



THE SELF-PRESENTATION AND COPING STYLES OF
MIXED MARRIAGES IN METRO BANGKOK

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**THE SELF-PRESENTATION AND COPING STYLES OF MIXED MARRIAGES
IN METRO BANGKOK**

ALISA SETHI

151 pages

November 2002

This thesis aims to study the relationship between the self-presentation and coping styles of mixed marriages in Metro Bangkok as related to chosen demographic variables.

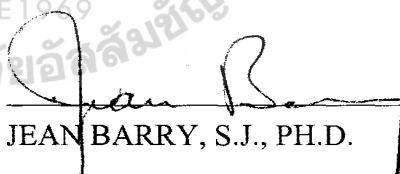
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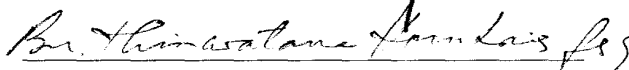
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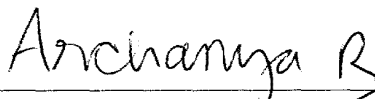
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The purpose of the study was to determine the self-presentation and coping styles of mixed marriages in Metro Bangkok. The relationships between the self-presentation and coping styles with demographic variables such as gender, age, nationality, education, income, years of marriage and children were examined, as well as the relationships between self-presentation and the three coping styles: task, emotion and avoidance.

The sampling of the population was a non-probability sampling, employing the snowball sampling technique. A total of 356 valid questionnaires were obtained from 178 mixed married couples. Two instruments, the Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS) and the Coping Inventory for the Stressful Situations (CISS) were used. The data was analyzed using the t-test, the one-way analysis of variance and the Scheffe comparison method.

The major findings are as follows:

1. The self-presentation of the mixed marriages was found to be at a low level.
2. The three coping styles: task, emotion and avoidance were used at the average level.
3. There was a significant difference between the self-presentation and all demographic variables except 'Income'.
4. There was a significant difference between task-oriented coping style and two demographic variables, 'Education' and 'Income' at the 0.05 level.
5. There was a significant difference between emotion-oriented coping style and demographic variables, 'Age', 'Nationality', 'Education' and 'Income' at the 0.05 level.

6. There was a significant difference between avoidance-oriented coping style and demographic variables, 'Age', 'Nationality', 'Education', 'Income' and 'Years of Marriage' at the 0.05 level.
7. The relationship between self-presentation and avoidance-oriented coping style was found to be significant at the 0.01 level. The association between the two variables was positive and judged to be highest ($r = 0.250$) in this study. There was also a significant relationship at the 0.05 level between self-presentation and emotion-oriented coping style ($r = 0.127$).

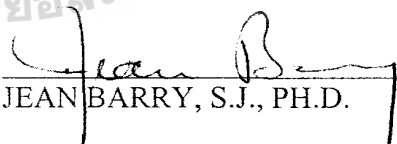
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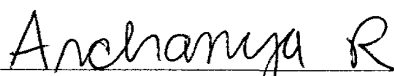
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CHAPTER I

The Problem and Its Background

Introduction

Interactions between members of different cultural groups are an increasingly common aspect of modern life, as more and more people study, work and settle in cultures other than their own. It makes accurate understanding of another culture a necessity. This is where cross-cultural psychology makes its strong contribution. While psychology is the scientific study of human behavior, social psychology, and cross-cultural psychology in particular, focus on the ways in which behaviors are shaped and influenced by social and cultural forces (Komin, 1991).

Over the years, the frequency of mixed marriages worldwide has continued to increase at a rapid pace (Romano, 2001). Historically, interracial dating and mixed marriage have been socially proscribed. For example, in the United States, it was not until 1967 that legal prohibitions against interracial marriage were eliminated nationwide. Further, negative attitudes towards interracial dating and marriage have been slow to change. A 1993 survey by the National Opinion Research Center in the United States revealed 20% of those surveyed believed that interracial marriage should be illegal. While this figure is lower than the 33% from 1973, it still represents a significant portion of the general population. In spite of social disapproval, however, the number of persons who marry outside of their racial/ethnic groups has been expanding rapidly over the last two decades. United States Census statistics reveal that interracial marriages have increased from 366,000 couples in 1970 to 1,478,000 couples in 1992 (Biever, Bobele & North, 1998).

In the early stages of all love relationships – and mixed marriages are no exception - people are aware of and encouraged by the similarities between them. Any differences they do see are often disregarded as surface details, challenges, or aspects that make the relationship more interesting. Only later when they get down to the business of forming a cohesive, functional family unit do they realize that many of these differences involve basic values or role definition, which complicate matters.

Romano (2001) believe that at the beginning of a mixed marriage, good communication is rarely seen as a major issue because each of the partners put a lot of time and effort into understanding and being understood. Without realizing what they are doing, they continually question, explain, and clarify their meanings to each other. At the same time, each takes for granted that his or her way of communicating is universal, obvious, clear, and right; they each assume that the other means what they themselves would mean if they said the same thing in the same way. Only later do they begin to see that this is not true, and they begin to wonder whether they understood each other at all.

This is supported by an article written by Monk (2002) in The Nation Newspaper after an interview with Tom Pesaresi, a counselor at PSI counseling center in Bangkok. One of his areas is Thai-Farang marriages, which he said was often marred by misunderstanding. He explains that when communication between mixed married spouses break down, they start to live separate lives, and one or both may seek comfort in the plentiful temptations of Bangkok. This situation creates more tension and disruption in the family. Pesaresi further adds that Western men, especially, tend to expect Thai females to be service-minded. This clashes with many women's wishes for more liberated roles in a changing society and the desire for their partners to support their steps in this direction. Both parties, however, may feel

cheated since they expected something more from the relationship than they eventually received (Monk, 2002).

Intimate relations across cultures can be plagued not only by an inability to understand each other's perspectives and by imperfect cross-cultural communication, but sometimes also by a feeling of mistrust of the other culture, something which often manifests itself when the couple is in conflict.

Romano (2001) further explains that sometimes, stress is caused by difficulties in dealing with the marital situation itself, in learning to live with another person, especially if the partners approach life and how to live it from very different viewpoints. Whatever the cause, everyone has ways of responding to stress, depending on that person's age, sex, personality, and cultural or ethnic background. When dealing with life's problems, people tend to go back to their roots, which give them a sense of comfort and identity. However, the ways people choose to deal with their problems may be perplexing and upsetting to their partners.

Self-Presentation as a basic fact of social life, which includes the self or individual personal identity critically dependent on relationships with other people (Cooley, 1909 and Mead, 1931: cited in Deaux & Wrightman, 1984). They claim that the self includes body, mind, clothes, house, spouse, children, ancestors, friends, reputation and possessions. They further explain that almost any experience one has may have implications for one's self-concept. It is further claimed that the self has two parts, one part makes the individual a unique person and the other conforms to rules of society.

Both Cooley (1909) and Mead (1931) believe that the self develops in the light of the assessment and evaluation of others. Through the process of social interaction, the individual's ability to cooperate with others harmoniously emerges.

Tischler et al. (1983) argued that the self develops through constant conflict between the individual and society rather than through cooperation. Their discussions implemented the concept that the self, or individual personal identity, critically depends on relationships with other people; therefore, the self is entirely a social product of interaction. Goffman and Garfinkle (1967) cited in Malone (1997) affirmed that the self is an immanently social performing character that follows constructive rules not normative rules of society. These assumptions lead to a theoretical perspective in which it is understood that self-presentation takes in encounters of being perceived.

In recent years, the functional role of self-presentation or self-concept has received an increasing amount of attention (Groene, 1992). The impact of self-presentation is to be inherently involved in political, economical, religious, marital and educational issues.

Ryans (1997) in the study conducted by Verma, Zec and Skinner (1994) claims that a better understanding of inter-relationships produced knowledge that eased tension between groups rather than segregated them. He also pointed out that whatever boundaries and antagonisms exist between such groups, they did not originate within the groups, but are partly products of a deliberate relationship to the interests associated with the dominant forms of culture.

Coping is managing stress in some effective way. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) define coping as “constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person.” It is not one single act but a process that allows us to deal with various stressors. The coping process can focus on the

emotional effects of the stressor or on solving the problem causing the stress like the mixed marriages in this study.

Since culture affects relationships between individuals, particularly marital relationships, and since a correlation has been established between difficulties in marital adjustment and dissimilarity in cultural backgrounds (McGoldrick, Pearce & Giordano, 1982 as cited in Curso, 1997), people in mixed marriages may be in need of counseling.

For this study, seven demographic variables have been selected namely; gender, age, nationality, education, income, years of marriage and children. In general, the following variables are assumed to make a difference to the self-presentation and coping styles of mixed marriages in Metro Bangkok. For example, males and females are not likely to act in the same way and the assumption can be made that their self-presentations and coping styles differ. Also, the self-presentation decreases as one becomes older (Reifman, Klein & Murphy, 1989 as cited in Feldman, 1995). This makes age an essential variable for this study. Further, people from diverse backgrounds are assumed to impression-manage differently and their coping styles are inclined to be different. Education and income are generally related and a difference in them could cause a person to present oneself differently. As a partner continues to live with his/spouse, they tend to change with time and they become more comfortable with each other, which could be another reason why their self-presentation and coping styles differ. Lastly, children are an important variable. This is so because those with children tend to have more responsibilities and may not be too concerned with their external appearances and image as those without children who may not have as much of commitment.

It is for the above reasons that the researcher would like to study the relationship between the self-presentation and the coping styles of mixed marriages in Metro Bangkok. Furthermore, by identifying the self-presentation and coping styles of such marriages, the researcher hopes to help the counselors and their mixed married clients understand the impact of cultural perspectives so as to be able to resolve their differences. This research should also benefit those mixed couples contemplating marriage and other cross-cultural consultants.

Research Objectives

The objectives of the study are:

1. To measure the degree of self-presentation for each of the demographic variables as measured by the Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS) of both spouses.
2. To identify the coping styles for each of the demographic variables as measured by the Coping Inventory for the Stressful Situations (CISS) of both spouses.
3. To measure the difference between the self-presentation and the selected demographic variables like gender, age, nationality, education, income, years of marriage and children.
4. To measure the difference between the three coping styles and the selected demographic variables like gender, age, nationality, education, income, years of marriage and children.
5. To determine the relationship between the self-presentation, as measured by the Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS) and the three coping styles i.e. task, emotion & avoidance as measured by the Coping Inventory for the Stressful Situations (CISS) of mixed marriages.

Statement of the Problem

The study of the relationship between self-presentation and coping styles of mixed marriages in Metro Bangkok aims to answer and clarify the following questions:

1. What is the degree of self-presentation for each of the demographic variables as measured by the Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS) of both spouses?
2. What are the coping styles for each of the demographic variables as measured by the Coping Inventory for the Stressful Situations (CISS) of both spouses?
3. What is the significant difference between the self-presentation and the selected demographic variables like gender, age, nationality, education, income, years of marriage and children?
4. What is the significant difference between the coping styles and the selected demographic variables like gender, age, nationality, education, income, years of marriage and children?
5. What is the significant relationship between the self-presentation and the three coping styles i.e. task, emotion & avoidance?

Significance of the Study

The study aims to increase knowledge about the relationship between self-presentation and coping styles of mixed marriages in Metro Bangkok. Since self-presentation refers to the various processes by which people try to control the impressions that other people form of them, it will be helpful to measure the self-presentation of those in mixed marriages as it relates to the coping styles identified. Coping styles play a significant role in a person's adaptation to life situations especially when it is due to cultural differences in a marriage.

The results of the study will also assist couples in such relationships to understand themselves and their coping mechanisms in order to adjust in the best possible way. This will also serve as a reference for those who are already in such relationships but have not yet committed to marriage. It will open the eyes of those contemplating such relationships either facilitating or making them move with caution.

The results will also help counselors understand mixed marriages better, enabling them to better increase the awareness of their clients regarding the impact of different cultural perspectives on their marriages. Cross-cultural consultants who hold workshops, seminars or conferences can also use the results from this study to educate foreigners about the Thai culture and vice versa so that long-term relationships can be harmoniously established. Multinational companies can use the study to recognize the differences in the self-presentation and coping styles of their foreign and Thai employees and deal with them in an effective way in order to increase their productivity and their employees' job satisfaction.

Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses are tested in this study:

1. There is a significant difference between the degree of self-presentation and selected demographic variables like gender, age, nationality, education, income, years of marriage and children.
2. There is a significant difference between the coping styles and selected demographic variables like gender, age, nationality, education, income, years of marriage and children.
3. There are significant relationships between the self-presentation and the three coping styles: task, emotion & avoidance.

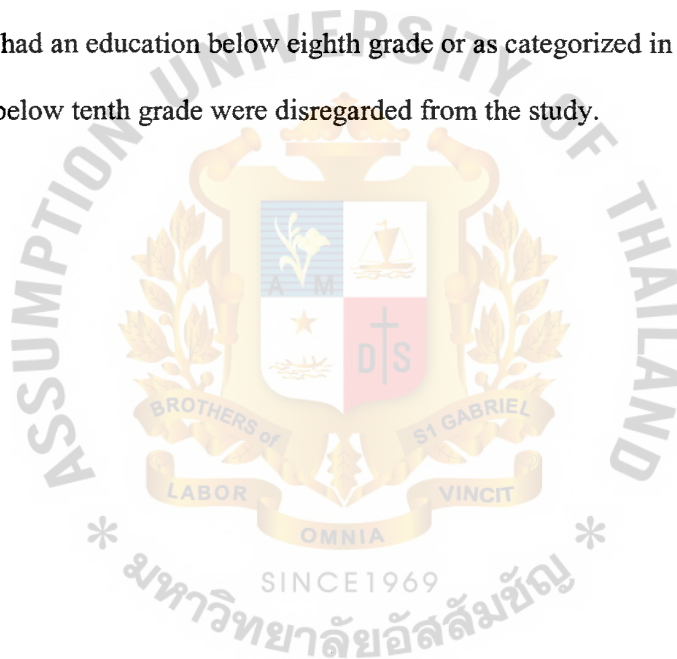
Scope of the Study

Since there were no statistics available for mixed marriages in Thailand, the sampling of the population was a non-probability sampling. The snowball sampling technique was used in order to get the respondents i.e. the available mixed marriages in Metro Bangkok. The study has been limited to 178 mixed married couples i.e. a total of 356 respondents in Metro Bangkok.

This study focuses on mixed marriages; so two sets of the questionnaire were prepared, the English for the Non-Thai respondents and the Thai for their Thai spouse. The questionnaire had three sections: the personal information, the Self-Monitoring Scale and the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS). For the questionnaires to be valid, a couple must complete both versions of the questionnaires. The Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS) was aimed at assessing the self-presentation of the respondents. The self-presentation as measured by the Self-

Monitoring Scale is divided into two levels; high self-monitors and low self-monitors. To qualify as high self-monitors, the scores must be between 13-25 whereas for low self-monitors, the scores are between 0-12.

The Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS) was aimed at assessing each respondent's coping styles, which can be divided into three dimensions: task-oriented coping, emotion-oriented coping and avoidance-oriented coping. It is a self-reporting coping inventory (adult version), which is appropriate for use with wide range of respondents including normal and clinical populations. As a minimum requirement for CISS, the respondents must have an education of at least eighth grade. The respondents who had an education below eighth grade or as categorized in the questionnaire as below tenth grade were disregarded from the study.



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Definition of Terms

Avoidance-Oriented Coping Strategy – Activities or cognitive changes aimed to avoid the stressful situation. This can occur by distracting oneself from the stressful situation or via social diversion as means of alleviating stress (CISS, Endler & Parker, 1990).

Coping Styles – It is defined as the constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Culture- is the behavior patterns, beliefs, and other products of a particular group of people, such as values, work patterns, music, dress, diet, and ceremonies, that are passed on from generation to generation (Santrock, 2000).

Emotion-Oriented Coping Strategy – The self-oriented reactions aimed to reduce stress. Reactions include emotional response, fantasizing and self-preoccupation to the stressful situation (CISS, Endler & Parker, 1990).

Ethnicity – is based on cultural heritage, nationality characteristics, race, religion, and language (Santrock, 2000).

Mixed Marriage – In this study, it is a marriage between two individuals one being a Thai national and the other being of a different nationality.

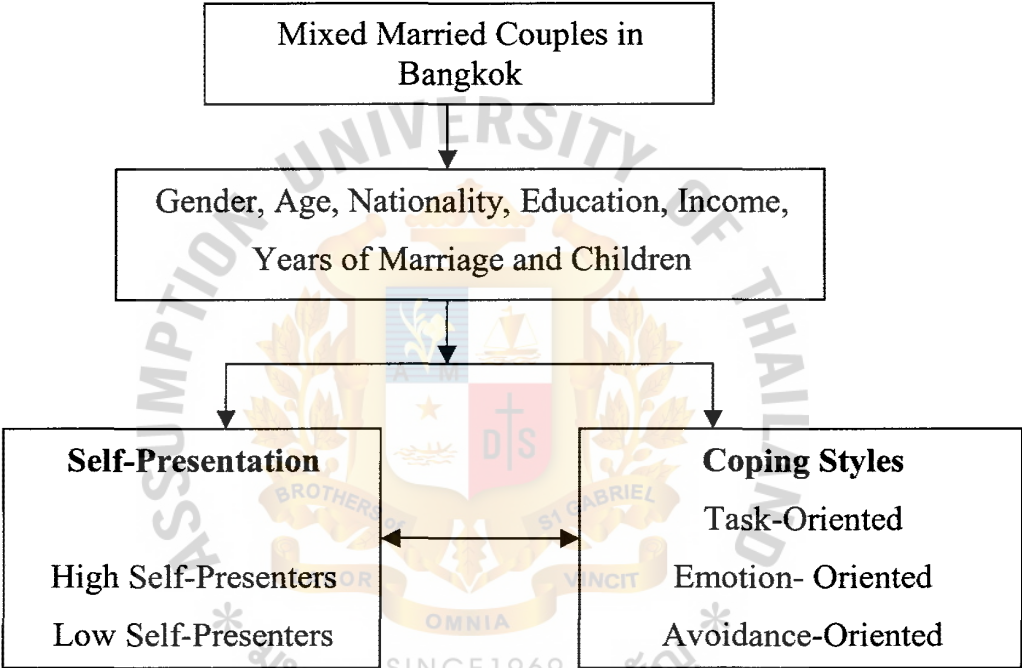
Task-Oriented Coping Strategy – The efforts aimed at solving the problem, cognitively structuring the problem or attempts to alter the situation. The main emphasis is on the task or planning, and on attempts to solve the problem (CISS, Endler & Parker, 1990).

Self-Presentation – or impression management, is the process by which people attempt to create specific, generally positive impressions regarding themselves (Schlenker, 1980; Schlenker & Weigold, 1992).

Self-Monitors – refers to the process of closely controlling or managing the impression one makes on others (Snyder, 1980). The Self-Monitoring Scale measures it in order to assess the self-presentation.



CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK



CHAPTER II

Review of Related Literature

This research focused on the self-presentation and coping styles of mixed marriages in Metro Bangkok. The review of related literature includes topics of mixed marriages, self-presentation, coping styles and some foreign as well as local studies.

Theories related to Mixed Marriages

All marriages represent mixed matches to one degree or another. Except for marriages between persons who grew up in the same household, which are extremely rare, each partner brings into the union a different cultural background, since no two families are exactly alike. Marriages in which the two people come from backgrounds with many contrasts, especially contrasts which society considers unusual, are called mixed marriages. Inter-faith marriages, interracial marriages, and some internationality marriages are mixed marriages. A marriage with so many contrasts that it is truly “mixed” has more hazards than other marriages. It has all the usual problems that arise in marriage and, in addition, problems arising because of the extreme differences in background (Landis & Landis, 1966). Whether nationality differences have any influence upon the success or failure of marriage will depend upon the community in which the people live, how well the foreign-nationality group has been accepted by the community, and upon what other contrasts in religion, language, or customs are in the background of the two people marrying.

There are many cited motivations for mixed marriages. Rebellion against parental authority is frequently stated as a reason for marrying a person of another religion or race. In some cases, the ratio of available men and women within one’s

own group is a relevant factor. In most cases, the mixed marriages occur because the partners are in love. Certainly, this is the reason that most of them would give. And although mixed marriages have a higher divorce rate than do homogenous marriages, their success rates are higher than their failure rates (Smart & Smart, 1976). In spite of social disapproval, the number of persons who marry outside their racial/ethnic groups has been expanding rapidly over the last two decades. United States Census statistics reveal that interracial marriages have increased from 366,000 couples in 1970 to 1,478,000 couples in 1992 (Biever, Bobele & North, 1998).

According to Biever, Bobele and North (1998), overcoming social disapproval and negotiating cultural differences may exacerbate the stresses and difficulties in marriages. Cultural differences may affect couples in various ways over the course of a relationship. Initially, couples may face disapproval or social awkwardness with friends and families. In more extreme cases, financial and/or emotional estrangements may occur. Couples often encounter negative reactions in their communities. Friends and family may infer motives for choosing a partner who is culturally different, such as rebellion, inferiority complex, or denial of one's own cultural group. Stresses involved in setting up a household may bring cultural differences to the forefront. Potential conflict areas such as sex-role expectations, attitudes towards work and leisure, holiday traditions, expression of affection and problem-solving strategies are frequently based on differences in culture. Disagreement about these issues may take the form of the partners' blaming each other for not understanding or being unreasonable rather than attributing the difficulties to differing cultural traditions. Similarly, parenting styles may reveal cultural differences between partners and affect interactions with extended family members and other social systems.

These problems may present a pessimistic picture of intercultural relationships. However, there are frequently overlooked advantages to such relationships. Couples may learn and grow from the reactions of family and friends. This may lead to deeper involvement between the partners. The process of negotiating cultural differences may result in each partner becoming more aware and accepting of differences. Furthermore, Ho (1990): cited in Biever, Bobele and North (1998) mentioned that the children of intercultural couples may be more accepting of differences in others.

According to Romano (2001), more and more people are leaving their homeland to visit, study, or work overseas. Young people in the past did not have as much opportunity to meet prospective partners from other lands as they do now through travel, educational exchange programs, and other direct forms of international contact. Distances are no longer barriers. Traditional social restrictions are breaking down, creating gaps between generations and leaving some young people feeling rootless and more open to marriage with someone from a different land.

Romano (2001) further mentioned that most couples experience three general stages of adjustment. These stages are (1) The honeymoon phase when everything new and different is a wonderful enriching gift, (2) the settling-in phase when some of the differences cause major disagreements and (3) the life-pattern phase when the differences are either resolved or accepted, when a pattern of negotiation is determined or the conflicts become habits. In the honeymoon phase when couples are first married, their hearts are on fire, and while they are aware of and can perhaps even list the personal flaw of one another, they tend to dismiss or repress these perceptions and fixate on those characteristics which charm and attract them. For some couples the honeymoon phase lasts quite awhile whereas other couples may

move quite rapidly into phase two. Tennov (1979) concluded that the average duration of what she calls romantic love or that of the honeymoon phase is between eighteen months and three years. As the novelty of the marriage wears off and some of the politeness and careful behavior between the spouses are shed, the partners begin to fall back into old habits and manners and expose sides of themselves, both personal and cultural, which, while not necessarily hidden, were not obvious or given much importance before. This is the time when accommodation takes place or the marriage dissolves. Finally in the life-pattern phase, each partner either agrees that their differences are helping them grow and continues to work on their marriage or they end in separation or divorce. Although there are no reliable data for the success or failure of mixed marriages worldwide, data on marriages in general show that the greatest number of separations, if they are going to occur at all, will take place around the fourth year (Fisher, 1992).

Romano (2001) further states that the potential trouble spots for the mixed marriages are the clashes in values, food and drink, sex, male-female roles, time, place of residence, politics, friends, finances, in-laws, social class, religion, raising children, language and communication, responding to stress and conflict, illness and suffering, ethnocentrism, the expatriate spouse and coping with death or divorce. Most of these areas are potentially problematic to all marriages, not just to mixed marriages. However, it is the degree to which they exist which is not the same. In mixed marriages, the differences are often extreme or more dramatic. They involve cultural identity and thereby are unconscious and more difficult to resolve. The difficulties experienced by persons going to countries of greater cultural dissimilarity when in mixed marriages are higher (Smith & Bond, 1993; cited in Corso, 1997).

In *Psychology of the Thai People* (1991), Komin describes Thai people as influenced by the hierarchy in their collectivist society. They value harmonious social relationships, avoid confrontation, and handle conflicts with harmony. They do not display their emotions; feel forever grateful to anyone who has helped them. Thai people place a high value on self-esteem and are 'ego-oriented', which means that they hate to lose face. Unlike people in the individualistic countries who are concerned with giving a positive image of them without distorting their inner feelings, the Thais who hold a collectivist culture cherish harmony and try to save the other person's face. Direct confrontation and loss of face must be avoided by all means which again explains the indirect communication style used by the Thai people. When conflict arises, Thai people try to avoid the situation whereas in Western countries, people voice their opinions and express their emotions and try to deal with the conflict in a constructive way (Curso, 1997).

As for Thai men, they strive for a successful and comfortable life. Komin (1995) as cited in Curso (1997) sees Thai husbands as the product of the education they received. A Thai husband is taught to hold the power and the authority in his family. They expect their wives to take care of the household and the children. As a rule, they marry to fulfill social obligations.

Kitivipart (1987) also claimed that communication is the first source of disagreement in mixed marriages, and the problems arise because of cultural differences in style of emotional expression, the expression of affection, the style of handling conflict and the ability to be independent from the family of origin. Curso (1997) mentioned in her study that self-disclosure is more important in individualistic countries. As a rule Western society favors verbal openness and expression of feelings and emotions, however the British like their privacy and do not ask too many personal

questions. In the marital relationship though, they may value openness and truthfulness more than Thai people.

Social roles also differ from culture to culture. Cultures have different perspectives about gender roles, but in most societies around the world, especially in the West, people expect men to be more socially dominant, active and achievement-oriented (Myers, 1993 as cited in Courso, 1997). Social roles refer to the behavior expected in a certain social position that is considered appropriate by the society and which plays an important role in marriages especially mixed marriages.

Theories related to Self-Presentation

Self-presentation (also called impression management) refers to the various processes by which people try to control the impression that other people form of them. People try to control the impressions that others have of them in a variety of ways. Explicit verbal claims about one's characteristics are the most direct means, but people often employ more subtle tactics as well. They convey impressions through the topics they choose to talk about and the particular attitudes they express. Almost any behavior can be used to convey desired impressions of oneself to other people, according to Leary & Miller (as cited in Ickes & Duck, 2000).

Cirese (1985) refers in her work, "Quest: A Search for Self" to the self people present as public self. The public self is actually many selves because it is a response to how one reads others, their expectations of oneself, and how one wants to be seen by them. Public self shifts from situation to situation depending largely on the audiences, but also on one's feelings, moods, and perceptions relative to the situation. The self that is presented may be like a mask that people put on to hide something of who they really are. It also may be a response to the social role that they are playing,

almost as though they were reading a prepared script. And public self may more nearly approximate the real selves; depending on how much self-disclosure they choose to engage in. The ability to form effective public selves is a useful social skill. However, to the degree that people live only through the public self, thereby losing contact with their real self, they curtail their capacity to be self-directed. And, in the view of many psychologists, the more able people are to disclose their real selves to others, the more they come to know who they really are.

Goffman (1959) terms it impression management when people seek to define the situation by generating cues that will lead others to act in accordance with their plans. Although nearly all behaviors reveal information about a person, not all behavior entails impression management. In self-presentational behavior, people have the goal of influencing how others perceive them. Nor does impression management necessarily involve conscious deception. In many cases, it involves merely bringing people's actual attributes or accomplishments to the attention of others. For instance, people may perform deeds that normally win approval or provide information about them that inspires confidence.

Leary and Miller (as cited in Ickes and Duck, 2000) mentioned in their work that the strategic effort to influence what others think of oneself is especially consequential in close relationships. Not only is positive regard from a close partner exceptionally valuable, but also the impressions that intimates hold of a person have important effects on what they think of themselves. Close partners are some of the most influential, compelling critics, and when they find the self-presentations of their partner's convincing, they are likely to internalize those images and incorporate them into their own self-concepts.

Leary and Kowalski (1990) suggested that self-presentational behaviors are the product of two distinct sets of processes. One is the set of processes that motivate people to try to control others' impressions of them (impression management) and the other is the set of processes that are involved in their decisions about a particular image to convey (impression construction).

According to them, there are three factors that influence impression motivation: (1) the extent to which a person's impressions influence the attainment of his or her goals; (2) the value of the goals that may be affected by the person's images; and (3) discrepancies between the impression the person desired to convey and the impression he or she is making.

Leary and Miller (as cited in Ickes and Duck, 2000) further stated in their work that people's self-presentations might influence their success in attaining many different goals (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). People's self-presentations to a relational partner often have the potential to transform the relationship, both for good and for bad. As a result, people sometimes seek to control the impressions that friends, lovers, family members, and co-workers have of them in order to influence how those targets relate to them. Indeed, over time, intimate relationships are characterized by more self-revelation than ordinarily exists in less intimate partnerships, according to Canary, Stafford, Hause, & Wallace (as cited in Ickes & Duck, 2000). Moreover, many adults view self-disclosure as an indispensable component of intimacy. In light of this, people can regulate the intimacy of their relationships through tactical self-presentation involving intentional self-disclosure. People are also more motivated to manage their impressions carefully to the extent they are dependent upon another person for valued outcomes. One outcome for which everyone must depend on other people is social acceptance. Human beings appear to have a fundamental "need to

belong” (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) and often convey impressions of themselves that will increase the chances that others will accept and include them (Leary, 1995).

Thus, the more that people feel a need for acceptance, the stronger their motivation to impression-manage. Then, continued familiarity with a person typically causes concerns with self-presentation to decline. In general, people are ordinarily less concerned with the impressions they make on close friends than they are with the images they convey to those they hold less dear. Leary and Miller (as cited in Ickes and Duck, 2000) further stated that people were actually less worried about what their lovers thought of them than they were about their friend's evaluations. They went on to say that men and women spend less and less time preening and grooming themselves in the rest room during a dinner date the longer they have known their partners. This is to say that intimate partnerships routinely involve less active, intentional impression management than less meaningful associations do. This is due to the fact that when a relationship becomes established and a partner is won, the pervasive human desire to establish close relationships with others (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) is reduced, at least with regard to that particular partner. Self-disclosure then declines significantly even over the first year of marriage, according to Huston, McHale, & Crouter (as cited in Ickes & Duck, 2000). Similarly, the longer two spouses have been married, the less accurately they read each other's thoughts and feelings, apparently because they work less hard at it, according to Thomas, Fletcher, & Lange (as cited in Ickes & Duck, 2000). Then, impression motivation may decline in close relationships because the “self” that people present to intimate partners is gradually changed by closeness and interdependency. Although judgments of our intimates may be more important than those of anyone else, and although attentive, careful impression management with our intimates may remain advantageous, people

are usually less motivated to hone their images for lovers and friends than they are for acquaintances and strangers.

Although impression management may decline over time with intimate partners, they never disappear completely. After years of companionship and extraordinarily diverse interpersonal exchanges, people will still strive to shape what a close partner thinks of them. To the extent the partner controls resources or rewards they value, they can hardly afford not to manage the impressions that they make. Approval and acceptance from socially desirable people are more highly valued than is positive regard from less attractive folks (Schlenker, 1980), and people will work harder to get it. Another point is that heterosexuals are routinely more concerned about the impressions they make on the other sex than they are about the images they convey to those of their own sex (Leary, Nezlek et al., 1994). One interpretation of this disparity in impression motivation is that, at least for heterosexuals, members of the other sex control more valuable rewards than do those of one's own sex.

A final influence on impression motivation involves people's perceived level of success at projecting the images they desire others to hold of them. When the discrepancies involve impressions that are relevant to their close relationships, people's self-presentational concerns may be even more acute. Maintaining a viable relationship requires that the participants sustain minimally acceptable images of themselves in one another's eyes. This is really not hard to do because relational partners often hold idealized images of each other that actually improve on the real thing and readily trivialize and explain away each other's small transgressions, according to Fincham & Bradbury (as cited in Ickes & Duck, 2000).

Leary and Miller went on that in impression construction, the self that is presented when people impression-manage reflects both the person's existing self-

identity and the self-relevant images that are created, on the spot, during ongoing social interaction. The images of themselves that people try to construct in close relationships emerge out of a dynamic interplay of their partners' interests and values, their current roles, salient norms, and their real and desired selves. There is a dark side to this process, people may take risks and keep secrets in order to create presentable images. To safeguard a secret, people must take pains to monitor their behavior for unwanted leaks that could suggest the secret to others. Then, carefully keeping quiet about such frequent streams of thought is also demanding work, and relational secrets may become exhausting sources of stress. On the other hand, intimate partners are important collaborators who can help a person refine and improve the people that they try to be.

Leary and Kowalski (1990) claimed that people readily change the content of their self-presentations to conform to the presumed characteristics and values of their audiences. People may also shape their own self-presentations to those of a partner without realizing that they are making any changes at all. Certainly, the ability to steer a conversation toward a partner's interests and to communicate enthusiasm and liking for the interaction have long been admired by the lay public, and people with those skills enjoy more intimate interactions earlier in their relationship than people without them (Snyder & Simpson, 1984).

The broader social context also exerts a strong influence on self-presentational behaviors. Many interpersonal relationships occur between people who are filling explicit social roles and the self-presentational requirements of certain roles can affect the person's relationship with others. Gender roles are perhaps the most pervasive roles in social life, and they, too, influence self-presentation. The conversation of men and women are different enough that they can be distinguished by strangers who read

anonymous scripts of their interactions, and some of these differences are embodied in the impressions the sexes choose to project. In particular, women are expected to be more modest than men, according to Janoff-Bulman & Wade (as cited in Ickes & Duck, 2000), so they may comport themselves with a public humility they do not privately accept, according to Heatherington (as cited in Ickes & Duck, 2000). Men, on the other hand, are expected to be boastful and self-assured, and images of confidence are more valued for men than women in most cultures.

Leary and Miller further explained in their work that social norms also influence people's self-presentations. The norms that delineate desirable images may vary from culture to culture, according to Bond (as cited in Ickes & Duck, 2000), but some general norms are widely applied. One of these is the norm of reciprocation. In any given interaction, people's self-presentations are likely to be substantially shaped by the behavior of their interaction partners. . Intimate partners don't always match a partner's level of disclosure during a particular interaction, but failure to abide by this norm over the long run may result in stress within the relationship. Another key influence on impression management in relationships is that close partners know much more about a person than most other people do. This means that people actually have less self-presentational freedom among their intimates than they do among acquaintances and strangers because people are reluctant to present themselves in any manner that is inconsistent with what others already know of them. However, people's self-presentations are also affected by their personal characteristics, including who they think they are (their self-concepts) and who they would and would not like to be (their desired and undesired selves). People typically want others to see them as they see themselves. This is especially true in relationships, where intimate partners become exceptionally influential judges of one's abilities and other attributes.

Married partners also tend to seek confirmation of their self-concepts from each other; people had more intimate, interdependent marriages when their spouses thought of them as they thought of themselves. With time, as the role of relational partner fills more of their lives, both they and almost everyone else are likely to think of them differently, gradually redefining the person as one-half of a couple and not just an autonomous individual.

Leary and Miller (as cited in Ickes and Duck, 2000) also said that in general, people probably try to convey impressions that portray them more as the people they wish they were – for most of the people, as likeable, competent, and moral – than as the people they really are, or don't want to be. Concern for another's image is even higher when a person is meaningfully connected to the other individual in some way. Thus, people often take steps to manage the impressions of their relational partners. Creating positive public images of our partners is often self-serving because our own public images are enhanced when we are associated with others who possess desirable characteristics. Another point is that people tend to perceive and think about relationships as entities that are separate and distinct from the individuals who comprise them. As a result, people are sometimes concerned with how their relationships are viewed by others and try to construct certain impressions of their relationships for external audiences.

Goffman (1959) also suggested that, in the presentations of self, people tend toward maintaining an adequate self-image and preserving, if not increasing their self-esteem. They also want to convey a certain image of themselves to others. They may want to appear likeable, charming, witty, and intelligent or cool, aloof, distant, and secretive or give any number of other impressions. People often try to act the way they think they should in hopes of getting what they need (or think we need) from

others. His self-presentation approach focuses on the drama enacted by communicators in the course of conversation. According to him, communicators are like actors, structuring their behaviors to make particular impressions on their audiences.

Goffman sees interpersonal communication as the means by which people project various aspects of themselves to others. They essentially take turns presenting dramas to one another. From his perspective, interaction with others involves gaining information about others and giving information about oneself. Each person influences the course of conversation by eliciting impressions – performing behaviors that lead others to think of him in a certain way.

Goffman also proposed that there are two different “sign activities” used by communicators to create impressions: the expressions that they “give” and the expressions they “give off”. The first involves purposeful behaviors used to convey an impression. The latter refers to a wide range of behaviors that others can treat as “symptomatic”, or characteristic, of the actor rather than purposely contrived by him. According to him, communicators influence the definition of the situation by the way they express themselves. The impressions they create influence other communicators’ choices. In this sense, each communicator has some control over the course of the conversation. Throughout the course of interaction, communicators use what Goffman calls “defensive” and “protective” practices to safeguard the impressions they and others have fostered. Defensive practices are strategies used to save one’s own definitions of the situation. Protective practices are methods used to save the definitions of the situation projected by others. He also argued that people are constantly playing roles during their interactions with others. Goffman refers to their performances of roles as fronts. Everyone has several fronts available. Mother,

teacher, daughter, son, sibling, and student are all fronts, each having patterns of behavior peculiar to them. To perform these fronts effectively, people often suppress emotions and moods.

According to Goffman, roles are the basic units of socialization: "It is through roles that tasks in society are allocated and arrangements made to enforce their performances". When performing a role, the individual must act in a manner that will convey impressions compatible with the "role-appropriate personal qualities" imputed to her. To explain this, he says that a judge is supposed to be deliberate and sober, a pilot in a cockpit should be cool, and a bookkeeper accurate and neat. He also explained that people could become enamored with particular roles. When people are forced out of such roles by circumstances, they might become considerably upset. While some people become attached to roles they play, others are able to "play at" roles. An important aspect of self-presentation is knowing one's audience. The ability to "take the role of the other," to anticipate how others will perceive and react to other's actions, is essential for successful impression management. Therefore, Goffman's perspective is reminiscent of Shakespeare's comment that "All the world's a stage." Each of us plays certain parts and, in so doing, contributes to the definition of our own social environment. This is to say that Goffman's self-presentation approach focuses on how the fronts, or roles, each communicator's performance contributes to the course of conversation.

Taylor and her associates (2000) also stated in their book, that everyone is a social actor who considers the impressions they make on others. For some people, however, the concern with self-presentation is ever-present. Self-monitoring is the tendency to emphasize impression management to a great extent.

Some research by Snyder (1980) indicates that some people are much more aware of the impressions they create and more skillful in adjusting behavior to achieve the desired effect than others are. Individuals differ strikingly in the extent to which they observe and control their self-presentation. One way to read through the masks of impression management encountered in social relationships is to be aware of the self-monitoring status of other people. Therefore, Snyder (1980) developed a Self-Monitoring Scale that can give some idea whether a person is highly aware of the impression one makes on others and how skillfully one adjusts ones performances with others to achieve desired effects.

High and low self-monitoring individuals differ in several ways (Snyder, 1987). Snyder (1980) describes high self-monitors as people, who learn well appropriate behaviors, have good self-control of emotional expression, are adept at detecting impression management in others, and prefer stable, predictable social situations. They are not self-disclosures. They believe, "I am me, the time I am right now." They also make great effort to learn about other people and to evaluate social situations. They pay more attention to information about people they are going to meet and interact with, and they are also more likely to tailor their behavior to fit the demands of the situation (Snyder, 1987). They may also think of themselves as practical-minded people who try to make the best of social situations. Their perceptiveness and social sensitivity enable them to interact effectively in diverse settings. However, individuals who are extremely high in self-monitoring can be criticized as self-interested opportunists who change themselves and their opinions to suit the situation. Low self-monitors regard their "me" as stable, consistent, and uncompromised by the social situation. Their self-presentation is controlled to a larger extent by their inner attitudes and values. They are more apt to disclose themselves to

others. They may also think of themselves as principled people who have the courage of their convictions and remain firm in their goals despite social influences. However, people who are extremely low in self-monitoring can be criticized as insensitive, inflexible, and uncompromising.

Gabrenya and Arkin (1980) have also described the high self-monitors as having five key tendencies which are (1) they will have a strong concern for the social appropriateness of behavior (2) they will show a greater attentiveness to behavior of others as cues for their own impression management (3) they will possess a greater skill at modifying and controlling their own impression management (4) they will use impression management skill in more circumstances and (5) they will exhibit different behaviors in different situations. On the other hand, low self-monitors will (1) behave in a way that coincides with how they feel (2) Determine their behaviors more by their actual attitudes, beliefs, and feelings, rather than the particular situation at hand (3) be far less attentive to the social appropriateness of their self-presentations (4) tend to be cross-situational, more consistent in their attitudes, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors across situations (Snyder, 1987).

According to Snyder (1987) the differences in these contrasting self-presentational styles recall the distinctions Allport (as cited in Snyder, 1987) once made between expressive behaviors, that which is truly and spontaneously emitted, and coping behavior, that which is purposely controlled and consciously performed. In Allport's sense, the self-presentations of low self-monitors are expressive behavior and may be taken at face value- their words and deeds are typically accurate expressions of true underlying attitudes, feelings, and dispositions. However, the activities of high self-monitors are, to use Allport's term, coping behavior and must be considered in relation to the goals of the self-presentations. Sometimes, the goal may be to display

expressions that, although appropriate to the immediate circumstances, are not necessarily congruent with private attitudes and feelings. At other times, the goal may be to communicate attitudes and feelings accurately, by means of an intensified expressive self-presentation. As Snyder (1987) stated that although the high self-monitoring orientation may provide the flexibility and adaptability to cope with a wide variety of circumstances, it may be an obstacle to intimacy in close relationships. High self-monitors lack intimacy, closeness, and commitment in their relationships. This may occasion some distress when they enter relationships such as marriages in which their partners expect intimacy, closeness, and commitment. The low self-monitoring orientation, on the other hand, is well suited to close and intimate relationships. In relation to coping, when people do encounter problems, self-monitoring does have an impact on the type of problems people experience, the kinds of events that lead to those problems, and their personal modes of coping. Those high in self-monitoring tend to cope by avoiding the stressful situations whereas those low in self-monitoring focus on affiliation with other people when faced with stressful situations (Snyder, 1987).

Reardon (1987) states in her work, "Interpersonal Communications: Where Minds Meet" that self-monitors – people who watch their behavior – pay close attention to the expressions of others and use these observations to guide their own behavioral choices. Turner (as cited in Reardon, 1987) found that self-monitors add more humor to their remarks. Also, Sypher and Sypher (as cited in Reardon, 1987) found a significant positive correlation between self-monitoring and communication effectiveness. Miller, de Turck, and Kalbfleisch (as cited in Reardon, 1987) found high self-monitors better at perpetrating deception than low self-monitors. According to Roloff (as cited in Reardon, 1987), self-monitoring is important to persuasion. Self-

monitors can adjust their strategies to the reactions of others interactants. Therefore, taking a social perspective and monitoring oneself can work together to enhance communication competence. To the extent that communicators can recognize that others are not responding as they wish, they can alter their presentations if they are adept self-monitors.

Snyder (1987) also stated in his work, "Public appearances/Private realities: The Psychology of Self-Monitoring" that in romantic relationships, high self-monitors place relatively great emphasis on exterior appearances whereas low self-monitors place relatively great emphasis on interior qualities and psychological characteristics of their prospective dating partners. High self-monitors choose situations with romantic connotations when their partners have physically attractive exterior appearances; low self-monitors choose romantic situations when their partners possess personally desirable inner attributes. The bases on which relationships are founded may have implications for the degrees of closeness of the relationships. High self-monitoring men and women tend to adopt an "uncommitted" orientation leading to a relatively slow rate of growth of intimacy in their dating relationships. Low self-monitoring men and women, on the other hand, tend to adopt a "committed" orientation in their dating relationships leading to relatively high levels of long-term personal intimacy.

According to Snyder (1987), low self-monitoring romantic relationships are also said to be more stable than high self-monitoring relationships. Since orientations present in the early stages of a relationship can have a direct bearing on what occurs in its later stages, people's dating lives may have implications for their later relationships, including their marriages. Those high in self-monitoring, being sensitive to the fit between partners and social activities, may view marriage as a

partnership built around the mutual enjoyment of shared activities. On the other hand, low self-monitors, who strive to maximize the fit between themselves and their partners, may view marriage instead as a partnership centered on each other. For them, marital satisfaction would be derived from the pleasure and enjoyment of simply being with each other. High self-monitoring spouses might have more activity partners outside the marriage than would those low in self-monitoring. Moreover, high self-monitors, with their unrestricted orientation toward sexual relations, may be more likely than low self-monitors to have extramarital sex and, possibly, to accept their spouses doing the same. When it comes to long-term consequences, people with a partner-centered orientation may display great commitment to their marriages. If so, low self-monitoring partnerships ought to be relatively long lasting and stable ones. Then, relationships contracted on the basis of exterior appearances and maintained as activity-centered partnerships may be vulnerable to threats of their own kind. When time and gravity take the inevitable toll on face and body, or when the partner is no longer available for certain activities, high self-monitors may find themselves looking elsewhere for new partners. Finally, if low self-monitors adopt a committed, partner-centered orientation in their relationships, their lives should be greatly disrupted and they should be very distressed if and when their partners leave them or die. High self-monitors, on the contrary, should adjust more readily to their partners' departures, quickly seek out replacements, and develop new relationships fairly soon. It is relevant that when asked to project their reactions to a breakup, people high in self-monitoring predict that they could more easily make an emotional adjustment and find a replacement partner more quickly than do those low in self-monitoring (Snyder & Simpson, 1984). To add to this, Reifman, Klein & Murphy (as cited in Feldman,

1995) that self-monitoring scores decline with age. This is so because as people become older, they may feel more comfortable in “letting it all hang out.”

According to Triandis, McCusker, & Hui, and Rhee, Uleman, Lee, & Roman, (as cited in Taylor, et al., 2000) research that compared independent, or Western, cultures, such as the United States and Western Europe, with collectivist cultures, including Asian, Hispanic, Southern European, and Native American cultures, suggested that conceptions of the self vary greatly. Asian societies have a more interdependent view of their selves, while people living in Western countries have a more independent perspective. In America, there is a strong emphasis on individuality and how one can best distinguish oneself from others by discovering and making use of one's unique talents. That is the independent self. Not only do Westerners construe the self as an independent functioning unit, they actually define independence as a fundamental task of socialization. In Japan, “The nail that stands out gets pounded down,” according to Markus & Kitayama (as cited in Taylor, 2000). The interdependent self of Japanese culture consists of seeing oneself as part of an encompassing social relationship and realizing that one's behavior is determined and dependent on what one perceives to be the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others in the relationship. The self becomes meaningful and complete largely within the context of a social relationship, rather than through independent, autonomous action. Thus, the interdependent self is not a bounded whole, but rather changes its structure with the nature of the social context. In interdependent cultures, so fundamental is the emphasis on blending in, that those attributes that uniquely differentiate one person from another are not regarded as particularly representative of the self. Markus and Kitayama suggest that this conception of self as independent versus interdependent is a fundamentally important aspect of an individual's self-system. It influences how

people think about their own personal characteristics, how people relate to others, what emotions are experienced in different situations, and what motivates people to engage in action. Moreover, this cultural conception of self becomes rooted in the ideas, values, and social scripts of a culture, further shaping individual experience and the expression of self. Markus and Kitayama also argued that people with independent versus interdependent selves experiences fundamentally different kinds of emotions. Those with independent senses of self, as found in U.S. culture, frequently experience ego-focused emotions. In contrast, cultures with interdependent conceptions of self tend to experience other-focused emotions.

Theories related to Coping Styles

According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), people who confront a new or shifting environment move through a series of stages. There are then two central processes in stress: cognitive appraisal and coping. Cognitive appraisal is an evaluative process that determines why and to what extent an individual perceives a particular situation as stressful. They further state that the cognitive appraisal has three different stages: primary appraisal, secondary appraisal and reappraisal. The first stage is primary appraisal, the assessment of an event to determine whether its implications are positive, neutral, or negative. If people determine that the implications are negative, they appraise the event in terms of how harmful it has been in the past, how threatening it appears for the future, and how likely it is that the challenge can successfully be addressed. The next stage is secondary appraisal, the assessment of whether one's coping abilities and resources are adequate to overcome the harm, threat, or challenge posed by the potential stressor. During this stage, people seek to determine whether their personal resources are sufficient to meet the dangers

posed by the situation. The experience of stress then represents the outcome of both primary and secondary appraisal. In reappraisal, it is emphasized that cognitive appraisal processes are in a permanent state of flux due to new input. So the original appraisal of a situation may change as new information about the situation or about the impact of one's own behavior is received.

✓ Then coping process is the other central process of the interactional approach to stress. It is a process responding to stressful demands appraised by an individual. Something is done to master the situation and/or to control the emotional reactions to the situation. Coping encompasses the cognitive and behavioral strategies which individuals use both to manage a stressful situation and the negative emotional reactions elicited by events. The response to these stressful situations usually involves conscious strategies of a person (Billings & Moos, 1981; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In addition, some people may have particular preferred coping styles, or patterns in their responses to different stressful situations (Miller, Brody & Summerton, 1988). Yet, Carver and Scheier (1994) point out that a variety of coping responses can be used within the same stressful situation. Similarly, Hobfoll, et al. (1991) proposes that individuals should be allowed great latitude in choosing how they cope with stressful events. It is emphasized that there are no set correct stages of stress and coping; coping is much more individualized in its paths. Cultural, gender and developmental differences should be considered.

✓ Feldman (1995) states in his Social Psychology book that some people manage much better than others when faced with potential stressors. We all know people who withdraw and retreat when confronted with even the most minor stressor, and others who appear to thrive under stress, becoming energized and working

tirelessly to overcome any challenge. Coping is then the effort to control, reduce, or learn to tolerate the threats that lead to stress.

The relationship between coping styles and the experience of stress may be contingent on the nature of the stressful event. Taylor and Aspinwall (as cited in Disphanurat, 1997) suggest that certain coping styles will not reduce the stress for some stressors but they will for others. In addition, they have patterns of dispositional and situational responses to stress. According to Ptacek, Smith and Zanas (1992), in socialization view, women expect to react to stress emotionally and men expect to react with active and problem solving styles. However, the structural view holds that the major differences among them come from the different stressful situations they encounter.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) propose two basic forms of coping: problem-focused and emotion-focused. Problem-focused coping activities are directed at managing or altering the problem or stressor. It occurs when a person attempts to manage a stressful problem or situation. People who use problem-focusing coping attempt to directly change the situation to one that produces less stress. They may try to make the people responsible for stress change behavior, or they may choose to leave the situation altogether. In contrast, emotion-focused coping activities involve the conscious regulation of emotions as a way of dealing with stress. For instance, people who tell themselves they should look at the bright side of a situation or try to cheer themselves up by accepting sympathy from others are using emotion-focused coping.

Most research suggests that neither emotion-focused nor problem-focused coping is invariably effective, and that their success may depend on the particular situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Furthermore, in many cases, problem-focused

and emotion-focused coping can be used together (Kaplan, Salli, & Patterson, 1993). Another way of coping with stress is to turn to others for support. Social support- assistance and comfort supplied by a network of caring, interested people- is a boon to people living under stressful circumstances. Carver, Schier and Weintraub (as cited in Disphanurat, 1997) also state that problem-focused coping includes planning and seeking instrument social support. Emotion-focused coping includes seeking emotional social support, acceptance, and denial. Evidence suggests that it is best to have a variety of techniques available.

(Ptacek, et al. (1992) finds that both men and women reported problem-focused coping as most effective and emotion-focused coping style as least effective, with social support ranking between the other two styles in effectiveness. Women also reported more stress and less control over stress than do men. Both tend to use problem-focused coping but women use a greater variety of coping styles. People also manifest a variety of coping responses, frequently within the same stressful encounter (Carver & Schier, 1994).

Billings and Moos (1981); Lazarus and Launier (1978) conclude that is it not stress but rather how people cope with it that affects health and well-being. Besides, the individual state of health also influences coping responses. Many studies show strong associations between coping and health or psychological well-being. Endler and Parker (1990) find that the emotion-oriented coping style has been linked with depression, anxiety, and poor recovery from illness, whereas, the task-oriented coping style is either negatively related or unrelated to these types of variables. Endler and Parker (1994) further state that emotion-oriented coping is highly related to psychological distress, psychopathology and somatization. However, task-oriented

coping and avoidance-oriented coping appear to be unrelated to these negative variables.

Cohen and Williamson (1988) also found that stress for which people need to cope with is associated with poor health practices that raise the risk of coronary heart disease. Thus, individuals under stress are likely to increase their consumption of cigarettes and alcohol, adopt poor eating habits, and engage in very little physical exercise. Specifically, Billings and Moos (1981) found that cancer and coronary heart disease types and psychopathology types used emotion and avoidance coping, and coronary heart disease is negatively related to task-oriented coping. Healthy individuals use task-oriented coping. In addition, they point out that coping responses are correlated with the healthiest personal factors: active coping, planning, restraint coping, positive reinterpretation and acceptance. Coping responses correlated with the least healthy personal factors include: focus on emotions, denial, behavioral disengagement, mental disengagement and use of alcohol and drugs.

On the contrary to many studies, Hobfoll et al. (1991) finds that coping through emotional approach, involving efforts to acknowledge, understand and express emotion, appears adaptive in managing stressful encounters only for women. The reason is that emotional processing may enhance adjustment in the face of stress by facilitating change in cognitive-effective schema, stimulating compassion for oneself, promoting cognitive reorganization, releasing inhibited physiological and psychological tension and motivating adaptive behavior (Safran and Greenberg, 1991).

Moreover, social support is one of the buffering mechanisms. An individual can react to a stressful situation by seeking out other people (social diversion) or can engage in a substitute task (distraction). Cohen and Willis (1985) state that people

who have at least one person to confide in appear to be less vulnerable to the impact of stress. Appraisal support is related to better physical and psychological health among stressful people. Endler and Parker (1990) conceptualizes that social support is a mediating variable cutting across all three coping dimensions (task, emotion, avoidance). Social support interacts with each in different manner (information, emotion and diversion). So it can facilitate stress reduction and stress management.

Appraisal of the stressor's importance and controllability may predict specific types of coping styles. It is best to seek information and be emotionally sensitive when we are confronted with threats we can overcome. When faced with threat beyond our control, it is more adaptive to cope by allowing life to take its course. It is said to be stressful to try to control every threat. People who do this are at risk of being hypertension (Long, 1990).

Lazarus & Folkman (1984) similarly propose that problem-focused coping is most effective with stressors perceived as controllable whereas emotion-focused coping is most useful in situations that largely have to be accepted. When individuals can do nothing about those events, emotion-focused coping techniques, namely cognitive restructuring, relaxation or meditation, seeking appropriate social support, grief work and diverting attention to other activities, can be helpful. However, avoidance strategies are said not to be effective when dealing with interpersonal relationship problems, chronic or recurrent events, but they can be effective where stressors are short term. Avoidance is meant that not putting out the effort to cope when we should. Instead of heading off problems at their resources, they ignore them and hope they will be gone. Bowman and Stern (1995) found that the greater use of avoidance coping is strongly related to greater negative affect at work. Furthermore, avoidance coping is negatively related to perceived coping effectiveness, regardless of

controllability of the work stressor. It is significant that the negative relation between avoidance coping and perceived coping effectiveness is strongest for those stressful events that are seen as more controllable and amendable to change. Avoidance coping may be seen as reflecting aspects of neurotic or immature defense, which are inadequate for coping with the ongoing stress encountered in occupational context. Avoidance strategies may be effective in responding to traumatic or acute stressors such as surgery (Wilson, 1981).

To add to this, Schwartz & Stone (as cited in Zeidner and Endler, 1996) that women were found to use more distraction, social support, and relaxation than men. Older subjects used more direct action, seeking social support, and less religion than their younger counterparts. More income was found to be associated with lesser use of distraction, seeking social support, and religion as well as being negatively related to the use of relaxation. Research further indicated that women use more emotion-focused coping and are more likely to seek social support than men (Billings & Moos, 1981). Further findings by Irion and Blanchard-Fields (1987) suggest that younger people endorsed more emotion-oriented coping than older people. Also, older people employed task-oriented coping more frequently than emotion-oriented coping in stressful situations perceived as controllable, and emotion-oriented coping more frequently than task-oriented coping in situations perceived as uncontrollable.

Personal characteristics of spouses, and the quality of the relationship they establish with each other, play important roles in marital outcomes (Buehlman, Gottman, & Katz, 1992). Relationships themselves may also enable individuals to prevent and cope effectively with stressful events. As for age, generations may be dissimilar with respect to physical and emotional resources, as well as in the kinds of stress encountered, coping behavior may well differ across age groups. This is also

because of the cohort effects that refer to the differences between generations of people.

Gross, et al. (as cited in Burke (1996) also finds that persons experience interrole conflict when they occupy two different roles having conflicting expectations for behavior. Role conflict is important because it is often seen as disrupting the basic predictability of interaction among the multiple roles which working people especially women are expected to perform. Boontanon (as cited in Disphanurat, 1997) also supports Gross's theory that Thai female workers have critically interrole conflict between the role of a wife and an employed worker and also have emotional and behavioral reaction to their role conflict instead of changing the other's expectation of each role. Besides, they are more likely to process work and family roles simultaneously rather than sequentially (Hall, 1972). It is, therefore, believed that role conflict is higher for employed women than for men. It is concluded that the greatest number of work-family problems revolve around shared family responsibilities, spousal support, and affordable and dependable child care (Scarr, Phillips, & McCartney, 1989). Gore and Mangione (as cited in Disphanurat, 1997) also finds that the level of stress among employed married women is higher than among employed married men. It is claimed that work is compatible with the family role expectation of men but is less compatible with the family role of most women. This is especially true when there are children, especially young ones in the family.

According to Feldman (1995), stress is part of everyone's life. However, there are no universal formulas for coping with stress, primarily because stress is based on an individual appraisal of how threatening and challenging particular situations are. Still, there are several approaches that have proven effective in seeking to cope with stress (Kaplan, Sallis, & Patterson, 1993). Among them are the following: (1) Attempt

to exert control over the situation. By attempting to exercise control over the situation, thereby reducing the experience of stress (2) Reappraise threatening events as challenging events. If a stressor cannot be controlled, at least it can be appraised in a different, less threatening manner. Findings reveal that people who discover something positive in otherwise negative situations show less distress and are better able to cope, according to Smith & Ellsworth (as cited in Feldman, 1995) (3) Seek out social support. Other people's social support can provide relief and comfort when we are confronting stress. Consequently, asking for assistance from others can be a means of reducing stress (4) Use relaxation techniques. If stress produces chronic physiological arousal, it follows that procedures that reduce such arousal might reduce the harmful consequences of physiological wear-and-tear. Several techniques have been developed, including transcendental meditation, zen and yoga, progressive muscle relaxation, and even hypnosis and (5) Exercise. Ironically, exercise-which leads to temporary physiological arousal- may ultimately reduce stress. If nothing else, exercise provides time off from the circumstances that may be producing stress in the first place, according to Brown (as cited in Feldman, 1995).

Antonovsky (1979) also develops characteristics of successful copers as follows:

(1) Flexibility: being able to create and consider alternative plans (2) Farsightedness: anticipating long-range effects of coping responses and (3) Rationality: making accurate appraisals.

Successful copers find a solution to their problems. They approach problems with a sense of competence and mastery. Their goal is to assess the situation, get advice and support from others, and work out a plan that will be in their best interest. Successful copers use life challenges as an opportunity for personal growth and they try to face these challenges with hope, patience, and a sense of humor. Garland and

Bush (1982) also conclude that coping is considered to be flexible in addition to be goal-oriented. Coping also includes the responses of the individual to the needs of the present and the reality of the current environment. Copers are generally conscious of what they are doing, and they vary their responses appropriately according to situational changes. Besides, Hobfoll, et al. (1991) summarizes that effective copers have a sense of personal mastery. That is, they have a feelings they can positively affect their environments.

However, coping behaviors are developed initially by trail and error, and as specific behaviors are followed by favorable results, they are repeated. Thus, defense mechanisms are one group of coping behavior, which is intrapsychic or unconscious. A process that serves to maintain equilibrium until copers can master a better solution (Millon, 1969).

Antonovsky (1979) further state that unsuccessful copers respond to the life challenges with denial and avoidance. They either withdraw from problems or react impulsively without taking the time and effort to seek the best solution. They tend to be angry, aggressive, and blame themselves or others for their problems and do not appreciate the value of approaching life challenges with a sense of hope, mastery and personal control. Hobfoll, et al. (1991) states that guilt and self-blame can demoralize individuals and paralyze them from coping adequately. Prolonged avoidance of problems is also a tactic that often leads to further difficulties, and that has the feeling of low mastery and limited control over the environment. Blaming and lashing out at others is another ineffective strategy that is the flip side of an underlying sense of guilt. Simply saying that it is a way to avoid their responsibilities for problems. Chemical use, excessive pessimism and social isolation are other maladaptive avenues for coping.

Theorists have frequently emphasized the positive effects of problem-focused coping and negative effects of emotion-focused coping on psychological outcomes, especially when the threatening situation can be ameliorated by the subject's responses (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Although emotion-focused coping or avoidance may help in maintaining emotional balance, an adaptive response to remediable situations still requires problem-solving activities to manage the threat. To add to this, Gal and Lazarus (as cited in Zeidner and Endler, 1996) found that active coping is preferred by most persons and is highly effective in stress reduction.

The Related Foreign Research

Biever, Bobele and North (1998) who studied about intercultural couples suggest that the issue presents many dilemmas for therapists. Working with them present great challenge for therapists as cultural differences may accelerate the stresses inherent in relationships. According to them, potential conflict areas are sex-role expectations, attitudes towards work and leisure, holiday traditions, expression of affection and problem-solving strategies and these are frequently culturally based. Disagreements about these issues might make them cope with their conflicts by using more emotion than logical thinking.

Winkelman (1994) analyzed the issue of culture shock and adaptation. According to him, cultural shock is a multifaceted experience resulting from numerous stressors occurring in contact with a different culture. This seems to be the case with the mixed marriages. It was said that the resolution of cultural shock requires an individual plan that selects among the maintenance behaviors, adjustments, and adaptations, depending on personal circumstances, resources and goals. From this study, it could be concluded that to solve cultural conflicts,

acceptance must be there and in order to cope with stress, problem-oriented approach was found to be more effective.

Berzonsky (1995) studied the effect of level of identity status on the internalization of a public self-presentation. The result indicated that even youth tended to internalize positive presentations and resisted internalizing negative ones. Evidence for the moderating effect of identity diffusion was obtained only in actual face-to-face encounters where self-presentation is most salient.

Leary, et al. (1994) examined people's self-presentational motives in unstructured, everyday social interaction as a function of participant's gender similarity to, and general familiarity with, the targets of their self-presentations. In general, participants' self-presentational motives were lower in interactions with highly familiar people of their own sex than they were either in interactions with less familiar people of their sex or in interactions with people of the other sex regardless of familiarity. Also, when participants' interactions with only their three most familiar interactants were examined, self-presentational concerns decreased with familiarity in same-sex interactions but increased with familiarity in cross-sex interactions. In general, daily interactions among university students, which are the participant's group, involve greater concerns with being perceived as likable and attractive than the interactions of older persons. In particular, young unmarried participants may be more motivated to impression manage to those of the other sex than older, married persons might be.

Bowman and Stern (1995) targeted their research to emotion-focused coping responses, including both emotional management and avoidance responses. The findings of their study demonstrated a strong negative relationship between the avoidance coping responses and coping outcomes.

Catanzaro, et al. (1995) examined a coping resource, negative mood regulation expectancies. Correlation analyzes revealed that individuals with stronger negative mood regulation beliefs were less likely to use avoidant coping strategies in the face of specific stressors, usually health-related. Such beliefs were also negatively correlated with depressive symptoms, whereas higher levels of hassles were positively correlated with depressive symptoms.

The Related Local Research

Kambhu (as cited in Corso, 1997) was the first to study mixed marriages between Western women and Thai men. Her main focus was on the women's perceptions on the attitudes of their families and friends towards their marriages and also on their perceptions of their relationships with their husbands and their in-laws. The main problems identified were culture shock upon arrival in Thailand, partly due to cultural ignorance, communication, language, the in-laws and the position of authority of elders.

Harold Smith (as cited in Corso, 1997) used Kambhu's work to write on the Thai-American mixed marriages as well. His study suggested that the sources of discord in these marriages were the shifts in marital roles due to the move to Thailand, the inability of the wife to communicate which resulted in an increased dependence on her husbands, the in-laws and the concept of respect for the elders.

Smith (1995) also studied marriages between Western women and Thai men and came to the conclusion that the major sources of conflicts which led to stress were the lack of knowledge about the Thai culture, the in-laws, the lack of flexibility about expectations, language, the lack of social networks and the lack of occupation.

Curso (1997) also studied the culture-related problems and success factors of marriages between British Western Women and Thai Men Living in Bangkok. She too identified four areas that were potential sources of conflicts in these marriages, which are communication, the distribution of marital roles, the in-laws, and the cultural adjustment of the British spouse. In the area of communication, the challenge seemed to be conflict resolution, expression of emotions, feelings and opinions. As for marital roles, there was pressure on the British spouse to abide by the family rules. Success depended on the ability to play new roles and to understand the role of her Thai husband, particularly in public. Although cultural adjustment was not a major source of stress for most of them, their biggest fear was losing their own cultural identity in the effort to adjust to the Thai culture. The major factors that helped with the adjustment were the personality of the individual, the qualities of the husband, and some aspects of the host country and time.

Buranasompob (2000) studied the Thai women's opinion and behavior on interracial mate selection. His findings revealed the personal factors influencing the selection of Danish men, as husbands among Thai women, are mostly emotional. Among social and cultural factors, economic and social mobility, receiving social welfare and better living condition for self and family are the major ones. The main problem in marrying Danish men is the skills in language communication, which many Thai women lack. The adjustments between the couple including their families were not a big issue.

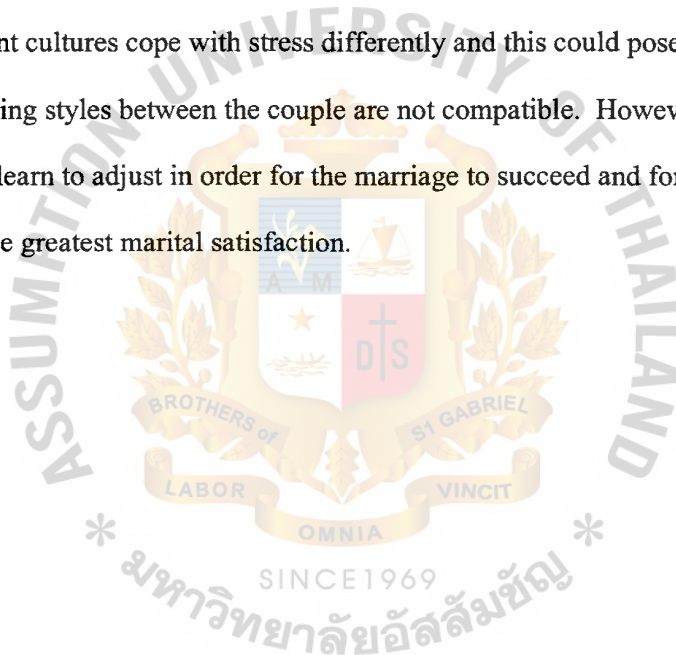
Disphanurat (1997) studied stress and coping styles of female workers in the mass communication organization of Thailand. According to the findings, stress was in the normal level and the three coping styles: task, emotion and avoidance were found to be in the average level. Emotion-oriented coping were found dominantly in

the lower educated and lesser career-oriented female workers. Women with higher responsibilities and working mothers tended towards task-oriented coping while younger female workers with less commitment tended towards avoidance-oriented coping.

Kwannimit (2001) studied the health symptoms and coping styles of HIV infected patients at Trang Hospital. According to the findings, emotion-oriented coping was used in the above average level, avoidance-oriented coping was used in the slightly above average level and task-oriented coping was used in the average level. Also, those with higher education tended to use more task-oriented coping than those with lower education. Younger people were also more emotion-oriented than older patients in this study.

Rojratanakiat (as cited in Disphanurat, 1997) studied role strain and coping styles of multiple role women. The result showed significant relationship on role strain among these variables: age, preschool status of the children, family structure or family economic status, external locus of control but there was no relationship between different number of children in family and job satisfaction. They often coped with the role strain by using reactive role behavior and cognitive restructuring. Structure role redefinition, personal role redefinition and tension reduction were occasionally operated.

In summary, the literature shows that Thais and Non-Thais come from completely different backgrounds. The concepts, values, communication styles, life styles all differ strikingly yet a common ground can be found if both the partners are willing to meet and compromise. There are major differences in communication, which will inevitably cause problems in the mixed marriages, at least in the beginning. These differences bring about the self-presentation in the social lives, which may or may not be on the same wavelength between couples. Another aspect in the mixed marriages is the different modes of coping when faced with stressful situations. Different cultures cope with stress differently and this could pose a problem if the coping styles between the couple are not compatible. However, over time, couples can learn to adjust in order for the marriage to succeed and for both the partners to have the greatest marital satisfaction.



CHAPTER III

Research Methodology

This chapter contains a description of the methodology in studying the self-presentation and coping styles of mixed marriages in Metro Bangkok. This study uses a descriptive research design.

The information in this chapter is presented in four sections:

1. Subjects of the study
2. The Instruments for the study
3. Data Collection
4. Data Analysis

Subjects of the Study

The subjects of the study are mixed married couples in Bangkok, where one of the spouses is a Thai national.

A non-probability sampling was used in this study since there was no information available regarding the exact number of the mixed married couples in Bangkok. The snowball sampling technique has been used for this study. The researcher recognized that Non-Thais are generally found in areas known to have a greater concentration of international citizens, such as international schools, churches and the like, therefore she contacted individuals from, and distributed questionnaires in, the following places:

- (1) Teachers in the International schools such as International School of Bangkok (ISB), Ekamai International School (EIS), New International School of Thailand (NIST), Traill International School (TIS), Thai-Chinese International School (TCIS),

Ruamrudee International School (RIS), Bangkok Patana School (BPS), and The American School of Bangkok (ASB).

(2) International churches such as Holy Redeemer Church, Evangelical Church of Bangkok, Christ Church, and International Church of Bangkok.

(3) Community Services of Bangkok (CSB).

(4) University teachers such as those of Assumption University, Mahidol University, Bangkok University and Chulalongkorn University.

(5) English Language Institutes such as American University Alumni (AUA) and ECC Thailand.

(6) Various Women's Clubs such as British Women's Club, American Women's Club, International Women's Club and an association known as 'Women Across Cultures' and

(7) Acquaintances and friends.

(8) Internet – Using the Internet, questionnaires were sent via Microsoft files to the potential respondents.

A total of 178 sets of valid questionnaires were obtained and used for this study. This means there were a total of 356 respondents.

Instruments for the Study

Closed-ended information questionnaires and self-rating scales were used for this study, which were divided into three parts that can be found in Appendix A.

Part 1 Personal Information (Demographic variables)

This part was devised to collect relevant demographic data (independent variables) concerning the general background of the sample such as gender, age, nationality, education, income, years of marriage and children.

Part 2 Self-Presentation

This part was aimed to assess the self-presentation, as measured by the Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS), of the mixed married couples.

There are 25 items in this scale. Respondents were asked to respond with either a **(T)** for true statements or an **(F)** for false statements. The Self-Monitoring Scale developed by Snyder (1980) most directly assesses the degree to which people act like social chameleons. It measures the extent to which individuals in social situations actively monitor and control their public behaviors and appearances. The instructions for this scale were given in the test itself.

For the scoring procedure of the self-monitoring scale, give one point for each response that matches the following:

1. False 2. False 3. False 4. False 5. True 6. True 7. True 8. True 9. False
10. True 11. True 12. False 13. True 14. False 15. True 16. True 17. False
18. True 19. True 20. False 21. False 22. False 23. False 24. True 25. True

The researcher then added up the scores of the respondents. The self-presentation as measured by the Self-Monitoring Scale is divided into two levels; high self-monitors and low self-monitors. To qualify as high self-monitors, the scores must be between 13-25 whereas for low self-monitors, the scores are between 0-12.

Part 3 Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS)

This part was aimed to assess each respondent's coping styles, which can be divided into three dimensions: task-oriented coping, emotion-oriented coping and avoidance-oriented coping. The Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS) used for this study had been developed by Endler & Parker, 1990. It is a self-reporting coping inventory (adult version), which is appropriate for use with a wide range of

respondents including normal and clinical populations. The respondents were asked to indicate how much they engage in these types of activities when they encounter a difficult, stressful or upsetting situation.

There is a list of 48 items that represent a diverse set of coping responses. The 48-item CISS has three of the 16 items scale assessing the task-oriented, emotion-oriented and avoidance-oriented coping, with the last one also sub-divided into two subscales, distraction (8 items) and social diversion (5 items). However, the three remaining items for avoidance scale are not scored for these two subscales.

The task-oriented coping styles are presented in the CISS in the items:

1, 2, 6, 10, 15, 21, 24, 26, 27, 36, 39, 41, 42, 43, 46, 47.

Items for emotion-oriented coping styles are:

5, 7, 8, 13, 14, 16, 17, 19, 22, 25, 28, 30, 33, 34, 38, 45.

Items for avoidance-oriented coping styles are

3, 4, 9, 11, 12, 18, 20, 23, 29, 31, 32, 35, 37, 40, 44, 48.

The 5-point Likert Scale is used to measure their preferred coping styles to the stressful situations that they had encountered. Respondents are asked to rate themselves by encircling around a number from (1) - "not at all" to (5) - "very much" in accordance with their reactions to their stressful situations. It is important to note that the CISS is appropriate for respondents with a reading level of grade eight or higher (Endler and Parker, 1990). Hence, any respondent with less than a primary and secondary school education background was automatically disregarded from the study. In addition, ambiguous responses, having more than one response circled, or blank responses are given a response of "3" but those must not be more than 5 items, or else the subject would be disregarded.

The CISS (adult version) was selected for this study since it could be easily measured for normal people; it presented sufficient psychometric data in itself. The raw test scores obtained from the test could be converted into T-scores that are standardized scores so that it could be compared to other scores. In the CISS, the T-scores have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10. A norm for CISS was established in the form of T-scores and the interpretive guidelines for T-scores are presented below:

Table 1
The Norm of the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situation (CISS)

Range (Raw Score)			Range (T-Score)	Guideline
Task	Emotion	Avoidance		
Above 76	Above 65	Above 65	Above 70	Very much above average
73-76	61-65	61-65	66-70	Much above average
68-72	55-60	56-60	61-65	Above average
64-67	49-54	51-55	56-60	Slightly above average
54-63	37-48	40-50	45-55	Average
50-53	31-36	34-39	40-44	Slightly below average
46-49	25-30	29-33	35-39	Below Average
41-45	20-24	24-28	30-34	Much below average
Below 41	Below 20	Below 24	Below 30	Very much below average

Note From Coping Inventory for Stressful Situation: Manual (p.14), by N.S. Endler and J.D.A. Parker, 1990, Toronto: Multi Health Systems.

The higher the test scores for any one of the coping styles (task, emotion or avoidance), the greater the degree of coping activity used by the respondent.

There were two versions for one complete set of the questionnaire. One was the Thai-translated version for the Thais and the other was the English version for the Non-Thais.

Instrument Translation

Both the instruments, the Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS) and the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS), were translated by the researcher into the Thai version so as to facilitate clear understanding for the Thai spouses in answering the questions.

Three bi-lingual experts in two languages, English and Thai, then validated the translation. Both the Thai version and English version of the two instruments can be found in Appendix A.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted using both the instruments (SMS & CISS) along with the personal information. This is to test the reliability by using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient before the questionnaires were distributed to all the subjects. For this particular study, the researcher then conducted the reliability test to assure the quality of both instruments on fifteen mixed married couples. These fifteen couples were contacted through acquaintances using the snowball sampling technique and they were not included in the final sample.

An acceptable alpha reliability coefficient should not be less than 0.60 and preferably higher than 0.70. For the pilot study, the reliability coefficient for the two instruments and the personal information was 0.84. Moreover, the researcher also computed the reliability of the instruments under the actual study ($n=356$), which was 0.87. This reliability only reinforced what the researcher had from the pilot study.

Data Collection

1. The data was collected using the demographic and two instruments, Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS) and the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS). A complete set of the questionnaire had two versions; the English version and the Thai. A cover letter was attached to state the purpose of the study and to assure the respondents of its confidentiality.
2. After the questionnaire had been tested as reliable, the researcher then began distributing the questionnaires i.e. from December 1st, 2001. In order to reduce the similarity in the ethnic backgrounds of mixed couples, the researcher had clearly explained to the distributor that questionnaires were to be given out to those mixed couples that were not only different in the nationality but also different in the ethnic background. For example, a mixed couple in which one person is a Thai national and the other is a Thai person holding a U.S. citizenship would not be qualified for the study. The researcher distributed the questionnaires in two ways;
 - (i) Through the various sources mentioned earlier such as the International Schools, International Churches etc and
 - (ii) Through the use of the Internet.

In the first way, the researcher enclosed the questionnaires on self-addressed envelopes with stamps. In the second way, the researcher made a new email account (mixmarriage@hotmail.com) in order to facilitate data collection. Questionnaires were sent to potential respondents via Microsoft word and excel files. By March 1st, 2002, the researcher had collected 178 valid sets of questionnaires.

3. In order for the questionnaire to be valid:

- Both the versions must be completed by a couple i.e. the Thai would complete the Thai version and the Non-Thai would complete the English version.
- The respondents must have an education of at least eighth grade so as to reach the minimum educational requirement for the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS). The respondents who had an education below eighth grade or as categorized in the questionnaire as below tenth grade were disregarded from the study.
- Two of the demographic variables i.e. years of marriage and children must match between the Thai and the English version of the questionnaires. The differing answers could be in situations where one spouse has had children from an earlier marriage therefore leading to two different answers for such variables. Since the researcher did not have direct access to the respondents, it was not possible to obtain clarifications in case of discrepancies. To remedy this, the researcher disregarded those questionnaires that had different answers for the same couple.

Table 2

Questionnaire Distribution

	Personal	Email
Distributed	527	40
Returned	191	21
Invalid	34	0
Valid	157	21

4. Responses from qualified respondents on all scales were scored, added and interpreted according to the rules of the instruments. All the relevant demographic information was summarized for further analyses.

Data Analysis

The collected data were statistically analyzed using the following formulae:

- General demographic data were analyzed using frequency and percentage.
- Mean and Standard deviation – to examine the distribution of the population samples for self-presentation and coping styles.
- t-test – to compare the significant differences with two population means of variables such as gender and children.
- F-test one-way ANOVA – to test the significant differences among variables, which had three or more categories such as age, nationality, education, income and years of marriage.
- Pearson r Correlation Coefficient – to determine the significant relationship between the self-presentation and the three coping styles: task, emotion and avoidance.

CHAPTER IV

Presentation of the Findings

This chapter presents the results obtained through the question survey that was conducted to the mixed marriages in Metro Bangkok. The findings of the study are presented in 6 separate sections as follows:

1. The demographic data of mixed married couples.
2. The degree of self-presentation for each of the demographic variables as measured by the Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS).
3. The coping styles for each of the demographic variables as measured by the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS).
4. The comparison between self-presentation and the demographic variables.
5. The comparison between each coping style: task, emotion and avoidance: and the demographic variables.
6. The correlation between the self-presentation and the coping styles.

All the results are presented in tables with accompanying explanations for each of them.

Section 1 Demographic Data

This section presents the general background of respondents in mixed marriages such as gender, age, nationality, education, income, years of marriage and children.

Table 3
Frequency Distribution of Demographic Variables

Demographics	N	%	Total
Gender			
Female	178	50.0	356
Male	178	50.0	
Age			
35 years or less	156	43.8	356
36 – 45 years	99	27.8	
46 years and above	101	28.4	
Nationality			
Thais	178	50.0	356
Americans	56	15.8	
Europeans	55	15.5	
Asians	45	12.6	
Australians	14	3.9	
Others	8	2.2	
Education			
Grade 10 – 12	57	16.0	356
Vocational Education	44	12.4	
Bachelor’s Degree	156	43.8	
Higher than Bachelor’s degree	99	27.8	
Income			
20,000 Baht or less	97	27.2	356
20,001 – 40,000 Baht	82	23.1	
More than 40,000 Baht	177	49.7	
Years of Marriage			
3 years or less	146	41.0	356
4 – 10 years	104	29.2	
More than 10 years	106	29.8	
Children			
With children	208	58.4	356
Without children	148	41.6	

Table 3 showed the total number of respondents that qualified for the study was 356, which is equivalent to 178 mixed married couples. There were 178 respondents who were males and the same number for females.

According to the demographic variable 'Age', the respondents were divided into three groups. Of the 356 respondents, 156, (43.8%) were 35 years or less; 99, (27.8%) were between 36-45 years; and 101, (28.4%) were 46 years and above.

When considering the demographic variable 'Nationality', there were six groups. Of the 356 respondents, 178, (50%) were of Thai nationality, 56, (15.8%) were Americans, 55, (15.5%) were Europeans, 45, (12.6%) were Asians, 14, (3.9%) were Australians and 8, (2.2%) were 'Others.' Of the 8 respondents, 4 were South Africans, 2 were Canadians, 1 was Brazilian and 1 was Mexican.

For the demographic variable 'Education', of 356 respondents, 156, (43.8%) had a Bachelor's degree, 99, (27.8%) were higher than Bachelor's degree, 57, (16.0%) were between Grade 10-12 and 44, (12.4%) had vocational education.

For the demographic variable 'Income', of 356 respondents, 177, (49.7%) had an income of more than 40,000 Baht per month, 97, (27.2%) had an income of 20,000 Baht or less and 82, (23.1%) had an income between 20,001 - 40,000 Baht.

For the demographic variable 'Years of Marriage', of 356 respondents, 146, (41.0%) had been married for 3 years or less, 104, (29.2%) had been married between 4 -10 years and 106, (29.8%) had been married for more than 10 years.

For the last demographic variable 'Children', of 356 respondents, 208, (58.4%) had children whereas the remaining 148, (41.6%) did not.

For the demographic variable 'Years of Marriage' and 'Children', the number of respondents for each category can be divided by two in order to get the number of mixed married couples.

Nature of Self-Presentation and Coping Styles of Mixed Marriages

Table 4

Mean and Standard Deviation of Self-Presentation and the Three Coping Styles

Scores

Variables	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Self-Presentation	356	11.13	4.35	0	23
Task-Oriented	356	52.38	10.92	25	75
Emotion-Oriented	356	51.42	9.80	29	75
Avoidance-Oriented	356	55.63	11.28	27	75

To investigate the general view of self-presentation and the coping styles of mixed marriages, the mean of each category was considered. In table 4, the self-monitoring mean score of 11.13 fell in the low level on the self-monitoring scale, between 0–12.

When considering the coping styles, the task-oriented mean score of 52.38 and emotion-oriented mean score of 51.42 were in the ‘average level’ in the manual of coping styles, which is between 45-55. However, the avoidance-oriented coping mean score of 55.63 was slightly above the average level. The norm table for the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations is presented in Chapter III. Avoidance-oriented coping style was the most dominant coping style used by the respondents, which was followed by task-oriented and emotion-oriented coping styles respectively.

Section 2 Self-Presentation

The results of the self-presentation scores as measured by the self-monitoring scale of mixed married couples. Two categories can be classified for self-presentation: high and low. Scores from 0 - 12 was considered to be low self-presentation score and scores from 13 - 25 was considered to be a high self-presentation score.

Table 5

Self-Presentation

N	Mean	SD	n of Low	% of Low	n of High	% of High	Min	Max
356	11.13	4.35	221	62.1	135	37.9	0	23

Table 5 showed the total number of respondents as 356. The mean for the sample was 11.13, which was considered a low score in self-presentation.

Of 356 respondents, 221(62.1%) had low self-presentation scores whereas 135 (37.9%) had high self-presentation scores. The minimum score for this scale was 0 and the maximum was 23. This means that respondents were not too concerned about projecting an image that they were not.

Table 6

Self-Presentation According to Gender

Gender	N	Mean	SD	n of Low	% of Low	n of High	% of High	Min	Max
Female	178	11.58	4.01	109	30.6	69	19.4	3	23
Male	178	10.67	4.62	112	31.5	66	18.5	0	21

Table 6 showed the total number of female as 178 and also the same number for male. The mean of self-presentation for females was 11.58 whereas it was 10.67 for male respondents. This means females are relatively higher in self-presentation than males.

Of 178 female respondents, 109, (30.6%) were low self-presenters and 69, (19.4%) were high self-presenters. Of 178 male respondents, 112, (31.5%) were low self-presenters and the remaining 66, (18.5%) were high self-presenters.

The minimum score was 0 that was scored by a male and the maximum score was 23 scored by a female.

This table also showed that both genders had low scores in self-presentation with only a slight difference in the high scores for self-presentation.

Table 7

Self-Presentation According to Age

Age	N	Mean	SD	n of	%	n of	% Of	Min	Max
				Low	Of	High	High		
				Low					
35 yrs or less	156	12.15	3.88	86	24.2	70	19.7	3	23
36 - 45 yrs	99	11.12	3.93	63	17.7	36	10.1	2	21
46 yrs or more	101	9.54	4.94	72	20.2	29	8.1	0	21

Table 7 revealed that respondents who were 35 years or less with the mean score of 12.15 were relatively higher self-presenters than respondents who were between 36 - 45 years with the mean score of 11.12 followed by respondents who were 46 years and above with the mean score of 9.54. Therefore, it could be seen that self-presentations decreased with increase in age.

The minimum score, 0, was scored by a respondent who was from the age range of 46 years and above and the maximum score, 23, was scored by a respondent from the age range of 35 years or less.

This means that the younger respondents cared more about how they appeared to others.

Table 8

Self-Presentation According to Nationality

Nationalities	N	Mean	SD	n of Low	% Of Low	n of High	% Of High	Min	Max
Thai	178	11.65	3.99	106	29.8	72	20.2	1	21
American	56	9.57	4.84	38	10.7	18	5.1	0	21
European	55	11.80	4.52	33	9.3	22	6.2	3	23
Asian	45	10.51	4.15	29	8.1	16	4.5	1	20
Australian	14	9.5	4.93	11	3.1	3	0.8	3	18
Others	8	12.0	4.60	4	1.1	4	1.1	5	20

Note For the purpose of comparison in this table, the “Others” category has been omitted from the discussion. This is so because the number in this category is significantly lower than the other categories, hence its inclusion could lead to some statistical bias.

Table 8 revealed that European respondents with the mean score of 11.80 were relatively higher self-presenters followed by Thai respondents whose mean score were 11.65. They were followed by all other Asian respondents whose mean score was 10.51, and by American respondents with the mean score of 9.57. Among the five discussed categories, Australians whose mean score were 9.5 were relatively the lowest self-presenters.

The minimum score 0 was scored by an American and the maximum score 23 by a European.

This table showed that the Europeans and Thais were the most concerned about how they appeared to others.

Table 9

Self-Presentation According to Education

Education	N	Mean		N of Low	% Of Low	N of High	% Of High	Min	Max
Grade 10-12	57	11.84	3.55	34	9.55	23	6.46	6	20
Vocational Ed.	44	10.84	4.39	28	7.87	16	4.49	3	20
Bachelor's Deg	156	11.55	4.09	92	25.84	64	18.0	1	23
Higher than Bachelor's degree	99	10.17	4.97	67	18.82	32	9.0	0	21

Table 9 showed that respondents who had education between Grade 10-12 with mean score of 11.84 were relatively higher self-presenters. This was followed by those with a Bachelor's degree with mean score of 11.55 and then by those with vocational education with the mean score of 10.84. Those respondents with an education higher than Bachelor's degree with mean score of 10.17 were relatively lower self-presenters.

The minimum score 0 was scored by a respondent who had an education level higher than Bachelor's degree and the maximum score 23 by a respondent with a Bachelor's degree.

This table indicates that as education increased, the lower the need for self-presentation.

Table 10
Self-Presentation According to Income

Income	N	Mean		N of Low	% Of Low	N of High	% Of High	Min	Max
20,000 Baht or less	97	11.64	3.84	59	16.57	38	10.67	4	21
20,001 - 40,000 Baht	82	11.18	4.07	51	14.33	31	8.71	1	20
More than 40,000 Baht	177	10.82	4.71	111	31.18	66	18.54	0	23

Table 10 showed that those respondents with an income of 20,000 Baht or less with a mean score of 11.64 were relatively higher self-presenters followed by those with an income of 20,001-40,000 Baht with a mean score of 11.18. Lastly, those respondents with income of more than 40,000 Baht with a mean score of 10.82 were relatively the lowest self-presenters.

The minimum score 0 was scored by a respondent with an income of more than 40,000 Baht and the maximum score 23 also from the same category.

From this table, it can be seen that the self-presentation reduced as income increased.

Table 11

Self-Presentation According to Years of Marriage

Years of Marriage	N	Mean		N of Low	% Of Low	N of High	% Of High	Min	Max
3 yrs or less	146	12.24	4.01	75	21.06	71	19.9	3	23
4 - 10 yrs	104	10.97	4.12	69	19.38	35	9.8	1	21
More than 10 yrs	106	9.75	4.62	77	21.63	29	8.2	0	21

Table 11 showed that respondents who had been married for 3 years or less had a mean score of 12.24 which ranked highest on the self-presentation scale followed by those who had been married between 4-10 years with the mean score of 10.97. Then those who had been married for more than 10 years with mean score of 9.75.

The minimum score 0 was scored by a respondent who had been married for more than 10 years and the maximum score 23 by a respondent who had been married for 3 years or less.

From this it can be seen that the self-presentation decreased with an increase in the years of marriage.

Table 12

Self-Presentation According to Children

Children	N	Mean	S.D.	N of	% Of	N of	%	Min	Max
				Low	Low	High	Of High		
With Children	208	10.70	4.40	139	39.04	69	19.4	0	21
Without Children	148	11.72	4.21	82	23.03	66	18.5	3	23

Table 12 showed that respondents who had children with the mean score of 10.70 were relatively lower self-presenters than those without children with the mean score of 11.72.

The minimum score 0 was scored by a respondent with children and the maximum score 23 by a respondent without children.

This table showed that those who had children were less concerned about appearances than those without.

Section 3 Coping Styles

The results of the coping styles as measured by the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS) of mixed married couples showed three dominant coping styles: task-oriented, emotion-oriented and avoidance-oriented.

Table 13
Coping Styles

Coping Styles	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Task-Oriented	356	52.38	10.92	25	75
Emotion-Oriented	356	51.42	9.80	29	75
Avoidance-Oriented	356	55.63	11.28	27	75

Table 13 showed the total number of respondents as 356. The mean for avoidance-oriented coping was 55.63 which ranked highest followed by the mean for task-oriented coping which was 52.38 and then the emotion-oriented coping mean score which was 51.42.

This means avoidance-oriented coping was used most and emotion-oriented coping least among the respondents.

Table 14

Coping Styles According to Gender

Coping Styles	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Task-Oriented					
-Female	178	51.32	11.37	25	75
-Male	178	53.45	10.38	25	75
Emotion-Oriented					
-Female	178	51.97	9.70	29	75
-Male	178	50.87	9.89	32	75
Avoidance-Oriented					
-Female	178	56.08	10.75	27	75
-Male	178	55.19	11.80	27	75

Table 14 showed the coping styles according to gender.

The mean for task-oriented coping was higher in males, which was 53.45 and for females, was 51.32. For emotion-oriented coping, the mean for females was 51.97, higher than in males, which was 50.87. For avoidance-oriented coping, the mean for females was 56.08, which was higher than in males, which was 55.19.

In summary, females dominantly used avoidance-oriented coping followed by emotion-oriented coping and then task-oriented coping. Males, on the other hand, dominantly used avoidance-oriented coping followed by task-oriented coping and then emotion-oriented coping.

This table showed that both genders used avoidance-oriented coping styles but males used more task-oriented coping as a second choice and females used emotion-oriented coping.

Table 15
Coping Styles According to Age

Coping Styles	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Task-Oriented					
-35 years or less	156	51.49	11.03	25	71
-36-45 years	99	53.39	10.81	25	75
-46 years and above	101	52.78	10.88	25	75
Emotion-Oriented					
-35 years or less	156	53.15	9.91	33	75
-36-45 years	99	51.21	9.30	34	75
-46 years and above	101	48.94	9.64	29	75
Avoidance-Oriented					
-35 years or less	156	58.62	10.58	28	75
-36-45 years	99	53.80	10.58	27	75
-46 years and above	101	52.82	11.98	27	75

Table 15 showed the coping styles according to age.

For task-oriented coping, the mean ranked highest in respondents who were between 36-45 years with the mean being 53.39 followed closely by those who were 46 years and above with the mean of 52.78 then by those who were 35 years or less with a mean of 51.49.

For emotion-oriented coping, the mean ranked highest among those who were 35 years or less at the mean of 53.15 followed by those who were between 36-45 years with the mean of 51.21 then by those who were 46 years and above with a mean of 48.94.

Finally, for avoidance-oriented coping, the mean ranked highest among those who were 35 years or less with the mean of 58.62 followed by those who were between 36-45 years with mean of 53.8 then by those who were 46 years and above with the mean of 52.82.

To sum up this table, those who were 35 years or less mainly used avoidance-oriented coping followed by emotion-oriented coping and then task-oriented coping. Those who were between 36-45 years mainly used avoidance-oriented coping followed very closely by task-oriented coping and then emotion-oriented coping.

For those who were 46 years and above, avoidance-oriented coping was used the most which was slightly more than the task-oriented coping and the emotion-oriented coping was used relatively less than the first two.

Thus, it can be seen that the older the respondent, the more task-oriented the respondents became.

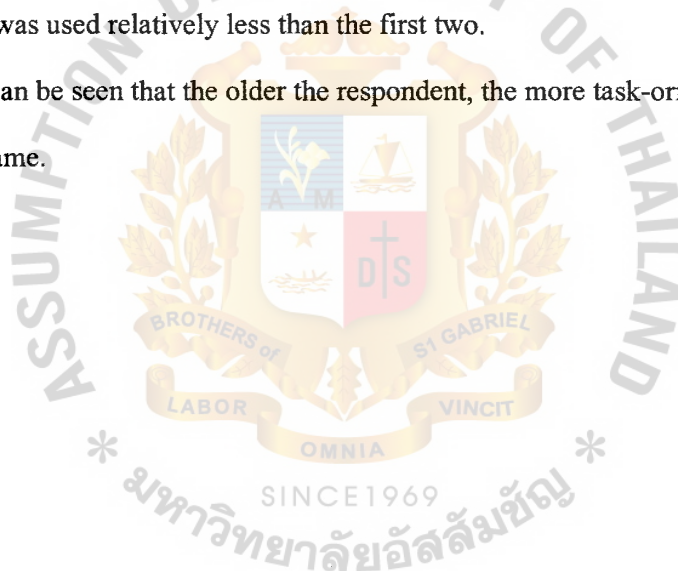


Table 16

Coping Styles According to Nationality

Coping Styles	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Task-Oriented					
- Thai	178	52.60	11.45	25	75
-American	56	53.50	10.99	25	75
-European	55	50.02	10.55	25	67
-Asian	45	52.93	9.72	33	69
-Australian	14	50.71	9.19	26	62
-Others	8	55.88	10.06	38	69
Emotion-Oriented					
- Thai	178	52.70	9.86	33	75
-American	56	49.63	10.80	29	75
-European	55	49.78	8.61	32	75
-Asian	45	52.49	8.31	38	75
-Australian	14	43.36	5.96	33	55
-Others	8	54.75	13.54	36	75
Avoidance-Oriented					
- Thai	178	58.11	10.49	28	75
-American	56	52.30	11.36	27	75
-European	55	52.56	11.01	32	75
-Asian	45	55.87	11.48	27	75
-Australian	14	46.93	9.47	28	63
-Others	8	58.88	15.72	36	75

Note For the purpose of comparison in this table, the “Others” category has been omitted from the discussion. This is so because the number in this category is significantly lower than the other categories, hence its inclusion could lead to some statistical bias.

Table 16 showed the coping styles according to nationalities.

For task-oriented coping, Americans’ mean score was 53.50 which ranked highest followed by the Asians with the mean score of 52.93 then the Thais with the mean score of 52.60, Australians with the mean score of 50.71, and the Europeans with the mean score of 50.02.

For emotion-oriented coping, the Thais' mean score was 52.70 which ranked highest followed by Asians with the mean score of 52.49, Europeans with mean score of 49.78, Americans with mean score of 49.63 and then Australians with mean score of 43.36.

For avoidance-oriented coping, the Thais' mean score was 58.11 which ranked highest followed by Asians with mean score of 55.87, Europeans with mean score of 52.56, Americans with mean score of 52.30 and then Australians with mean score of 46.93.



Table 17

Coping Styles According to Education

Coping Styles	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Task-Oriented					
- Grade 10-12	57	48.74	11.78	25	70
-Vocational Ed.	44	48.75	12.76	25	69
-Bachelor’s Degree	156	53.00	10.18	25	75
-Higher than Bachelor’s degree	99	55.13	9.78	25	75
Emotion-Oriented					
- Grade 10-12	57	53.07	11.32	34	75
-Vocational Ed.	44	53.98	9.39	34	75
-Bachelor’s Degree	156	52.21	9.79	32	75
-Higher than Bachelor’s degree	99	48.09	8.22	29	66
Avoidance-Oriented					
- Grade 10-12	57	58.02	10.16	34	75
-Vocational Ed.	44	55.00	10.56	33	75
-Bachelor’s Degree	156	56.68	11.46	28	75
-Higher than Bachelor’s degree	99	52.90	11.51	27	75

Table 17 showed the coping styles according to education.

For task-oriented coping, the mean ranked highest in those who had an education higher than Bachelor’s degree with mean score of 55.13 followed by those with a bachelor’s degree with mean score of 53.00 then by those with Vocational education with mean score of 48.75 and those who were between Grade 10-12 with mean score of 48.74.

For emotion-oriented coping, the mean ranked highest in those with Vocational education with mean score of 53.98 followed closely by those who were between Grade 10-12 with mean score of 53.07 then by those with a Bachelor's degree with mean score of 52.21 and lastly by those who were higher than bachelor's degree with mean score of 48.09.

For avoidance-oriented coping, the mean ranked highest in those who were between Grade 10-12 with mean score being 58.02 followed by those with a Bachelor's degree with mean score being 56.68. Then by those with Vocational education, mean score being 55.00 and finally by those who were higher than Bachelor's degree, mean score being 52.90.

It can be seen that the higher the education, the more task-oriented coping style were used and the less the emotion-oriented coping style. Then the lower the education level, the more emotion-oriented coping style were used and the less task-oriented coping style.

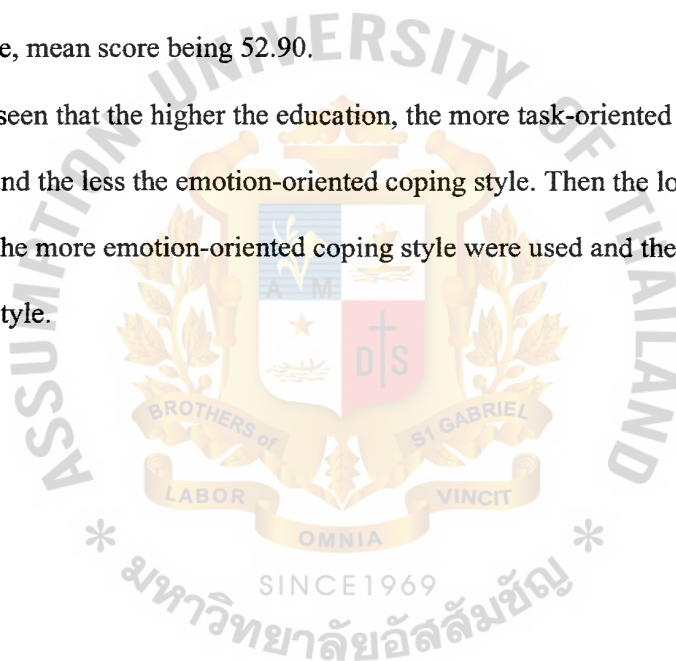


Table 18
Coping Styles According to Income

Coping Styles	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Task-Oriented					
-20,000 Baht or less	97	49.73	10.75	25	70
-20,001 - 40,000 Baht	82	53.32	10.29	25	71
-More than 40,000 Baht	177	53.41	11.12	25	75
Emotion-Oriented					
-20,000 Baht or less	97	52.26	10.33	33	75
-20,001 - 40,000 Baht	82	53.66	9.15	39	75
-More than 40,000 Baht	177	49.92	9.59	29	75
Avoidance-Oriented					
-20,000 Baht or less	97	58.77	10.89	27	75
-20,001 - 40,000 Baht	82	56.21	11.05	34	75
-More than 40,000 Baht	177	53.65	11.24	27	75

Table 18 showed the coping styles according to income.

Those with income of more than 40,000 Baht with mean score of 53.41 were highest on the task-oriented coping followed by those with income between 20,001-40,000 Baht with mean score being 53.32 and then by those with income of 20,000 Baht or less with mean score being 49.73.

Then, those with income between 20,001-40,000 Baht with mean score of 53.66 ranked highest on the emotion-oriented coping followed closely by those with income of 20,000 Baht or less with mean score of 52.26 and then by those with income of more than 40,000 Baht with mean score of 49.92.

Finally, those with income of 20,000 Baht or less with mean score of 58.77 were highest on the avoidance-oriented coping followed by those with income

between 20,001-40,000 Baht with mean score of 56.21 and then by those with income of more than 40,000 Baht with mean score of 53.65.

Generally, it can be seen that those with higher incomes used more task-oriented coping than those with lower incomes. Also, those with lower incomes tended to use more of both emotion-oriented coping and avoidance-oriented coping than those with higher incomes.

Table 19
Coping Styles According to Years of Marriage

Coping Styles	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Task-Oriented					
- 3 years or less	146	51.62	11.17	25	71
- 4-10 years	104	52.44	10.82	26	70
- More than 10 years	106	53.38	10.70	25	75
Emotion-Oriented					
- 3 years or less	146	51.64	9.48	33	75
- 4-10 years	104	52.52	10.32	34	75
- More than 10 years	106	50.03	9.62	29	75
Avoidance-Oriented					
- 3 years or less	146	57.75	11.18	28	75
- 4-10 years	104	55.88	11.40	27	75
- More than 10 years	106	52.48	10.67	27	75

Table 19 showed the coping styles according to years of marriage.

For task-oriented coping, those who had been married for more than 10 years with mean score of 53.38 ranked highest followed by those married between 4-10

years with mean score of 52.44 and then by those married for 3 years or less with mean score of 51.62.

For emotion-oriented coping, those who had been married between 4-10 years with mean score of 52.52 ranked highest followed by those married for 3 years or less with mean score of 51.64 and then by those married for more than 10 years with mean score of 50.03.

For avoidance-oriented coping, those who had been married for 3 years or less with mean score of 57.75 ranked highest followed by those married between 4-10 years with mean score of 55.88 and then by those married for more than 10 years with mean score of 52.48. It can be seen that task-oriented coping was used more as years of marriage increased. It can also be seen that avoidance-oriented coping were used less with an increase in the years of marriage. Finally, as years of marriage increased, emotion-oriented coping decreased.

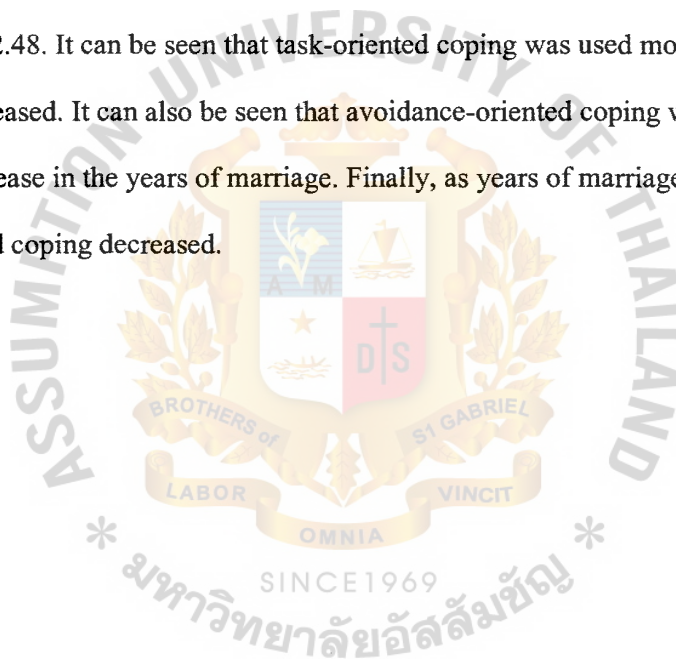


Table 20
Coping Styles According to Children

Coping Styles	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Task-Oriented					
- With Children	208	52.40	11.03	25	75
- Without Children	148	52.37	10.81	25	75
Emotion-Oriented					
- With Children	208	51.28	10.05	32	75
- Without Children	148	51.62	9.46	29	75
Avoidance-Oriented					
- With Children	208	54.68	11.53	27	75
- Without Children	148	56.97	10.83	32	75

Table 20 the coping styles according to children.

For task-oriented coping, those with children with mean score of 52.40 had a slightly higher mean than that of those without children with the mean score of 52.37.

For emotion-oriented coping, those without children with mean score of 51.62 had a higher mean than that of those with children with the mean score of 51.28.

Finally, for avoidance-oriented coping, those without children with mean score of 56.97 again had a higher mean than that of those with children with the mean score of 54.68.

This means that those with children used more of the task-oriented coping and less of the emotion and avoidance-oriented coping as compared to those without children.

Section 4 The Difference Between Self-Presentation and Demographic Variables

Table 21

The Difference Between Self-Presentation and Demographic Variables: ‘Gender’ and ‘Children’

Variable	N	Mean	SD	t- value	Sig.
Gender					
- Female	178	11.58	4.01	1.97	0.050*
- Male	178	10.67	4.62		
Children					
- With Children	208	10.70	4.40	-2.21	0.028*
- Without Children	148	11.72	4.21		

* p < 0.05

Table 21 showed a significant difference between self-presentation and gender. The null hypothesis was rejected. The table showed that females scored higher in self-presentation than males.

This table also showed that there was a significant difference between self-presentation and children. The null hypothesis was rejected. Those without children scored higher in self-presentation than those with children.

Table 22

The Difference Between Self-Presentation and Demographic Variables: 'Age', 'Nationality', 'Education', 'Income' and 'Years of Marriage'

Variables	Source of Variation	SS	Df	MS	F	Sig.
Age	Between group	417.41	2	208.71	11.718	0.000*
	Within group	6285.90	353	17.81		
	Total	6703.31	355			
Nationality	Between group	269.65	5	53.93	2.934	0.013*
	Within group	6433.66	350	18.38		
	Total	6703.31	355			
Education	Between group	151.18	3	50.39	2.707	0.045*
	Within group	6552.14	352	18.61		
	Total	6703.31	355			
Income	Between group	42.47	2	21.24	1.125	0.326
	Within group	6660.84	353	18.87		
	Total	6703.31	355			
Years of Marriage	Between group	385.67	2	192.83	10.772	0.000*
	Within group	6317.65	353	17.90		
	Total	6703.31	355			

* $p < 0.05$

Table 22 showed that there were significant differences at the 0.05 level between self-presentation and demographic variables, 'age', 'nationality', 'education' and 'years of marriage'. The null hypotheses for these variables were rejected.

However, there was no significant difference between self-presentation and income. The null hypothesis was accepted for this variable.

Table 23

Multiple Comparisons of Means Between Self-Presentation and Age

		35 years or less	36-45 years	46 yrs & above
Age	Mean	12.15	11.12	9.54
35 years or less	12.15	-	1.03	2.61*
36-45 years	11.12		-	1.58*
46 yrs & above	9.54			-

* p < 0.05

Table 23 showed the difference between self-presentation and age. There was a difference between those who were 35 years or less and those 46 years and above. There was also a difference between those who were 36-45 years and those who were 46 years and above.

Table 24

Multiple Comparisons of Means Between Self-Presentation and Nationality

		Thai	American	European	Asian	Australian	Others
Nationality	Mean	11.65	9.57	11.80	10.51	9.50	12.0
Thai	11.65	-	2.08	-0.15	1.14	2.15	-0.35
American	9.57		-	-2.23	-0.94	7.14	-2.43
European	11.80			-	1.29	2.30	-0.20
Asian	10.51				-	1.01	-1.49
Australian	9.50					-	-2.50
Others	12.0						-

Table 24 showed that there were no two pairs of means that was significant for self-presentation and nationality.

Table 25

Multiple Comparisons of Means Between Self-Presentation and Education

		Gr.10-12	Vocational	Bachelor's	Higher than
Education	Mean	11.84	Education	Degree	Bachelor's
		11.84	10.84	11.55	10.17
Grade 10-12	11.84	-	1.00	0.29	1.67
Vocational Ed.	10.84		-	-0.71	0.67
Bachelor's Degree	11.55			-	1.38
Higher than Bachelor's	10.17				-

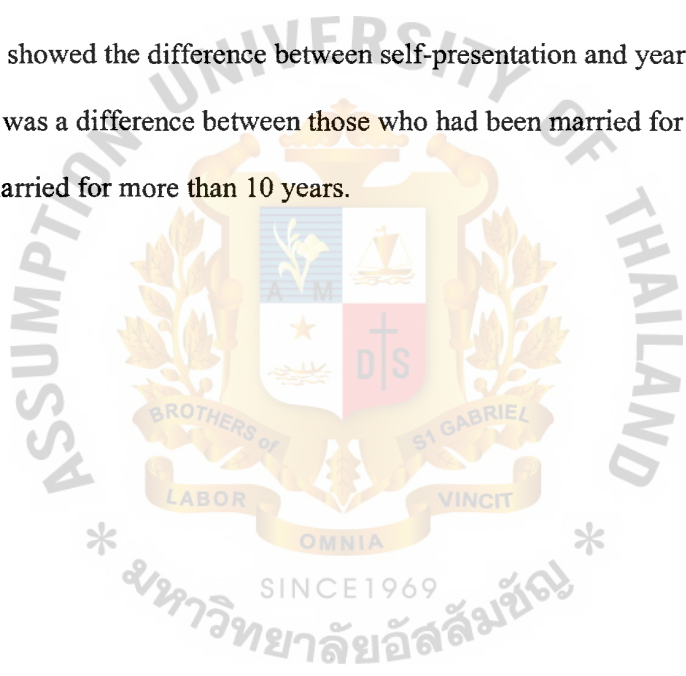
Table 25 showed that there were no two pairs of means that was significant for self-presentation and education.

Table 26
Multiple Comparisons of Means Between Self-Presentation and Years of Marriage

		3 years or less	4-10 years	More than 10 yrs
Years of Marriage	Mean	12.24	10.97	9.75
3 years or less	12.24	-	1.27	2.49*
4-10 years	10.97		-	1.23
More than 10 years	9.75			-

* P < 0.05

Table 26 showed the difference between self-presentation and years of marriage. There was a difference between those who had been married for 3 years or less and those married for more than 10 years.



Section 5 The Difference Between Coping Style and Demographic Variables

Table 27

The Difference Between Task-Oriented Coping Style and Demographic

Variables: ‘Gender’ and ‘Children’

Variable	N	Mean	SD	t- value	Sig.
Gender					
- Female	178	51.32	11.37	-1.85	0.066
- Male	178	53.45	10.38		
Children					
- With Children	208	52.40	11.03	0.03	0.977
- Without Children	148	52.36	10.81		

Table 27 showed that there was no significant difference between task-oriented coping style and gender. The null hypothesis was accepted.

This table also showed that there was no significant difference between task-oriented coping style and children. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 28
The Difference Between the Task-Oriented Coping Style and Demographic
Variables: ‘Age’, ‘Nationality’, ‘Education’, ‘Income’ and ‘Years of Marriage’

Variables	Source of Variation	SS	Df	MS	F	Sig.
Age	Between group	242.46	2	121.23	1.016	0.363
	Within group	42121.8	353	119.33		
	Total	42364.3	355			
Nationality	Between group	536.084	5	107.22	0.897	0.483
	Within group	41828.2	350	119.51		
	Total	42364.3	355			
Education	Between group	2145.68	3	715.23	6.260	0.000*
	Within group	40218.6	352	114.26		
	Total	42364.3	355			
Income	Between group	938.78	2	469.39	4.000	0.019*
	Within group	41425.5	353	117.35		
	Total	42364.3	355			
Years of Marriage	Between group	189.44	2	94.72	0.793	0.453
	Within group	42174.8	353	119.48		
	Total	42364.3	355			

* p < 0.05

Table 28 showed that there was a significant difference at the 0.05 level between task-oriented coping and demographic variables of ‘education’ and ‘income’. The null hypotheses were rejected.

However, there were no significant differences between task-oriented coping style and demographic variables of ‘age’, ‘nationality’ and ‘years of marriage’. Therefore, the null hypotheses were accepted.

Table 29
Multiple Comparisons of Means Between Task-Oriented Coping Style and Education

		Gr.10-12	Vocational Education	Bachelor's Degree	Higher than Bachelor's
Education	Mean	48.74	48.75	53.00	55.13
Grade 10-12	48.74	-	-1.32	-4.26	-6.39*
Vocational Ed.	48.75		-	-4.25	-6.38*
Bachelor's Degree	53.00			-	-2.13
Higher than Bachelor's	55.13				-

* p < 0.05

Table 29 showed the difference between task-oriented coping style and education. There was a difference between those who had an education between grade 10-12 and those who were higher than Bachelor's degree. There was also a difference between those who had vocational education and those who were higher than Bachelor's degree.

Table 30

Multiple Comparisons of Means Between Task-Oriented Coping Style and

Income

		20,000 Baht or less	20,001 - 40,000 Baht	More than 40,000 Baht
Income	Mean	49.73	53.32	53.41
20,000 Baht or less	49.73	-	-3.59	-3.67*
20,001 - 40,000 Baht	53.32		-	-8.97
More than 40,000 Baht	53.41			-

* p < 0.05

Table 30 showed the difference between task-oriented coping style and income. There was a difference between those who had an income of 20,000 Baht or less and those with an income of more than 40,000 Baht

The Difference Between Emotion-Oriented Coping Style and Demographic Variables

Table 31

The Difference Between the Emotion-Oriented Coping Style and Demographic Variables: ‘Gender’ and ‘Children’

Variable	N	Mean	SD	t- value	Sig.
Gender					
- Female	178	51.97	9.70	1.06	0.292
- Male	178	50.87	9.89		
Children					
- With Children	208	51.28	10.05	-0.32	0.750
- Without Children	148	51.62	9.46		

Table 31 showed that there was no significant difference between emotion-oriented coping style and gender. The null hypothesis was accepted.

This table also showed that there was no significant difference between emotion-oriented coping style and children. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 32
The Difference Between the Emotion-Oriented Coping Style and Demographic
Variables: ‘Age’, ‘Nationality’, ‘Education’, ‘Income’ and ‘Years of Marriage’

Variables	Source of Variation	SS	Df	MS	F	Sig.
Age	Between group	1094.14	2	547.07	5.854	0.003*
	Within group	32986.5	353	93.45		
	Total	34080.6	355			
Nationality	Between group	1670.95	5	334.19	3.609	0.003*
	Within group	32409.7	350	92.60		
	Total	34080.6	355			
Education	Between group	1636.32	3	545.44	5.918	0.001*
	Within group	32444.3	352	92.17		
	Total	34080.6	355			
Income	Between group	876.75	2	438.38	4.661	0.010*
	Within group	33203.9	353	94.06		
	Total	34080.6	355			
Years of Marriage	Between group	338.282	2	169.14	1.769	0.172
	Within group	33742.4	353	95.59		
	Total	34080.6	355			

* p < 0.05

Table 32 showed that there was a significant difference at the 0.05 level between emotion-oriented coping and demographic variables of ‘age’, ‘nationality’, ‘education’ and ‘income’. The null hypotheses were rejected.

However, there were no significant differences between emotion-oriented coping style and demographic variable, ‘years of marriage’. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 33
Multiple Comparisons of Means Between Emotion-Oriented Coping Style and Age

		35 years or less	36-45 years	46 yrs & above
Age	Mean	53.15	51.21	48.94
35 years or less	53.15	-	1.94	4.21*
36-45 years	51.21		-	2.27
46 yrs & above	48.94			-

* p < 0.05

Table 33 showed the difference between emotion-oriented coping style and age. There was a difference between those who were 35 years or less and those who were 46 years and above.

Table 34
Multiple Comparisons of Means Between Emotion-Oriented Coping Style and Nationality

		Thai	American	European	Asian	Australian	Others
Nationality	Mean	52.70	49.63	49.78	52.49	43.36	54.75
Thai	52.70	-	3.08	2.92	0.21	9.35*	-2.05
American	49.63		-	-0.16	-2.86	6.27	-5.13
European	49.78			-	-2.71	6.42	-4.97
Asian	52.49				-	9.13	-2.26
Australian	43.36					-	-11.39
Others	54.75						-

* p < 0.05

Table 34 showed the difference between emotion-oriented coping style and Nationality. There was a difference between the Thais and the Australians.

Table 35
Multiple Comparisons of Means Between Emotion-Oriented Coping Style and Education

		Gr.10-12	Vocational Education	Bachelor's Degree	Higher than Bachelor's
Education	Mean	53.07	53.98	52.21	48.09
Grade 10-12	53.07	-	-0.91	0.87	4.98*
Vocational Ed.	53.98		-	1.77	5.89*
Bachelor's Degree	52.21			-	4.11*
Higher than Bachelor's	48.09				-

* p < 0.05

Table 35 showed the difference between emotion-oriented coping style and education. There was a difference between those who had an education between grade

10-12 and those who were higher than Bachelor’s degree. There was also a difference between those who had vocational education and those who were higher than Bachelor’s degree. There was also a difference between those who had Bachelor’s degree and those who were higher than Bachelor’s degree.

Table 36
Multiple Comparisons of Means Between Emotion-Oriented Coping Style and Income

		20,000 Baht or less	20,001 - 40,000 Baht	More than 40,000 Baht
Income	Mean	52.26	53.66	49.92
20,000 Baht or less	52.26	-	-1.40	2.34
20,001 - 40,000 Baht	53.66		-	3.74*
More than 40,000 Baht	49.92			-

* p < 0.05

Table 36 showed the difference between emotion-oriented coping style and income. There was a difference between those who had an income between 20,001-40,000 Baht and those with an income of more than 40,000 Baht.

The Difference Between Avoidance-Oriented Coping Style and Demographic Variables

Table 37

The Difference Between Avoidance-Oriented Coping Style and Demographic Variables: ‘Gender’ and ‘Children’

Variable	N	Mean	SD	t- value	Sig.
Gender					
- Female	178	56.08	10.75	0.751	0.453
- Male	178	55.19	11.80		
Children					
- With Children	208	54.68	11.53	-1.895	0.059
- Without Children	148	56.97	10.83		

Table 37 showed that there was no significant difference between avoidance-oriented coping style and gender. The null hypothesis was accepted.

This table also showed that there was no significant difference between avoidance-oriented coping style and children. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 38
The Difference Between Avoidance-Oriented Coping Style and Demographic
Variables: ‘Age’, ‘Nationality’, ‘Education’, ‘Income’ and ‘Years of Marriage’

Variables	Source of Variation	SS	Df	MS	F	Sig.
Age	Between group	2525.09	2	1262.5	10.448	0.000*
	Within group	42655.4	353	120.84		
	Total	45180.5	355			
Nationality	Between group	3380.41	5	676.08	5.661	0.000*
	Within group	41800.1	350	119.43		
	Total	45180.5	355			
Education	Between group	1252.58	3	417.53	3.346	0.019*
	Within group	43927.9	352	124.80		
	Total	45180.5	355			
Income	Between group	1679.76	2	839.88	6.816	0.001*
	Within group	43500.8	353	123.23		
	Total	45180.5	355			
Years of Marriage	Between group	1715.57	2	857.78	6.966	0.001*
	Within group	43465.0	353	123.13		
	Total	45180.5	355			

* p < 0.05

Table 38 showed that there was a significant difference at the 0.05 level between avoidance-oriented coping and demographic variables, ‘age’, ‘nationality’, ‘education’, ‘income’ and ‘years of marriage’. The null hypotheses were rejected.

Table 39
Multiple Comparisons of Means Between Avoidance-Oriented Coping Style and
Age

		35 years or less	36-45 years	46 yrs & above
Age	Mean	58.62	53.80	52.82
35 years or less	58.62	-	4.82*	5.80*
36-45 years	53.80		-	0.98
46 yrs & above	52.82			-

* p < 0.05

Table 39 showed the difference between avoidance-oriented coping style and age. There was a difference between those who were 35 years or less and those who were between 36-45 years. There was also a difference between those who were 35 years or less and those who were 46 years and above.

Table 40
Multiple Comparisons of Means Between Avoidance-Oriented Coping Style and Nationality

		Thai	American	European	Asian	Australian	Others
Nationality	Mean	58.11	52.30	52.56	55.87	46.93	58.88
Thai	58.11	-	5.81*	5.55	2.25	11.18*	-0.76
American	52.30		-	-0.26	-3.56	5.38	-6.57
European	52.56			-	-3.30	5.64	-6.31
Asian	55.87				-	8.94	-3.01
Australian	46.93					-	-11.95
Others	58.88						-

* p < 0.05

Table 40 showed the difference between avoidance-oriented coping style and Nationality. There was a difference between the Thais and the Americans. There was also a difference between the Thais and the Australians.

Table 41
Multiple Comparisons of Means Between Avoidance-Oriented Coping Style and Education

		Gr.10-12	Vocational Education	Bachelor's Degree	Higher than Bachelor's
Education	Mean	58.02	55.00	56.68	52.90
Grade 10-12	58.02	-	3.02	1.34	5.12
Vocational Ed.	55.00		-	-1.68	2.10
Bachelor's Degree	56.68			-	3.78
Higher than Bachelor's	52.90				-

Table 41 showed that there were no two pairs of means that was significant for avoidance-oriented coping and education.

Table 42

Multiple Comparisons of Means Between Avoidance-Oriented Coping Style and Income

		20,000 Baht or less	20,001 - 40,000 Baht	More than 40,000 Baht
Income	Mean	58.77	56.21	53.65
20,000 Baht or less	58.77	-	2.57	5.12*
20,001 - 40,000 Baht	56.21		-	2.56
More than 40,000 Baht	53.65			-

* p < 0.05

Table 42 showed the difference between avoidance-oriented coping style and income. There was a difference between those who had an income of 20,000 Baht or less and those with an income of more than 40,000 Baht.

Table 43
Multiple Comparisons of Means Between Avoidance-Oriented Coping Style and
Years of Marriage

		3 years or less	4-10 years	More than 10 yrs
Years of Marriage	Mean	57.75	55.88	52.48
3 years or less	57.75	-	1.88	5.27 *
4-10 years	55.88		-	3.39
More than 10 years	52.48			-

* p < 0.05

Table 43 showed the difference between avoidance-oriented coping style and years of marriage. There was a difference between those who had been married for 3 years or less and those married for more than 10 years.



Section 6 The Relationship Between Self-Presentation and the Three Coping Styles

Table 44

The Correlation Between Self-Presentation and the Three Coping Styles

Variables	Self-Presentation	Task	Emotion	Avoidance
Self-Presentation	1.000			
Task	0.065	1.000		
Emotion	0.127 *	-0.051	1.000	
Avoidance	0.250 **	0.222 **	0.290 **	1.000

* significant at the 0.05 level

** significant at the 0.01 level

Table 44 showed the relationship between self-presentation and the three coping styles. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r) was used to investigate the relationship among variables: self-presentation, task, emotion, and avoidance.

The relationship could be positive, negative or even absent. If the result showed a positive relationship, it meant that two variables varied in the same direction. The strength of relationship between variables also indicated how one variable changed with respect to another. The higher the value of that statistic, the stronger the relationship.

In this table, it appeared that the relationship between self-presentation and avoidance-oriented coping was the strongest ($r = 0.250$) followed by emotion-oriented coping ($r = 0.127$), and task-oriented coping ($r = 0.065$). This means, respondents who had high self-presentation levels tended to use more avoidance-oriented coping style. This was followed by emotion-oriented coping and then task-oriented coping in which the correlation of the latter one with self-presentation was very weak.

To sum up, there was a significant relationship between self-presentation and the avoidance-oriented coping style at the 0.01 level. There was also a significant relationship between self-presentation and emotion-oriented coping style at the 0.05 level. Yet, task-oriented coping style was not significantly related to the self-presentation.

Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected for the relationship between self-presentation and avoidance-oriented coping style and also for the relationship between self-presentation and emotion-oriented coping style. As for the self-presentation and task-oriented coping style, the null hypothesis was accepted.

For the correlation among the coping styles, there were positive correlations between each other except between task-oriented coping and emotion-oriented coping. The strength of the correlation between avoidance-oriented coping and emotion-oriented coping was the highest (0.290). This was found to be a moderate association although highest among the coping styles in this study. That is, respondents who preferred using avoidance-oriented coping tended to use emotion-oriented coping as well.

This was closely followed by correlation between avoidance-oriented coping and task-oriented coping (0.222). That is respondents who used avoidance-oriented coping also used task-oriented coping.

However, there was a negative correlation between emotion-oriented coping and task-oriented coping (-0.051), although the association was quite weak that it was almost negligible. That is, those respondents who used more emotion-oriented coping tended to use less task-oriented coping and vice versa.

In conclusion, there was a significant relationship between avoidance-oriented coping and task-oriented coping. There was also a significant relationship between

avoidance-oriented coping and emotion-oriented coping. These positive correlations were found to be significant at the 0.01 level. It could be concluded that respondents used avoidance-oriented coping along with emotion-oriented coping and/or task-oriented coping.



CHAPTER V

Summary, Discussion of the Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations

Summary of the Research

This study was conducted to find out the self-presentation and coping styles of mixed marriages in Metro Bangkok. This chapter is divided into the following:

1. The purpose of the study
2. The research design
3. The sampling procedure
4. The instruments used
5. Summary of the findings
6. Discussion
7. Conclusions
8. Recommendations

The Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this research was to determine the self-presentation of mixed marriages in Metro Bangkok and their coping styles to stressful situations. The secondary purpose was to study the relationship between the self-presentation and coping styles with the selected demographic variables such as gender, age, nationality, education, income, years of marriage and children of mixed marriages in Metro Bangkok. And to investigate the relationship between self-presentation and the three coping styles: task-oriented, emotion-oriented and avoidance-oriented.

Research Design

A descriptive research design is employed in this study in order to gather data from mixed marriages in Metro Bangkok for analysis in their self-presentation and coping styles.

Sampling Procedures

The sampling of the population was a non-probability sampling. The snowball sampling technique was adapted in order to get the respondents. The population for the study consisted of the available mixed marriages in Metro Bangkok whereby one of the spouses was of a Thai nationality.

Before distributing all questionnaires, the researcher had done a pilot study on 15 mixed married couples so as to test the reliability of the instruments. Then the questionnaires were distributed to all potential respondents starting from December 1st 2001. By March 1st 2002, a total of 178 sets of valid questionnaires were obtained and used for the study.

The Instruments

The instruments used for this study consisted of a personal information questionnaire, a self-monitoring scale (SMS) and the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS).

1. The first section on personal information was a close-ended information questionnaire constructed to gather demographic data that are relevant to the study. Demographic variables included gender, age, nationality, education, income, years of marriage and children.
2. The Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS) is a self-rating scale developed by Snyder (1980) to assess the degree to which people manage the impressions they make on others. There are 25 items for this scale with a “T” for true statements or an “F” for false statements. One point is given for each of the statement that matches the key.
3. The Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS) is a self-reporting coping inventory developed by Endler and Parker (1990) to assess the coping styles of people when faced with stressful situations. Forty-eight items assessing coping styles to the stressful situations were measured in three dimensions: task-oriented, emotion-oriented and avoidance-oriented. A 5-point Likert scale was used which ranged from (1) – not at all to (5) – very much.

Summary of the Findings

This section presents the summary of findings in 4 parts: the demographic data, the self-presentation scores, the coping styles and a comparison of self-presentation and coping styles with demographic variables.

1. Demographic Data

- 1.1 There were equal number of females and males as the study was done among mixed married couples.
- 1.2 Those 35 years or less had the highest frequency at 156 or 43.8%.
- 1.3 Thai nationals had the highest frequency among the respondents at 178 or 50%.
- 1.4 Those with Bachelor's degree had the highest frequency at 156 or 43.8%.
- 1.5 Those with income of more than 40,000 Baht had the highest frequency at 177 or 49.7%.
- 1.6 For years of marriage, those married for 3 years or less had the highest frequency at 146 or 41%.
- 1.7 Those with children had the highest frequency at 208 or 58.4%.

2. Self-Presentation

- 2.1 Overall, the self-presentation score revealed a low score at a mean of 11.13 and standard deviation of 4.35.
- 2.2 The mean of self-presentation and gender was 11.58 for females and 10.67 for males, slightly lower for males indicating that females were more concerned about appearances.

2.3 The mean of self-presentation for different age levels indicates that those 35 years or less had the highest score for self-presentation at 12.15 and that the scores decreased with increase in age.

2.4 The mean of self-presentation for different nationalities indicates that the Europeans had the highest score for self-presentation at 11.80 followed by the Thais. Australians and Americans had relatively lower scores for self-presentation.

2.5 The mean of self-presentation for different education levels indicates that those who had an education between grade 10–12 had the highest score for self-presentation at 11.84 and those who were higher than Bachelor's degree had relatively lower score at 10.17. This shows that as education increased the lower the need for self-presentation.

2.6 The mean of self-presentation for different income levels indicates that those with income of 20,000 Baht or less had the highest score for self-presentation at 11.64 and that the scores decreased with increase in income.

2.7 The mean of self-presentation for different years of marriage indicates that those married for three years or less had the highest score for self-presentation at 12.24 and that the scores decreased with increase in the years of marriage.

2.8 The mean of self-presentation and children is 10.70 for those with children and 11.72 for those without children, slightly lower for those with children indicating that they were less concerned about appearances than those without children.

3. Coping Styles

3.1 Overall, the mean of coping styles revealed that avoidance-oriented coping was used the most at 55.63 followed by task-oriented coping at 52.38 and finally emotion-oriented coping at 51.42.

3.2 The mean of task-oriented coping and gender was 53.45 for males and 51.32 for females, slightly higher for males indicating that they used more task-oriented coping.

The mean of emotion-oriented coping and gender was 51.97 for females and 50.87 for males, indicating that females were more emotional than males in their coping responses.

For avoidance-oriented coping, the mean was higher for females at 56.08 than for males, which was at 55.19, again indicating that females used more avoidance-oriented coping than males.

3.3 The mean of task-oriented coping for different age levels indicates that those who were 36-45 years had the highest score at 53.39 and that those who were 35 years or less had the lowest score at 51.49, indicating that people used more task-oriented coping as they age.

For emotion-oriented coping, those who were 35 years or less had the highest score at 53.15 and that the scores decreased with increase in age. For avoidance-oriented coping, those who were 35 years or less had the highest score at 58.62 and that the scores decreased with increase in age.

3.4 The mean of task-oriented coping for different nationalities indicates that the Americans had the highest score at 53.50 followed by the Asians.

For emotion-oriented coping, the Thais had the highest score at

52.70 followed by the Asians. For avoidance-oriented coping, the Thais again had the highest score at 58.11 followed by the Asians. The findings indicate that the Americans were the most task-oriented and the Thais and the Asians were the most emotion and avoidant-oriented.

3.5 The mean of task-oriented coping for different education levels indicates that those who had an education higher than Bachelor's degree had the highest score at 55.13 and those who had an education between grade 10-12 had the lowest score at 48.74. This shows that the higher the education, the more task-oriented coping style were used.

For emotion-oriented coping, those with vocational education had the highest score at 53.98 and those with education higher than Bachelor's degree had the lowest score at 48.09. This shows that the lower the education, the more emotion-oriented coping style were used.

For avoidance-oriented coping, those who had an education between grade 10-12 had the highest score at 58.02 and those with education higher than Bachelor's degree had the lowest score at 52.90. This shows that the lower the education, the more avoidance-oriented coping style were used.

3.6 The mean of task-oriented coping for different income levels indicates that those with income of more than 40,000 Baht had the highest score at 53.41 and those who had income of 20,000 Baht or less had the lowest score at 49.73. This shows that the higher the income, the more task-oriented coping style were used.

For emotion-oriented coping, those with income between 20,001-40,000 Baht had the highest score at 53.66 and those with income of more

than 40,000 Baht had the lowest score at 49.92. This shows that those with higher income generally used less of emotion-oriented coping style.

For avoidance-oriented coping, those with income of 20,000 Baht or less had the highest score at 58.77 and those with income of more than 40,000 Baht had the lowest score at 53.65. This shows that the higher the income, the less avoidance-oriented coping style were used.

3.7 The mean of task-oriented coping for different years of marriage indicates that those married for more than 10 years had the highest score at 53.38 and those married for 3 years or less had the lowest score at 51.62. This shows that the longer the marriage, the more task-oriented coping style were used.

For emotion-oriented coping, those who had been married between 4-10 years had the highest score at 52.52 and those married for more than 10 years had the lowest score at 50.03. This shows that the longer the marriage, the less emotion-oriented coping style were used.

For avoidance-oriented coping, those who had been married for 3 years or less had the highest score at 57.75 and those married for more than 10 years had the lowest score at 52.48. This shows that avoidance-oriented coping style was used less with an increase in the years of marriage.

3.8 The mean of task-oriented coping and children was 52.40 for those with children and 52.37 for those without children. For emotion-oriented coping, those without children had a slightly higher score at 51.62 than those with children with the score of 51.28. For avoidance-oriented

coping, those without children had a higher score at 56.97 than those with children with the score of 54.68.

This shows that those with children used more of the task-oriented coping and less of the emotion-oriented coping and avoidance-oriented coping as compared to those without children.

3.9 Among 356 respondents, 44 proposed eight additional ways of coping. Of these respondents, 15, (3.7%) used entertainment and also 'other' ways of coping other than the ones specified in the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS). Eight, (2%) prayed and/or meditated, 4, (1%) drank beer and 2, (0.5%) exercised when faced with stressful situations.

Entertainment here refers to singing and/or dancing and/or listening to music. 'Other' refers to cooking and/or reading and/or visiting relatives and/or doing artwork such as drawing and painting.

For this information regarding coping, female respondents (28) volunteered more than their male (16) counterparts.

4. A Comparison Between Self-Presentation And Coping Styles With Demographic Variables

4.1 There was a significant difference at the 0.05 level between self-presentation and demographic variables, 'Gender', 'Age', 'Nationality', 'Education', 'Years of Marriage' and 'Children'.

There was no significant difference between self-presentation and demographic variable, 'Income'.

4.2 There was a significant difference at the 0.05 level between task-oriented coping style and demographic variables, 'Education' and 'Income'.

There was no significant difference between task-oriented coping style and demographic variables, 'Gender', 'Age', 'Nationality', 'Years of Marriage' and 'Children'.

4.3 There was a significant difference at the 0.05 level between emotion-oriented coping style and demographic variables, 'Age', 'Nationality', 'Education' and 'Income'.

There was no significant difference between emotion-oriented coping style and demographic variables, 'Gender', 'Years of Marriage' and 'Children'.

4.4 There was a significant difference at the 0.05 level between avoidance-oriented coping style and demographic variables, 'Age', 'Nationality', 'Education', 'Income' and 'Years of Marriage'.

There was no significant difference between avoidance-oriented coping style and demographic variables, 'Gender' and 'Children'.

4.5 There was a significant relationship at the 0.01 level between self-presentation and avoidance-oriented coping style. The association was found to be positive ($r = 0.250$) that is the higher the self-presentation; the more the avoidance-oriented coping style was employed.

There was a significant relationship at the 0.05 level between the self-presentation and emotion-oriented coping style. The association was found to be positive ($r = 0.127$) that is the higher the self-presentation; the more emotion-oriented coping style was used.

The relationship between self-presentation and task-oriented coping style was not statistically significant and the associations ($r = 0.065$) were judged to be weak.

4.6 There was a significant relationship at the 0.01 level between avoidance-oriented coping style and emotion-oriented coping style. The associations ($r = 0.290$) was found to be highest in this study that is the respondents who used avoidance-oriented coping style also used emotion-oriented coping style.

There was a significant relationship at the 0.01 level between avoidance-oriented coping style and task-oriented coping style. The associations ($r = 0.222$) were found to be moderate that is the respondents who used avoidance-oriented coping style also used task-oriented coping style in moderation.

There was no significant relationship between task oriented coping style and emotion-oriented coping style. Moreover, there were negative associations ($r = -0.051$) between the two variables. That is respondents who used more of emotion-oriented coping used less of task-oriented

coping and vice versa. In general, respondents tended to use several coping styles in their stressful situations.

Discussion of the Findings

1. The study showed that the overall self-presentation score was 11.13, which is categorized in the low self-presentation level. As Snyder (1980) indicated, some people are much more aware of the impressions they create and more skillful in adjusting behavior to achieve the desired effect than others are. Individuals differ strikingly in the extent to which they observe and control their self-presentation, which is also the case with the respondents in this study. Those low in self-presentation tend to behave in a way that coincides with how they feel and they are less attentive to the social appropriateness of their behaviors (Gabrenya & Arkin, 1980). According to Snyder (1987), low self-presentation romantic relationships such as marriages were said to be more stable than high self-presentation relationships. Low self-presenters tend to strive to maximize the fit between themselves and their partners and they may view marriage as a partnership centered on each other. They also tend to adopt a committed orientation in their relationships thereby leading to long-term intimacy and success.
2. The study found that there was a significant difference at the 0.05 level between self-presentation and demographic variables, 'Gender', 'Age', 'Nationality', 'Education', 'Years of Marriage' and 'Children'.

Females were found to be higher self-presenters than males. This finding is similar to the study of Janoff-Bulman and Wade, and Hetherington (as cited in Ickes and Duck, 2000). In general, women are expected to be more modest than men therefore they have to closely monitor their behaviors so that they make more positive

impressions on others. This is done so that they may comport themselves with a public humility which they may not always privately accept. This does not mean that women are more deceptive. It simply implies that gender roles do influence self-presentation in social life and to express more modesty, women need to impression-manage more.

Those 35 years or less were found to be higher self-presenters than those older. The decline in the self-presentation with age support the findings of Reifman, Klein and Murphy (as cited in Feldman, 1995). This is so because as people become older, they may feel more comfortable in "letting it all hangout". They may have also become more comfortable with themselves and see no important need to monitor their behaviors.

When comparing the nationality in this study of mixed marriages, the Thais were found to be relatively higher self-presenters than the Americans who were considered to be low self-presenters. This conforms to the work of Bond (as cited in Ickes and Duck, 2000) that the norms that delineate desirable images vary from culture to culture. With the value of face-saving that prevails highly in the Thai society, it is only natural that the Thais would tend to monitor their behaviors more closely in order to make more favorable impressions on others even if that meant slight inconsistency with their inner feelings. According to Komin (1991), face-saving comes into play when interactions directly or indirectly involve others. The Thais usually find ways to convey messages that, if negative, are downplayed and confrontations and humiliations are generally avoided. The interpersonal relationship orientation of the Thais is characterized by the preference for a non-assertive and humble type of personality whereby people often suppress their emotion in order to save their own and/or other's face. In other words 'face-saving' or 'preserving one

another's ego' is the basic rule of all Thai interactions. This is not the case with the Americans and other Western cultures. According to Taylor (2000), research shows that in America, there is a strong emphasis on individuality and the people function independently. This supports the findings that the Americans were lower self-presenters since their sense of self is independent and not contingent on what one perceives to be the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others in the social relationships (Markus & Kitayama, as cited in Taylor, 2000).

Findings showed that those with higher education were lower self-presenters and those with lower education were higher self-presenters. This supports the findings of Komin (1991) that the cognitive world of the less educated is generally more community and others-oriented and less of self and achievement-oriented thereby leading them to engage more in impression management making them higher self-presenters. On the contrary, the cognitive world of the highly educated is characterized by a concern for self, striving for success in life and a high sense of ego esteem making them relatively lower self-presenters.

Those who had been married for 3 years or less were found to be higher self-presenters than those married longer. Also, those without children were found to be higher self-presenters than those with children. The decline in the self-presentation with the years of marriage conforms to the findings of Leary and Miller (as cited in Ickes and Duck, 2000). This is so because as a relationship becomes more established, people become less concerned with the impressions they make on their partners. This does not mean that impression management will disappear completely. Moreover, with time as a partner knows one another better, they have less self-presentation freedom with others since they are reluctant to present themselves in any manner

which is inconsistent with what their partner and also with what others already know of them.

Those with children are also less concerned about the appearances than those without. In general, those who had been married longer have children and the same reasoning applies here. They have more commitment and responsibilities with their families and work thereby reducing their constant need for approval from others other than their partner. Due to this their self-presentation also decreases.

The self-presentation of respondents did not significantly differ by income. However, those with lower income were higher self-presenters and with an increase in income, the self-presentation was reduced. This could be due to the fact that lower income respondents needed to feel accepted in their social life more than those who were in the higher income who generally had higher education.

3. Respondents in this study showed variety of their preferred coping styles. They consciously selected them so as to find the solution in their unique situations. As Carver and Schier (1994) said that a variety of coping responses could be used even in the same situation. This study also supports the notion that the three coping styles: task, emotion and avoidance were found to be used by the respondents in the average level with avoidance-oriented coping being slightly higher than the rest. They were conscious strategies of individuals (Billings and Moos, 1981; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984) and individuals should be allowed great latitude in choosing how to cope with stressful situations (Hobfoll et al., 1991; Ptacek et al., 1992). Coping is considered to be flexible but goal-oriented (Garland and Bush, 1982).

4. The study found that there was a significant difference at the 0.05 level between task-oriented coping style and demographic variables, 'Education' and 'Income'.

Respondents who had education higher than Bachelor's degree had the highest score for task-oriented coping and those who had an education between grade 10-12 had the lowest score. This is consistent with findings of Disphanurat (1997). In general people with higher education is assumed to have more authority and are more rational in solving problems. Therefore, it was understandable that highly educated respondents used more task-oriented coping than those with lower education whereby they have less autonomy in making decisions.

Those with income of more than 40,000 Baht had the highest score for task-oriented coping and those with an income of 20,000 Baht or less had the lowest score. According to Komin (1991), education and income are essentially related. Those with higher education are then assumed to be having higher income, which leads to them being more task-oriented than those with lower education and lower income.

The task-oriented coping did not significantly differ by demographic variables, 'Gender', 'Age', 'Nationality', 'Years of Marriage' and 'Children'. However, males were reported to use more task-oriented coping than females, which is consistent with the findings of Ptacek et al. (1992). Although the task-oriented coping scores differed in each category for these variables, the difference was not large enough to make it significant.

5. The study showed that there was a significant difference at the 0.05 level between emotion-oriented coping style and demographic variables, 'Age', 'Nationality', 'Education' and 'Income'.

Respondents who were 35 years or less had the highest score for emotion-oriented coping and that the scores decreased with increase in age. This can be attributed to the fact that as people grow older, they become more practical and

experienced. Further findings by Irion and Blanchard-Fields (1987) also suggest that younger people endorsed more emotion-oriented coping than older people.

The Thai and the Asian respondents had the highest score for emotion-oriented coping. This is similar to the studies of Diaz-Guerrero (as cited in Rungrongthanin, 2001) who supervised a study carried out in eight different countries. The findings showed that in agricultural societies like Thailand, people used more passive modes of coping than in industrialized countries, where active modes are more salient. Also, since coping styles are considerably stable over time (Endler and Parker, 1990), another possible explanation for nationality and coping styles could be due to the different child rearing patterns (Bush and Simmons as cited in Rungrongthanin, 2001). This means respondents who were brought up in industrialized countries like America would tend to use more of active coping than passive coping.

Findings showed that those with vocational education had the highest score for emotion-oriented coping and that the scores decreased with an increase in education. This supports the findings of Disphanurat (1997). Less educated respondents tended to use more emotion-oriented coping style to cope with the stressful situations.

Findings showed that those with higher income used less of emotion-oriented coping and those with lower income used more of it. The result was again similar to the findings of Disphanurat (1997). Since education and income are related, it is natural that those with higher income would tend to have more responsibilities and for them to use emotion-oriented coping might not be as practical as using task-oriented coping when faced with stressful situations.

The emotion-oriented coping style did not significantly differ by demographic variables, 'Gender', 'Years of Marriage' and 'Children'. However,

females were reported to use more emotion-oriented coping than men. This is consistent with findings of Billings and Moos (1981). Those married for more than 10 years also showed less use of emotion-oriented coping than those married for fewer years. Also, those with children used less of emotion-oriented coping than those without.

6. The study found that there was a significant difference at the 0.05 level between avoidance-oriented coping style and demographic variables, 'Age', 'Nationality', 'Education', 'Income' and 'Years of Marriage'.

Findings showed that respondents who were 35 years or less used avoidance-oriented coping the most and that there was a decrease in its use with an increase in age. This is similar to the findings of Disphanurat (1997). Younger people appeared to be more avoidance-oriented than the older people. The reason being that with age, there is more responsibilities and commitment towards both family and work. This is perhaps the reason that older people don't rely much on avoidance-oriented coping style.

The Thai and the Asian respondents reported the highest score for avoidance-oriented coping. This supports the findings of Diaz-Guerrero (as cited in Rungrongthanin, 2001) that more passive coping is used in agricultural countries like Thailand.

Findings showed that those with vocational educational had the highest score for avoidance-oriented coping and that the scores decreased with an increase in education. This is again similar to the findings of Disphanurat (1997) where female workers with higher education were reported to be using less of avoidance-oriented coping than those with lower education.

Findings showed that those with higher income used less of avoidance-oriented coping and those with lower income used more of it. This supports the findings of Schwartz and Stone (as cited in Zeidner and Endler, 1996). Income was associated with less use of distraction, which is a form of avoidance-oriented coping. This is probably because those with higher income have more resources to tackle with the stressful situations thereby reducing the use of this coping style.

As for years of marriage, findings showed that those who had been married for 3 years or less used more avoidance-oriented coping than those married longer. It could be assumed that those married longer were generally older people. This supports the findings of Disphanurat (1997). The older people use less avoidance-oriented coping since they have stronger commitment with their family and also their work.

The avoidance-oriented coping style did not significantly differ by demographic variables, 'Gender' and 'Children'. However, the degree used by males and females differed with females using more of it. Since coping involves conscious strategies of a person to deal with stressful situations (Billings and Moos, 1981), it is a matter of individual preferences.

7. The relationship between self-presentation and avoidance-oriented coping style was found to be positive.

Respondents with higher self-presentation could be predicted to use more avoidance-oriented coping. It was pointed out by Snyder (1987) that those high in self-presentation tended to cope by avoiding stressful situations. This is possible since high self-presenters are flexible and they are capable of adjusting themselves to the ever-changing situation.

The relationship between self-presentation and emotion-oriented coping style was also found to be positive. This means the higher the self-presentation, the more emotion-oriented coping style were used. According to Snyder (1980), those high in self-presentation are the ones who have good control of emotional expression. They are also adept at detecting impression management in others and they make great effort to learn about other people and adjust their behaviors accordingly. This explains the association between self-presentation and emotion-oriented coping style.



Conclusions

1. The mixed married respondents in this study were generally found to be low self-presenters, which indicate more stability in their marriages.
2. Self-presentation was significantly different for demographic variables, 'Gender', 'Age', 'Nationality', 'Education', 'Years of Marriage' and 'Children'.
3. The mixed married respondents used all three coping styles: task, emotion and avoidance. Each of them was found to be used in the average level. However, avoidance-oriented coping was their dominant choice.
4. Task-oriented coping style was significantly different for demographic variables, 'Education' and 'Income'.
5. Emotion-oriented coping style was significantly different for demographic variables, 'Age', 'Nationality', 'Education' and 'Income'.
6. Avoidance-oriented coping style was significantly different for demographic variables, 'Age', 'Nationality', 'Education', 'Income' and 'Years of Marriage'.
7. The relationship between self-presentation and avoidance-oriented coping style was found to be positive. The relationship between self-presentation and emotion-oriented coping style was also positive. This means that those who were higher self-presenters could be predicted to use more of avoidance-oriented and emotion-oriented coping styles. This appeared to be found dominantly in younger and lower educated respondents with lower income. The Thai and the Asian respondents also used more of emotion and avoidance-oriented coping styles.

Recommendations

From the significant findings of the study, some recommendations are offered:

Recommendations for Counselors

1. The study may be used by counselors who deal with mixed marriages in Bangkok to understand the self-presentation in their interactions as well as the common coping styles used by these people in dealing with problems that arise from differences in culture.
2. The study may be utilized by anyone who organizes cross-cultural workshops, seminars or conferences. It can attempt to help foreigners understand the Thais better and vice versa so as to foster long-lasting relationships.
3. The findings of the study may also help multinational companies deal in a more effective way with the expatriate employees so as to bridge the communication gap between the Thai and other cultures through the understanding of their self-presentation skills and coping styles.

Recommendations for Further Studies

1. Further study could be conducted on the impact of personality of those in mixed marriages as it relates to their self-presentation.
2. Further study could also be conducted on the impact of personality of those in mixed marriages as it relates to their coping styles to stressful situations.
3. Further study may also focus on the coping styles of mixed marriages to assess the level of marital satisfaction.

4. Further study could be conducted on those in mixed marriages with different religions as it relates to self-presentation and coping styles, especially in the case of Thailand where most of the mixed couples were of different religions.
5. Further study could be conducted on the impact of self-presentation as it relates to the upbringing of children in Thailand.
6. Further study could be conducted on the impact of the self-presentation and coping styles as they relate to the different ethnic backgrounds of Thais.



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Part I**Personal Information**

Please put an (X) inside the bracket which corresponds to you. This information will be strictly used for the study and will be kept confidential.

1. Gender

- ☐ Female
☐ Male

2. Age

- ☐ 35 years or less
☐ 36 – 45 years
☐ 46 years and above

3. Nationality

- ☐ Thai
☐ Other (please specify)_____

4. Highest Level of Education Achieved

- ☐ Lower than Grade 10
☐ Grade 10 - 12
☐ Vocational Education
☐ Bachelor's Degree
☐ Higher than Bachelor's Degree

5. Monthly Income

- ☐ 20,000 Baht or less
☐ 20,001 - 40,000 Baht
☐ More than 40,000 Baht

6. Years of Marriage

- ☐ 3 years or less
☐ 4 – 10 years
☐ More than 10 Years

7. Children

- ☐ With children
☐ Without children

Part II

Self-Monitoring Scale

Instructions:

The statements below concern your personal reactions to a number of different situations. No two statements are exactly alike, so consider each statement carefully before answering.

If a statement is **TRUE** or **MOSTLY TRUE** as applied to you, put a "T" for true to the left of the statement.

If a statement is **FALSE** or **NOT USUALLY TRUE** as applied to you, put an "F" for false to the left of the statement.

It is important that you answer as frankly and as honestly as you can.

- _____ 1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.
- _____ 2. My behavior is usually an expression of my true inner feelings, attitudes, and beliefs.
- _____ 3. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.
- _____ 4. I can only argue for ideas I already believe.
- _____ 5. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.
- _____ 6. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people.
- _____ 7. When I am uncertain how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues.
- _____ 8. I would probably make a good actor.
- _____ 9. I rarely need the advice of my friends to choose movies, books, or music.
- _____ 10. I sometimes appear to others to be experiencing deeper emotions than I actually am.
- _____ 11. I laugh more when I watch a comedy with others than when alone.
- _____ 12. In a group of people, I am rarely the center of attention.

- _____ 13. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.
- _____ 14. I am not particularly good at making other people like me.
- _____ 15. Even if I am not enjoying myself, I often pretend to be having a good time.
- _____ 16. I'm not always the person I appear to be.
- _____ 17. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone else or win their favor.
- _____ 18. I have considered being an entertainer.
- _____ 19. In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else.
- _____ 20. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.
- _____ 21. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.
- _____ 22. At a party, I let others keep the jokes and stories going.
- _____ 23. I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite as well as I should.
- _____ 24. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).
- _____ 25. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

Part III Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations - Adult

Instruction: The following are ways people react to various difficult, stressful, or upsetting situations. Please circle a number from 1 to 5 for each item. Indicate how much you engage in these types of activities when your encounter a difficult, stressful, or upsetting situation.

	Not at all					Very much
1. Schedule my time better.	1	2	3	4	5	
2. Focus on the problem and see how I can solve it.	1	2	3	4	5	
3. Think about the good times I've had.	1	2	3	4	5	
4. Try to be with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	
5. Blame myself for procrastinating.	1	2	3	4	5	
6. Do what I think is best.	1	2	3	4	5	
7. Preoccupied with aches and pains.	1	2	3	4	5	
8. Blame myself for having gotten into this situation	1	2	3	4	5	
9. Window shop.	1	2	3	4	5	
10. Outline my priorities.	1	2	3	4	5	
11. Try to go to sleep.	1	2	3	4	5	
12. Treat myself to a favorite food or snack.	1	2	3	4	5	
13. Feel anxious about not being able to cope.	1	2	3	4	5	
14. Become very tense.	1	2	3	4	5	
15. Think about how I have solved similar problems.	1	2	3	4	5	
16. Tell myself that it is really not happening to me.	1	2	3	4	5	
17. Blame myself for being too emotional about the situation.	1	2	3	4	5	
18. Go out for a snack or meal.	1	2	3	4	5	
19. Become very upset.	1	2	3	4	5	
20. Buy myself something.	1	2	3	4	5	
21. Determine a course of action and follow it.	1	2	3	4	5	
22. Blame myself for not knowing what to do.	1	2	3	4	5	
23. Go to a party.	1	2	3	4	5	
24. Work to understand the situation.	1	2	3	4	5	
25. "Freeze" and don't know what to do.	1	2	3	4	5	

Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations - Adult

	Not at all					Very much
26. Take corrective action immediately.	1	2	3	4	5	
27. Think about the event and learn from my mistake.	1	2	3	4	5	
28. Wish that I could change what had happened or how I felt.	1	2	3	4	5	
29. Visit a friend.	1	2	3	4	5	
30. Worry about what I am going to do.	1	2	3	4	5	
31. Spend time with a special person.	1	2	3	4	5	
32. Go for a walk.	1	2	3	4	5	
33. Tell myself that it will never happen again.	1	2	3	4	5	
34. Focus on my general inadequacies.	1	2	3	4	5	
35. Talk to someone whose advice I value.	1	2	3	4	5	
36. Analyze the problem before reacting.	1	2	3	4	5	
37. Phone a friend.	1	2	3	4	5	
38. Get angry.	1	2	3	4	5	
39. Adjust my priorities.	1	2	3	4	5	
40. See a movie.	1	2	3	4	5	
41. Get control of the situation.	1	2	3	4	5	
42. Make an extra effort to get things done.	1	2	3	4	5	
43. Come up with several different solutions to the problem.	1	2	3	4	5	
44. Take time off and get away from the situation.	1	2	3	4	5	
45. Take it out on other people.	1	2	3	4	5	
46. Use the situation to prove that I can do it.	1	2	3	4	5	
47. Try to be organized so I can be on top of the situation.	1	2	3	4	5	
48. Watch TV.	1	2	3	4	5	
49. Others(please specify)_____						

ตอนที่ 1**ข้อมูลส่วนตัว**

โปรดตอบคำถามทุกข้อต่อไปนี้ โดยทำเครื่องหมาย (X) หน้าคำตอบที่เป็นจริงเกี่ยวกับตัวท่านมากที่สุด โดยผู้วิจัยใช้ข้อมูลเหล่านี้เพื่อการศึกษา และจะเก็บข้อมูลเหล่านี้ไว้เป็นความลับ

1. เพศ

- () หญิง
() ชาย

2. อายุ

- () 35 ปี และต่ำกว่า
() 36 – 45 ปี
() 46 ปี ขึ้นไป

3. สัญชาติ

- () ไทย
() อื่น ๆ (โปรดระบุ) _____

4. ระดับการศึกษาสูงสุด

- () ต่ำกว่ามัธยม 4 (ม. 4)
() มัธยมปลาย (ม.4 – ม.6)
() อาชีวศึกษา
() ปริญญาตรี
() สูงกว่าปริญญาตรี

5. รายได้ต่อเดือน

- ☐ 20,000 บาท และต่ำกว่า
- ☐ 20,001 - 40,000 บาท
- ☐ มากกว่า 40,000 บาท

6. ระยะเวลาการแต่งงาน

- ☐ 3 ปี และต่ำกว่า
- ☐ 4 – 10 ปี
- ☐ มากกว่า 10 ปี

7. บุตร

- ☐ มี
- ☐ ไม่มี



ตอนที่ 2

มาตราจัดการปฏิบัติของตัวเองในสถานการณ์ต่าง ๆ

คำชี้แจง

ข้อความข้างล่างนี้จะแสดงถึงปฏิกิริยาการตอบสนองของตัวเอง ที่มีต่อสถานการณ์ต่าง ๆ ที่แตกต่างกัน ไม่มีคำตอบใดที่ถูก หรือ ผิด ขอให้ท่านกรุณาพิจารณาในแต่ละข้อ ด้วยความละเอียด ก่อนตอบคำถาม

ถ้าข้อความนั้นบ่งบอกว่า จริง หรือ เกือบจริง เกี่ยวกับตัวท่าน ให้ใส่เครื่องหมาย (✓) หน้าข้อ

ถ้าข้อความนั้น บ่งบอกว่าไม่จริง หรือ ส่วนใหญ่ไม่จริง ให้ใส่เครื่องหมาย (X) หน้าข้อนั้นๆ เป็นสิ่งสำคัญที่คำตอบของคุณ ต้องชัดเจนและซื่อสัตย์ที่สุด เท่าที่คุณจะสามารถทำได้

- _____ 1. ฉันพบว่าเป็นการยากที่จะเลียนแบบพฤติกรรมของคนอื่น ๆ
- _____ 2. พฤติกรรมส่วนใหญ่ของฉันได้แสดงออก ถึงความรู้สึกภายในที่แท้จริง ทศนคติ และความเชื่อของฉันเอง
- _____ 3. ในงานเลี้ยงและในงานสังคม ฉันไม่พยายามพูด และทำในสิ่งที่คนอื่นชอบ
- _____ 4. ฉันสามารถที่จะโต้แย้งเฉพาะในข้อคิดที่ฉันเชื่ออยู่แล้ว
- _____ 5. ฉันสามารถพูดได้โดยไม่มีการเตรียมไว้ล่วงหน้า แม้ว่าจะเป็นหัวข้อที่ฉันเกือบจะไม่มีข้อมูลอยู่เลย
- _____ 6. ฉันคิดว่าฉันเป็นคนที่สร้างความสนุกสนาน และความประทับใจให้กับผู้อื่นได้
- _____ 7. เมื่อฉันไม่แน่ใจว่าจะวางตัวอย่างไรในสังคม ฉันจะดูพฤติกรรมของคนอื่นเป็นแบบอย่าง
- _____ 8. ฉันอาจจะเป็นนักแสดงที่ดีได้
- _____ 9. ฉันมักไม่ค่อยต้องการความเห็นจากเพื่อน ในการเลือกดูหนัง, อ่านหนังสือ หรือฟังดนตรี
- _____ 10. ดูเหมือนว่าฉันจะเป็นคนที่มีอารมณ์ลึกซึ้งได้มากกว่าที่เป็น

- 11. เวลาฉันไปดูเรื่องตลกกับคนอื่น ฉันจะหัวเราะได้มากกว่าเวลาที่ฉันไปดูคนเดียว
- 12. ฉันไม่ค่อยจะเป็นจุดสนใจเท่าไรนัก เวลาอยู่ท่ามกลางกลุ่มคน
- 13. ในสถานการณ์หรือกลุ่มคนที่แตกต่างกันไป ฉันมักจะแสดงออกด้วยวิธีที่หลากหลาย
- 14. ฉันไม่ค่อยจะเก่งในการทำให้อื่นชอบฉัน
- 15. แม้ว่าฉันไม่มีความสุขแต่บ่อยครั้งที่ฉันแสร้งทำตัวให้สนุกสนาน
- 16. ฉันไม่ได้เป็นตัวของตัวเองเสมอๆ
- 17. ฉันจะไม่เปลี่ยนทัศนนะ(หรือวิธีการ) ในการทำสิ่งต่าง ๆ เพื่อให้เป็นไปตามความต้องการของคนอื่น หรือเพื่อเอาใจคนอื่น
- 18. ฉันเคยคิดที่จะเป็นนักแสดง
- 19. เพื่อให้เป็นที่ชื่นชอบ หรือเข้ากับคนอื่นได้ ฉันมีแนวโน้มจะเป็นอย่างที่คุณอื่นคาดหวังให้เป็น
- 20. ฉันไม่เคยเก่งในเรื่องของเกมใบ้คำ หรือการแสดงสด
- 21. ฉันมีปัญหาเกี่ยวกับการปรับเปลี่ยนพฤติกรรมเพื่อให้เข้ากับคนอื่น ๆ และสถานการณ์ต่างๆ
- 22. เวลาอยู่ในงานเลี้ยงฉันมักจะปล่อยให้ผู้อื่นพูดตลกและเล่าเรื่องต่างๆ
- 23. ฉันมักจะรู้สึกเคอะเขินในหมู่เพื่อนฝูง และแสดงออกได้ไม่ดีเท่าที่ควร
- 24. ฉันสามารถมองหน้าบุคคลแล้วพูดปิดได้อย่างหน้าตาเฉย (ถ้ามีเหตุผลที่ดี)
- 25. ฉันอาจจะหลอกลวงคนโดยทำตัวเป็นมิตร ทั้งๆ ที่ฉันไม่รู้สึกรับชอบบุคคลนั้นเลย

ตอนที่ 3

แนวทางการแก้ปัญหาในสถานการณ์เครียด

คำชี้แจง วิธีการต่อไปนี้ เป็นวิธีการ แก้ปัญหาของบุคคลเมื่อพบกับสถานการณ์ต่างๆที่ยุ่งยาก เครียด หรือ คับข้องใจ โปรดระบุ ว่าท่านเคยใช้วิธี

การแก้ปัญหาเหล่านี้มากน้อยเพียงใด โดยวงกลมล้อมรอบหมายเลขตั้งแต่ 1 ถึง 5 เพียงหมายเลขเดียวในแต่ละข้อต่อไปนี้

	ไม่ (เคย) เลย					มาก (บ่อย) ที่สุด				
1. จัดตารางเวลาให้เป็นระเบียบดีขึ้น	1	2	3	4	5					
2. เจาะจงที่ตัวปัญหา และมองหาวิธีแก้ปัญหานั้นให้ได้	1	2	3	4	5					
3. คิดถึงเวลาที่ฉันเคยมีความสุข	1	2	3	4	5					
4. พยายามอยู่กับคนอื่น ๆ	1	2	3	4	5					
5. โโทษตัวเองที่ผลัดวันประกันพรุ่ง	1	2	3	4	5					
6. ทำในสิ่งที่ตนเองคิดว่าดีที่สุด	1	2	3	4	5					
7. หมกมุ่นอยู่กับความเจ็บปวด	1	2	3	4	5					
8. โโทษตัวเองที่เข้าไปพัวพันกับเหตุการณ์นี้	1	2	3	4	5					
9. เดินเล่นดูสินค้าตามห้าง	1	2	3	4	5					
10. จัดลำดับความสำคัญของสิ่งที่ต้องทำ	1	2	3	4	5					
11. พยายามนอนหลับ	1	2	3	4	5					
12. รับประทานอาหาร หรือของว่างที่ชอบ	1	2	3	4	5					
13. รู้สึกกระวนกระวายที่ไม่สามารถแก้ปัญหาได้	1	2	3	4	5					
14. รู้สึกดังเครียดมาก	1	2	3	4	5					
15. คิดถึงวิธีการที่ฉันเคยแก้ปัญหาแบบนี้ได้	1	2	3	4	5					
16. บอกตัวเองว่าปัญหาเหล่านี้ที่จริงไม่ได้เกิดขึ้นกับตัวฉัน	1	2	3	4	5					
17. โโทษตัวเองที่อารมณ์อ่อนไหวกับสถานการณ์เกินไป	1	2	3	4	5					
18. ออกไปกินขนมหรือทานอาหารนอกบ้าน	1	2	3	4	5					

19. รู้สึกไม่สบายใจมาก ๆ	1	2	3	4	5
20. ชื่อของให้ตัวเอง	1	2	3	4	5
21. กำหนดแผนปฏิบัติการ และทำตามนั้น	1	2	3	4	5
22. โโทษตัวเองที่ไม่รู้ว่าจะทำอะไร	1	2	3	4	5
23. ไปงานสังสรรค์	1	2	3	4	5
24. พยายามเข้าใจสถานการณ์	1	2	3	4	5
25. ตกตะลึง และไม่รู้จะทำอย่างไร	1	2	3	4	5

แนวทางการแก้ปัญหา

	ไม่ (เคย) เลย					มาก (บ่อย) ที่สุด
26. ลงมือแก้ไขสถานการณ์ทันที	1	2	3	4	5	
27. คิดถึงเหตุการณ์ที่เกิดขึ้น และเรียนรู้จากข้อผิดพลาดที่ผ่านมาของฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	
28. อยากจะเปลี่ยนแปลงเหตุการณ์ หรือความรู้สึกที่เคยเกิดขึ้น	1	2	3	4	5	
29. ไปหาเพื่อน	1	2	3	4	5	
30. กังวลกับสิ่งที่ฉันกำลังจะทำต่อไป	1	2	3	4	5	
31. ใช้เวลาอยู่กับคนที่มีความหมายพิเศษสำหรับฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	
32. ไปเดินเล่น	1	2	3	4	5	
33. บอกกับตัวเองว่าสิ่งนี้จะไม่เกิดขึ้นอีก	1	2	3	4	5	
34. เจาะจงถึงข้อดีต่างๆของฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	
35. คุยกับบุคคลที่ฉันยอมรับคำแนะนำ	1	2	3	4	5	
36. วิเคราะห์ปัญหาก่อนที่จะมีการโต้ตอบ	1	2	3	4	5	
37. โทรศัพท์หาเพื่อน	1	2	3	4	5	
38. รู้สึกโกรธ	1	2	3	4	5	
39. ปรับลำดับความสำคัญของสิ่งต่างๆที่จะต้องทำ	1	2	3	4	5	
40. ไปดูภาพยนตร์	1	2	3	4	5	

41. ควบคุมสถานการณ์ให้ได้	1	2	3	4	5
42. ใช้ความพยายามมากเป็นพิศขที่จะทำงานให้ลุล่วง	1	2	3	4	5
43. คิดหาวิธีต่างๆในการแก้ปัญหา	1	2	3	4	5
44. ขอเวลานอก และหลีกเลี่ยงจากสถานการณ์นั้น	1	2	3	4	5
45. โทษผู้อื่น	1	2	3	4	5
46. ใช้สถานการณ์เพื่อพิสูจน์ว่าฉันทำได้	1	2	3	4	5
47. พยายามจัดระเบียบเพื่อจะควบคุมสถานการณ์ได้	1	2	3	4	5
48. ดูโทรทัศน์	1	2	3	4	5
49. อื่น ๆ(โปรดระบุ)_____					



APPENDIX B

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION



December 1, 2001

Dear Participants,

By way of introduction, my name is Alisa Sethi and I'm currently seeking my master's degree in Counseling Psychology from Assumption University here in Bangkok. My master's thesis requires me to gather data from mixed marriages between a Thai and a Non-Thai. Your kind completion of the enclosed questionnaires will provide me with the data I need to complete this important research.

My study hopes to describe aspects of marriages between Thais and foreigners. These aspects include information about couples' "coping skills" and "self-presentation". My complete approved master's thesis proposal is available from my thesis advisor, Dr. Archanya Ratana-Ubol; rarchany@pioneer.chula.ac.th (for those interested).

I hope to complete the data-gathering phase of my thesis in March 2002 so your prompt return of the questionnaires is essential. I have also provided stamped self-addressed envelopes to facilitate this process. I will be happy to provide you with a synopsis of my research findings upon request sometime during November/December 2002. Please contact me by email if you have questions, comments or simply wish to request the research finding synopsis.

Please be assured that your responses will be kept confidential: I am not asking for your names to appear anywhere on the questionnaires. Complete anonymity will be maintained. There are identical Thai and English versions of the questionnaire. The Thai one is for the Thai person and the English one is for the foreign party. The questionnaires should be answered individually.

The questionnaire has several sections. It is important that each of you complete all three sections and that you do not leave any questions unanswered.

Thank you for your kind cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Alisa Sethi
Graduate Student
School of Counseling Psychology
Assumption University
mixmarriage@hotmail.com

