

Relevance of Violence with Social Well Being of Working Adolescents in Pakistan

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Abstract

Violence permeates human life with its multidimensional consequences for the victims. Social significance of violence for children and adolescents has been a focus of both the sociologists and social psychologists. This is because of the very sensitive and crucial phase of adolescence where most of the trajectories and pathways shape human behavior along with socio-psychological and biological development. The present study explores the relevance of workplace violence with social well being of the 350 Pakistani adolescents working in 82 auto repair workshops. Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS-2) was used to measure intensity of violence whereas; social well being (SWB) was measured within five dimensions of Keyes' (1998) model of social well being. Findings of the study revealed that violence against adolescents was highly correlated with their social well being. The demographic variables were also found to influence the correlation between violence against adolescents and their social well being.

Key Words: Workplace violence; Adolescents; Instructor (*ustad*); Social Well Being; Auto repair workshops.

Introduction

Violence against children and adolescents is rampant across the world irrespective of race, religion, regional and cultural differences (World Report on Violence against Children, 2006). This is because children are too young and vulnerable to protect themselves from violent experiences and usually bear violence with keeping their lips tight under some social pressures and

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societal norms (WHO, 2002). Occurrence of violence commonly takes place out of sight in homes, educational or other care providing institutions and workplaces (Hoel, 1997). Being a complex social phenomenon, violence has multidimensional influences upon interacting individuals, social relationships and society at large (Mari & Figueira, 2008). Children and adolescents may be confronted with violent experiences in any of the social settings where they spend their childhood; their homes and families, peer groups, school, communities and workplaces. However, exposure of violence in one setting may be compounded by violence in other increasing its severity for the victims (Felitti et al, 1998; UNICEF, 2007).

Life course is generally divided into the stages of childhood, adolescence; and early, middle, and late adulthood. Each developmental stage has its own needs, tasks and challenges. Social experiences in one stage, and the conditions in which they occur, may potentially shape the experiences that follow them in later stages of development (Elder, 1985).

Adolescence is said to be a risky, sensitive and crucial phase of human life where most of the developmental trajectories and pathways shape human behavior along with biological development (Hay, 1997). Potentially, children and adolescents are vulnerable to the influences of violence as their exposure to the acts of violence may alter the timing of typical developmental trajectories (Boney-McCoy & Finkelhor, 1995). Therefore, experiences of violence during adolescence may be expected to have its implications later in adult life of individuals.

Literature indicates that because of its complexity, scholars are yet in the process of contemplation that what exactly 'violence' is (Stanko, 2003). Because of its multifaceted, socially constructed and highly ambivalent nature, violence is notoriously difficult to define (Haan, 2008). Levi & Maguire (2002) describe violence as "a slippery term which covers a huge and frequently changing range of heterogeneous physical and emotional behaviors, situations and victim offender relationship". As violence may take different forms (Reidel & Welsh, 2002) and is studied from actors' perspectives (perpetrator, victim, third party, neutral observer), literature therefore, presents it in accordance with different theoretical assumptions for instance human nature, social order etc. In cultures like Pakistan, where traditional and normative structure provides some support for violence, it is difficult to draw a clear fault line between violent and nonviolent acts. For example within the context of auto repair workshop in Pakistan some actions on the part of instructors (*ustads*) are interpreted as "friendly" and part of the skill imparting process (e.g. a gentle slap). It becomes difficult to distinguish the nature of such acts of violence whether it is "friendly", "structural", "apocalyptic" or

workplace violence. In such situations measurement of violence, especially psychological violence is even more difficult as intention of the perpetrator, perception of victim and nature of their interaction within the given social context become more significant. Within the context of auto repair workshops in Pakistan, the adolescents may not only be confronted with violent acts of instructor (*ustad*) but also face violence from senior coworkers (bullying, humiliation and intimidation) and from customers coming to workshops.

WHO (1999) defined violence, especially with reference to children as, “ all forms of physical and/or ill treatment, sexual abuse, neglect or negligent treatment or commercial or other exploitation resulting in actual or potential harm to the child’s health, survival, development or dignity in the context of a relationship of responsibility, trust or power”.

Depending upon the disciplinary orientation, violence is defined within the contextual framework of each discipline like psychology, public health, psychiatry, anthropology, law and sociology. Bearing objectives of this study in mind, violence has been categorized as:

- a) psychological violence
- b) physical violence; and
- c) sexual violence

Implications of Violence for Social Well-being of adolescents

Social well being is defined as “an individual’s self-report of the quality of his or her relationship with other people, the neighborhood, and the community” (Keyes, 1998; Larson, 1993). Social well being comprises of various elements that, together, reflect the extent to which individuals are functioning in their social lives- for example as coworkers, neighbors and as citizens (Keyes, 1998). Humans are social beings and their need to belong is of fundamental nature that derives thoughts, emotions and interpersonal behavior during the course of interaction (Baumeister &Leary, 1995). Nature of this belongingness or interpersonal relationship among human beings also reflects the state of their well being or sociability (Fratiglioni et al., 2004). Human desire to live ‘well’ encompasses inter-subjective space of human relationships. And the term ‘living well together’ lead to the fact that individual and social settings of living complement each other (Ricoeur, 1992). The concept of wellbeing is very broad, and is applied to many situations for a variety of purposes (Paim, 1995). Well-being has primarily been considered from the intra-personal perspectives, something that happens inside of an individual. Ryff and Singer (1998) take it a process of ‘human flourishing’ whereas, to Felce & Perry (1995) it comprises of objective descriptors and subjective evaluations of physical, material, social and emotional well-being.

Positive social connections are crucial for interpersonal relationship of individuals and their wellbeing. Whereas, the absence of positive connections or poor interpersonal relations not only have adverse effect on well-being but also have dramatic implications for physical and mental health of the people in a state of interaction.(Putnam, 2000). Ryan & Deci (2000, 2001) are of the view that humans have three basic psychological needs; a) competence, b) autonomy; and c) relatedness. Satisfaction of these needs leads individuals to both subjective well-being (increased sense of pleasure and feelings of happiness on their part of individuals) and overall well-being (sociability of individuals).

Studies on well-being (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999; Kahneman, Diener, & Schwarz, 1999; Waterman, 1993; Ryan & Deci, 2001) commonly recognize well-being with two distinct traditions namely *hedonic well-being* (pleasant or unpleasant human sensations) and *eudaimonic well-being* (flourishing or languishing of human potential) whereas some studies (Keyes, Shmotkin, & Ryff, 2002) identify these traditions as subjective well-being (SWB) and psychological well-being (PWB) respectively. The literature indicates that studies of SWB have repeatedly included not only affective indicators of happiness (hedonic well-being) but also cognitive assessments of life satisfaction. Additionally, some aspects of PWB (e.g., personal growth, purpose in life) but not others (e.g., positive relations with others, self-acceptance) reflect the self-fulfillment meanings of eudaimonic well-being. It makes both SWB and PWB as overarching phrases most frequently used in studies that constitute these traditions, both of which are fundamentally concerned subjective account of well-being (Keyes, Shmotkin, & Ryff, 2002).

From sociological view point, life satisfaction has been considered as the key indicator of well-being. Viewed as cognitive component, life satisfaction is seen to complement happiness, considered as more affective dimension of positive functioning (Andrews & Mckennell, 1980; Andrews & Withey, 1976; Bryant & Veroff, 1982; Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976). Since Durkhiem's (1897-1966) early work on suicide, the impact of social connections on mental well-being has been given well consideration (Lin, Dean, & Ensel, 1986; Putnam, 2000; Srole, Langer, Michael, Opler, & Thomas, 1962; Thoits, 1995). Studies have also indicated that these social connections with reference to children and adolescents have always been of great importance whether viewed within the context of family relationship, relationship with peers and friends or relationship of learners with their instructors at workplace (Dekovic, 1999; Fitzpatrick, 1997; Fitzpatrick & Boldizar, 1993; Hawkins, 1995; Resnick et al, 1997; Smith, Lizotte, Thornberry, & Krohn, 1995).

According to Putnam (2000) social capital is considered as a critical resource for the promotion of individual and community well-being. Social networks and associations bond similar people together and bridge differences between heterogeneous people. Whereas, lack of positive social connections or trust deficit among the people may have adverse effect on their well-being. Of all the consequences of social capital, perhaps the most established is the case of mental health and social well-being (Lin, Cook, & Burt, 2001; Putnam, 2000).

Putnam (2000) suggests that in order to gain well-being, humans draw on various forms of capital in social settings. He is of the view that three types of capital may benefit well-being:

- (i) physical capital, the income and wealth that improves the individual's level of living
- (ii) human capital, the personal characteristics and experiences of an individual that enhance his or her productive behavior and overall well-being; and
- (iii) the social capital, the social ties and networks that help people get by or get ahead.

Adolescents with a positive self-image are more likely to perform well in school and other social settings like auto repair workshops, and these successful social experiences are likely to promote their social well-being (Fitzpatrick, Piko, Wright, and LaGory, 2005).

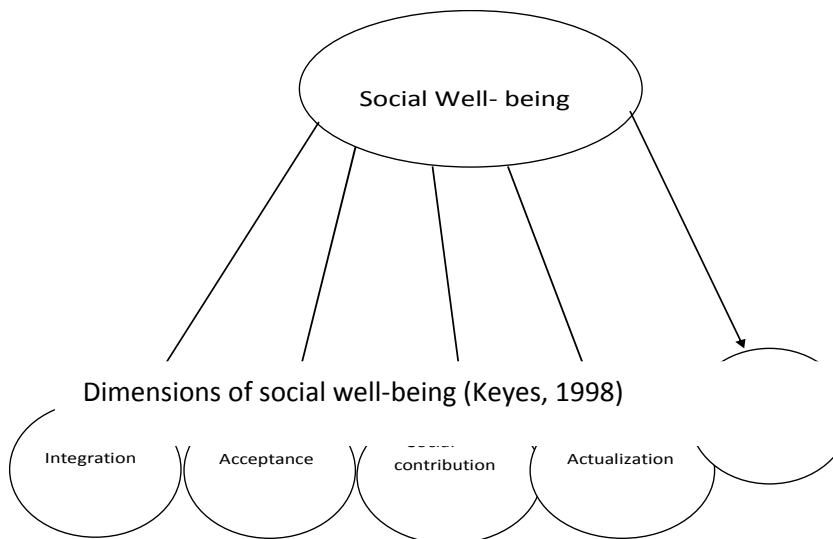
Yet studies parse well-being taking into account the specific working environment, interpersonal relations, nature of social interaction, social structure and neighborhood (Anrews, 19991; Diener, 1984). Putnam (2000) noted that well-being outcomes ranging from unhappiness and depression to suicide among youth may be a consequence of diminishing positive functioning. Evidences indicate that youth do not experience depression during adolescence to the realization that not only do they experience it; there is a marked increase in depression between childhood and adolescence, with depression often co-occurring with other disorders (Compas et al., 1998; Glied & Pine, 2002).

Adolescents' exposure to violence has been linked to a variety of mental health and behavioral problems including stress, excessive fear and worries, low self-esteem, self-destructive, and aggressive behavior and impaired social skills (Fitzpatrick & Boldizar, 1993; Freeman, Mokros, & Pozmamski, 1993; Furlong, Chung, Bates, & Morrison, 1995; Osofsky, Wewers, Hann, & Fick,

1993; Pynoos & Eth, 1985; Shakoor & Chalmers, 1991) which contribute to poor social well being. The impact of violence on adolescents may have significant influence in slowing down their social processing and competence to counter the adverse effects of violence (Flannery, Singer & Wester, 2003) which may deteriorate their social well being along with other consequences for them. Having multifaceted implications, violence may also suppress potentialities of adolescents utilized for effective problem-solving (Huesmann & Moise, 1999) with weakening of their positive connections that are necessary for their social well being.

Measures of social well-being may include the presence or absence of positive functioning in life (Jahoda, 19958). These measures of positive functioning, according to Keyes & Ryff (1999), consist of six dimensions of psychological well-being: self-acceptance, positive relations with others, personal growth, purpose in life, environmental mastery, and autonomy.

However, there is more to functioning well in life than psychological well-being. Keyes (1998) argued that positive functioning includes social challenges and tasks, and he proposed five dimensions of social well - being. Where psychological well-being represents more private and personal criteria for evaluation of one's functioning, social well-being epitomizes the more public and social criteria whereby people evaluate their functioning in life. These dimensions of social well-being consist of social integration, social acceptance, social contribution, social actualization and social coherence.



Within the context of these dimensions of social well-being according to Keyes, individuals function well when they see society as meaningful and understandable, when they see society as possessing potential for growth, when they feel they belong to and are accepted by their communities, when they accept most arts of society, and when they see themselves contributing to society. Taking into account Hettler's (1984) dimensions of general or overall wellbeing i. e spiritual, emotional, physical, mental and social; which state that a well-rounded individual will be developing on all these fronts, the present study is focused on social well-being of adolescents which is measured by the above mentioned dimensions presented by Keyes (1998).

Methodology

a) Respondents

Keeping in view the objectives of the study, male adolescents working in auto repair workshops within age group of 13-17 years were selected. The reason for selecting this age group was that being in the blossoming phase of their life; these individuals were neither included in children nor considered as youth. As spurt of physical, social and cognitive growth in boys starts from 12-14 years of age and is completed around the age of 17-20 (Hofmann & Greydanus, 1997). During this age of adolescence, individuals are capable of logically analyzing situations in terms of cause and effect relationship and to entertain different hypothetical situations (Piaget, 1950). Moreover, this process of thinking and evaluation on the part of adolescents enables them to set different personal goals for them (Keating, 1990).

b) Selection Procedure

The study was conducted in five subdivisions of district Bahawalnagar. A list of auto repair workshops was collected from labor department which was used as sampling frame. In total there were 409 auto repair workshops in the district the subdivision-wise detail of these workshops is given as under;

I) Bahawalnagar	112
II) Minchinabad	61
III) Chishtian	93
IV) Haroonabad	86
V) Fortabbas	57

From the sampling frame beginning with the second one every fifth workshop was selected. In this way 82 workshops were selected through the systematic simple random sampling procedure. Later on, learners working in these workshops within the age bracket of 13-17 years were

selected as respondents. Data were collected from a sample of 350 respondents.

Instruments. A pre-coded and close ended interview schedule was used for data collection through face to face interviews. For measurement of violence a standardized scale i.e. Conflict Tactics Scale Type-2 (CTS-2 revised version) devised by Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, & Sugarman (1996) was used. While social well being of the respondents was measured through five dimensions of Keyes (1998) model of social well being.

Data analysis

Data were analyzed by applying One way ANOVA and Pearson's Correlation.

Findings

Findings of the study are discussed in terms of descriptive and statistical analysis as under:

a) Descriptive

Demographic information of the respondents indicated that 24.6% were 15 years of age, 33.7% had completed their education up to primary and above, and 47.4% were from large family size (more than 6 family members). Other information are given in Table 1 and 2

Table 1. *Parental status, family status, type of family, profession of fathers and qualification of fathers of the respondents (n=350)*

Variables	n	%
Parental Status		
Both parents alive	239	68.3
Father is alive	38	18.9
Mother is alive	66	10.9
Both parents dead	7	2.0
Family Status		
Broken family	30	8.6
Normal family	320	91.4
Type of Family		
Nuclear family	232	66.3
Joint family	118	33.7

Qualification of fathers

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Illiterate	163	46.6
Primary	140	40
Middle and above	47	13.4

Profession of fathers

Laborer	98	28
Farmer	65	18.6
Businessmen	70	20
Private employees	99	28.3
Govt. employees	18	5.1

68.3% had both their parents alive, 66.3% were from nuclear families, majority of the respondents had illiterate fathers (46.6%). Table 2 Shows that 50.3% learners were working for 2-3 years, 69.7% were forced to learn skill. Whereas, 32.6% of the learners were 'frequently' doing home assignments for instructors.

Table 2. *Respondents' Working period, reason for working and performing domestic assignments for ustad (n=350)*

Variables	n	%
Working period		
Less than a year	136	38.9
2-3 years	176	50.3
More than three years	38	10.9
Reason for working		
By the choice of learner	76	21.7
Forced by family to learn skill	244	69.7
Forced by family to provide financial support	19	5.4
By learners choice to financially support family	11	3.1
Performing domestic assignments for ustad		
Never	36	10.3
Seldom	192	54.9
Frequently	114	32.6
Most frequently	8	2.3

b) Statistical Analysis

Table 3. Comparison of Education with Social Wellbeing of the Respondents
One way ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	12656.003	2	6328.001	4.927	.008
Within Groups	445713.872	347	1284.478		
Total	458369.874	349			

It showed that respondents having different level of education would have variation in their social wellbeing.

Table 4. Post-hoc test

Education of the Respondents	Mean Difference	P
No Schooling primary & above	-13.06	.006
Literate Primary & above	-12.35	.009

Respondents with no schooling were found having lesser social well being compared with those who were literate.

Table 5. one way ANOVA Reasons for working and Social Well-being of Respondents

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	23473.063	3	7824.354	6.225	.000
Within groups	434896.812	346	1256.927		
Total	458369.874	349			

Table 6. Post-hoc test

Reason for working	Mean Difference	F	P
By the choice of learner	forced by the family to learn skill	18.29	.000
	Forced by family to provide financial Support	16.48	.071

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Table 5. one way ANOVA *Reasons for working and Social Well-being of Respondents*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	23473.063	3	7824.354	6.225	.000
Within groups	434896.812	346	1256.927		
Forced by family to Learn Skill	learner's choice to financially support family			-23.46	.032

The respondents with their choice to learn skill would have better social well being compared with those who were forced to learn skill.

Table 7. one way ANOVA *-Comparison of parental Status of Respondents and Psychological violence against them*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1960.156	3	653.385	5.087	.002
Within Groups	44438.519	346	128.435		
Total	46398.674	349			

Differences in parental status of the respondents have differences in experiencing psychological violence against them.

Table 8. Post-hoc test

Status of parents	Mean Difference	P
Both parents are alive Mother is alive	3.49	.027
Both parents are dead Father is alive	12.44	.004
Both parents are dead Mother is alive	4.66	.002
Both parents are dead	15.93	.000

Respondents whom fathers had died were experiencing more psychological violence compared with those whose both parents were alive. Similarly the respondents living without parents were experiencing severe psychological violence.

Table 9. Correlation between psychological violence against adolescents and dimensions of social well-being (N=350)

	Social Integrat ion	Social Acceptanc e	Social Contributi on	Social Actualizat ion	Social Cohere nce	All of Social Well- being
Psychological violence by <i>Ustad</i>	-.446**	-.206**	-.364**	-.291**	-.264**	-.351**
Psychological violence by Co workers	-.480**	-.381**	-.450**	-.408**	-.381**	-.476**
Psychological violence by customers	-.326**	-.234**	-.239**	-.211**	-.184***	-.273**
N=350	$p < 0.001$		$p < 0.01$			

Correlation between psychological violence was found high (moderate in some cases) and negative almost with all dimensions of social well being particularly with reference to psychological violence by ustad and coworkers.

Table 10. Correlation between physical violence against adolescents and dimensions of social well-being (N=350)

Dimension of Social Wellbeing violence by coworkers	Physical Violence by Ustad	Physical
Social Integration	-.452**	-.437**
Social Acceptance	-.222**	-.326**
Social Contribution	-.406**	-.389**
Social Actualization	-.294**	-.354**
Social Coherence	-.260**	-.277**
All of Social Wellbeing	-.365**	-.405**
$P < 0.01$		

A high and negative correlation ($r = -0.405$) with physical violence by coworkers and social well being of adolescents (learners) was found as compared with *ustad* ($r = -0.365$).

Table 11. *Correlation between all types of violence against adolescents in relation to their social well-being (n=350)*

Violence	Social Well-being
All psychological violence	-.470**
All physical violence	-.434**
All sexual violence	-.034
P<0.01	P<0.05

Correlation between all forms of violence and social well being of the adolescents was found negative but it was respectively very high and high in case of psychological violence and physical violence against them.

Limitations

For the present study sample size is relatively small which limits its generalization for the whole of Pakistani society (selection bias). During the process of data collection, there might have been some, conscious or unconscious, inaccurate reporting on the part of respondents (desirability effect) which might have generated its effect on the overall findings of the study (information bias). The present study is limited to the violence against learners within the context of auto repair workshops and experiencing or witnessing of violence out of the workshop environment has not been taken into account. The study area comprised rather rural population, so its generalization should be seen within this context.

Discussion

Violence was found associated with certain demographic variables like age, education, family size and structure, reasons of working on the part of adolescents, parental education and profession of the working adolescents. The findings supported a study conducted in Bangladesh by Hadi (2000) who found that prevalence of child abuse and exploitation was widespread in Bangladeshi villages as 2.3% of children were physically abused, 2% were financially exploited, 1.7% were forced to involve in inappropriate activities, and 3% were forced to work for long hours. Boys were more exposed to violence. Findings were also noted to be in line with a study conducted by Talaat & Bano (1996) on “child labor in low class hotels and restaurants” in Peshawar, Pakistan. The study showed that ages of 16.6% of the working children ranged from 9-12 years and 83.3% of them were aged between 12-17 years. 93% had poor family background and were forced by their families to work for financial gain. Majority of these working children had large family size

with 7 as average number of family members and with a significant majority 90% were totally illiterate whereas, 73.33% had lost their fathers. The study also showed that the working children were facing both psychological and physical violence. These findings were found consistent with other studies that associate poverty and illiteracy as a risk factor for violence against children (Bagley & Mallick, 2000; Driscoll & Moore, 1999; Lieten, 2000; McCall, 1997).

Living with parents proved to be a supporting element in reducing psychological violence of the adolescents. As learners living without one or both parents experienced more psychological violence compared with those who were living with their parents. It reflected parental company, love and care as a protective factor against violence for adolescents. These findings were found consistent with “key facts about child maltreatment” pointed out by Kirsten Asmussen (2010). And protective factors described by Carol Horton (2003).

Family structure and presence of parents, especially the father, was found crucial for adolescents. To Bronfenbrenner (1979) and Cicchetti & Lynch (1993) child development takes place within multiple levels of context, family is considered as the most proximal and commonly the most influential of these systems (Cicchetti & Lynch, 1993; Tolan & Gorman-Smith, 1997; Tolan & Guerra, 1993). The present study showed that adolescents whose fathers were died were found to experience more psychological violence compared with those who's both parents were alive. Similarly adolescents living without both the parents were noted to experience more psychological violence compared with those who's both or at least one parent was alive. The data also indicated that adolescents living without both the parents experienced more psychological violence compared with all other respondents working in the auto repair workshops. It indicated that availability of parents or families proved to be a protective factor for adolescents. Availability of parents provide children with love, care and emotional support that serve as buffers for children, whereas absence of both or single parent become a risk factor for maltreatment and abuse of children and adolescents. This finding is supported by a study by Brown, Cohen, Johnson and Salzinger (1998) and Stith et.al (2009) who pointed out that large family size, single parent family, non-biological parents in the home, poor parent child interaction, and low level of parental education as risk factors for child abuse. Sedlak & Broadhurst (1996) found that children living with single or no biological parents may be more prone to experience physical, sexual abuse and neglect.

Similarly these findings are supported by the review by Oliver, Kuhn, & Pomeranz (2006). The findings also supports theoretical framework for the

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present study and ecological developmental model Belsky (1980) which states importance of family at individual level. Beside this these findings are also in line with other studies for example conducted by Furtenberg et.al (1999) and Hagan et.al (1996) which showed similar findings. Moreover, the findings supported demographic factors like parental education, financial status and nature of living environment as evaluated by Richters and Martinez (1993) as possible mediators of risk for violence exposure.

Analysis of the data reflected that experiences and witnessing of violence (whatever be the form of it) either by the *ustad*, the coworkers and the customers did adversely influence adolescents in terms of their social wellbeing. Details of analysis within the forms of violence showed that coworkers were causing more damage to the social wellbeing of the adolescents within the context of both psychological ($r = -0.476$) and physical violence ($r = -0.405$) against them. These findings were found matched with a study conducted by Vartia (2001) who studied 'consequences of workplace bullying with respect to the wellbeing of its targets and the observers of bullying' in Finland. The study revealed that both the targets and observers of bullying reported more general stress and mental stress reactions compared with those who were not bullied. Indicating lower level of social well-being, the targets expressed feelings of low self-confidence and poor goal clarity. These findings were also supported by a study by Kaplan et al (1999) which reflected that children who were physically abused tend to be less popular and very limited in making friends. They were also found to have less intimacy and more conflicts in their relationships with their friends. Whereas, Auguoustinos (1987) indicated that such abused children were found to be more shy and inhibited in interpersonal relationships. It also revealed that this abuse was found detrimental in their social functioning. Similarly, Jimeno (2001) and Moser (2004) respectively pointed out in their studies in Columbia and Guatemala that violence had negative effects on children's access to cultural resources, feared public gatherings with their inclination towards isolation which reduced the cultural capital they could achieve from attending these events of socialization. While Robert et al (2013) found that violence experiences were associated with more problems, fewer protective factors and impaired health related quality of life (HRQOL).

Findings were also strengthened by a Norwegian study of workers of shipyard industry (Einarsen, Raknes,1997), in which work-related negative acts, personal derogation acts, and social isolation acts were, in a statistically significant manner, correlated negatively with subjective well-being . In another study, workplace harassment was also found negatively correlated with life satisfaction, positive affect at work and commitment in organization (Einarsen et. al, 1994).

The violent interaction, either on the part of *ustad* or coworkers, tend to disrupt individual's perceptions of self as purposive and take others as source of threat or harm rather than sources of support which ultimately undermines individual's trust upon others (McCann et al., 1988). As social wellbeing represents various dimensions of social connectedness of an individual (Keyes, 1998) within a society, therefore, erosion of these connections, what Elder (1994) calls "linked lives", may jeopardize the overall social functioning of the individual, so the study indicates that the occurrence of persistent violence against the adolescents (learners) may lead to hinder their psychosocio development and social connectedness.

Conclusions

The study had its focus to find out relevance of violence against adolescents with their social well being, if it was there. The findings based on standardized scales revealed that there was high and negative correlation between violence against adolescents working in auto repair workshops and their social well being. The study reflected variation within demographic variables of the respondents. Adolescents living without parents were found to experience more violence with lesser level of social well being. Among the adolescents, those who had no schooling were found to experience more violence and low social well being compared with those who were literate and had formal education. Family size, reason for working in auto repair workshop and parental education and profession were also found influencing correlation between violence against adolescents and their social well being.

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