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Correlates of Job Satisfaction Among Civil Servants Close to Retirement in Lagos State

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Abstract

Job satisfaction is important as it informs the Human Resource department whether work is still meaningful at pre-retirement stage. Career transition variables promoting positive job-related attitude have not been appraised in available literature. This study perused the relationships between job satisfaction and career transition variables among civil servants nearing retirement in Lagos state. The study was a quantitative study which utilized the cross-sectional survey strategy to collect the data. One hundred and seventy-five (175) employees from selected ministries were sampled through a multi-stage sampling method. The research instrument was a self-report questionnaire and method of data analysis includes descriptive statistics and PPMC correlation analysis tested at $p \leq 0.05$. Career transition readiness, self-esteem, and self-efficacy relate to elevated job satisfaction. In addition, career support, control and decision correlated with low job satisfaction. Ultimately, the study demonstrated that being confident and preparedness for future roles increases job satisfaction at twilight of civil servants' career. The implications for employees close to retirement were discussed.

Keywords: job satisfaction, career transition readiness, self-efficacy, self-esteem, Lagos State public service.

1. Introduction

Nowadays organizations are compelled to handle two connected challenges: maintaining actively performing personnel and, increasing employees' well-being and job satisfaction beneath conditions of increase of job demand, in age diverse population (Guglielmi et al., 2016). It is instructive that being close to retirement influences employees' perceptions and evaluation of their job, distinctive desires, values and expectations that they think are vital to them (Drabe, Hauff & Richter, 2014; Guglielmi et al., 2016). A key side of personnel management is developing an understanding of way to inspire and satisfy older workers, since extremely glad workers show lower turnover intentions, lower absence rates and infrequently higher performance that optimizes organisations' success (Drabe et al., 2014).

Job satisfaction is outlined as "the extent to which individuals like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs". It results from individuals' perception and analysis of their job,

influenced by their own distinctive desires, values and expectations they think are vital to them. Job satisfaction is outlined as “the extent of affectation about ones’ job in terms of like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction)” (Guglielmi et al., 2016). The interest in job satisfaction stems from its major impact on employees’ outcome, long-term work success and it is direct link to an individual’s happiness (Mukhtar, 2012). Being satisfied with work is one important indicators of wellness of employees close to retirement. Employees close to retirement are presumed to be more satisfied with their jobs only if their job-related attitude and disposition continues to improve. Determinant of job satisfaction close to retirement are of special interest to experts as the employees’ perceptions, evaluations, convictions and sentiments about both their job and retiring from the profession is probably going to impact their retirement practices. Prior studies inform that high job satisfaction is suggested to be a valuable psychological resource which informs individuals attachment to the organization and do not want to relinquish at retirement (Davies, Van der Heijden & Flynn, 2017). However, prevailing levels of job satisfaction at pre-retirement has been linked to how employees react to how they are being treated at work. In this trend, the way employees perceived their gradual disengagement by management may have play a significant role whether employees are still happy close to retirement. Career transitions have been implicated as a major albatross in employees close to retirement job satisfaction (Robertson, 2010).

Career transition, a behavioural predisposition to engage in proactive strategies to make successfully role changes inherent towards a person’s career in the present job (Robertson, 2010). Career transition is broken down into five dimensions. These are psychological resources believed potentiates which improve older employees job satisfaction. These factors include readiness, efficacy, control, perceived social support, and decision independence (Robertson, 2010). Career readiness, suggests individuals perceived readiness to move into another job after retirement or entrepreneurial activities. Career readiness plays a crucial role towards retirement as energise and direct career and work behaviour towards retirement (Robertson, 2010). Career confidence, reflects how much confident about to retire person feels towards carrying out activities necessary to make a successful retirement i.e. entrepreneurship training, sabbatical leave learning new skills etc. A key factors in career development pursuits on what to do after retirement (Robertson, 2010). The third dimension is the perception the about is in “control” of retirement plans transitions. The belief that individuals have the skills and knowledge required to handle the change associated with career transitions (Robertson, 2010). Another factor is that influence about to retire is having the necessary career social support from their organisation. These include provisions of training and organisational support in taking up opportunities and exposure that will lead to self-sufficiency in later life for example taking political appointments, study leave, entrepreneurship etc. Lastly, about to retire “decision independence”, the perception that the career transition decision is an independent or autonomous one, or a decision made in consideration of the needs of others (Heppner et al., 1994).

Aside organisational prescribed, dispositional factors play significant role in job related attitude for ageing employees. Variables affecting job satisfaction includes the “self-concept” or “self belief” of the employees close to retirement place on themselves. The duo of self-efficacy and self-esteem has been linked to job satisfaction outcome in several studies (Mega et al., 2018). Self-concept, inspires evaluations and assessment that shaped the prevailing levels of job related attitude in employees; positive evaluations leads to positive feelings and negative evaluations the contrary (*Ibid.*, 2018). Self-esteem translates to the perception of self-worth that suggests how much the employees’ values their achievement in life and present contribution to the organisation. Self-efficacy the second self-concept variable is the individual belief in their own ability and confidence to see through all endeavours in life. Ivancevich et al. (2006) relates that self-efficacy to personal beliefs about competence and self-ability. In actual sense it refers to the feeling of confidence derived over time through handling of organisational activities and belief that one can handle any future events or tasks confidently (Mega et. al., 2018).

In the Nigeria public service paid less attention to its employees at the twilight of their careers compared to employees in the private sector. Less attention is paid to activities that stimulates high job morale such that job satisfaction is hampered as such, employees close to retirement are disgruntled losing interest in their jobs. Against this backdrop, this study seeks to investigate psycho-social correlates of job satisfaction among pre-retirement employees among civil servant in Lagos State, Nigeria. The following research questions will be answered in this study:

(1) Examined if career transitions readiness, efficacy, control, perceived social support, and decision independence variables were significant correlates of job satisfaction.

(2) The relationship between self-esteem, self-efficacy and job satisfaction.

(3) Assessed if self-esteem, self-efficacy will moderate the role of readiness, efficacy, control, perceived social support, and decision independence variables as predictors of job satisfaction.

1.2 Theoretical framework

Locke's (1976) range of affect theory and supers career construction theory guided this study. Range of affect theory proposed that job satisfaction translates to differences observe in what an individual wants in a job and his or her actual experience aftermath. The theory posit that if individuals values a certain facet of their job whether they experience satisfaction on the job depends on whether valued expectation are met or not compared to somebody who did not appreciate the value. Workers know what they want in a job and when they don't get it, they become stressed and dissatisfaction sets in. At career twilight more employees look out for what they stand to gain as they leave the organisation and what value they are leaving behind to be remember for. For most people in the public service experience job dissatisfaction due unplanned career changes, corruption, poor remuneration, low morale makes retirement decision difficult thus their level of dissatisfaction. Apart from corruption, poor career progression creates a stressful environment for employees. Career construction theory, proposed that individuals build their career by given meaning to their own work behaviour. Career construction theory goes through intuitive thinking through which individuals give interpretation and direction on their vocational behaviour.

Career construction theory views adaptation to career at twilight is shaped by five cardinal behaviours: exploration, orientation, management, disengagement and establishment. These positive activities form a cycle of adjustment constantly repeated as new transitions seem at the horizon. As each transition emanates, individuals can adapt more successfully if they meet the exchange with focused attention by using knowledgeable decision making, positive work effort leading to a solid commitment projected ahead, active role control, and near future deceleration and disengagement. For example, an employee prepares for retirement by reevaluating what their job means to them. At career twilight more employees look for what information about what it is to be retired when they leave work, take on activities that will be useful at retirement, play a major role in taking strategic decisions, i.e. succession plan, expansion creating value in their organisations, gradually scale down their own activities, seeing themselves as valuable and prepares to leave a legacy sound job performance behind. Whether successful or not this pattern of adaptation influence employees job performance.

1.3 Empirical review

Literature examining about to retire and ageing workers job satisfaction have identified that older workers continue to work because of financial reasons and the values place

on work itself, and personal belief about work (Higgs et al., 2003). Paynter (2004) assessment of the motivational profiles of teachers showed that teachers above 50 years have significantly higher motivation scores than younger teachers below 40 years. Lange et al. (2006) found that age differences did not influence the level of work satisfaction but general value or similar aspects of work. Blau (2000) and Otto et al. (2010) found that job satisfaction predicted occupational change readiness for apprentices who are approaching the transition to their main occupation as unsatisfied apprentice scored higher on occupational change readiness. Lord (2002) demonstrated that self-esteem needs and self-actualisation were important motivation for older worker with sufficient income to retire. Jepsen and Choudhuri (2001) found that employees with stable occupational career patterns (OCPs) experienced lower job satisfaction than those who changed career patterns. Wanberg (1995) found that employees who transited from a demotivated activity where happier with their present jobs as reactions was stimulated by personal characteristics and factors around the change context (Wanberg & Banas, 2000).

2. Method

2.1 *Research design*

The study was quantitative study which adopted cross-sectional survey research design in collecting the data.

2.2 *Study sample*

The population of the study includes employees close to their retirement either by age or due to years of service in ministries and parastatals in Lagos State, Nigeria. The respondents were selected from the population of about to retire civil servants from six ministries which include ministries of Health, Education, Sports and Culture, Agriculture, Finance, Works and Housing. One hundred and seventy-five employees close to retirement in six selected ministries chosen as the representative sample were selected through a multi-stage sampling method. At the first stage, purposive sampling technique adopted selected ministries. Consecutive sampling was used to select employees close to retirement who have three years or less to spend in service from the selected ministries within the period under consideration (July – August, 2015).

2.3 *Instrument*

The items on the questionnaire will be adapted from previous validated studies. The instrument asked questions the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants. These include: age, sex, education qualification, year of experience, income, marital status and educational qualification. Career transition was measured using career transitions inventory (CTI). The CTI originally had six constructs: (a) self-efficacy, (b) self-versus-relational focus, (c) motivation, (d) rational beliefs, (e) risk-taking, and (f) control. Reliability of the sub-dimensions ranged from .66 to .87 (median .69). The subscales of the CTI were positively correlated with the scales from the *My Vocational Situation* and the *Hope Scale* assessments (Heppner, Multon & Johnston, 1994). Self-esteem was measured using self-esteem scale 10- item scale developed by Rosenberg's (1965). Sample items include: I feel that I am person of worth, comparable to others; I feel confident at any times. The scoring format was anchored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree. The reliability of the scale as reported by the author is 0.82. Items 2, 5, 6, 8 and 9 had to be reversed. Higher scores indicate a higher global self-esteem. Self-efficacy was measured using Judge et al., (1998) 8-item measure self-efficacy scale. The measure includes: I often feel that there is nothing that I cannot do very well. The scale was anchored on a 5-point scale likert response format ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly

agree). The items within each scale were averaged to form a single score for generalized self-efficacy. Judge et al. (1998) reported 0.88 alpha as reliability for the scale. High scores on the scale represent increasing confidence and self-directed behaviour among the employees. Job satisfaction was captured using items adapted from the short form 20-item Minnesota satisfaction scale developed by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967). The scale is made up of two dimensions: intrinsic or extrinsic satisfaction. Responses was scored on a likert format ranged 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Reliability for the intrinsic scale was reported to be .86: .80 for the extrinsic subscale, and .90 for the overall satisfaction scale.

2.4 Procedure for data collection

The researcher sought the necessary approval from the head of service. The researcher personally administer the questionnaires to the employees close to retirement at their various offices. The researcher obtained a verbal consent from the respondent after explaining to the respondents the nature of the research and that the information would be treated with confidentially. The questionnaires were administered directly on participants, while some was retrieved immediately and other respondents requested for the completion of the questionnaire. Three hundred and sixty questionnaires were distributed however only one hundred and seventy-eight were retrieved. The well completed questionnaires were used in the data analysis.

2.5 Method of data

Data analysis was carried out with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. Descriptive statistics (frequency count, mean and standard deviation) is used to offer a snapshot of the basic characteristics of the respondents' demographics. Relationship between variables were tested using Pearson correlation analysis at 0.05 level of significance.

3. Results

Frequency count and percentage were used to analyse respondents' demographic information (age, gender, educational qualification, designation and length of service). The analyses are summarised below.

Table 1. Socio demographic characteristics of respondents

Demographic Characteristics	Category	Frequency	Percentage %
Gender	Male	103	58.9
	Female	72	41.1
Age	Below 50	43	24.6
	50-55	65	37.1
	56-60	67	38.3
Marital Status	Married	153	87.4
	Single	11	6.3
	Divorced	5	2.9
Religion	Widowed	6	3.4
	Christianity	108	61.7
	Islam	65	37.1
Educational Qualification	Others	2	1.1
	O' Level	51	29.1
	OND/NCE	29	16.6
	HND	18	10.3
	BSC/BA/BED/BENG	31	17.7

	MSC/MED/MENG/MA	10	17.1
	Professionals	10	5.7
	Pry School education	6	3.4
Experience	Below 20 years	37	21.1
	21-25 years	36	20.6
	26-30 years	43	24.6
	31-35 years	48	27.4
	Above 35 years	11	6.3
Monthly Income	N18,000 - N50,000	63	36.0
	N51,000 - N100,000	70	40.0
	N101, 000 - N150,000	13	7.4
	N151,000 - N200,000	10	5.7
	N201,000 - N300,000	11	6.3
	N301,000 - N500,000	8	4.6

Results revealed that cumulative 75.4% were above 50 years of age which shows that the larger percentage are close to retirement either by age or years in service, while only 24.1% were below 50 years of age and are closer to retirement due to years spent in the civil service. As stipulated retirement in the Nigeria civil service is 60 years or 35 years in service. 87.4% were married. The larger percentage of the respondents (61.7%) were Christian. Distribution based on highest educational attainment shows that the respondents had primary school (3.4%), secondary school (29.1%), OND/NCE (16.6%), HND (10.3%), postgraduate degrees (17.1%), and professionals (5.7%) certification. Cumulatively, 66.3% have 30 years or less years of experience, 27.4% have 31-35 years of experience, while 6.3% have years of experience above 35 years. This shows the some of the workers have their services extended beyond retirement age or years of experience. Furthermore, the result reveals that 76% earned =N= 100, 000 or less showing a high preponderance of lower cadre employees in the present sample.

Correlation analyses of all the study variable was done using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), the resulting output generated and arranged in Table 2.

Table 2. Mean, standard deviation and zero order correlation matrix showing the relationship among variables in the study.

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
JSAT	85.73	13.73							
PCTR	51.61	6.011	.55**	1					
PCCD	36.97	7.60	-.07	-	1				
PCC	22.15	5.81	-.26**	0.85	-	1			
PCS	17.34	4.48	-.29**	-.13	.62**	-	1		
PCD	18.31	5.53	-.19*	-.35**	.61**	.25**	-	1	
SE	26.93	3.57	.53**	-.28**	.40**	.12	.34**	-	
GSE	43.21	6.68	.75**	.56**	-.39**	-.03	-.29**	-.45**	-

**Correlation is significant ($p < 0.01$), Correlation is significant ($p < 0.05$), *, -

JSAT: Job satisfaction; PCTR: Personal Career Transition readiness; PCCD: Personal Career Confidence Development; PCC: Personal Career Control; PCS; Personal Career Support; PCD: Personal Career Decision; SE: Self Esteem; GSE: General Self Efficacy

The results demonstrated that Career Transition readiness ($r = .55, p < 0.01$), self-esteem ($r = .53, p < 0.01$), and general self-efficacy ($r = .76, p < 0.01$) were significant positive correlates of job satisfaction. It was demonstrated that high self-value, self-confidences induced higher levels of job satisfaction in about to retire workers. In addition, being read to make career transition was associated with high job satisfaction. It is increasingly clear that people who are confident of the future, valued their career or contributions to the organisation and are readily prepared to other career roles in life were more satisfy with their jobs. However, the result demonstrated that personal career control ($r = -.26, p < 0.01$), career support ($r = -.17, p < 0.01$), and

personal career decision ($r = -.19, p < 0.01$) have significant inverse relationship with job satisfaction. This implies that though individuals received low support for their career, were not responsible for their career decisions and control; they were still happier with their jobs. This suggest that possibly the presence high self-esteem and self-efficacy moderated the job satisfaction outcome for career transition variables.

4. Discussion

The study investigated relationship between job satisfaction and career transition variables among employees close to retirement in Lagos state public service. The results demonstrated that career transition readiness, self-esteem, and general self-efficacy were significant positive correlates of job satisfaction. High self-value, self-confidences induced higher levels of job satisfaction among employees close to retirement. In addition, readiness to make career transition was associated with higher job satisfaction. These findings support Lord (2002) who found that self-esteem needs and self-actualisation are primarily motivation for older worker with sufficient income to retire. As demonstrated, employees being confident of the future, valuing their career or contributions to the organisation and are readily prepared to other career roles in life will be more satisfy with his/her jobs. In the same vein, the findings support the study which identified job satisfaction proved to be correlates of occupational change readiness for apprentices who are approaching the transition to their main occupation (Blau, 2000; Otto et al., 2010). Those unsatisfied with their job or apprenticeship scored higher on occupational change readiness. These findings is similar to Higgs et al. (2002) who demonstrated that older employees who valued their job or their personal belief were happier with their job and see reason to continue on their jobs. In addition, the result demonstrated that personal career control, career support, and personal career decision have significant inverse relationship with job satisfaction. This implies that though individuals received low support for their career transition effort, career decisions and control; they were still happier with their jobs. Inadequate preparation and lack of support did not dampen their level of job satisfaction (Baumgardner, Heppner & Arkin, 1986). The findings were in contrast with Jepsen and Choudhuri (2001) who demonstrated that employees with stable occupational career patterns (OCPs) often experienced lower job satisfaction than those who changed career patterns. Results also support Wanberg (1995) who demonstrated that employees who transited from a demotivated activity where happier with their present jobs as reactions was stimulated by personal characteristics and factors around the change context (Wanberg & Banas, 2000). This finding support Locke's (1976) range of affect theory and super career construction theory that employees' value expectation at any point in their career affects their job related attitude. In addition, situation during career transition shapes employees job related attitude. Inadequate attention to civil servant and their needs make them dissatisfied with their job. These have overall impact on the productivity and commitment of these employees at these point in time.

5. Conclusion and recommendation

This study reveals that most of the career transition and self-concept variables used in the study are covariates of job satisfaction among employees close to retirement in the Lagos State public service with the exception of personal career confidence development. This study concluded that career transition readiness and high employees self-values are factors that is making civil servants happy on the job. In addition, the result demonstrated lack of control over their career, lack of support for their career and poor career decision were associated with job dissatisfaction. In other words, individual self-concept is what is making the job meaningful, despite lack of support for civil servant at the twilight of their career. This study recommends job enrichment, retirement planning and career counselling for the ageing work force. This study is limited due to its cross-sectional nature and small sample size. It is recommended that future study should be

longitudinal, the sample size should be increased to include public servants in parastatals and agencies. In addition, future studies should examine the possible presence of mediational and moderation effect of self-esteem and self-efficacy on career transition variables and job satisfaction.

Declaration of interest

We declare that:

- We have no conflict of interest
- We have a competing interest

This statement is to certify that all authors have seen and approved the manuscript being submitted. We warrant that the article is the authors' original work. We warrant that the article has not received prior publication and is not under consideration for publication elsewhere. On behalf of all co-author, the corresponding author shall bear full responsibility for the submission. This research has not been submitted for publication nor has it been published in whole or in part elsewhere. We attest to the fact that all authors listed on the title page have contributed significantly to the work, have read the manuscript, attest to the validity and legitimacy of the data and its interpretation, and agree to its submission to the *Open Journal for Psychological Research (OJPR)*.

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Nonattachment, Trait Mindfulness, Meditation Practice and Life Satisfaction: Testing the Buddhism Psychology Model in Indonesia

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Abstract

This study aimed at studying the path analysis of Buddhism psychology: trait mindfulness and nonattachment. The mindfulness was expected to predict nonattachment and indirectly predicted the psychological needs satisfaction and well-being. The total sample of 229 participants (68.6% female, 31.4% male; mean age $M=18.917$, $SD=.699$; 63.3% meditation practitioners and 36.7% non-practitioners) completed the Nonattachment scale, Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS), basic psychological need satisfaction and well-being. Results confirmed adequate measurement model (composite reliability and convergence validity), as well as significant path within the structural model test. Trait mindfulness predicted nonattachment significantly; nonattachment predicted the psychological need satisfaction; and psychological need satisfaction influence the well-being. Specific indirect effects were also found: nonattachment mediated the path of trait mindfulness and psychological need satisfaction; nonattachment predicted well-being through psychological need satisfaction; and nonattachment and psychological need satisfaction mediated the relationship between trait mindfulness and well-being. Meditation experiences significantly differentiate the prediction of trait mindfulness toward nonattachment.

Keywords: trait mindfulness, nonattachment, psychological need satisfaction, well-being.

1. Introduction

Within Western tradition, research related to life satisfaction has its origin in 18th-century “enlightenment” thinking. From this perspective, life itself became the focus of human life, not service to the King or God. Since then self-actualization and happiness have become prominent, and in the 1960s life satisfaction became a common topic in survey research (Veenhoven, 1996). Life satisfaction has diverse perspectives, including from Eastern religious perspective. In the concept of Buddhism, the term *dukkha* is known when talking about human life. The central question in Buddhism is, “Why do we suffer?” “Why is our life unsatisfying and filled with sadness?” “Why is our hope rarely borne fruit?” Historically, Gautama Buddha was believed to have left a luxury life which was his privilege, to get answers to questions about life suffering and life satisfaction. The answers he found, which made him a Buddha, were encapsulated in the “Four Noble Truths”, or some scientists refer to them as “The Truth for Noble People”.

The Four Noble Truths are the fundamental orientation of Buddhism. The first truth is that life is suffering which in Pali is written *dukkha*. The second truth clarifies the reason for affliction or unsatisfactory in life, namely attachment; the third truth is the effort to cease from suffering; and finally, the fourth Truth is related to the way to stop *dukkha*. The term *dukkha* refers to pain, distress, anxiety, and dissatisfaction felt physically and mentally. The emergence of *dukkha* in human life is caused by the desire, craving for something, and attachment (Tsering, 2005).

- Meditation practices moderating the relationship of participants' trait mindfulness and nonattachment.
- Nonattachment mediated the relationship among trait mindfulness, psychological needs satisfaction, and well-being.
- The Buddhism psychology is proven beneficial to achieve basic psychological needs satisfaction and well-being.

The fundamental idea of Buddhism is that life is characterized by dissatisfaction and imperfection. As a consequence of this claim, our psychological tendency to hold on to pleasant things and fight pain is ultimately futile. In step with Buddhism, attachment to all phenomena is negative due to the fact impermanence and non-self are the highest truths of the universe (Mikulas, 2007). Focusing on anything is the consequence of the world's idea of ignorance and thus welcomes suffering. The Buddha is acutely aware of the impermanent and hollow of the world, as well as unstable nature of the universe, and thus realizes that holding a particular state is unnecessary because self and non-self are illusory. As a result, well-being is caused by a balanced state that is not affected by the external or internal stimulus; in other words, welfare does not depend on certain circumstances (Sahdra, Shaver & Brown, 2010; Wallace & Shapiro, 2006).

One concept in Buddhism that is used in overcoming dissatisfaction in life (*dukkha*) is nonattachment. Experts speculate that nonattachment will contribute to the mental health of individuals, primarily by acting as a protective factor of negative psychological pressure and negative affect. More precisely, suffering mostly stems from ignorance of the mind. Nonattachment is recommended by Buddhism to address obliviousness and reestablish a reasonable state free from uneasiness, dissatisfaction, and gloom (Sahdra, et al., 2010; Wallace & Shapiro, 2006).

Nonattachment is a key aspect of mindfulness that can be learnt or taught independently from the practice of mindfulness itself. This concept includes the acceptance and release of negative thoughts and feelings (Sahdra et al., 2010). Coffey and Hartman (2008) proposed the possibility that nonattachment may assume an imperative task in the component of how mindfulness influences positive mental adjustment. The concept of nonattachment revolves around a person's thoughts and feelings, and how one must remain aware of unpleasant, neutral and positive aspects of thoughts and feelings without getting too close or pushing too far (Sahdra et al., 2010). Through this process, nonattachment practitioners will know whether they are fixated on mental images related to people, property, or ideas which they hope will be according to their wishes (e.g. Nagarjuna, 2nd century BC / 1995).

The attachment causing suffering is reflected in Buddhism from the four noble truths, which are described as consisting of the truth of suffering, the origin of suffering, the final truth of suffering, and the truth of the path to the end of suffering (Schuhmacher & Woerner, 1994). In Buddhism, life is considered unsatisfactory, temporary, contains all kinds of suffering, and all pleasant experiences are impermanent (Chen, 2006). The individual's attachment to experiencing pleasure or avoiding pain makes the individual in the cycle of suffering. Suffering can be suppressed through insubordination and elimination of desire and mindfulness (Schuhmacher & Woerner, 1994).

The construction of nonattachment is at least as vintage as mindfulness within the Eastern contemplative culture. However, nonattachment is a relative newcomer within the psychology literature, with the first empirical investigation posted with the advent of the Nonattachment Scale, or NAS (Sahdra, Shaver & Brown, 2010). Nonattachment can be defined as a bendy and balanced manner associated with one's experience without attaching or pressing them (Sahdra et al., 2015; Sahdra & Shaver, 2013; Sahdra et al., 2010). On the other hand, mindfulness is often defined as paying attention to goals at this time while refraining from judgment and impulsive reactions (Kabat-Zinn & Hanh, 2009).

Both of these constructs have a very positive impact on a person's psychological condition. Nonattachment has a positive correlation with moderate to strong strengths with life satisfaction. Conversely, it negatively correlated with negative affect and psychological distress (Wang, Wong & Yeh, 2016). When someone is not bound, his/her sense of well-being is felt to be independent of particular circumstances.

Other supporting findings related to the relationship between nonattachment and well-being can be seen in its positive correlations with subjective well-being (life satisfaction and emotional trait) and emotional well-being (i.e., self-acceptance, personal growth, positive relationships with others, and purpose in life). On the other hand, nonattachment negatively correlated with depression, anxiety, stress, and difficulty in the regulation of emotions. In line with Buddhism's theory that nonattachment could promote positive interpersonal functions, nonattachment positively correlated with empathy and generosity.

The volume of publications related to mindfulness had increased exponentially over the past two decades, resulting in almost 500 new publications in 2012 alone (Black, 2013). This number was expected to increase because more than 300 clinical trials related to mindfulness began to publish the results. The momentum that drives this research is needed. Many of the benefits of psychological health and physical health have been linked to mindfulness training (e.g., Chiesa & Serretti, 2010; Greeson, 2009; Hofmann et al., 2010; Keng, Smoski, & Robins, 2011; Smith et al., 2005) and mindfulness trait (e.g. Coffey & Hartman, 2008; Creswell et al., 2007). Mindfulness is defined as "awareness that arises through attention to purpose, at present, and without judgment until when the experience opened from time to time" (Kabat-Zinn, 2003: 145). Mindfulness, in other words, means paying attention to what is happening within us, for us, and around us.

Existing literature shows that mindfulness is useful for life satisfaction which refers to an individual's global cognitive evaluation of satisfaction with the life of the individual itself as a whole (Diener, Oishi & Lucas, 2003). Correlational studies have shown that measurement of mindfulness trait is associated with high levels of life satisfaction and low psychological stress, for example, depression, stress (e.g., Brown & Ryan, 2003; Howell et al., 2008; Schutte & Malouff, 2011).

The relationship between mindfulness and life satisfaction had been established, but potential mechanisms that might explain this relationship were still unclear, although some ideas explaining how mindfulness showed beneficial effects on subjective well-being had been increasing in the research literature.

Theoretical and empirical research have provided support that the core practices of Buddhist meditation, mindfulness, nonattachment, and self-compassion play important roles in aspects of mental health such as psychological flexibility (e.g., Fletcher et al., 2010; Hayes, 2002; Sahdra, Shaver & Brown, 2010). Because in everyday life Buddhists focus on these practices, they may show higher psychological flexibility than non-Buddhists.

Various studies have not firmly placed nonattachment position in research related to mental health. Brown et al. (2007) reported that mindfulness predicted nonattachment toward

mental fixation. Meanwhile, Sahdra et al. (2016) showed that nonattachment acted as a mediator between mindfulness and well-being. Besides that, Sahdra also found that when controlling the role of mindfulness, nonattachment gave a variance value of 7% to life satisfaction. Although it has a positive impact on the quality of a person's psychological condition, research involving nonattachment is still rare.

Nonattachment is one of the recommended ways in Buddhism that enables humans to reduce life's misery or dissatisfaction. Thus, nonattachment also predicts daily well-being, because satisfaction with life is a component in daily well-being. The psychological mechanism of nonattachment appears more in individuals who practice meditation. The findings of the study by Sahdra et al. (2010) show that meditation practitioners have higher nonattachment than those who are not practitioners. Also, the duration of meditation is positively correlated with nonattachment. Fulfillment of individual daily well-being can be determined by satisfaction with fulfilling basic psychological needs consisting of relatedness, autonomy, and competence. The higher the individuals' relatedness, autonomy, and competence, the higher their wellbeing is.

2. Method

2.1 Participant

The study participants had an age range from 18-20 years ($M = 18.917$; $SD = 0.699$). The majority of participants were female, as many as 157 people (68.6%) and male as many as 72 people (31.4%). One hundred forty-five participants (63.3%) practiced meditation, and eighty-four participants had never meditated (36.7%).

2.2 Measurement

The first questionnaire used in this study was daily well-being survey and daily psychological needs satisfaction, which were arranged based on six different constructs, each construct measured by two items: (a) satisfaction with the day spent (adapted from Satisfaction with Life Scale / SWLS): "Today is a very satisfying day for me" and "Today is an ideal day for me"; (b) positive affect (two-item adaptation of PANAS-X; Watson and Clark, 1994): "I experience a lot of fun today" and "Today is a pleasant day"; (c) negative affect (adaptation of two items from PANAS-X): "Today is a day that frustrates me" and "I am very worried today"; (d) autonomy (adapted from the Basic Need Satisfaction in Life Scale [BNSNLS]): "I managed to get what I needed today" and "I made progress to achieve my goals today"; (e) competencies (adapted from BNSLS, Kashdan et al., 2006): "Today I get new knowledge" and "What I do today improves my skills"; (f) relatedness (adapted from BNSLS): "I can be closer to my friend today" and "Today I am closer to my family". The questionnaire above is used to measure the quality of meeting psychological needs. The instrument rated the participants' level of agreement (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

The second questionnaire used in this study was nonattachment developed by Sahdra, et al. (2015), namely the NAS-7 scale. This scale has sample items such as: "I can let go of regret and dissatisfaction about the past" and "I can enjoy a pleasant experience without needing it to last forever". Responses from this scale range from "Strongly Disagree" to "Very Agree".

The measurement of well-being consisted of a brief measurement of the aspects of emotional well-being, psychological well-being and social well-being as measured by Mental Health Continuum (MHC-SF). The MHC-SF consisted of three statements measuring emotional well-being (happiness, interest in life, and life satisfaction), six items measuring psychological well-being namely self-acceptance, mastery environment, positive relationships with others, personal growth, autonomy, purpose in life; and social well-being comprised five statements measuring social contribution, social integration, social actualisation, social acceptance, and social

coherence. The response range on the MHC-SF scale consists of “Never” = 1 to “Every Day” = 6. The variable mindfulness was measured by the Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS) (Brown & Ryan, 2003) consisted of 15 statements in one factor. An example of a statement from mindfulness is: “I can experience emotions by not realizing it until some time later”, “I find it difficult to focus/concentrate on what is happening now” and “I tend to walk quickly toward my goal, without pay attention to what I’ve experienced along the way”. The MAAS was measured in 6-point response scale (1 = almost always, 2 = very frequently, 3 = somewhat frequently, 4 = somewhat infrequently, 5 = very infrequently, and 6 = almost never).

2.3 Results

The following was a description of the research variables based on mean values and standard deviations. This description meant that participants had a relatively high nonattachment. The quality of maternal relations was also high because $M = 4.236 > Me = 3$. Participant mindfulness trait was high because $M = 3.686 > Me = 3.5$. Daily psychological needs satisfaction and daily well-being participants were also high because $M > Me = 4$. Table 1 reported the variable descriptive statistics.

Table 1. Research variable descriptive statistics

Variable	Mean	SD
<i>Nonattachment</i>	3.969	.724
<i>Trait mindfulness</i>	3.686	.817
<i>Daily psychological needs satisfaction</i>	4.321	.719
<i>Daily well-being</i>	4.208	.843

Data analysis was carried out with the SMART PLS 3.2.8 program (Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015) to see the direct effect of trait mindfulness toward nonattachment, indirect effect toward daily psychological needs satisfaction and daily well-being. Data analysis included measurement model and the structural model.

2.4 Measurement model

Calculation of the measurement model produced composite reliability values and the average variance extracted (AVE) values as indicators of convergent validity. A path weighting scheme was used to test the outer model (Garson, 2012; Hair et al., 2012) for the PLS-SEM algorithm with a total iteration of 300. Outer model analysis began by testing composite reliability and discriminant validity representing latent variables. The value limit for outer loading used in this study was .6 (Hair et al., 2011). In order to improve the fitness of the model, items with outer loading smaller than .6 were excluded from the analysis. After all the outer loading had met the criteria, the composite reliability value and construct discriminant validity were obtained. Criteria for composite reliability were $> .6$ for exploration studies and $> .7$ for confirmatory research (Hair et al., 2012). All construct sizes showed good composite reliability (CR) and good convergent validity (AVE). In conclusion, this research showed good measurement model. The summary of the measurement model analysis is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. The measurement model test

Variable	Composite Reliability (CR)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Daily well-being	.924	.752
Trait mindfulness	.825	.542
Nonattachment	.779	.541
Daily psychological needs satisfaction	.798	.570

2.4.1 *Discriminant validity*

Discriminant validity testing has been a prerequisite for calculating the relationship between variables. If discriminant validity is found, the researcher can be sure that the results of hypothesized structural pathways are real. Discriminant validity test was based on the value of HTMT (Hetero-Trait-Mono-Trait). All values in the confidence interval (CI) 97.5% should not approach the value 1 to claim discriminant validity (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015). In this study, all constructs indicate no threat to discriminant validity because all constructs had an HTMT value of $X < 0.90$.

Table 3. The HTMT value of variables discriminant validity

	Daily Psychological Needs Satisfaction	Nonattachment	Trait Mindfulness	Well-being
Daily Psychological Needs Satisfaction				
Nonattachment	.326			
Trait Mindfulness	.240	.470		
Well-being	.595	.285	.178	

2.4.2 *Goodness of fit*

The research goodness of fit test was based on the standardized square root mean residual SRMR value. The SRMR was based on changes in both the sample covariance matrix and the covariance matrix predicted into the correlation matrix. SRMR was defined as the difference between the observed correlation and the implied correlation matrix model. Thus, it was possible to assess the average difference between the observed and expected correlations as the absolute measure of the appropriate criteria (model). SRMR values less than .10 was considered fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Henseler et al. (2014) introduced SRMR as a goodness of fit measure for PLS-SEM which could be used to avoid model misspecification. This research model produced an SRMR (estimated model) value of .087, which indicated a good fit model.

2.5 *The structural model test (inner model)*

The hypothesis testing of the study was carried out by bootstrapping analysis which resulted in path coefficient values as shown in Table 4. Based on the T-Statistics significance criteria > 1.96 , it could be seen that only mindfulness traits which had no significant effect on daily psychological needs satisfaction ($1.25 > 1.96$). This meant that the hypothesis related to mindfulness predictions against daily psychological needs satisfaction was not accepted. The path prediction of daily psychological needs satisfaction toward daily well-being was confirmed ($1.96 < 9.748$). Nonattachment verified its prediction over daily psychological needs satisfaction ($1.96 < 2.218$). Lastly, trait mindfulness predicted nonattachment ($1.96 < 4.622$). Table 4 summarized the path coefficients and descriptive statistics.

Table 4. The path coefficients between variables

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	P Values
Daily Psychological Needs Satisfaction -> Well-being	.480	.489	.046	10.380	.000
Nonattachment -> Daily Psychological Needs Satisfaction	.184	.186	.074	2.473	.014
Trait Mindfulness -> Nonattachment	.311	.333	.062	5.055	.000

2.5.1 *Specific indirect effects*

Based on bootstrapping testing, the results showed that nonattachment mediated the path of mindfulness towards daily psychological needs satisfaction. Variables nonattachment and daily psychological needs satisfaction did not mediate the relationship between mindfulness traits and daily wellbeing. The indirect effect of daily psychological needs satisfaction was also not significant in the relationship between trait mindfulness and daily well-being. Table 5 shows the value of T-Statistics < 1.96.

Table 5. Specific indirect effect

Path	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	P Values
Trait Mindfulness -> onattachment -> daily Psychological Needs Satisfaction	.057	.062	.027	2.116	.035
Nonattachment -> daily psychological needs satisfaction -> well-being	.088	.091	.038	2.330	.020
Trait mindfulness -> nonattachment -> daily psychological needs satisfaction -> well-being	.028	.030	.014	1.978	.048

2.5.2 *F square (F2) test*

Cohen (1988) stated that reporting effect size was important in the analysis to see the extent to which the null hypothesis was wrong. Vacha-Haase and Thompson (2004) stated that effect size was a statistic that calculated the extent to which the results of the analysis in the study sample deviated from expectations, especially related to the null hypothesis. Another opinion expressed by Kirk (1996) who sees effect size as a number that showed the practical role of an effect. This practical utility aimed to be used as a basis for making various policies or practical matters. To see the effect size criteria, the criteria from Cohen (1988) were used, namely $F^2 < .02$ (small), $.15 < F^2 < .3$ (moderate) and $.3 < F^2$ (strong). Based on the above criteria, the effect size nonattachment on daily psychological needs satisfaction (.035) was small, the effect size mindfulness trait on nonattachment (.107) was small, and daily psychological needs satisfaction against daily wellbeing (.300) was moderate. These findings showed that only the relationship between daily psychological needs satisfaction and daily wellbeing had a mild and meaningful effect size.

Table 6. The F square test

	Daily Psychological Needs Satisfaction	Nonattachment	Trait Mindfulness	Well-being
Daily Psychological Needs Satisfaction				.300
Nonattachment	.035			
Trait Mindfulness		.107		
Well-being				

2.5.3 Multiple Group Analysis (MGA)

In this study, multiple group analysis was used to test differences of coefficients path from two groups of data: gender and meditation practice. The result of MGA test of gender was as follows.

Table 7. Multiple group analysis based on gender

Path	Path Coefficients-diff (Female - Male)	P-Value (Female vs Male)
Daily Psychological Needs Satisfaction -> Well-being	.072	.721
Nonattachment -> Daily Psychological Needs Satisfaction	.141	.168
Trait Mindfulness -> Nonattachment	.139	.087

The result showed that gender did not differentiate path coefficients between variables studied because the *P* value was greater than .05. It means that the prediction of daily psychological needs satisfaction toward well-being is the same for both male and female participants. For both male and female participants, their daily psychological needs satisfaction is predicted from their nonattachment. Lastly, all participants' mindfulness trait predicts their nonattachment.

Table 8. Multiple group analysis based on meditation practice

Path	Path Coefficients-diff (Meditation-No Meditation)	p-Value(Meditation) vs No Meditation
Daily Psychological Needs Satisfaction -> Well-being	.067	.756
Nonattachment -> Daily Psychological Needs Satisfaction	.074	.697
Trait Mindfulness -> Nonattachment	.,214	.019

The experience of participants' meditation which was categorized into two categories: meditate and never meditate also showed no different path coefficients as indicated the *P* values above .05. In summary, the meditation practices do not differentiate Table 7 summarized the results.

2.6 Discussion

The instruments of nonattachment, trait mindfulness, basic psychological needs satisfaction, and daily well-being show good psychometric properties of reliability and convergence validity. Thus, the use of these instruments is then endorsed to study the Buddhist's contribution to human mental health and welfare.

Based on the analysis with partial least square (PLS) approach, daily psychological needs satisfaction predicts daily well-being. This finding confirms the findings of Reis et al. (2000) and Sheldon et al. (1996). Individuals with higher relatedness and self-determination reported higher well-being and vitality when they experienced greater relatedness and autonomy.

Daily psychological needs satisfaction positively predicted participants' subjective well-being (life satisfaction and happiness). Vansteenkiste et al. (2006) found that the total satisfaction score of basic psychological needs positively related to well-being among Chinese students studying in Denmark. The basic psychological needs satisfaction also correlated positively with happiness and self-actualization in women who worked as models in England, positively associated with happiness, self-actualization, and life satisfaction in women who did not

work as models in the United Kingdom (Meyer et al., 2007). In contrast, psychological needs satisfaction when represented by total needs scores were negatively associated with depression in Chinese students studying abroad (Vansteenkiste et al., 2006) and anxiety, depression, and loss of confidence in women who worked as models in the United Kingdom (Meyer et al., 2007). Thus, the external relations associated with the total needs satisfaction score seem to support the definition of SDT satisfaction needs (i.e., a higher level of satisfaction needs are positively related to well-being and negatively related to the measurement of ill-being).

The hypothesis related to the prediction of mindfulness towards nonattachment cannot be rejected. Sahdra et al. (2010) reported that the Buddhist concept of nonattachment (Sanskrit: *viraga*) was positively related to mindfulness and psychological well-being. Sahdra et al. conceptualizing nonattachment as “lack of fixation, nonreactivity, faster recovery from emotional stress”. Nonattachment also has the quality of “not feeling the inner pressure to avoid or be attached to others”. With the high nature of mindfulness, nonattachment can increase. The aspect of mindfulness: observing, describing, and acting with awareness, is also related to nonattachment. Before an individual can cling to his unhealthy fixation, he must be aware of it, observe attachments without judging himself too hard, and refrain from reacting impulsively. Thus, mindfulness is conducive to increase individual nonattachment.

The last finding reveals the prediction of nonattachment toward daily psychological needs satisfaction. One of the basic psychological needs is relatedness. The practice of nonattachment brings effect to mental constructions by identifying whether their mental model induces security or induces insecurity. By cultivating nonattachment to our mental construction, then it provides unhealthy fixations on certain objects. From this process, our relatedness becomes a healthy relatedness because it involves the process of “letting go” of relatedness fixations. Individuals with higher nonattachment are then experiencing higher satisfaction in their basic psychological needs.

However, when the demographic aspect of gender was included in the multi-group analysis (MGA), there was no difference in predictions of daily psychological needs satisfaction toward daily well-being and nonattachment prediction toward daily psychological needs satisfaction. The only difference found in the study was on the path coefficients of trait mindfulness towards nonattachment.

Mindfulness interventions which can be in the form of formal meditation or through practice in everyday life, are believed to elevate nonattachment. Usually, meditators tend to show better quality on nonattachment than non-meditators (Sahdra et al., 2010). The status of meditators and nonmeditators in this study distinguishes the predictions of mindfulness toward nonattachment. It proves that the meditator quality and type of meditation have an impact on the moderating the predictions of mindfulness toward nonattachment. With the process of meditation, individual practices the “let it go” skills so that individual is no longer attached with objects in life and finally increasing happiness and well-being.

3. Conclusions

Study involving nonattachment is relatively rare and hardly found in Western and Eastern Psychology. This study confirms previous findings regarding the prediction of trait mindfulness toward nonattachment, psychological needs satisfaction prediction toward human’s subjective well-being (life satisfaction and happiness), as well as the nonattachment as mediator between trait mindfulness and well-being. The meditation experiences also increases the participants’ nonattachment through the practice of “let it go” mechanism.

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Importance of Sex Education from the Adolescents' Perspective: A Study in Indonesia

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Abstract

This study aims to explore the adolescents' perspective on sex education as a policy basis of determining whether or not sex education is of importance for adolescents. To date, the concept of sex education is still considered taboo in the community and therefore rarely gets concerned at both home and school. This particularly has an impact on finding less-accurate information among adolescents that leads them into free and risky sexual behaviors. The subjects in this study were 165 adolescents aged 12-19 years. The results of the study show that sex education is of utmost importance from the adolescents' perspective. The material contents of sex education according to respondents' perspective include (1) how to avoid sex and promiscuity; (2) the knowledge improvement on proper sex education; (3) the impacts of free-sex, including sexually transmitted diseases and teenage pregnancy; (4) self-protection (e.g. from free-sex and sexual harassments). This proves the necessity for both parents and teachers to provide adolescents with sex education.

Keywords: sex education, perspective, adolescent.

1. Introduction

A report from the World Health Organization (WHO) released on 13 December 2018, cites that more than 1.1 million adolescents aged 10-19 years died in 2016 or more than 3,000 of which per day. Most of the causes of their deaths were traffic injuries, HIV/AIDS, labor, and the practice of abortion (Wight, Plummer & Ross, 2012).

In developing countries, approximately around 16 million girls aged 15-19 years and 2.5 million girls under the age of 16 give birth each year. Generally, the complication during pregnancy and labor emerges as the main cause of their deaths. Annually, nearly 3.9 million girls aged 15-19 years undergo unsafe abortions that ultimately end their lives. An adolescent mother (aged 10-19 years) faces a higher risk of eclampsia, endometritis during puerperium, and of a systemic infection than those of aged 20 years and over. Such higher risk also impacts on adolescents' deaths (WHO, 2018).

The underlying factors of the high adolescents' pregnancy rate, according to Achema, Emmanuel and Moses (2015), incorporates a lack of parental care and guidance (46.7%), a lack of self-control (36.7%), and a lack of sex education (13.3%). It also corresponds to the argument of Papri et al. (2016) stating that the underlying factors of the high pregnancy rate among adolescents

include low socioeconomic status, low education level, the family disruption, and the substandard sexual health services and practices.

Several studies related to adolescent's sexual behaviors suggest that sex education becomes an alternative to reduce the high rate of sexual activities among adolescents. The rightful authority to provide sex education is both parents and teachers. Parents possess an emotional power to set particular rules during parental care. Therefore, it is their responsibility to provide their children with sex education as they grow up. Meanwhile, a teacher is a respectful model for adolescents and thus appropriate to provide sex education in the school environment. However, in reality many schools have not been ready yet to put sex education into the school curriculum. Many parents are also still reluctant to offer issues related to sex education to their children due to being considered taboo.

Byers et al. (2003) in their research point out that 93% of students agree that sex education must be offered in the school curriculum and 69% of which agree that both school and parents are responsible for this. Further, they convey that sex education should be offered in middle school and early. Meanwhile, according to Jimmy et al. (2013), nearly 35% of students assert that a teacher is the utmost important source of information pertaining to sexual health. This is due to the fact that most of them believe upon what has been taught by their teachers in the classroom. Apart from their parents, students mostly spend their time consulting about right information related to any issues of sexuality and of sexual health. At the same time, 33% of students believe that it is the parents who should take responsibility for sex education.

Indonesia is a part of Asian countries that remains to emphasize the eastern traditions in varied aspects, one of which is regarding sexual issues. These issues are still considered taboo for most of the Indonesian people; and therefore, it is highly unlikely for adults to talk about such issues with adolescents. By considering all of these, the purpose of this study is, therefore, to explore and access the adolescents' perspective in addressing sex education. This study is expected to be of benefit for consideration whether or not sex education should be offered to adolescents.

2. Methods

This study used a qualitative method by means of grounded theory scrutinizing the adolescents' perspective on sex education. Albeit there have been many studies concerning sex education, most of which are, in fact, grounded based on the adults' perspective. The subjects of this study consisted of 165 adolescents.

The collected data were then analyzed by using a coding technique, i.e. categorizing data segments and short names while summarizing and accumulating every data constituents (Charmaz, 2006). This code would show how data were selected, separated, and arranged in order to initiate the data analysis. Principally, coding is an initial phase to a concrete statement in the data interpretation. During the process of coding, three phases suggested by Strauss and Corbin (2007) were used, namely: *open coding*, *axial coding*, and *selective coding*.

Open coding is the process of detailing, examining, comparing, conceptualizing, and categorizing data. *Axial coding* is the further phase of *open coding* in which all data were recollected and connected among categories. Last, *selective coding* is the process of selecting the core categories, connecting them to other categories systematically, and validating the relationship between two. In analyzing the data, the MAXQDA software was used to code word-to-word, sentence-to-sentence, and ultimately paragraph-to-paragraph.

3. Findings

The total subjects filling up the questionnaires were 165 respondents. The demography of respondents' hometown covered Malang, Surabaya, Lamongan, Madiun, Subang, Cianjur, Bogor, Bandung, Indramayu, Balikpapan, and Masohi. Nevertheless, due to the small percentage of each city and mostly dominated by Malang city, it is deemed necessary not to mention the respondents' hometown in the table below.

Table 1. Demographic data of respondents

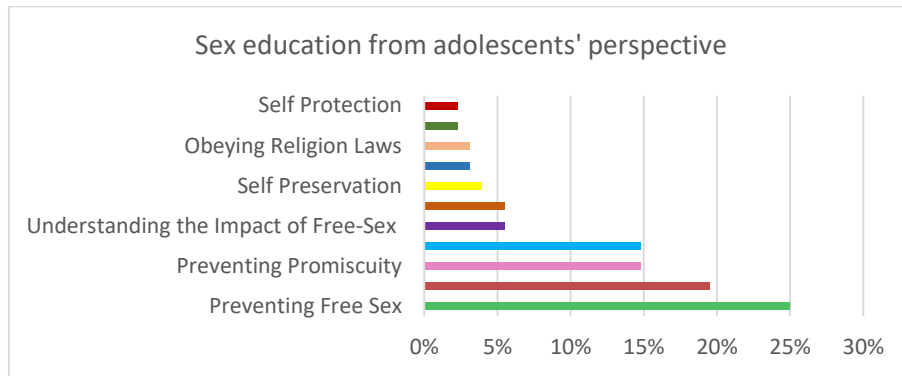
Demographic Data of Respondents		
	Total	Percentage
Gender		
Male	51	31%
Female	114	69%
Age		
12 - 15 years	33	20%
16 - 19 years	132	80%
Education		
Junior High School	4	2.40%
Senior High School	145	88.10%
University	16	9.50%
In relationship		
Ever	108	65.50%
Never	57	34.50%
Religion		
Islam	150	91%
Protestant	14	8.40%
Catholic	1	0.60%

From the table above, it can be inferred that the majority of respondents are female Muslim senior high school students aged over 15 years who have been in a relationship.

In order to dig up the adolescents' perspective on sex education, the questionnaires comprise two following questions: (1) how important, in your opinion, should sex education be offered to adolescents? and (2) please elaborate the previous questions. From the first question, there were 73.8% of respondents agreeing that sex education is of importance for adolescents. Meanwhile, there were 21.4% of respondents stating that it is rather important; and the rest 4.8% of respondents thought that sex education is not important for them.

Furthermore, the second question pertaining to respondents' rationale upon the importance of sex education indicates that there were 2,739 words included in *open coding*; afterwards, 128 words of which were selected as the coding. After the scrutiny of both *axial* and *selective coding*, there are numerous categories of sex education themes in the adolescents' perspective as presented in this following table:

Table 2. Sex education in the adolescents’ perspective



(1) Preventing free-sex

Preventing free-sex becomes the utmost emerging theme revealed by 25% of respondents. In this theme, the common words used are avoiding, preventing, not falling into, and anticipating. These words appear in several respondents’ statements, such as:

*“Sex education is important because it is useful in the future and **prevents** free-sex.” (Subject 8)*

“In order to prevent free-sex in adolescence, it is important to be aware of sex education.” (Subject 28)

From the statements above, it can be concluded that from the adolescents’ perspective, sex education is essentially important in order to prevent free-sex.

(2) Acquiring the proper information on sex education and expanding their knowledge

This theme emerges from the combination between 19.5% in acquiring the proper information on sex education and 14.8% in expanding their knowledge. This theme was intentionally combined into a single explanation due to the shared words used by respondents, which are education and knowledge. The endpoint of this theme relies on both propositions that adolescents should get the proper information on sex education in order to expand their knowledge. This can be inferred from these two following statements:

*“...since the **proper information on sex education** in this current era appears to be the most demanded information among adolescents since we know that the current adolescence life is rather free; and knowledge about religion and the risks of sexual behaviours are deemed low.” (Subject 84)*

*“...since in the adolescence, it is important to understand **sex education** for the sake of future **knowledge**. Such education can be implemented today or later in the future.” (Subject 116)*

(3) Preventing promiscuity

This theme emerges from 19.5% of respondents. The proposition used in this theme is quite clear that sex education should be offered in adolescence in order to prevent promiscuity. Since the exact word used is promiscuity, the use of other words (or synonyms) is deemed unnecessary. These following statements indicate how the adolescents’ perspective regarding this theme:

“...since we, as adolescents, who are undergoing the phase of developing our identity, it, therefore, seems reasonable to think that sex education is an essential

*way to prevent **promiscuity** which likely happens among current adolescents.”*
(Subject 39)

*“...since it expands knowledge of nowadays adolescents, who tend to be easily influenced by negative circumstances, such as **promiscuity** and sex.”* (Subject 141)

(4) Understanding the impact of free-sex (e.g. from sexually transmitted diseases and pregnancy)

This theme comprises two sub-themes: sexually transmitted diseases and pregnancy. Separately, the sub-theme of “understanding the impact of free-sex” emerges from 5.5% of respondents whereas other two sub-themes “preventing sexually transmitted diseases” and “preventing pregnancy” emerge from 5.5% and 2.3% respectively. Thus, it can be inferred that this theme reaches 13.3% of respondents. The theme under “understanding the impact of free-sex” uses the same exact phrase *the impact of free-sex* (i.e. can be classified into positive impact, negative impact, personal impact, and communal impact). Meanwhile, the two sub-themes use rigid words, such as sexually transmitted diseases, deadly diseases, unwed pregnancy, and teenage pregnancy.

*“...therefore, we are able to understand what sex is and its **positive and negative impacts** on us. The most important thing is that it helps to prevent free-sex, etc.”*
(Subject 126)

*“We will get a better understanding of the importance of sex education and thus become more cautious about others’ bad influence. At the very least, we can control and understand the **impact** of free-sex upon ourselves, others, and the community.”*
(Subject 37)

(5) Self-protection (avoiding sexual harassments or abuses)

The theme of self-protection comprises two sub-themes, which are self-preservation (3.9%) and self-protection (2.3%). Thus, if combined, it covers 6.2% of respondents. This theme emerges along with particular expressions such as health protection and future protection. Hence, it can be concluded that the adolescents’ perspective on sex education is more likely about how they can protect themselves, their health, their future, and prevent them from sexual harassments or abuses. It can be inferred from these following statements:

*“...because sex education must be taught early, let alone for adolescents who seem to neglect its importance. Especially when we talk about **self-protection** upon other bad people who are willing to harm ourselves in various ways, such as sexual harassments that increasingly happen lately due to lack of knowledge about sex education, of self-protection, and of civilization in the community.”* (Subject 162)

*“...in order to understand the danger of free-sex or premarital sex; in order to understand and **protect ourselves** from those who are willing to harass.”*
(Subject 164)

(6) Obeying religion laws

In this theme, respondents tend to perceive premarital sex is of religious prohibition. By having a better understanding of sex education, respondents believe that they have obeyed religion laws, specifically by not engaging in free-sex or premarital sex. This theme merely covers 3.1% of respondents.

“...in order to avoid such things, because in my religion it is strictly prohibited to engage in free-sex or premarital sex (zina).” (Subject 18)

“...because in Islam, it is prohibited to engage in free-sex or premarital sex (zina) as stated in Al-Qur’an.” (Subject 20)

4. Discussion

Research findings show that according to respondents, sex education is of importance, by which they are able to avoid/prevent free-sex, promiscuity, sexually transmitted diseases, teenage pregnancy, and to expand their knowledge, understand the proper information on sex education, obey religious laws, as well as self-protection.

Almost all rationales given by respondents relate to the advantages and content materials of sex education for adolescents. The table below illustrates the comparison between respondents’ perspective and sex education objectives according to *International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF, 2010)*:

Table 3. The comparison of sex education objectives

IPPF	Adolescents’ Perspective
Obtain accurate information about sexual and reproductive rights; provide information about untrue myths; provide references on sexual health services and resources.	Obtain accurate information pertaining to sex education; expand their knowledge; understand the impacts of free-sex; avoid/prevent sexually transmitted diseases and teenage pregnancy.
Develop life skills such as critical thinking, communication and negotiation skills, self-development skill, decision-making skill, self-awareness, self-confidence, assertiveness, and the ability to ask questions as well as seek help and empathy.	Avoid free-sex and promiscuity.
Maintain positive attitudes and values, including open-mindedness, respect upon oneself and others, develop positive self-esteem, conformity, avoid prejudice, be responsible, and demonstrate positive attitudes towards sexual health and reproduction.	Obey religious laws and self-protection.

From the table above, it can be seen that there are several equal considerations yet being elaborated differently. Referring to the findings, the utmost emerging theme is avoiding/preventing free-sex. This theme can be classified into a single category which shares equal description to the category of decision-making skills in IPPF. In an attempt to avoid/prevent free-sex, surely it cannot be separated from the decision-making skill. Other categories that are related to this include self-awareness and assertiveness. Adolescents will never be able to avoid/prevent free-sex if they do not have high self-awareness about their future and assertiveness to reject any bad influences from surroundings. Avoiding promiscuity also includes in this category. Therefore, it can be concluded that the category of avoiding promiscuity is also equal to the category of decision-making skill in IPPF.

The second category that can be formulated in this study (based on the total occurrences) is obtaining proper information on sex education. By understanding this, adolescents can surely protect themselves by knowing both positive and negative impacts of free-sex and promiscuity, and thus can avoid/prevent sexually transmitted diseases and teenage pregnancy. Referring to IPPF, such category shares equal characteristics to the category of obtaining accurate information about sexual and reproductive rights.

Furthermore, the next categories that have more or less the same occurrence include: obeying religious laws, and self-protection. These categories are equal to self-respect, positive self-esteem, and responsible as the sub-category of maintaining positive attitudes and values in IPPF.

From the overall comparison of IPPF, there are several categories that do not emerge in the adolescents' perspective pertaining to the impacts of sex education, namely: (1) references to sexual health services and resources; (2) developing life skills including critical thinking, communication and negotiation skills, self-development skills, self-confidence, ability to ask questions and seek help as well as empathy; (3) maintaining positive attitudes and values, including open-mindedness, respect upon oneself and others, develop positive self-esteem, conformity, avoid prejudice, be responsible, and demonstrate positive attitudes towards sexual health and reproduction.

Due to differences and similarities between the IPPF categories and the adolescents' perspective, it can be concluded that adolescents are actually aware of the importance of sex education. Even, most of them (73.8%) argue about its importance. However, their understanding of sex education material seems very limited; thus, it is highly recommended to arm them with sex education. The materials of sex education supposedly cover these following aspects: (1) how to avoid sex and promiscuity; (2) proper information about sex education; (3) the impacts of free-sex; (4) how to avoid sexually transmitted diseases and teenage pregnancy; (5) how to avoid sexual harassments; and (6) how to obey religious laws by avoiding free-sex. For the sake of perfection and suitability to the *International Planned Parenthood Federation* (IPPF), the materials of sex education can be extended to uncovered aspects that have been discussed in the previous elaboration.

Due to the importance of sex education in the adolescents' perspective, both parents and teachers should not need to feel taboo to provide sex education to adolescents at home and school. By possessing sufficient knowledge on sex education, it is expected that there will be no longer risky sexual behaviors among adolescents so that the negative impacts of free-sex can be prevented or at least minimized. Ergo, one of the main goals in *the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (SDGs) point 3 and 3B* about "ensuring a healthy life and improving people's welfare of all ages" can be achieved.

The limitation of this study covers any yet-developed models of sex education that are suitable for Indonesian cultures and norms, bearing in mind that principally Indonesia still has differences in terms of cultures and norms from European and American countries. Hence, it is recommended for further researchers to conduct in-depth studies on sex education models that are suitable for Indonesian cultures and norms.

5. Conclusions

This study presents the importance of sex education from the adolescents' perspective. The concept of sex education, according to adolescents, includes:

- (1) How to avoid/prevent free-sex and promiscuity;
- (2) How to expand knowledge and to obtain proper information about sex education;
- (3) Understand the impacts of free-sex, including sexually transmitted diseases and teenage pregnancy;
- (4) Self-protection (i.e. from sexual harassments or abuses);
- (5) Obeying religious laws in order to avoid/prevent free-sex.

Due to the importance of sex education from the adolescents' perspective, the policy of offering sex education for adolescents should be reconsidered – even should be changed paradigmatically. Parents and teachers are highly recommended to provide adolescents with sex education at home and at school.

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