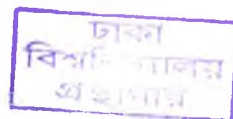


**FACTORS RELATED TO DEVELOPMENT OF
SELF ACCEPTANCE & MORAL VALUES
OF SLUM & NON SLUM CHILDREN**



**A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF DHAKA
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN PSYCHOLOGY**

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448907

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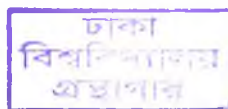
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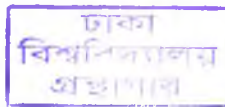


Date: December, 2009

UNIVERSITY OF DHAKA
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

This is hereby certified that this thesis “Factors related to development of Self Acceptance and Moral Values of Slum and Non Slum Children” has been prepared and submitted by Ms. Shayla Arjumand Banu. She completed this research work under my supervision. I am fully satisfied with her research work. She has fulfilled the partial requirement and condition for submitting the thesis for the award of the degree of Master of Philosophy in Psychology under the department of Psychology, University of Dhaka.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

An extensive research always requires help and suggestions from experts of knowledge and learnings. This research work has also benefited from co-operation and suggestions made by many individuals. It is indeed a pleasant responsibility of the author to thank and acknowledge the services of all those well wishers who contributed to this study.

The author's first and foremost thanks must go to her supervisor, Dr. Mahfuza Khanam, Professor, Department of Psychology, University of Dhaka. Author wishes to express her deep gratitude and indebtedness for her constant valuable guidance and advice, keen interest and unflagging patience from the beginning to the end of the study.

The author also expresses her heartiest gratitude to all the respected teachers, Department of Psychology, for their valuable comments and suggestions which helped to improve the thesis.

The author is very grateful to the teachers of Government Ideal High School, Tajmahal Road, Mohammadpur, Dhaka and BRAC High School Mirpur-1, Dhaka and the schools' students for permitting, conducting and carrying out the research work. Their willingness, attitude and extra work make the author indebted.

Finally, the author expresses her gratitude to her parents and family members for their patience and extended support.

Shayla Arjumand Banu, Author

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ABSTRACT

The present study was conducted to investigate the factors related to development of self acceptance and moral values of slum and non slum children in Dhaka City. The study further aimed to investigate whether self acceptance and moral values vary between non-slum and slum boys and girls. Once the a relationship was found, further study was carried out to know the influence of occupation of father, occupation of mother, family income, education of father, education of mother, birth order, family member on self acceptance and moral values both for slum and non slum children.

The present study consisted of 200 (100 slum, 100 non slum) male and female (N = 200) respondents of Dhaka city between the ages of 13-15 years. They were the students of class VII & VIII. They were selected by the stratified random sampling method from Dhaka city. Most of the non slum children belonged to middle socio economic class and the education level of their parents was secondary to masters. On the other hand slum children belonged to lower-lower or middle-lower socio economic class and the education level of their parents were illiterate to SSC. The collected data both for slum and non slum respondents were again subdivided according to the occupation of their father, occupation of mother, family member, family income, educational qualification of father, educational qualification of mother and birth order.

Three instruments were used. They are demographic data, self acceptance questionnaire and moral developments questionnaire. Standard random data collection procedure was followed for the study from both slum and non slum children.

Research results indicate that both self acceptance and moral values vary for slum and non-slum boys and girls. In case of self acceptance, non slum children's parents' occupation was

found to be significant. Occupation of father was found to be significant in self acceptance development of slum children whereas mother's occupation was found insignificant for slum children. Education of both the parents were found to be significant for both slum and non-slum children for self acceptance. Family income was another significant variable in this case. Birth order was found to be significant for non-slum children whereas it proved not to be significant for slum children for development of self acceptance. Family member i. e. family size, on the other hand, was found to be significant for non-slum children and was found to be insignificant for slum children.

In case of moral values development, occupation of both the parents was found significant for slum and non-slum children. Education of parents was found significant for non-slum children. For slum children, father's education proved to be significant whereas mother's education was insignificant for moral values. Family income played a significant role for both slum and non-slum boys and girls. Birth order was found to be insignificant for both slum and non-slum children for developing moral values. Family member, i.e. family size, on the other hand, was found to be significant for non-slum children and was found insignificant for slum children.

All these results were further analyzed to observe the impact on gender of these variables for both slum and non-slum children. Extensive discussion was followed after the results. In maximum instances, the results conformed to other researchers' studies and findings. However, limited studies on slum children on these variables to assess self acceptance and moral value development hindered to compare this research's finding against other researchers' findings. It was heart-felt that further studies need to be carried out among slum children to assess the development of self acceptance and moral values.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Starting from the beginning of civilization man is thinking of himself. Ancient Greek philosopher Socrates uttered “Know thyself” (As stated in the encyclopedia of philosophy.) Human being has eternal tendency to know himself. After his birth, person not only tries to know the world and environment around him but also tries to know himself. Although a person lives in the society, all the time he is living with himself. Therefore, all his queries are about himself-who am I? How have I become such? Among these questions is why I am? In order to answer these unique questions psychologists try to innovate the basic term “The Self” in the view of psychological perspective.

1.1 CONCEPTS OF THE SELF

1.1.1 Beginning: Self – recognition and self-definition

The sense of self grows slowly. It begins in infancy, with self-awareness: An infant gradually realizes that it is a being separate from other people and things, with the ability to reflect on itself and its actions. At about 18 months, it has her first moment of self recognition when it recognizes itself in the mirror. The next step is self-definition. This comes when a child identifies the characteristics that considers important to describe it. At age 3 child thinks of itself mostly in terms of externals-its pony tailed hair, its net house, and its activities in preschool. Not until about age of 6 or 7 does it begin to define itself in psychological terms. It now develops a concept of who he is (the real self) and also of who he would like to be (the ideal self). By the time the child achieves this self understanding and made progresses in related area. Children behaviors are regulated less by their parents and more by the self. The ideal self incorporates many of the “should” and “ought” that helps them control their impulses in order to be considered a “good one” (Maccoby, 1980).

1.1.2 Co-ordination of Self-Regulation and Social Regulation

In middle childhood a child can do more things than he could as preschooler. And, in fact, he does more things and is involved with more people. He is also handed more responsibilities: to do his homework, to wash dishes, to help clean the apartment, to obey rules at home and school. He begins to regulate his behavior not only to get what he needs and wants (as he did earlier), but also to meet other people's needs and wants. As he internalizes society's behavioral standard and values, he coordinates personal and social demands, and he now does things voluntarily (like cleaning his room) that he would have needed prodding to do at an earlier age.

The sense of self might seem like the most personal thing in the world. But many observers see self-concept as a social phenomenon, "the meeting ground of the individual and society" (Markus & Nurius, 1984, p.147). School-age children look around themselves, see what society expects, and blends its expectations with the pictures they already have of themselves-and the self-concept evolves. As they strive to become functioning members of society, children must fulfill several important tasks toward the development of self-concept (Markus & Nurius, 1984). They must (among other things) do the following:

Expand their self-understanding to reflect other people's perceptions, needs, and expectations. They have to learn what it means to be a friend, a teammate, or a member of dramatic cast.

Learn more about how society works about complex relationships, roles and rules.

He comes to understand, for example, that his mother has a "boss" at work to whom she has to answer, and that his tract coach can be "nice" at one moment and "mean" at another.

Develop behavioral standards that are both personally satisfying and accepted in society. This can be hard for children, since they belong to two societies – the peer group’s and the adult one-which sometimes have conflicting standards.

Manage own behavior As children take responsibility for their own actions, they must believe that they can follow both personal and social standards, and they must develop the ability to do it.

Researcher has used a variety of methods, including interviews, story dilemmas and questionnaires, to probe developmental changes in the way children think about themselves.

The evidence converges on the conclusion that the development of a sense of self undergoes a marked shift the parallels changes in cognition and social behavior (Harter, 1995)

Table 1: A developmental model of self –concept

Area of Evaluation

Sources: After Damon & Hart, 1988

Level of self –concept	Physical	Activity based	Social	Psychological
1. categorical identification (4-7 years)	I have blue eyes I am 6 years old.	I play baseball. I play and read a lot.	I am Catholic I’m Sarah’s friend.	I get funny Ideas sometimes I am happy.
2. Comparative assessment (8-11 years)	I am bigger than most kids I have really light skin, because I am Scandinavian .	I am not very good at school. I am good at math but I am not so good at art.	I like it when my Mom and dad watch me play baseball. I do well in school Because my parents Respect me for it.	I am not as smart as most kids I get upset more easily than other kids.
3. Interpersonal implications (12-15 years)	I am a four eyed person. Everyone makes fun of me I have blonde hair, Which is good Because boys like Blondes	I play sports which is important because all kids like athletes. I treat people well so I’ll have friends when I need them.	I am an honest person, so people Trust me. I am very shy, so I don’t have many Friends.	I understand people so they come to me with their Problem. I am the kind of person who loves being with my friends; They make me feel good about being me.

Table 1 based on an extensive study of changes in children self-concept by William Damon and Daniel Hart (1988). It displays both the variety of children's answers when they are asked to describe themselves and the increasing complexity of their self conception as they grow older. Damon and Hart report that children at all of the ages activities, their relations to others, and their psychological characteristics when they describe themselves; but both the importance they attach to the various characteristics and the complexity of their self-concept change with age. Children 6 to 7 years old sometimes describe themselves in terms of particular categories that apply to them (" I am 6 years old") and sometimes in terms of others (" I am older than she is "), but they do not combine the different descriptions. Between 8 and 11 years of age, these two ways of thinking about themselves are expands to include the interpersonal implication of whatever characteristics they have picked out. Instead of saying " I am smarter than other kids, " for example children now begin to offer self-descriptions such as " I am smarter than other kid, so they don't like to hang out with me".

The sense of self might seems like the most personal thing in the world. But many observers see self-acceptance as a social phenomenon, "the meeting ground of the individual and society" (Markus and Nurius, 1984, p-147). School-age children look around them, see what society expects, and blends its expectation with the picture they already have of themselves- and the self-concept evolves.

As they strive to become functioning members of society, children must fulfill several important tasks toward the development of self –acceptance (Markus and Nurius, 1984,). They have to learn what it means to be a friend, a teammate or a member of a dramatic cast.

Learn more about how society works-about complex relationships roles and rules. For example, children come to understand that his/her mother has a 'boss' at work to whom she has to answer, and that his track coach can be "nice" at one moment and "mean" at another.

Develop behavioral standards that are both personally satisfying and accepted in society.

This can be hard for children, since they belong to two societies-the peer group's and the adult one-which sometimes have conflicting standards.

Manage own behavior. As children take responsibilities for their own actions, they must believe that they can follow both personal and social standards, and they must develop the ability to do it.

1.2 WHAT IS SELF ACCEPTANCE

Self acceptance refers to domain specific evaluations of the self children can make self-evaluations in many domains of their lives-academic, athletic, appearance and so on. In sum, self-acceptance refers to more domain specific evaluation.

1.3 THE DEVELOPMENT OF SELF-ACCEPTANCE

In middle and the late childhood, self-acceptance increasingly shifts from defining one self through external characteristics to defining one self through internal characteristics. Elementary school children are also more likely to define themselves in terms of social characteristics and social comparisons (Harter 1999).

In middle and late childhood children not only recognize differences between inner and outer states but also are more likely to include subjective inner states in their definition of self. For example, in one study, second-grade children were much more likely than younger children

to name psychological characteristics (such as preferences personality traits) In their self definition and were less likely to name physical characteristics (such as eye color or possessions) (Aboud and Skerry, 1983) Ten year- old Tina says about herself, “I am pretty good about not worrying most of the time. I used to lose my temper, but I, am better about that now. I also feel proud when I do well in school”.

In addition to the increase of psychological characteristics in self –definition during the elementary school years, the social aspects of the self also increase at this point in development. In one investigation, elementary school children often included references to social groups in their self-description. (Livesly and Broumley, 1973)

Table 2: Children’s stages of perspective taking

Stage	Descriptive taking stage	Ages	Description
0	Egocentric view point	3-5	Child has a sense of differentiation of self and other but falls to distinguish between the social perspective (thoughts , feelings) of other and self, child can level other’s overt feelings but does not see the cause – and –effect relation of reasons to social actions.
1	Social-informational perspective taking	6-8	Child is aware that other has a social perspective based on other’s own reasoning, which may or may not be similar to child’s. However, child tends to focus on one perspective rather than coordinating viewpoints.
2.	Self-reflective perspective taking	8-10	Child is conscious that each individual is aware of the other’s perspective and that this awareness influences self’s and other’s view of each other putting self in other’s place is a way of judging other’s intentions, purposes , and actions. Child can form a coordinated chain of perspectives but cannot yet abstract from this process to the level of simultaneous mutuality.
3.	Mutual perspective taking	10-12	Adolescent realizes that both self and other can view each other mutuality and simultaneously as subjects. Adolescent can step outside the two person dyad and view the interaction from a third person perspective.
4.	Social and conventional system Perspective taking		Adolescent realizes mutual perspective taking does not always lead to complete understanding. Social conventions are seen as necessary because they are understood by all members of the group (the generalized other), regardless of their position, role, or experience.

1.4 RESEARCH ON SELF ACCEPTANCE

One research area explores whether self-acceptance fluctuate from day to day or remains stable. Most research studies have found to be stable at least across a month or so of time. (Baumeister, 1997; Tesser, 2000). Self-acceptance can change specially in response to transitions in life. For example, when children go from elementary school to middle school their self-acceptance usually drops (Hawkins and Berndt, 1985)

As children grow through the elementary schools, they increasingly engaged in social comparisons with their peers. This can lower their self-acceptance. When they evaluate themselves in a less favorable light then their peers (Harter, 1998)

Another research issue involves whether low self-acceptance is linked with developmental problems. One area where the research has been consistent is depression low self-acceptance in related to depression (Harter, 1998).

Childrens opinions of themselves have a great impact on their personality development and especially on their usual mood. Children who like themselves tend to be cheerful, whereas these with low self-acceptance are more likely to be depressed (Harter, 1990) A depressed mood can affect competence, leading to lower self-acceptance.

There are other differences, too, between children with high and low self-acceptance (Harter 1990). Children who have high self esteem are confident, curious and independent. They trust their own idea, approaches challenges and initiate new activities with confidence, describe themselves positively and are proud of their work. They adjust fairly easily to change tolerates frustration, perseveres in pursuing a goal, and can handle criticism.

On the other hand , children who has low self-acceptance , does not trust their own ideas, lacks confidence, hangs back and watches instead of exploring on them own , withdraws and sits apart from other children, and describes themselves negatively, without price in their work. They give up easily when frustrated and reacts immaturely to stress and inappropriately to accidents.

1.5 INCREASING CHILDREN'S SELF-ACCEPTANCE

Four ways children's self-acceptance can be improved are through

1. Identification of the causes of low self-acceptance and the domains of competence important to the self,
2. Emotional support and social approval
3. Achievement and
4. Coping

Identifying children's source of self-acceptance –that is, competence in domains important to the self- is critical to improving self-acceptance. Susan Harter (1990) points out that the self esteem enhancement programs of the 1960's in which self esteem itself was the target and individuals were encouraged to simply feel good about themselves were ineffective. Rather, Harter believes that intervention must occur at the level of the causes of self esteem if the individual's self-esteem is to improve significantly. Children have the highest self-esteem when they perform competently in domains that are important to them. Therefore, children should be encouraged to identify and valid areas of competence. These areas might include academic skills, athletics, skills, physical attractiveness and social acceptance.

Emotional support and social approval in the form of confirmation form others also powerfully influence children's self-acceptance. Some children with low self acceptance

come from conflicted families or conditions in which they experienced abuse or neglect-situation in which support was unavailable. In some cases, alternative sources of support can be implemented either informally through the encouragements such as Big Brothers and Big Sisters. While peer approval becomes increasingly important during adolescence, both adult and peer support are important influence on the child's self-acceptance.

Achievement also can improve children's self-acceptance (Bednar, Wells & Peterson, 1950) For example, the straightforward teaching of real skills to children often results increased achievement and, thus in enhanced self-acceptance. Children develop higher self-acceptance because they know the important tasks to achieve goals, and they have experienced performing them or similar behaviors. The emphasis on the importance of achievement in improving self-acceptance has much in common with Bandura's cognitive social learning concept of self-efficacy which refers to individuals' beliefs that they can master a situation and produce positive outcomes.

Self-acceptance also is often increased when children face a problem and try to cope in it, rather than avoid it. If Coping rather than avoidance prevails, children often face problems realistically, honestly and nondefensively. This produces favorable self attentive thoughts which lead to the self-generated approval that raises self –acceptance. The converse is true of low self-acceptance. Unfavorable self-evaluations trigger denial, deception and avoidance in an attempt to disavow that which has already been glimpsed true. This process leads to self generated disapproval as a form of feedback to the self out personal adequacy.

Self Acceptance in Middle Childhood Middle childhood is an important time for the development of self acceptance, a positive self-image of self-evaluation. Children compare

their real selves and their ideal selves and judge themselves by how well they measure up to the social standards and expectations they have taken into their self-concept and by how well they perform. Children's opinions of themselves have tremendous impact on their personality development. Indeed, a favorable self-image may be the key to success and happiness throughout life.

Coopersmith (1967) administered a questionnaire to hundreds of fifth and sixth-graders of both sexes. The boys and girls in the initial sample did not differ, on the average; but for intensive interviewing and observation, Coopersmith chose 85 boys and no girls, to eliminate gender as possible factor. Although the final sample was limited to middle-class white boys within only a 2 year age span, the findings may apply more widely.

According to Coopersmith (1967) people base their self-image on four criteria;

1. **Significance**- the extent to which they felt loved and approved by those who are important to them
2. **Competence**- ability to perform tasks they consider important
3. **Virtue**- attainment of moral and ethical standards
4. **Power**-the extent to which they influence their own and others' lives

Although people may draw favorable pictures of themselves if they rate high on some of these measures and low on others, they are more likely to rate themselves high if they rate high on all four criteria.

Not surprisingly, the boys in the study who had high self-acceptance were more popular and did better in school than those with low self-acceptance, who were more likely to be loners, bed-wetters, or poor students. No relationship showed up between self-acceptance and height,

weight or physical attractiveness. But family influences did make a difference. Boys who were first born or only children, those who had warm parents, and those with dominant mothers were likely to have high self-acceptance.

1.6 MORAL VALUES

The pursuit of curiosity, interest and in enjoyment no doubt motivates much of the human behaviors. But many social behaviors are at least partly motivated by a different kinds of intrinsic motivation – the desire to do “right things “ as determined by our own believes and values. Such behavior is referred to as moral behaviors because it is guided by our sense of moral obligation (Schwartz and Kunda-1983). Progress in moral conduct is largely dependent upon in calculation of moral concepts. These, in turn, must be closely related to intellectual maturity and emotional identification with the suggested ideals. Moral is special, though, because it involves a unique integration of reasoning, emotion and behaviors long ago, Freud (1920/65) emphasized the significant of moral emotions. He suggested that the anticipation of guilt is a motivation for moral behaviors. More recently , other theorists suggested that children may improve another persons ‘ welfare not because they would feel guilt if they did not but because they feel empathy for the other persons (Eisenburg, 1989) Moral behaviors also may be motivated by positive emotions. Children may do what they think is right because they feel good when they do so. Age changes in children’s’ experience of these emotions related to yet a third facet of moral values.

1.6.1 Moral values: Three Theories

Historically, the three facets of M.D. were linked to different theories. Theorists influence by Freud focused on guilt and other moral emotions. Cognitive development theorists focused on moral judgments and the reasoning that led to them. Social learning theorists focused on moral behaviors.

During the 1970's and 1980's these theories changed. Social learning theorists gave greater attention to the thinking that underlies children's behaviors (Bandura, 1986, Michel, 1973) cognitive-developmental theorists gave greater attention to the links between moral reasoning and behavior (Rest, 1983; Kohlberg & Cendee, 1984) Freud's hypotheses about moral emotions were reevaluated by theorists who examined the relations of children's emotions to their thinking and behavior (e.g., Eisenberg, 1986) yet even today most researchers focus on a single facet of moral values, either reasoning or emotions or behavior. This strategy is sensible because the three facts cannot be integrated until each facet has been analyzed by itself. However, there is a relationship among these facets for promoting moral values.

1.6.2 Thinking about morality

To explore children's thinking about morality, researchers have usually told them brief stories and then asked them questions. The story of Heinz and the drug that began this chapter was written by Lawrence Kohlberg, the most important theorist who has studied the development of moral judgments. Kohlberg built upon the work of previous theorists, particularly Jean Piaget (1932/65). Because Piaget's work inspired many later researchers, his ideas and findings are examined first.

1.6.3 Piaget on Moral Evaluations and Social Relationship

Piaget's typical method was to tell children's pair of stories and then ask the children's to compare them. From the cup story Piaget's assumed that the age changes in moral evaluations were due to changes in children's social understanding and in their relationship with parents and peers. However, later researchers were more interested in the findings themselves than in Piaget's general explanation for them. These researchers first attempted to replicate the age changes in children's responses to the cup stories. These attempts were

successful not only when Europeans and European-American children are interviewed, but also when interviews were done with Asia and Native American Children (Lickona, 1976). The next step, then, was to extend Piaget's work and define more precisely which criteria children used for their moral evaluations at which ages.

1.6.4 Piaget: Constraint and co-operation

Piaget (1932/1965) wanted to document a change with age in the basis of children's morality. He argued that children younger than about 8 define right and wrong by what adults tell them. Their morality is one of heteronomy, which comes from the Greek words meaning "rule by others". Young children do not judge for themselves which behaviors are moral and immoral; they merely accept whatever adults say.

Piaget said that young children accept adults' rules because they have an attitude of unilateral respect for adults. They see adults, correctly, as wiser and more powerful than themselves. They respect adults for those reasons. Their respect, however, is unilateral, or one sided, because they are egocentric and cannot understand why adults make certain rules. They cannot take the adults' perspective.

Piaget argued that children move gradually, after 8 years of age, toward a different basis for morality. As they grow older and less egocentric, they spend more time interacting with peers. They also see their peers as equal to themselves. Because no child in a peer group is superior to any other, all children in the group must work together, cooperatively, to devise rules for their social interactions. As children discuss possible rules or resolve conflicts over violations of rules, they must adopt the attitude of mutual respect. Each child expects the others to listen to what he or she says. Each child must, in turn, listen to what the other children say. Only in

such an atmosphere or mutual respect can peers reach agreement on rules to govern their interactions.

Peer interactions based on mutual respect lead gradually to a new morality. Piaget called this morality one of cooperation. He claimed that its result would be moral rules based on principles of fairness and justice, and because each child has participated in making the rules, each child accepts them as a guide for his or her behavior. Thus the new morality is one of autonomy, or self-government.

Table 3: summarizes Piaget's theory in terms of the two moralities, the social understanding that is their basis, and the features of social relationships that lead to them. But what do these two moralities have to do with intentions, consequences, or the cup stories?

Table 3: Piaget's two moralities

	BASIS OF MORALITY	ATTITUDE TOWARDS SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS	MOST IMPORTANT RELATIONSHIPS
AGE (APPROX.)			
Under 8 years	Heteronomy	Unilateral respect for	Unequal relationships with parents and other adults
Over 8 years	Autonomy	Mutual respect	Egalitarian relationships with peers
	Co-operation	Among peers	
	Justice		

Piaget believed that moral reasoning develops in two major stages, which coincide roughly with the preoperational and concrete operational stages of cognitive development. In the first stage, the morality of constraint, also called heteronomous morality, the young child thinks

rigidly about moral concepts. The second stage, the morality of co-operation, also called autonomous morality, is characterized by moral flexibility.

Let us look at one example of Piaget's approach. To see how children at different levels of morality think about behavior, Piaget (1932) would tell them a story about two little boys, Augustus and Julian, what went something like this: "One day Augustus noticed that his father's inkpot was empty and decided to help his father by filling it. But while he was opening the bottle, he spilled the ink and made a large stain on the tablecloth. The other boy, Julian, played with his father's inkpot one day and spilled some, making a small stain on the tablecloth. "Then Piaget would ask. " Which boy was naughtier, and why?"

Children under about age 7, still in the stage of constraint, usually consider Augustus naughtier, since he made the bigger stain. But older children, in the stage of cooperation, recognize that Augustus meant well and made the large stain by accident, whereas Julian made a small stain while doing something he should not have been doing. Immature moral judgments center only on the degree of offense; more mature judgments consider intent.

Table 4 shows how children in the two stages differ on a number of moral concepts studied by Piaget, such as rules, intention, and punishment.

Table 4: Piaget's two stages of moral values

	STAGE I	STAGE II
MORAL CONCEPTS	Morality of constraint	Morality of cooperation
POINT OF VIEW	Child views an act as either totally right or totally wrong, and thinks everyone sees it the same way. Children cannot put themselves	Children can put themselves in place of others. They are not absolutist in judgments but see
that	in the place of others	more than one point of view is possible.
INTENTION	Child judges acts in terms of actual physical	Child judges acts by intentions,
not	Consequences, not the motivation behind them.	Consequences.
RULES	Child obeys rules because they are sacred and Unalterable.	Child recognizes that rules are made by people and can be changed by people. Children consider themselves just as capable of changing rules as anyone else.
RESPECT FOR	Unilateral respect leads to feeling of obligation	Mutual respect for authority
AUTHORITY	to conform to adult standards and obey adult Rules.	and peers allows children to value their Own opinions and abilities and to judge other people realistically.
PUNISHMENT	Child favors severe punishment. Child feels that punishment itself defines the wrongness of an	Child favors milder punishment that compensates the victim
and	act; an act is bad if it will elicit punishment.	helps the culprit recognize why
an		act is wrong, thus leading to reform.
CONCEPT OF JUSTICE	Child confuses with moral law with physical law and believes that any physical accident or misfortune that occurs after a misdeed is a punishment willed by God or some other supernatural force.	Child does not confuse natural misfortune with punishment.

Source: Adapted partly from M.Hoffman, 1970, Kohlberg, in M. Hoffman & Hoffman, 1964.

1.6.5 Selman: Role-Taking. In examining the progression from egocentric to moral thinking, Selman (1973) looked at role-taking-that is assuming another person's point of view. Since morality involves consideration of other people's welfare, it is reasonable to suppose that increased ability to imagine how another person might think and feel should be related to

the ability to make moral judgments. And in fact, research has demonstrated that the two are related. Selman divided the development of role-taking into the following five stages, numbered 0 to 4.

Stage 0 (about ages 4 to 6): Children are egocentric, think that their own point of view is the only one possible, and judge accordingly.

Stage 1 (about ages 6 to 8): Children realize that other people may interpret a situation differently.

Stage 2 (8 to 10 years): Children develop reciprocal awareness.

Stage 3 (10 to 12 years): Children can imagine a third person's perspective, taking several different points of view into account.

Stage 4 (adolescence or later): People realize that mutual role-taking does not always resolve disputes. Some rival values simply cannot be communicated away.

Salman's theory was inspired by both Piaget and Kohlberg. In the following section, we examine Kohlberg's very influential theory of the development of moral reasoning. As you read this discussion, you can note how advances in role taking ability are related to advances in moral thinking.

Table 5: Selman's five stages of role-taking

STAGE	APPROXIMATE AGES	DEVELOPMENT
0	4-6	Child thinks that his or her own point of view is the only one possible
1	6-8	Child realizes that others may interpret a situation in a way different from his or her own
2	8-10	Child has reciprocal awareness, realizing that others have a different point of view and that others are aware that he or she has a particular point of view. Child understands the importance of letting others know that their requests have not been ignored or forgotten.
3	10-12	Child can imagine a third person's perspective, taking into account several different points of view. Adolescence person realizes that communication and mutual role-taking do not always resolve disputes over rival values.

Source: Selman 1973

1.6.6 Kohlberg: Levels of Moral Reasoning

The three major parts of Kohlberg's theory are (1) a description of six stages of moral judgments, (2) assumptions about how development through the stages occurs, and (3) hypotheses about the processes and experiences that contribute to moral values. Before considering these three parts, a brief look at Kohlberg's method for measuring people's moral judgments is useful.

Table 6: Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Judgment

LEVEL AND STAGE	TYPE OF MORALITY	EXAMPLE: "HEINZ SHOULD STEAL THE DRUG....."
<i>Preconventional Level</i>		
Stage 1	Heteronomous (other's norms)	... because his wife might be a very important person
Stage 2	Individualistic, Instrumental	...if he thinks it is worth the trouble or risk."
<i>Conventional Level</i>		
Stage 3	Interpersonally Normative	because he should care about this wife"
Stage 4	Social system	because people must be willing to save others if society is to survive."
<i>Postconventional Level</i>		
Stage 5	Human rights and Social welfare	because certain rights have been agreed upon or defined by people through a kind of social contract."
Stage 6	Universalizable, stealing Reversible, and Prescriptive general Ethical principles	 because , when faced with a conflict between and protecting the life of another person, protection of human life is more important."

Source: Adapted from Colby & Kohlberg, 1987

Kohlberg: Levels of Moral Reasoning Kohlberg's moral dilemmas Lawrence

Kohlberg devised a series of moral dilemmas to assess a person's level of moral reasoning; these are

- Level I: Pre-conventional morality (ages 4 to 10 years). The emphasis in this level is on external control. Children observe the standards of others either to avoid punishment or to obtain rewards.
- Level II: Morality of conventional role conformity (ages 10 to 13). Children now want to please other people. They still observe the standards.

1.7 Definition of Slum

Slums are known by different names in different cities. For instance, in Delhi these exist in the form of Katras, gallies and jhuggi-jhopdi, in Madras these are known as Cherais. In Kanpur these are known as ahatas whereas, in Calcutta and Dhaka these are called bastees. Many sociologists have tried to define slum but there is no general consensus on the definition. Because there are various types of slums, definitions too are many. Some consider it as a special type of disorganized area while others define it as 'blighted area'. Some consider a slum as "an undeveloped settlement surrounded by the developed localities. It takes most of the civic amenities like sanitation, water electricity, etc." According to a report of the United Nations on Urban Land Policies, a slum is "a building, group of buildings, or area characterized by over-crowding, deterioration (of standard of living), unsanitary conditions or absence of facilities or amenities which, because of these conditions or any of them endanger the health, safety or morals of its inhabitants or the community". Anderson and Clinard have also included both physical and moral attributes in defining a slum. Zorrough defines slum as "an area of disintegration, characterized not only by ramshackle buildings but by well-defined types of submerged humanity- economic failures, the broken families, and the marooned families. It is also a bleak area of extreme poverty, evictions and evaded rents, an area of working mothers and children, of high rates of birth and infant mortality, illegitimacy and death." Bergel maintains, "Slums may be characterized as areas of substandard housing conditions within a city. A slum is always an area. A single neglected building, even in the worst stage of deterioration does not make a slum. Poverty and substandard housing are often described as the main characteristics of slums. Deshai and Pillai argue, "reduced to its basic features a slum is nothing but an area of sub-standard housing, and area of darkness, despair, and poverty". They further described the slum as "an area of worst form of struggle for the basic needs of life". According to Oxford Advanced Learner's

Dictionary, "Slum is a street or district of old buildings in a poor dirty condition, often crowded with people". However, at the definitional level a slum may be more than what has been said above about it, especially when it is seen in relation to urban growth and development. It may be an interstitial area of apparently static character, surrounded by areas in process of change.

The rural poor in developing countries have been migrating to the metropolitan cities from the hinterlands and take refuge in slums. Unsanitary living environments, endemic health problems and inadequate earning opportunities are some of the problems faced by these poor living and working in urban informal sector. The frequent rural-urban migration, on the other hand, is a matter of concern to the civic authorities as the new entrants stake their claims over basic amenities causing a pressure on physical infrastructural network.

The above mentioned characteristics of slums are found universally in any city in the Third World countries. Slums are settlements /areas of poor housing, e.g. shacks(jupris), kutcha structure (flimsy structure), semi-pacca flimsy structure (flimsy structure with brick or concrete floors), dilapidated buildings (old building in bad condition), very high gross area density (over 300 persons/acre) and high room crowding (3 or more adults per room), poor sewerage and drainage, inadequate water supply, irregular or no clearance of garbage, little or no paved streets, insufficient or absence of street lighting, little or no access to gas facilities. These characteristics of slums may well explain the conditions of slums situated in Dhaka City.

These are, however general characteristics to identify the slums in any city as mentioned above. But it may also be said there that a slum is an area and not an isolated building. It is a

combination of physical, social and cultural attributes. The physical attributes are: low quality houses, overcrowding, high density, unsanitary conditions, lack of civic amenities like water supply, drainage and sewerage, clearance of garbage, etc. These characteristics are universal to identify the slum.

1.8 Literature Review

Research conducted on relationship between gender and various attributes of parents and the family on the children's self acceptance and moral values of slum and non-slum areas is very little in Bangladesh perspective. There are many researchs conducted on understanding self acceptance and moral values of childrens around the world, some of which are done in the context of sub continent. But understanding these two aspects of psychology in view of slum and non-slum are not found. Some of the researches conducted to understand the self acceptance and moral values of the children irrespective of categorizing as slum or non-slum are as follows:

Denise D. Guastello and Stephen J. Guastello (2002) conducted an experiment on "Birth category effects on Gordon Personal Profile Variables". They found that there were no significant effects for the personality traits (ascendancy, emotional stability, responsibility, sociability, and self-esteem) across birth order categories for either males or females.

Michael S. Ellwood and Arnold L. Stolberg (1993) in their research "The effects of family composition, family health, parenting behavior and environmental stress on children's divorce adjustment" as published on Journal of Child and Family Studies showed with multivariate

analysis of covariance that “family composition had a significant effect on the occurrence of stressful events and change in income”.

Thomas S. Parish and Gerald D. Nunn in their research “Children's Self-Concepts and Evaluations of Parents as a Function of Family Structure and Process” indicated significant correlations (N = 132 fifth- through eighth-grade students) between self-concepts and evaluations of parents and family composition in numbers.

Previous research on issues of self esteem, moral values and cognitive development of children has been relatively sparse, and results have been mixed. Leibowitz (1977) found no effect of maternal employment on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) scores of preschoolers. In contrast, Stafford (1987) found that maternal employment during the preschool years had a negative effect on teachers' ratings on grade-schoolers' cognitive abilities and self esteem. Similarly, while Fleisher (1977) found a positive effect of mother's home time on high school IQ for a male sample, Datcher-Loury (1988) found a positive effect of maternal time spent in child care on the educational attainment of 20 to 26 year olds only for highly-educated mothers and found no effect of maternal employment per se, and Krein and Beller (1988) found a negative effect of maternal employment on the educational attainment at age 26 of boys, but not girls. Desai et al. (1989) found that the PPVT scores of four-year-old boys in high income families were negatively affected by maternal labor, while those of four-year-old girls were unaffected. Some research by psychologists suggests that maternal employment during the first year of life may have particularly adverse consequences (Belsky and Rovine, 1988), though this finding has been controversial (Gottfried and Gottfried, 1988).

Enne E. Foon (1988) in her experiment "Effect of Mother's Employment Status on Adolescents' Self Perceptions and Academic Performance" found that mother's employment outside the home was associated with a favourable attitude to doing well in school. In addition, the occupational status of mothers who did work was related to the amount of control male adolescents felt they had over events affecting their lives: boys with mothers employed in low-status occupations tended to have more external control orientations than those with mothers employed in high-status occupations. Also, males with mothers in low-status occupations had lower preferences for mathematics subjects than males whose mothers were employed in high-status occupations. However, no variables were entered into the predictive model of mother's occupational status for the female sample. Father's occupational status was also found to be associated with a number of adolescent's perceptions. Implications of these results for research into the effects of mother's employment status and mother's and fathers' occupational status for adolescent perceptions and performance were discussed."

While studying the relationship of parents' education and occupation with value system of students, Purang and Sharma (2000) found positive correlation of father's education and occupation with knowledge power, stimulation and social value, while mothers' education was found to be correlated positively with economic value. Whereas, father's occupation showed negative correlation not only with economic value but also with stimulation and traditional values.

Solomon A. Fakinlede (2008), Baltimore City Community College, Baltimore, USA undertook a study on "Quantitative Analysis of the Influence of Poverty on Moral values". This quantitative study of the significance of poverty as a factor influencing moral values of

individuals was based on the evaluation of Kohlberg's theory of moral values, including the application of cultural and situational influences that are country specific.

Thus we find that there are a significant amount of literature is available on children's self acceptance and moral values in conjuncture with different family variables like occupation of father, occupation of mother, family income, education of father, education of mother, birth order, and family member. But categorizing these variables' impact on slum and non-slum children is absent. This study is undertaken to find and understand the implecation of these variables for slum and non-slum children's self acceptance and moral values.

1.8.1 Rationale for Selecting Slum and Non Slum Children

This study was conducted on two groups of subjects. One group consisted of 13 to 15 years old high school boys and girls, who were in there adolescent period and dwelled in slums and the other group consisted of the same age group dwelling outside slum areas.

Worldwide, most human beings are living in poverty. In the 20th century, slum exploded worldwide where a high number of people live in it. For example, 60% of the population in Mumbai, India is living in slum. It is the same case for Dhaka City also. A large fragment of this city dwellers are living in the slums. In slum, the access to services like healthcare, fresh food and basic sanitation is restricted. This kind of living area is filthy and densely packed with poorly constructed houses. People living in slum are extremely poor and are treated as if they are second class citizens.

Even in rich country like America, 17% of the children are living in families with income below the federal poverty level. The lack of money due to financial instability is physically

and emotionally damaging to the children and they have to struggle simply to make it to adulthood.

Poverty is an obstacle to future success even before a child is born. Poor pregnant mothers lack proper prenatal care and may suffer from medical conditions that increase the risk of premature birth, which leads to physical and developmental delays that cause a child to lag behind others children.

Mental health is another concern for those growing up in poverty. The stressful situations that come with poverty, such as job loss, divorce, death and drug addiction, might cause long term psychological harm to the psyche. The parents who are struggling to earn a living might not be able to give their children sufficient quality time, which will lead to low self esteem. The child will end up having difficulty in socializing with other people.

Teenagers living in poverty are more likely to commit crime and experiment with illegal drug, alcohol and unsafe sex. They tend to make bad decisions that will make life further complicated.

Another aspect of this research is to investigate self acceptance and moral values development on both boys and girls. Knopf (1984) notes that girls less than 18 years of age account for 25% of all female arrests but boys under 18 represent 19% of all male arrests and that the rate of crime and thus immorality is increasing more rapidly for adolescent girls than for boys. According to Lips and Colwill (1978) females have been shown to be more aggressive in family-conflict situations. Eagly and Carli (1981) in their research showed that at varying ages women are consistently more readily influenced by social pressure than are men.

In light of the above rational, this research was undertaken to find out the factors related to the development of self acceptance and moral values of slum and non slum children of Dhaka city.

1.8.2 Objectives

The main objective of this research was to find out if there are any difference in the development of self acceptance and moral values between slum and non-slum children. The specific objectives are to find out

- a) if there is any significance of father's occupation on slum and non-slum children,
- b) if there is any significance of mother's occupation on slum and non-slum children,
- c) if there is any significance of father's education on slum and non-slum children,
- d) if there is any significance of mother's education on slum and non-slum children,
- e) if there is any significance of family income on slum and non-slum children,
- f) if there is any significance family member, i.e. family size on slum and non-slum children,
- g) if there is any significance birth order on slum and non-slum children, and
- h) if there is any gender specific significance of these variables on slum and non-slum children.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 Methodology

2.1 Sample

The present study consisted of 200 (100 slum, 100 non slum) male and female respondents of Dhaka city between the ages of 13-15 years. They were the students of class 7 & 8 of Government Ideal High School, Tajmahal Road, Mohammadpur, Dhaka and BRAC High School Mirpur-1, Dhaka. Children studying in BRAC High School at Mirpur resided within the radius of not more than 1 kilometer from the school. The subjects were selected by stratified random sampling method. Most of the non slum children belonged to middle socio economic class and the education level of their parents was secondary to masters. On the other hand slum children belonged to lower-lower or middle-lower socio economic class and the education level of their parents were illiterate to SSC. This distribution of the sample is presented in the following schematic diagram:

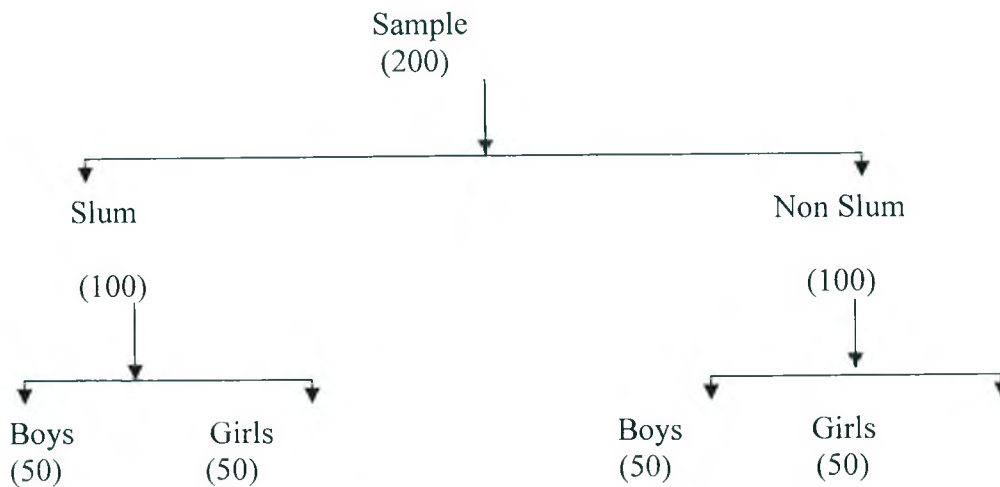


Figure 1: A Schematic representation of sample selection

The collected data both for slum and non slum respondent were again subdivided according to their occupation of father, occupation of mother, family member, family income, educational qualification of father, educational qualification of mother and birth order. The division is comprised as follows:

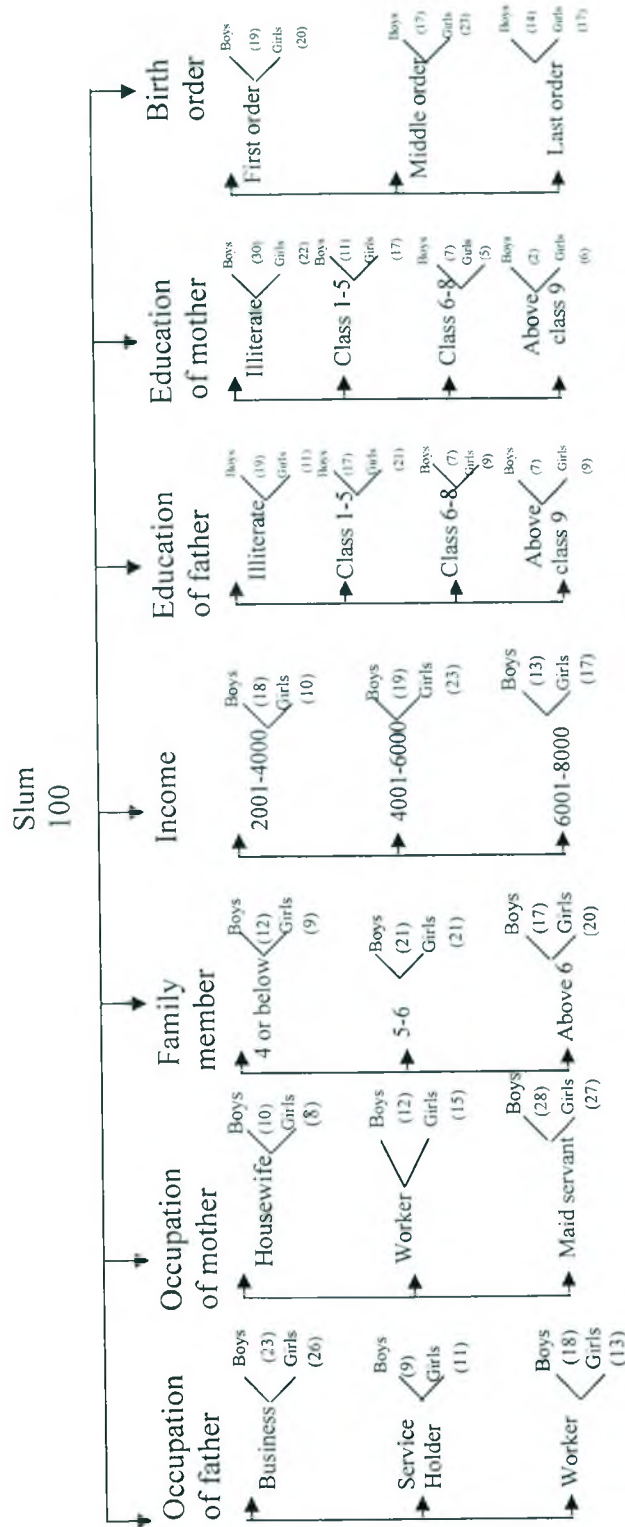


Figure 2: A schematic representation of sample distribution among/between slum children

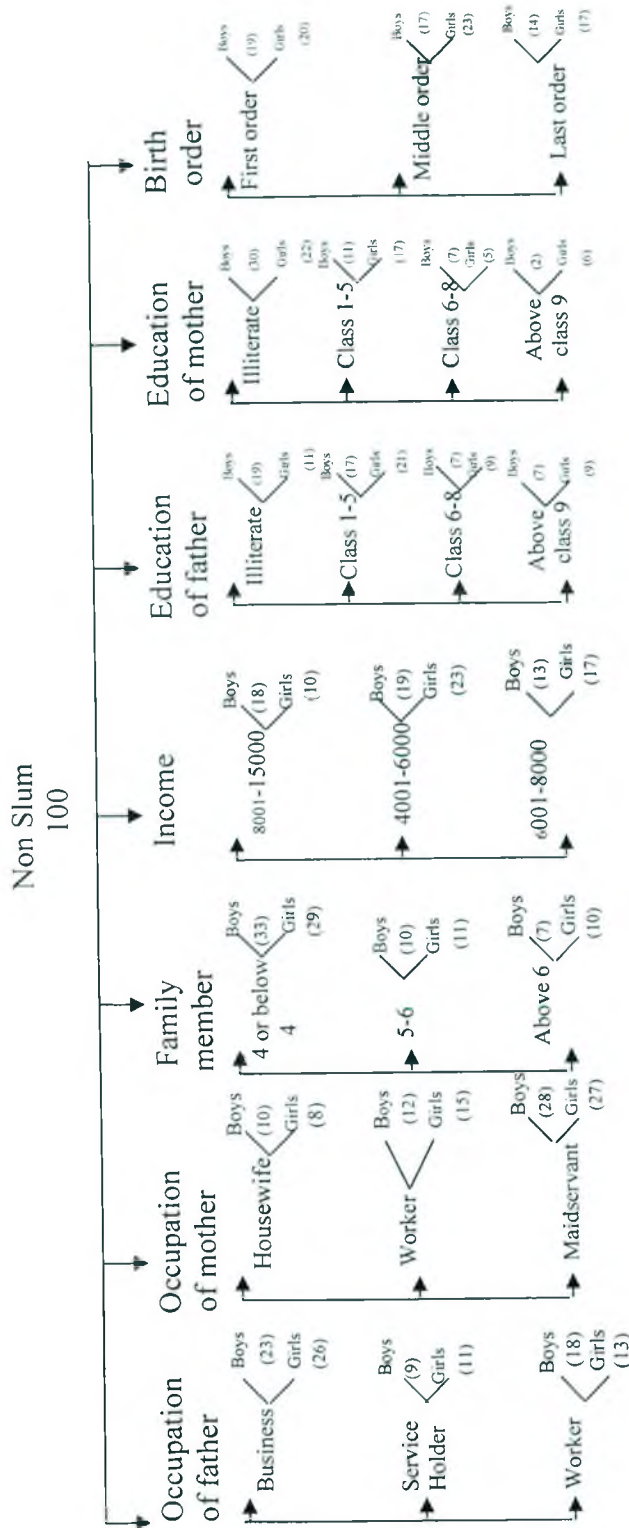


Figure 3: A schematic representation of sample distribution among/between non slum children

2.2 The Instruments Used

The instruments used in the present study divided into three parts:

- a. **Moral values questionnaire:** The modified Bengali version of moral values questionnaire originally developed by Koikara, 1992 were used to measure moral values of the respondents.
- b. **Self acceptance questionnaire:** Standard self acceptance questionnaire (joined in appendix) was used for measuring self acceptance of the participants.
- c. **Demographic information:** This part of the instrument consists of the information that is; name, age, sex, father occupation, mother's occupation, family members, family income, educational qualification of father, educational level of mother and birth order.

2.3 Description of the moral values questionnaire

The moral values questionnaire consists of 20 statements; each statement describes a particular situation which reflects views regarding different ethical issues. The statements are followed by description of the two possible activities that can be undertaken in that particular situation and there are five points scale besides each answer which expresses different degrees of agreement. The subject is to respond by choosing one of the given activities with which they agree by putting a tick (✓) mark on the number of a particular point of the scale which they think applicable for them.

2.4 Description of the self-acceptance questionnaire

The self acceptance questionnaire consists of 20 statements; each statement describes a particular situation which reflects views regarding subjects' understanding of self, their

perceptions, needs and expectations. Every statement has two answers i.e.: positive or negative, that is yes/no. The basic model of the questionnaire is that every statement is in negative sense. So, if the subject gives the tick (✓) mark on no it makes the sense positive. And on the same way if they become agree with the “yes” answer it direct the negative sense. The subject were instructed that if they agree with the statement they should give a tick (✓) mark on the “yes” answer and if not they should give their tick (✓) mark on “no”.

2.5 Bengali version of the moral values and self acceptance questionnaires

Since it was the purpose of present research to measure the self acceptance and moral values of the slum and non slum children of Bangladesh, the English versions of the moral and the self acceptance questionnaires were assumed to be not suitable especially for the bengali medium school students. Therefore, the version of the moral values questionnaire translated into Bengali by Philomena Quiah (she also modified the questionnaire originally developed by Koikara, 1992) and the self acceptance questionnaire translated by the present researcher (original version of the questionnaire developed by Karylowski, 1975) were used in the current study. The Bengali versions of the self acceptance and moral value questionnaires are given in Appendix.

To assess the appropriateness of the translated items, 10 judges were selected of which 6 were university teacher of the Psychology department and 4 were English teacher from various universities and colleges. The judges were given 4 sets of questionnaire the original moral value questionnaires and the translated version. They were requested to go through each statement carefully and see if the intended meaning is conveyed. The judges took enough time to complete the work and made necessary corrections. Opinion of the judges

was carefully received and two of the items in moral value questionnaire were modified. The self acceptance questionnaire translated by the present researcher was also reviewed by the judges and they found that no modification was required. The following presents sample of the original (English) translated (by the Philomena Quiah) and modified (by the judges):

Moral Value question 8: Settle down and listen.

চুপ করবে এবং তার কথা শুনবে।

Modified: শান্ত হয়ে তার কথা শুনবে।

Moral Value question 13: Resent their success and make nasty comments behind their back.

তাদের সাফল্যে অসন্তুষ্ট হবে এবং পিছনে তাদের নামে খারাপ মন্তব্য করবে।

Modified: তাদের সাফল্যে ক্ষুব্ধ হবে এবং আড়ালে তাদের সম্পর্কে খারাপ মন্তব্য করবে।

2.6 Reliability and Validity

In order to determine the reliability of Bengali translation of the questionnaires to high school teachers who were proficient in both the languages were selected. At first the original English version of the questionnaire were given to the same teachers. Spearman product moment correlation was calculated between the scores of English version and Bengali versions questionnaires. The results showed that value of for moral value questionnaire was 0.93 which was significant at 0.001 level which means that the translation of the moral values questionnaire into Bengali were quite satisfactory. The reliability of the Bengali version of the moral values questionnaire were studied on a group of 30 adolescent school girls/children and the test retest reliability over a period of two weeks were found to be $r=0.85$ which/that were significant at $p<0.005$ level. On the other hand the standardized self acceptance questionnaire translated by the present researcher is significantly valid and reliable.

2.7 SCORING

Moral value questionnaire: Each statement of the moral value questionnaire describes a particular situation relating to moral issue and there were two possible activities, one indicating positive and another negative value which could be undertaken in that situation. The subject responded by choosing one of the activities and expressed in a 5 points scale how much they agree with the activity. Thus for each item the subjects were supposed to get score for either positive or negative answer and the score for each item range from 1-5. The scores for the positive answer were added together and likewise the negative answers were added together. The total scores for negative answers were then deducted from the total score of positive answer. Range of negative score and positive score as well as range of total score for moral value is from 0-100. Higher total score indicate higher moral value and lower score indicates lower moral value.

Self Acceptance questionnaire: Each statement of the self acceptance questionnaire describes a particular situation relating to negative situation with an answer of “Yes” or “No”. The subject responded by choosing one of the answers. Answer “Yes” was scored as negative answer and “No” was scored as positive answer. The scores for the positive answer were added together and likewise the negative answers were added together. The total scores for negative answers were added then deducted the total score of positive answers. Range of negative score and positive score as well as range of total score for moral value is from 0-20. Higher total score indicate higher self acceptance and lower score indicates lower self acceptance.

2.8 DESIGN

At first the study consisted of a 2x2 factorial design. For each of the part self acceptance and moral values representing sex (boys and girls). Two level of social status (slum and non slum). On the basis of two significant results further statistical analysis was done. At that time 2x2 representing sex (boys and girls) and two level of mother occupation (housewife and service holder). 2x3 representing sex (boys and girls), and three level of family member (below 4, 3-6 and above 6). 2x4 representing sex (boys and girls) and four level of father's occupation (businessman, government employee, private service holder and teacher) factorial design was compressed in many orders on the basis of necessity.

2.9 PROCEDURE

Standard random data collection procedure was followed for the study from both slum and non slum children. The survey was carried out at Government Ideal High School, Tajmahal Road, Mohammadpur, Dhaka and BRAC High School Mirpur-1, Dhaka during the month of April, 2008. At first, the participants were received cordially. And they were asked to fill up the bio data form and read the instruction carefully printed on the top of the questionnaire. In order to understand and get the right opinion of each statement the children were verbally instructed. Everyone interviewed separately. Half of the participants were given first moral values and then self acceptance questionnaire and the rest half were given the questionnaire in the alternative way (first self acceptance and then moral values.) At the same time to have the appropriate information each and every participant were carefully observed. Every participant participated gradually and at last they were thanked for their spontaneous participation.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESULTS

3.1 Results on Self Acceptance In order to find out whether self acceptance varies between slum and non slum boys & girls the obtained scores were analyzed by 2x2 Analysis of Variance. The results of ANOVA are shown in table 7.

Table 7: Summary of ANOVA of self acceptance scores of slum and non slum boys and girls

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	Df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	612.500	1	612.500	910.021	.01
Type	2112.500	1	2112.500	3148.645	.01
Gender*type	12500	1	12500	18.572	.01
Error	131.920	196	0.673		
Total	43368.000	200			

Table 7 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F= 910.021$; $df= 1, 196$; $P \leq 0.01$) and type of respondents ($F= 3148.645$; $df= 1, 196$; $P \leq 0.01$) were found to be significant. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and type of respondent ($F= 18.572$; $df= 1, 196$; $P \leq 0.01$).

Table 8: Mean and Standard deviation of respondents' self-acceptance scores as a function of gender

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 12.48$	$\bar{X} = 15.98$
SD= 3.61	SD= 3.12

Table 8 reveals that girls have higher self acceptance scores than the boys.

Table 9: Mean & Standard deviation of respondents S.A. scores as a function of type of respondents

Slum	Non Slum
$\bar{X} = 10.98$	$\bar{X} = 17.48$
SD= 2.169	SD= 1.714

Table 9 indicates that Non-slum children have higher self-acceptance than the slum children.

Table 10: Mean and standard deviation of self –acceptance scores according to gender and type of respondents

	Slum	Non Slum
Boys	$\bar{X} = 8.98$	$\bar{X} = 15.98$
	SD= 0.82	SD= 0.82
Girls	$\bar{X} = 12.98$	$\bar{X} = 18.98$
	SD= 0.82	SD= 0.82

Table 10 reveals that non slum girls have high self-acceptance scores ($x=18.98$) on the other hand slum boys have lowest self acceptance scores ($x=8.98$).

The data of the study was then analyzed to find whether there exists any correlation for self acceptance between slum and non slum children considering the factors: occupation of father, occupation of mother, family income, education of father, education of mother, birth order, and family member. Following is the result of the analysis:

Table 11: Correlation between self acceptance of non-slum and slum children and it's different factors

Factors of Self Acceptance	r*		p	
	Non-slum	Slum	Non-slum	Slum
Father's Occupation	-0.18	-0.23	0.08	0.062
Mother's Occupation	0.095	0.08	0.077	0.066
Family Income	-0.113	-0.17	0.087	0.75
Family Member	-0.1	-0.163	0.058	0.099
Father's Education	0.058	0.085	0.066	0.72
Mother's Education	0.165	0.066	0.079	0.27
Birth Order	-0.23	-0.235	0.92	0.905

* $\alpha = 0.05$ and d.f. = 100

Table 11 shows that a significant negative correlation was found for all the factors of self acceptance. Thus, to know the influence of occupation of father, occupation of mother, family income, education of father, education of mother, birth order, family member on self acceptance both for slum and non slum children further statistical analysis were done. The results are shown gradually in the following table:

Occupation of Father

Table 12: Summary of ANOVA of self-acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls according to occupation of father

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	Df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	93.995	1	93.995	4.429	0.03
Fath_Occp	366.354	2	183.177	8.631	0.01
Fath_Occp X gender	203.441	2	101.720	4.793	0.01
Error	1994.952	94	21.23		
Total	20474.00	100			

Table 12 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F= 4.429$; $df= 1, 94$; $P\leq 0.05$) and father occupation ($F= 8.631$; $df= 2, 94$; $P\leq 0.01$) were found to be significant. It indicates that non-slum boys and girls vary in self-acceptance. The result also indicates significant interaction between gender and father's occupation ($F= 4.793$; $df= 2, 94$; $P\leq 0.01$).

Table 13: Mean & Std. of self acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 11.96$	$\bar{X} = 14.64$
SD= 6.710	SD= 2.86

Table 13 reveals that girls have high self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 14.64$) than the boys ($\bar{X} = 11.96$).

Table 14: Mean & Std. of self acceptance scores of non slum children according to occupation of father:

Businessman	Govt. Employee	Private service holder	Teacher
$\bar{X} = 14.95$	$\bar{X} = 10.09$	$\bar{X} = 12.43$	$\bar{X} = 17.08$
SD= 0.65	SD= 0.84	SD= 0.53	SD= 0.94

Table 14 reveals that on the basis father's occupation teacher's children have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 17.08$) and govt. employee children have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 10.09$).

Table 15: Mean & Std of self acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls according to gender and occupation of father

	Boys	Girls
Businessman	$\bar{X} = 15.11$ SD= 0.68	$\bar{X} = 14.80$ SD= 0.63
Govt. Employee	$\bar{X} = 9.92$ SD= 0.79	$\bar{X} = 10.06$ SD= 0.90
Private Service Holder	$\bar{X} = 12.07$ SD= 0.73	$\bar{X} = 12.80$ SD= 0.41
Teacher	$\bar{X} = 16.17$ SD= 0.95	$\bar{X} = 18.00$ SD= 0.93

Table 15 reveals that teacher's daughters have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 18.00$) than the others, on the other hand govt. employees' sons have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 9.92$).

Occupation of Mother

Table 16: Summary of ANOVA of S.A. scores of non slum boys and girls according to occupation of mother.

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	Df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Moth_Occp	591.263	3	197.088	202.825	0.01
Gender	7.871	1	7.871	8.101	0.05
Moth_Occp X gender	11.510	3	3.837	3.948	0.01
Error	09.398	92	0.972		
Total	17948.00	100			

Table 16 reveals that the main effects of mother occupation ($F= 202.825, df= 3,92; P \leq 0.01$) and gender ($F= 8.101, df= 1,92; P \leq 0.05$) are significant. It indicates that non-slum boys and girls vary in self-acceptance. Results also indicate significant interaction effect between mother occupation and gender ($F= 3.948, df= 3,92; P \leq 0.01$) are also significant.

Table 17: Mean and Standard deviation of self acceptance of non slum children according to gender

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 12.14$	$\bar{X} = 13.10$
SD= 2.60	SD= 2.87

Table 17 reveals that girls have more self acceptance than the boys.

Table 18: Mean and Standard deviation of self acceptance scores of non slum children according to occupation of mother

Businessman	Govt. Employee	Private service holder	Teacher
$\bar{X} = 15$ SD= 0.667	$\bar{X} = 10$ SD= 0.845	$\bar{X} = 12.45$ SD= 0.686	$\bar{X} = 17.21$ SD= 2.155

Table 18 reveals that teacher's children have highest self acceptance score ($\bar{X} = 17.1$) and govt employee's children have lowest self acceptance score ($\bar{X} = 10.00$) than the others.

Table 19: Mean and Standard deviation of self acceptance of non slum children according to different level of mother occupation and gender

	Boys	Girls
Businessman	$\bar{X} = 15.11$ SD= 0.68	$\bar{X} = 14.80$ SD= 0.63
Govt. Employee	$\bar{X} = 9.92$ SD= 0.79	$\bar{X} = 10.06$ SD= 0.90
Private Service Holder	$\bar{X} = 12.07$ SD= 0.73	$\bar{X} = 12.80$ SD= 0.41
Teacher	$\bar{X} = 16.17$ SD= 0.95	$\bar{X} = 18.00$ SD= 0.93

Table 19 shows that, daughter of teacher have more self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 18$) and sons of govt employee have less self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 9.92$) than the others.

Family Income

Table 20: Summary of ANOVA of self acceptance score of non slum boys and girls according to family income

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	0.319	1	0.319	0.460	.04
Family incm	852.884	2	426.442	615.737	.01
Gen X fam incm.	0.391	2	0.195	0.282	.05
Error	65.102	94	0.693		
Total	15267.00	100			

Table 20 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F = 0.460$, $df = 1, 94$; $P \leq 0.05$) and income ($F = 615.737$; $df = 1, 94$; $P \leq 0.01$) are found to be significant. It indicates that non-slum boys and girls vary in self-acceptance. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and family income ($F = 0.282$; $df = 1, 94$; $P \leq 0.05$).

Table 21: Mean and standard deviation of self acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 11.68$	$\bar{X} = 12.26$
SD= 3.14	SD= 3.02

Table 21 reveals that, on the basis of family income girls have higher self acceptance ($x=12.26$) than the boys ($x=11.68$)

Table 22: Mean and standard deviation of self acceptance scores of non slum children according to family income

8001-15000	15001-25000	Above 25000
$\bar{X} = 7.96$	$\bar{X} = 12.07$	$\bar{X} = 16.95$
SD= 0.84	SD= 0.80	SD= 0.84

Table 22 reveals that self acceptance increases on the basis of family income.

Table 23: Mean and Standard deviation of self acceptance scores according to gender and family income

Gender income	Boys	Girls
8001-15000	$\bar{X} = 7.93$ SD= 0.88	$\bar{X} = 8.00$ SD= 0.82
15001-25000	$\bar{X} = 12.08$ SD= 0.85	$\bar{X} = 12.07$ SD= 0.79
Above 25000	$\bar{X} = 16.78$ SD= 0.83	$\bar{X} = 17.10$ SD= 0.88

Table 23 reveals that girls of high income family have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 17.10$) on the other hand boys of low income family have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 7.93$).

Family Member

Table 24: Summary of ANOVA of self acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls according to family member

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	0.007	1	0.007	0.010	.01
Family member	602.683	2	301.342	432.530	.01
Gen X fam mem.	0.265	2	0.133	0.190	.02
Error	65.489	94	0.697		
Total	15418.00	100			

Table 24 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F= 0.010, df= 1,94; P \leq 0.01$) and family member ($F= 432.530; df= 2,94; P \leq 0.01$) are significant. It indicates that non-slum boys and girls vary in self-acceptance. The result also indicates significant interaction between gender and family member. ($F= 0.190; df= 2,94; P \leq 0.05$).

Table 25: Mean and standard deviation of self acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 12.18$	$\bar{X} = 11.00$
SD= 2.50	SD= 2.78

Table 25 reveals that, on the basis of family member boys have higher self acceptance ($x=12.18$) than the girls($x=11.00$).

Table 26: Mean and standard deviation of self acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls according to family member

4 or below 4	5-6	Above 6
$\bar{X} = 11.99$	$\bar{X} = 15.50$	$\bar{X} = 9.50$
SD= 0.821	SD= 0.86	SD= 1.79

Table 26 reveals that, the children of 5-6 family member have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X}=15.50$) and children of above 6 family member have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X}=9.50$) than the others.

Table 27: Mean and standard deviation of self acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls according to family member and gender

	Boys	Girls
4 or below 4	$\bar{X} = 11.91$ SD= 8.43	$\bar{X} = 12.07$ SD= 0.799
5-6	$\bar{X} = 16.00$ SD= 0.943	$\bar{X} = 15.00$ SD= 0.775
Above 6	$\bar{X} = 8.00$ SD= 0.816	$\bar{X} = 11$ SD= 2.765

Table 27 reveals that sons of 5-6 family members have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X}=16.00$) on the other hand sons of above 6 family member have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X}=8.00$).

Education of Father

Table 28: Summary of ANOVA of self-acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls according to education of father

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	5.284	1	5.284	0.391	0.05
Fath_Edu	518.683	3	172.894	12.79	0.01
Fath_Edu X gender	66.785	3	22.262	1.647	0.04
Error	1243.626	92	13.518		
Total	20554.00	100			

Table 28 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F = 0.391$, $df = 1, 92$; $P \leq 0.05$) and education of father ($F = 12.790$; $df = 3, 92$; $P \leq 0.01$) are significant. It indicates that non-slum boys and girls vary in self-acceptance. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and education of father ($F = 1.647$; $df = 3, 92$; $P \leq 0.05$).

Table 29: Mean & Std. of self acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls:

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 14.06$	$\bar{X} = 13.30$
SD= 0.087	SD= 0.27

Table 29 reveals that boys have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 14.06$) than the boys ($\bar{X} = 13.30$)

Table 30: Mean & Std. of self acceptance scores of non slum children according to education of father

Class 1-8	SSC	HSC	Graduate or above
$\bar{X}=8.44$	$\bar{X}=11$	$\bar{X}=13.96$	$\bar{X}=15.28$
SD= 0.527	SD= 0.845	SD= 0.824	SD= 0.67

Table 30 reveals that on the basis father's education children of graduate or above educated father have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X}=15.28$) on the other hand children of 1-8 class educated father have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X}=8.44$).

Table 31: Mean & Std of self acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls according to gender and education of father

	Boys	Girls
Class 1-8	$\bar{X}=8.40$ SD= 0.548	$\bar{X}=8.50$ SD= 0.58
SSC	$\bar{X}=10.89$ SD= 0.93	$\bar{X}=11.17$ SD= 0.75
HSC	$\bar{X}=13.81$ SD= 0.83	$\bar{X}=14.20$ SD= 0.79
Graduate or above	$\bar{X}=17.10$ SD= 0.79	$\bar{X}=14.07$ SD= 0.45

Table 31 reveals that higher educated father's sons have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X}=17.10$) than the others, on the other hand lower educated father's sons have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X}=8.40$).

Education of Mother

Table 32: Summary of ANOVA of self-acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls according to education of mother

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	17.549	1	17.549	2.301	0.03
Mother_Edu	1121.051	3	373.684	48.993	0.01
Moth_Edu * gender	75.635	3	25.212	3.305	0.02
Error	701.716	92	7.627		
Total	24039.00	100			

Table 32 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F= 2.301$, $df= 1, 92$; $P \leq 0.05$) and mother education ($F= 48.993$; $df= 3, 92$; $P \leq 0.01$) are significant. It indicates that non-slum boys and girls vary in self-acceptance. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and mother education ($F= 3.305$; $df= 3, 92$; $P \leq 0.05$).

Table 33: Mean & Std. of self acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 13.86$	$\bar{X} = 15.84$
SD= .35	SD= .15

Table 33 reveals that girls have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 15.84$) than the boys ($\bar{X} = 13.86$).

Table 34: Mean & Std. of self acceptance scores of non slum children according to education of mother

Class 1-8	SSC	HSC	Graduate or above
$\bar{X}=9.00$	$\bar{X}=11.92$	$\bar{X}=12.23$	$\bar{X}=17.98$
SD= 0.85	SD= 0.865	SD= 0.94	SD= 0.82

Table 34 reveals that on the basis mother's education children of graduate or above educated mother have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X}=17.98$) on the other hand children of 1-8 class educated mother have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X}=9.00$).

Table 35: Mean & Std of self acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls according to gender and education of mother

	Boys	Girls
Class 1-8	$\bar{X}=9.14$ SD= 0.900	$\bar{X}=8.80$ SD= 0.84
SSC	$\bar{X}=11.75$ SD= 0.87	$\bar{X}=12.20$ SD= 0.84
HSC	$\bar{X}=10.54$ SD= 7.34	$\bar{X}=14.67$ SD= 0.71
Graduate or above	$\bar{X}=18.09$ SD= 0.81	$\bar{X}=17.90$ SD= 0.83

Table 35 reveals that higher educated mother's sons have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X}=18.09$), on the other hand lower educated mother's daughters have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X}=8.80$) than the others.

Birth Order

Table 36: Summary of ANOVA of self-acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls according to birth order

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	0.092	1	0.092	0.132	0.718
Birth order	1453.476	2	26.738	1035.862	0.62
Birth order*gender	0.871	2	0.436	0.621	0.540
Error	65.948	94	0.702		
Total	13633.00	100			

Table 36 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F = 0.132, df = 1, 94$;) and birth order ($F = 1035.862, df = 2, 94$;) are not significant. It indicates that non-slum boys and girls do not vary in self-acceptance.

Occupation of Father

Table 37: Summary of ANOVA of self-acceptance scores of slum boys and girls according to occupation of father

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	717.132	2	358.566	154.078	0.01
Occu of Father	0.270	1	0.270	0.116	0.03
Occ of Father*gender	0.583	2	0.292	0.125	0.05
Error	218.754	94	2.327		
Total	17488.00	100			

Table 37 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F= 154.078$, $df= 2, 94$; $P\leq 0.01$) and occupation of father ($F= 0.116$; $df= 1, 94$; $P\leq 0.05$) are significant. It indicates that slum boys and girls vary in self-acceptance. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and occupation of father ($F= 0.125$; $df= 2, 94$; $P\leq 0.05$)

Table 38: Mean & Std. of self acceptance scores of slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 12.66$	$\bar{X} = 13.06$
SD= 3.19	SD= 3.03

Table 38 reveals that girls have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 13.06$) than the boys ($\bar{X} = 12.66$).

Table 39: Mean & Std. of self acceptance scores of slum children according to occupation of father:

Businessman	$\bar{X} = 13.41$ SD= 1.513
Service Holder	$\bar{X} = 16.95$ SD= 1.468
Worker	$\bar{X} = 9.35$ SD= 1.518

Table 39 reveals that on the basis father's occupation service holder's children have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 16.95$) and workers' children have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 9.35$).

Table 40: Mean & Std of self acceptance scores of slum boys and girls according to gender and occupation of father

	Boys	Girls
Businessman	$\bar{X} = 13.57$ SD= 1.532	$\bar{X} = 13.27$ SD= 1.511
Service Holder	$\bar{X} = 17$ SD= 1.5	$\bar{X} = 16.91$ SD= 1.514
Worker	$\bar{X} = 9.33$ SD= 1.534	$\bar{X} = 9.38$ SD= 1.557

Table 40 reveals that service holders' sons have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X}=17.00$) than the others, on the otherhand workers' sons have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X}=9.33$).

Occupation of Mother

Table 41: Summary of ANOVA of S.A. scores of slum boys and girls according to occupation of mother

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Moth_Occp	0.994	1	0.994	1.401	0.240
Gender	60.698	1	60.698	85.564	0.38
Moth_Occp * gender	0.814	1	0.814	1.147	0.287
Error	68.102	96	0.709		
Total	13015.00	100			

Table 41 reveals that the main effects of mother's occupation ($F= 1.401$, $df=1, 96$; $P \leq 0.01$) and gender ($F= 85.564$; $df=1, 96$; $P \leq 0.01$) are not significant. It indicates that slum boys and girls do not vary in self-acceptance.

Family Income

Table 42: Summary of ANOVA of self acceptance score of slum boys and girls according to family income

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	0.992	1	0.922	0.502	.04
Family incm	60.080	2	30.040	16.355	.01
Gender * family	0.559	2	0.279	0.152	.03
income	172.652	94	1.837		
Error	15485.00	100			
Total					

Table 42 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F= 0.502$; $df= 1, 94$; $P\leq 0.05$) and income ($F=16.355$; $df= 1, 94$; $P\leq 0.01$) are found to be significant. It indicates that slum boys and girls do not vary in self-acceptance. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and family income ($F= 0.152$; $df= 1, 94$; $P\leq 0.05$).

Table 43: Mean and standard deviation of self acceptance scores of slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 11.43$	$\bar{X} = 12.36$
SD= 1.437	SD= 1.638

Table 43 reveals that, on the basis of family income girls have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X}=12.36$) than the boys ($\bar{X}=11.43$).

Table 44: Mean and standard deviation of self acceptance scores of slum children according to family income

2001-4000	$\bar{X} = 11.64$ SD=2.25
4001-6000	$\bar{X} = 12.00$ SD= 0.00
6001-8000	$\bar{X} = 13.50$ SD=1.14

Table 44 reveals that self acceptance increases on the basis of family income.

Table 45: Mean and Standard deviation of self acceptance scores of slum children according to gender and family income

Gender income	Boys	Girls
2001-4000	$\bar{X} = 11.50$ SD=2.28	$\bar{X} = 11.75$ SD=2.26
4001-6000	$\bar{X} = 12.00$ SD=0.00	$\bar{X} = 12.00$ SD=0.00
6001-8000	$\bar{X} = 13.35$ SD=0.97	$\bar{X} = 13.69$ SD=1.32

Table 45 reveals that girls of high income family have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 13.69$) on the other hand boys of low income family have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 11.50$)

Family Member

Table 46: Summary of ANOVA of self acceptance scores of slum boys and girls according to family member

Source of variance (SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	0.328	1	0.328	0.499	0.482
Family member	804.795	3	268.265	408.212	0.550
Gen X fam mem.	1.643	3	0.548	0.834	0.479
Error	60.460	92	0.657		
Total	22003.00	100			

Table 46 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F = 0.499$, $df = 1, 92$) and family member ($F = 408.212$; $df = 3, 92$;) are not significant. It indicates that slum boys and girls do not vary in self-acceptance.

Education of Father

Table 47: Summary of ANOVA of self-acceptance scores of slum boys and girls according to education of father

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	Df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	0.048	1	0.048	0.424	0.05
Fath_Edu	33.459	3	11.153	98.330	0.01
Fath_Edu * gender	1.122	3	0.374	3.298	0.02
Error	10.435	92	0.113		
Total	18351.00	100			

Table 47 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F= 0.424$, $df= 1, 92$; $P\leq 0.05$) and education of father ($F= 98.330$; $df= 3, 92$; $P\leq 0.01$) are significant. It indicates that slum boys and girls vary in self-acceptance. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and education of father ($F= 3.298$; $df= 3, 92$; $P\leq 0.05$).

Table 48: Mean & Std. of self acceptance scores of slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 13.60$	$\bar{X} = 14.46$
SD=0.639	SD= 0.706

Table 48 reveals that girls have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X}=14.46$) than the boys ($\bar{X} = 13.60$)

Table 49: Mean & Std. of self acceptance scores of slum children according to education of father

Illiterate	$\bar{X}=13.00$ SD= 0.00
Class 1-5	$\bar{X}=13.71$ SD=0.460
Class 6-8	$\bar{X}=13.50$ SD=0.00
Above class 9	$\bar{X}=14.63$ SD= 0.50

Table 49 reveals that on the basis father's education children of above class 9 educated father have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X}=14.63$) on the other hand children of illiterate father have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X}=13.00$).

Table 50: Mean & Std of self acceptance scores of slum boys and girls according to gender and education of father

	Boys	Girls
Illiterate	$\bar{X} = 12.50$ SD=0.00	$\bar{X} = 13.50$ SD=0.00
Class 1-5	$\bar{X} = 13.81$ SD=0.402	$\bar{X} = 13.59$ SD=0.507
Class 6-8	$\bar{X} = 13.00$ SD=0.00	$\bar{X} = 14.00$ SD=0.00
Above class 9	$\bar{X} = 14.44$ SD= 0.527	$\bar{X} = 14.86$ SD=0..378

Table 50 reveals that daughters of above class 9 educated fathers have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 14.86$). On the other hand sons of illiterate fathers have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 12.50$).

Education of Mother

Table 51: Summary of ANOVA of self-acceptance scores of slum boys and girls according to education of mother

Source of variance(SV)	SumOf squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	1.110	1	1.110	1.637	0.02
Mother_Edu	150.373	3	50.124	73.937	0.01
Moth_Edu * gender	18.854	3	6.285	9.270	0.01.
Error	62.370	92	0.678		
Total	17016.00	100			

Table 51 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F=1.637$; $df= 1, 92$; $P\leq 0.05$) and mother education ($F=73.937$; $df= 3, 92$; $P\leq 0.01$) are significant. It indicates that slum boys and girls vary in self-acceptance. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and mother education ($F= 9.270$; $df= 3, 92$; $P\leq 0.01$).

Table 52: Mean & Std. of self acceptance scores of slum boys and girls:

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 12.90$	$\bar{X} = 13.02$
SD= 1.474	SD=1.518

Table 52 reveals that girls have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 13.02$) than the boys ($\bar{X} = 12.90$).

Table 53: Mean & Std. of self acceptance scores of slum children according to education of mother

Illiterate	$\bar{X} = 12.00$ SD=0.00
Class 1-5	$\bar{X} = 14.40$ SD=1.22
Class 6-8	$\bar{X} = 14.60$ SD=.60
Above class 9	$\bar{X} = 15.00$ SD= 0.82

Table 53 reveals that on the basis mother's education children of above class 9 educated mother have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 15.00$) on the other hand children of illiterate mother have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 12.00$).

Table 54: Mean & Std of self acceptance scores of slum boys and girls according to gender and education of mother

	Boys	Girls
Illiterate	$\bar{X}=11.50$ SD=0.00	$\bar{X}=11.50$ SD=0.00
Class 1-5	$\bar{X}=13.94$ SD=1.478	$\bar{X}=15.00$ SD=0.00
Class 6-8	$\bar{X}=12$ SD=0.00	$\bar{X}=12.25$ SD=0.00
Above class 9	$\bar{X}=16.00$ SD=0.00	$\bar{X}=13.71$ SD=2.138

Table 54 reveals that sons of above class 9 educated mother have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X}=16.00$), on the other hand daughters of illiterate mother have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X}=11.00$) than the others.

Birth Order

Table 55: Summary of ANOVA of self-acceptance scores of slum boys and girls according to birth order

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	Df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	2.183	1	2.183	0.934	0.03
Birth order	729.299	2	364.650	156.023	0.01
Birth order * gender	27.788	2	13.894	5.945	0.004
Error	219.692	94	2.337		
Total	19808.00	100			

Table 55 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F= 0.132, df= 1, 94;$) and birth order ($F= 1035.862; df= 2, 94;$) are not significant. It indicates that slum boys and girls do not vary in self-acceptance.

3.2 RESULTS ON MORAL VALUES

In order to find out whether moral values vary between slum and non slum boys & girls the obtained scores were analyzed by 2x2 analysis of variance. The results of ANOVA are shown in table 56.

Table 56: Summary of ANOVA of moral values scores of slum and non slum boys and girls

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	Df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	2686.445	1	2686.445	49.468	.01
Type	70.805	1	70.805	1.304	.02
Gender*type	383.645	1	383.645	7.064	.01
Error	10644.100	196	54.307		
Total	489195.00	200			

Table 56 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F = 49.468$; $df = 1, 196$; $P \leq 0.01$) and type of respondents ($F = 1.304$; $df = 1, 196$; $P \leq 0.05$) were found to be significant. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and type of respondents ($F = 7.064$; $df = 1, 196$; $P \leq 0.01$).

Table 57: Mean and Standard deviation of respondents' moral development scores as a function of gender

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 49.35$	$\bar{X} = 48.16$
SD=8.450	SD=8.193

Table 57 reveals that boys have higher moral development scores than the girls.

Table 58: Mean & Standard deviation of respondents M.D. scores as a function of type of respondents

Slum	Non Slum
$\bar{X} = 45.09$	$\bar{X} = 52.42$
SD= 7.656	SD=7.314

Table 58 indicates that Non-slum children have higher M.D. than the slum children.

Table 59: Mean and standard deviation of M.D. scores according to gender and type of respondents

	Slum	Non Slum
Boys	$\bar{X} = 44.30$ SD= 7.346	$\bar{X} = 45.88$ SD=7.948
Girls	$\bar{X} = 54.40$ SD=6.184	$\bar{X} = 50.44$ SD=7.864

Table 59 reveals that non slum girls have high moral development scores ($\bar{X} = 50.44$) on the other hand slum boys have lowest moral development scores ($\bar{X} = 44.30$).

The data of the study was then analyzed to find whether there exists any correlation for self acceptance between slum and non slum children considering the factors: occupation of father, occupation of mother, family income, education of father, education of mother, birth order, and family member. Following is the result of the analysis:

Table 60: Correlation between moral values of non-slum and slum children and it's different factors

Factors of Self Acceptance	r*		p	
	Non-slum	Slum	Non-slum	Slum
Father's Occupation	-0.205	-0.195	0.076	0.058
Mother's Occupation	0.063	0.055	0.086	0.091
Family Income	0.085	0.201	0.072	0.68
Family Member	-0.132	-0.125	0.390	0.425
Father's Education	0.053	0.076	0.066	0.079
Mother's Education	-0.110	-0.085	0.032	0.0498
Birth Order	-0.235	-0.208	0.670	0.789

* $\alpha = 0.05$ and d.f. = 100

Table 60 shows that a significant negative correlation was found for all the factors of moral values. Thus, to know the influence of occupation of father, occupation of mother, family income, education of father, education of mother, birth order, family member on moral values both for slum and non slum children further statistical analysis were done. The results are shown gradually in the following table:

Occupation of Father

Table 61: Summary of ANOVA of M.D. scores of non slum boys and girls according to occupation of father

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	180.089	1	180.089	11.717	.01
Fath_Occp	1861.628	3	620.543	40.375	.01
Fath_Occp * gender	281.169	3	93.723	6.098	.01
Error	1413.980	92	15.369		
Total	512931.00	100			

Table 61 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F= 11.717$; $df= 1, 92$; $P \leq 0.01$) and father occupation ($F= 40.375$; $df= 3, 92$; $P \leq 0.01$) were found to be significant. It indicates that non-slum boys and girls vary in moral values. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and father's occupation ($F= 6.098$; $df= 2, 92$; $P \leq 0.01$).

Table 62: Mean & Std. of moral values scores of non slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 71.92$	$\bar{X} = 70.78$
SD= 5.671	SD= 6.762

Table 62 reveals that boys have higher M.D. ($\bar{X} = 71.92$) than the girls ($\bar{X} = 70.78$).

Table 63: Mean & Std. of moral values scores of non slum children according to occupation of father:

Businessman	$\bar{X} = 67.82$ SD= 2.539
Govt. Employee	$\bar{X} = 74.48$ SD= 1.122
Private service holder	$\bar{X} = 63.21$ SD= 10.497
Teacher	$\bar{X} = 75.55$ SD= 2.197

Table 63 reveals that on the basis father's occupation teacher's children have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 75.55$) and private service holders' children have lower moral values ($\bar{X} = 63.21$).

Table 64: Mean & Std of moral values scores of non slum boys and girls according to gender and occupation of father

	Boys	Girls
Businessman	$\bar{X} = 67.72$ SD= 2.824	$\bar{X} = 68$ SD= 2.055
Govt. Employee	$\bar{X} = 74.75$ SD= 1.138	$\bar{X} = 74.29$ SD= 1.105
Private Service Holder	$\bar{X} = 69$ SD= 11.419	$\bar{X} = 58.88$ SD= 7.827
Teacher	$\bar{X} = 76.14$ SD= 2.143	$\bar{X} = 75$ SD= 2.171

Table 64 reveals that teacher's sons have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 76.14$) than the others, on the otherhand private service holders' daughters have lower moral values ($\bar{X} = 58.88$).

Occupation of Mother

Table 65: Summary of ANOVA of M.D. scores of non slum boys and girls according to occupation of mother

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Moth_Occp	2474.690	1	2474.690	8.066	.006
Gender	4042.583	2	2021.292	6.589	.002
Moth_Occp X gender	5174.169	2	2587.084	8.433	.01
Error	28838.26	94			
Total	404274.3	100			

Table 65 reveals that the main effects of mother occupation ($F = 202.825, df = 3, 94; P \leq 0.01$) and gender ($F = 8.101, df = 1, 94; P \leq 0.05$) are significant. It indicates that non-slum boys and girls vary in moral values. Results also indicate significant interaction effect between mother occupation and gender ($F = 3.948, df = 3, 94; P \leq 0.01$) are also significant.

Table 66: Mean and Standard deviation of M.D. of non slum children according to gender

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 53.34$	$\bar{X} = 66.82$
SD= 27.58	SD= 5.532

Table 66 reveals that girls have more moral values than the boys.

Table 67: Mean and Standard deviation of moral values scores of non slum children according to occupation of mother

House wife	$\bar{X} = 50.31$ SD= 31.808
Other service holder	$\bar{X} = 62.49$ SD= 5.301
Teacher	$\bar{X} = 70.4$ SD= 4.592

Table 67 reveals that teachers' children have highest moral values score ($\bar{X} = 70.4$) and housewife's children have lowest self acceptance score ($\bar{X} = 50.31$).

Table 68: Mean and Standard deviation of M.D. of non slum children according to different level of mother occupation and gender

	Boys	Girls
House Wife	$\bar{X} = 38.32$ SD= 35.897	$\bar{X} = 69.14$ SD= 4.13
Teacher	$\bar{X} = 71.00$ SD= 5.207	$\bar{X} = 70$ SD= 4.276
Other Service Holder	$\bar{X} = 61.89$ SD= 5.779	$\bar{X} = 63$ SD= 4.94

Table 68 shows that sons of teachers have more moral values ($\bar{X} = 71$) and sons of housewives have less moral values ($\bar{X} = 38.32$) than the others.

Family Income

Table 69: Summary of ANOVA of M.D. score of non slum boys and girls according to family income

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	Df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	3320.043	1	3320.043	7.775	.006
Family incm	3942.638	2	1971.319	4.617	.012
Gen X fam incm.	4297.523	2	2148.762	5.032	.008
Error	40137.268	94	426.992		
Total	508329	100			

Table 69 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F = 7.775, df = 1, 94; P \leq 0.05$) and income ($F = 1971.319; df = 1, 94; P \leq 0.05$) are found to be significant. It indicates that non-slum boys and girls vary in moral values. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and family income ($F = ; df = 1, 94; P \leq 0.05$).

Table 70: Mean and standard deviation of moral values scores of non slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 58.5$	$\bar{X} = 75.96$
SD= 31.446	SD= 2.33

Table 70 reveals that, on the basis of family income girls have higher moral values score ($\bar{X} = 75.96$) than the boys ($\bar{X} = 58.5$).

Table 71: Mean and standard deviation of moral values scores of non slum children according to family income

8001-15000	$\bar{X} = 73$ SD= .01
15001-25000	$\bar{X} = 62.07$ SD= 29.234
Above 25000	$\bar{X} = 74.84$ SD= 18.124

Table 71 reveals that moral value is high for the highest income group.

Table 72: Mean and Standard deviation of moral values scores of non slum children according to gender and family income

Income \ Gender	Boys	Girls
8001-15000	$\bar{X} = 46.08$ SD= .01	$\bar{X} = 73$ SD= .01
15001-25000	$\bar{X} = 73$ SD= 37.15	$\bar{X} = 75.93$ SD= 1.721
Above 25000	$\bar{X} = 70.22$ SD= 26.33	$\bar{X} = 79$ SD= .01

Table 72 reveals that daughters of high income family have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 79$), on the other hand sons of low income family have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 46.08$).

Family Member

Table 73: Summary of ANOVA of moral values scores of non slum boys and girls according to family member

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	2631	1	2843	5.010	.01
Family member	3626.5	2	2384.26	8.530	.01
Gen * fam mem.	4788.74	2	4265	6.190	.02
Error	472163	94	398		
Total	50418.00	100			

Table 73 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F= 5.01, df= 1,94; P \leq 0.01$) and family member ($F= 8.53; df= 2,94; P \leq 0.01$) are significant. It indicates that non-slum boys and girls vary in moral values. The result also indicates significant interaction between gender and family member. ($F= 6.19; df= 2,94; P \leq 0.05$).

Table 74: Mean and standard deviation of moral values scores of non slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 64$	$\bar{X} = 55.36$
SD= 2.8	SD= 2.86

Table 74 reveals that, on the basis of family member boys have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 64$) than the girls ($\bar{X} = 55.36$).

Table 75: Mean and standard deviation of moral values scores of non slum boys and girls according to family member

4 or below 4	$\bar{X} = 58.2$ SD= 0.83
5-6	$\bar{X} = 71.6$ SD= 0.84
Above 6	$\bar{X} = 49.24$ SD= 0.8

Table 75 reveals that, the children of 5-6 family member have higher moral values scores ($\bar{X} = 71.6$) and children of above 6 family member have lower moral values scores ($\bar{X} = 49.24$) than the others.

Table 76: Mean and standard deviation of moral values scores of non slum boys and girls according to family member and gender

	Boys	Girls
4 or below 4	$\bar{X} = 60.8$ SD= 2.73	$\bar{X} = 55.6$ SD= .85
5-6	$\bar{X} = 72.9$ SD= 0.78	$\bar{X} = 70.3$ SD= 0.9
Above 6	$\bar{X} = 58.3$ SD= 0.86	$\bar{X} = 40.18$ SD= 0.8

Table 76 reveals that sons of 5-6 family members have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 72.9$) on the other hand sons of above 6 family member have lower moral values ($\bar{X} = 58.3$).

Education of Father

Table 77: Summary of ANOVA of moral values scores of non slum boys and girls according to education of father

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	Df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	486.66	1	486.66	3.156	.05
Fath_Edu	2621.86	3	873.953	5.668	.01
Fath_Edu * gender	2112.069	3	704.023	4.566	.01
Error	14186.26	92	154.198		
Total	409638	100			

Table 77 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F = 3.156$, $df=1, 92$, $P \leq 0.05$) and education of father ($F = 5.668$; $df= 3, 92$; $P \leq 0.01$) are significant. It indicates that non-slum boys and girls vary in moral values. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and education of father ($F = 4.566$; $df= 3, 92$; $P \leq 0.01$)

Table 78: Mean & Std. of moral values scores of non slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 58.88$	$\bar{X} = 65.84$
SD= 19.89	SD= 1.833

Table 78 reveals that girls have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 65.84$) than the boys ($\bar{X} = 58.88$).

Table 79: Mean & Std. of moral values scores of non slum children according to education of father

Class 1-8	$\bar{X} = 52$ SD= 0.001
SSC	$\bar{X} = 63.93$ SD= 1.033
HSC	$\bar{X} = 63$ SD= 26.536
Graduate or above	$\bar{X} = 66.86$ SD= 1.327

Table 79 reveals that on the basis father's education children of graduate or above educated father have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 66.86$) on the other hand children of 1-8 class educated father have lower moral values ($\bar{X} = 52$).

Table 80: Mean & Std of self acceptance scores of non slum boys and girls according to gender and education of father

	Boys	Girls
Class 1-8	$\bar{X} = 43.33$ SD= .01	$\bar{X} = 65$ SD= .01
SSC	$\bar{X} = 63.89$ SD=1.054	$\bar{X} = 64$ SD= 1.095
HSC	$\bar{X} = 63$ SD= 31.717	$\bar{X} = 63$ SD= .01
Graduate or above	$\bar{X} = 66.87$ SD= 1.014	$\bar{X} = 66.86$ SD= 1.525

Table 80 reveals that boys of higher educated father have higher moral values scores ($\bar{X} = 66.87$) than the others, on the other hand boys of lower educated father have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 43.33$).

Education of Mother

Table 81: Summary of ANOVA of moral values scores of non slum boys and girls according to education of mother

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	1273.1	1	1273.1	8.479	.05
Mother_Edu	5585.122	3	1861.707	12.398	.01
Moth_Edu X gender	5140.868	3	1713.623	11.412	.01
Error	13814.34	92	150.156		
Total	397275	100			

Table 81 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F = 8.479$, $df = 1, 92$; $P \leq 0.05$) and mother education ($F = 12.398$; $df = 3, 92$; $P \leq 0.01$) are significant. It indicates that non-slum boys and girls vary in moral values. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and mother education ($F = 11.412$; $df = 3, 92$; $P \leq 0.01$).

Table 82: Mean & Std. of moral values scores of non slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 56.02$	$\bar{X} = 65.48$
SD= 22.931	SD= 2.102

Table 82 reveals that girls have higher MD scores ($\bar{X} = 65.48$) than the boys ($\bar{X} = 56.02$).

Table 83: Mean & Std. of MD scores of non slum children according to education of mother

Class 1-8	$\bar{X} = 62$ SD = .001
SSC	$\bar{X} = 63.38$ SD = 1.557
HSC	$\bar{X} = 44.32$ SD = 30.988
Graduate or above	$\bar{X} = 66.64$ SD = 1.618

Table 83 reveals that on the basis mother's education children of graduate or above educated mother have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 66.64$) than others.

Table 84: Mean & Std of MD scores of non slum boys and girls according to gender and education of mother

	Boys	Girls
Class 1-8	$\bar{X} = 62$ SD = 0.001	$\bar{X} = 62$ SD = .001
SSC	$\bar{X} = 63.5$ SD = 1.604	$\bar{X} = 63.2$ SD = 1.643
HSC	$\bar{X} = 30$ SD = 33.727	$\bar{X} = 65.00$ SD = .0001
Graduate or above	$\bar{X} = 66.77$ SD = 1.602	$\bar{X} = 65.48$ SD = 2.102

Table 84 reveals that sons of higher educated mother have higher MD ($\bar{X} = 66.77$), on the other hand sons of HSC educated mother have lower moral values ($\bar{X} = 8.80$) than the others.

Birth Order

Table 85: Summary of ANOVA of moral values scores of non slum boys and girls according to birth order

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	1398.284	1	1398.284	4.645	0.56
Birth order	4577.107	2	2288.553	7.603	0.62
Birth order*gender	2619.068	2	1309.534	4.35	0.81
Error	28295.612	94	301.017		
Total	532785	100			

Table 85 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F = 0.56$, $df = 1, 94$) and birth order ($F = 7.603$; $df = 2, 94$) are not significant. It indicates that non-slum boys and girls do not vary in moral values.

Occupation of Father

Table 86: Summary of ANOVA of M.D. scores of slum boys and girls according to occupation of father

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	30120.566	1	30120.566	6.381	.013
Occu of Father	6026.298	2	3013.149	0.638	.05
Occ of Father*gender	27736.612	2	13868.306	2.938	.05
Error	443689.038	94	4720.096		
Total	696603	100			

Table 86 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F = 6.381$, $df = 1, 94$; $P \leq 0.05$) and occupation of father ($F = 0.638$; $df = 2, 94$; $P \leq 0.05$) are significant. It indicates that slum boys and girls vary in moral values. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and occupation of father ($F = 2.938$; $df = 2, 94$; $P \leq 0.05$).

Table 87: Mean & Std. of moral values scores of slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 24.86$	$\bar{X} = 61.08$
SD= 26.93	SD= 95.151

Table 87 reveals that girls have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 61.08$) than the boys ($\bar{X} = 24.86$).

Table 88: Mean & Std. of M.D. scores of slum children according to occupation of father

Businessman	$\bar{X} = 41.34$ SD= 22.363
Service Holder	$\bar{X} = 54.12$ SD= 109.226
Worker	$\bar{X} = 33.35$ SD= 53.741

Table 88 reveals that on the basis father's occupation service holder's children have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 54.12$) and workers' children have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 33.35$).

Table 89: Mean & Std of moral values scores of slum boys and girls according to gender and occupation of father

	Boys	Girls
Businessman	$\bar{X} = 35.17$ SD= 16.732	$\bar{X} = 45.05$ SD= 24.806
Service Holder	$\bar{X} = 86.42$ SD= 137.97	$\bar{X} = 13.2$ SD= 20.888
Worker	$\bar{X} = 52.11$ SD= 65.026	$\bar{X} = 9.6$ SD= 17.012

Table 89 reveals that service holders' sons have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 86.42$) than the others, on the other hand workers' daughters have lower moral values ($\bar{X} = 9.6$).

Occupation of Mother

Table 90: Summary of ANOVA of M.D. scores of slum boys and girls according to occupation of mother

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	4.899	1	4.899	1.168	0.028
Moth_Occp	2224.478	2	1112.239	265.111	0.01
Moth_Occp * gender	26.846	2	13.423	3.199	0.045
Error	394.365	94	4.195		
Total	315014				

Table 90 reveals that the main effects of mother's occupation ($F= 265.111$, $df=2, 94$; $P \leq 0.05$) and gender ($F= 1.168$; $df= 1, 96$; $P \leq 0.01$) are significant. It indicates that slum boys and girls vary in moral values. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and occupation of mother ($F= 3.199$; $df= 2, 94$; $P \leq 0.05$).

Table 91: Mean & Std. of moral values scores of slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 56.72$	$\bar{X} = 55.04$
SD= 5.714	SD= 4.708

Table 91 reveals that boys have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 56.72$) than the girls ($\bar{X} = 55.04$).

Table 92: Mean & Std. of M.D. scores of slum children according to occupation of mother

Housewife	$\bar{X} = 62.46$ SD= 1.401
Worker	$\bar{X} = 50.79$ SD= 2.543
Maid Servent	$\bar{X} = 56.87$ SD= 1.907

Table 92 reveals that on the basis mother's occupation housewife's children have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 62.46$) and workers' children have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 50.79$).

Table 93: Mean & Std of moral values scores of slum boys and girls according to gender and occupation of mother

	Boys	Girls
Housewife	$\bar{X} = 62.61$ SD= 1.335	$\bar{X} = 62.2$ SD= 1.549
Worker	$\bar{X} = 50.37$ SD= 2.813	$\bar{X} = 51.13$ SD= 2.302
Maid Servent	$\bar{X} = 57.85$ SD= 1.281	$\bar{X} = 56.12$ SD= 1.996

Table 93 reveals that housewife's sons have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 62.61$) than the others, on the other hand workers' sons have lower moral values ($\bar{X} = 50.37$).

Family Income

Table 94: Summary of ANOVA of M.D. score of slum boys and girls according to family income

Source of variance (SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	461.677	1	461.677	21.11	0.01
Family incm	794.69	2	397.345	18.168	0.01
Gender * family income	592.68	2	296.34	13.55	0.01
Error	2055.834	94	21.871		
Total	308806	100			

Table 94 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F = 21.11$; $df = 1, 94$; $P \leq 0.01$) and income ($F = 18.168$; $df = 2, 94$; $P \leq 0.01$) are found to be significant. It indicates that slum boys and girls vary in moral values. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and family income ($F = 13.55$; $df = 2, 94$; $P \leq 0.01$).

Table 95: Mean and standard deviation of M.D. scores of slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 56.5$	$\bar{X} = 53.98$
SD= 5.556	SD= 6.371

Table 95 reveals that, on the basis of family income boys have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 56.5$) than the girls ($\bar{X} = 53.98$).

Table 96: Mean and standard deviation of moral values scores of slum children according to family income

2001-4000	$\bar{X} = 52.24$ SD= 10.127
4001-6000	$\bar{X} = 56.72$ SD= 4.722
6001-8000	$\bar{X} = 59.3$ SD= 3.091

Table 96 reveals that self acceptance increases on the basis of family income.

Table 97: Mean and Standard deviation of moral values scores of slum children according to gender and family income

Gender income	Boys	Girls
2001-4000	$\bar{X} = 52.93$ SD= 3.691	$\bar{X} = 52.59$ SD= 2.374
4001-6000	$\bar{X} = 59.75$ SD=4.901	$\bar{X} = 49.38$ SD= 11.6
6001-8000	$\bar{X} = 62.6$ SD=1.647	$\bar{X} = 58.93$ SD= 4.713

Table 97 reveals that sons of high income family have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 62.6$) on the other hand daughters of low income family have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 49.38$).

Family Member

Table 98: Summary of ANOVA of moral values scores of slum boys and girls according to family member

Source of variance (SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	1832.275	1	1832.275	3.148	0.079
Family member	568.241	2	284.121	0.488	0.615
Gen * fam mem.	3483.53	2	174.765	2.993	0.055
Error	54709.03	94	582.011		
Total	263422	100			

Table 98 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F = 0.079$, $df = 1, 94$) and family member ($F = 0.615$; $df = 2, 94$;) are not significant. It indicates that slum boys and girls vary in moral values.

Education of Father

Table 99: Summary of ANOVA of M.D. scores of slum boys and girls according to education of father

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	959.482	1	959.482	4.106	0.046
Fath_ Edu	6283.421	3	2094.474	8.963	0.01
Fath_ Edu * gender	6436.254	3	2145.418	9.181	0.01
Error	21497.822	92	233.672		
Total	187999	100			

Table 99 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F = 4.106$, $df = 1, 92$; $P \leq 0.05$) and education of father ($F = 8.963$; $df = 3, 92$; $P \leq 0.01$) are significant. The result also indicate significant interaction between gender and education of father ($F = 9.181$; $df = 3, 92$; $P \leq 0.01$).

Table 100: Mean & Std. of moral values scores of slum boys and girls

Boys	Girls
$\bar{X} = 32.56$	$\bar{X} = 44.38$
SD= 23.113	SD= 14.524

Table 100 reveals that girls have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 44.38$) than the boys ($\bar{X} = 32.56$)

Table 101: Mean & Std. of M.D. scores of slum children according to education of father

Illiterate	$\bar{X} = 23.27$ SD= 23.987
Class 1-5	$\bar{X} = 45.32$ SD= 14.521
Class 6-8	$\bar{X} = 41.25$ SD= 11.275
Above class 9	$\bar{X} = 47.94$ SD= 14.915

Table 101 reveals that on the basis father's education children of above class 9 educated father have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 47.94$) on the other hand children of illiterate father have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 23.27$).

Table 102: Mean & Std of moral values scores of slum boys and girls according to gender and education of father

	Boys	Girls
Illiterate	$\bar{X} = 10.74$ SD= 16.438	$\bar{X} = 44.91$ SD= 19.201
Class 1-5	$\bar{X} = 45.41$ SD= 14.235	$\bar{X} = 45.24$ SD= 15.099
Class 6-8	$\bar{X} = 43$ SD= 14.56	$\bar{X} = 39.89$ SD= 8.638
Above class 9	$\bar{X} = 50.14$ SD= 18.325	$\bar{X} = 46.22$ SD= 12.558

Table 102 reveals that above class 9 educated father's daughters have higher moral values ($\bar{X} = 50.14$). On the other hand illiterate father's sons have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X} = 10.74$).

Education of Mother

Table 103: Summary of ANOVA of moral development scores of slum boys and girls according to education of mother.

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	489.33	1	489.33	0.815	0.369
Mother_Edu	3499.211	3	1166.404	1.943	0.128
Moth_Edu * gender	4703.012	3	1567.671	2.612	0.056
Error	55226.444	92	600.287		
Total	486653	100			

Table 103 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F=0.369$; $df= 1, 92$; $P \leq 0.05$) and mother education ($F= 0.128$; $df= 3, 92$; $P \leq 0.05$) are not significant. It indicates that slum boys and girls do not vary in moral values.

Birth Order

Table 104: Summary of ANOVA of moral values scores of slum boys and girls according to birth order

Source of variance(SV)	Sum of squares (SS)	df	Mean Square (MS)	F	Sig.
Gender	3814.666	1	3814.666	3.462	0.066
Birth order	1820.942	2	910.471	0.826	0.441
Birth order * gender	6861.502	2	3430.751	3.114	0.056
Error	103578.15	94	1101.895		
Total	411638	100			

Table 104 reveals that the main effect of gender ($F= 3.461$, $df= 1, 94$) and birth order ($F= 0.826$; $df= 2,94$;) are not significant. It indicates that slum boys and girls do not vary in moral values.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 DISCUSSION

The present study is undertaken to investigate the effect of occupation of father, occupation of mother, family income, education of father, education of mother, birth order, family member on self acceptance and moral values both for slum and non slum children. A thorough discussion is presented to evaluate the results.

4.1 SELF ACCEPTANCE

Self acceptance varies between slum and non slum boys & girls as shown in table 7. Table 11 shows that a significant negative correlation was found for all the factors of self acceptance for both non slum and slum children. The following presents a detailed discussion of self acceptance on different family variables/factors for both non slum and slum children:

OCCUPATION OF PARENTS

The result presented in table 12 and 16 shows that parental occupation has significant (for father's occupation; $F = 8.631$; $df = 2, 94$; $P \leq 0.01$) and (for mother's occupation; $F = 202.825$, $df = 3, 92$; $P \leq 0.01$) effect on self acceptance of non slum children. The result presented in table 37 shows father's occupation has significant ($F = 0.116$; $df = 1, 94$; $P \leq 0.05$) impact on the effect on self acceptance of slum children. But table 41 imparts no significance of mother's occupation. The study found that teachers' children were found to have more self acceptance than other professionals in the non slum area whereas the service holders' children were found to have more self acceptance than other professionals in the slum area. In the results, it was found that girls have more self acceptance than the boys.

These findings, except for table 41, are supported by one study by Leung, Salili, and Baber (1986). They found an inter correlation among Chinese adolescents' self-esteem, locus of

control, intelligence, parental occupation and common adolescent problems. In another study on "*The Effects of Father Involvement: A Summary of the Research Evidence*", it was found that boys with mothers employed in low-status occupations tended to have more external control orientations and thus self acceptance than those with mothers employed in high-status occupations. Also, males with mothers in low-status occupations had lower preferences for mathematics subjects than males whose mothers were employed in high-status occupations. Father's occupational status was also found to be associated with self acceptance.

In another study concerned with social adjustment, Rosenberg, Schooler, and Schoenbach (1989) found that high self-esteem adolescents were more likely to perform well in school, not be depressed, and not be socially delinquent. Teasing out the cause and effect relationships between self-esteem and other variables, Rosenberg et al. concluded that (1) low self-esteem fosters delinquency and that particularly in lower socioeconomic groups delinquency fosters higher self-esteem. Young adults who had nurturing and available fathers while growing up are more likely to score high on measures of self acceptance and personal and social adjustment (Fish & Biller, 1973), see themselves as dependable, trusting, practical, and friendly (Biller, 1993), be more likely to succeed in their work, and be mentally healthy (Heath & Heath, 1991). The variable that is most consistently associated with positive life outcomes is the quality of the father child relationship (Amato, 1998; Furstenberg & Harris, 1993; Lamb, 1997). Children are better off when their relationship with their father is secure, supportive, reciprocal, sensitive, close, nurturing, and warm (Biller, 1993; Easterbrooks & Goldberg, 1984; Lamb, 1986, 1997; Radin, 1981).

Parents' occupation provides the children a sense of security, support and well being and thus positive self acceptance may be reflected on the children of both slum and non slum area. Since the slum children are deprived of better living and comfort, and since the occupation of

mother may not have added the financial value of their children's comfort upto a threshold, the significance of mother's occupation on the slum children's self acceptance was absent.

EDUCATION OF PARENTS

The result presented in table 28 and 32 shows that parental occupation has significant (for father's education; ($F= 12.790$; $df= 3, 92$; $P\leq 0.01$) and (for mother's education; ($F= 48.993$; $df= 3, 92$; $P\leq 0.01$) effect on self acceptance of non slum children. The result presented in table 47 shows father's occupation has significant ($F= 98.330$; $df= 3, 92$; $P\leq 0.01$) impact on the effect on self acceptance of slum children as is the case for mother's education ($F=73.937$; $df= 3, 92$; $P\leq 0.01$) in table 51. Moreover, the more years of schooling of parents, the more significant self acceptance is present for both slum and non slum children. In this study, instances were found where boys have more self acceptance than girls and vice versa against the education of parents for both slum and non slum children. But this finding could not be cross-checked following literature review and the findings of other researchers.

One study found that parental education is positively associated with children's grade point averages (Alwin & Thornton, 1984; DiMaggio, 1982). Another study result by Davis-Kean and Pamela E. Davis-Kean, Pamela E. (2005) in her research "The Influence of Parent Education and Family Income on Child Achievement: The Indirect Role of Parental Expectations and the Home Environment", published in Journal of Family Psychology. Vol 19(2), Jun 2005, cited that parents' years of schooling also was found to be an important socioeconomic factor to take into consideration in both policy and research when looking at school-age children's self and moral values. This study examined the process of how socioeconomic status, specifically parents' education and income, indirectly relates to children's academic achievement, self and moral values through parents' beliefs and

behaviors. Data from a national, cross-sectional study of children were used for this study. The subjects were 868 8-12-year-olds, divided approximately equally across gender (436 females, 433 males). This sample was 49% non-Hispanic European American and 47% African American. Using structural equation modeling techniques, the author found that the socioeconomic factors were related indirectly to children's academic achievement, self and moral values through parents' beliefs and behaviors but that the process of these relations was different by racial group.

In our country, it is a common understanding that educated parents can guide their children far better than illiterate parents. In the early years of rearing, informed parents can develop the mental psyche of the children better than the uninformed parents. Urban educated parents are now-a-days very alert and sensitive to rearing their infants and children than ever before. Educated parents have access to information of how to rear and develop the mental health of their children along with looking after the siblings' physical well being. From the day of pregnancy, parents seem to be more conscious for the development of their children. Self acceptance is reared among the children by the educated parents. This event is particularly applicable for the non slum children. Slum children also get a bit of attention by educated parents. Moreover, children also learn from seeing examples. Bandura A. (1971) argued that children learn many things from their model including mothers, fathers, peer group etc. Educated parents may be able to demonstrate high level of self acceptance. Children may immitate and consequently develop their own self acceptance by following their parents. On the other hand, uninformed parents of both slum and non slum do not know much about developing mental health of their children and thus it is not surprising that there lies a significant corelation between the parents' education and self esteem of both slum and non slum children.

BIRTH ORDER

The result presented in table 36 and 55 shows that birth order has no significant relation with children self acceptance for both slum ($F= 1035.862$; $df= 2,94$;) and non slum($F= 1035.862$; $df= 2,94$) children. Denise D. Guastello and Stephen J. Guastello (2002) conducted an experiment on “Birth category effects on Gordon Personal Profile Variables”. They found that there were no significant effects for the personality traits (ascendancy, emotional stability, responsibility, sociability, and self-esteem) across birth order categories for either males or females for differing income groups. Undergraduates ($N = 535$ total) reported whether they were the eldest, middle, or youngest children of their families, only children, or of inconsistent birth order due to parents' remarriage. ANOVA did not support any significant effects for these personality traits across birth order categories for either males or females. It was concluded that the hypothesized differences must be relegated to folklore.

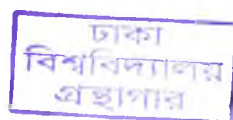
Viktor Gecas and Kay Pasley (1985) in their research “Birth order and self-concept in adolescence” examined the effect of birth order on self-acceptance. The effect of birth order on self-concept was examined in a sample of adolescent boys and girls. Based upon self-theory, which suggests that the two main processes of self-concept formation (e.g., reflected appraisals and social comparisons) are affected by the power and role relationships associated with ordinal position in the family, several hypotheses were tested: (1) The self-evaluations of only and oldest children are more positive than those of younger siblings; (2) middle-borns have the lowest self-evaluations; (3) these relationships are affected by the sex and spacing of nearest sibling; and (4) the self-conceptions of oldest and only children are more similar to those of their parents than the self-conceptions of younger siblings and their parents. Using analysis of variance and several different measures of self-evaluation, very little support was

found for any of these hypotheses. The strongest support was found for the hypothesis on middle-borns, but even these relationships were not large.

The research findings on the relationship between self-esteem and other birth categories have been contradictory. Rosenberg (1965) found that only borns had the highest self-esteem within a predominantly Jewish, male sample. Coopersmith (1967), in a broader study of adolescent boys, found that only and first-born boys were overrepresented in the high self-esteem group. Kaplan (1970) found, however, that last-born males (white, high SES) were more likely to have higher self-esteem than middle, first-born, and only children. Other studies reported the trend of first-borns having higher self-esteem than last-borns (Falbo, 1981; Gates et al., 1988), especially with females (Schwab & Lundgren, 1978). Another study found that first-borns in two-child families had a more positive self-concept when the age gap between the two siblings was small (ten months to two years) (Bloom et al., 1984). Likewise, Howarth (1980) found that, in sibling pairs, the older showed more self-pride than the younger.

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There are some interesting complex effects as well. Self-esteem was reported to be lower among middle-born males than among first-born and last-born males, but self-esteem was enhanced if all other siblings were female (Kidwell, 1982). Kidwell concluded that the middle-born male in this situation enjoyed a uniqueness and special treatment in the family. Lester, Eleftheriou and Peterson (1992) reported an interesting self-esteem finding moderated by sex; last-born females exhibited higher self-esteem while first-born males scored higher on this measure.



Birth order and sibling relations may also be consequential for children's self-esteem. On the basis of both reflected appraisals and social comparisons, we would expect first-borns to have higher self-esteem than later-born children. The greater attention and encouragement from parents should contribute to first-borns' greater sense of worth and importance; and first-borns' typically greater power and competence compared with younger siblings should result in more favorable social comparisons. Research, however, provides only modest (and inconsistent) support for these expectations (Blake 1989). Oldest and only children do seem to have higher self-esteem than later-born children, but the differences are not significant. The effects of birth order may be suppressed or mitigated by the influence of several other features of the sibling system, such as sex composition of the sibling order, child spacing, family size, age and sex of target child, and age and sex of next oldest sibling. Without taking into account the effect of these other variables, the influence of birth order on self-esteem may largely disappear (Gecas and Pasley 1983).

In our country, sometimes parents tend to favor the eldest child or the youngest child in daily interactions. Again, boys are valued more than the girls. Society, parental education and culture for centuries have formed a mindset in parents that boys are more precious than the girls. But this researcher's findings along with the finding of other researchers' studies have conformed to the fact that there is no significance of birth order with self acceptance of non slum and slum children.

FAMILY INCOME

The result presented in table 20 and 42 shows that family income has significant relation with children's self acceptance for both slum ($F=16.355$; $df= 1, 94$; $P \leq 0.01$) and non slum ($F=615.737$; $df= 1, 94$; $P \leq 0.01$) children. The results suggest that 1. on the basis of family income

girls have higher self acceptance 2. girls of high income family have higher self acceptance and 3. self acceptance increases on the basis of family income. These three findings are the same for both slum and non slum children.

Evidence suggests that fathers earnings are positively associated with the educational attainment (Hill & Duncan, 1987; Kaplan, Lancaster, & Anderson, 1998; Yeung, Duncan & Hill, 2000), psychological well being, (Amato, 1998), and earned income (Behrman & Taubman, 1985) of young adult sons and daughters even when mother's earnings are controlled. Research consistently documents that poverty has many detrimental effects on child development outcomes, putting them at greater risk of poor nutrition and health problems (Klerman, 1991), low school grades, dropping out of school (Levin, 1986), emotional and behavioural problems such as depression, low self-esteem, conduct disorders, and conflict with peers (Brooks-Gunn, Britto, & Brady, 1999; Duncan & Brooks-Gunn, 1997; Klerman, 1991; Marsiglio, Amato, Day, & Lamb, 2000; Mayer, 1997; McLoyd, 1989; McLoyd & Wilson, 1991). The effects of income on child development outcomes are mostly due to the father's income. For example, in dual earner families, fathers contribute approximately 2/3 of total income (Work-Life compendium, 2001).

In this study, family income is defined as the total income of the family members. This income also includes the income of the children. Non slum children of the urban areas of our country are less involved in economic activities than the slum children. As this research suggests, the higher the level of income of the family, the greater the self acceptance of the children for both slum and non slum children. It may be said from this information that higher level of income may secure and stabilize the mental frame of the children in a positive way and thus uplift self acceptance among them. In contrast, low level of family income, as is

the case in the slums of Dhaka city, keeps the children from availing a congenial atmosphere to grow up in a healthy manner. The poverty hitted families are in constant struggle to maintain their living from hand to mouth. Their children are also faced with the hard reality of simply surviving each day. These children are deprived of nutritious food, proper clothing if any, grown in a incongenial atmosphere in a nasty cramped space. Thus the self esteem of these children is supposed to be low compared to those availing a good living. Above poverty level families donot have to face these serious life threatening problems of the slums and thus their children might develop better self acceptance. But as a whole, it can be safely said from the result of this research that there is positive correlation between family income and children self acceptance for both slum and non slum children.

FAMILY MEMBER

The result presented in table 24 and 46 shows that family income has significant ($F=432.530; df=2,94; P \leq 0.01$) relation with children's self acceptance for non slum children and no signigicance ($F=408212; df=3,92;$) for slum children. For non slum children, on the basis of family member boys have higher self acceptance ($x=12.18$) than the girls($x=11.00$). The children of 5-6 family member have higher self acceptance ($\bar{X}=15.50$) and children of above 6 family member have lower self acceptance ($\bar{X}=9.50$). This result indicates that in our country, both too small or too large family size is not good for self acceptance of the children, the medium sized family is befitting for better self acceptance of the children.

Several studies can be found to discuss self acceptance with family structure. D Andrew Ellerman and Bradley J Strahan (1995) in their research "family functioning, Olson's Circumplex Model, children's self-esteem " found childrens' self esteem to be significant with family size and Cohesion. Self-esteem of boys was significantly correlated with the

Family Size and Cohesion scores for both parents, but no relationships emerged for girls. Multiple regression analyses showed the only other measure to significantly predict self-esteem scores were those associated with socioeconomic status, for girls only. In other respect, The effects of family variables on prosocial behaviour-helping and/or comforting-of preschool children were assessed by observing their reactions to a peer in a distressful situation by Heather R. Rehberg and Charles L. Richman (1989). Comforting was related to the mothers' dependency on their children for emotional support. Children from smaller families had higher comforting scores than did those from larger families. Thomas S. Parish and Gerald D. Nunn (1981) in their research "Children's Self-Concepts and Evaluations of Parents as a Function of Family Structure and Process" examined relationships between children's (N = 132 fifth- through eighth-grade students) self- concepts and their evaluations of parents in families where father loss had occurred either through divorce or death. These correlations were further analyzed in regard to whether children perceived their present family situation as "happy" or "unhappy." Results indicated significant correlations between self-concepts and evaluations of parents in "unhappy" and "divorced" family units. Nonsignificant relationships were obtained in both "happy" and "father loss through death" configurations.

4.2 MORAL VALUES

Moral values vary between slum and non slum boys & girls as shown in table 56. Table 60 shows that a significant negative correlation was found for all the factors of moral values for both non-slum and slum children. The following presents a detailed discussion of moral values on different family variables for both non slum and slum children:

OCCUPATION OF PARENTS

The result presented in table 61 and 65 shows that parental occupation has significant (for father's occupation; $F= 40.375$; $df= 3, 92$; $P\leq 0.01$) and (for mother's occupation; $F= 8.101$, $df= 1.94$; $P\leq 0.05$) effect on self acceptance of non slum children. The result presented in table 86 shows father's occupation has significant ($F= 0.638$; $df= 2, 94$; $P\leq 0.05$) impact as well as mother's occupation presented in table 90 also has significance ($F= 265.111$, $df=2, 94$; $P\leq 0.05$) on the effect on self acceptance of slum children. In case of non slum children, teachers' children have more moral values. Children of service holder fathers have more moral values and children of housewives have more moral values as found in the research. Moreover, it is also found that non slum boys have more moral values than the non slum girls.

These findings are not consistent with the findings of Newton (1984). He found that socioeconomic status of the parents and achievements were not significantly correlated with the stage of moral values in young children. Similarly Srivastava and Romani (1988) found that there were not much differences in the value patterns of adolescents across different socioeconomic status of the parents (high, medium, low). The study by Jayapoorani and Arunakumari (1992), however, found positive association between rewards and learning of moral values among children of 6-12 years of age and emphasized that mother is a very important person for inculcating moral values among children. The present study is confined to children up to age 7 years, similar results have been found for adolescents [Chaudhary and Kaur (1993), Kang and Thakur (2002) Srivastava and Romani (1988)]. Papenoe (1998) and Grusec et al (2000) suggested that parents are the primary source of children's acquisition of values although not the only ones. Further family conditions for modeling values for children have three key processes – forming emotional attachments, being taught prosocial behaviour and learning respect for authority and compliance with rules. Parents' contributions are

important: parenting has adaptive evolutionary origin; long term relationships enable parents to know their children intimately and to be responsive to their behaviour. Walker et al (2000) revealed that interactions with both parents and peers were predictive of children's moral values. Parents provided a more cognitively stimulating environment in terms of verbal interactions. While studying the relationship of parents' education and occupation with value system of students, Purang and Sharma (2000) found positive correlation of father's education and occupation with knowledge power, stimulation and social value, while mothers education was found to be correlated positively with economic value. Whereas, father's occupation showed negative correlation not only with economic value but also with stimulation and traditional values. Therefore, it could be concluded that successful child rearing requires the active and continuing physical, emotional, intellectual and spiritual presence of parents in the lives of their children.

In this researcher's result, teachers' children have demonstrated strong moral values than other professionals among the non slum children. This result is significant, because teachers used to uphold themselves with a perception of strong morale and consequently, their children also reflect the same characteristics. Moral values among boys and girls differ keeping in view of parents' occupation, but a straight forward relation could not be supported by additional reference from other researchers.

EDUCATION OF PARENTS

The result presented in table 77 and 81 shows that parental education has significance (for father's occupation; $F= 5.668$; $df= 3, 92$; $P \leq 0.01$) and (for mother's occupation; $F= 12.398$; $df= 3, 92$; $P \leq 0.01$) effect on self acceptance of non slum children. The result presented in table 99 shows father's occupation has significant ($F= 8.963$; $df= 3,92$; $P \leq 0.01$) impact on

the effect on self acceptance of slum children. But table 100 imparts no significance ($F=0.128$; $df= 3, 92$; $P\leq 0.05$) of mother's education on child moral values. This research also finds that the higher the level of education for parents in non slum areas, the greater is the moral values for children. Then again, girls of non slum children have shown stronger moral values that of boys. Same is the case in the slum areas considering father's education. Mother's education did not show any significance may be because the education level of mothers in the slum areas was found to be little.

As is been the case of parents' education's effect on self acceptance, children's moral values are also related with parent's education described earlier by Davis-Kean and Pamela E. Davis-Kean, Pamela E. (2005). Education is an important asset in every life. Paternal influence is significant on the children, though more important impact is of maternal education on children moral values. Any educated mother with higher age can motivate their children properly, help their children adequately. Educated mother's attitude, values, norms, behavior remain positive to their children. And educated mother's varieties of quality become maturer with increasing age. The educated mother can rear their children properly than uneducated or less educated mother. Besides it, educated mother can help their children in various initial positions of life and mother can realize emotional status of their children and they can treat their children appropriately and thus improve the moral values in them. Nahawat, S.S. and Mathur, A.J. (1993) found that educated mother can handle their children's all activities more properly than uneducated or less educated mother. Dutt (1966), also found that maternal education have massive influence on children. Thus, considering the above discussion, it can be said that mother's education and age have joint influence on their children's adjustment and moral values.

BIRTH ORDER

The result presented in table 36 and 104 shows that birth order has no significant effect on self acceptance of non slum children order ($F= 1035.862; df= 2,94;)$ as well as on slum children ($F= 1035.862; df= 2,94;)$. Then again the result presented in table 77 and 96 shows that birth order has no significant effect on self acceptance of non slum children order order ($F= 7.603; df= 2, 94$) as well as on slum children order ($F= 0.826; df= 2,94$). Thus, the result concludes that there is no significance of birth order while evaluating the moral values of both slum and non slum children. Alfred Adler was a psychiatrist from Austria in the early 1900s. He was one of the first experts to claim that birth order does indeed influence a child's lifestyle choices. Adler didn't believe that birth order directly influenced personality, but that birth order did have an effect on how an individual learned to deal with life circumstances and relationships. Adler asserted that the age difference in the siblings as well as the number of the children in the family would affect the degree to which birth order is influential to a child.

In this regard, William D. Altus in his “Birth order and its sequelae” argues, “Ordinal position at birth has been shown to be related to significant social parameters, though the reason behind the relations are as yet unknown or at best dimly apprehended.” Thus it appears that researchers often discover the significance of birth order accidentally while engaged in other research. As a result their theorizing tends to be *post hoc* and to have a disconnected character. The findings in this paper that birth order not being significant for children’s moral values may not be accidental.

FAMILY INCOME

The result presented in table 61 and 86 shows that birth order has significant effect on moral values on both non slum ($F= 1971.319; df= 1, 94; P \leq 0.05$) and slum ($F=18.168; df= 2, 94; P \leq$

0.01) children respectively. Gender wise, girls of non slum have more moral values than the girls and boys of slum have more moral values than the girls. In another aspect, the more the income of the family, the more the moral values of non slum and slum children.

Similar to the above result was the finds of the a study undertaken by Solomon A. Fakinlede (2008), Baltimore City Community College, Baltimore, USA in the study “Quantitative Analysis of the Influence of Poverty on Moral values”. This quantitative study of the significance of poverty as a factor influencing moral values of individuals was based on the evaluation of Kohlberg's theory of moral values, including the application of cultural and situational influences that are country specific. This research was based on Nigerian case study. Despite all efforts of the Nigerian government, corruption and money laundering continue to rise to a level yet unseen in the history of the country. Nigeria is ranked one of the most corrupt nations in the world, after Bangladesh and Haiti. Multiple regression analysis was used to investigate the correlation between poverty and the high level of corruption, using data collected through random sampling of 100 of the 806 employees of Ifedore Local Government in Nigeria. The researcher also explored how extended family structure of the Nigerian society has created economic dependency, which has contributed to poverty.

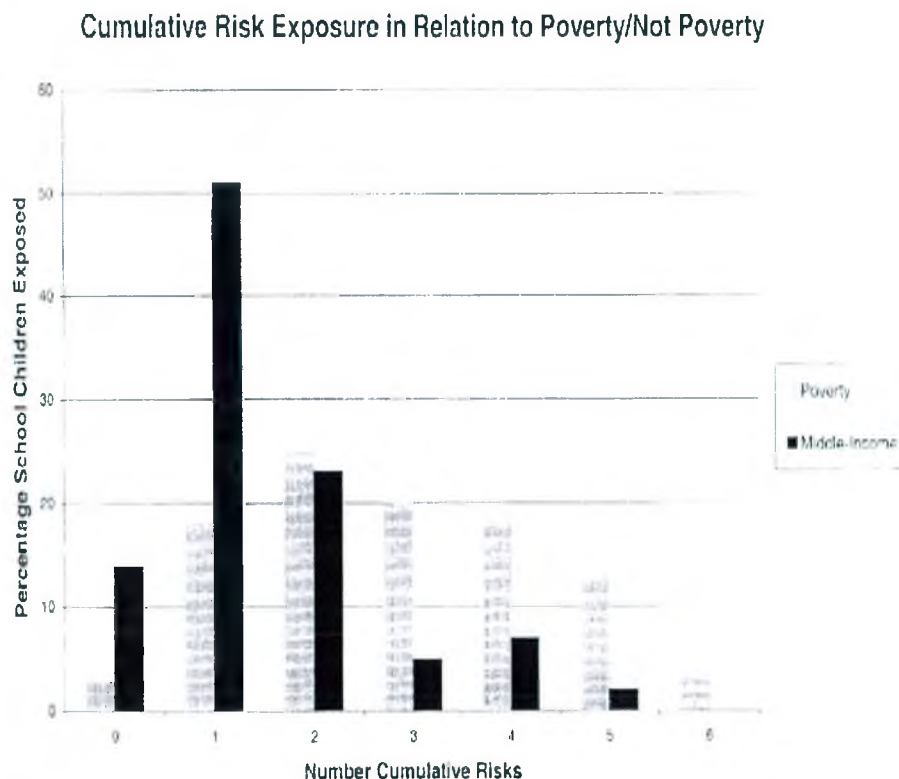
Variables of the study were measured using composite scores from survey instrument developed by the researcher and the result indicated there was significant correlation between poverty and moral judgment. Poverty items scored 4.56 on Likert scale of 1 to 5 while moral values items scored 1.32, indicating that more poverty resulted in less moral values.

Another paper read by Daniel Hart 2006 at Notre Dame Symposium on Personality and Moral Character stated as follows:

“....calculated the poverty rates for the census tracts of the children in a large national data set, the NLSY, and then have estimated the association of poverty rate to personality change—from resilient to under-controlled—between ages 3/4 and 5/6. These estimations

include a number of controls for family income, maternal education, and other demographic characteristics. Our estimates suggest a meaningful relation between neighborhood poverty rates and adverse personality change: Our estimate is that children living in a place like Camden are more than twice as likely as children living in affluent neighborhoods to change out of the resilient type into the under-controlled type. Poor urban neighborhoods are stressful. Stress is associated with undesirable change, from resilient to under-/over-controlled. Under- and over-controlled adolescents are less likely to volunteer and more likely to be involved in risky behaviors. In adulthood, under-controlled and over-controlled adults are likely to be less civically minded, have a self less oriented towards helping others, experience less pride, and have lower levels of social capital.”

Percentage of Poor and Nonpoor Children Exposed to Cumulative Physical and Psychosocial Environmental Risks



Note: The mean no. of multiple stressors is significantly higher, $p < 0.001$, for the poverty sample compared with the middle income sample. Data adopted from Psychophysiological Stress and Socioeconomic Adjustment, by G.W. Evans and K. English, 2002, Child Development, 73, p. 1242

Figure 4: Cumulative risk exposure relative to poverty/non poverty

The above discussion of Daniel Hurt's poor urban can be substituted for the situation in our slum area. Low income level is a significant cause of low moral values development in the slum area. As the income level grows, moral values of the children become stronger for both non slum and slum areas.

FAMILY MEMBER

The result presented in table 69 shows that family member i.e. family size has significant effect ($F= 8.53; df= 2,94; P \leq 0.01$) on moral values of non slum children. Table 94 reveals that boys of 5-6 family members have higher moral values ($\bar{X}=72.9$) on the other hand boys of above 6 family member have lower moral values ($\bar{X}= 58.3$) in case of non slum children. On the other hand, the result presented in table 100 shows no significance of family member on moral values of slum children.

In essence, family size is a significant factor in child development, but must be considered as only one part of a larger picture, however. Other factors, such as the parents' personality traits, and the gender and spacing of the children, contribute significantly to the formation of a child's personality. Children of large families have a greater opportunity to learn cooperation at an early age than children of smaller families as they must learn to get along with siblings. They also take on more responsibility, both for themselves and often for younger brothers and sisters. In addition, children in large families must cope with the emotional crises of sibling rivalry, from which they may learn important lessons that will aid them later in life. This factor, however, may also be a disadvantage; either the older child who was "dethroned" from a privileged position or the younger child who is in the eldest child's shadow may suffer feelings of inferiority. Children in large families tend to adopt specific roles in order to attain a measure of uniqueness and thus gain parental attention.

Children in small families receive a greater amount of individual attention and tend to be comfortable around adults at an early age. They may also be overprotected, however, which can result in dependence, lack of initiative, and fear of risk, and the increased parental attention may also take the form of excessive scrutiny and pressure to live up to other people's expectations. Researchers have found that only children are often loners and have the lowest need for affiliation. They tend to have high IQs and are successful academically. However, only children have also been found to have more psychological problems than children from larger families.

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APPENDICES

জীবন বৃত্তান্ত

১) নাম :

২) রোল :

৩) বয়স :

৪) লিঙ্গ :

৫) বিদ্যালয়ের নাম :

৬) পিতার পেশা :

৭) মাতার পেশা :

৮) পরিবারের মোট সদস্য সংখ্যা :

৯) পরিবারের মোট মাসিক আয় :

১০) পিতার শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতা :

১১) মাতার শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতা :

১২) জন্মস্থান :

APPENDIX - D
Bengali Version of Moral Values
Questionnaire for The Students.

নীচের বিভিন্ন পরিস্থিতি ভালমত পড় এবং প্রতিটি পরিস্থিতিতে যে উত্তরটি তোমার মনোভাবকে সবচেয়ে বেশী প্রকাশ করেছে, সে উত্তরটি ৫ পয়েন্ট স্কেলে তোমার মনোভাব অনুযায়ী সব চাইতে বেশী হলে ৫, এর চাইতে একটু কম হলে ৪, মাঝামাঝি হলে ৩, কম হলে ২, সবচাইতে কম হলে ১ নম্বরে টিক চিহ্ন দেও এই ভাবে প্রতিটি পরিস্থিতি পড় এবং টিক চিহ্ন দাও।

১। মনে কর একজন ছাত্রী পেশা সংক্রান্ত কোর্সে ভর্তি পরীক্ষা দিচ্ছে। সে উচ্চ নম্বর পেতে খুবই আগ্রহী হঠাৎ সে বুঝতে পারল যে সবচেয়ে ভাল ছাত্রীটির খাতা নকল করার সুযোগ তার আছে।

ক) সে নকল করার প্রলোভন প্রতিরোধ করবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) সে ভাল ছাত্রীটির খাতা যত তাড়াতাড়ি সম্ভব নকল করবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

২। কোন ছাত্রীর পিতামাতা তার বান্ধবীদের অপছন্দ করেন।

ক) সে তাদের কথা শুনবে এবং তাদের অনুভূতি বুঝতে চেষ্টা করবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) সে বলবে, “এ ব্যাপারে তোমরা দূরে থাক আমি নিজের বন্ধু বান্ধব বাছাই করার মত যথেষ্ট বড় হয়েছি”। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

৩। কোন ছাত্রীর বান্ধবীরা তাকে ক্রাশ বাদ দিয়ে তাদের সঙ্গে সিনেমা দেখতে যেতে বলল।

ক) সে যেতে অস্বীকার করবে এবং ছুটির দিনে যাওয়ার প্রস্তাব করবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) সে তাদের দলে যোগ দিবে এবং সিনেমা দেখতে যাবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

৪। কোন ছাত্রীর পিতামাতা তাকে এমন কিছু করতে বললেন যা সে করতে পছন্দ করে না।

ক) সে তাদের বাধ্য হবে এবং কাজটি করবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) সে তা প্রত্যাখ্যান করবে এবং বলবে, “কখনও করবো না”। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

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৫। কোন ছাত্রীর বান্ধবীরা তাকে তাদের সাথে সিগারেট বা নেশা করতে আমন্ত্রণ জানাল।

ক) ছাত্রীটি বলবে “না”। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) ছাত্রীটি বলবে “হ্যাঁ” এবং তাদের দলে যোগ দেবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

৬। কোন এক ছাত্রী তার পিতামাতার অনুমতি ছাড়া কোন নিমন্ত্রণে গিয়ে দেখা করে বাড়ী ফিরল।

ক) সে ক্ষমা চাইবে এবং কোথায় ছিল সেই ব্যাপারে সত্যি কথা বলবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) সে কোথায় ছিল সে ব্যাপারে মিথ্যা বলবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

৭। কোন ছাত্রীর বান্ধবীরা তার উপস্থিতিতে নোংরা কৌতুক করল এবং সবাই হাসতে হাসল।

ক) সে এটা যে অনুমোদন করে না তা প্রকাশ করবে এবং হাসিতে যোগ দিবে না। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) সেও তাদের সাথে হাসবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

৮। কোন ছাত্রীর শিক্ষক / শিক্ষিকা তাকে এবং তার বান্ধবীদেরকে চুপ করতে বলল।

ক) সে শান্ত হয়ে তাঁর কথা শুনে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) সে সজোরে হাস্যকর কিছু বলে সবাইকে হাসানে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

৯। কোন ছাত্রী দোষ করেছে সে জন্য ভুলবশত : অন্য কাউকে দোষী করা হয়েছে। সেই ব্যক্তি অযাচিত শাস্তি পেতে যাচ্ছে। তখন সেই দোষী ছাত্রীটি --

ক) সে নিজেব দোষ স্বীকার করবে এবং প্রাপ্য শাস্তি গ্রহণ করবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

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খ) সে নীরব থাকবে এবং নির্দোষ ব্যক্তিকে শাস্তি গ্রহণ করতে দিবে।

১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

১০। এক জন ছাত্রী স্কুল এলাকায় অনেক টাকা ভর্তি একটি ব্যাগ পেল।

ক) সে কর্তৃপক্ষের হাতে তা তুলে দিবে।

১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) সে টাকা গুলো নিজের জন্য নিবে।

১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

১১। জনপ্রিয় নয় এমন এক শিক্ষার্থীকে কোন ছাত্রীর উপস্থিতিতে কিছু শিক্ষার্থী অন্যায়ভাবে অভিযুক্ত করল।

ক) তখন ছাত্রীটি অভিযুক্ত শিক্ষার্থীর পক্ষ নিয়ে কথা বলবে।

১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) নীরব থাকবে।

১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

১২। সকালে ঘুম থেকে উঠে এক জন ছাত্রী আয়নায় চেহারা দেখে।

ক) সে আয়নায় নিজেকে দেখে খুশী হয়।

১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) তার মনে হয় সে যদি অন্য কেউ হত।

১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

১৩। একজন ছাত্রীর কয়েকজন সহপাঠী স্কুলের নির্বাচনে জয় লাভ করে উচ্চপদ পেয়েছে বা পুরস্কার লাভ করেছে।

ক) তাদের অভিনন্দন জানাবে এবং খুশী হবে।

১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) সে, তাদের সাফল্যে ক্ষুব্ধ হবে এবং আড়ালে তাদের সম্পর্কে খারাপ মন্তব্য করবে।

১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

Bengali Version of Moral Values Questionnaire for The Students.

১৪। কোন ছাত্রী শুনে ফেলল, কোন এক দল শিক্ষার্থী তার একজন শিক্ষক / শিক্ষিকা সম্পর্কে গালগল্প করছে।

ক) সে উক্ত শিক্ষক বা শিক্ষিকার পক্ষে কথা বলবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) সে উক্ত আলোচনায় যোগ দিবে এবং আলোচনায় কিছু যোগ করবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

১৫। কোন ছাত্রী জানতে পারল যে কিছু লোক তার সমক্ষে মিথ্যা কথা বটাচ্ছে।

ক) সে তাদের ক্ষমা করবে এবং নিজের মত চলবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) সে প্রতিবাদ করবে এবং আক্রোশ পুণে রাখবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

১৬। কোন ছাত্রী তার বান্ধবীদের সঙ্গে আছে। তার পিতামাতা বাড়ীতে নেই। তার বান্ধবীরা ভিডিওতে অগ্নীল সিনেমা দেখার প্রস্তাব করল।

ক) তাদের সঙ্গে যোগ দিতে অসম্মতি প্রকাশ করবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) চুপ করে বসবে এবং সিনেমা দেখবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

১৭। কোন ছাত্রীর পরিবারের সবাই রাতের খাবার খেতে বসেছে।

ক) সে স্বেচ্ছায় খেতে বসবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) সে পরীক্ষার পড়ার অজুহাত দেখিয়ে রাতের খাবারের ব্যাপারটা এড়িয়ে যাবে। ১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

APPENDIX - D
Bengali Version of Moral Values
Questionnaire for The Students.

১৮। কোন ছাত্রী কোন একটি পরীক্ষার জন্য পড়াশুনা করে নাই।

ক) সে, যে কোন ভাবে হোক পরীক্ষায় অংশ নিবে এবং তার ফলাফল ভোগ করবে।

১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) সে অনুহুতার ভান দেখিয়ে প্রশংসা ফাঁকি দেবে।

১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

১৯। কয়েকজন শিক্ষার্থী এক জন ছাত্রীর পিছনে লাগল এবং তার মনে আঘাত দিয়ে মজা করল।

ক) সে শান্ত থাকবে এবং দৃঢ় ভাবে তাদেরকে মজা করা বন্ধ করতে বলবে।

১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) তাদের অপমান করবে এবং প্রত্যাঘাত করার ভয় দেখাবে।

১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

২০। কোন ছাত্রী কোন পরিবারের সাথে দেখা করতে গেল এবং সেখানে দুর্বটনাক্রমে একটি দামী ফুলদানী ভেঙ্গে ফেলল।

ক) সে দোষ স্বীকার করবে এবং ক্ষমা চাইবে।

১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

খ) সে অস্বীকার করবে যে সে ভেঙ্গেছে এবং অন্যের উপর দোষ চাপাবে।

১ ২ ৩ ৪ ৫

Bengali version of self acceptance Questionnaire for the students

নিচের বিভিন্ন পরিস্থিতির প্রশ্নগুলো ভালমতো পড়। পরিস্থিতির সাথে একমত হলে হ্যাঁ-র উপর টিক চিহ্ন দাও আর একমত না হলে না-র উপর টিক চিহ্ন দাও।

- ১) এক সময় আমি বাবা মার সাথে অসদাচরণ করেছি। হ্যাঁ / না
- ২) কখনও কখনও আমি আমার সহপাঠীদের নোট দেখে লিখি। হ্যাঁ / না
- ৩) যখন ধরা পড়ার ভয় থাকেনা তখন আমি চুরি করি অথবা মিথ্যা কথা বলি। হ্যাঁ / না
- ৪) মাঝে মাঝে আমি আমার শিক্ষকদের অবাধ্য হই। হ্যাঁ / না
- ৫) অপছন্দনীয় বিষয় থেকে মুক্তি পাওয়ার জন্য মাঝে মাঝে আমি মিথ্যা অভ্যুহাতের আশ্রয় নেই। হ্যাঁ / না
- ৬) কখনও কখনও আমি অশ্লীল শব্দ অথবা বিষয় ব্যবহার করি। হ্যাঁ / না
- ৭) কখনও কখনও ছোট খাটো বিষয়ে আমি খুঁত খুঁত করি। হ্যাঁ / না
- ৮) কখনও কখনও আমি আমার করণীয় কাজ করি না। হ্যাঁ / না
- ৯) কখনও কখনও আমার সহপাঠীদের সাথে আমি খারাপ ব্যবহার করি। হ্যাঁ / না
- ১০) কখনও কখনও যারা আমাকে ভালোবাসে তাদের প্রতি নিষ্ঠুরতা প্রদর্শন করি। হ্যাঁ / না
- ১১) কখনও কখনও আমার ব্যবহারে অখেলোয়াড় সুলভ মনোভাব প্রকাশ পায়। হ্যাঁ / না
- ১২) কখনও কখনও আমি অন্যের সামনে আমার গুণাবলী নিয়ে বড়াই করি। হ্যাঁ / না
- ১৩) কখনও কখনও আমি পরিস্কার থাকি না। হ্যাঁ / না
- ১৪) কখনও কখনও আমি ছোট ছোট পশু পাখিদের প্রতি নির্দয় আচরণ করি। হ্যাঁ / না

Bengali version of self acceptance Questionnaire for the students

নিচের বিভিন্ন পরিস্থিতির প্রশ্নগুলো ভালমতো পড়। পরিস্থিতির সাথে একমত হলে হ্যাঁ-র উপর টিক চিহ্ন
দাও আর একমত না হলে না-র উপর টিক চিহ্ন দাও।

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| ১৫। আমি বড়দের অনুসরণ করতে পছন্দ করি না। | হ্যাঁ/না |
| ১৬। আমার সম্পর্কে নেতিবাচক কথা আমি সহ্য করি না। | হ্যাঁ/না |
| ১৭। আমি কখনো নিজের দোষ স্বীকার করি না। | হ্যাঁ/না |
| ১৮। অন্যের সমালোচনা করতে আমার ভাল লাগে। | হ্যাঁ/না |
| ১৯। মিথ্যা বলে স্কুল ফাঁকি দিতে আমার ভাল লাগে। | হ্যাঁ/না |
| ২০। খেলার সাথে এবং বন্ধুদের কোন ক্ষতি হলে আমি দুঃখবোধ করি না। | হ্যাঁ/না |