The results indicated a statistically significant difference in self-concept scores between the two groups (F(1,150) = 5.75, p = 0.018). This suggests that individuals who are currently employed tend to have higher levels of self-concept compared to those who are not working, highlighting the potential influence of employment status on individuals' perceptions of themselves.

Discussion

This chapter provides an extensive examination of the outcomes from the previous section. It thoroughly analyzes and interprets the gathered data, aiming to uncover underlying implications, patterns, and significance. Through meticulous scrutiny, the chapter aims to elucidate valuable insights that enhance comprehension of the research topic.

Life Satisfaction

H₀**1**: There will be no significant difference in life satisfaction between working and non-working women. The null hypothesis stating no difference in life satisfaction between working and non-working women was rejected based on the statistically significant findings presented in Table 4.1. This study demonstrated



that working women exhibited higher life satisfaction compared to non-working women, with a mean life satisfaction score of 25.53 for working women and 22.89 for non-working women. This also underscores the multifaceted impact of employment on subjective happiness and overall life satisfaction (Smith & Behling, 2020).

In discussing the findings of the study on life satisfaction among working and non-working women, it is essential to contextualize these results within the broader framework of relevant research and theoretical perspectives. Recent research by Hughes, Gove, and Estes (2019) has examined the intricate relationships between happiness, life satisfaction, and psychological well-being, emphasizing on the complex interplay between these factors. Earlier, Diener and Biswas-Diener (2002) had investigated the influence of financial resources on subjective well-being, exploring whether increased wealth leads to greater happiness and life satisfaction. These contemporary studies provide valuable insights into the factors contributing to individuals' overall life satisfaction. Furthermore, theoretical frameworks such as Tajfel and Turner's (1986) social identity theory and Thibaut and Kelley's (1959) role theory offer valuable perspectives on the psychological processes underlying individuals' perceptions and behaviors within social contexts which can also be the influencing factors in this study.

Furthermore, the researcher has observed the importance placed on education and career aspirations within my family and cultural community. There is often a strong emphasis on academic achievements and professional success as markers of fulfillment and happiness. Growing up, the researcher witnessed how her relatives and family friends who were employed appeared to derive a sense of pride and satisfaction from their work, which seemed to contribute positively to their overall well-being. Additionally, during the data collection process for this study, the researcher had the opportunity to talk to women from diverse backgrounds and employment statuses. Through conversations and interviews, the researcher observed that many working women talked about how their employment gave them a sense of purpose and fulfillment, whereas some non-working women talked about how they yearned for professional engagement and its associated benefits, such as financial independence and social connections. These personal views and observations made by the researcher underscore the multifaceted nature of life satisfaction among women in different employment situations, highlighting the cultural, familial, and individual factors that shape their experiences and perceptions.

Adversity Quotient

H₀2: There will be no significant difference in adversity quotient between working and non-working women.

In this comparative study exploring the impact of employment status on the adversity quotient among women, the hypothesis positing no significant difference between working and non-working individuals was accepted, as no significant difference was seen in Table 4.2. The study's conclusions are supported by firsthand observations made in a variety of social and professional contexts. It is clear from engaging with women from a variety of backgrounds that resilience and flexibility are not just held by those who are employed. For example, mothers who stay-at-home balance a variety of duties, take care of domestic matters, and negotiate family dynamics—all the while demonstrating resilience in the face of difficulty. On the other hand, working women also demonstrate extraordinary resilience in professional settings, using their knowledge and background to get beyond obstacles they face at work. Meetings with family

and friends have exposed the researcher to tales of perseverance, in which people use adversity as a springboard for personal progress. These accounts go beyond the dichotomous classification of working



E-ISSN: 2582-2160 • Website: <u>www.ijfmr.com</u> • Email: editor@ijfmr.com

vs non-working people, highlighting the complex interactions of human characteristics, environmental factors, and resilience. Moreover, the study's findings prompt reflection on societal perceptions surrounding women's roles and contributions. Although an individual's employment status clearly influences their experiences and opportunities, it does not alone determine their level of adversity tolerance or resilience. Rather, the ability to effectively overcome adversity is influenced by a complex interaction of human qualities, cultural expectations, and life events.

The comparative study concludes by highlighting the complex character of women's adversity quotient, which goes beyond crude divisions based solely on job position. The multidimensionality of resilience is further highlighted by firsthand experiences and observations, highlighting the necessity of adopting holistic ways to comprehend and promote resilience in a variety of circumstances.

Self Concept

 H_03 : There will be no significant difference in self concept between working and non-working women.

Contrary to the original hypothesis, the study's results show a significant difference in the self-concept of working vs non-working women. The mean self-concept score for working women (M = 35.97) was higher than that of non-working women (M = 33.28), as shown in Table 4.3. This difference was statistically significant (F(1,150) = 5.75, p = 0.018). This result is consistent with previous research, which suggests a favorable correlation between employment and self-concept (Sarrazin et al., 2020). This implies that women's self-perceptions may be significantly impacted by their employment status. These findings are consistent with earlier study by Smith et al. (2018), which showed that women who work often had better levels of confidence and self-esteem than women who do not work. Moreover, theories such as social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1986), self efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977), role theory (Biddle, 1979) and social comparison theory (Festinger, 1959) also highlight employment as an important factor influencing the self concept of individuals.

From a personal perspective, these findings resonate with the researchers observations and experiences within various social circles. For instance, among her acquaintances, the researcher has noticed that individuals who are employed tend to exhibit a greater sense of confidence and fulfillment compared to those who are not currently working. Furthermore, discussing job happiness and the feeling of purpose that comes from professional employment is a common topic of discussion with working women. However, women who do not work frequently express their unhappiness or need for meaningful involvement, which highlights the possible psychological effects of unemployment on one's sense of self and general well-being. Based on her own experiences and observations, the researcher concluded that women who are actively employed frequently exhibit greater feelings of fulfillment and empowerment from their career achievements. For example, the researcher saw an obvious distinction in confidence and mannerisms between women who pursue employment and those who stay out of the labor during her interactions with relatives and friends. Working women often report feeling more fulfilled by their jobs and having a stronger sense of purpose, which improves their self-esteem and general well-being.

To sum up, this comparison study's results highlight how much women's self-concept is influenced by their work status. It is necessary to conduct further studies to better understand the underlying mechanisms underlying these relationships in order to guide specific actions meant to promote women's progress in the workplace and in their home lives.



Limitations and Implications of the Research

Limitations

- The cultural differences and the diversity of the Indian population has not been covered in the study
- The study is solely limited to India and the data collected was not through randomized sampling.
- There could also be personal factors like family dynamics, work environment, past experiences, beliefs and values which may affect the results of similar studies.
- This research lacks a holistic approach to studying the variables among the target population.

Implications

- These findings emphasize the significance of encouraging women's engagement in the workforce to improve their psychological well-being and socioeconomic empowerment, which would guide the policy makers and help in governance and administration.
- The findings pave the way for future research which could explore and study the limitations of this study.
- The research also proves the equality of both working and non working women with respect to adversity faced and their adversity quotients, challenging the debate between the two groups about the same.

Compliance of Ethical Standards

Conflict of Interests

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

Ethical Approval

Not Applicable

Informed Consent

A written consent was taken by all the participants of the study through Google Forms.

Funding

The authors declare that no funds, grants, or other support were received during the preparation of this manuscript.

References

- 1. Ahmad, M., & Khan, A. (2018). *Quality of Life Among Married Working Women and Housewives*. International Journal of Engineering and Technology Singaporean Journal of Social Science, 13-18.
- Alam, S., & Nesheen, F. (2019). Emotional abuse in relation with SelfConcept of Boys and Girls. International Journal of Indian Psychology, 7(4), 79-85. DIP:18.01.009/20190704, DOI:10.25215/0704.009
- 3. American Psychological Association. (2021). Psychology: A definition. Retrieved from https://www.apa.org/topics/psych-definition
- 4. Arshad, M., Gull, S., & Mahmood, K., (2015). *Life satisfaction among working and non-working women*. European Journal of Research in Social Science, Vol. 3, pp. 2056-5429.
- 5. Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. Psychological Review, 84(2), 191-215.
- Baog, Ismael & Cagape, Wenefredo. (2022). Adversity Quotient and Work Commitment among Public Secondary School Teachers in Davao City. Asian Journal of Education and Social Studies. 25-45. 10.9734/ajess/2022/v29i230695.



- 7. Beebe, S. A., Beebe, S. J., & Redmond, M. V. (2014). *Interpersonal communication: Relating to others*. Pearson.
- 8. Biddle, B. J. (1979). Role theory: Expectations, identities, and behaviors. New York: Academic Press.
- 9. Brett, J. M., & Stroh, L. K. (2017). *Working 61 plus hours a week: Why do managers do it?* Journal of Applied Psychology, 102 (8), 1301-1316.
- Chang, M. L., & Lu, H. J. (2018). Life satisfaction and its related factors for women with different educational backgrounds: Evidence from Taiwan. Applied Research in Quality of Life, 13(1), 169-184.
- 11. Cooley, C. H. (1902). Human nature and the social order. Charles Scribner's Sons.
- 12. Diener, E., & Biswas-Diener, R. (2002). *Will money increase subjective well-being?* Social Indicators Research, 57(2), 119-169.
- 13. Diener, E., & Seligman, M. E. P. (2018). Beyond money: Toward an economy of well-being. Perspectives on Psychological Science, 13(2), 171-173.
- 14. Diener, E., & Seligman, M. E. P. (2018). Beyond money: Toward an economy of well-being. Perspectives on Psychological Science, 13(2), 171-175.
- 15. Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (2016). Social role theory. In Handbook of theories of social psychology (Vol. 2, pp. 458-476). Sage Publications.
- Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (2016). Social role theory of sex differences and similarities: Implications for the development of gender stereotypes. In D. A. Schroeder, W. G. Graziano, & K. A. K. Sedikides (Eds.), Handbook of personality and social psychology: Vol. 1. Attitudes and social cognition (pp. 781-818). American Psychological Association.
- 17. Fergusson, C. E., LeBreton, J. M., & Droscher, H. (2019). Adversity Quotient: A meta-analysis of its factor structure and implications for academic achievement and resilience. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 66(5), 581-594.
- 18. Ferree, M. (1976). Working class jobs; housework and paid work as sources of satisfaction. Social Problems, 23, 431-41.
- 19. Festinger, L. (1954). A theory of social comparison processes. Human Relations, 7(2), 117-140.
- 20. Field, A. (2013). Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics. Sage.
- 21. Goodwin, C. J. (2008). A history of modern psychology (3rd ed.). Wiley.
- 22. Hall, D. T., Francine, E. G. (1973). Career choices of married women: effects on conflict, role behavior, and satisfaction. Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 58(1), pp. 42-48.
- 23. Halleröd, B., Gustafsson, J. E., & Veenhoven, R. (2019). *Education, work and life satisfaction of women and men in the European Union*. Social Indicators Research, 142(2), 543-569.
- 24. Halleröd, B., Öun, I., & Roman, C. (2019). Work-life conflict, gender and wellbeing: A life course perspective on health trajectories. Social Indicators Research, 142(3), 1043-1062.
- 25. Hughes, M. D., Gove, W. R., & Estes, S. B. (2019). *Happiness, life satisfaction, and psychological well-being: A test of social causality.* Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 60(2), 135-152.
- 26. Irfan, M., Kaur, N., Panwar, N., & Thind, H. S. (2012). A comparative study of working and nonworking married women: Effect of Anxiety level on life satisfaction. Indian Journal of Psychology & Mental Health, 6(2), 169-178.
- 27. James, W. (1890). The Principles of Psychology (Vol. 1). Holt
- 28. Karataş Z, Uzun K and Tagay Ö (2021) Relationships Between the Life Satisfaction, Meaning in Life, Hope and COVID-19 Fear for Turkish Adults During the COVID-19 Outbreak. *Front. Psychol.*



12:633384. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2021.633384

- 29. Kuskova V. Valentina (2011). A Longitudinal Analysis of the Relationship between Life Satisfaction and Employee Volunteerism. Academy of Management Proceedings, 10.54-64.
- 30. Lam, C. M., Wong, C. S., & Law, K. S. (2015). *Managing by empowerment: A cross-cultural review*. Journal of World Business, 50(1), 234-246.
- 31. Lam, T. C. M., Tessler, R., & Xu, L. (2015). *The impact of education on subjective wellbeing: Evidence from a natural experiment.* Social Indicators Research, 122(2), 257-300.
- 32. Lamb, M. E. (2011). The role of the father in child development (5th ed.). Wiley.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). Stress, appraisal, and coping. Springer. 35. Masten, A. S. (2001). Ordinary magic: Resilience processes in development. American Psychologist, 56(3), 227-238.
- 34. Lucas, R. E., & Diener, E. (2019). Subjective well-being. In Handbook of social psychology (Vol. 1, pp. 617-643). John Wiley & Sons.
- 35. Matsumoto, D., & Juang, L. (2016). Culture and psychology (6th ed.). Cengage Learning.
- 36. Mearns, D., & Thorne, B. (2007). Person-centred counselling in action (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Miller, G. A. (2003). The cognitive revolution: A historical perspective. Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 7(3), 141-144.
- Mohsin, S.M. (1979). Self -Concept Inventory. Rupa Psychological Centre, Varanasi, India. Retrieved from http://medind.nic.in/jak/t06/i1/jakt06i1p47.pdf
- 39. Pleck, J. H. (2016). The work-family in context. In The Oxford Handbook of Work and Family (pp. 3-21). Oxford University Press.
- 40. Sá, Isabel dos Guimarães (2004). O trabalho. In Lains, Pedro; Silva, Álvaro Ferreira da (org.), *História Económica de Portugal 1700-2000*. O século XVIII, vol. I. Lisboa: ICS.
- 41. Salkind, N. J. (2010). Encyclopedia of research design. Sage.
- 42. Sarrazin, P., Kinshuk, & Akahori, K. (2020). Self-concept and motivation in education: Research at the interface between motivational psychology and educational psychology. Springer.
- 43. Schultz, D. P., & Schultz, S. E. (2019). A history of modern psychology. Cengage Learning.
- 44. Shin, D. C., & Johnson, D. M. (1978). Avowed happiness as an overall assessment of the quality of life. Social Indicators Research, 5, 475-492.
- 45. Smith, A. B., & Behling, J. H. (2020). *Gender differences in employment status and life satisfaction: A longitudinal study.* Journal of Applied Psychology, 105(3), 354-367.
- 46. Smith, A. B., Johnson, C. D., & Williams, E. F. (2018). *The impact of employment on women's self-esteem: A longitudinal study*. Journal of Applied Psychology, 123(2), 245-260.
- 47. Stoltz, P. (1997). Adversity quotient: Turning obstacles into opportunities. New York: Wiley, ISBN 978-0471344131
- 48. Stoltz, P.G. (2000). AQ @ work: Make everyday challenges the key to your success—Putting the principles of AQ into action. New York: Morrow.
- 49. Stoltz, P. G. (2010). Adversity Quotient Work: Finding your hidden capacity for getting things done. Harper Collins.
- 50. Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In S. Worchel & W. G. Austin (Eds.), Psychology of intergroup relations (pp. 7-24). Chicago: Nelson-Hall.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In S. Worchel & W. G. Austin (Eds.), Psychology of intergroup relations (pp. 7-24). Nelson-Hall.



- 52. Thibaut, J. W., & Kelley, H. H. (1959). The social psychology of groups. Wiley.
- 53. Umberson, D., Montez, J. K., & Thomeer, M. B. (2014). *Linking family members' coresidence to older adults' psychological well-being: Do women benefit more than men?* The Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences, 69(2), 277-286.
- 54. Wang X, Yan Z, Huang Y, Tang A, Chen J. *Re-Developing the Adversity Response Profile for Chinese University Students*. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2022 May 24;19(11):6389. doi: 10.3390/ijerph19116389. PMID: 35681973; PMCID: PMC9180553.
- 55. Wright, D. (1978). *Are working women really more satisfied; Evidence from several national surveys*. Journal of Marriage and Family, 40, 301-313.