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THE SOUTH-EAST REGIONAL
CONFERENCE OF PSYCHOLOGY:
“SOUTHEASTERN EUROPE
LOOKING AHEAD –
PARADIGMS, SCHOOLS, NEEDS
AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF
PSYCHOLOGY IN THE REGION”

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EDITOR'S NOTE

Dear Colleagues and Friends,

Dear SEERCP2009 Contributors and Readers of the **Bulgarian Journal of Psychology!**

Welcome to The Bulgarian Journal of Psychology's special issue on the South-East European Regional Conference of Psychology (SEERCP2009), Sofia, 30 October – 1 November 2009, "Southeastern Europe Looking Ahead: Paradigms, Schools, Needs and Achievements of Psychology in the Region", featuring in two volumes the conference papers presented at conference symposia.

The **Bulgarian Journal of Psychology** is the official scientific journal of the Bulgarian Psychological Society since 1973. The Bulgarian Psychological Society is the oldest (est. 1969) and largest national association of professional psychologists in Bulgaria. With the support of the International Association of Applied Psychology (IAAP), The International Union of Psychological Science (IUPsyS), The International Association of Cross-Cultural Psychology (IACCP), and The European Federation of Psychologists' Associations (EFPA), The Bulgarian Psychological Society organized SEERCP2009 in Sofia, Bulgaria. Details on the conference program, the complete list of contributors, and annotation of the SEERCP2009 scientific symposia, workshops, round-tables and thematic discussions are available through SEERCP2009 web-based archives: <http://RCP2009.wordpress.com>.

This second volume – **Bulgarian Journal of Psychology, 2010, 1-4, Conference Papers, Part Two**, includes more than 100 original papers presented by SEERCP2009 contributors in the following scientific SEERCP2009 symposia:

Applied Social Psychology focused on Mass Media, Crime and Civil Society Research including Minorities and Social Exclusion.

Psychology in the Economy, Public Policy and Government focused on integrating psychological dimensions into Modern Economic Models and Public Policy Making.

Organizational Psychology focused on Developing Human Capital and Organizational Effectiveness.

Disaster Management focused on Crisis Intervention Models and the need for Professional Network Development.

Psychological Assessment focused on Test Standards and Professional Training of Test Administrators.

Applied Psychology as a Profession focused on Teaching Psychology, Professional and Ethical Standards of Psychologists, the EuroPsy and National Certification of Psychologists, Capacity Development of Psychologists' Associations and Practices, and Psychology and Public Issues.

The first volume – **Bulgarian Journal of Psychology, 2009, 3-4, Conference Papers, Part One**, featured papers presented by SEERCP2009 contributors in the symposia 1,2 and 3, focused on Adolescents' Health Psychology and School, Educational and Developmental Psychology, Clinical and Counseling Psychology.

Based on feedback from SEERCP2009 participants the Regional Conference of Psychology achieved its goals and created new opportunities for further exchange and cooperation between psychologists across the region and worldwide. We cordially invite all our colleagues from the South-East Europe to submit their research papers and study reports to the Bulgarian Journal of Psychology.

Putting together this two-volume special issue of the Bulgarian Journal of Psychology took the work of many SEERCP2009 reporters, journal editors, and designers throughout the SEERCP2009 organizing committee. Many thanks to all colleagues who made this publication possible. Please send your feedback to journal@psychology-bg.org.

*Dr Plamen Dimitrov, Special SEERCP2009 Editor,
Chair of SEERCP2009 Organizing Committee*

THE SOUTH-EAST REGIONAL CONFERENCE OF PSYCHOLOGY: SOUTHEASTERN EUROPE LOOKING AHEAD – PARADIGMS, SCHOOLS, NEEDS AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF PSYCHOLOGY IN THE REGION SOFIA, BULGARIA, 2009

MIKE KNOWLES

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***Abstract.** The South-East European Regional Conference of Psychology was held in Sofia from 30 October –1 November 2007 under the Patronage of the President of Bulgaria and the auspices of the International Association of Applied Psychology, the International Union of Psychological Science, and the International Association of Cross-Cultural Psychology, and was supported by the European Federation of Psychologists' Association and the European Health Psychology Society. It was hosted by the Bulgarian Psychological Association whose President was Dr. Plamen Dimitrov with assistance from the Department of Psychology of Sofia University and the Institute of Psychology of the Bulgarian Academy of Sciences. The Chair of the Local Organising Committee was also Dr. Plamen Dimitrov and the Chair of the Scientific Program Committee was Professor Sava Djonev. The Conference succeeded in attracting participants from 32 countries including 12 from the South-East European region. The Scientific Program*

GENERAL IDEA

The South-East European Regional Conference of Psychology was held in Sofia from 30 October –1 November 2009 and was the eighth regional conference organized under the auspices of the International Association of Applied Psychology (IAAP), the International Union of Psychological Science (IUPsyS), and the International Association for Cross-Cultural Psychology (IACCP). Regional conferences are held every two years in between the large international congresses organized by IAAP and IUPsyS. They were introduced as a joint venture among IUPsyS, IAAP and IACCP to review the current state of psychology in a particular region and foster its development by increasing communication between sci-

entific researchers and professionals, disseminating psychological knowledge and expertise, and supporting the organization of psychology within the region. Previous regional conferences have been held in Guangzhou, China (1995); Mexico City, Mexico (1997); Durban, South Africa (1999); Mumbai, India (2001); Dubai, United Arab Emirates (2003); Bangkok, Thailand (2005); and Amman, Jordan (2007).

SPECIFIC IDEA

The present regional conference was held under the Patronage of the President of Bulgaria, and received financial support from IAAP, IUPsyS, IACCP, EFPA and EHPS. It was hosted by the Bulgarian Psychological Society whose President was Dr. Plamen Dimitrov with assistance from the Department of Psychology of Sofia University and the Institute of Psychology of the Bulgarian Academy of Sciences. The Chair of the Local Organising Committee was also Dr. Plamen Dimitrov and the Chair of the Scientific Program Committee was Professor Sava Djonev.

One of the distinguishing characteristics of the SEE region is that by and large psychologists tend to look towards Western Europe and thus SEERCP offers the Balkan and neighbouring countries two golden opportunities. One is to foster the growth of cooperation, collaboration and cohesion in the research and practice of psychology throughout the region. The other is to stimulate the development of the national societies and associations of psychology in SEE both individually and collectively.

The Conference succeeded in attracting over 350 participants of whom approximately half came from the regional countries including Croatia, Cyprus, Greece, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Serbia, Slovenia and Turkey, and from countries immediately outside the SEE region including Armenia, Moldova, Russia and the Ukraine. Likewise, the other half of the participants came from other Western European and neighbouring countries such as Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy and the United Kingdom as well as other countries stretching to the four corners of the world including Australia, Canada, Singapore, South Africa and the United States of America.

The Conference was held on the central campus of St. Kliment Ohridski Sofia University, Bulgaria's principal University, which is located in downtown Sofia. Sofia University was established in the immediate aftermath of Bulgaria gaining independence in 1879 and the building on what is now its central campus comprises three magnificent sandstone wings, all of neo-classical design. The University is located on one corner of a triangle comprising the inner precinct of Sofia and occupies this position together with other cultural and scientific institutions such galleries, libraries, and the Academy of Sciences. The other two corners of

the triangle represent the shopping and commercial centre of the city and the political and administrative nucleus of the nation.

THE SCIENTIFIC PROGRAM

The Scientific Program Group was coordinated by Prof. Sava Djonev and its structure and content was developed through consultation and collaboration and was based upon over 150 proposals and suggestions that were received by the Organizing Committee from national associations of psychology, other psychological institutions and individuals, all from throughout the SEE region.

On the first day of the Conference the Keynote Addresses were presented in four streams each of three session along the thematic orientations covering achievements and challenges of applied psychology in the SEE countries; status reports from national societies or associations of psychology in the region; and international visibility and mobility of SEE psychologists.

On the second and third days of the Conference symposia, individual papers and poster sessions were presented in ten parallel sessions along the following themes:

- ❖ **Adolescents' Health Psychology** focused on understanding Health Behavior, Lifestyles and Needs of young people in the SEE region.
- ❖ **School, Educational and Developmental Psychology** focused on Prevention of Bullying in Schools, and Youth and Family Problems.
- ❖ **Clinical and Counseling Psychology** focused on Positive Psychology in Psychotherapy and Mental Health Research and Practice.
- ❖ **Applied Social Psychology** focused on Mass Media, Crime and Civil Society Research including Minorities and Social Exclusion.
- ❖ **Psychology in the Economy, Public Policy and Government** focused on integrating psychological dimensions into Modern Economic Models and Public Policy Making.
- ❖ **Organizational Psychology** focused on Developing Human Capital and Organizational Effectiveness.
- ❖ **Disaster Management** focused on Crisis Intervention Models and the need for Professional Network Development.
- ❖ **Psychological Assessment** focused on Test Standards and Professional Training of Test Administrators.
- ❖ **Research in Juvenile Justice Services** focused on System Reform.
- ❖ **Applied Psychology as a Profession** focused on Teaching Psychology, Professional and Ethical Standards of Psychologists, the EuroPsy and National Certification of Psychologists, Capacity Development of Psychologists' Associations and Practices, and Psychology and Public Issues.

In addition, in order to further the capacity-building efforts of the Conference, some 20 Round Tables were organized, again on a thematic basis around topics such as:

- ♣ The Future of Regional Networking among Professionals and Institutions
- ♣ Building conditions for successful Joint Research Projects, Academic Links, Professional Training Programs, and Regional Exchange Initiatives
- ♣ Is there a need for an English-language Regional Journal of Psychology?
- ♣ Is there a shared development agenda for SEE Applied Psychology?
- ♣ Organizing regular and coordinated Regional Meetings and Conferences
- ♣ Implementing EuroPsy Certificate of Psychology in the Region – experience, readiness and concerns
- ♣ Building effective National Societies or Associations of Psychology
- ♣ Youth issues in Psychology.

The Conference also allowed for participants to work together in Open Forums and Future Search Discussions, Training and Demonstration Workshops, Information Exchange and Ad Hoc Meetings, and Book and Test Exhibitions.

A special feature of the Conference was the Young Psychologists' Group coordinated by Borislav Slavchov. Thus the Scientific Program provided for a specific stream of student symposia and workshops where students were able to present their studies and projects in especially designed 2-hour sessions using interactive methods, posters, powerpoint presentations, short videos, role-plays and simulations. A Youth Roundtable was also held to address the topic "How to do it in Southeast Europe – Studying and Career in Psychology?" and this provided time and space for an open discussion on the specific issues of students and young psychologists in the SEE region. Young psychologists were also able to attend a special 3-hour workshop on "EU grants – possibility for exchange and collaboration between psychologists in SEE".

SOCIAL PROGRAM

The Opening Ceremony was held in the main hall of the University, the Aula, a grand auditorium which was approached via a magnificent staircase that rose out of a spacious and spectacular marble-studded foyer. A letter of welcome from the Bulgarian President who was overseas on official duties was read out, and speakers, among others, included the Minister of Education, Youth and Science, Mr. Sergei Ignatov; the Chair of the Conference Organizing Committee, Plamen Dimitrov; the Chair of the Scientific Program Committee, Sava Djonev; the President of IAAP, Mike Knowles; and the President of IUPsyS, Rainer Silbereisen.

The Welcoming Ceremony was held in the Archaeological Museum which befitted the long history and rich culture of Bulgaria. It began with folk dancing by young children dressed in traditional national costumes and after a short official welcome by the IAAP President delegates mixed and mingled delightfully over servings of selected Bulgarian finger-foods and wines.

Other social events include a Folklore Dinner; sight-seeing tours of the city of Sofia highlighting its beautiful tree-lined boulevards, parks, and impressive public buildings; pre- and post-conference day tours to Bulgaria's second largest city of Plovdiv with its 19th Century-styled old town featuring winding cobbled streets and a Greek amphitheatre dating back to the 2nd Century AD; a restful holiday in sea-side towns on the Black Sea; or, for the more adventurous, hiking in the fir and pine forests at the foothills of the Bulgarian mountains.

The Closing Ceremony was again held in the Aula with concluding addresses by Plamen Dimitrov, Sava Djonev, Irina Zinovieva and Nikola Yordanov, and final congratulations for the wonderful and comprehensive success of the Conference were expressed in a vote of appreciation by Mike Knowles and a gift on behalf of IAAP presented by Ray Fowler.

In one sense the Closing Ceremony marked the end of a phase of activity but in another way it was the beginning of a new era in which planning has already started to organize a subsequent conference in three years time.

**PAPERS OF SYMPOSIUM 4:
APPLIED SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY**

FORGIVENESS IN CLOSE RELATIONSHIPS: THE PREDICTIVE POWER OF ATTACHMENT AND SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING

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Abstract. *Research on interpersonal forgiving in close relationships has grown rapidly in recent years. The main purpose of the present study is to clarify the predictive power of attachment and subjective well-being on forgiveness in close relationships. The sample consists of 256 undergraduate and graduate students gathering from public and private universities. In data collection process, Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory (Brennan et al., 1998; Taysi, 2007), Subjective Well-Being Scale (Tuzgöl-Dost, 2004) and Transgression-Related Interpersonal Motivations Inventory (McCullough et al., 1998) have been administered. The data has been analyzed with stepwise regression analysis. Results verified that especially attachment together with level of being hurt by romantic partner and subjective well-being play an important role in revenge dimension of forgiveness. Findings were discussed with regard to the current literature.*

Keywords: *Forgiveness, attachment, subjective well-being, close relationships, romantic relationships.*

INTRODUCTION

In close relationships, especially close romantic relationships; interpersonal conflicts, hurts and offenses occur inevitably. Forgiveness assumed to be adaptive for psychological adjustment following these inevitable interpersonal transgressions (Baumeister, Exline, & Sommer, 1998; Enright, Freedman, & Rique, 1998; Exline et al., 2003; Orth et al., 2008). In the psychological literature, several definitions of forgiveness have been proposed, but there is growing consensus that forgiveness

may be defined by prosocial motivational changes towards a transgressor, consisting in a decrease in interpersonal avoidance, a decrease in revenge motivation, and an increase in benevolence (McCullough & Hoyt; 2002; McCullough, Worthington, & Rachal, 1997; McCullough *et al.*, 1998).

Reviewing the literature, it can be seen that many studies were mainly carried out in order to clarify the forgiveness process in interpersonal relationships. Findings obtained from these studies indicate that the tendency to forgive others was related to reduction in anger, (Freedman & Enright, 1996; Thompson *et al.*, 2005), and ruminations on the transgression (Ysseldyk, Matheson, & Anisman, 2007). State and trait forgiveness are generally associated with better mental and physical health (Thoresen *et al.*, 2000; McCullough, 2000; Seybold *et al.*, 2001). According to the literature, another related variable to forgiveness is psychological well-being. There are many empirical findings supported relations between forgiveness and psychological well-being (Brown, 2003; Karuse & Ellison, 2003; Karremans, Van Lange, Ouwerkerk & Kluwer, 2003). As a related but separate construct to psychological well-being, subjective well-being that has three main components such as life satisfaction, positive affect and negative affect (Diener, 1984), was also found to be related with forgiveness (Macnulty, 2003), whereas some studies revealed that there is no relation between forgiveness and overall life satisfaction (Munos Sastre, Vinsonneau, Neto, Girard, & Mullet, 2003). Thus, in the present study, with another perspective, we hypothesized that subjective well-being has predictive effect on forgiveness. On the other hand, owing to the fact that forgiveness is intrapsychic but also interpersonal process, attachment theory can also help us to clarify forgiving construct, especially in romantic relationships. Davidson (2001) found that secure college students forgive others more than the insecure ones. At this point, insecure people might be able to cope with hurt feelings negatively when they take offense in their romantic relationships. Moreover, attachment term is also related to subjective well-being (Dean, 1997; Wilkinson & Walford, 2001; Leak & Cooney, 2001). Therefore, in the present study, it was also hypothesized that attachment dimensions (avoidance and anxiety) have effect on forgiveness.

METHODOLOGY

PARTICIPANTS

The sample consists of 256 undergraduate and graduate students attending to public and private universities in Istanbul. Participants' age ranged from 18 to 39 years ($M= 22.42$, $SD= 2.98$). 171 students were female (66.80 %), and 85 of them were male (33.20%). All of the participants have romantic relationships currently and/or have had romantic relationship/s experience in the past. Almost half of the participants (45.30 %) have more than one romantic relationship in their lifetime.

INSTRUMENTS

Participants completed a questionnaire booklet, including Personal Information Sheet, Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory (ECR), Transgression-Related Interpersonal Motivations Inventory (TRIM) and Subjective Well-Being Scale (SWS).

Personal Information Sheet consists of some questions related with existence of romantic relationship, and frequency of romantic relationship throughout lifetime. Besides, participants asked to give information about their gender, age, university to which they were attended.

Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory (ECR) was developed by Brennan *et al.* (1998) in order to measure two major dimensions of attachment such as anxiety (e.g., “I worry about being abandoned”) and avoidance (e.g., “Just when my partner starts to get close, I find myself pulling away”) in close relationships. Each dimension consists of 18 items that are rated on 7-point Likert format. This scale was adapted to Turkish culture by Sümer (2006). Alpha reliability for anxiety and avoidance subscale ranged from .85 to .90. *In the present study, internal consistencies ranged from .81 to .82.*

Transgression-Related Interpersonal Motivations Inventory (TRIM): Forgiving in close relationships was measured with TRIM Inventory developed by McCullough *et al.*, (1998). The TRIM consists of 12 items that are used to indicate the extent to which one experiences two negative motivational states that McCullough *et al.* (1997) hypothesized to underlie interpersonal forgiving. Items are rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). The revenge subscale consists of five items that assess respondents’ desire to seek revenge against someone who committed a specific transgression against to them (e.g., “I’ll make him or her pay”). The avoidance subscale consists of seven items that assess respondents’ desire to maintain relational distance from their transgressor (e.g., “I live as if he or she doesn’t exist, isn’t around). Internal consistency reliabilities (alpha) of original form for both subscales range from .85 to .93. This scale adapted to Turkish culture by Taysi (2007). Factor analyses revealed that in addition to these two factors, another factor called “break-up” was found for Turkish culture. Internal consistency reliabilities (alpha) of Turkish form for these three subscales range from .58 to .81. Cronbach alpha coefficients ranged from .85 to .89. in the current sample.

Besides, one-item scale, with the question of “How deeply hurt were you when the incident occurred?” was used for gathering information about participants’ level of being hurt by their romantic partner. Participants rated this item on a 5-point Likert type scale.

Subjective Well-Being Scale (SWS): Subjective well-being scale (Tuzgöldost, 2004) is a 46-item self report scale that intends to measure the degree of subjective well-being by assessing individuals’ cognitive appraisals of their lives and the frequency and intensity with which they experience negative and posi-

tive feelings. The items include evaluative statements about major domains of life, positive and negative emotionality. They were placed on a 5 point-Likert type scale (1 = disagree, 5 = fully agree). Higher scores indicate higher degree of subjective well-being. Cronbach-alpha coefficient of the scale was found to be .93. *In the present sample, internal consistency of the scale was found to be .93, too.*

RESULTS

TABLE 1. INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG STUDY VARIABLES (N=256)

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Gender	na	na							
2. Level of Being Hurt	2.94	1.26	.03						
3. Anxiety (attachment)	3.58	.91	-.08	.22**					
4. Avoidance (attachment)	3.20	.94	-.16*	-.05	.04				
5. SWB	3.87	.50	.003	-.10	-.29**	-.20**			
6. Avoidance	2.91	1.36	.09	.17**	.002	.25**	-.11		
7. Revenge	1.96	.98	-.05	.25**	.19**	.19**	-.27**	.49**	
8. Breaking up	2.82	1.29	.11	.22**	-.004	.23**	-.04	.81**	.58**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Note: na– not applicable, SWB– subjective well-being

According to participants' reports, the level of being hurt by their partner is at moderate level, relatively ($M=2.94$). They prefer mostly to avoid their partner or to break– up the relationship instead of taking revenge when they are hurt.

The results showed that there were significant correlations among study variables. Avoidance dimension of forgiveness was positively related to level of being hurt and avoidance dimension of attachment. In addition to this, revenge was positively related with level of being hurt, anxiety attachment and avoidance

attachment, but negatively correlated with subjective well-being. The correlation also showed that breaking up was related to level of being hurt and avoidance attachment positively (see Table 1).

TABLE 2. SUMMARY OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS PREDICTING SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING USING MEASURES OF ATTACHMENT (N=256)

Model	Variable	B	SE B	β
Step 1	Anxiety dimension of attachment	-.16	.03	-.29***
Step 2	Anxiety dimension of attachment	-.56	.03	-.29***
	Avoidance dimension of attachment	-.10	.03	-.19**

Note. R^2 =.09 for Step 1; R^2 =. 12 for Step 2

* p <.05; ** p <.01; *** p <.001

In order to determine the contribution of attachment dimensions to the prediction level of subjective well-being, a regression analysis was performed. Both anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment were negative predictors of subjective well-being. Anxiety dimension explained 9 % of the variance in subjective well-being, and anxiety along with avoidance predicted 12 % of the variance in subjective well-being (see Table 2).

TABLE 3. SUMMARY OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS PREDICTING AVOIDANCE DIMENSION OF FORGIVENESS (N=256)

Model	Variable	B	SE B	β
Step 1	Avoidance dimension of attachment	.36	.09	.25***
Step 2	Avoidance dimension of attachment	.37	.09	.26***
	Level of being hurt	.19	.06	.18**
Step 3	Avoidance dimension of attachment	.40	.09	.28***
	Level of being hurt	.19	.06	.17**
	Gender	.38	.17	.13*

Note. R^2 =.06 for Step 1; R^2 =. 09 for Step 2; R^2 = .11 for Step 3

* p <.05; ** p <.01; *** p <.001

The data was entered in a stepwise regression analysis where the dependent variable was avoidance dimension of forgiveness and the independent variables were the dimensions of attachment (avoidance and anxiety), subjective well-being, level of being hurt and gender. Level of being hurt, avoidance attachment and gender accounted for 11 % of the variance in avoidance dimension of forgiveness. Avoidance dimension of attachment was the best predictor of avoidance motivation ($\beta=.28$, $p<.001$). The other predictive variables on the avoidance dimension of forgiveness were respectively; level of being hurt ($\beta=.17$, $p<.01$), and gender ($\beta=.13$, $p<.05$). Anxiety dimension of forgiveness and subjective well-being did not add significantly to the model (see Table 3).

TABLE 4. SUMMARY OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS PREDICTING REVENGE DIMENSION OF FORGIVENESS (N=256)

Model	Variable	B	SE B	β
Step 1	Level of being hurt	.19	.05	.25***
Step 2	Level of being hurt	.20	.05	.26***
	Avoidance dimension of attachment	.21	.06	.20***
Step 3	Level of being hurt	.18	.05	.23***
	Avoidance dimension of attachment	.20	.06	.19***
	Anxiety dimension of attachment	.15	.07	.14*
Step 4	Level of being hurt	.17	.05	.22***
	Avoidance dimension of attachment	.16	.06	.16**
	Anxiety dimension of attachment	.09	.07	.09
	Subjective well-being	-.37	.12	-.19**

Note. $R^2=.06$ for Step 1; $R^2= .10$ for Step 2; $R^2= .12$ for Step 3; $R^2= .15$ for Step 4

* $p<.05$ ** $p<.01$ *** $p<.001$

A stepwise analysis conducted in order to determine the effects of attachment and subjective well-being together with gender and level of being hurt on revenge. As seen in step 4, all the independent variables as a block predicted revenge dimension of forgiveness significantly. These variables explained together 15 % of the variance in revenge dimension of forgiveness. Of all the variables, level of being hurt was the one that predicted revenge dimension of forgiveness in best way ($\beta=.22$). The other predictive variables on the revenge were subjective well-being ($\beta=-.19$), and avoidance dimension of attachment ($\beta=.16$), respectively. β coefficient of anxiety dimension of attachment was not found as significant. Only gender variable has no contribution to the model (see Table 4).

TABLE 5. SUMMARY OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS PREDICTING BREAKING-UP DIMENSION OF FORGIVENESS (N=256)

Model	Variable	B	SE B	β
Step 1	Level of being hurt	.22	.06	.22***
Step 2	Level of being hurt	.23	.06	.23***
	Avoidance dimension of attachment	.33	.08	.24***

Note. $R^2 = .05$ for Step 1; $R^2 = .10$ for Step 2

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

According to results, breaking up dimension of forgiveness was predicted by level of being hurt and avoidance dimension of attachment in a positive way. These variables explained together with 10% of variance in breaking up dimension of forgiveness. Other variables which were anxiety dimension of attachment, subjective well-being and gender did not contribute to the model (see Table 5).

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

As conclusion, in consistent with the literature, attachment dimensions (avoidance and anxiety) have a predictive power on subjective well-being in a negative way (see Table 2). Results of the regression analysis performed in order to determine the predictive effect of these two variables revealed that avoidance attachment predicts avoidance motivation when transgression occur in a romantic relationship. Subjective well-being has no predictive power on avoidance motivation. From the other point of view, when level of being hurt in a romantic relationship increases, avoidance motivation also increases. Gender also predicts avoidance motivation in favor of females (see Table 3).

The results of the current study also indicated that avoidance attachment has a predictive power on revenge dimension of forgiveness (see Table 4). As another saying, avoidant participants tend to take revenge when they are injured. In other words, avoidant people may take revenge from their partners by depriving of himself /herself. Subjective well-being also predicted revenge scores of participants in a negative way. Besides, level of being hurt predicted the tendency of revenge following interpersonal (romantic partner) offences positively.

Finally, participants who were more hurt than the others prefer to break-up the relationship. Avoidance attachment was the other significant predictor of breaking up. That is, avoidant people tend to break up their relationship when the transgression occurs in their romantic relationship. Moreover, no significant predictive power of subjective well-being was found on breaking up dimension of forgiveness (see Table 5).

According to the study results, as we mentioned before all dimensions of the forgiveness (avoidance, revenge, breaking up) were predicted by avoidance attachment. As predicted, this finding is parallel with the other research findings in current literature (Webster, 1997; Wilkinson & Walford, 2001; Leak & Cooney, 2001; Burnette *et al.*, 2007). Some authors emphasized that relational conflicts, such as interpersonal offenses activate the attachment system (Burnette *et al.*, 2007). When the relationship is under the threat, according to Fraley and Shaver (2000), the avoidance dimension should influence the strategies that individuals use to regulate their attachment needs. In the literature, it was also emphasized that individuals high in avoidance expect others to act in an uncaring and rejecting manner, and often respond to conflict with blame, aloofness, and withdrawal (Pietromonaco, Greenwood, & Barrett, 2004). In contrast with, only revenge motivation was predicted by subjective well-being. According to some authors, vengeful people reported having higher motivations to avoid and seek revenge against to their offenders. As well, people high in vengefulness tended to be less satisfied with their lives and higher in negative affectivity (Emmons, 1992; McCullough *et al.*, 2001). As we mentioned before, life satisfaction and negative affectivity are the major components of subjective well-being. Therefore, individuals with lower levels of subjective well-being may show more revenge-oriented reactions. In the present study, as avoidance motivation and breaking up are the passive reactions following transgressions in romantic relationship, the predictive effect of subjective well-being could not be observed. In further research designs, for clear understanding of the issue, focus group interviews should be carried out due to why people have avoidance and breaking up motivation in their romantic relationships.

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“AIM-DYING” AND ITS ROLE IN THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE COLLABORATIVE THINKING ACTIVITY

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Abstract. *The article focuses on the study of the aim-destruction and «aim-dying» processes in the man’s thinking activity. It is shown that the problem of aim development is traditional for psychology, and a lot of psychologists have worked on it. At the same time the question of aim disintegration and aim destruction has hardly been investigated. The author singles out «aim-dying» within the aim formation processes on the basis of the synergetic paradigm. «Aim-dying» is defined as dying out or disappearing of the previously formulated aims. According to author’s opinions «aim-dying» is considered to be a process shared among the people, real participants of the collaborative decision making process. The author uses an experimental approach whereby the participants try to solve the common thinking task. The results of the research make it possible to distinguish three types of «aim-dying», each causing different transformations of the thinking activity.*

Keywords: *collaborative thinking activity, psychological system, «aim-dying», sense, motive, estimation.*

INTRODUCTION

The problem of the development of aims and their changes is traditionally studied in psychology. In the works of M. Vertgeimer, K. Dunker, O. Tikhomirova, I. Vasileva, T. Kornilova etc. presented the researches that profoundly influenced the development of the notions concerning psychological mechanisms of the aim development and aim transformation. The correlation between the processes of the aim-building, the sense-building and cognitive necessities building (Telegina, 1992), common and particular aims building (Tikhomirov, 2002), the influence of the emotional process and the informal situation structure on the aim-building (Vasilev, 1999), the correlation between informal situa-

tion structure dynamics and aim transformation (Klochko, 1991) were studied. But the problem of the formation and development of the aims was studied on the example of the individual thinking. The problems of the development and transformation of the aims in the collaborative thinking activity are less studied. At the present moment there is a limited number of works dealing with the peculiarities of the aim transformation processes in collaborative thinking activity (Belousova, 2002; Jakupov, 1992 etc), among them there is practically the lack of works focused on the analysis of the questions of «drifting», «dying» of the aims. And if the different aspects of the problem of aim building were realized in the number of works, it would be hard to say the same regarding the problem of the aim-dying.

That is why the object of our research is the study of different forms of the aim-dying in collaborative thinking ability.

THE METHODS OF RESEARCH

While performing the experimental part of the research we used the experimental approach. For the solution of the experimental tasks we chose the method «Diode» (Klochko, 1977), that is based on the giving the subjects of the experiment the task with physical content.

The task includes the text part and the schemes. During the execution of the task the subjects of the experiment receive the additional information in the form of cards situated in the fixed order. Objectively, according to the method requirements only part of the cards can be used in decision making process. One part of the cards contains objectively required information for the solution of the task, the other part contains information of no considerable importance for the objective solution process. In the experiment participated 50 persons that formed 25 dyads. The subjects of the experiment were the students of the rural and city schools of the Rostov region and the students of the Southern Federal University.

RESULTS

The analysis of the executed researches let us single out the following forms of the aim-dying and transformations of the collaborative thinking activity.

The first form of the collaborative thinking activity transformation is connected with its transfer to the creative level. As a matter of fact, here can be seen the aim and motive building produced by the outcome of the common senses. This process is more obvious as its product is seen in a form of the developing aim and motive building and in the activity itself. At the same time, the aim-dying processes, and connected with them motive and aim dying as drifts of the previous aims and motives appear not clearly.

The second form of the collaborative thinking activity transformation is connected with its transfer in connection with the new revealed senses. Different variants are possible here because an unpredictable behavior of the second participant influences this transfer. The following variants were represented in our researches.

Variant A supposes that the second participant receives new transmitted senses that lead to the formation and development of the new aims and tasks within the limits of the actual activity favoring its development. The previous activity senses simply fade, being replaced by the new ones i.e. corresponding the partner, fit in the meaningful content of his psychological situation, structuring and transforming the hierarchy of the existing relations in the objective reality. The activity transformations within itself are connected with the change of the objective motive content (indeterminate knowledge), that leads to the dynamics of the aims, estimations and meanings of the objects without changing the thinking activity nature. The activity remains thinking but the structure undergoes certain transformations. Here can be observed the movement of participant's reality. Figuratively saying, it expands due to acquiring of meanings by the objects and developing on the vertical as building the hierarchy of these relations in reality.

Variant B supposes that the second participant does not accept the received senses regarding them as irrelevant. In our experiments were discovered specific manifestations of the given variant of the first participant behavior who revealed new senses:

1st case – one of the participants accepts the criticism and returns to the previous senses, and in this reality they act together with the partner revealing new possibilities. Thus the aim-dying of one of the partners transformed the activity with the help of the other participant and directed the activity to the aim realization with new and more appropriate to the activity objects. These objects receive the sense for the participants and enter their reality.

2nd case – the first participant does not agree with the negative estimations of the revealed sense and keeps on developing the psychological situation with the given sense. At the same time the second participant returns to the previous senses or discovers new, or keeps on proving the irrelevance of the sense revealed by the partner to the actual activity. As a result there is a possible divergence of the participants' realities that leads to dissociation of aims and motives.

Thus, in this case we observe the transformation of the collaborative thinking activity connected with its rearrangement. The possibility of the aim preservation exists until its sense is in the psychological situation at least of one of the participants. The aim fails to be common under the making the element senseless that withdrew the impulse for its realization for the one participant firstly. But the aim stays the same because of the sense preservation and cognition of the second participant and only due to sense transfer and making the previous sense senseless

the aim fades and transfers in a new one. However, the activity proceeds and self-organizes generating new aims, senses. The subjects of the experiment act in the psychological situation that is reality for them, by changing it, by discovering its new psychological qualities.

3rd case – the first participant does not agree with the negative estimations of the partner and proves him the necessity, the importance of the sense and its correspondence to the aim and activity. The partner agrees and accepts these senses, and then the participants take action in identifying common senses and motives.

The last case of the discovered thinking activity transformation is connected with the phenomenon in which after the discussion of the acquired senses, the subjects of the experiment come to the common aims and motives due to the fading of the previous senses and aim.

The alteration of the objects' sense leads to the termination of the participants' interaction with them, and as a matter of fact, leads to alteration of the psychological situation and therefore that reality sector in which they act at the moment. From the point of view of the plane of consciousness, the image of the world to be exactly, the sense as an unclaimed object quality did not fade but changed in a possibility by transferring from «the thing for the others» into «the thing for itself». This means that the given object can be actualized as soon as the activity would correspond the aims, possibilities and necessities of the participants.

Thus in this case we notice how the aim-dying entailed the phenomenon known as «cognitive frustration». Thereby, we observe that the aim-dying not only generates new formations and the transformation of the participants' activity aims and motives but the reorganization of the common reality part and collaborative activity.

Let us consider the third form of the thinking activity transformation, the mechanisms providing the escape from the thinking. This form is connected with the aim-dying that comes from making reality senseless and worthless. In this case the motives and aims of the activity fade under the influence of the making the participant's actions senseless and worthless that means the cognition disintegration. Making one's own actions for aim realization senseless and worthless cuts off the possibilities for acquiring new senses and values of objects and the transformation of the participants' psychological situations that leads to shifting of the previous cognitive aim and activity motive. Instead of them the participants generate new aim and motive that are not constructive and productive but seek the refusal from activity i.e. from decision.

Making actions senseless and worthless in contrast to making elements senseless and worthless influences different activity components: if in the first case on the motives and aims, it leads to activity destruction, in the second case on the conditions and tasks that leads to the actual activity transformation and self-organization. That is why different forms of activity transformation are observed: if in

the first case the motive destruction entails the actual activity transformation with the formation of destructive (regarding thinking activity) motive and aim that are focused on the refusal from the decision making process; in the second case the actual activity motive preserves and the activity continues developing as thinking along with aim dynamics denoting self-organization processes.

CONCLUSIONS

The analysis of the experiments let us summarize the received results. First of all, the senses as psychological characteristics fixing the fact of the correspondence between the person (his aims, necessities, and possibilities) and the object are the condition of getting the objects in the image of the world, in his psychological situation. The sense fading denoting the interaction limitation or disintegration and irrelevance of the object to the person, favors the change of his psychological situation, that sector of reality it creates. In the plane of consciousness, the image of the world this means the transfer of the elements, that had sense for the person before, in potentially active field, potential reality for the person.

In other words, the dying in conventional meaning does not happen, the sense of the object does not disappear but the object value for the person simply changes. And in this aspect the previous object sense is lost for the person transferring from active and actual, relevant to the person and activity identifying, into potential, the possibilities of actualization and development of which always has the person. Therefore, we can say that during the collaborative thinking activity the aim-dying takes place, which means the changes in collaborative thinking activity self-organization, its' possible disintegration and termination. Thus, the changes in the participants' reality, limiting their interaction with the objects that take place because of the objects' drift from the psychological situations, the senses of the objects have died and have taken away the aims and motives favoring the possible activity termination.

Summarizing the results of the investigation one can distinguish the following types of the aim-dying.

The first type of the aim-dying starts with aim-dying as making some objects senseless and worthless revealing psychological characteristics with others that leads to the aims and motives transformation, to the development of their objective content. The individual thinking activity as well as collaborative due to sense transference remains but its inner structure transforms through the change of the generated growth. The objects' senses transform entailing the change of the estimations, aims, motives (through the change of their objective content) reorganizing the psychological situations and preserving the activity nature that remains thinking. The participants continue the collaborative actions in the common reality establishing the hierarchy of the objective relations within it.

Thus, one can consider activity transformation as its reorganization, the change of the inner structure that does not affect the efficient motive of the thinking activity, and as its dynamic self-organization. In other words, collaborative thinking ability preserves, though there are certain changes and development of the growth within it. The preservation of the collaborative thinking ability takes place due to the motive preservation of at least one participant: the motive remaining in the psychological situation of at least one participant leaves possibilities for its inner development and transformations due to the sense transfer and motives to the second participant.

The second type of the aim-dying mediates the transfers from thinking to unthinking and is connected with the motive change. This type of the thinking activity transformation also starts with the change in psychological situations, with the aim-dying but in regard to the actions. One of the participants makes his own actions senseless and worthless, his negative estimations affecting the emotional component of the emotionally-attitudinal complex, shattering the attitudes connected with the actual activity motive and leading to its destruction. However, at the same time the aim-dying processes underlie the formation of the other motives and aims: destructive motives and aims (in regard to the thinking activity), that are transforming thinking activity into unthinking activity.

The third type of the aim-dying is connected with the transfer from the thinking to the creative activity. In this case forms motives in which the person develops and fulfills oneself, i.e. transfers to the creative activity.

In both cases the negative estimations of one participant transfers to the second one, but due to the sense motive preservation for the second one his individual thinking activity lasts for a little while, leaving the possibilities of returning to the collaborative thinking activity because of the transfer the sense motive of the thinking activity to the first participant. However, with the reinforcement degree of the destructive motive or creative activity value and the transfer of the negative estimations to the second participant during the communication, the motive of his individual thinking activity destroys transforming collaborative thinking activity or uncognitive activity that means the refusal of the participants from thinking, or creative activity.

At the same time the analysis of the experiment let us say that both participants serve as the sources of the possible changes and transformations of the collaborative thinking activity. Each of them generates the lines of aim-dying that may lead the system of the collaborative thinking activity either to disintegration or to inner reorganization. Each of the participants when taking part in aim-dying processes of the partner with the help of his positive (support) or negative estimations (criticism) develops or destroys his aim-dying, thus taking part in either development of the collaborative thinking activity or its transformations denoting its destruction, disintegration of the collaborative thinking activity system and the common part of the reality as well.

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INTERNAL VARIABLES CONCERNING IN-GROUP COMPETITIVE BEHAVIOR IN A COGNITIVE ACTIVITY

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Abstract. *This paper is an approach of interpersonal competition in a cognitive activity. 100 subjects participated to the experiment. In the first stage, they were systematically trained to work by interpersonal competition for a long period of time. So, the behaviors of competitive interactions determined the stabilization of the competitive attitudes and skills formed as a result of the systematic involvement and exercised of the activities by interpersonal competition. In the second stage, they worked to a cognitive activity by in-group and interpersonal competition. The research hypothesis has aimed at evincing the specificity of this type of behavior, by identifying the psychological internal variables which can influence the competitive behaviors of the subjects in cognitive activities. These internal latent variables are determinative factors which can adequately explain the manifest aspects of competitive behavior. It was used the exploratory factor analysis technique.*

Keywords: *interpersonal competition, cognitive activity, factor analysis.*

INTRODUCTION

The competition is a type of behavior and activity which is manifest when the same objective can be independently attain, not in common, by a single person or a group. Competition was defined as „opposition in individuals goals, where increasing the probability for one participant to attain his personal goal determine decreasing or canceling the probability for others participants to achieve their objectives” (Deutsch, 1973, 1978). Also, competition is a „type of human interaction between individuals or groups, often opposite cooperation, in which every competitor tends to maximalize the own acquisitions” (Dictionary of Psychology, Doron & Parot, 1999), a „type of reciprocal psy-

chosocial interaction consists of rivalry between two or more persons in attaining an indivisible goal” (Dictionary of Social Psychology, 1981). In competition two or more persons or groups are competing to achieve an indivisible goal. Competition is often motivated by the needs of competitors to win. Therefore, the competition can be understood as „a motivational form of self asserting where individuals are competing each others for achieving their superiority” (Ausubel & Robinson, 1981).

Competition has positive or negative effects and sometimes can change in conflict. The interpersonal competitive behavior is conditioned by the factors like: initial orientation and internal motivation of participants in activity, by their personal and social system of values and personality traits which can influence the ways of participants’ interaction and actions, by interpersonal communication in situation and the choice strategy of the partner, by nature of the goals and the type of positive or negative interdependence of means and goals (Raven, 1963, *apud* Chelcea, 1990, p. 43; Cosier & Dalton, 1988). Also, the social, cultural and educational factors can influence the competitive behavior because a social system based on competition especially encourages and promotes the choosing of a competitive strategy and reversely.

People have a specific behavioral pattern through they react to the social influences in different situations. The persons are characterized by an interpersonal interactive style which depends by the individual and in-group values induced by socialization and adapted it to the nature of activity and work (Kagan, 1984, *apud* Iluț, 2004, p. 175). The researchers identified two different relational styles: cooperative and competitive style (Forsyth, 2001). As central dimension of interpersonal competitive style the competitiveness is a personality trait, a personal construct, an individual over-situational characteristic which influences the attitudes and interpersonal behavior in different situations and activities (Cohen, 1982). A competitive person is characterized by the need of self achievement, the tendency of domination and a lower interest for optimal relationships. Also, there are five types of motivational orientation in situations of social interdependence: altruistic, individualistic, aggressive, cooperative and competitive orientation (Taylor, 1994). The last is characterized by the preoccupation to succeed better than the others competitors, through tendency to maximalize their own results and benefits than partners. The competitors are different from individualistic persons which are interested to obtain more for themselves indifferently if their partners lose or win. Unlike cooperation it demonstrated that competition has negative consequences and can influence:

- ♣ individual and group acquisitions and productivity,
- ♣ the efforts in achievements and the performances of participants in their tasks,
- ♣ the individuals motivation,

- ❖ the quality of interpersonal relationships,
- ❖ the attitudes of participants: competition determinates attitudes of unacceptance and rejection and the absence of reciprocal help,
- ❖ the interpersonal perception and communication,
- ❖ the self esteem of participants: competition determinates decreasing in the level of self estimation,
- ❖ the psychological health (Deutsch & Hornstein, 1973, 1978; D.W. Johnson & R.T. Johnson, 1978, 1989, 1991; D.W. Johnson, R.T. Johnson & E.J. Holubec, 1993).

HYPOTHESIS

This study focuses to demonstrate the existence of internal variables which can systematically influence the behaviors in situations of interpersonal competition. The identification of psychological nature of these latent variables can facilitates the understanding of the ways of interpersonal interactions of the subjects when they work in-group competitive activities. These internal factors can explain why some subjects work better in a competitive situation than in others (cooperative or individual situations). These factors in interaction with situational variables can influence the behaviors and the performances of the subjects in the interpersonal in-group competitive situations.

METHODOLOGY

SUBJECTS

The experiment has been conducted on 100 subjects. The subjects were students with ages between 19–30 years, a mean age of 20.9 years and a standard deviation of 3.65 years.

PROCEDURE

The *pre-experimental stage* was a preparation stage when the subjects have worked in competitive groups. We started from the theoretical premise that attitudes and skills for an effective competitive activity do not suddenly appear. Therefore, a basic element for an optimal functioning of a competitive group is teaching participants to required interpersonal competitive skills. First we focused on the acquisition and developing to subjects the interpersonal and group-work competitive skills. For 12 weeks, the subjects have been trained in group activities based on interpersonal competition. It was used a set of methods for developing to participants interpersonal and in-group competitive attitudes and skills. So, the behaviors of interpersonal competitive interactions determined the stabilization of the competitive attitudes and skills formed as a result of the systematic involvement

and exercised of the activities by interpersonal competition. All along this training stage the functioning of the groups involved in competitive situations were constantly monitored and offered to the participants the feed-back for their efficient achievement of the tasks.

In the *experimental stage*, subjects have been randomly divided in groups of three members. The competitive character of the group activity was induced both through subjects briefing and the reward system used in the assessment of their activity. Therefore, it was told to the subjects from every group that they must solve the task, but competing with their group partners and the highest reward can be obtain by only one member of each group. All others members of every group will be classified in descending order according to their results. So, we obtained the negative interdependence of purposes and rewards, which are the basic principle for the competitive situations. In order do not activate an inter-group competition we specified in briefing that groups do not compete one against each other. The task was composed by 40 cognitive problems with verbal, numerical and figurative items. The subjects must correctly resolve the task by competition with their group partners. The task performance (resolvent skills in competitive condition) was measured by the total score of correct resolved items. Was no limit of time in solving task.

In the *post-experimental stage*, has been applied to subjects the following instruments: Singelis Self-Construals Inventory, Work Values Inventory (adapted by Chelcea on *Super Work Values Inventory*), Cattell 16 P.F. Test, Eysenck Personality Inventory, Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, Internalism – Externalism Control Scale (adapted on *IE-CT Scale*, J.B. Rotter, S. Nowicki, B. Strickland). The whole set of applied instruments was selected starting by the premise of identification the latent propensities (tendencies) of personality together with the skills induced by the competitive activities.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

It was used Exploratory Factor Analysis technique (EFA). From the multitude of variables were selected and measured 36 variables which are considered representative for competitive behavior: Extraversion (Ex), Neuroticism (Ne), Independence (Ind), Interdependence (Int), (level of) Self esteem (Ss), Locus of control (Lc), work values (Al, Co, Rp, Ip, Pr, Si, Sp, Ae, Rc, Rs, Mv, Va, Cr), personality factors (A, B, C, E, F, G, H, I, L, M, N, O, Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4,) and competitive resolvent skills (Arc). So, such as input data it were taken into consideration variables which are related to the behavior of competition like personal values, traits of personality, motivational and affective variables, resolvent competitive skills. Some of these variables were prior investigated by other researches concerning psychological factors which conditioning or influence the competitive behavior.

These variables were distributed in two categories: in the first category were included motivational variables (Ind, Int, Al, Co, Rp, Ip, Pr, Si, Sp, Ae, Rc, Rs, Mv, Va, Cr) and in the second category were included cognitive, affective and behavioral variables (Ex, Ne, A, B, C, E, F, G, H, I, L, M, N, O, Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4, Ss, Lc, Arc). We shared the variables in two categories starting from the following basic principles: 1. in a correlation matrix it must be included, if it is possible, variables of the same type and level for a correct and accurate identification of the factors; 2. variables from the first category have lowest correlations or did not correlate with the second category of variables; 3. if all variables were included in a single correlation matrix, the communality of variables were lower than 0.50, what it means that variables are influenced by a unique factor more than common factors; 4. factors labeling and interpretation was easily by grouping variables. First, verified if factor analysis is adequate for the sample by Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin Method ($t = 0.654$) and Barlett Test of sphericity (Chi-square (105) = 561.98, $p < .001$). The results confirmed that factor analysis can be used.

The correlations between the first category of variables is presented in Table 1 and the communality of variables in Table 2. All variables' communality are higher than 0.50.

TABLE 1. CORRELATION MATRIX

	Al	Si	Rp	In	Pr	Co	Sp	Rs	Rc	Mv	Va	Cr	Ae	Ind	Int
Al	r 1.000	.021	-.131	-.198 *	-.114	-.049	-.061	.269 **	.171	-.171	.039	-.040	-.248 *	-.031	.097
p	.	.838	.192	.048	.257	.625	.545	.007	.090	.089	.697	.696	.013	.759	.335
Si	r .021	1.00	.217 *	.124	.287 **	.263 **	.298 **	-.049	.025	.316 **	.456 **	.483 **	.288 **	.058	-.021
p	.838	.	.030	.218	.004	.008	.003	.631	.804	.001	.000	.000	.004	.565	.835
Rp	r -.131	.217 *	1.00	-.103	.064	-.016	.188	.000	-.167	.105	.089	.135	.062	.079	.053
p	.192	.030	.	.308	.527	.876	.061	.997	.097	.296	.380	.180	.538	.437	.602
In	r -.198 *	.124	-.103	1.00	.528 **	.302 **	.198 *	-.095	.195	.411 **	.086	.176	.389 **	.117	-.169
p	.048	.218	.308	.	.000	.002	.048	.349	.052	.000	.393	.081	.000	.247	.093
Pr	r -.114	.287 **	.064	.528 **	1.00	.210 *	.318 **	.204 *	.293 **	.526 **	.165	.337 **	.515 **	.052	-.029
p	.257	.004	.527	.000	.	.036	.001	.042	.003	.000	.100	.001	.000	.610	.774
Co	r -.049	.263 **	-.016	.302 **	.210 *	1.00	.194	-.035	.075	-.287 **	.124	.388 **	.243 *	.044	-.114
p	.625	.008	.876	.002	.036	.	.053	.726	.459	.004	.217	.000	.015	.667	.260
Sp	r -.061	.298 **	.188	.198 *	.318 **	.194	1.00	.327 **	.141	.218 *	.253 *	.093	.162	.101	-.094
p	.545	.003	.061	.048	.001	.053	.	.001	.163	.029	.011	.358	.107	.316	.353
Rs	r .269 **	-.049	.000	-.095	.204 *	-.035	.327 **	1.00	.381 **	.089	.040	.078	.044	.090	.097
p	.007	.631	.997	.349	.042	.726	.001	.	.000	.378	.696	.440	.660	.374	.336
Rc	r .171	.025	-.167	.195	.293 **	.075	.141	.381 **	1.00	.255 *	.234 *	.278 **	.221 *	.182	.012
p	.090	.804	.097	.052	.003	.459	.163	.000	.	.011	.019	.005	.027	.071	.908
Mv	r -.171	.316 **	.105	.411 **	.526 **	.287 **	.218 *	.089	.255 *	1.00	.370 **	.366 **	.840 **	.151	-.076
p	.089	.001	.296	.000	.000	.004	.029	.378	.011	.	.000	.000	.000	.133	.453
Va	r .039	.456 **	.089	.086	.165	.124	.253 *	.040	.234 *	.370 **	1.00	.365 **	.323 **	.097	-.048
p	.697	.000	.380	.393	.100	.217	.011	.696	.019	.000	.	.000	.001	.338	.639
Cr	r -.040	.483 **	.135	.176	.337 **	.388 **	.093	.078	.278 **	.366 **	.365 **	1.00	.338 **	.034	-.082
p	.696	.000	.180	.081	.001	.000	.358	.440	.005	.000	.000	.	.001	.737	.418
Ae	r -.248 *	.288 **	.062	.389 **	.515 **	.243 *	.162	.044	.221 *	.840 **	.323 **	.338 **	1.00	.107	-.070
p	.013	.004	.538	.000	.000	.015	.107	.660	.027	.000	.001	.001	.	.288	.487
Ind	r -.031	.058	.079	.117	.052	.044	.101	.090	.182	.151	.097	.034	.107	1.00	-.039
p	.759	.565	.437	.247	.610	.667	.316	.374	.071	.133	.338	.737	.288	.	.702
Int	r .097	-.021	.053	-.169	-.029	-.114	-.094	.097	.012	-.076	-.048	-.082	-.070	-.039	1.00
p	.335	.835	.602	.093	.774	.260	.353	.336	.908	.453	.639	.418	.487	.702	.

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 -tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 -tailed).

TABLE 2. THE COMMUNALITY OF VARIABLES

Variables	Initial	Communality
Al	1.000	0.592
Si	1.000	0.701
Rp	1.000	0.684
Ip	1.000	0.658
Pr	1.000	0.691
Co	1.000	0.528
Sp	1.000	0.770
Rs	1.000	0.754
Rc	1.000	0.676
Mv	1.000	0.864
Va	1.000	0.595
Cr	1.000	0.624
Ae	1.000	0.870
Int	1.000	0.596
Ind	1.000	0.780

The extraction method was Principal Component Analysis based on Kaiser criterion. Number of factors is equal the number of eigenvalues more than 1. In all, were extracted six components which explain together 69.22 % from total variance (Table 3).

TABLE 3. TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.875	25.833	25.833	3.875	25.833	25.833	2.791	18.607	18.607
2	1.708	11.386	37.219	1.708	11.386	37.219	2.158	14.385	32.992
3	1.481	9.872	47.091	1.481	9.872	47.091	1.646	10.974	43.966
4	1.205	8.036	55.126	1.205	8.036	55.126	1.399	9.328	53.294
5	1.106	7.371	62.497	1.106	7.371	62.497	1.315	8.769	62.063
6	1.009	6.727	69.224	1.009	6.727	69.224	1.074	7.161	69.224

The scree plot of eigenvalues' intensity of factors based on Cattell's criterion is presented in Figure 1.

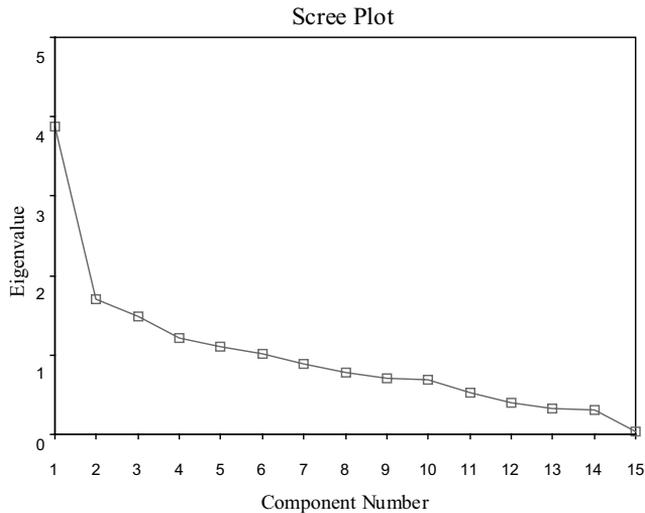


FIGURE 1. THE SCREE PLOT OF EIGENVALUES INTENSITY

TABLE 4. UNROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

	Eigenvector					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Al	-.175	.647	.102	-.360	3.629E-02	2.930E-02
Si	.561	-2.431E-02	.594	-.178	-2.829E-02	2.834E-02
Rp	.146	-.127	.590	.545	-2.098E-02	2.433E-02
Ip	.563	-.255	-.462	-4.468E-02	-.223	.104
Pr	.711	4.460E-02	-.247	.153	-1.053E-02	.315
Co	.470	-.150	4.919E-02	-.395	-.313	.169
Sp	.447	.250	.177	.373	-.535	.224
Rs	.169	.776	-.111	.265	-9.999E-02	.176
Rc	.404	.592	-.327	-.146	6.762E-02	-.171
Mv	.840	-.127	-.155	.124	.314	-6.798E-02
Va	.530	.159	.405	-.180	.124	-.278
Cr	.618	5.069E-02	.306	-.378	6.063E-02	1.376E-02
Ae	.802	-.196	-.194	.129	.364	-5.090E-02
Int	-.144	.255	.128	.217	.610	.273
Ind	.208	.147	-7.831E-02	.283	-.175	-.773

In order to simplify the structure factor matrix was applied an orthogonal rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 17 iterations. After rotation it decreased the number of variables which have a grown saturation in a certain factor (Table 5).

TABLE 5. ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

	Eigenvector					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Al	-.385	.159	-.627	-2.928E-02	-.119	-.104
Si	.101	.793	-.112	.208	5.104E-02	-5.295E-02
Rp	-2.984E-02	.266	-.489	.490	-.331	.150
Ip	.633	-5.093E-02	1.348E-02	7.130E-02	.498	-4.392E-02
Pr	.711	.119	.152	.338	.110	-.147
Co	.201	.388	2.840E-02	7.665E-02	.526	-.233
Sp	.138	.148	5.707E-02	.829	.190	4.845E-02
Rs	5.775E-02	-7.933E-02	.634	.541	-.216	5.298E-02
Rc	.299	.116	.723	3.052E-02	3.179E-02	.221
Mv	.850	.342	5.139E-03	1.367E-02	-4.253E-02	.150
Va	.137	.710	.116	2.191E-02	-4.280E-02	.237
Cr	.247	.718	.133	1.222E-03	.145	-9.400E-02
Ae	.874	.290	-4.469E-02	-4.657E-02	-6.149E-02	.121
Int	4.586E-02	-2.718E-02	.106	-2.584E-02	-.728	-.226
Ind	7.274E-02	3.188E-02	7.373E-02	7.524E-02	9.800E-02	.868

Based on factor loadings, the final factors were: *Hedonistic and self achievement orientation* (Factor 1), *Active orientation toward activity* (Factor 2), *Selfish (unaltruistic) relationships tendency* (Factor 3), *Safety need* (Factor 4), *Independence need* (Factor 5) and *Individualization need* (Factor 6). The 3rd factor is a tendency factor because it explained approximately 10% from the total variance. Factors 4, 5, 6 were eliminated because have an explicative power lower than 10% from the total variance.

For the second category of variables the correlation matrix is presented in Table 6. Were eliminated factor B (which has a lower correlation), Lc and L (which have lowest communality: 0.34, 0.40). After this, the variance increases by 62.51% to 67.81% and all variables communality are higher than 0.50 (Table 7).

First, it was verified if factor analysis is adequate for the sample by KMO method ($t=0.734$) and Barlett Test of sphericity (Chi-square (153) = 613.216, $p < .001$). The result confirmed that factor analysis can be used.

Method of factors extraction was Kaiser criterion. Were selected a number of factors equal with the number of eigenvalues with a value more than 1. In all, were extracted six factors which can explain together 67.81% from the total variance (Table 8).

The first factor has an eigenvalue of 4.39 and it can explain 24.43% from total variance. The last three factors have a lower eigenvalue. The unrotated matrix of initial eigenvalues is presented in Table 9.

TABLE 6. CORRELATION MATRIX

	A	B	C	E	F	G	H	I	L	M	N	O	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Ne	Ex	Ss	Lc	Arc	
A	r 1.0	-.11	-.02	-.07	.059	.216 *	.272 **	.094	-.02	-.11	.051	.024	-.08	-.11	.072	.171	.265 **	.084	.00	.058	.054	
p	.292	.843	.517	.559	.031	.006	.353	.854	.279	.616	.814	.447	.298	.478	.089	.008	.407	.971	.569	.592		
B	r	-.11	1.0	-.133	.135	.060	-.08	.012	-.23 *	-.09	-.02	-.05	-.20 *	.137	-.04	.001	-.18	-.09	.054	.090	-.07	.277 **
p	.292	.186	.181	.556	.433	.902	.023	.389	.830	.612	.048	.174	.718	.991	.079	.400	.597	.371	.488	.005		
C	r	-.02	.133	1.0	.275 **	.338 **	-.23 *	.426 **	-.14	-.01	.272 **	-.11	-.44 **	.311 **	-.31 **	.168	-.47 **	-.52 **	.335 **	.382 **	-.26 **	.063
p	.843	.186	.006	.001	.021	.000	.167	.944	.006	.297	.000	.002	.002	.095	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.010	.531	
E	r	-.07	.135	.275 **	1.0	.382 **	-.25 *	.395 **	-.01	.323 **	.047	-.17	-.10	.316 **	-.24 *	-.19	.082	-.05	.568 **	.284 **	-.21 *	.282 **
p	.517	.181	.006	.000	.014	.000	.908	.001	.643	.086	.320	.001	.018	.059	.419	.638	.000	.004	.032	.004		
F	r	.059	.060	.338 **	.382 **	1.0	-.31 **	.524 **	.082	.225 *	.057	-.35 **	-.05	.200 *	-.50 **	-.17	-.03	-.10	.667 **	.205 *	-.16	.234 *
p	.559	.556	.001	.000	.002	.000	.416	.024	.573	.000	.602	.046	.000	.085	.791	.299	.000	.041	.120	.019		
G	r	.216 *	-.08	-.23 *	-.25 *	-.31 **	1.0	-.05	.074	-.16	.022	.169	.005	-.24 *	.036	.449 **	-.01	.091	-.34 **	.039	-.01	-.09
p	.031	.433	.021	.014	.002	.647	.467	.119	.830	.094	.962	.015	.723	.000	.903	.369	.001	.699	.892	.385		
H	r	.272 **	.012	.426 **	.395 **	.524 **	-.05	1.0	.074	.188	.149	-.16	-.26 **	.193	-.50 **	.047	-.13	-.34 **	.667 **	.417 **	-.30 **	.062
p	.006	.902	.000	.000	.647	.462	.062	.140	.112	.009	.055	.000	.646	.195	.001	.000	.000	.002	.540			
I	r	.094	-.23 *	-.14	-.01	.082	.074	.074	1.0	.031	.199 *	.173	.061	-.06	-.04	-.10	.211 *	.098	-.04	-.14	.109	-.17
p	.353	.023	.167	.908	.416	.467	.462	.757	.047	.086	.546	.561	.727	.299	.035	.333	.682	.170	.278	.087		
L	r	-.02	-.09	-.01	.323 **	.225 *	-.16	.188	.031	1.0	-.16	-.08	.155	.143	-.11	-.15	.199 *	.102	.307 **	-.04	.052	.035
p	.854	.389	.944	.001	.024	.119	.062	.757	.108	.429	.124	.157	.298	.133	.048	.313	.002	.717	.609	.728		
M	r	-.11	-.02	.272 **	.047	.057	.022	.149	.199 *	-.16	1.0	-.11	-.30 **	.026	-.09	.068	-.33 **	-.36 **	.034	.041	-.20 *	.094
p	.279	.830	.006	.643	.573	.830	.140	.047	.108	.273	.003	.797	.360	.500	.001	.000	.738	.687	.049	.351		
N	r	.051	-.05	-.11	-.17	-.35 **	.169	-.16	.173	-.08	-.11	1.0	.003	-.14	.166	.047	.002	.088	-.27 **	-.04	.169	-.07
p	.616	.612	.297	.086	.000	.094	.112	.086	.429	.273	.979	.175	.100	.639	.983	.385	.006	.701	.093	.509		
O	r	.024	-.20 *	-.44 **	-.10	-.05	.005	-.26 **	.061	.155	-.30 **	.003	1.0	-.26 *	.159	-.14	.515 **	.479 **	-.09	-.40 **	.173	-.01
p	.814	.048	.000	.320	.602	.962	.009	.546	.124	.003	.979	.010	.113	.176	.000	.000	.371	.000	.086	.901		
Q1	r	-.08	.137	.311 **	.316 **	.200 *	-.24 *	.193	-.06	.143	.026	-.14	-.26 *	1.0	-.07	.019	-.23 *	-.17	.215 *	.222 *	-.20 *	-.06
p	.447	.174	.002	.001	.046	.015	.055	.561	.157	.797	.175	.010	.469	.853	.022	.087	.032	.027	.044	.556		
Q2	r	-.11	-.04	-.31 **	-.24 *	-.50 **	.036	-.50 **	-.04	-.11	-.09	.166	.159	-.07	1.0	-.09	.111	.319 **	-.52 **	-.27 **	.229 *	-.14
p	.298	.718	.002	.018	.000	.723	.000	.727	.298	.360	.100	.113	.469	.372	.000	.372	.001	.000	.006	.022	.171	
Q3	r	.072	.001	.168	-.19	-.17	.449 **	.047	-.10	-.15	.068	.047	-.14	.019	-.09	1.0	-.27 **	-.23 *	-.23 *	.184	-.07	-.10
p	.478	.991	.095	.059	.085	.000	.646	.299	.133	.500	.639	.176	.853	.372	.111	.006	.021	.021	.067	.518	.343	
Q4	r	.171	-.18	-.47 **	.082	-.03	-.01	-.13	.211 *	.199 *	-.33 **	.002	-.515 **	-.23 *	.111	-.27 **	1.0	.612 **	.046	-.32 **	.251 *	-.12
p	.089	.079	.000	.419	.791	.903	.195	.035	.048	.001	.983	.000	.022	.272	.006	.000	.651	.001	.012	.239		
Ne	r	.265 **	-.09	-.52 **	-.05	-.10	.091	-.34 **	.098	.102	-.36 **	.088	.479 **	-.17	.319 **	-.23 *	.612 **	1.0	-.18	-.42 **	.302 **	-.09
p	.008	.400	.000	.638	.299	.369	.001	.333	.313	.000	.385	.000	.087	.001	.021	.000	.000	.076	.000	.002	.384	
Ex	r	.084	.054	.335 **	.568 **	.667 **	-.34 **	.667 **	-.04	.307 **	.034	-.27 **	-.09	.215 *	-.52 **	-.23 *	.046	-.18	1.0	.333 **	-.13	.289 **
p	.407	.597	.001	.000	.000	.001	.000	.682	.002	.738	.006	.371	.032	.000	.021	.651	.076	.001	.183	.004		
Ss	r	.00	.090	.382 **	.284 **	.205 *	.039	.417 **	-.14	-.04	.041	-.04	-.40 **	.222 *	-.27 **	.184	-.32 **	-.42 **	.333 **	1.0	-.23 *	.015
p	.971	.371	.000	.004	.041	.699	.100	.170	.717	.687	.701	.000	.027	.006	.067	.001	.000	.001	.000	.001	.020	.878
Lc	r	.058	-.07	-.26 **	-.21 *	-.16	-.01	-.30 **	.109	.052	-.20 *	.169	.173	-.20 *	.229 **	-.07	.251 *	.302 **	-.13	-.23 *	1.0	-.10
p	.569	.488	.010	.032	.120	.892	.002	.278	.609	.049	.093	.086	.044	.022	.518	.012	.002	.183	.020	.000	.342	
Arc	r	.054	.277 **	.063	.282 **	-.234 *	-.09	.062	-.17	.035	.094	-.07	-.01	-.06	-.14	-.10	-.12	-.09	.289 **	.015	-.10	1.0
p	.592	.005	.531	.004	.019	.385	.540	.087	.728	.351	.509	.901	.556	.171	.343	.239	.384	.004	.878	.342		

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 -tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 -tailed).

Scree Plot

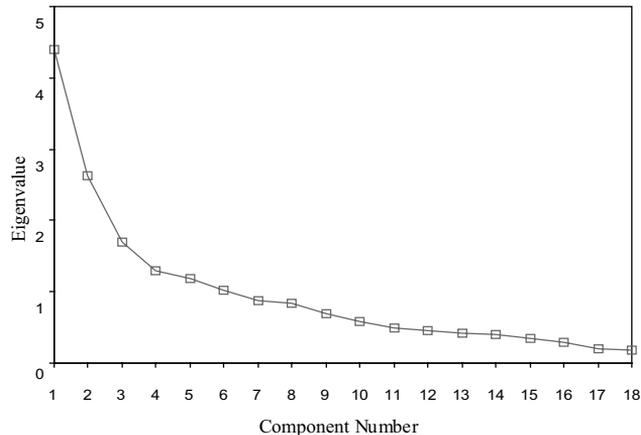


FIGURE 2. THE SCREE PLOT OF EIGENVALUES INTENSITY

TABLE 7. VARIABLES COMMUNALITY

Variables	Initial	Communality
A	1.000	0.536
C	1.000	0.603
E	1.000	0.580
F	1.000	0.704
G	1.000	0.673
H	1.000	0.762
I	1.000	0.807
M	1.000	0.706
N	1.000	0.757
O	1.000	0.588
Q1	1.000	0.575
Q2	1.000	0.579
Q3	1.000	0.657
Q4	1.000	0.726
Ne	1.000	0.712
Ex	1.000	0.818
Ss	1.000	0.585
Arc	1.000	0.839

TABLE 8. TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.398	24.435	24.435	4.398	24.435	24.435	3.425	19.028	19.028
2	2.630	14.613	39.048	2.630	14.613	39.048	3.251	18.062	37.090
3	1.688	9.378	48.426	1.688	9.378	48.426	1.897	10.538	47.628
4	1.288	7.158	55.584	1.288	7.158	55.584	1.306	7.255	54.883
5	1.185	6.585	62.169	1.185	6.585	62.169	1.174	6.520	61.404
6	1.017	5.650	67.819	1.017	5.650	67.819	1.155	6.415	67.819

TABLE 9. UNROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

Variables	Eigenvector					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
A	-2.408E-02	.192	.679	-.114	4.431E-02	.151
C	.720	-.263	-7.570E-02	8.044E-03	9.259E-02	1.603E-02
E	.543	.425	-.112	-6.116E-02	.120	.273
F	.645	.485	7.159E-02	7.850E-02	-9.278E-02	-.182
G	-.293	-.380	.644	-.112	-.123	-2.062E-02
H	.733	.176	.423	6.100E-02	.107	-1.079E-02
I	-.108	.148	.302	.804	.183	4.557E-02
M	.306	-.328	-5.594E-02	.614	-.350	-5.286E-02
N	-.314	-.235	.180	.136	.232	.706
O	-.513	.506	3.612E-02	-.101	-.137	-.196
Q1	.428	-3.225E-02	-.282	-8.121E-02	.550	-4.451E-02
Q2	-.605	-.154	-.361	-2.708E-02	.162	.178
Q3	4.053E-02	-.585	.423	-.270	-2.693E-02	-.245
Q4	-.452	.681	.183	2.822E-02	.139	-6.381E-02
Ne	-.616	.535	.126	-.104	.133	4.712E-02
Ex	.726	.528	8.208E-02	-4.767E-02	-3.079E-02	4.749E-02
Ss	.593	-.237	.167	-.252	.253	.146
Arc	.258	.199	-9.209E-02	-.197	-.682	.470

Was applied Varimax orthogonal rotation with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 12 iterations. After rotation it decreased the number of variables which have a grown saturation in a certain factor (Table 10).

The variables Ex (0.84), H (0.82), F (0.74), Q2 (-0.67) refer to the ways of social relationships and are loading by Factor 1. This factor was label *relationship propensity*. Q4 (0.83), Ne (0.81), O (0.72), C (-0.66), Ss (-0.50) are affective variables which are loading by Factor 2. Because competition generates a negative socio-emotional climate we labeled this factor *negative emotional mood*. G (0.79), Q3 (0.70), A (0.45), E (-0.44) are affective and self reported variables which are loading by Factor 3. Because in competitive activities the competitors need strongly to self-assertion in confrontation each others we labeled this factor *tendency of self monitoring and perseverance*. Factor 4 explains approximately 10% from the total variance. Factors 4, 5 and 6 were eliminated because explain lower than 10% of the total variance.

TABLE 10. ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

Variables	Eigenvalues					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
A	.382	.293	.456	-2.185E-03	2.617E-02	.310
C	.378	-.660	-.106	-5.385E-02	-8.611E-02	-4.458E-02
E	.573	-6.708E-02	-.444	-.146	7.812E-02	.150
F	.746	-1.475E-02	-.235	7.924E-02	5.761E-02	-.288
G	-.126	4.216E-02	.791	4.813E-02	3.628E-02	.162
H	.824	-.237	9.765E-02	8.434E-02	-9.112E-02	4.016E-02
I	.108	.186	-9.970E-03	.807	-.224	.244
M	1.202E-03	-.490	-1.771E-02	.629	.201	-.176
N	-.267	-1.776E-02	8.567E-02	.102	4.455E-02	.816
O	-.119	.727	-4.014E-03	-3.715E-02	8.887E-02	-.189
Q1	.212	-.328	-.367	-.231	-.482	4.286E-02
Q2	-.678	.174	-.173	-9.811E-02	-7.738E-02	.210
Q3	-6.428E-02	-.329	.702	-.160	-.135	-9.256E-02
Q4	8.821E-02	.834	-7.609E-02	6.012E-02	-9.862E-02	5.989E-02
Ne	-.129	.813	-2.370E-02	-7.509E-02	-4.865E-02	.162
Ex	.839	-4.463E-02	-.294	-6.948E-02	.120	-8.286E-02
Ss	.420	-.503	.102	-.287	-.158	.193
Arc	.217	-8.159E-02	-.148	-.150	.859	5.933E-02

CONCLUSIONS

By EFA were identified six relevant factors with a explicative power more than 10% from the total variance: *Hedonistic and self achievement orientation, Active orientation toward activity, Unaltruistic/Selfish relationships tendency, Relationship propensity, Negative emotional mood and Self monitoring tendency and perseverance*. These factors can be explained related to the characteristics of competition which has a stimulating role for participants which are competing one each others for the purpose of win and obtaining personal rewards and successes. So, the competitive activities determine an increasing implication to the participants, hedonistic orientation, self achievement need and active orientation toward their activity for obtaining high level of performances.

Competition is a type of social interpersonal behavior which is determinate by a need of relationship. In competition the participants tend not to be altruist, selfless because the final objective and reward don't be attained only if the others fail. Competition "compels" the participants to be active and perseverance if they need to win the competition in confrontation each others. Therefore, the competitors need strongly to self-assertion their ego and personality, ignore the common

rules of the group and the others interests and purposes in attempt and endeavor to win the competition. The competition is stimulating the needs of independence, the individualistic tendencies, the self achievement orientation and the absence of preoccupation for helping others in achieving their interests and purposes. A strong competition generates a negative socio-emotional climate generally.

This study can be the first step in an exploratory analysis which can be continued by including in another factor analysis approach other personality traits or variables which can influence the competitive behaviors and activities. Then, the last step of the approach is a confirmatory factor analysis.

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KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS TRAFFICKING IN PEOPLE: CROSS-CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

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Abstract. *According to large body of research mass media presentations exerted a significant influence on peoples' emotions, attitudes and behavior. The aim of this study is to explore the cross-cultural differences on the level of knowledge and attitudes towards the problem of trafficking in people. The study surveyed a total of 170 students from Bulgaria and USA. The results showed that Bulgarians were generally more informed (according to their subjective claims). The increased level of the information among the Bulgarians leads to their increased recognition of the negative and positive aspects of the phenomenon. While the greater information level among the Americans is connected to their understanding of the large number of trafficked people. The higher level of information the more eager students are to combat trafficking, an attitude valid for both groups but more pronounced among the Americans.*

Keywords: *mass media, trafficking in people, cross-cultural differences, attitudes etc.*

INTRODUCTION

According to recent research studies, the media environment significantly influences individual's emotions, attitudes, and behavior. Our research from the past several years proves that media contributes to negative emotional conditions, establishes opinions on given social issues, shapes young people's perception of reality, etc (Bozhinova, Tair, 2005, 2008, 2009). Considering the transnational distribution of media products, the problem of the cultural differences of their perception becomes extremely pertinent. The specificity of the formation of major social attitudes (ecological, for human rights, against violence, for women's and children's rights, about trafficking in people, etc.) acquires scientific and applied value.

Although trafficking is not a new problem, its re-emergence in the last decade of the twentieth century was felt to be as dramatic, unexpected, and abrupt as the end of the Cold War. According to UN data, every year between 2 and 4 million people around the world become victims of trafficking, mainly supplying cheap labor and sexual services. The International Labor Organization reports that 1.2 million people are trafficked nationally or internationally throughout the world. Forty-three percent are trafficked for prostitution and thirty-four for forced labor. The statistics about trafficked people in Europe is unreliable but the European Commission believes that hundreds of thousands are trafficked, mainly women and girls who are forced to prostitute (EC, 2009).

The U.S. government estimates that 60% of victims of trafficking are women and 20% of them are trafficked for sexual exploitation. The annual profit of trafficking in people grosses 7 billion US dollars. Only drug trafficking and arms-trade generate larger profit. According to the U.S. government's annual report, Bulgaria belongs to a group of 25 countries, which are a source (donor) and a transit territory of illegal trafficking in people. The report also defines Bulgaria as a Tier 2 country, whose government does not fully comply with the minimum standards of eliminating trafficking but is making significant efforts to meet these standards.

According to date of the National Service for Combating Organized Crime at the Ministry of Interior, Bulgaria holds a third place in Europe of the number of its citizens trafficked abroad. The presentation of the department stressed that Bulgaria is a donor and transit country. Over ten thousand Bulgarians annually are trafficked abroad (Ekov, 2009). Trafficking in people is becoming a more visible problem in the U.S. as well. More and more American neighborhoods, especially in bigger cities, witness trafficking cases. U.S. media (documentary and feature films) increasingly call attention to the problem of trafficking. The new U.S. government administration also intensifies its prevention efforts.

From the brief statistics mentioned above, it becomes clear that trafficking is a serious global problem and no country is exempt from it. There are various definitions of trafficking. *The Palermo Protocol* defines "trafficking in persons" as:

The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.

(United Nations, Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, art. 3a.)

Trafficking in people is criminalized in the Bulgarian Penal Code.

Numerous NGOs and other government organizations both in Bulgaria (Animus Association; Centre Nadja; Bulgarian National Anti-Trafficking Comission; IOM; etc.) and the U.S. (i.e. Rescue and Restore) have developed comprehensive plans to prevent and combat trafficking. With media (videos) and other printed materials, especially created for school and university students, they run ample prevention programs, which are extremely important for dealing with the problem.

Various media venues are the main source of information about trafficking in people. The information dispersed through media shapes the main individual and social attitudes towards trafficking, negative or positive and their emotional and behavior potential. In this context, the so called information behavior is extremely important (information behavior, Wilson, 2000). The information behavior is characterized as the individual's comprehensive behavior in relation to the sources and channels of information: on the one hand, active and passive search and, on the other, use of information. It includes communication "face to face," and also passive reception (for example, watching TV commercials without any particular desire for action regarding the information received. This study assumes passive reception of information (and not deliberate search) from various media sources (TV, radio, print media, etc).

This paper examines the cross-cultural differences on the level of knowledge and attitudes towards the problem of trafficking in people.

Objectives

- ♣ To examine the attitudes of young people in the U.S. and in Bulgaria towards trafficking in people, particularly the overall assessment of the phenomenon and its reasons, the emotional reaction and behavioral readiness to act in order to prevent and combat the problem.
- ♣ To study the level information (knowledge) the two groups of young people have about trafficking in people.
- ♣ To explore the correlation between the level of information and the attitudes the two groups show.

We expect that there are cross-cultural differences in the attitudes of people towards major contemporary social problems, and in particular towards trafficking in people. These differences are reflected in the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components of the attitudes. We also presume that these differences are connected to the level of information the young people have in each country.

METHOD

The study surveyed a total of 170 students, 104 Bulgarian (from Sofia and Plovdiv Universities) and 66 American (from Ohio State University). The sample is gender balanced (49.4% males and 50.6% females). In the American sample, the males are

66% and the females 34%. In the Bulgarian sample, the females are 61.5% and the males are 38.5%. The age ranges between 18–46, as the average age is 21 ($M=21.3$). The level of information about and attitudes towards trafficking in people was analyzed through a survey designed for this particular study. The survey consists of seventeen items regarding the subject matter and demographic data. The students were surveyed at the beginning of the class sessions.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Most important for this study is the investigation of the attitudes towards the problem of trafficking in people of the two groups. The attitudes are examined in the context of the overall assessment and reasons, emotional and behavioral readiness to act in order to prevent trafficking.

The results, revealing *the assessment and the understanding for the underlying reasons*, display important tendencies. According to our data analysis, the two groups (American and Bulgarian) share the opinion that trafficking is “inevitable” in today’s global world. At the same time, most of the students view trafficking as danger to everyone, as this fear is most pronounced among the Bulgarians ($t=5.34$; $p=.000$). The relatively similar assessment of trafficking as inevitable and a serious danger reveals the social significance of the problem to all individuals surveyed despite their nationalities. The difference in the perception of trafficking as danger (higher in the Bulgarian case) can be explained with the knowledge of the higher participation of Bulgaria in trafficking and the higher risks that Bulgarians face.

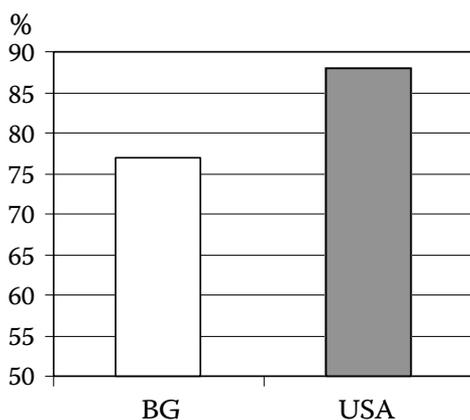


FIGURE 1A. TRAFFICKING HAS POSITIVE IMPLICATION

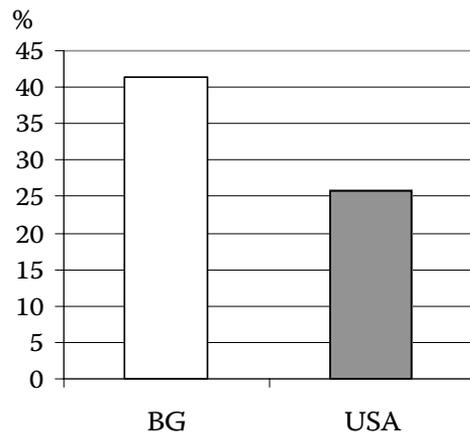


FIGURE 1B. TRAFFICKING AS AN OPPORTUNITY TO ESCAPE FROM POVERTY IN OWN COUNTRY

In contrast, the data also shows a common perception that trafficking has positive implication. This opinion is more expressed by the American students ($t=2.30$; $p=.02$). The difference is well illustrated through the frequency analysis (Figure 1a). It is also interesting to note that the two groups consider trafficking as an economic opportunity for some to escape poverty. Considerably more Bulgarians express this view (Figure 1b). This divergence most probably results from the nature of trafficking in Bulgaria (donor country) and the U.S. (destination country) and the way these two countries interpret/deal with trafficking.

Furthermore, our analysis points to a gripping perception of the ultimate reasons for the existence of trafficking in today's global world (Fig. 2). First, both groups believe that the individual alone is responsible for his/her involvement in trafficking. The second place holds the "naïveté" of certain people and the third one, the perpetrators. A substantial divergence can be noticed in the understanding of two factors for trafficking: 1) trafficking as a "business" matter and 2) the role of society as a whole. Bulgarians place an emphasis on the role of "business with people" (36%) and Americans on the responsibility of society (50%) (Fig. 2). This discrepancy can be viewed in the light of the different information dispersed in the two countries and/or of the maturity (degree) of the civil societies.

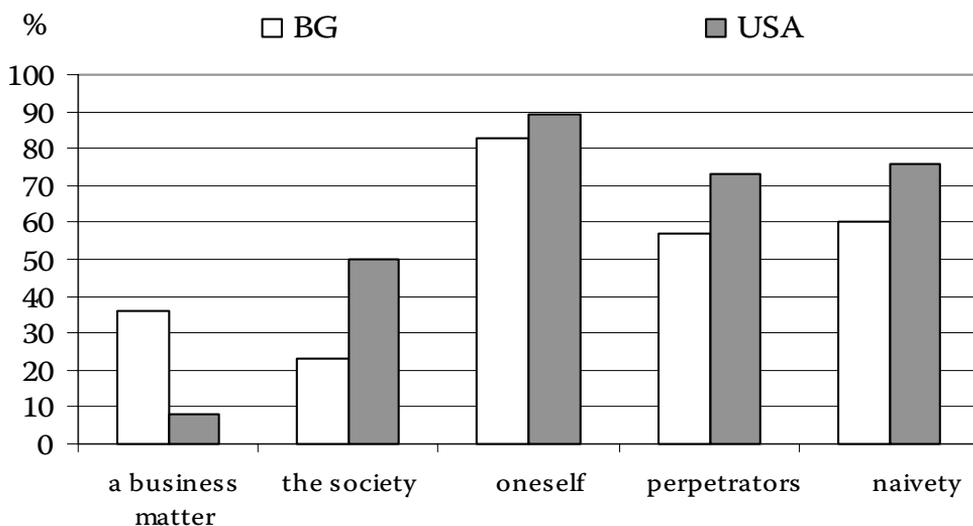


FIGURE 2. REASONS FOR THE EXISTENCE OF TRAFFICKING IN TODAY'S GLOBAL WORLD

The emotional component of the attitudes also reveals the presence/absence of cross-cultural differences. Our data shows that both groups react emotionally to the problem. This tendency, however, is better expressed among the American students. A significantly larger percentage of them believe that "the life of traf-

ficked people is horrible” ($t=2.67$; $p=.008$). In a similar manner, most of them think that “trafficking is one of the most terrific experiences that can happen to people” ($t=2.02$; $p=.05$). This discrepancy can be attributed to the already mentioned nature of trafficking and its interpretation in the two countries and also to the fact that there is a tendency in Bulgaria to play down the negative impact of trafficking and to look at it as an economic opportunity.

The behavioral readiness to act is the third aspect of the attitudes that our study investigates. The readiness to fight against trafficking in people appears to be similar among the two groups (Fig. 3). Both Bulgarian and American young people express eagerness to participate in organizations combating trafficking. Significant variance can be noted in the views whether the individual alone ought to protect him/herself from trafficking, an opinion that appears to be more strongly expressed by the American students ($t=2.79$; $p=.006$). This result reflects most likely overall social and cultural constructions, which, in America, value and cultivate the power of the individual to deal with all situations in life.

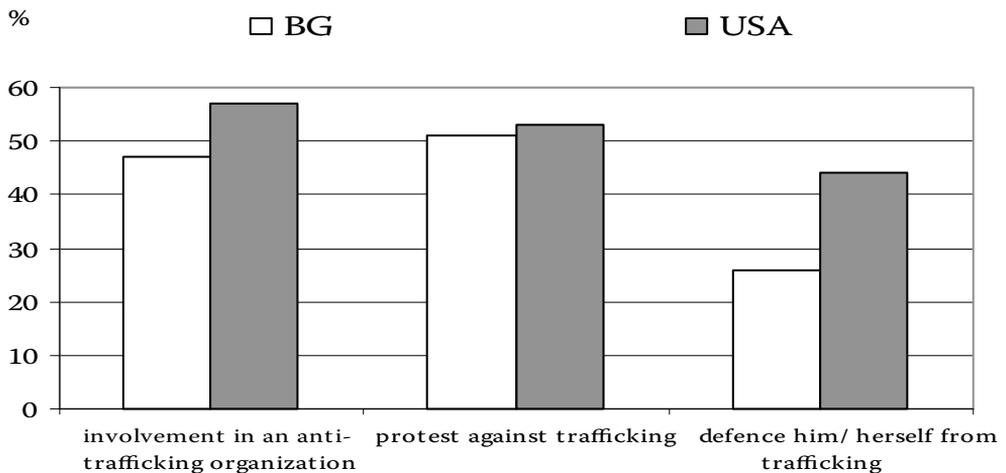


FIGURE 3. THE BEHAVIORAL READINESS TO ACT AMONG BULGARIAN AND AMERICAN STUDENTS

Following our objectives, the study also examines *the level of information* (knowledge) about trafficking among the two groups (Bulgarian and American). As the results in figure 4 shows, the Bulgarian students are better informed about trafficking. The most visible difference emerges in the basic knowledge the two groups have about trafficking: 15% percent more Bulgarian (than American) students define themselves as well-informed. There is also difference in the number of people who define themselves as knowing a lot or knowing nothing. More American (than Bulgarian) students place themselves in these two extreme positions.

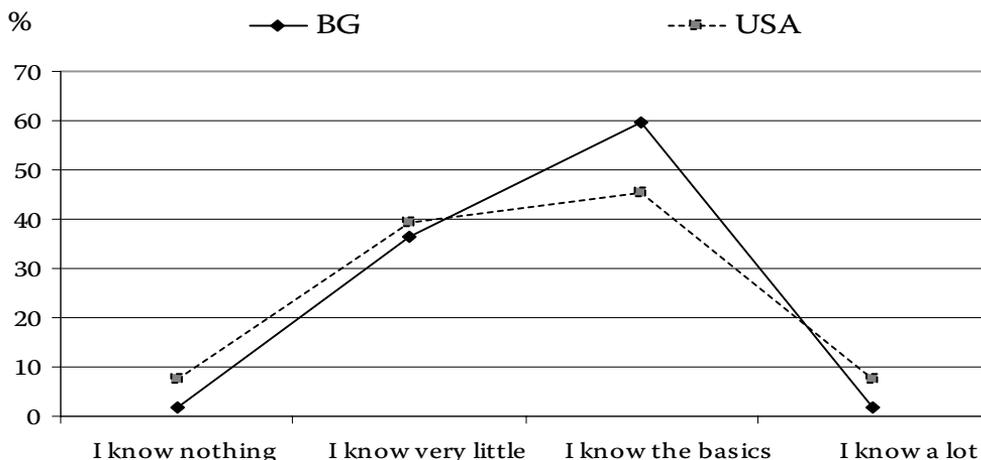


FIGURE 4. THE LEVEL OF INFORMATION ABOUT THE TRAFFICKING AMONG TWO GROUPS

The study proves our hypothesis that the level of information affects the attitudes towards trafficking. This conclusion emerges from the two groups regardless their national belonging. In addition, students who are more informed reveal a deeper and more complex view on the problem. For these people (more than for the less-informed), trafficking requires special attention ($t=2.02$; $p=.046$), because the problem is a fact and many people are forced to work outside their countries ($t=3.05$; $p=.003$). Along with the negative aspects of trafficking these (more informed) students also see positive elements ($t=2.07$; $p=.040$), (for example, cheap labor for the destination country). Furthermore, the people who are more knowledgeable about trafficking attribute a larger role of the individual for his/her involvement in trafficking ($t=2.10$; $p=.038$). Consequently, we note that the better informed students are more ready and eager to participate in anti-trafficking organizations ($t=3.34$; $p=.001$) and to openly protest against trafficking ($t=2.02$; $p=.045$). These results are important for the study of cross-cultural differences, since the Bulgarian sample of students appear better informed than the American.

The specificity of the link between the level of information and the attitudes towards trafficking is determined with the assistance of correlation analysis. Our results show that the increase of the level of information among Bulgarian is directly related to the understanding that many people are kidnapped and enslaved abroad ($r=.20$; $p=.05$), and also to the better expressed emotional assessment that trafficking is one of the worst things that can happen to people ($r=.20$; $p=.05$). It is significant to note that the increased informational level among Bulgarian leads to a discovery of positive aspects of trafficking ($r=.28$; $p=.001$). And last, the increased information also triggers increased readiness to combat trafficking ($r=.20$; $p=.05$).

The increased level of information on trafficking among the American students is mainly connected with the conformation of the belief that the number of trafficked people forced to work abroad is very high ($r=.27$; $p=.001$). The positive correlation between the level of information and the readiness to get involved in anti-trafficking organizations reveals another significant result ($r=.50$; $p=.000$). This tendency appears similar to the one discovered among Bulgarian sample but is more strong and leads also to readiness to combat trafficking. These cross-cultural differences cannot be interpreted one-sidedly. They can be attributed to the degree of media coverage of trafficking and its overall stand on trafficking.

CONCLUSIONS

Both the Bulgarian and the American students hold comparable opinions about trafficking in people. Trafficking is perceived as a problem, which requires attention, threatens many people and is one of the most horrific experiences that can happen to the individual. Students believe that the problem can be limited and defeated. The reasons are found in the individual, in society as a whole, in the naiveté of people, in the perpetrators, etc. The young people reveal readiness to fight against trafficking, to protest, to develop individual defense, and to participate in anti-trafficking organizations.

Our study notes certain cross-cultural differences in the attitudes towards trafficking. The American students hold a more general (abstract) view of the positive aspects of trafficking while the Bulgarians connect the positive side to concrete economic opportunities (to avoid poverty in one's own country). The reasons for trafficking are also perceived differently: Americans believe that the whole society is responsible for it, while Bulgarians ascribe it to the business with people.

Our findings also prove that the level of information influences the attitudes towards trafficking. Students, who are more informed, view trafficking in a more complex manner (with its negative as well as positive aspects), and declare a higher level of readiness to get involved in anti-trafficking organizations.

There are cross-cultural differences on the level of information that the students claim to have. Bulgarians are generally more informed (according to their subjective claims). It is interesting to point out that the increased level of the information among the Bulgarians leads to their increased recognition of the negative and positive aspects of the phenomenon (in favor of the latter), while the greater information level among the Americans is connected to their understanding of the large number of trafficked people and the scale of the phenomenon. Significantly, Bulgarian students view trafficking as an economic opportunity, while Americans as danger to human beings. The higher level of information the more eager students are to combat trafficking, an attitude valid for both groups but more pronounced among the Americans.

The cross-cultural differences cannot be interpreted one-sidedly. On the one hand, they can be attributed to the amount of media coverage of trafficking and the way it shapes the construction of knowledge among students in the U.S. and Bulgaria. The data suggests that Bulgarian media covers the phenomenon more widely than the American. At the same time, not only the quantity but also the quality of information (the content and substance), as well as how it is perceived and interpreted by the young people can affect the way information relates to attitudes. Furthermore, the different nature of the existence of trafficking in Bulgaria and the U.S. (donor and destination) and the different economic conditions in the two countries also play a role. The former can directly alter the content of media coverage and the latter affects the way young people perceive the information. These conclusions only re-confirm that further studies are required for a deeper and more comprehensive investigation of the influence of media on the attitudes towards trafficking, investigation that ought to address other aspects of the correlation media-attitudes.

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EGALITARIAN POLITICAL BIAS OF BULGARIANS AS A STRONG MODERATOR OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SELF-ESTEEM AND SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS

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***Abstract.** Political-economical beliefs of Bulgarians concerning the egalitarian social distribution of wealth are important aspect of their social identity and may influence how they experience their socioeconomic status. Based on such a hypothesis, the present research examined egalitarian political– economic values bias in its moderating role of the relationships between self-esteem and socioeconomic status. Results supported the hypothesis that there is a stronger relationship between self-esteem and socioeconomic status among individuals who report relatively low egalitarian political bias. These results were replicated using both objective and subjective measures of socioeconomic status with a sample of 1240 Bulgarians. Implications of the research findings for the applied social psychological study of well-being, civic and political behavior influencing self-esteem of Bulgarians are discussed.*

INTRODUCTION

The principles and values underlying free enterprise and market economy in functioning democracies affirm that one's wealth is an indicator of one's worth to society (Younkins, 2002; Dimitrov, 2008). Wealth is considered a signal that one is productive, talented, and generally worthy. It is therefore not surprising that within the well-established free-market economies, socioeconomic status (SES) is positively correlated with self-esteem (Twenge & Campbell, 2002; Димитров, 1990; 2008). It is clear, however, that not all citizens of post-socialist Bulgaria hold the same opinion about free enterprise and the merit of gaining personal wealth. In

particular, Bulgarians, and East Europeans generally, vary greatly in their views regarding the economic inequality that naturally results within a capitalistic marketplace in post-transition economies. Some view this inequality as an inevitable and acceptable byproduct of the transition from socialist centrally-planned economy to a new socioeconomic system of capitalism that maximizes the production and efficient distribution of goods and services. Others, however, view this inequality as the result of social injustice and exploitation in the post-socialist “wild capitalism” reality. Such viewpoints are likely to have implications for the degree to which one’s own socioeconomic background impacts one’s feelings of self-worth and well-being. In particular, compared to individuals with relatively egalitarian value bias, those with relatively inegalitarian values may be more inclined to base their self-worth and subjective well-being on their socioeconomic background. With this in mind, the present research examines political-economic bias of Bulgarians as a moderator of the impact of their socioeconomic background on their self-esteem as a core element of subjective well-being and happiness. We predict a stronger impact of SES on self-esteem among those Bulgarians with relatively strong inegalitarian value bias in comparison to those with relatively strong bias towards egalitarian values.

Twenge and Campbell (2002) found a positive association between objective SES indicators (i.e., wealth, education, and occupational status) and self-esteem. This is consistent with evidence from economics research suggesting that the impact of personal wealth on utility (i.e., general satisfaction) in Western nations is somewhat attributable to personal self-esteem, as opposed to the material comforts associated with wealth. In particular, economists and social psychologists have highlighted the importance of comparison income, above and beyond absolute income, in influencing individuals’ satisfaction (Stutzer, 2004). Studies indicate that people consider how their economic standing compares to a reference level, often based on the wealth of others of similar background, in formulating their judgments of satisfaction (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2004). This suggests that the satisfaction derived from economic outcomes is often contingent on these outcomes differentiating the individual from referent others, and thus raising the individual’s self-esteem.

In transitional period of 1989 – 2009 Bulgarians were often exposed to extensive political pressure to adopt new ideological views and to give up old views to which they had previously given deep consideration. Prominent among these political viewpoints are ideas about the distribution of wealth in post-socialist Bulgaria, including its causes and its fairness. Such viewpoints are significant not only for their great relevance to prominent policy debates (e.g., taxation, government spending on social services) but also because they provide a context for interpreting one’s own socioeconomic background. These beliefs are therefore likely to impact the degree to which individuals base their self-worth on SES. The specific set

of political-economic values of present interest are those concerning economic inegalitarianism versus egalitarianism. Our conceptualization of these values is based largely on the work of Kluegel and Smith (1986).

Bulgarians with Inegalitarian Bias. The set of beliefs underlying economic in-egalitarianism has been termed the “dominant ideology” within free market economy cultures of advanced capitalism (Kluegel & Smith, 1986). These beliefs include the sentiment that opportunity for advancement is available to everyone (i.e., social mobility), and the conviction that one’s motivation and talents therefore determine one’s social and economic standing, and subjective well-being (happiness). Some who endorse this ideology will also note that the prospect of attaining disproportionate personal wealth provides the crucial incentive for productive behavior in a functioning free market. These beliefs lead many to reason that the current distribution of wealth, though uneven, is simply an inevitable outcome of a more efficient and fair meritocratic society. Among relatively inegalitarian Bulgarians, one would expect a relatively strong effect of socioeconomic background on self-worth as a central components of subjective well-being and happiness. Those from relatively high SES backgrounds are likely to view their families’ economic situations as a reflection of their hardwork ethic, achievement, and talent. Furthermore, such individuals have managed to adopt a view of wealth distribution that is consistent with their material self-interest. Those from relatively low SES backgrounds, on the other hand, are likely to view their families’ economic situations as a negative reflection of their worth and, consequently, experience lower self-esteem and subjective well-being. This raises the question of why individuals from low SES backgrounds would ever adopt inegalitarian political-economic values. According to one viewpoint (Jost, Banaji, & Nosek, 2004), economically underprivileged individuals are often motivated to support the status quo in order to feel as though they are living in a fair world. Thus it is possible that low SES individuals face a conflict between satisfying the needs to (1) perceive that the world is fair and (2) have high self-esteem and subjective well-being. To the degree that they adopt inegalitarian values they satisfy their need to believe that the world is fair but compromise their feelings of self-worth and happiness.

Bulgarian with Egalitarian Bias. Although the dominant free market and free enterprise ideology worldwide justifies the unequal distribution of income, many Bulgarians have bitter experiences that may lead them to adopt “challenging beliefs” regarding the dominant free market ideology. In transition to capitalist society, Bulgarians are highly exposed to the liberal and post-socialism political-economic beliefs that prevail among older generation. These beliefs include a basic sentiment that economic inequality in post-socialist Bulgaria largely results from exploitation and inequality in opportunity, rather than differences in motivation and ability. Among those Bulgarians who come to identify with egalitarian

political-economic values, one would expect a relatively weak effect of SES on self-esteem and subjective well-being. Consider first those Bulgarians with an egalitarian political values bias who come from low SES backgrounds in comparison to the backgrounds of most EU-member countries. These low-income, chronically frustrated Bulgarians are likely to endorse explanations for their families' economic situations that constitute a more negative political-economic values reflection of Bulgarian economy and society. Also, these individuals' political-economic values would tend to favor policies that are compatible with their material self-interest. Bulgarians with egalitarian bias from high SES backgrounds, however, should be relatively unlikely to derive self-esteem and subjective well-being benefits. Such individuals are aware that they have benefited from their social class standing, but they have come to believe they are not necessarily more worthy of these benefits than less fortunate individuals.

In addition to predicting differential effects of objective SES on self-esteem based on preferred political-economic values, we also predict differential effects of subjective SES on self-esteem as a function of these values. Subjective SES is defined as a perception of one's social and economic status or one's psychological identification as a member of a particular class (Centers, 1949). Many studies have shown that subjective SES does not have an overwhelmingly large correlation with objective SES indicators (Operario, Adler, & Williams, 2004). Furthermore, it would appear that a personal evaluation of one's SES would mediate some of the psychological benefits of having come from a privileged background. Consistent with this viewpoint, research indicates that subjective SES is an independent positive predictor of physical and psychological health, controlling for objective SES indicators (Operario et al., 2004). However, we presently argue that the self-related benefits of perceiving oneself to be of high socioeconomic background will also vary depending on one's political-economic values. Like objective SES, we predict that subjective SES will have a stronger effect on self-esteem among relatively inegalitarian individuals than it does among relatively egalitarian individuals.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

This study's data were collected with a sample of 1240 working Bulgarian citizens (56% – women, 44% – men) from 5 larger cities in Bulgaria (Sofia, Plovdiv, Varna, Bourgas, and Rousse). The mean age among participants was 38.12 years ($SD=13.58$), and the ethnicity breakdown was as follows: 92% Bulgarians, 6% Roma, 2% Turkish and unreported. The research sessions were a part of participation in different training programs in the period of 2003 to 2009.

Measures

Self-esteem and subjective SES. Participants completed the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965), rating its 10 items on a 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 4 (Strongly Agree) scale. Sample items are “I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others” and “In all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure” (reverse scored). The mean of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was above the scale midpoint at 3.14 (SD=5.49), and the measure had a high level of internal reliability (Cronbach alpha = .87). In addition to completing the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, participants also reported their subjective SES. Specifically, participants responded to the item, “In terms of education and income, would you say your family is:” by selecting one of five response options. The response options and the percentage of participants that selected each are as follows: “Upper Class” (1%), “Upper-Middle Class” (3%), “Middle Class” (25%), “Lower-Middle Class” (33%), and “Working Class” (38%). The item was coded so that higher scores correspond with higher subjective SES.

Political-economic values bias and objective SES. Participants completed author’s Bulgarian version of the Kluegel and Smith’s (1986) measure of inegalitarian and egalitarian political-economic values. Seven of this measure’s 11 items assess inegalitarian bias of sentiments (e.g., “If income were more equal, nothing would motivate people to work hard”).

The remaining four items assess egalitarian sentiments (e.g., “Incomes should be more equal, because every family’s needs for food, housing, and so on, are the same”). To derive a single bipolar measure of inegalitarian versus egalitarian political-economic values, the four egalitarian items were reverse scored and the 11 items were combined into a single index (in which higher scores correspond with more of an inegalitarian bias). From this point forward, this measure will be referred to as ***Inegalitarian Political-Economic Values Bias***.

The descriptive statistics for this measure indicate that the average participant fell quite close to the theoretical scale midpoint of 2.8 ($M = 2.57$, $SD = .71$). Also, Inegalitarian Political-Economic Values Bias was assessed with a high degree of internal reliability (Alpha = .82). Participants also reported the following objective SES indicators: (1) family’s combined annual net income at the time of the research and (2) participant’s education level. Family ranged from BGN 2,400 to BGN 125,000, with a median of BGN 11,750.

As for participants’ education, the response options and the percentage of participants that selected each are as follows: “did not finish high school” (19%), “finished high school” (27%), “bachelor’s degree” (31%), “master’s degree” (15%), and “advanced (PhD and DrSc) degree” (8%).

RESULTS

Zero-order correlations were computed among the main variables and analyses were conducted to test the relations between the main variables and key demographic variables (i.e., age and sets of codes representing sex and ethnicity).

Zero-order correlations. The two objective indicators of SES, Family Income and Participants' Education, were significantly correlated, $r = .52$, $p < .001$. As in prior research, Subjective SES was significantly correlated with both Family Income, $r = .61$, $p < .001$, and Participants' Education, $r = .54$, $p < .001$. Out of the three SES indicators (both objective and subjective) only Family Income was significantly correlated with Self-Esteem, $r = .18$, $p < .05$. Inegalitarian Political-Economic Values Bias was correlated positively with Subjective SES, $r = .21$, $p < .01$, but was not significantly correlated with either of the two objective SES indicators or Self-Esteem.

Sex, ethnicity, and age differences. The only primary variable for which here was a significant sex difference was Family Income, $r = .17$, $p < .05$, indicating that the families of male participants had, on average, higher net incomes than the families of female participants. Ethnicity differences were examined by regressing each of the primary variables on two sets of codes: one distinguishing Roma from all other participants and one distinguishing Bulgarians from all other participants. Bulgarian citizens of Roma origin were lower in self-esteem, $b = .24$, $p < .01$, lower in Inegalitarian Political-Economic Values Bias, $b = .17$, $p < .05$, and lower in Family Income, $b = .21$, $p < .01$ than the remainder of the sample. Bulgarians were slightly higher in Subjective SES than the remainder of the sample, $b = .14$, $p < .05$. Age was positively correlated with Self-Esteem, $r = .23$, $p < .001$, and negatively correlated with Participants' Education, $r = .19$, $p < .01$, and Subjective SES, $r = .24$, $p < .001$.

Hypotheses were tested with multiple regression analyses. In each analysis, age, sex, and the two sets of codes representing the effects of ethnicity were entered in the first step as control variables. When testing interactions, standardized regression coefficients and standardized simple slopes were computed using the method recommended by Aiken and West (1991).

Biases in Political-economic values, objective SES, and self-esteem. We first tested the hypothesis that there would be a stronger effect of objective SES on self-esteem among inegalitarian Bulgarians than among egalitarian Bulgarians. Because we do not posit differential predictions across indicators of objective SES, we computed a single objective SES composite by averaging the z-scores of family income and participants' education. We regressed Self-Esteem on the control variables at Step 1, adding Family Income and Inegalitarian Political-Economic Values Bias at Step 2, and adding the Family Income . Conservative Political-Economic Values interaction term at Step 3. At Step 2, neither Objective SES, $b = .07$, n.s., nor Inegalitarian Political-Economic Values Bias, $b = .09$, n.s., had a significant main effect. At Step 3, the Objective SES x Inegalitarian Political-Economic Values Bias

interaction term was significant, $b = .21$, $p < .01$. The regression equation was used to compute standardized simple slopes for inegalitarian Bulgarians and egalitarian Bulgarians. As predicted, among inegalitarian Bulgarians there was a positive effect of Objective SES on Self-Esteem, $b = .26$, whereas among egalitarian Bulgarians there was not, $b = .09$. Regressing Self-Esteem on the Step 1 control variables, the model was significant; $R^2 = .10$, $p < .001$; with significant main effects observed for Roma versus all participants; $b = .20$, $p < .01$; and Age; $b = .18$, $p < .01$. The main finding was not significantly moderated by either of the ethnicity vectors, nor by sex or age.

Political-economic values, subjective SES, and self-esteem. We next we tested the hypothesis that there would be a stronger effect of subjective SES on self-esteem among inegalitarian Bulgarians than among egalitarian Bulgarians. We regressed Self-Esteem on the control variables at Step 1, adding Subjective SES and Inegalitarian Political-Economic Values Bias at Step 2, and adding the Subjective SES x Inegalitarian Political-Economic Values Bias interaction term at Step 3. At Step 2, Subjective SES had a significant positive main effect, $b = .14$, $p < .05$, whereas Inegalitarian Political-Economic Values Bias did not, $b = .05$, n.s. At Step 3, the Subjective SES x Inegalitarian Political-Economic Values Bias interaction term was significant, $b = .19$, $p < .01$. As predicted, among inegalitarian Bulgarians there was a positive effect of Subjective SES on Self-Esteem, $b = .36$, whereas among egalitarian Bulgarians there was not, $b = .05$. The main finding was not significantly moderated by either of the ethnicity vectors or by sex or age.

DISCUSSION

Advanced market economies are characterized by a strong emphasis on personal responsibility and striving for individual distinction and well-being. The philosophical underpinnings of neoliberal capitalism stress the importance of hard work and ingenuity in the generation of wealth and justify the unequal distribution of wealth that inevitably emerges in a functioning free market (Younkins, 2002). Other influential perspectives, however, attribute economic inequality to the subjugation and exploitation of less powerful citizens by more powerful citizens (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). The present research was inspired by the assumption that a person's perspective on the distribution of wealth has implications for how much the person's own SES influences the person's global self-evaluation and happiness. This study thus documents the role of an individual political-economic value orientation variable, inegalitarian versus egalitarian political-economic bias, in the influence of socioeconomic background on self-esteem and subjective well-being. The findings suggest that, in comparison to those Bulgarians who identify with egalitarian values, Bulgarians who identify with inegalitarian values have self-esteem and well-being experience that is more highly contingent on SES.

The results of this study are consistent with theoretical perspectives that highlight the role of personal values in determining the effects of specific types of success on well-being (Oishi, Diener, Suh, & Lucas, 1999; Crocker & Wolfe, 2001). Applied to the present findings, individuals with relatively strong inegalitarian value bias may be said to place high value on financial success because they view financial strivings in a capitalistic society as productive and legitimate. Thus, for these individuals, SES would be predicted to more strongly impact self-esteem and subjective well-being (Malka & Chatman, 2003). The present findings are also consistent with value conflict models of psychological adjustment. In particular, multiple theoretical perspectives propose that coherence among one's values and self-views is important for maintaining self-esteem and well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Sheldon & Kasser, 1995). Modern capitalism is associated with a configuration of values, including both (a) the belief that acting to maximize one's own personal wealth is natural, legitimate, and even socially beneficial and (b) the belief that the economic inequality that results in a free market is justified on the grounds that free markets maximize the overall quantity of wealth that is generated (Miller, 1999). Obviously, the adoption of personal economic values that are consistent with one's political-economic ideology serves a self-esteem maintenance function. The present findings suggest that how one's socioeconomic background is experienced depends, in part, on the degree to which one has internalized a set of political-economic value biases that legitimize an uneven distribution of wealth. The present findings might come as somewhat of a surprise to those who note that inegalitarian sentiments are associated with greater belief in social and economic mobility. Believing that individuals can improve their socioeconomic standing through hard work and talent is a centerpiece of the dominant capitalist ideology associated with inegalitarianism. To the extent that inegalitarian Bulgarians are especially inclined to believe that hard work and discipline will lead one to gain wealth regardless of one's background (and, conversely, that laziness will inhibit one from gaining wealth), it would seem that inegalitarians would experience less of a contingency of self-worth on their SES. The fact that inegalitarian Bulgarians were found to have a stronger contingency of self-esteem on SES, despite their presumed tendency to believe that their SES can change, underscores the importance of self-serving attributions for the maintenance of self-esteem (Baumeister, 1993). The present findings suggest that what one's political-economic beliefs and biases say about the causes of one's SES is a more important determinant of self-esteem than what one's political-economic beliefs and biases say about the likely stability of one's SES.

Future research should attempt to replicate the present findings while controlling for potential confounding variables. On a final note, just recently behavioral economists and social psychologists have begun to consider the role that social identity plays in individual utility (Akerlof and Kranton, 2000). Events and actions

that confirm one's identity add to utility because they help affirm a central aspect of the self-concept. Conversely, violating prescriptions associated with one's identity leads to distress and detracts from utility. So crucial is the role of identity in individual utility that Akerlof and Kranton (2000) have gone so far as to state that "choice of identity may be the most important "economic" decision people make" (p. 717). One crucial advantage of this analysis is that it is useful for explaining why individuals sometimes prefer outcomes that are contrary to their material self-interest. The present findings, interpreted within this framework, suggest that material success may detract from identity-derived utility among Bulgarians who identify with egalitarian values. Because wealth probably adds to utility in other ways for these individuals (e.g., through psychosocial comfort, lack of worry and social comparative anxieties), the net impact on overall utility may be near zero. Thus the present findings add to a growing literature suggesting that the benefits of material success are more complicated than traditional economic models and policies have assumed.

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THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONDITIONS OF THE UNDERSTANDING OF FOLKLORE

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***Abstract.** The purpose of this research is to examine the psychological conditions of individual understanding of folklore. We consider the following points: the particularities of the transfer of the content's images features of folklore, the nature of interaction between a subject and an object of the understanding of folklore, the availability of psychological prerequisites for understanding the folklore of an individual. The results of empirical studies have shown that one of the foundations of psychological understanding of folklore by an individual is the unity of the word and the image, reflected in the harmony between a verbal expression of folklore and its image content. Another important psychological condition is the psychological readiness of an individual to an understanding of the content of folklore. We mean the unity of cognitive and emotional, manifested in the knowledge of the individual according the specifics of a culture of people and a positive attitude to that culture. The results of the study will allow us to develop a psychologically efficient technology of folklore studying for students.*

***Keywords:** folklore, individual understanding, verbal expression, image content*

INTRODUCTION

There is a natural obligate need of a person to find stability and the belonging to something that is not over the power of time, that gives the chance to realize its run and at the same time to understand sense of the person's originality and singularity in the modern and violently changing world. From these positions the reference of the individual to folklore has deep psychological sense.

Psychological value of folklore is that, influencing the person, it forms ethnic identity. However it is possible only when the individual understands folklore.

The analyses of the psychological researches in the field of understanding of folklore in Russia shows that, the understanding of fairy tales, riddles, proverbs, sayings by children of preschool and younger school age first of all was studied. Aside (or became more rare an object of research) there was a question on the psychological mechanism, a psychological basis of understanding of all genres of oral national creativity, including epos by the person. Studying of this problem, in our opinion, is important not only for psychology, but also for pedagogics, folkloristics, culturologists. Revealing of the psychological bases of understanding of folklore will allow to create an effective technique of studying by the individual of products of national creativity at all stages of ontogeny. In our research as an understanding subject the Bashkir national epos “Ural-Batyr” has been chosen. As the genre the epos is defined by a number of factors. V.J.Propp (1999), a famous researcher of folklore names the following factors as the most important, solving factors of the epos: the heroic character of its maintenance, the poetic form closely connected with a tune, and musical performance. The heroic maintenance is one of essential signs of the Bashkir epos. The basic maintenance of many epic legends is struggle of the hero for interests of the people. The classical sample of the epos in the Bashkir folklore is the epos “Ural-Batyr” – one of the greatest products of the Bashkir national creativity, amazing with depth of philosophical thought. This product was included into gold fund of the world folklore.

S.Galin, a famous Bashkir specialist in folklore, writes: «Ural-Batyr» allows to understand an essence of national spirit ...» (S.Galin, 2004, p. 45).

METHOD

Students of the Bashkir State University took part in research in number of 120 persons at the age from 18 till 25 years.

The text of folklore (epos) “Ural-Batyr” in 2 variants was offered. In the first variant examinees were to read in the book the text and interpret it. In the second variant – the text sounded performed by the actor with music underneath. Examinees listened to the actor, music underneath, saw its gestures, a mimicry.

It was also necessary to interpret the text.

RESULTS

60 examinees (1 group) knew a life of the Bashkir people, showed interest to its spiritual culture. 60 examinees (2 group) basically inhabitants of a megacity, had no knowledge of a life of the Bashkir people, ethnos history, did not show interest to its spiritual culture.

At the first stage of the experiment it was offered to first and second groups of examinees to read the text of the epos in the book and to give its interpretation.

The most part of examinees of 1st group (86 %) have given correct interpretation, 10 % of examinees 2nd group could interpret the text correctly.

At the second stage of the experiment both groups looked and listened to the text performed by the actor and with music underneath. As a result correct interpretation was given by all examinees of the first group (100 %) and the number of examinees of 2 group (18 %) with correct interpretation has a little increased.

DISCUSSION

The ability to answer a question under the product maintenance and to explain (to interpret) actions of heroes correctly and adequate was the indicator of examinees' understanding of fragments of the offered epos. The resulted experimental research allows to speak about the necessity to pay attention to the following factors while defining the psychological bases of understanding of folklore by the individual:

- a) specificity of transfer of the figurative maintenance of the epos;
- b) character of interaction of the subject and object of understanding;
- c) presence of the psychological precondition of understanding.

Taking into consideration the theory of information, the analyses of specificity of folklore allows to find out to ways of image content's transfer. The first way is communicative, natural, which is carried out with the help of natural facilities (channels of information) of a vocable, intoning, background music, using of musical instruments; gestures, mime upon the direct interaction of a performer and a listener. The second way of a transfer is carried out with the help of a material intermediary (handwritings, books), which is an influence of civilization. The traditional way of Bashkir epos transfer is speech, where a word is in "natural syncretism" with intonation (melody), with using of throat singing, a kubuiz, a dumbra. In case, when the vivid content is given through the reading of the manuscript, emotions and feelings are lost. It deteriorates the aesthetic value of the book and troubles the understanding of the material.

That's why a verbal transfer of a piece of art is necessary, normal, coincides an adequate verbal way of information transfer, presence of natural contact between a subject and object of information. A person always strives to perceive folklore in "contact conditions". From our point of view, the revival of the tradition of the narrators' competition is positive and psychologically grounded. The competitions allow to find a winner, and the main thing is that the basic, natural way of transfer of the figurative maintenance of the Bashkir epos is realised, allowing modern youth to understand a product of spiritual culture of the Bashkir people more deeply. Thus it is logical to assume that as one of psychological bases of the person's understanding of the epos is the unity of verbal and figurative acts (verbal expression of the figurative maintenance of folklore). As it has been noted above,

the definition of the psychological basis of understanding of the epos is potential under the condition of studying of interaction between the subject and the object of understanding.

CONCLUSION

The variety of genres of folklore allows to see its one more psychological feature – the different degree of presence in them of cognitive and emotional components. Cognitive components or cognitive features of products of oral national creativity are defined by the level of their informative content. The emotional component is in turn shown through an emotional saturation of a material. The researches have shown, that influences of the cognitive or emotional side of folklore on the individual actualizes, accordingly, either cognitive or emotional structures of the person. Hence, the understanding of the person of the concrete epos is the result of interaction of cognitively emotional structures of a subject and an object of understanding.

At all importance of the analysis of interaction between a subject and an object understanding in studying of a question of a psychological basis of understanding the Bashkir epos (kubair), this question cannot be opened to the full if not to allocate the subject precondition of understanding process.

In this plan readiness of the person for understanding of the maintenance of a perceived material is represented to the most important. In psychology readiness of the person for something is perceived as an alloy of knowledge and feelings. Proceeding from it, readiness for understanding of the epos depends on knowledge of culture of the people, history of a life of ethnos, native land history, that has an individual, it, in turn, gives rise to desire to understand and learn concrete display of spirit of the people through understanding of its spiritual culture.

Thus, it is possible to reveal psychological bases of understanding of the epos through: a) studying of features of verbal expression of the figurative maintenance of folklore; b) unity definition of the cognitive and emotional subject and object of understanding; c) definition of the degree of readiness of the person to understanding of a material.

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THE STRUCTURE OF ETHNIC IDENTITY OF YOUNG ADOLESCENTS OF BULGARIAN AND ROMANY ORIGIN

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Abstract. *The purpose of this study was to examine the structure of ethnic identity among young adolescents of Bulgarian and Romany origin. Students in eleventh grade (N = 239) completed the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure-Revised (MEIM-R), measures of psychological well-being and a measure of salience of ethnicity. Factor analyses of data for the two ethnic groups yielded a two-factor structure that corresponded to two theoretical approaches to ethnic identity, as hypothesized. Similar patterns in magnitude of loadings were observed across groups, indicating that the MEIM-R could be used as a global composite index of ethnic identity. Ethnic identity was related positively to measures of psychological well-being such as mastery, self-esteem and optimism, and negatively to measure of loneliness. MEIM-R scores were also moderately correlated with salience (the importance of a person's own ethnic background in his or her life), across ethnic groups.*

Keywords: *ethnic identity, adolescents, Romany group*

INTRODUCTION

Ethnic identity is increasingly recognized as a critical component of the self-concept and, like other aspects of identity, is of particular importance during adolescence. Although there is wide agreement that ethnic identity is crucial to the

psychological well-being of members of an ethnic group, there has been little consensus on exactly what ethnic identity is or how it should be measured (Phinney, 1990). Ethnic identity was studied initially primarily by sociologists (e.g., Royce, 1982) and anthropologists (e.g., De Vos & Romanucci-Ross, 1982; Keefe, 1992), and much of the focus was on non-Hispanic Caucasian ethnic groups (e.g., Waters, 1990). Writers from those fields focused on conceptual issues rather than on problems of definition and measurement. However, recently there has been increasing interest in measurement issues and in ethnic identity among diverse cultural and ethnic groups. A better understanding of ethnic identity requires a clear conception of the construct and also a reliable measure of that construct. The purpose for the present study was to clarify the construct of ethnic identity through examination of the structure and validity of a widely used measure of ethnic identity (Phinney, 1992; Phinney & Ong, 2007) among young adolescents from diverse ethnic groups.

In a literature review that covered research on ethnic identity prior to 1990, Phinney (1990) identified a number of components that have been considered to be central to the construct of ethnic identity and that have been used in studies with a wide variety of ethnic groups. Those components served as the basis of a measure for ethnic identity, the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM-R), developed to provide a way to assess ethnic identity across diverse samples (Phinney, 1992). In addition to the assessment of ethnic self-identification or ethnic self-label, the measure has three subscales: (a) affirmation and belonging (sense of group membership and attitudes toward the individual's group); (b) ethnic identity achievement (the extent to which a person has achieved a secure and confident sense of his or her ethnicity); and (c) ethnic behaviors (activities associated with group membership). The initial validation study of the scale (Phinney, 1992) indicated a single factor of ethnic identity. However, subsequent research suggests that ethnic identity can best be conceptualized in terms of two components, exploration and commitment.

Two distinct theoretical approaches have been used in most research on ethnic identity: social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and the developmental theory of Erikson (1968). First, the social identity approach focused on a sense of belonging to a group and the attitudes and feelings that accompany a sense of group membership. The work of Tajfel and colleagues focused mostly on adults and typically used experimental paradigms in which individuals are assigned randomly to groups. However, that work has been applied to a wide range of naturally existing social groups. Social identity theory posits that group identity is an important part of the self-concept; people generally attribute value to the group they belong to and derive self-esteem from their sense of belonging to that group. Ethnic identity is one type of group identity that is central to the self-concept of members of ethnic minority groups. On the basis of social identity theory, it would be expected

that ethnic identity would include ethnic attitudes and a sense of group belonging. In the MEIM-R (Phinney & Ong, 2007), the strength and valence of ethnic identity, termed *commitment*, are represented by three items that assess belonging, pride, and good feelings about the person's ethnicity.

A second approach to the study of ethnic identity has been based on the Erikson (1968) theory of identity development. According to Erikson, identity formation takes place through a process of exploration and commitment that typically occurs during adolescence and that eventually leads to a commitment or decision in important identity domains. A number of researchers have developed models of ethnic or racial identity development that parallel the Erikson model, including those of Cross (1991), Helms (1990), Atkinson, Morton, and Sue (1993), and Phinney (1989, 1993). Each of those models posits a process that begins with lack of awareness or understanding of the person's ethnicity. This initial stage ends when adolescents engage as part of the identity formation process in a period of exploration to learn more about their group. Ideally, that phase leads to an achieved ethnic identity characterized by a commitment to the person's ethnicity that is based on a clear understanding of the implications of achieved ethnic identity and a secure, confident sense of group membership. This developmental approach posits that ethnic identity will vary with age; younger adolescents would be expected to have a less clear and committed sense of their ethnicity than older adolescents. In the MEIM-R, this component of ethnic identity is assessed by the three-item ethnic identity commitment scale and three exploration items (activities to learn about the person's group); it would be expected to show variability with age in samples that cover the age span from early adolescence to adulthood.

Those two theoretical approaches, social identity and developmental, are distinct conceptually but might overlap in terms of measurement because an achieved ethnic identity is assumed to lead to positive attitudes regarding a person's ethnicity together with a sense of belonging.

A third aspect of ethnic identity, not included in the MEIM-R, involves behaviors associated with ethnicity such as customs, traditions, and social interactions. Although ethnic behaviors have been included in many measures of ethnic identity, including the original MEIM, such behaviors are not clearly linked to the dominant theoretical views of ethnic identity and might be more properly considered as aspects of acculturation (Phinney, 1998). They are therefore not included in the MEIM-R.

The initial goals for the present study were to determine whether the factor structure of the MEIM-R would conform to the two components of ethnic identity described, namely, exploration and commitment. On the basis of the theoretical positions reviewed and prior research (Phinney & Ong, 2007), it was hypothesized that the MEIM-R would reveal two factors, exploration and commitment.

Also included in the MEIM-R are (a) an open-ended question that elicits ethnic self-identification (self-label) and (b) a choice of an ethnic category from a list of ethnic groups. These items allow for the grouping of individuals by self-reported ethnicity but reveal nothing about the strength or valence of ethnic identity; they are not included as part of the ethnic identity scale *per se*.

In addition to the examination of the factor structure of the MEIM, a goal was to investigate the reliability and construct validity of ethnic identity as measured by the MEIM. Both of the theoretical approaches discussed are in agreement in positing that group identity plays an important role in the psychological well-being of group members. Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) posits that there is an underlying need to maintain self-esteem and that this need is linked to group identity. Group members are seen as differentiating their own group from other groups and evaluating their own group more favorably as a means of enhancing their own individual self-concepts. Identity as a member of a group, thus, is closely linked to self-esteem. An implication of the theory is that a favorable view of the personal group would be associated with higher self-esteem and an unfavorable view would be associated with lower self-esteem. Currently, a large body of work has shown a consistent positive, although modest, correlations between ethnic identity and self-esteem (Belgrave et al., 1994; Phinney, 1992; Phinney, Cantu, & Kurtz, 1997; Wright, 1985).

Developmental theory likewise posits a positive relation between psychological well-being and identity. Those individuals with an achieved ego identity show a variety of psychological strengths (Marcia, 1980), and a similar relation has been demonstrated for ethnic identity. In a review of the literature on this topic, Phinney and Kohatsu (1997) presented evidence that the earliest stage, characterized by an unexamined or diffuse ethnic identity, might be accompanied by low self-regard and feelings of inadequacy, whereas the highest stage, ethnic identity achievement, might be typically associated with a positive self-concept and absence of psychological distress. In an interview study of ethnic minority adolescents, Phinney (1989) found that students assigned to the initial or unexamined stage of ethnic identity had the poorest self-concept, whereas students with an achieved ethnic identity had the most positive self-concept.

Thus, social identity theory and developmental theory both indicate that a stronger or more committed ethnic identity would be associated positively with psychological well-being. An additional purpose of the current study was to examine the relations of ethnic identity to various indicators of psychological well-being across diverse ethnic groups. It was hypothesized that ethnic identity would be related positively to indicators of psychological well-being and related negatively to indicators of loneliness.

A final question in this study concerned the relative strength and valence of ethnic identity across differing ethnic groups. According to social identity theory,

when a group identity is problematic, for example when a group is subject to discrimination or negative stereotyping, group members attempt to assert a positive conception of their group through reaffirmation and revitalization (Tajfel, 1978). For European Americans in the United States, ethnicity typically is of low salience and ethnic identity is not strong (Phinney, 1989). However, the salience of ethnicity for minority group members has been demonstrated in studies both with high school (Aries & Moorehead, 1989) and college students (Phinney & Alipuria, 1990). *Salience* refers to the importance attributed to a person's own ethnic background (Alba, 1990). It was expected, therefore, that minority group would have stronger ethnic identity than would members of the dominant majority. The third hypothesis was that adolescents from an ethnic minority group would score higher on ethnic identity than would Bulgarians.

In summary, *the aims* for this study were to determine the structure and validity of ethnic identity as measured by the MEIM-R (Phinney & Ong, 2007), in a sample of early adolescents of Bulgarian and Romany origin, living in Bulgaria, and to examine the variability of ethnic identity across ethnic groups. It was hypothesized that the MEIM-R would show two factors that would reflect the theoretical approaches, that the MEIM-R would be correlated positively with psychological well-being, and that ethnic groups would differ in ethnic identity.

METHOD

PARTICIPANTS

The participants were 239 young people (107 boys and 132 girls; average age 18.12 years). Girls had a mean age of 18.04 years and boys, 18.18. In terms of self-chosen ethnic label, the sample consisted of two ethnic groups: Bulgarians (n=122; 56 boys and 66 girls; average age 17.64 and Roma (n=117; 51 boys and 66 girls; average age 18.62).

MEASURES

Ethnic group membership. Ethnic group membership was determined on the basis of ethnic self-label selected by participants from a list of categories (e.g., Bulgarian, Turkish, Jew, Armenian and Roma), as well as categories for Mixed Ancestry, and Other. Only the Bulgarians and Roma were included in the study.

Ethnic identity (MEIM-R). Ethnic identity was assessed using the 6-item Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM-R; Phinney and Ong, 2007). It was designed to assess two components of ethnic identity: exploration (three items) and commitment (three items). Items were rated on a five-point scale ranging

from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree, with 3 as a neutral position, so that high scores indicate strong ethnic identity. The scores for Ethnic identity total scale and Exploration and Commitment subscales are calculated as the mean of items in each subscale, or of the scale as a whole.

Ethnic salience was assessed using a single item that inquired how important the students' ethnic background was to them. Responses were on a four-point scale from 4 = *very important* through 1 = *not at all important*.

The following measures of psychological well-being were responded to on a five-point scale from 5 = *agree* through 1 = *disagree*. In each case, higher scores indicate stronger presence of the variable.

Self-esteem was measured by a ten-item version of the Rosenberg (1986) scale. This scale had a reliability of 0.61 in this sample. The range was 0.60 through 0.72 across two ethnic groups. Typical items were, "On the whole I am satisfied with myself" and "All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure" (reverse coded).

Optimism was measured using a six-item, revised version of the Life Orientation Test (LOT-R; Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994). Typical items are, "Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad" and "If something can go wrong for me, it will" (reverse coded). Coefficient alpha in this sample was 0.67, ranging from 0.55 (Bulgarians) through 0.63 (Roma) across ethnic groups.

Mastery was a seven-item scale from the work of Pearlin (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978; Pearlin et al., 1981). This scale had acceptable reliability levels ($\alpha = 0.76$) in this sample, with a range of 0.70 through 0.71 across ethnic groups. Examples of the items on this scale are, "I can do just about anything I really set my mind to do" and "There is really no way I can solve some of the problems I have" (reverse coded).

Loneliness was a ten-item scale, the Russell revision of the University of California Los Angeles Loneliness Scale (Version 3) (Russell, D. (1996). This scale has demonstrated good reliability and construct validity (Higbee & Roberts, 1994). Alpha for this sample was 0.86, with a range of 0.81 through 0.87 across ethnic groups. Example of the item on this scale is: "How often do you feel completely alone?"

In addition, participants reported demographic data, including age and gender.

DATA ANALYSIS

To determine the factor structure of the MEIM-R, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted in SPSS for Windows 15.0. For this analysis, cases were excluded pairwise and the analysis was carried out using principal component analysis as the method of estimation.

RESULTS

FACTOR ANALYSES

Principal component analysis, presented in Table 1, was conducted to assess the underlying structure for the 6 items of the *MEIM-R*. Two factors were requested, based on the fact that the items were designed to index two subscales: Commitment subscale and Exploration subscale.

The *Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy* value for the whole sample was 0.810, and for Bulgarian and Romany ethnic groups: 0.735 and 0.854, exceeding the recommended value of 0.60 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) in all cases reached statistical significance ($p < 0.001$), supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

TABLE 1. FACTOR STRUCTURE: ETHNIC IDENTITY: THE FACTOR ANALYSIS OF 6 ITEMS, TOGETHER WITH FACTOR LOADINGS, EIGENVALUE AND PERCENTAGE OF VARIANCE EXPLAINED FOR EACH FACTOR

Item		<i>Factor Loading</i>	
		1	2
2	I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group.	0.921	0.082
6	I feel a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group.	0.735	-0.007
3	I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me.	0.703	-0.239
5	I have often talked to other people in order to learn more about my ethnic group	-0.079	-0.946
4	I have often done things that will help me understand my ethnic background better	-0.030	-0.870
1	I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs.	0.329	-0.520
Eigenvalues		3.44	1.78
% of variance		57.33	13.03

Notes: Data analyses using: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization; factor 1 reflected exploration; factor 2 reflect commitment; Loadings > 0.52 are bolded; Sorted by decreasing of the factor loading.

After rotation, the first factor accounted for 57.3% of the variance, the second factor accounted for 13.0%. The first factor, which indexes *Ethnic Identity Commitment* (items 2, 3, and 6), loads strongly (more than 0.59) on the first three items, with loadings in the first column. The second factor, which indexes *Ethnic Identity Exploration* (items 5, 4, and 1), loads strongly (more than 0.52) on the last three items, with loadings in the second column.

To assess whether the 6 items of *Ethnic Identity* and its two subscales formed reliable scales, Cronbach's alpha was computed. Overall reliability of the 6-item *Ethnic Identity Scale* was 0.85 for the whole sample; for Bulgarian and Romany groups, reliabilities were 0.79 and 0.89, respectively. For the 3-item *Ethnic Identity Commitment* subscale reliability was 0.76 for the whole sample and for Bulgarian and Romany groups: 0.72 and 0.81, respectively. For the 3-item *Ethnic Identity Exploration* subscale reliability was 0.80 for the whole sample and for Bulgarian and Romany groups: 0.71 and 0.78, respectively.

Pearson correlations between *Ethnic Identity Commitment* and *Ethnic Identity Exploration* were significant ($p < 0.001$) for the whole sample, $r = 0.65$, and for the two ethnic groups as well: $r = 0.52$ for Bulgarians and $r = 0.72$ for Romany.

CORRELATION OF ETHNIC IDENTITY WITH PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

The second hypothesis was that the ethnic identity scale would show: a positive relation to indicators of psychological well-being and a negative relation with indicators of loneliness across diverse ethnic groups.

The correlation of the 6-item *MEIM-R* with each of the psychological well-being measures across the two ethnic groups and for the overall sample was examined. These results are presented in Table 2. In general, overall and across groups, *MEIM-R* scores were associated positively with *sense of mastery*, *self-esteem* and *optimism*. Furthermore, *loneliness* was generally related negatively to *MEIM-R* scores, although the correlations did not reach statistical significance in some cases. As an additional indicator of validity, the correlation of *ethnic salience* with the *MEIM-R* was calculated.

As shown in Table 2, all those correlations are positive and significant. Salience, or the importance of a person's own ethnic background in his or her life (Alba, 1990), should be associated with *MEIM-R* scores, which reflect ethnic identity exploration and commitment.

TABLE 2. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ETHNIC IDENTITY MEASURED BY 6-ITEM MULTIGROUP ETHNICAL IDENTITY MEASURE – REVISED (MEIM-R), SELECTED MEASURES OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL BEING AND SALIENCE OF ETHNICITY

Measure	MEIM-R		
	Bulgarian	Romany	Total
Mastery	0.023	0.358 ***	0.320 ***
Self-esteem	0.257 *	0.236 **	0.238
Optimism	0.201 **	0.087	0.077
Loneliness	- 0.175 *	- 0.204 **	- 0.144
Saliency of ethnicity	0.692 ***	0.361 ***	0.542 ***

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$

ETHNIC DIFFERENCES IN ETHNIC IDENTITY BY ETHNICITY

The third hypothesis was that Bulgarians would show lower scores on ethnic identity than Roma.

To examine the differences in *Ethnic Identity* and its two subscales related to ethnicity, *t*-statistics tests were performed. The results are given in Table 3.

TABLE 3. MEAN SCORES FOR ETHNIC IDENTITY, BY ETHNIC GROUP

Identity	Ethnic group	Mean
Ethnic Identity	Bulgarian	3.59
	Romany	4.19
		*
<i>Exploration</i> sub-scale	Bulgarian	3.31
	Romany	4.17
		*
<i>Commitment</i> sub-scale	Bulgarian	3.86
	Romany	4.21
		*

Notes: High scores represent high relevant importance, and low scores represent low relevant importance (1-minimum, 5-maximum); the statistically significant effect by ethnic group is showed by asterisk beneath the relevant column of two figures; data analyses using *t*-statistics; * $p < 0.05$.

These results indicated that significant differences existed between ethnic groups, Bulgarians and Roma. Based on analyses, the Bulgarian adolescents scored significantly lower than Roma group.

ETHNIC DIFFERENCES IN ETHNIC IDENTITY BY GENDER

Results of Ethnic Identity and its 2 subscales, *Exploration* and *Commitment*, of Bulgarians and Roma, distributed by gender and age, are presented in Table 4 and Table 5.

TABLE 4. MEAN SCORES FOR ETHNIC IDENTITY, BY GENDER

Identity	Group	Ethnic group	
		Bulgarian	Romany
Ethnic Identity	Boys	3.76	4.41
	Girls	3.44 *	4.02 *
<i>Exploration</i> subscale	Boys	3.46	4.35
	Girls	3.18 *	4.03 *
<i>Commitment</i> subscale	Boys	4.05	4.47
	Girls	3.71 *	4.00 *

Notes: High scores represent high importance, and low scores represent low importance (1 – minimum, 5 – maximum); the statistically significant effect by ethnic group is shown by asterisk beneath the relevant column of two figures; data analyses using *t*-statistics; * $p < 0.05$.

When examining ethnic identity, statistically significant differences for the groups of Bulgarians and Roma were found. For boys of both groups, ethnic identity is more important than for girls. Boys both of Romany and Bulgarian origin, attach greater importance to *Exploration* and to *Commitment* than do girls.

ETHNIC DIFFERENCES IN ETHNIC IDENTITY BY AGE

The same tendency is observed in the *Exploration* subscale for Bulgarians and Roma, with the results being distributed by age. With the increase of age, importance increases for the Bulgarians and decreases for the Romany minority.

Of interest is the opposite tendency that is observed in the importance of ethnic identity by age, across the two groups. With the increase of age, the importance of ethnic identity among Bulgarians increases, and among Roma it decreases.

The results obtained, distributed by age, are statistically significant for the both subscales. With the increase of age, *Commitment* decreases for both groups, but *Exploration* increases for Bulgarians and decreases for Roma.

TABLE 5. MEAN SCORES FOR ETHNIC IDENTITY, BY AGE

Identity	Group	Ethnic group	
		Bulgarian	Romany
Ethnic Identity	Younger	3.23	4.38
	Older	4.13 *	4.09 *
<i>Exploration</i> subscale	Younger	2.94	4.33
	Older	3.88 *	4.09 *
<i>Commitment</i> subscale	Younger	3.53	4.44
	Older	3.38	4.09

Notes: High scores represent high importance, and low scores represent low importance (1 – minimum, 5 – maximum); the statistically significant effect by ethnic group is shown by asterisk beneath the relevant column of two figures; data analyses using *t*-statistics; * $p < 0.05$.

ETHNIC DIFFERENCES IN ETHNIC IDENTITY BY YEARS

The Ethnic identity of the main three ethnic groups in Bulgaria (Bulgarians, Turks and Roma) was calculated in 2006 (Ganeva & Phinney, 2009) by MEIM methodology (Phinney, 1992). In Table 5 is shown how ethnic identity changed during this period (2006 – 2008).

TABLE 6. MEANS OF ETHNIC IDENTITY FOR TARGET GROUPS, BROKEN DOWN BY YEARS

Year	Ethnic Identity	
	Bulgarian	Romany
2006	2.28	2.23
2008	3.59 *	4.19 *

Notes: High scores represent high ethnic importance, and low scores represent low ethnic importance (1 – minimum, 5 – maximum); the statistically significant effect by years is shown by asterisk beneath the relevant column of two figures; data analyses using *t*-statistics; * $p < 0.05$.

The results for the period of time examined show a significant increase of the importance that both the majority group and the minority group attach to ethnic identity. In 2008, the values of ethnic identity were higher both for Bulgarians and Roma.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the factor structure, construct validity, and ethnic differences in ethnic identity, using the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure with an ethnically diverse sample of adolescents of Bulgarian and Roma origin. The results add to the existing literature on ethnic identity by providing evidence that ethnic identity: (a) is a valid construct with young adolescents, (b) has an identifiable structure that emerges in early adolescence, (c) can be measured reliably across groups, and (d) differentiates among adolescents from differing ethnic groups, Bulgarians and Roma.

The two theoretical approaches proposed for understanding ethnic identity are reflected in the two factors, commitment and exploration. A first component of ethnic identity consists of commitment and a sense of belonging to an ethnic group, together with pride and positive feelings about the group. This aspect of ethnic identity can be understood in terms of social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), which proposes that social identity, as a general construct, involves feelings of attachment and belonging to a group and to the attitudes associated with that sense of belonging. In addition, items originally conceptualized to assess commitment to an ethnic group, and thus as part of ethnic identity achievement (Phinney, 1992), were found to be associated with affirmation/belonging. It appears that the commitment that is part of ethnic identity achievement is closely associated with affirmation of a group and is perhaps indistinguishable from such affirmation; that is, a commitment to a group necessarily carries with it a sense of belonging and positive feelings.

The second major component involves the process through which individuals explore, learn about, and become involved in their ethnic group. Behaviors that indicate involvement with an ethnic group appear to be part of the exploration process rather than either a separate component or part of the subjective sense of belonging that is associated with social identity theory. This result is consistent with descriptions by Cross (1991) and Phinney (1993), indicating that exploration often includes active involvement in the person's group.

The two factors, commitment and exploration, are statistically distinct but nevertheless highly correlated. Both on theoretical and on statistical grounds, the two factors appeared to represent distinct but related aspects of ethnic identity.

The high interfactor correlations indicated that the 6-item MEIM-R scale can be used as a global assessment of ethnic identity. Alternatively, for same purposes,

the affirmation and belonging scale could be used as an indicator of strength of identification.

In addition to considering the structure of ethnic identity, the construct validity of ethnic identity based on the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure was examined. The validity of the measure was supported by the expected positive correlations with measures of psychological well-being (mastery, self-esteem, and optimism) and negative correlations with loneliness. In addition, there was a positive association between the MEIM-R scale and a single item that assessed the salience of ethnicity to these adolescents. These relations were replicated within each of the two ethnic groups, Bulgarians and Roma. However, the correlations with psychological outcomes, although consistent across all the two groups examined, were relatively modest. Ethnic identity is clearly only one of many factors that contribute to well-being (Phinney et al., 1997). However, for purposes of evaluating the construct validity issue, it is believed that the pattern the correlations provide does support the conclusion that the MEIM-R is valid in the context of this study. That is, the direction of the associations is in general as predicted and most are statistically significant. More important, as noted in the Results, the correlation between MEIM-R scores and the item on salience of ethnicity averaged .57 across the whole sample. This provides the clearest and strongest evidence for the validity of the MEIM-R scale.

An interpretation of these results would require an examination of the experience of those adolescents in the multicultural context. Further research is needed to explore whether this strong ethnic identity in Romany adolescents derives from close cultural ties within the group or from negative experience, such as discrimination from other groups, as would be posited by social identity theory. It is clear from this study that the concept of ethnic identity has meaning for young adolescents and that it is related in theoretically meaningful ways to other dimensions of the adolescent experience. However, there are several caveats. The domain of ethnicity is complex and heterogeneous. It remains to be demonstrated how ethnic identity is related to the wider ethnic experience of adolescents; for example, their ethnic socialization, the ethnic context in which they live, and the attitudes (Valencia and Ganeva, 2006; Ganeva, 2009) of the community towards particular ethnic groups. It also remains to be demonstrated whether and how ethnic identity of adolescents increases the understanding of the psychological functioning of this age group.

If, as is posited in social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and in developmental theory (Erikson, 1968; Phinney, 1989, 1993), ethnic identity arises from the ethnocultural experiences of individuals and has important implications for the ways in which adolescents come to view themselves, then it should follow that ethnic identity is important in understanding whether and the ways in which ethnic group membership might increase or decrease the vulnerability of adolescents to emotional and behavioral problems.

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THE PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF ORGAN DONATION AS PRESENTED THROUGH THE GREEK PRESS

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Abstract. *This presentation aims to explore, describe and interpret attitudes regarding organ donation as they were expressed in the Greek press and to deduce the impact of these attitudes on the willingness to donate. Five newspapers of high circulation were sampled and followed for 10 months resulting to 47 articles related to organ donation. The analysis of collected data took place with the implementation of the qualitative method of grounded theory. The analysed articles can be distinguished in two basic categories with multiple subcategories: Articles focusing on the current status of organ donation and proposing reasons and solutions for this; Articles with ideological and moral approach to organ donation that try to give a meaning to the act of donating. The gap between the offer and the demand and the trade of human organs are presented excessively in the majority of this study's articles. The final outcome of this study combined with psychological theories for the formulation of attitudes demonstrate the serious impact that ideas expressed through press have on peoples attitude towards organ donation.*

Keywords: *organ donation, mass media, grounded theory*

INRODUCTION

Greece is enlisted among those at the bottom of the list regarding the number of the transplantations carried out with 6,4 dead donors / one million people according to the European Organisation responsible for coordinating transplantations. Transplantation is not a pure medical act but a multidimensional phenomenon. Every approach must take into consideration the various factors that have an im-

impact on the individuals' and society's attitudes towards organ donation. The role of the mass media is of extreme importance due to the fact that they hold strong power regarding the informing and sensitization of the public. This study aimed to explore, describe and interpret attitudes regarding organ donation as were expressed in the Greek press and to deduce the impact of these attitudes on the willingness to donate.

METHODOLOGY

Five newspapers of high circulation (To Vima, Kathimerini, Eleutherotipia, To Ethnos, Ta Nea) were sampled and followed for 10 months, from the 1st of November 2005 until the 31st of August 2006. 47 articles concerning organ donation were assimilated. The analysis of the collected data took place with the implementation of the qualitative method of grounded theory (Strauss, Corbin, 1990).

RESULTS

The analysed articles can be distinguished in two basic categories with multiple subcategories:

a) Articles focusing on the current status of organ donation and proposing reasons and solutions for this

The fact that Greece appears at the bottom of the organ donations list throughout Europe was mentioned in the majority of this study's articles. Approaching people's unwillingness to sign a donor card as well as, the family's unwillingness to donate the organs of their dead member the following subcategories aroused: absence of an effective sensitization mechanism, governmental disinterest, confusion about brain death, illegal trading of organs and overemphasis on the family's accord. The long waiting lists and the illegal trading of organs are attributed to the above facts.

The possible solutions that are suggested include the development of an effective sensitization mechanism, transparency and fair distribution of the organs, coordination between states in order to develop common safety and quality standards. On the other hand, some articles reported that we could cut down the long waiting lists by legalizing the trade of human organs and by giving economical motives to possible donors and their families. Furthermore, a lot of hope was consigned to the technology development and to the creation of artificial organs in the laboratory.

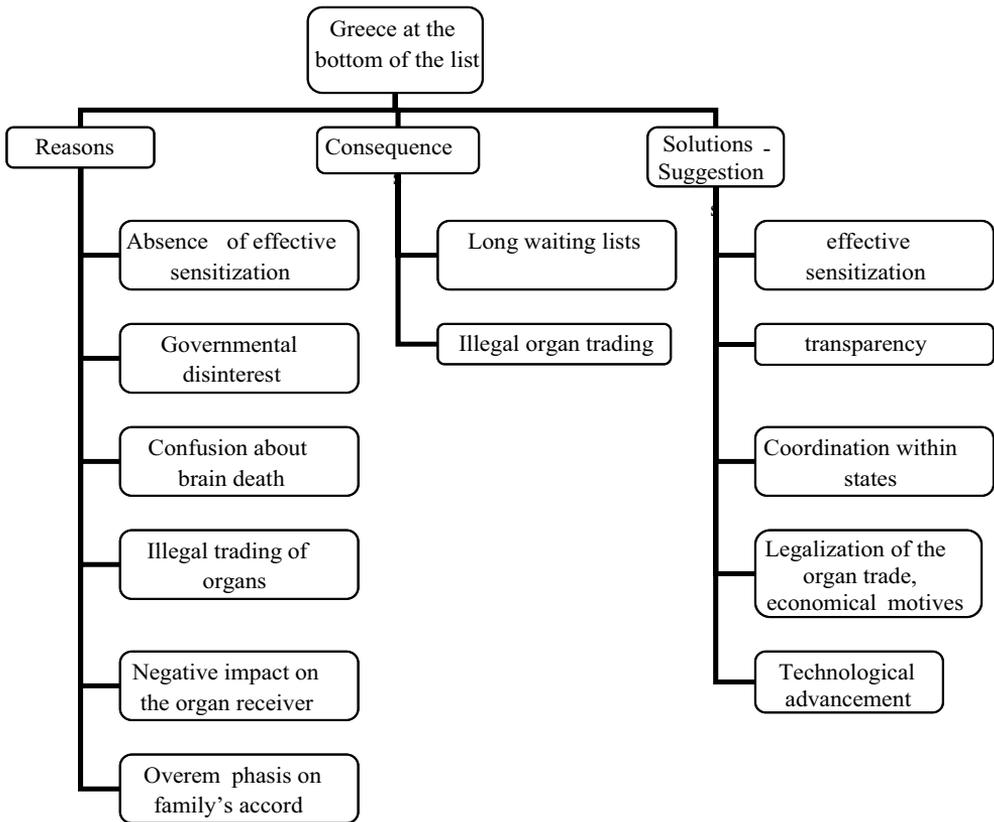


FIGURE 1. CORE CATEGORY AND SUBCATEGORIES – ARTICLES FOCUSING ON THE CURRENT STATUS OF ORGAN DONATION

b) Articles with ideological and moral approach to organ donation that try to give a meaning to the act of donating

Altruism was displayed as a precondition for organ donation. Staub (1971) has proposed three necessary criteria in order to characterize a behaviour as altruistic. It has to be done voluntarily, it must not have any positive outcome for the person doing it and it must have a positive outcome for the person receiving it. Organ donation seems to be corresponding to this definition. From this point of view the act of donating is strongly related with personal beliefs about the altruistic motive. Family's accord is overemphasized in a way that, even if the family holds a strong altruistic attitude they must also trust the health system and be aware of the dead members wish, in order to donate the organs.

Organ donation is also presented as a duty to our suffering fellow citizen especially when she or he is a member of our family. However for a person to be

obliged to donate some conditions are prerequisite. Past experiences regarding the health system must be positive, the person must trust the hospital staff and he should be fully informed about brain death. The concept of duty appears more frequently when the citizens are bonded with what Berkowitz (1989) calls mutual exchange within the frame of the social responsibility rule.

Apart from the above concepts, organ donation was also presented as a way to give meaning to our death. The death of a person with whom we had a close relationship forms an experience that almost breaks down our hallucinatory beliefs of immortality. From this point of view, families tend to donate in order to keep the dead member "alive". Donation creates a sense of continuity through which the adaptation to the reality is done more smoothly. Although this idea can be very relieving it can also be misleading. There are theories proposing that organs have their own memory in a way that the receiver may also inherit the donors' tastes and other personality traits.

When having a closer look to the gap between offer and demand for organs we suppose that all the above concepts are not able to encourage enough people to become donors. Some articles, propose the abolition of the concept of donating through the provision of economical motives. Organs become a good to consume and everything is discussed in terms of trade. People have the right to control their body and the trade of organs is a taboo. This concept proposes that the legalization of the trade of organs will replace the illegal trading although nothing is mentioned for people who wouldn't be able to afford the costs of transplantation.

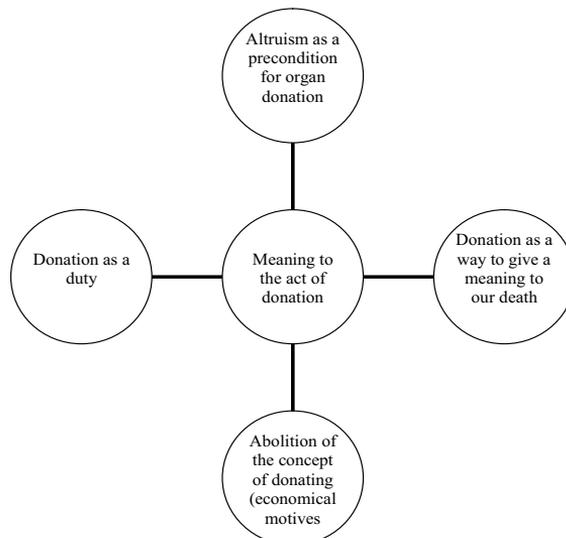


FIGURE 2. MEANING TO THE ACT OF DONATION AS A CORE CATEGORY

CONCLUSIONS

The gap between the offer and the demand for organs and the illegal trade of human organs are presented excessively in the majority of this study's articles. However it is encouraging that a significant number of articles promoted organ donation as a duty to our fellow citizens irrespective of whether he is a family member or not.

Schwartz (1977) gave a model of hypothetical procedure through which personal expectations affect the act of helping. This procedure follows the steps:

- Knowing that someone is in an emergency state
- Acknowledging that there are some actions that can help the situation
- Recognition of the persons' ability to cooperate towards this direction
- Accepting the responsibility of getting entangled
- Motivating the persons' self expectations
- Estimating the possible consequences
- Providing help or not

In the case of organ donation the first two steps are easily realized through the provision of information about the long waiting lists or about the country's current state regarding organ donation and by promoting organ donation as a way to reduce the waiting lists. However, for the following steps to be realized people should be encouraged to become donors. Personal stories and illegal trade of organs should not be sensationalized by the reporters but instead transparency about transplantations, reliable information regarding brain death and encouragement of a community spirit where members have the "duty" to help each other.

As far as the sixth step is concerned, if a person has a positive, clear view about the health system, about the fair distribution of organs and about the finality of brain death then there is no ambiguity about the consequences for a dead donor and his family.

Although the mass media has been used a lot in order to educate people about health subjects, their desire to impress the audience often leads to misconceptions. This false information regarding organ donation is often used by the individuals as an excuse for their unwillingness to donate.

There is also strong evidence that those who are in favor of donation will discard negative articles as mass media tricks but on the other hand, the wider audiences' attitudes are strongly affected by misleading news (Morgan, Harrison, Long, Afifi, Stephenson, Reichert, 2005).

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A DYSFUNCTIONAL NATION AND ITS PEOPLE: WORKSHOP

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***Abstract.** There are four realities that are present in the stressed out or very injurious nation. People do not know who they are or they have a false picture as to who they are, they do not sustain their relationships through deep friendliness, defenses are used repeatedly, and contentment skills are minimal. Contentment skills are those abilities to sustain long-term relationships, intra– community and inter-community. When a nation is in pain and stress, psychological defenses will arise.*

INTRODUCTION

Psychological Defenses have two purposes: to give pleasure and to avoid pain. A number of defenses exist, but for purposes of this discussion, this author will focus on one – **relational isolation.**

If friendships developed among the citizens, it was in the years of youth and adulthood. The defense of social isolation did two things: first, it decreased the pain, and second, it gave some pleasure in that they found ways, to be preoccupied.

They did not realize the deep loneliness present in this nation. Nor did they recognize the losses of positive worth. They lacked the opportunity to develop contentment skills and to discover the pleasures of affection. Nor did they receive the greatest gift of all, a positive picture of themselves and their respective communities, which was supposed to be given by their leadership and government-at-large.

Other defenses are used in the dysfunctional or stressed out nation. The citizens learn to use evasion and develop a façade. “Practiced amiability” is one way to describe this. On the surface a friendly smile is present, while underneath there is non-entity. Emotions are not being experienced from years of repression.

Often this is very confusing for a person from a healthy community who engages someone from a stressful community background. Initially the person with practiced amiability may seem quite charming. After interaction, when the healthy citizen seeks trust and respect, he or she is in for quite a surprise. The closer the attempts, the more anxious the other becomes.

Some will use the self-indulgent activities as a defense for anxiety over intimacy. Anxiety may be due to the lack of contentment skills. The activity gets one out of the perceived vulnerable situations, preoccupation to avoid the issues, and most important of all, insecure citizen does not have to deal with the challenges of feared relationships. When this phenomena is unresolved, then eventually, there will be separation and misperception of dubious intentions from the other..

Some defenses are social addictions in nature. In-Group concept can be a means to eliminate the pain of cross-community fears. At the same time these supply a false sense of pleasure. What they really do is deaden the pain of the lack of national protection and give perceived pleasure of security within the smaller community.

When one deals with the issue of In-Group Psychology, one has to go beyond the surface problem. The real issue is the pain and anxiety of national insecurity. Often pain is deeply present because of the person's family and community background.

Therefore, the government and leadership that can reduce the fears also ease the need for small community security sometimes disappears.

Researchers have found that some people are social-addiction resistant. As they researched the citizens, a common factor was found. Many of them came from content nations, and they had deep sense of feeling worthwhile. They had a **positive identity**.

The persons who succumbed to social-addictive systems were different. Often they came from stressful communities and nations. Lacking a positive identity or any identity at all, their resistance was low. The observers of troubled citizens and their leaders said that inevitably the people of troubled areas seldom seemed to smile, and they carried a mental scorecard to keep track of their citizen's failures. They were always critical of their citizens.

Unfortunately, even religion can be used as a defense. On the one hand, it provides a means of getting out of the community and preoccupying oneself. On the other hand, religious experiences can be used to induce pleasure in order to escape pain. Religion, however, was not meant to be used in that fashion.

In Political Psychology, professionals want to walk through pain so that citizens can discover a true positive identity. Oftentimes leadership comfort can go deeper than the pain.

The principles of an unhealthy nation:

- ✦ Trust is at a lower level of suspicion.
- ✦ Belonging is blind loyalty.
- ✦ Joy is having a life preoccupied with activity.
- ✦ Peace is absence of emotion.
- ✦ It is your leader's job to make happiness in the In-Group.
- ✦ It is the other person's fault.
- ✦ If they change, we will be happy.
- ✦ Don't know what others feel!
- ✦ Become emotional or cold and callous!
- ✦ Ignore difference of opinions.
- ✦ Talk about the person, not dialogue.
- ✦ Bring up past failures to help the other person understand how wrong he/she is.
- ✦ Confront, don't negotiate!
- ✦ Use addictions to lessen pain.

These principles are not painted on the walls, but they are the implicit assumptions that govern relationships between people of a nation. As these assumptions work themselves out, the relationships become more and more strained. **Due to the pain and stress, often as not addictive behaviors will arise to kill the pain.** The nation cannot endure pain.

A person's identity is negatively affected. It can be affected in one of two ways. The first way is that the person will not have a clear, nor positive, picture of who he or she is within the nation. In a chaotic nation neither accurate nor appreciative insights are shared. That being the case the individual at the very best will not have a clear sense of citizenship. At worst, he or she will have a deeply negative instinctive view of who he or she is.

People of a dysfunctional government suffer the fear of rejection, abandonment, and neglect.

With a central symbol of a protective and nourishing government and leadership, the citizens' experiences will be a sense of belonging and commitment to the community and nation.

“Roles”: Citizens of a Dysfunctional Government and Nation

Coping Behaviors

Personality types, traits, behavior patterns and coping strategies of citizens in dysfunctional governments and nations are normal reactions to severe dysfunctions – that become dysfunctional also.

The ROLES

The Lost Citizen	The Scapegoat
The Phantom	The Liberator
The Adjuster Citizens	The Conciliator
The Responsible Citizen	The Amulet
The Nation Champion	The Concierge
The Good Citizen	The Jester
The Radical	The Restorer
The Problem Citizen	The Intimidator
The Acting-Out Citizen	The Last Hope
The National Jerk	

Dysfunction & Roles – „Causes“

Remember, a dysfunctional Nation system is a Nation in which one or both of the primary Concierges were unable to fulfill their Nation responsibilities; or one in which physical, emotional, or sexual abuse was experienced.

Poor or non-existent governing skills: in the common prototypes of a dysfunctional relationship, Nation heads under-function & provide few boundaries and little guidance for their citizens – who are left to fend for themselves.

Others are inconsistent communication, a parent with a mental illness, poverty, or violence/abuse.

Many often violate basic boundaries of appropriate behavior. The results are that Nation members (especially the children) will have profound difficulties both with their own conduct, and their ability to deal with others (social difficulties/problems).

Frequently, the dysfunctional Nation stems from subordination, or other dependences (generational or not).

The problems created tend to be chronic, and even if abuse of economics or delusional infatuation ends, the Nation system that is created will be continued in the citizens of generations to come.

The damage is done to the „inner nation-state“ – it has profoundly devastating effects: In the Dysfunctional Nation and its Citizens with their inconsistent and unpredictable government (being unprotected, neglectful, or rejected to the religious or political differences), negative, destructive citizen interactions result. Within the Nation, citizens develop or assume „roles“ (personality traits and behaviors).

These roles are established in citizens as a defensive means of assuring that the Nation system survives as the dependency, codependency, and dysfunction accelerate. These roles may save the Nation system, but are detrimental to the individual's emotional, social, and psychological health. The role each National member plays is a defense. It covers true feelings and makes communication difficult.

In the Dysfunctional National System, roles limit psycho/social development because individuality is discouraged and “In-Group” role behaviorism is rewarded instead. “What you are” becomes more important than “who you are” – this totally diminishes self-worth (self-esteem).

Each Nation member’s personality is shaped by the dictation of the “In-Group” system, and not through the individual’s own needs, feelings, temperament, and choices.

Dysfunctional Nation member’s perception of themselves, their Nation, and their world is colored by the role the Nation system has bestowed upon them.

***ROLES:** the effects of Dysfunction and Dysfunctional citizens are devastating to the citizens directly or indirectly affected.*

Summary of Roles

Each of the Citizen Types has Social / Political needs for healing, and each type can recover if they are willing to take the risk in believing they can change and heal. Because the personalities of the Nation are mangled, the character traits of the citizens can be equally blurred.

The citizen may have several of the above features at one time, or may play a different role within the Nation at different ages, and depending on who they are responding to.

The patterns that occur are as many and varied as the people themselves. The mistake comes from focusing too much on the individual roles, and failing to see the dynamics of the system as a whole. Most people will note the plight of the poor Scapegoat, or the burden on the Restorer, but tend to focus on an individual, through the lens of their own roles, instead of **learning to think as a system**.

In a Nation or group system, everything affects everything else. **Scapegoat** or **Jester**, **Leader** or **Phantom**, the whole system is affected by each action and presence (or absence). Those who obviously have power are no more important than those who appear to have less power, and **all have equal ability to topple the system**.

The **Liberator** is often (but not always) a younger citizen who uses humor or other distracting behavior, such as being exceptional clumsy or always in trouble, to take the focus of the Nation away from the problems of the Nation dysfunction. If the government is violently influenced by political motives, the **Amulet** may accept the abuse to „save“ the rest of the country, or may be able to use humor at the necessary moment to take everyone’s mind off the pain of their reality.

The **Liberator** is similar to the **Nation Champion**, but without the visible success. The **Liberator** finds those in need, lets them move in or mergers with them or finds a role for them, while supplying other needs and is very understanding of the frequent betrayals. The **Liberator** has a deep-seated self hate that drives them

to their role as a rescuer, because they know that anyone not already at the bottom of the political and social barrel would have nothing to do with them. They tend to feel inadequate in their giving and unable to accept assistance for their own needs.

Like the **Good Citizen**, the **Restorer/Liberator** is constantly trying to smooth things out. They become inter-reliant, one who is fixated on solving others' problems in a way that ignores their own, and allows the others to continue in self-destructive behavior.

As **The Jester**, this citizen keeps him/herself and the Nation distracted by playing the entertainer. The Jester denies that there is any problem, gets attention for him/herself through bringing some joviality into a grim situation, and keeps the emotional pain at a tolerable level.

Later in life the Jester is still distracting group process, often getting strokes for it because they do alleviate a dreary situation, yet they prevent true work from being accomplished. No group would be complete without them, they are often seen as the group's redeemer, yet their fixing is more like an aspirin than a cure. They're the ones we can't live with, and can't live without.

The “Positive” Aspects

It is important to note that people adopt the roles that are best suited to the personalities (some genetics and some learned). What happens with the roles Lebanese adopt in the Nation dynamic is that they get a twisted, jaundice and distorted view of who they are as a result of the citizen personality blending with the roles.

This is dysfunctional – it disables people from seeing themselves clearly. As long as Lebanese are still reacting to an history of wounds and old negative political accounts, then they cannot get in touch clearly with who they really are.

It is important to remember that the false self that develops to survive is never totally false – there is always some Truth in it.

Healing is about getting honest with the self and finding balance in life.

Healing is about seeing self more clearly and honestly, to start being true to self, instead of, to whom or what government wanted citizens to be.

Reacting to the other extreme with Radical behavior, against who government or leaders want citizens to be, is still living life in reaction to inferiority and submission. It is still giving power to how life is lived “in the past” instead of seeing clearly so that **the nation and its people can own their choices** today.

Plea for Contentment and Friendliness

People who grow up in dysfunctional countries remember spontaneous expressions of protection and nourishment. How often were you embraced with nationalism? How easily is it for you to embrace another person from your country but

of a differing In-Group? Sadly, for the adult citizen of dysfunctional nation, the answers are usually „not very often“ and „not very easily.“

For many people, belonging is innate but nurtured: a tool that can be learned. In many ways, one can integrate an habit into one's lifestyle. If you have grown up in a community where you have never heard the words „you are important“, you need to make it a practice and habit to say “you are important“ within your current community and support system. Many governments do not think of telling its citizens that they are significant as a whole; even “In-Group” leaders take their constituent for granted. To modify and adapt this new behavior, one needs to consciously focus on integrating the behavior into life.

Heart wrenching stories are of people growing up in highly dysfunctional countries with a negligent government and a narcissistic self-involved In-Group leader. A story of a woman who was vandalized while traveling was panicky and fearful, rushed to her the government for assistance. The head of the responsible ministry shrieked and scolded her for getting mugged rather than comforting and caring of her.

When people have memories like these, it is very difficult to ask for trust and respect, and therefore no sense of national identity will prevail.

One of the joys in life is the hospitable and friendly relationships with the people we share a country. For so many, this is a learned skill and one that must be sustained and maintained. One of the difficulties people have in recovery from dysfunctional nations is that we learn “twisted thinking”. It is very difficult to get over twisted thinking when you have been conditioned with that negative and non-protective attitude.

In a politically addictive community, there is often a notion that if you encourage a citizen to aspire, one will encourage a „swelled head“. Similarly, if you tell a citizen how important they are, one will foster conceit in the other. This kind of twisted thinking goes on in a dysfunctional community.

In a dysfunctional community, if you tell someone you are appreciated, they will become accustomed to it and just take you for granted. Similarly though, if another person from another country tells you they appreciate you, you will wonder what they want from you. This is also twisted thinking.

The overall climate in many dysfunctional and politically addictive nation is one where celebration and festivity is not encouraged, unless it is within the confines of „social hour“. Citizens are given utilitarian gifts rather than what they want, and the gift-wrapping is often seen as a frivolous expense.

These examples of twisted thinking create confusion and a lack of knowledge about how to create connectedness, support, and friendship in a nation.

The behaviors learned in his **dysfunctional community** include:

- ♣ panic
- ♣ hypersensitivity
- ♣ paranoia
- ♣ fear of rejection, abandonment, neglect

At the same time, working hard on integrate a repertoire of warm and affectionate behaviors among fellow citizens

Combating the baggage from dysfunctional conditioning with active choices including:

- ❖ Telling his fellow citizens that he cares for them
- ❖ Embracing his fellow citizens
- ❖ Complimenting his fellow citizens (not so easy when you grow up in a criticism-only nation)
- ❖ Giving his fellow citizens verbal acknowledgements
- ❖ Showing interest in his fellow citizens
- ❖ Remembering things that are important to his fellow citizens

Developing these skills: start with a written reminder list or a mental checklist. When in doubt about how to behave, simply think how you wish to be treated by others: and “do unto them”.

A good way to begin to integrate contentment and active friendliness in your community and nation is to make an appreciation list of the qualities you admire in your fellow citizens.

APPRECIATION LIST

What do you appreciate about your countrymen? When was the last time you told your partner how much you appreciate them for their loyalty, friendliness, sensuality, competency, resourcefulness, strength, etc? Everyone needs to feel and believe that they are appreciated.

Check off the attributes that embody your fellow citizens’ inner qualities of being. Share this with your nation. Include it within the body of an email or sit your lover down and TELL them in words what you appreciate about them. Do it over dinner or do it on a billboard or on graffiti. Use this list of qualities to extinguish the flames of an argument or to enhance a special occasion public holiday or religious anniversary.

These are the qualities that I appreciate about my fellow citizens:

Loyalty
 Friendliness
 Generosity
 Appreciation of others
 Appreciation of nature
 Competent
 Resourcefulness
 Artistry
 Thoughtfulness

Perseverance
Strength
Experience
Determination
Physical fitness
Sincere
Lovemaking abilities
Sensible
Stylishness
Taste of Class
Expressiveness
Discretion
Warmth
Sensitivity

Empathy
Gentleness
Compassion
Precision
Intelligence
Intuition
Diligence
Creativity
Imagination
Humor
Dependability
Devotion to family
Devotion to career
Devotion to nature
Devotion to environment
Integrity
Ambition
Whimsy
Talent
Flexibility
Handiness
Insightfulness
Softness

Curiosity
Foresight

If you like, add to your fellow citizens' unique inner qualities of being, as well as their outer qualities of doing. Remember things they have done for you, your parents, or grandparents in the past that you appreciate. Let your fellow citizen's know that you **remember stories of their past kindness** and **thank them** for it. **Recognize and acknowledge** their achievements and abilities.

Conflicts do exist in families, communities, nations and regions; yet consolidation can remain. Conflict is a result of miscommunications and misunderstanding. Many times cooperation can be reached with re-interpretation of misperceived intentions, through communicating and understanding true intentions.

When the people of a nation are in a resolution mode, and close; no one can come between them.

“Divided we Fall, United we Stand”

All normal people need and want appreciation and acknowledgement. This exercise will help you re-learn the closeness that once existed among the Citizens of Lebanon: a nation that once was NOT dysfunctional.

Healthy Nation Relations

An healthy nation has three common characteristics. These characteristics describe the atmosphere as well as what goes on in a vigorous Nation. In one sense, these things describe in broadest possible terms how Nation members feel and how they treat each other. The characteristics present in happy and healthy Nations are positive identities, deep friendliness, and contentment skills.

Positive Identities

All of us carry around in our hearts an instinctive picture of ourselves. The picture we have of ourselves developed while we were growing up. Thus, it is very difficult to change in adulthood. The effect of this instinctive picture is immense.

In our growing up years, we related to the family members and community. Continuously, parents and siblings described how they saw us and what they saw inside of us. Their perspectives and opinions enveloped us. As they related to us, they created a picture of ourselves. This picture can be a positive legacy, or sadly, a negative nuisance.

Having worked in many communities of varying ethnic diversity, cultural differences can be marked in this global world. Citizens are treated differently due to gender distinctions.

In the healthy home and nation, a positive and equal affection is extended towards all citizens.

Another instinctive pattern noted in the government is the regard shown between the Nation members. Not only does a citizen learn about himself or herself, the citizen also learns instinctively what the relationship between the genders are, what the relationship between the sects, and what is the relationship between the leadership and the citizens.

The greatest gift a leader can give to the citizens is to demonstrate respect equally to all leaders.

So we see that the self-portrait is painted in a thousand different ways. When it is painted favorably, the citizens have an affectionate and honest picture of themselves imprinted across their minds. By example of the relationship between the leaders, the citizens learn an instinctive respect for the each other. A foundation is placed for the other two elements of an healthy Nation: deep friendliness and the use of contentment skills.

When positive identities are present, then, the individual feels positive about being themselves, there is a strong identity and enjoyment of the role to be played as a national citizen.

Deep Friendliness

Citizens are interesting to observe. When a leader turns to citizens in attentive friendliness, one can almost see the citizen shiver in instinctive delight. Friendliness creates a powerful and positive current within Nation life. A good country is a pleasurable place.

If strong bonds of friendliness exist, the process of confronting and modifying behavior and attitudes of citizens is much easier. When a citizen feels nurtured, standards are more easily enforced. For example, leaders in particular can invest their own hearts in their citizens and not continually provoke angry:

Government must nurture citizens with kindness, a process of citizen guidance and confrontation in harmony with the Nation.

Friendliness turns a country into a nation, it is the cornerstone that holds a community together. Researchers tell us that 80% of communication is non-verbal; the glance of the eyes and the bend of the body and the smile on the face say things that words cannot. Non-verbal communication is created by the friendliness between people. If positive identities exist and deep friendliness abides, the final bonds holding the Nation together are contentment skills.

Contentment Skills

Contentment skills are those abilities healthy and happy citizens use to sustain solidarity. Examples of such skills are multiple: Learning to trust is a skill. Created in a loyal and friendly environment, trust creates friendships and sustains devotion to belongingness. Due to the rising tide of devastation and desertions

by governments and leaders, many individuals have lost that ability to maintain emotional stability and secure a citizens identity and independence.

Other contentment skills are conflict resolution skills. If a citizen cannot resolve differences, they will separate emotionally or even geographically. That is one of the fundamental skills of national identity, along with the capacity to live together or to hold dialogue. Holding a conversation might seem like a simple skill, but people confuse that with problem solving.

Conversation takes place when citizens share their lives. In conversation, sharing the most content moments, as well as the saddest moment, and disclosing ways to not repeat the hurtful and destructive actions once taken. The dialogue needs to be between citizens each day not just “almost Reality TV Politics”.

These basic skills are the bond of associations in a diverse nation. Friendliness and commitment brings citizens together – an healthy identity that will serve as the foundation for citizenship.

These skills will develop -“Effective communications leads to better understanding and fosters cooperation”.

CULTURAL AND LANGUAGE IDENTITY OF MIGRANTS OF THE CZECH ORIGIN FROM THE AREA OF CHERNOBYL

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Abstract. *The study deals with the results of monitoring language and cultural identity of group of countrymen – migrants from the area of Chernobyl, who came back to their homeland as a part of the action of the Czech government in 1991 – 1993 (1806 people) and settled in 56 localities in the Czech republic. The basic tool of transversal – longitudinal research was the questionnaire with the assistance of formalized interview. Having finished the questionnaires we chose various localities (total 12), which respect the structure of settling of migrants. The research sample: 59 males and 64 females from 15 to 65 years. The monitoring proved: 1. Most families respect the Czech traditions (holidays, meals, songs etc.), after moving to the Czech republic we can observe some quality changes (they celebrate holidays which they did not celebrate in Ukraine. Folk songs are popular mainly with older generation). 2. There also come up considerable integration of re-migrants to the major society, mainly with the younger generation, which can be observed in setback of their origin (affiliation to the Czech people in Ukraine): importance: 21% male, 29% female). Communication in Czech language has distinctly improved with the remains of bilingualism (mainly in mixed marriage). They use Czech and Ukraine language at the same degree. Migrants at the age of 15–30 prefer communication in Czech language. The established positive correlation between education and the level of knowledge of Czech language ($r= 0,159$ $p< 0.05$).*

Keywords: *identity; migrants; bilingualism; area of Chernobyl*

INTRODUCTION

The aim of my speech is to present the preliminary results of the longitudinal research in project GAAN ČR. IAA 700580801 – Identity and sociability of migrants from former Soviet Union: following research of organized migrations with the impact on the second generation.

We speak about the migrants of the Czech origin afflicted by the Chernobyl breakdown, who came back to the Czech Republic invited by the Czech government in 1991–93 (altogether 1806 people in 56 regions of the Czech Republic).

Concept of identity as a defence of original, as a congruence of the image ME and its life personification, as a state of solidarity of individual to a specific super individual unit, which comprises also individual perception of time, and personal activity, and national culture, is one of the main topics of social mind of the XX. and XXI. centuries.

Our concept of identity comes out of operating definition of culture as a way of life of a social group, which activity leads to creating material and spiritual values.

In this context cultural identity is an identification of individual with a social group and its values.

In our concept of national identity we come out of differentiation of ethnos and nation.

Ethnos is seen as a social group, which has common culture, but lives outside its homeland. Nation is a cultural group which has a legitimate and moral right to a specific region. (T.K.Ooman, 1994).

Concerning the migrants of the Czech origin from the Chernobyl area, we can say that this group goes through the period of forming the national identity.

METHODOLOGY

The main tool of transversal – longitudinal research was the questionnaire using the formalized interview. After the interviews we chose 12 different localities, which respect the structure of the settlement of the migrants of the Czech origin from Ukraine in the Czech Republic.

The representative sample: 59 men and 64 women from 15 to 65 and more.

During making the outline of the questionnaire we come out of the fact that personal identity comprises of different identifications and is determined by the membership of the individual to various social categories, e.g. race, nationality, sex, proprietary or working group and so on. That is why we can think of set of identities (according to some researchers – characteristics or quality).

For our research we chose the following characteristics:

- ♣ Ethnical
- ♣ Familial
- ♣ Lingual
- ♣ Religious
- ♣ Socio-cultural
- ♣ Working
- ♣ Regional

Questions for the research of the language and cultural identity:

1. Do you carry on the Czech folk traditions?
2. What significance for you is the fact that your family belongs to emigrants from the former Soviet Union?
3. In your family you usually speak: mostly Czech, mostly Ukrainian (Russian), both the same.
4. My level of the Czech language: I can fluently speak. I can read and speak, I can write without mistakes, I can only understand
5. My level of the Ukrainian: I can read and speak, I can write without mistakes, I can only understand
6. Do you read books, magazines or newspapers in Czech? (sometimes, often, never)
7. Do you read books, magazines, newspapers in Ukrainian? (sometimes, often, never)
8. Have you been to Ukraine or other parts of the former Soviet Union? (I have been there once, I have been there several times, I have not been there since I moved, but I would like to go there for a visit)

INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS

1. In most families they carry on the Czech folk traditions (holy days, food, songs, etc.)

After having moved to the Czech Republic we can observe some qualitative changes (Christmas, name days etc.)

Folk songs and brass music are popular with the older generation

Traditional Czech meals are replenished by Ukrainian and Russian meals

2. We can observe a distinct integration of the migrants to the major society, especially within the younger generation.
 - Decrease of importance of origin (the Czech ethnic group in Ukraine)
 - important for 21% of men, and 29% of women

– Improvement in communication in the Czech language with the preserving of bilingualisms (especially in mixed marriages), they use Czech and Ukrainian in the same degree

25% of men, 33% of women from the all respondents

15–20 years 80% males 100% females – mostly Czech language

21–30 let 94% m 70% f

Observed positive correlation between education and the level of knowledge of the Czech language: $r = 0,159$ $p < 0.05$

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EFFECTS OF OBSERVED MATING PATTERNS ON MEN'S MATE PREFERENCES

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***Abstract.** Literature on psychology of mating has shown that men's long-term and short-term mate preferences, tendencies for extra-pair relationships, parental investment levels can be predicted by factors such as body and facial symmetry, testosterone levels and mate-value. Although, there is a growing literature studying the effects of these biological factors on mating behavior, the conditional effects such as ecological sex-ratio, the level of intra-sex competition or observations on mating patterns are not deeply investigated. This study aims to understand the effects of observed mating patterns on men's mate preferences. Male participants were shown matched women photos and men personal ads varying in terms of attractiveness for pictures and status for ads according to experimental condition. Participants were instructed to observe and then estimate these mating patterns represented by women pictures and men personal ads matchings, and to indicate their own mate preference by choosing a women photo in the last phase of the experiment. The results showed an interaction effect, as men's mate preferences were affected by the mating patterns when they were shown low status personal ads matching with high or low attractiveness photos. This interaction effect got stronger when the morphological measures of testosterone (2D:4D) were controlled for.*

***Keywords:** mate preferences; facultative strategies in mating*

INTRODUCTION

The studies on human mating has come to a line that it is convincingly shown that men and women use certain criteria in their mate choices. There is a broad and comprehensive literature on various aspects of mating behavior that uncovers the forces guiding men and women in mating arena. It is shown that while men seek for

the signs of youth and beauty in women, women seek the signs of status and access to resources in men (Buss, 1994, 2008; Palmer & Palmer, 2002). These differences in focus between men and women in mate choosing lies mainly in biological factors which has shaped the cognitive mechanisms in this area through sexual selection (Buss, 2008; Mealey, 2000; Rathus, Nevid & Fichner-Rathus, 2008). More precisely, the psychological mechanisms of mating behavior in both men and women were shaped by their reproductive gears through evolutionary history.

The differences in biological backgrounds also corresponds to the strategies used by men and women in mating behavior. With various studies it has been shown that men's mate preference towards young and attractive females has adaptive function as youth and attractiveness in women highly correlated to health and reproductive advantages (Symons, 1995). According to Buss (1994) these tendencies are the product of human male's long evolutionary history, and thus the selection process has favored the males who are sensitive to the morphological and behavioral cues conveying information about youth and beauty of possible mates. Men's mating preference for the women who are attractive and young is a human universal, since there is no human group, tribe, nation or culture that pays premium on non attractive and old women as a mating partner (Buss, Abbott, Angleitner, Asherian, Biaggio, et. al.,1990). Human universals are the predispositions or tendencies which are governed by the evolved polygenic characteristics (Gaulin & McBurney, 2001) that in turn produces obligate behavioral traits. Therefore, men's mate preference and desire for young and beautiful would promote his reproductive success on average.

Women's mate preferences have also been shaped by similar evolutionary processes. However, because the human female is a species that reproduces by internal fertilization, and the womb is the area that conception takes place, women focus on different aspects of mating behavior. A possible conception is followed by a long gestation period which takes more than 275 days. A human newborn needs a spacial care for relatively long time from a main care giver, who is generally the mother, to survive. Women also differ from men in regard of the number of reproductive cells they produce. A sexually mature woman may produce an ovum in a 28-day period until she reaches a period called menopause when she no longer produces any ova. She would produce about 400 reproductive cells throughout her life span. Taking these issues into consideration we conclude that the female investment for reproduction is much higher as opposed to her male counterpart whose contribution may be limited to a sperm cell. In woman case, reproductive success depends on both gene quality of the partner and his willingness to open his resources such as time, energy, protection, and psychological and material support to her. Therefore a male with a good status which signals a better support for the mother and the newborn would promote her reproductive success on average (Buss, 2008).

These biological differences between the sexes are the underlying processes that shape the differences in mating strategies throughout the male's and female's evolutionary history. Thus, the sex differences in mating strategies are considered as the productions of obligate polygenic traits.

On the other hand, one third of the human genome is to produce facultative or contextual phenotypes, and most of the behavioral adaptations in human are in facultative nature. Facultative behaviors are highly susceptible to the environmental changes that take place during the life span of an individual. The environmental changes may be of physical or social. The responsive design of human mind to environmental changes gives a flexibility to the mating strategies of men and women in an efficient and utilitarian manner.

Several contextual effects have been studied on mating behavior. Some examples include, own mate value (Little, Penton-Voak, Burt, & Perrett, 2002), operational sex ratio (Kenrick & Keefe, 1992; Miller & Fishkin, 1997; Pedersen, 1991), intra-sexual competition level (Todd & Miller, 1999), testosterone level (Buss, 2008), and menstrual cycle (Penton-Voak & Perrett, 2000). As of the mating strategy differences mentioned above, facultative effects for men and women are different in nature, too. Testosterone level, which can be measured by morphological indicators as 2D:4D ratio (Manning, 2002) and facial masculinity (Apicella, Dreber, Campbell, Gray, Hoffman, & Little, 2008), is founded to be highly predictive of various sexual-related behaviors in men; and menstrual cycle is an important predictor of mate preferences and sexual-related behavior in women. Men who have higher facial masculinity ratios or lower 2D:4D ratios and therefore higher testosterone levels, have more sexual partners (Hönekopp, Voracek, & Manning, 2006) and are found to be perceived more attractive (Roney & Maestripieri, 2004). On the other hand, women's preferences for characteristics in potential mate changes through menstrual cycle; tending to be more attracted to more masculine males in the most fertile follicular phase of their cycle (Penton-Voak & Perrett, 2000). Besides, the changes in sex ratio (Buss, 2008) effects male's and female's mating strategies in different ways. While, the increasing number of males to females give women more chance of getting higher investment and monogamous relationships; the increasing number of females to males brings out low levels of paternal investment and men's preference of variety of sexual partners (Guttentag & Secord, 1983; Pedersen, 1991).

The present study aims to investigate the effects of observed mating patterns on men's mate preferences. Taking a step more on the findings that men's satisfaction level with their current mates are effected by viewing attractive female pictures (Kenrick, Guterres, & Goldberg, 1989), setting more and higher criteria as their available resources increase (Li, Bailey, Kenrick, & Linsemeier) or lowering this criteria as their chances for an actual mating chance decreases (Gladue & Delaney, 1990; Nida & Koon, 1983; Pennebaker, Dyer, Caulkins, Litowixz, Ackerman,

& Anderson, 1979); our study focuses on the possible effects of the observations of matings – or matching pairs – a male experiences. The characteristics of this male-female matchings may be providing some clues to the observer, in order to adjust his strategies in a more beneficial and efficient way. As human mind is designed to produce solutions to adaptive problems with the least possible energy consumed and the most possible beneficial outcome obtained, observing the information available in the environment – including others behavior – and using this information in a utilitarian way becomes crucial (Gigerenzer & Goldstein, 1996; Todd, 2007). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that human males' mate preferences may be effected by the mating patterns they observe in their environment. In order to test this hypothesis, an experimental study was designed and male participants were exposed to several male-female matchings according to their experimental conditions and were asked to make a mate choice after the manipulation procedure.

METHODOLOGY

PARTICIPANTS

Eighty-three freshman students from various departments of Izmir University of Economics participated in the study. Eight participants were removed from the analysis for not completing the experiment or failure at following instructions. Mean age of the participants was 20.59 (*s.d.*=1.9) and range for the age was 18–26.

PROCEDURE

Pilot Study I

The aim of the pilot study 1 (p.s.1) was to identify the attractiveness level of women pictures to be used in the experiment. Four different sets of women pictures were rated by eighty participants. Each set included thirty women picture and were rated by twenty participants. The participants rated in ten points scale. All pictures were standardized in color and size. The pictures were taken from websites like “HotorNot” and “Flickr”. The results of p.s.1 provided women pictures to be assigned to high and low levels of attractiveness in the experiment.

Pilot Study II

The aim of the pilot study 2 (p.s.2) was to identify the status level of men's ads to be used in the experiment. Sixty ads were gathered from mating websites and prepared to be rated in terms of status. The participants were asked four questions to estimate men's status, income, status in the future and welfare from their ads. Two hundred forty participants filled the questionnaires. Six sets of questionnaires in-

cluding ten ads were prepared and each set was filled by forty participants. Half of these participants were men and the other half were women. The results of p.s.2 designated high and low levels of status in the experiment.

Experiment

Participants received a consent form which also included a brief explanation of the study and a questionnaire form at the arrival to the laboratory. The aim of the study was explained as an investigation on romantic relationships over internet. The questionnaire form included some demographic questions (gender, age, monthly expenditure etc.) which were bogus questions aimed to make the bogus evaluation of the participant in the latter phases of the experiment more convincing. After completion of the questionnaire form, morphological measures of testosterone levels were measured by both 2D:4D and facial masculinity ratios. Participants were taken into an isolated laboratory room and both hands were scanned by a scanner for 2D:4D ratio and facial photographs were taken in fixed light and background conditions in order to obtain facial masculinity ratio. In the final phase of the experiment, participants were taken into isolated rooms with computers and instructed to complete the experiment program designed in DirectRT.

The computer program included 7 phases. The first 4 phases and the sixth phase of the experiment were designed to carry out the experimental manipulation. Participants were shown certain mating patterns according to assigned experimental condition. Four experimental conditions were constructed by attractiveness levels of women's facial pictures (high vs. low) and status levels of men's personal ads (high vs. low). Participants assigned to high status condition were shown matchings of men ads rated as high in p.s.2 with women facial pictures rated as high in p.s.1 in high attractiveness condition and women facial pictures rated as low in p.s.1 in low attractiveness condition. Participants assigned to low status condition were shown matchings of men ads rated as low in p.s.2 with women facial pictures rated as high in p.s.1 in high attractiveness condition and women facial pictures rated as low in p.s.1 in low attractiveness condition.

In the first phase of the experiment participants were instructed that they were to see some personal ads produced by men in various mating websites and the facial pictures of women who responded to that particular personal ad. Participants were shown 7 matchings of women facial pictures with men's personal ads according to the experimental condition on the screen, and instructed to simply observe all the matchings. All pairs were shown for 20 seconds.

The second phase included 4 trials of matching guesses. In each guessing trial one man's personal ad and three women facial pictures were provided on the screen and participants were asked to guess which one of the women they thought answered the particular ad on that trial. Their answers were taken through the computer program and recorded. In this phase, on each trial, only one of the wom-

en facial pictures out of three corresponded to the experimental condition, which was the right answer for that trial.

Third phase of the experiment repeated the first phase and fourth phase repeated the second phase with different women facial pictures and men's personal ads, again according to the experimental condition assigned.

The fifth phase included another bogus task in order to make the participants' bogus evaluation by the computer more convincing in the next phase of the experiment. In this phase, participants were asked to write their own personal ads as if they were writing for a mating website. They were asked to write down the characteristics they thought to describe them best in sentences to the given box in the screen and their answers were recorded.

In the sixth phase of the experiment, participants were told that the computer was calculating some probabilities according to the information collected from the participant throughout the experiment and will give a result after the calculations. They were told to observe the right answers of the guessing trials (according to their assigned condition) on phase 2 and 4 while the computer continued the calculations.

In the last phase of the experiment, participants were told that the computer completed the calculations and provided some possibilities of answering the participant's personal ad for several women who have recently been using these mating websites. Participants were provided 8 women facial pictures changing in terms of attractiveness as rated in p.s.1 and -the possibility of replying their personal ad in terms of percentage below the pictures. The possibilities of replying the participants message increased as the attractiveness of the women's facial pictures decreased with a fixed interval, as rated in p.s.1. All of the participants received the same facial pictures with the same replying possibilities beneath each picture. Participants were asked to choose one of the provided women pictures which they would like to send a message using all information provided (attractiveness and possibility of return) in this phase. Participants' choices were recorded by the computer program and they were informed that the experiment has ended. Before leaving the laboratory, participants were debriefed and thanked.

RESULTS

In order to test the hypothesis that men's mate preferences are effected by the observed mating patterns in accordance with the experimental conditions, a series of analysis were conducted. A 2 (attractiveness: high vs. low) x 2 (status: high vs. low) ANOVA was conducted to test this hypothesis. The results of this analysis showed a significant interaction between attractiveness and status ($F_{(1,71)}=3.99, p=.049, \eta^2=.05$). The effect size and level of significance increased when the right hand

2D:4D ratio was added to the analysis as a covariate ($F_{(1,70)}=6.23, p=.015, \eta^2=.08$). Facial masculinity measures did not have a significant effect as a covariate on the interaction results.

The results showed that the preferences of the participants in the high status condition did not differ significantly depending on the low ($x=5.62, s.d.=1.15$) and high ($x=5.15, s.d.=1.56$) attractiveness conditions, while the preferences of the participants in the low status condition differed significantly between the high and low attractiveness conditions. In the low status condition, participants' preferences for attractiveness who were in the high attractiveness condition ($x=5.95, s.d.=1.23$) were significantly higher than the participants' preferences for attractiveness who were in the low attractiveness condition ($x=4.95, s.d.=2.15$).

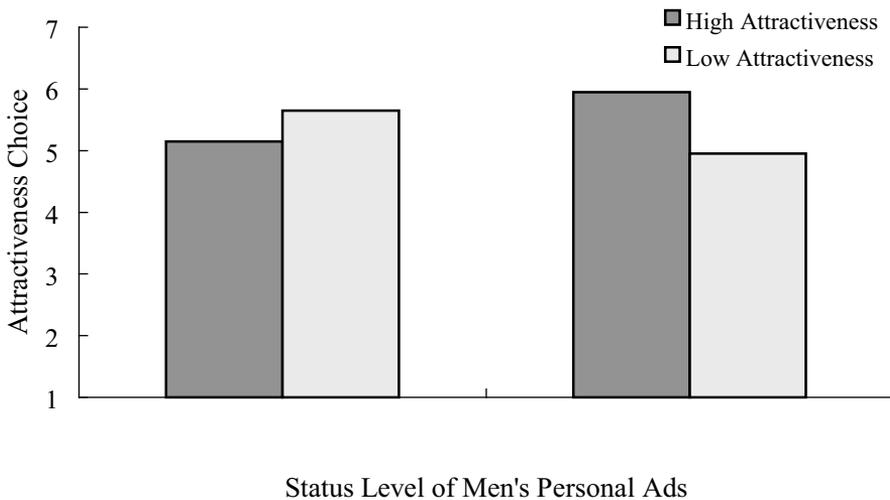


FIGURE 1. MEANS OF ATTRACTIVENESS CHOICES BY EXPERIMENTAL CONDITIONS

DISCUSSION & CONCLUSIONS

The present study points out to the phenomenon that human cognition is subject to the utilization of heuristics in mating arena too, like it has been widely studied and shown in many social and non-social aspects of human reasoning and decision making. As a social species, humans live in a highly complex and inconstant environment which demands flexible strategies that are able to keep or even increase adaptive advantages of the occupant. The enormous size of information changing by interaction with other agents in the social world of the person, is unavailable for him/her by the limits of both time and cognitive capacity. This is

the main reason, consulting other agents' behaviors, while taking various characteristics of situation or the agent into consideration, and trying to take the best possible outcome is more adaptive.

The results of the present study has important limitations. Most importantly, in order to investigate the effects of observed mating patterns on the observers mating behaviors needs to take more factors that may be intervening in the process in to consideration. Utilization of heuristics mainly relies on usage of several enviromental clues and past experiences in a given condition. As humans differ in characteristics and some of these differences include a supremacy relation, not every possible behavior or decision results with the same outcomes for every person. Humans differ in many characteristics like mate value, masculinity-femininity, social status level or attractiveness, possession of resources and social bonds, and past experiences in mating. These are important factors that may effect the decision of the person observing agents. The observer may compare his characteristics on several dimensions related to mating success with the agents involved and make a decision. Simultaneously, observer's some characteristics such as testosterone level may be a factor setting the level of consulting others' behaviors in mating arena. These individually differing factors should be taken into account in future research in order to understand the pointed out mechanisms more comprehensively.

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A STRUCTURAL DYNAMIC MODEL OF INTERPERSONAL TOLERANCE

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***Abstract.** The paper presents an original structural dynamic model of interpersonal tolerance which includes a three-level scheme of the process of tolerant reacting to a partner in communication, the main mechanisms, stages and elements of tolerance in interpersonal interaction. The critical dialogue is regarded as one of basic manifestations of tolerance in interpersonal communication. The main mechanisms are claimed as a model of interaction of basic mechanisms of interpersonal tolerance which describes as emotional cognitive dissonance, self-determination and coping. The author introduces the notion of «emotional cognitive dissonance» and argues its usefulness with reference to the problem of tolerance mechanisms. A model of reinforced motivation explains manifestations of genuine interpersonal tolerance as different from pseudo-tolerance or intolerance which are characterized by dominance of unconscious motivation and by «partial» motivation rather than a whole system of motives. Some psychological factors determining intolerant reaction are considered as opposed to tolerant behavior in situations of interpersonal communication. As the most important intrapsychic reasons of intolerant reaction the author singles out intrapersonal conflict, character of emotional experience in the process of interaction, peculiarities of social perception, estimation and interpretation of communication context, and actualization of concrete mechanisms of psychological protection.*

***Keywords:** interpersonal tolerance, emotional cognitive dissonance, self-determination, coping, critical dialogue*

INTRODUCTION

The problem of interpersonal tolerance in modern socio-cultural context becomes more and more urgent. This situation is determined by the fact that in modern psychology interpersonal tolerance is understood as a necessary characteristic and a criterion of professionalism and maturity of the specialists of helping professions (social workers, psychologists, counselors, psychotherapists and others). For this reason an important task of modern professional education is to reveal those conditions, means and methods that make it possible to form and develop interpersonal tolerance, projecting the final image (ideal model), which underlies the transformation of tolerance into the integral personality quality.

Objective and Background

The aim of this work is to make the theoretical structural-dynamic model of interpersonal tolerance. Developing the model of interpersonal tolerance we use the publications of foreign and Russian philosophers which reveal the fundamental aspects of the notion of "tolerance", such as axiological, anthropological, epistemological, ontological and praxiological ones (King, 1971; Mendus, 1989; Yovel, 199) & et al.; Valitova, 1996; Zolotuhin, 2006 & et al.). We also base our work on the research dedicated to different types of tolerance, its functions, phenomenology, formation and development (Asmolov, 2000; 2004; Bratchenko, 2003 & et al.). The ideas of Russian psychologists about the role of professionally important qualities in the work of specialists are also of great importance for the model creation (Bodalev, 1998; Derkach, 2000 & et al.). The important predisposition to making interpersonal tolerance model was the integration of several ideas of the following psychological fields: the psychology of relationships, cognitive psychology (Festinger, 1957; N. Frijda, 2002; Scherer, 2000 & et al.), problems of social identity (Gergen, 1987; Tajfel & Turner 1985; Shamir, 1990 & et al.) and also coping psychology (Folkman, 1984; Lazarus, Smith, 1988 & et al.).

The components of the model of interpersonal tolerance

The structural dynamic model of interpersonal tolerance includes:

- 1) three-level tolerance structure;
- 2) the schema of tolerant response to the communication partner. This process includes the way the other person is perceived in the case of tolerant or intolerant behaviour;
- 3) the model of intensified motivation of interaction between basic mechanisms of interpersonal tolerance;
- 4) stages and elements of interpersonal tolerance;
- 5) the characteristics of critical dialogue as one of the forms of interpersonal tolerance.

In this work we would like to pay attention to three components of interpersonal tolerance model: 1) three-level tolerance structure, 3) the model of intensified motivation of interaction between basic mechanisms of interpersonal tolerance, 4) stages and elements of interpersonal tolerance.

Definition of construct “Interpersonal tolerance”

We define interpersonal tolerance as a complicated systematic process of realized intra- and inter- psychological activity which includes self-determination and the mobilization of psychological resources (coping). Its aim is overcoming Emotional-Cognitive Dissonance. This process is determined by strengthened motivation aimed at creating dialogical helping relations with the Other person. Such relations provide mutual positive changes (self-development) in members of this process.

Peculiar features of interpersonal tolerance.

Tolerance does not appear constantly. It appears only in those situations which are connected with antagonism in interpersonal relations.

Antagonism as a discrepancy that could be seen at cognitive, affective and behavioral levels of people who are having a communication.

Being aware of these differences is accompanied with:

- a) denying their existence in the other person,
- b) experiencing disapproval, disgust, aversion,
- c) acting towards the other person. These actions could both be expressed in an open way (e.g. insulting, avoiding, etc.) and be suppressed or repressed.

Therefore the main function of tolerance could be seen as the development of tolerance from a potentially conflict situation towards a constructive solution. At the same time tolerance (basing on its different definitions) is nothing but readiness to understand and to start a dialogue with a person causing negative reaction, on the basis of “respect, acceptance, openness, attention”, etc. Thus we can say that in particular the content of tolerance and *the very moment of turning “negative” into “positive”* could be regarded as a *psychological specificity of tolerance*.

THREE-LEVEL TOLERANCE STRUCTURE

Structural – dynamic model consists of three main levels of interpersonal tolerance existence and manifestation. *The first level – the dispositional one* – is the level of personality value and meaning system and fundamental sets. The most important element of this level is the system of relationships with the world and

with other people. To be more specific, it is the system of personality relationships, represented by interpretational schemata and practical ways of interaction with the other person – with a foe (that is activity aimed at changing the communication partner) is the fundamental determinant of direction, quality, force, selectivity, situational factors, limited or unlimited tolerance in the interpersonal communication. The first level belongs to stable basic layers of inner mental life of a person. At the same time it is open to the informational streams from the outer world.

The second level is the reflexive one. It could be defined as the area of direct reaction to the external situation „now and at the moment“. This level includes both the layers of unconscious sets, cognitions, stereotypes, etc., which mediate reflexive thinking, and the field of consciousness, of reflexive processes. It is exactly at this level where the process of social perception takes place. In our opinion this process is one of the most fundamental manifestations of tolerant/intolerant perception of the communication partner.

The third level concerns the behavioural reactions. This level proper means the concrete act of tolerant response of various behaviours. For instance, it could be the form of critical dialogue, of assertive behaviour (behaviour based on the ability to stand up for one's point of view, to achieve one's goal, respecting the partner without breaking the relationships with him) in various types of joint interaction.

THE MODEL OF INTENSIFIED MOTIVATION OF BASIC MECHANISMS OF INTERPERSONAL TOLERANCE

There were certain important predispositions to the elaboration of interpersonal tolerance model. They were different ideas of Russian and foreign philosophers, psychologists and psychotherapists. As an example let's take King (1971), a classical author of the philosophy of tolerance. He defined tolerance as the denial of intolerance. According to his position tolerance means holding in hostility together with a delayed negative reaction or replacing it by a more positive answer. This definition brings us to two levels of tolerance: the first level means delaying negative reaction, the second one states readiness of a person to understand, carry on a dialogue with a person that causes negative reaction.

In our opinion one of the basic mechanisms of interpersonal tolerance is Emotional-Cognitive Dissonance (ECD) that can appear in particular situations in communication process. Tolerance is an intermediary stage between intolerance and accepting client as he or she is. The author's concept of ECD is based on Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory and is considered to be a fundamental mechanism of tolerance actualization in interpersonal communication. ECD manifests itself in growing internal pressure as a result of contradictions in

a person's affective and cognitive spheres during his/her interaction with a partner.

We define *Emotional-Cognitive Dissonance* as an integral mental cognitive-affective state experienced by a psychologist in the process of interaction with a client. This state is characterized by a discrepancy between emotional and cognitive levels and/or between emotions and cognitions and is seen as a threat to his Self-concept.

ECD appears as a result to the specific situation of interaction with a client and is expressed first of all in the growth of inner tension.

As we see it this tension is discovered in becoming aware of inconsistency of two differently directed tendencies, which are expressed in the following *discrepancy*:

- ♣ *perceiving the other person which results in negative emotions and feelings towards the client in every particular situation, the assessment and categorization of the person;*
- ♣ *perceiving oneself* (negative emotions towards oneself, negative self-esteem, which are based on fundamental positive personal and professional predispositions, that are concerned with client's help and support).

At the same time ECD serves as *double motivation*, operating as a special type of *motivation*: emotional and cognitive one which provides the actualization of tolerant or intolerant attitude towards the client.

Now let's consider the psychological definition of the notion of *Emotional-Cognitive Dissonance*.

Almost all the researches of cognitive dissonance mention that it appears as a reaction to the threat to Self-concept. The analysis shows that factors responsible for the appearance of cognitive dissonance could be summarily reduced to one fundamental factor: *the discrepancy between Self-concept and any influence (internal or external), perceived as a threat* (Festinger, 1957; Steele & et al., 1993; Thibodeau & Aronson, 1992 et al.).

It is known that the danger of dissociation of Self-concept activates defense mechanisms. In our arguments the main role is given to emotions which appear while perceiving the partner of communication and the influences from him.

In our opinion the second basic mechanism of interpersonal tolerance could be defined as the personality self-determination.

The process of self-determination provides the following functions:

- ♣ *the awareness of cognitive-emotional dissonance, realising the alternative to cease or to continue the relationships, the ability to coordinate the „internal“ and „external“ conditions;*
- ♣ *actualizing the need in positive integral (personal and professional) identity;*

- ◆ *self-determination as self-activity*: studying and resolving the conflicts, taking an active part in accepting and manifesting inner professional position as the basis for further activity.

Thus it is self-determination, being one of the basic tolerance mechanisms, provides specialists of helping professions with conscious and meaningful personality choice. This choice highly depends on the importance and value of aims and goals of professional activity. Self-determination as a reflexive mechanism of interpersonal tolerance correlates with cognitive-emotional dissonance (the first mechanism) and with “coping” (the third mechanism), contributing to the increase of genuine tolerance motivation.

As tolerance means “overcoming”, transferring the positive into the negative, the third mechanism of interpersonal tolerance – “coping” – is of great importance.

We understand “coping” as a dynamic process of the personality interaction with contextual-environmental factors. This process is flexible and adaptable. It presupposes purposefulness (unlike defense mechanisms) and makes it possible to overcome the internal dissonance, providing the choice of adaptive and adequate behavioural strategies (see Livneh, & et al (2000), Smith (1991) & et al.). The main function of “coping” is managing internal and external personality resources. We suppose that while managing the resources, basing on the conscious choice of genuine tolerance, the specialist of helping profession solves three main tasks: the *transformation* of sets, internal *integration* and *mobilization* of value and meaning characteristics together with the motivational ones. The function of „coping“ provides the „accumulation“ of internal and external factors into integral hierarchical range of resources. This makes it possible for the interpersonal tolerance to get the direction and force for the positive dynamics.

As a result the personality is able to perform *decentration* from oneself to the communication partner, perceiving him as a significant, full member of dialogic relationships. To summarize we suggest *the model of intensified motivation of the interaction of interpersonal tolerance mechanisms* and the definition of interpersonal tolerance basing on this model (Fig. 1).

In the case of genuine tolerance as a result of the interaction between three tolerance mechanisms both with each other and with the personality core (value and meaning sphere) there is motivational strengthening. It happens as a result of stimuli integration coming from each of the interpersonal tolerance mechanisms. Any of them does not only bring in the motivational component, but interacting with other mechanisms takes part in the integration of all the personality resources (internal and external ones), aiming at the transformation of inner conditions to manifest genuine tolerance.

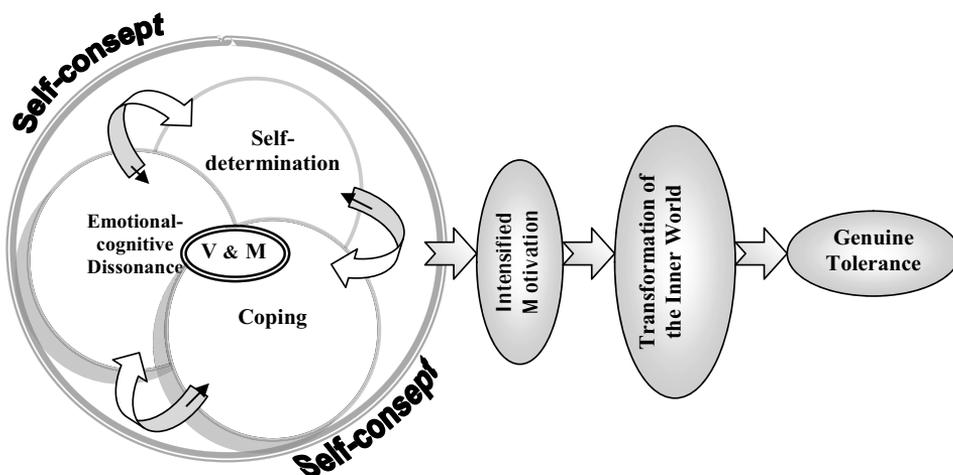


FIGURE 1. THE MODEL OF INTENSIFIED OF THE INTERACTION OF INTERPERSONAL TOLERANCE MECHANISMS (V & M: values and meanings)

STAGES AND ELEMENTS OF INTERPERSONAL TOLERANCE

We suggest distinguishing four main stages containing different elements in the process of interpersonal tolerance (see Fig.2).

We propose calling the first stage „activation“. It includes the following elements:

- 1) *antagonism* in interpersonal interaction;
- 2) *categorizing* and assessing the partner which go together with the discrepancy between the standard and the perceived reality;
- 3) experiencing negative emotions (that could be rationalized as unacceptance, disapproval, disgust, etc.) towards the communicative partner – *affectation*.

We should note that points 2 and 3 do not show cause-effect relationship. These characteristics are manifested simultaneously and inseparably.

The first stage is actually the general one, as in the case of showing tolerant or intolerant relationships.

The second stage, named „reflexive“, presupposes the reflexion of antagonism (the awareness of one’s negative emotions and categorizing the other person), determining the main element of this stage, that is *self-determination*.

- 4) *dissonance* – the discrepancy between the stable system of values and sets towards the others and the situational categorization of the other person. As a result negative emotions towards oneself may appear.
- 5) the *actualization* of need in positive identity;
- 6) self-determination as self-activity – it is the choice of conscious position (K. Abulkhanova-Slavskaya, A. Brushlinskij, S. Roubinstein, V. Safin et al.).

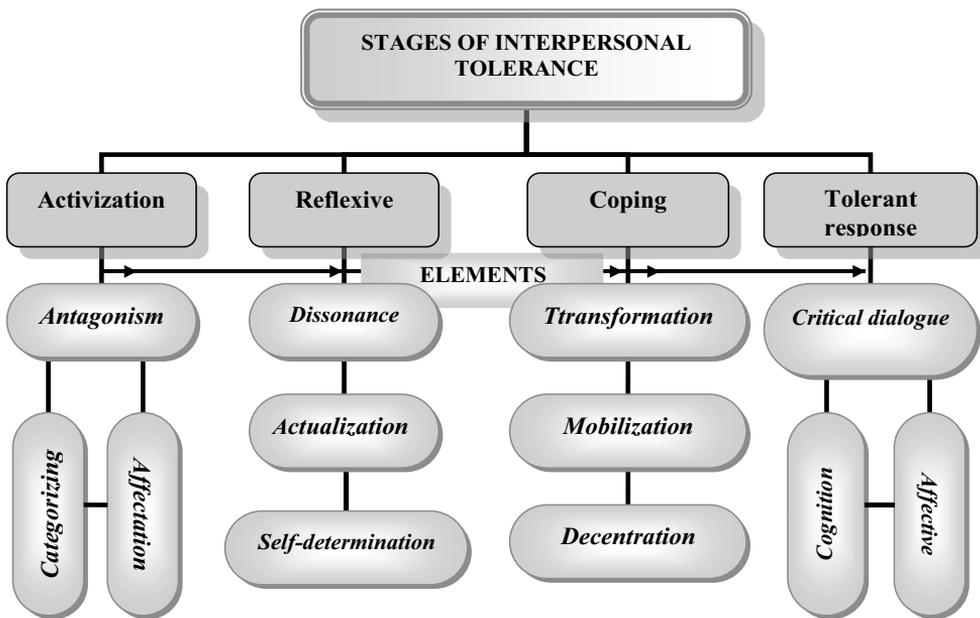


FIGURE 2. STAGES AND ELEMENTS OF INTERPERSONAL TOLERANCE

The third stage of “coping” comprises the following elements:

- 7) „*transformation*“ as the inner control reaction which means transform- ing and managing internal and external resources;
- 8) *mobilization* of transformed resources;
- 9) *decentration* from oneself to the communicative partner.

The forth stage is „tolerant response“. It is carried out, for example, in the form of the critical dialogue.

- 10) *Critical dialogue* as one of the means for tolerance realization could be seen as the unity of affective and cognitive elements, which include a range of peculiarities.

According to V.A. Lektorsky (1997) tolerance becomes possible because the communication participants are aimed at mutual change of positions as a result of critical dialogue.

Critical dialogue includes cognitive content (information analysis, reflexion about estimations, interpretations, etc.) and affective content (emotions and feelings awareness, congruence, empathy, etc.). We propose that genuine tolerance results from partners' centering on relationships, dialogue, interlocution and de-centering from oneself to the partner. Such tolerance contributes to mutual development of communication partners.

DISCUSSION

The idea of this work is to create the structural-dynamic model of interpersonal tolerance and also to prove empirically some of the hypotheses concerning the phenomenology of this model.

The results of theoretical analysis and some of our research proved the forecasting role of this model, in particular, they managed to demonstrate the role of cognitive emotional dissonance in the process of tolerant behaviours, the interconnections of interpersonal tolerance with such important professional qualities such as empathy, communicational set, acceptance, aggression and others.

It is reasonable that the further research proving the interpersonal tolerance model is necessary and it is to be done not as an empirical research but first of all by the means of experiments which study interpersonal tolerance in situations close to real life.

CONCLUSIONS

The tolerant attitude is an important intermediate step in the process of professional work of a psychologist and another specialists. Therefore, understanding the factors that influence its expression will contribute to the effectiveness of therapy.

The empirical research data have shown that intensity of ECD has a direct correlation with the general level of protective mechanisms intensity, with the negative attitude in dialogue, with intolerant communicative behavior and a low level of empathy of student-psychologists of different age.

Emphasizing the importance of tolerance in the process of communication, we would cite a famous Russian physiologist A. Uhtomsky (1997, p. 209) as an example: “Every new person is a new discovery. It’s a new content of the opening truth. It’s a new piece of a live truth. The more he contradicts with you, the better. It means that he calls you from your bounded and balanced, stated abstraction to something new, not appreciated yet”.

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SYSTEMATIC AND COMPREHENSIVE INVESTIGATION OF SITUATIONAL ANTECEDENTS OF EMBARRASSMENT AND OTHER SOCIO-MORAL EMOTIONS

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Abstract. *The primary aim of our study was to seek out if the taxonomy of embarrassment antecedents and associated qualitative data analysis grid proposed by Rowland Miller (1992; 1996) is valid considering Romanian data. For achieving this, Romanian teens (N=138) were asked to recall the last moment they experienced embarrassment. The 24 entry grid proposed by Miller (1996) was used for sorting out and grouping embarrassment antecedents. While applying the grid it became evident that it is too tight to account for sample idiosyncrasies. It was, also, found that it is restrictive in ruling out instances of shame and guilt mislabeled as embarrassment. After changing the coding procedure in line with that proposed by Keltner & Buswell (1996) we were able more easily and accurately to analyze the data. In the process of data analysis we reached some interesting practical and methodological conclusions that are important when doing research on self-consciousness emotions.*

INTRODUCTION

Lately one can see a revitalization and rapid growth of psychologists' interest in investigating the emotional side of the human being. This is visible also in social psychology, where one can see a return of the interest in investigating social emotions. Several social emotions – *shame, guilt, embarrassment, pride and vanity* – have enjoyed increased attention from researchers (Tracy, Robins & Tangney, 2007; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Labeled differently – most often as *emotions involving self awareness* (Tangney, Miller, Flicker, & Barlow, 1996, Tracy & Robins, 2007) but also appreciated as *moral emotions* (Haidt, 2003) or *social-moral emotions* (Keltner & Buswell, 1996) – all are a common attribute of the everyday social life of the individual.

Noting that in the area of the psychosocial research of emotions there is little national interest, we have decided to start a series of exploratory research studies. The study reported here is part of this programmatic effort of investigating emotions which involve self awareness in case of Romanian population. We started by collecting and systematizing narratives where Romanians feel embarrassed. In addition to obtaining initial data, we also intended to see whether and to what extent the triggering antecedents of embarrassment already described and summarized in the literature (Miller, 1992, 1992, Keltner & Buswell, 1996) are also applicable for a Romanian group.

We will start by specifying how we understand and define the other frequently associated social-moral emotions – shame and guilt.

Then we will briefly show what previous research showed on the situational factors that trigger embarrassment.

Finally we will describe the manner in which we have obtained narratives on recent embarrassing experiences of a group of teenagers, their analysis and main results and conclusions.

Negative self-consciousness emotions

Embarrassment is part, along with shame and guilt, of “*negative self-consciousness emotions*” (Tangney et al. 1996, p. 1264, see also Tracy & Robins, 2007). The key feature of these emotions is that, due to *various normative transgressions*, usually attributed to the individual, one’s self is *negatively self-assessed*. At the same time, as shown by several authors, involving *great concern for the opinion of others* about oneself, the three emotions – embarrassment, shame and guilt – may also be assessed as “*other-consciousness emotions*” (Tangney et al., 1996, p. 1263). Other authors appreciate the same emotions as “*social-moral emotions*” (Keltner & Buswell, 1996, p. 155): they involve a violation of social and moral norms, with implications on relating with others.

Embarrassment

Embarrassing incidents and interactions are inevitable in everyday life. Embarrassment occurs as an emotional reaction to circumstances which threaten or harm the image of the public self or when it appears as awkward in social interactions (Edelmann, 1987, Parrott, Sabin, & Silver, 1988). From experiential or phenomenological perspectives, embarrassment is felt most often as a mixture of mortification and chagrin (Miller, 1992). In terms of violated norms “embarrassment occurs following transgressions caused on the level of the conventions which regulate social interactions” (Keltner & Buswell, 1996, p. 157).

Guilt and shame

We have decided to present the definitions of shame and guilt together because the two emotions have often been analyzed together, both theoretically and empirically. As considered by Helen Block Lewis (1971), the two emotions are distinguished from one another not “from the outside”, in terms of different triggers, but “from the inside”, in terms of the differential focus on the negatively-assessed aspect. According to Lewis (1971) the two emotions are distinct from a phenomenological perspective, and are experienced differently: “The experience of shame refers directly to one’s *self*, which is the subject of the assessment. Within the guilt the self is not the central object of negative assessment, but the *deed* committed or not. Within the guilt, the self is negatively assessed only because it is connected to the deed and, is not the center of the experience itself” (p. 30). In other words, guilt involves the focus of the individual’s emotion on harmful behavior (“What I’ve done is wrong”), while for shame the emotion is determined by the fact that the self *in its entirety* is determined as wrong (“I am wrong”).

For other authors the differentiated focus on the negatively assessed aspect is less central for defining and distinguishing the two emotions. They are more oriented towards an “external” view, related to the nature of the normative transgressions. Thus, guilt is regarded as the result of specific actions whereby mandatory and universal moral standards are violated (Ausubel, 1955, Lindsay-Hartz, 1984; Tangney, Marschall, Rosenberg, Barlow, & Wagner, unpublished manuscript), while shame is regarded as the result of the failure to meet important expectations of the persons who are significant to the individual or which the respective individual has established for oneself (Lindsay-Hartz, 1984; Tangney, Marschall, Rosenberg, Barlow, & Wagner, unpublished manuscript).

“Phenomenological” vs. “normative” definition

The definitions listed above for embarrassment, shame and guilt may be considered as elaborated from two perspectives. We could conventionally label the first perspective as “phenomenological”, based on a subjective approach, “from inside”, which takes into consideration what the individual feels and thinks about his/her emotional experiences. The other perspective can be appreciated as “normative”, based on the consideration of the nature of the normative transgression, considering “from outside” the emotional experiences associated to the inadequacy of some or others of social and moral standards. We must specify that, along with other authors (Babcock & Sabin, 1990, Keltner and Buswell, 1996), we prefer a “normative” or “from outside” definition of the three emotions, considering that: (1) embarrassment occurs after a *public and accidental violation of social and moral standards implicitly found on the level of the scenarios governing the proper performance of*

social interactions; (2) guilt occurs after the transgression of the *universal social and moral standards* which are *accepted in a particular society*, and (3) shame occurs after identifying the violation of the *individual and assumed social and moral standards*. In all three cases, emotions occur as a result of the transgression of social and moral codes: the “code of good manners” (for embarrassment), the “universal moral and social code” (for shame) and the “personal social-moral code” (for shame). The presence of others – albeit only as imaginary – is essential in feeling embarrassment, while for shame and guilt this condition is optional.

Situational antecedents of embarrassment

One of the perennial goals of researchers concerned with the study of embarrassment was to discover the ingredients of its triggering situations. In searching the situational antecedents of embarrassment, a certain temporary theoretical and methodological discontinuity has been noticed. Early studies on the subject were published in the 60s of last century (Gross & Stone, 1964; Sattler, 1965, Winberg, 1968). Afterwards there was relative silence and oblivion on the subject. The concern returned to the attention of researchers in the early '90s, and studies continued to appear at the beginning of this century.

Miller et al. made perhaps the most significant effort to systematically study the situational antecedents that trigger embarrassment (Miller, 1992, 1996, Miller & Stonehouse, 1995, Stonehouse & Miller, 1994). The results of this effort are amply summarized in a monograph which is widely known and cited in the research on embarrassment: the book *Embarrassment: Poise and peril in everyday life*, published in 1996. Of the ten chapters of the book two are specifically dedicated to empirical studies and conceptualizations of embarrassment antecedents.

In its first study on the situational circumstances of embarrassment Miller noted that the previous efforts of building a “comprehensive catalogue of embarrassing circumstances” had failed and that his main goal was to “build a scale for coding embarrassing events” (Miller, 1992, p. 191). For this purpose Miller asked 350 participants (270 college students and 80 high school students) to carry out two tasks. In the first task subjects were asked to fill in the *Embarrassability Scale* developed by Modigliani in 1968. In the second task participants were asked to describe, under the protection of anonymity, the latest embarrassing incident they had personally experienced. It is important to note here that before telling an embarrassing experience of their personal life, subjects were offered a definition of embarrassment. They were also asked to describe as thoroughly as possible the embarrassing event.

After data collection 323 embarrassing stories were selected for final analysis (for various reasons the data of 27 subjects were eliminated). The scale used for the qualitative analysis of embarrassing antecedents was developed by using

the following strategy. Some of the analytical categories were developed in advance. Several sources were used to generate them: taxonomy developed by Sattler (1965), factorial analysis of the Embarrassability Scale (Modigliani, 1968) and the theories formulated in the book signed by Buss (1980). Subsequently, according to methodological recommendations on analytical induction formulated by Bulmer (1979), several successively repeated qualitative analyses were performed, finally resulting in a scale which “comprised” in a systematic manner all the narratives being used. The final scale as a 3-level structure contained: 4 dimensions, divided into 8 categories which in turn branched into 12 specifications. This scale was to be an interim one.

Aware that the interrogation on embarrassing events and incidents may be affected by memory bias (Miller, 1996), Miller conducted an extensive study by using the log technique (Stonehouse & Miller, 1994). Following the analysis of 753 records of the “embarrassment log”, a scale was developed by following the same analytical induction strategy proposed by Bulmer (1979), a scale which, if we consider the number of specifications, is twice as complex as the first. This time the scale was structured on four levels: 4 dimensions (the same as in the first scale), 10 categories, 12 sub-categories and 24 specifications. In our study we used this version of the scale (Miller, 1996, see p. 52).

The goal of our study was exploratory: to note the degree in which, judging by the title, “the best scale in the world for encoding embarrassment-triggering antecedents” (Miller & Stonehouse, 1995) is useful for investigating embarrassment in Romanians. However, following the obtained results and conclusions, we felt the need to discuss the aforementioned theoretical aspects.

METHOD

Participants

138 high school students (82 girls and 56 boys), aged 14 to 18 ($M_{\text{age}} = 16.37$) participated in the study.

Method

Subjects were informed that the goal of the research is to find out which are the most frequent situations in which people experience the emotion of embarrassment. Each participant received a sheet signed “EMBARRASSMENT”. Immediately below this word were the following instructions: “Describe the most recent situation in your life in which you felt embarrassed. Specify the emotions you experienced at that time. The subject had maximum half an hour to complete the task.

The method resembles the method used in the studies that led to the development of Miller's scale (1996), but also has distinctive elements. The key difference was the fact that subjects did not receive any definition of embarrassment. Miller's study (1992) told subjects: "Being embarrassed means being focused on yourself, feeling awkward, feeling uncomfortable, feeling exposed in a given situation. These feelings can be strong and weak, starting with a slight feeling of uneasiness, abashment, uncertainty and reaching strong feelings of powerlessness, redness and desire to escape" (p. 192). We did not deliberately want to limit – by providing a definition – the experiential and/or situational spectrum associated to embarrassment. It is true that people often confuse linguistic labels of emotions (Sabin & Silver, 2005) and often have intercalated notions thereon (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). But it is equally true that a definition can limit and direct the recall of some emotional episodes in the detriment of others. Thus, one of our secondary goals was to see to what extent the scale proposed by Miller (1996) is resistant to the "interference of the lack of the guiding definition".

RESULTS

Obtained and analyzed narratives

Participants (N = 138) produced a total of 150 narrative descriptions of situations in which they felt embarrassed. Although subjects had been asked to describe only one situation in which they felt embarrassed, 7 participants provided narratives containing 2–3 distinct embarrassing episodes. Some narratives were eliminated from the start or during the study. Thus, out of the total of 11 eliminated narratives, 3 situations obviously contained fictions invented ad hoc by the same participant; 3 descriptions were descriptions of cross-situational relational difficulties associated with emotions such as disappointment, mistrust, injustice; 1 narrative contained a situation which had provoked anger; 1 contained only a definition, without describing a situation in which the individual had actually lived embarrassment; 1 contained the description of a normative transgression associated with emotional experiences that denoted enjoyment. A total of 141 narratives remained and were analyzed in the last analysis round.

Analysis specificity: favoring "normative" definition and repeated data analysis

In analyzing data we primarily took into consideration *the nature of violated rules*, aiming to detect from the narrative the violation of what norms had led to experiencing an emotion. At the same time if, after detecting the type of normative transgression, we found that the indicated emotion was other than what we had expected according to announced definitions (mostly "normative" but

also “phenomenological”), we ignored the label used by the subject considering that it was “normal” to have felt a different emotion, and its labeling was incorrect. Our favoring of a “normative” definition is based on the finding that people are much less concerned or skilful in accurately labeling their emotional states and emotions (Sabin & Silver, 2005; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Initially we had believed that a single data analysis, based on the scale proposed by Miller (1992, 1996), would be sufficient and conclusive. However, we were confronted with the situation where, like Miller (1992), but from partially different reasons, we successfully repeated the qualitative analysis of data. We had to do this four times.

First two analysis rounds: stubbornness in finding embarrassment even where it could not be

We started off by using the latest version of the scale for analyzing embarrassment antecedents proposed and thoroughly described by Rowland Miller in his book (Miller, 1996). After we translated the scale we had a discussion for the “equalizing” the understanding by all three evaluators (the signatories of this article) of each of the 24 categories, then we analyzed the 141 narratives separately.

Compared to the expectations we had had, the coefficient of inter-evaluator fidelity was very low – only .29. All evaluators had noticed that some situations were forcefully classified in one of the categories of the scale, and the respective descriptions resembled little with embarrassment, often being the “bone of contention” and reducing inter-evaluator fidelity. After having analyzed together several narratives for which there was major classification disagreement, we independently resumed the analysis of the sub-batch of situations for which at least one or all evaluators made divergent classifications. The inter-evaluator fidelity coefficient increased significantly, but not enough, reaching .45.

Third round: shame and guilt joins embarrassment

During the discussion which followed the second round of analysis we found that many narratives resembled rather antecedents of shame and guilt. We decided to supplement the scale with a series of categories sensitive to the classification of shame and guilt. To this end we took from the study conducted by Keltner and Buswell (1996) only 31 categories sensitive to capture shame and guilt antecedents. Finally we obtained a scale of 55 categories. As in the first two rounds of analysis we had already found that the architecture in the four levels of Miller’s scale (1996), although aesthetically beautiful, is inappropriate when actually used, we set all the categories by following the model of the scale used by Keltner and Buswell (1996) – in a “plane” manner.

After two unsatisfactory rounds of analysis we decided to also change the working manner so as to notice more quickly if something went wrong. We aimed

to conduct the third analysis simultaneously and ad hoc, both individually and by group discussion. In order to achieve this objective, at first, each evaluator worked independently, enlisting the same situation in the scale. Then a group mini-discussion on the categorization of the respective narrative followed. By discussing discrepancies we finally reached a common solution. On the way, in order to classify all narratives, we added 5 other categories to the 55 categories.

By the end of the third round we realized that, despite the new categories sensitive to shame and guilt antecedents, a series of situations still presented difficulties and remained forcefully classified as embarrassing moments. This is because all the categories used by Keltner and Buswell (1996) to capture shame and guilt antecedents referred only to emotional experiences caused by the behavior of the narrating individual. Basically what we had overlooked was the fact, easy to identify from personal experience, that many times *others* deliberately intervene in making us feel shame and guilt!

Forth and final round: embarrassment, shame and guilt re-accommodated in a new 2-floor building

In order to detect the last situations which had been incorrectly classified as embarrassing situations we resumed the analysis of all the narratives that had been previously classified as “embarrassment caused by others”. As a result, 10 other narratives were reclassified as cases of shame or embarrassment intentionally induced by others. Finally we calculated the coefficient of inter-evaluator fidelity, which this time was .61, which, given the fact that there were three evaluators, is satisfactory.

Final scale: “weakening” from 60 to 35 categories

After all the narratives were categorized we found that half the categories of the scale (i.e. 29 categories) had not been used, and had had zero frequency. Finally we removed 23 categories designed to capture situations of shame and guilt and 2 categories out of those proposed by Miller (1996) for capturing situations of embarrassment appreciated as “miscellaneous”. At the end of the forth round of analysis we realized that the most convenient and appropriate architecture for our scale would be one not with 4 levels (Miller, 1996), not a plane one (Keltner & Buswell, 1996), but one with “2 floors. The final obtained scale with associated frequencies for each category is found in the Annex.

DISCUSSION

We would like to recall that the subjects were asked to report the latest situation in which they experienced the emotion of embarrassment. However, the results revealed that more than one third of the narratives were stories in which the subject

felt shame or guilt (35.46% of all narratives, see Annex 5). Why and where from the high percentage of cases in which, instead of embarrassing incidents we have descriptions of experiences of guilt and shame? We believe that these results are due to a convergent combination of intercalated factors.

First of all, it is known that people are not always very skilful, accurate and consistent in establishing the correct connection between the emotional experiences they live and the linguistic labels they use for emotions (Sabin & Silver, 2005; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). There are several possible consequences related to this state of affairs, aspects we have found partially and indirectly also in our study: (a) the linguistic priming of an emotion (in our case, “embarrassment”) can activate autobiographical emotional content associated to other “neighboring emotions” (“shame” and/or “guilt”) and once restored to the working memory and in the space of consciousness, are no longer “questioned” whether they correspond to the emotion in question, (b) the frequent spatial-temporal contingency of different emotional experiences can determine their implicitly or explicitly common linguistic coding: some emotions (e.g. embarrassment, shame and guilt) may be considered from the start, at least by some subjects, “linguistic synonyms” regarding the same phenomenological experiences.

Secondly and in continuation of what we mentioned above, the absence of a definition of the target emotion favors the lack of homogeneity of evoked feelings and the confusion of their linguistic labeling. Thus, the presence of the definition is important in at least two task-processing moments: (a) when it first targets the search of affective and auto-biographical episodes in the memory and (b) later, when it contributes to censoring and sorting the content evoked in accordance with the criterion-definition. In this regard we recall here that Miller (1992, 1996) first offered to his subjects a definition of embarrassment and then asked them to evoke recent episodes in which this emotion had been experienced.

Last but not least, we believe that some emotions are somehow “neighboring emotions” from at least two points of view. On one hand, they are frequently found in an external contingency within the same episode: the same situational antecedents and circumstances can trigger them in a serial manner (one emotion occurs, then makes room for another) or on layers (one emotion occurs, then another one is added). On the other hand, as a consequence of the repeated external contingency, an internal contingency can be installed: in the virtual space of memory the mental representation and storage of those emotions will be performed in the same area. The fact that, in the absence of a guiding definition, almost all the narratives produced in our study were in the same “neighborhood” – negative self-consciousness emotions (shame, guilt, embarrassment) – is an indirect proof of this fact. We believe that because of this double contingency – external and internal – Keltner and Buswell (1996) there were in their study multiple partial overlays of the three emotions. We specify that by the afore-

mentioned we do not waive the position that the three emotions are *distinct* emotions (“have different houses”). It is not contrary to the belief that these emotions are also *close by* (“have neighboring houses”), not only theoretically, but also on the level of external antecedents (external contingency) and mental representations (internal contingency).

Particularly in connection with this last aspect – the neighboring of the three emotions – we have found that all narratives can be divided into two classes. Most of them contain information which allows us to identify the double definitional identification (normative-phenomenological) of a single emotion. Other narratives, relatively fewer, allow the identification of two or more emotions. These emotions are sometimes found *sequentially* – one occurs, then withdraws, leaving room for another – and other times *concomitantly* – all occur at the same time. The first category of narratives – those which contain only one emotion – was labeled as “*picture-narratives* “. The narratives of the second class – when there are two or more – were labeled as “*film-narratives*”. We chose such a division in order to show the relatively static nature of the former and the more complex and dynamic nature of the latter.

What is the use of this division and what are its consequences? First of all by calling attention to the possibility that some narratives contain a “film of the event with several emotions” we pay attention and acknowledge the external or internal contingency of emotions. Second of all, this distinction draws attention to the fact that some narratives can be (in fact, they should be!) encoded in several categories of the analysis scale. Film-narratives allow an additional analysis of the dynamics of the emotional situation – which was the first emotion, how it led to the second etc. – enriching our knowledge about the connections set between neighboring emotions. In order to study them one must take a “director’s position” and remake the “emotional film” of the event. We must admit that we realized this distinction – picture– narratives vs. film– narratives – when we finalized the last round of qualitative analysis. Therefore, although we present this distinction here, it was not found in the manner in which we analyzed the data, and for this purpose another round of analysis was necessary, which we have not done yet. The analytical strategy reflected in the presented results (see Annex) meant that, whenever we found a “film-narrative” we retained for enlisting in the scale only the first identified emotion, which corresponded to the initial sequences of the “emotional film”.

CONCLUSIONS

The goal of the study was to see to what extent, as the authors themselves say in one of the titles, the best scale for analyzing situational antecedents of embarrassment (Miller & Stonehouse, 1995), in its final version (Miller, 1996), is functional

for analyzing the narratives of a national group. Although we were forced to make several changes and adjustments, both in the used scale and in the data analysis strategy, we can conclude that the scale proved both useful and sensitive. Perhaps if we had done the same as the authors, by providing to subjects, before producing the narratives, a definition of embarrassment (Miller, 1996), the scale would have been relevant for anchoring a significantly higher percentage of cases, clearly higher than the percentage obtained in our study: 65.54%. We will verify this in a future study. Beyond the proposed objective and the exploratory nature, the study was very useful for us from several points of view, bringing us the benefit of understanding some methodologically useful elements for subsequent research. The first issue relates to the transferability of the constructive elements found in the scale proposed by Miller (1992, 1996). We refer primarily to the four macro-dimensions of grouping categories: individual behavior, interactive behavior, and challenge from others and following emotion in others. These dimensions were based on a very important criterion in the economy of generating and experiencing emotions: the extent to which experienced emotion is the result of the active and direct involvement of the individual. In the latest version of the scale, the version with which we managed to systematically and comprehensively capture the analyzed narratives, one can notice that for the part that is sensitive to shame and guilt antecedents (see Annex) we have used two of the categories built on this principle: personal behavior and challenge from others. Our intimate belief is that ordering categories in accordance with the aforementioned criterion and dimensions is preferable in the construction of *any* scale that aims to systematically identify antecedents triggering *any* emotion. At the same time we have found that the organization of the scale on only two levels – dimensions and categories – is systematic in approach and easy to use.

A second methodological endeavor which, it is true, we are yet to explore, relates to identifying the necessity to divide narratives in those containing “the picture of a single emotion” or “the film of several contingencies”. Recently we have had the opportunity to validate this conviction on the *necessity of identifying the dynamics of chaining several emotions in the perimeter of a single event* following a presentation made by Nico Frijda (2009). According to this illustrious classic in the psychological study of emotions, one of the moments when emotions change is that in which they replace each other, often within the perimeter of the same event, sometimes with opposite valences. Not taking into consideration this dynamics when researching or analyzing data means neglecting an important truth about how emotions are, beside and beyond our efforts to study it! (Nico Frijda, personal communication).

The third methodological insight relates to the way in which we have chosen to perform the last rounds of qualitative analysis. They simultaneously involved writing down *hic et nunc* first individual categorizations, then group ones. Thus

one can *simultaneously* calculate and report the inter-evaluator fidelity coefficient, and also achieve a real consensus among researchers on the assessment of each analyzed narrative. It is true that such a way of performing qualitative analysis is expensive in terms of time and energy consumption, but having had this experience, we remained with the firm belief that it is the best way and, why not, the most pleasant way to do so.

A final agreement we have reached relates to the way in which we should investigate the three emotions: shame, guilt and embarrassment. Taking into consideration the fact that these are often contingent both on the level of triggering antecedents (“from outside”) and on the level of phenomenological emotions (“from inside”), it is preferable for these to be approached predominantly in a *distinct*, yet *simultaneous* manner. Such an approach – with or without providing to subjects a definitional distinction – would have greater ecological validity, would be more pragmatic and effective. We intend to take into consideration this finding for our future research.

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ANNEX: THE FINAL VERSION OF THE GRID AND THE RESULTS

Dimen- sions	#	Categories	Frecv.	%	cum %	cum %	Emo- tions
Indi- vidual behav- ior	1	Physical pratfalls/inept perfor- mances	26	18.44	40.43	64.54	EM- BAR- RASS- MENT
	2	Cognitive errors	11	7.80			
	3	Loss of control over one's body	5	3.55			
	4	Loss of control over one's emo- tions	0	0.00			
	5	Loss of control over one's pos- sessions	9	6.38			
	6	Failures of privacy regulation	2	1.42			
	7	Abashed harmdoing (without intention)	1	0.71			
	8	Departures from personal goals (in public)	2	1.42			
	9	Conspicuousness	1	0.71			
	10	Undue sensitivity	0	0.00			
Inter- active behav- ior	11	Loss of script	4	2.84	6.38	64.54	EM- BAR- RASS- MENT
	12	Guilty knowledge	0	0.00			
	13	Partner sensitivity	5	3.55			
Audi- ence provo- cation	14	Real personal transgression pres- ent + others intend to embarrass	8	5.67	17.73	64.54	EM- BAR- RASS- MENT
	15	Real personal transgression pres- ent + criticism/correction	2	1.42			
	16	Real personal transgression pres- ent + inadvertent disclosures	1	0.71			
	17	No personal transgression + oth- ers intend to embarrass	12	8.51			
	18	No personal transgression + criticism/correction	1	0.71			
	19	No personal transgression + ex- cessive attention/overpraise	0	0.00			
	20	No personal transgression + others'mistakes/loss of control	1	0.71			
By- stander behav- ior	21	«Team» transgressions	0	0.00	0	64.54	EM- BAR- RASS- MENT
	22	Empathic embarrassment	0	0.00			

Individual behavior	23	Poor performance (objectively low) > shame	4	2.84	17.73	35.46	SHAME & GUILT
	24	Hurt others emotionally (with intention) > shame	1	0.71			
	25	Failure to meet others' expectations > shame	7	4.96			
	26	Disappointment in self > shame	2	1.42			
	27	Cheating > guilt	6	4.26			
	28	Disobeying parents or teachers > shame	1	0.71			
	29	Failure to reciprocate > guilt	1	0.71			
	30	Talking behind others' backs > guilt	1	0.71			
Audience provocation	31	Ostracism / being excluded by others > shame	2	1.42	17.73	35.46	SHAME & GUILT
	32	Real personal transgression present + others intend to induce guilt	18	12.77			
	33	No personal transgression + others intend to induce guilt	1	0.71			
	34	Real personal transgression present + others intend to induce shame	3	2.13			
	35	No personal transgression + others intend to induce shame	3	2.13			

IMPACT OF ANXIETY ON VALENCE, AROUSAL, AND CARDIOVASCULAR REACTIVITY TO EMOTIONAL MOVIE SCENES

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Abstract. *The aim of this research is to investigate the impact of state and trait anxiety on the valence and arousal assessment of movie scenes from different film genres as well as the cardiovascular reactivity to these movie scenes. Our participants were second year students of Psychology (females, n=26 and males, n=3). Participants self-evaluated anxiety (state and trait anxiety) prior to the experiment. Video material, made in three versions from eight movie scenes, was shown to the subjects. Cardiovascular parameters such as blood volume pulse amplitude (BVPa), heart rate (HR), and its standard deviation (HRSD), and interbeat interval (IBI) were registered using sensor HR/BVP-Flex/Pro with the ProComp Infinity system and BioGraph Infinity software in real time, i.e. whilst subjects were watching the movie scenes. Each of the extracted film scenes contained an emotion-arousing event and immediately after the scene the subjects assessed this event on two dimensions, valence and arousal. The results indicate that state and trait anxiety influences the valence and arousal assessment as well as measures of cardiovascular reactivity.*

Keywords: *anxiety, valence, arousal, cardiovascular parameters, emotional movie scene.*

INTRODUCTION

As originally defined, anxiety is a universal response to a threatening situation. Anxiety is generally associated with a variety of somatic symptom patterns thought to reflect autonomic nervous system activity. Trait anxiety, as measured by the Spielberger State Trait Anxiety Index (STAI), taps into a constellation of anxiety proneness and personality variables, including low self-esteem, low self-confidence and increased vulnerability to anxiety in situations that involve being evaluated by others (Spielberger and Rickman, 1990). State anxiety measures the subjective feelings of tension, worry, apprehensiveness and autonomic arousal. Traditionally, cardiovascular symptoms, such as increased heart rate palpitation, have been the hallmarks of chronic anxiety. A number of studies have examined the relationship between anxiety and blood pressure in hypertensive individuals, and found positive correlations with state anxiety and systolic blood pressure (Bahnanan et al, 1979; Whitehead et al, 1977; Johnson, 1984). No relationship between state anxiety and diastolic blood pressure has been found. The examinees with higher anxiety scores at the STAI have more skin conductance responses with sustained viewing of unpleasant pictures, while those with high scores for anxiety features have more skin conductance responses after, not during, the viewing of unpleasant pictures (Smith et al, 2005). Individuals with high trait anxiety demonstrate reduced cardiovascular reactivity while those with low trait anxiety demonstrate increased reactivity, whereas the opposite might have been expected. There was a clear negative correlation between trait anxiety and cardiovascular reactivity to mental arithmetic. The pattern was less clear in response to isometric handgrip (Young et al, 1998). Metaanalysis (Jorgensen et al, 1996) found that negative affect (similar to trait anxiety) was positively associated with blood pressure in older adults but negatively associated in younger adults. The results of another study (Baldaro et al, 2004, p.206) showed a range of short-term effects of playing violent and non-violent videogames on arterial pressure and on the state anxiety of subjects, but not on hostility measurements.

Emotions are commonly defined as positive or negative feelings in certain situations. They have three components: physiologic, psychologic, and behavioral components. They represent the patterns of psychophysiological responses and characteristic behaviors typical of a species. Six primary emotions can be differentiated based on facial expressions: surprise, anger, sadness, disgust, fear, and joy (Ekman and Friesen, 1975). According to the Russell's circumplex model of affect, emotions are distributed in a coordinate system, where the y axis represents the degree of arousal, and the x axis the measure of valence, from a negative to a positive emotion (Russell, 1980). Blood volume pulse (BVP) and heart rate (HR) can serve as measures of valence (Cacioppo et al, 1997; Carlson, 2001). Sub-regions of the orbitofrontal cortex process the valence, while the amygdala preferentially processes the arousal, as shown by the measurement of brain activity in an experiment involving presenting affective words (Lewis et al, 2007). Responses along the valence dimension were correlated positively

with activity in the amygdalae and the insular cortex, and arousal responses were correlated with thalamic and frontomedial activity. These data (Anders et al, 2004, p. 205) support the hypothesis that different aspects of the emotional response are mediated by different brain circuits. The aim of this research is to investigate the impact of state and trait anxiety on the valence and arousal assessment and cardiovascular reactivity to movie scenes from different film genres.

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The study enrolled 29 students of the second year Psychology students at the Faculty of Philosophy, 26 females and 3 males. The subjects volunteered and were appropriately informed about the experimental protocol. Three versions of the video basis were used – the first and second versions were watched by 10 students each, and the third version was watched by 9 examinees.

Material

The STAI-Y is a well-known anxiety self-evaluation questionnaire which includes 40 items, with a Likert scale from 1 to 4, grouped into one trait anxiety scale and one state anxiety scale. Participants self-evaluated anxiety (state and trait) immediately before watching the film.

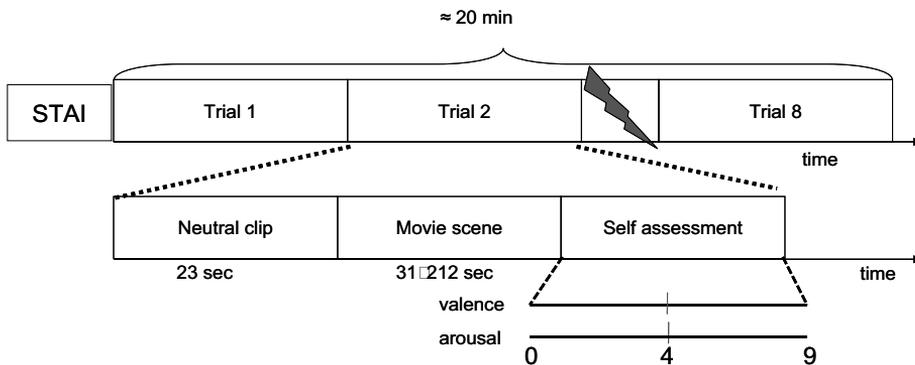


FIGURE 1. PROTOCOL OF THE EXPERIMENT

Our video basis for the study was created by extracting video scenes (VS) from films of various genres. Most of these films were selected using principles from similar studies (Gross and Levenson, 1995; Hanjalic and Xu, 2005; Wang and Cheong, 2006; Rottenberg et al, 2007; Soleymani et al, 2008). A wide range of video content was utilized. Popular films were chosen from different genres: action films („Saving Private Ryan“), dramas („Champion“, „The Pianist“), horror mov-

ies („The Ring“, Japanese version, „Fly“), comedy („Love Actually“). Two television (TV) show sequences were included in the experimental material: one contained spoken messages and the other presented experiences of sudden falls.

Video material was prepared in three versions, taking into account the order of different sequences (e.g. the sequence from „Champion“ was in first, fourth, and seventh place according to the presenting order).

Each of the film sequences was preceded by a neutral sequence, and after each sequence the subjects were instructed to press the „space“ key to stop the film and fill in the questionnaire with their valence (from the most unpleasant to the most pleasant feeling) and arousal dimensions (from very calm to very excited) on a nine-degree (0–9) scale. On completion, the subjects were again instructed to press the „space“ key and continue with the film.

Participants' blood volume pulse amplitude (BVP) and heart rate (HR) were recorded by measuring levels of light absorption of blood through capillary beds in the finger, using the HR/BVP-Flex/Pro sensor (SA9308M) connected to the peripheral phalanx of the middle finger. Physiological measures were captured at the standard sampling rates – 2048 Hz for BVP/HR sensors. The BVP signal is a relative measure so it does not have a standard unit. From the BVP signal, the software can usually calculate HR and inter-beat interval (IBI). The standard deviation of HR (HRSD) is also a useful measure.

RESULTS

The mean values and standard deviations of state and trait anxiety are presented in Table 1:

TABLE 1. THE MEAN VALUES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS (SD) OF STATE AND TRAIT ANXIETY

	N		Min		Max		Mean		SD	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
STAI-Y1	26	3	22	29	49	36	33,69	31,67	6,956	3,786
STAI-Y2	26	3	26	30	51	36	34,73	32,67	6,441	3,055

The results of state and trait anxiety for all subjects (N=29) significantly correlated: $r=0,605$; $p=0,001$. The Mean value and SD of male (M) subjects were lower than these values in female (F) subjects.

The movie scenes Saving Private Ryan (1), The Pianist (4), The Ring (5), Fly (6), and Champion (7) are evaluated by subjects such as they were with negative valence and high arousal, whereas TV program with spoken messages (2) and movie scene from film Love actually (3) are evaluated as they were with positive valence

and low arousal. The TV program with sudden falls (8) is evaluated with regard to positive valence and averaged arousal. The numbers in parentheses correspond with the order of presentation from the the first version of film (Figure 2).

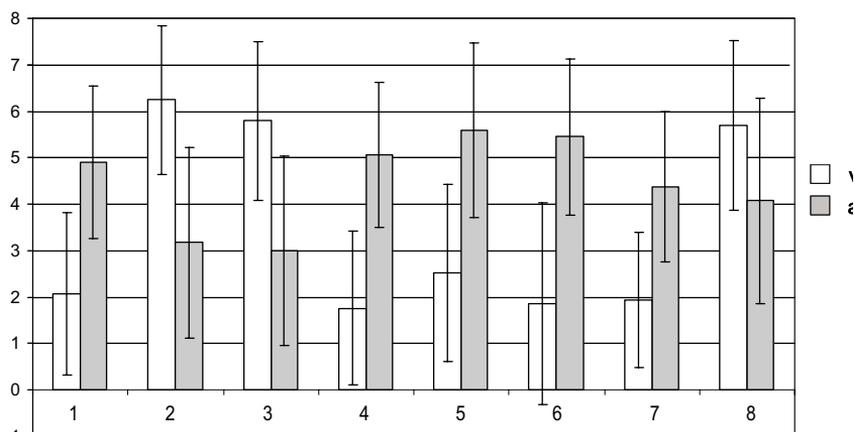


FIGURE 2. THE MEAN VALUES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF VALENCE AND AROUSAL

The average values of cardiovascular parameters (BVPa, HR, HRSD and IBI) were obtained for each video sequence, and the data were exported to the databases (enabling analysis independent of the BioGraph Infinity program), and stored into the SPSS program database. Cardiovascular measures for each video sequence were observed against the control value (c) of the cardiovascular measures recorded during the neutral video sequence.

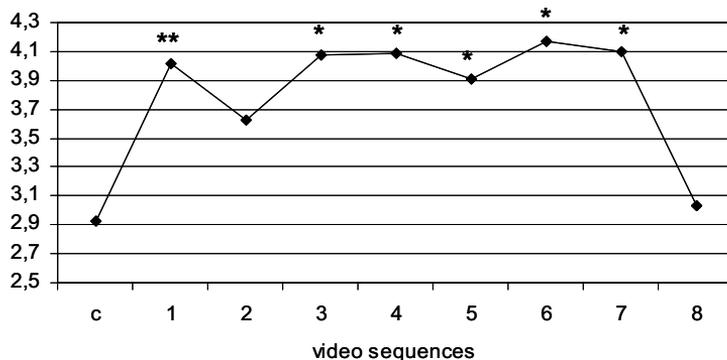


FIGURE 3. MEAN VALUES OF BLOOD VOLUME PULSE AMPLITUDE (BVPa) IN THE CONTROL SITUATION (C) AND DURING WATCHING VIDEO SCENES (1–8); * SIG < 0,05; ** SIG < 0,01.

T-test showed significant differences between BVPa for the neutral scene (figure 3) compared to video sequence 1 ($t=3,307$; $p=0,003$), 3 ($t=2,577$; $p=0,017$), 4 ($t=2,401$; $p=0,024$), 5 ($t=2,136$; $p=0,043$), 6 ($t=2,614$; $p=0,015$) and 7 ($t=2,752$; $p=0,011$).

All HR mean values were statistically different compared to the control value of the neutral sequence (figure 4), with the following t values and significances: 1 ($t=2,359$; $p=0,027$); 2 ($t=3,281$; $p=0,003$); 3 ($t=3,255$; $p=0,003$); 4 ($t=5,696$; $p=0,000$); 5 ($t=3,130$; $p=0,005$); 6 ($t=5,708$; $p=0,000$); 7 ($t=2,061$; $p=0,050$) and 8 ($t=3,630$; $p=0,001$).

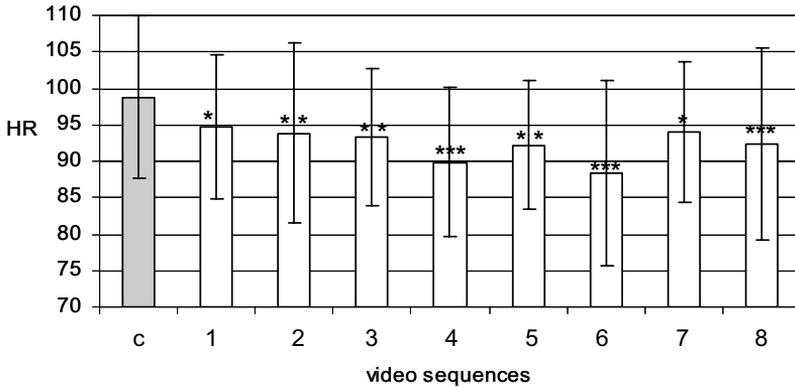


FIGURE 4. MEAN VALUES OF HEART RATE (HR) AND STANDARD DEVIATION (HRSD) IN THE CONTROL SITUATION (C) AND DURING THE WATCHING OF VIDEO SEQUENCES (1–8). * SIG <0,05; ** SIG < 0,01; * SIG < 0,001.**

There were no statistically significant differences between interbeat intervals recorded during the watching of movie sequences and the neutral sequence (figure 5).

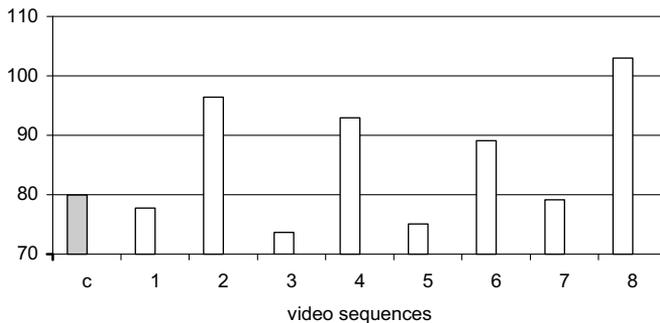


FIGURE 5. MEAN VALUES OF INTERBEAT INTERVAL (IBI) IN THE CONTROL SITUATION (C) AND DURING THE WATCHING OF VIDEO SEQUENCES (1–8).

The normative state and trait anxiety scores (S.D.) for female college students are 38.8 (11.9) and 40.4 (10.2), respectively; and for male college students are 36.5 (10.0) and 38.3 (9.2), respectively (Spielberger et al, 1983). But, we divided all subjects into two groups according to the mean values of STAI-Y1 and STAI-Y2 (Tab. 1), since the distribution of our subjects according to these normative values was 24 calm and 5 anxious according to STAI-Y1, as well as according to STAI-Y2. There were 16 calm and 13 anxious subjects according to the mean values of state anxiety, and 17 calm and 12 anxious subjects according to the mean values of trait anxiety.

The t-test showed statistically significant differences in arousal dimension between low and high anxiety subjects. High state anxiety subjects evaluated movie sequences 1 and 8 as highly arousing ($t=2,554$, $p=0,017$; $t=2,607$, $p=0,015$, respectively). Also, HR and HRSD were higher in those subjects ($t=2,171$, $p=0,039$; $t=2,093$, $p=0,046$, respectively). The same results appeared with high trait anxiety subjects. They had statistically significant higher scores for movie sequences 1, 4, 6, and 7 ($t=2,553$, $p=0,017$; $t=-2,403$, $p=0,023$, $t=2,039$, $p=0,051$, $t=2,387$, $p=0,024$ respectively), and lower for movie sequence 2 ($t=2,161$, $p=0,040$).

Valence (V) and arousal (A) are commonly treated as independent factors, but real-world experience suggests that they are often correlated. More negative stimuli tend to have a higher intensity, and higher intensity tends to amplify valence. Valence and arousal correlated in those subjects results for valence were low and for arousal high for movie sequences 1, 4, and 6 ($r=-0,767$, $p=0,000$; $r=-0,522$, $p=0,011$; $r=-0,459$, $p=0,036$, respectively). Also, state anxiety score significantly correlated with HRSD for movie scene 6 ($r=0,484$, $p=0,026$, and state anxiety scores significantly correlated with HRSD and IBI for movie scene 7 ($r=0,543$, $p=0,011$; $r=0,571$, $p=0,007$).

Means for the data were analysed using the General Linear Model with repeated measures of ANOVA with the clip (i.e. video sequence) as an independent variable (8 different levels, i. e. 8 video sequences) and 4 objective, cardiovascular measures (VBP_a, HR, HRSD and IBI) and two subjective measures (valence (v) and arousal (a)) as dependent measures, as well STAI-Y1 and STAI-Y2 as covariates.

TABLE 2. F VALUES AND SIGNIFICANCES OF MULTIVARIATE TESTS FOR STATE AND TRAIT ANXIETY

		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
STAI-Y1	Hotelling's Trace	0,959	3,195	6	20	0,023
STAI-Y2	Hotelling's Trace	0,629	2,098	6	20	0,099
STAI-Y1 × STAI-Y2	Hotelling's Trace	0,821	2,735	6	20	0,042

Multivariate tests (Table 2) showed that STAI-Y1 is connected with at least one dependent variable, and that there is interaction of STAI-Y1 and STAI-Y2 with regard to at least one dependent variable.

All p-values of Mauchly's Test of Sphericity were significant for all dependent variables, except for arousal (Table 3).

TABLE 3. MAUCHLY'S TEST OF SPHERICITY (DF=27)

Measure	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	Sig.	Epsilon ^a		
				Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt.	Lower-bound
VPa	,005	117,234	,000	,470	,615	,143
HR	,024	83,316	,000	,477	,626	,143
SD	,004	126,092	,000	,357	,447	,143
IBI	,022	85,913	,000	,462	,602	,143
v	,091	53,936	,002	,548	,738	,143
a	,254	30,756	,289	,744	1,000	,143

Univariate Tests ($F = 4,695$, $(df = 2,499)$, $p = 0,008$) showed that clip is connected with HRSD. Also, there is interaction between clip \times STAI-Y1 ($F = 5,687$ ($df = 2,499$), $p = 0,003$) and clip \times STAI-Y2 ($F = 5,121$, ($df = 2,499$), $p = 0,005$). Multivariate Tests of Within-Subjects Effects, based on averaged variables, showed that all independent variables are connected at least with one dependent variable (Hotelling's Trace (Hypo $df = 42$, Error $df = 1010$): Value = 0,383, $F = 1,534$, $p = 0,017$), and there are interactions clip \times STAI-Y1: Value = 0,458, $F = 1,837$, $p = 0,001$ with at least one dependent variable, as well as clip \times STAI-Y2: Value = 0,395 – $F = 1,584$, $p = 0,011$ and interactions clip \times STAI-Y1 \times STAI-Y2: Value = 0,482, $F = 1,933$, $p = 0,000$.

Univariate Tests showed that the clip is connected with HRSD ($F = 4,695$, $df = 2,499$, $p = 0,008$); also, there is interaction clip \times STAI-Y1 ($F = 5,687$, $df = 2,499$, $p = 0,003$), clip \times STAI-Y2 ($F = 5,121$, $df = 2,499$, $p = 0,005$), and clip \times STAI-Y1 \times STAI-Y2 ($F = 6,493$, $df = 2,499$, $p = 0,001$) on HRSD.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects ($df = 1$) showed that STAI-Y1 is connected with arousal ($F = 6,248$, $P = 0,019$), STAI-Y2 with with valence ($F = 5,334$, $p = 0,029$) and arousal ($F = 5,062$, $p = 0,034$), and there are interactions between STAI-Y1 and STAI-Y2 with valence ($F = 4,571$, $p = 0,042$) and arousal ($F = 5,011$, $p = 0,034$).

DISCUSSION

Emotion regulation plays a central role in mental health and illness, but little is known about even the most basic forms of emotion regulation. It has been shown

that heart rate acceleration was greater under exposure to fearful imagery than neutral imagery or silent repetition of neutral sentences or fearful sentences (Vrana et al, 1986). Acceleration of heart rate was greater during disgust, joy, and anger imageries than during pleasant imagery (Vrana, 1993). Films containing scenes of violence increase the activity of the sympathetic system, while films with scenes from operating rooms increase electrodermal activity, decrease heart beat, and increase the T wave (Palomba et al, 2000). Investigation (Bradley and Lang, 2000, p. 204) showed that viewing unpleasant pictures, for example, gave clear cardiac deceleration, a large skin conductance response, increases in corrugator (frown) electromyogram (EMG), a larger scalp-recorded positivity, and potentiation of the startle reflex. Our results on electrodermal activity are similar to the results of other authors (Nešić et al, 2009). Additionally, specific VSs within the action/sci-fi, drama/action and drama/comedy genres elicited high percentages of significant responses. Users' response to horror/thriller (Ring) content tends to result in constricted BVP flow to the peripherals. This suggests the user is under duress or fearful during the VS viewing of this content genre. Comedic content (inserts from TV programs and the film *Love Actually*) also seem to elicit the most significant BVPa and HR responses, both of which seem to be evenly distributed between increased and decreased levels of BVP and HR responses. The state and trait anxiety have an impact on HRSD during the watching of video sequences (clips) of different genres. Also, there is an interaction between state and trait anxiety with the self assessment of clips for valence and arousal.

There are some limitations to these results. For example, examinees may present misleading feelings because of the particular characteristics of the self-presentation method, e.g. they may prefer to avoid expressing fear, or may try to please the experimenter (Picard and Daily, 2005). It has been shown (Gross and Levenson, 1997) that suppression participants inhibit their expressive behavior while watching neutral, sad and amusing films. Suppression diminished expressive behavior in all 3 films and decreased amusement self-reports in sad and amusing films, but increased sympathetic activation of the cardiovascular system. So, it would be interesting to explore behavioural manifestations (facial expressions or the EMG of the facial muscles) during the watching of films, and compare them with physiological measures and the self assessment applied in this research; for example, eyebrow frowning and smiling are associated with assessments along the axis of pleasure (Smith, 1989).

In addition to video sequences, the energy (loudness) of speech significantly contributes to arousal, the rhythm and relative pitch of a speech input are associated with the valence, and the relationship of lights (Picard, 1997) and colours are also very important in the induction of emotions (Rasheed et al, 2005). Heart rate deceleration during viewing unpleasant pictures is also obtained when listening to unpleasant sounds, but only if these are highly arousing such as screams, or at-

tacking sounds (Bradley and Lang, 2000, p. 211). The data indicate more similarities than differences in physiological, self-report, and behavioural measures when processing affective sounds and pictures (Bradley and Lang, 2000, p. 213).

Advances in sensor technology have made it possible for physiological responses to be measured in real time, without requiring any conscious input from the user, and are well documented as providing a means for measuring changes in a user's affective state, which is the user's underlying emotion, attitude or mood at a given point in time (Simon, 1982). A useful approach may be to conduct studies combining fMRI data with traditional psychophysiological recordings, many of which offer superior temporal resolution. In the years to come, such integrative approaches promise to yield ever-clearer insights into the physiological substrates of emotion (Larsen et al, 2006, p.190). It can show a bi-valent pattern of cortical and subcortical changes that mediate HR increases during social evaluative threat (Larsen and Fredrickson, 1999, p. 52; Wager et al., 2009).

CONCLUSIONS

Anxiety, predominantly state anxiety, impacts on cardiovascular measures, i. e. HRSD elicited by emotional video sequences. Also, state anxiety impacts on the self assessment of arousal, and trait anxiety on the self assessment of arousal and valence. Studies of emotions which evaluate physiological parameters offer the possibility of new breakthroughs in the field of interactions of humans with computers and the development of new techniques to record human emotions.

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GENDER ATTITUDES TOWARDS FORMS OF VIOLENCE IN SOCIETY

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Abstract. *The following article represents the results of a research on forms of violence in society. This research seeks to reveal the differences in gender attitudes towards forms of violence in society. The methodology of this research includes a semi-structures interview and a scale. Male attitudes towards violence in society include three forms of violence which are physical violence, sexual violence and psychological violence. Female attitudes towards gender-based violence in society include violence of four categories: physical violence, sexual violence, psychological violence and economic-based violence. Average quantity of answers in every of the categories in male groups is less than the average in female group. Female representations about violence in society have a broader context than male representations. The female group revealed 14 nonrecurring definitions while the male group revealed 7 nonrecurring definitions. The attributions of reasons for different forms of violence in the male and female groups don't match. Three groups of stereotypes were identified. The first group consists of two stereotypes that induce more disagreement in men than in women. Agreement or disagreement with the ten stereotypes comprising the second group does not depend on the sex of the participants. The third group consists of six stereotypes that provoke more disagreement in women.*

Keywords: *Gender, violence, gender attitudes, violence in society, stereotypes about violence.*

INTRODUCTION

The data of published reports show that each third woman on Earth had suffered from gender violence (World Health Organization, 1997). Actually, it is not pos-

sible to consider the gender violence as “violence against women”. A number of researches show that men can also be victims of gender violence (Philip W. 1997; Henning K, Jones R, Holdford R. 2005). It is proved that the most reliable gender differences are these that lie in male and female aggressive behaviour (Maccoby E, Jacklin C. 1974; Eagly A, Steffen V. 1986; Hyde J. 1984; Hyde J. 1986). It is considered that most women use violence for purposes of self-defense, as retaliatory response (Henning K, Jones R, Holdford R, 2005; Miller, Meloy, 2006). Bjorkqvist and Niemela (Bjorkqvist K, Niemela P. 1992) consider that the level of the aggression of both men and women is influenced by different factors which are the type of aggression, the situation itself and the gender. It can be assumed that this fact is consequence of social expectations about one’s behaviour dealing with the gender role of a person (Eagly A. 1987).

Huici (Huici C. 1984) considers that men and women can be considered on the whole as social groups having different social status. Research of Campbell and colleagues (Campbell A, Muncer S, Gorman B. 1993) on social representations about aggression in men and women confirmed the presence of gender differences in views on aggression. Men and women have different attitudes towards aggression. Thus, men associate aggression with implementation of control over others and with positive emotions. At the same time women think aggression to be the result of loss of self-control (Campbell A, Muncer S, 1987).

The goal of our research was study of differences in gender attitudes towards forms of violence in society among inhabitants of Latvia.

METHOD

PARTICIPANTS

Number of participants of the research was 150: 75 men and 75 women. People from Latvia aged 20 to 50 years. The first stage of the research involved 50 persons: 25 men and 25 women. The second stage of the research involved 100 persons: 50 men and 50 women.

INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES

On the first stage of the research the participants answered the questions of a semi-structured interview on the topic “Violence in relationships between men and women in Latvia”. The aim of the interview: Emphasizing of categorical structures which specify the conception of violence in men and women. The second stage of the research required elaboration of a questionnaire consisting of 18 statements. Questionnaire contained statements that tended to justify gender violence. Statements used in the questionnaire were sorted out by means of content analysis as those used in internet-communication upon the topic of gender-based violence.

Materials of internet-site www.delfi.lv were used. This internet-site was selected as most attended by people of different age and social status groups; this bilingual (Latvian and Russian languages) internet-site is the most popular in Latvia among people who are interested in discussions. The analysis touched data of period 2004 to 2008. The participants of the research rated the statements according to Likert's scale (-2 to 2, including 0). The aim of the second stage of the research: Analysis of specific stereotypes of violence in men and women. All the data were collected anonymously.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The first stage of the research

Occurrence of gender-based violence in Latvia was acknowledged by all the participants of the research. 25 men and 25 women (100%) affirmed that the gender-based violence exists in Latvia.

The majority of men, 21 (84%) and all women (100%) consider that all forms of gender-based violence involve mostly women.

At the same time 4 (16 %) men note that women exercise psychological violence against men. As psychological violence actions against men are considered insults that question the "masculine" qualities.

All participants consider every form of gender-based violence as something negative.

The results of the interviews allowed to identify 4 forms of violence: physical, sexual, psychological and economic-based forms of violence. That conforms to conventional classification. But the data show that definitions of forms of gender-based violence are distributed irregularly.

TABLE 1. DISTRIBUTION OF ANSWERS ACCORDING FORMS OF VIOLENCE

Group	Physical violence	Sexual violence	Psychological violence	Economic-based violence
Men	50	25	12	-
Women	75	60	37	8

In male group, the number of nonrecurring definitions of gender-based violence is 7.

Physical violence: battering, slapping punching. Sexual violence: rape. Psychological violence: humiliation, insult, blackmail.

In female group, the number of nonrecurring definitions of gender-based violence is 14.

Physical violence: battering, slapping, punching, pushing, attempting to strangle, physical affliction: arm twisting, bounding etc. Sexual violence: rape, sexual coercion, sexual comments in the streets, statements of a sexual nature at work. Psychological violence: horrification, humiliation, offensive remarks. Economic-based violence: dismissal of a pregnant woman.

The major part of participants of the research of both sexes consider that physical form of violence is more prevalent among the poor strata, including alcoholics, drug addicts. Whereas psychological form of violence is more specific for middle class or wealthy people and for educated layers of society.

Physical and sexual violence are considered as the most dangerous forms of violence.

As common sources of violence are considered biological factor (inequality of physical capacities of men and women), social factor (conventional upbringing, religion), psychological factor (stress, aggressiveness as attribute).

Depending on the form of violence different possible causes were mentioned by the research participants.

TABLE 2. CAUSES OF PHYSICAL VIOLENCE

Men	Women
1. Mental imbalance	1. Jealousy
2. Tendency to assert oneself	2. Alcoholic intoxication
3. Stress	3. Mental imbalance
4. Alcoholic intoxication	4. Failure to come to agreement
5. Low intelligence level	5. Low intelligence level
6. Jealousy	6. Tendency to assert oneself

TABLE 3. CAUSES OF SEXUAL VIOLENCE

Men	Women
1. Mental deviations	1. Mental deviations
2. Sexual dissatisfaction	2. Alcoholic intoxication
3. Alcoholic intoxication	3. Sexual dissatisfaction
4. Traditions of the (criminal) subculture	4. Tendency to dominate
	5. Porno- peddling

TABLE 4. CAUSES OF PSYCHOLOGICAL VIOLENCE

Men	Women
1. Tendency to dominate	1. Stress
2. Stress	2. Mental imbalance
3. Mental imbalance	3. Jealousy
4. Alcoholic intoxication	4. Low self-esteem
5. Low self-esteem	5. Low intelligence level

Such negative personality traits as greediness and lack of humanism were named by both men and women as the causes of the economic form of violence.

The second stage of the research

Analysis of the obtained data reveals that stereotypical statements can be divided into three groups. The first group includes 2 statements that induce a statistically higher degree of disagreement in men than in women. Being extremely significant ($p < 0,05$). These are the following statements:

- ♣ There is a certain sort of women that are subject of violence.
- ♣ Man who beats a woman is mentally sick.

The second group embraces 6 statements that provoke a statistically higher degree of disagreement in women than in men ($p < 0,05$).

- ♣ Women provoke violence by their own behavior.
- ♣ Man can hit a woman if she insulted him or she made “his blood boil”.
- ♣ Sexual comments in the street or at work are not a sort of violence.
- ♣ Verbal offence in the street or in a public place is not a sort of violence.
- ♣ A slap can not be considered as sort of violence because it doesn't bring any serious physical harm.
- ♣ Manifesting of aggression is a natural biologically based feature of men.

The third group comprises the last 10 statements that don't show statistical mismatch in answers of men and women ($p > 0,05$).

- ♣ Women wearing “provoking clothes” are to blame in assaulting them.
- ♣ A woman can always escape violence if she wants.
- ♣ Violence-prone men are easy to distinguish.
- ♣ If a woman agrees to go to a man's place after going to restaurant she automatically agrees to have sex with him.
- ♣ Expressing aggression towards a colleague or an unfamiliar woman is common for uneducated and poor men.
- ♣ If, in the street, a man beats a woman or insults her other people should not involve for “It's between two of them”.
- ♣ Alcohol is the violence reason.
- ♣ If being raped woman wasn't screaming and she has no traces of being beaten it was not a rape.
- ♣ Women bear the violence easier than men.
- ♣ If a woman behaves appropriately in society she will not suffer of male violence.

Thus, in 8 cases of 18 attitude of men and women towards facts of gender-based violence differ.

CONCLUSIONS

In the course of the research the following differences were revealed concerning male and female representations about forms of gender-based violence in society.

1. In female group, 100% of participants of the research consider that gender-based violence touches only women. In male group, 16% consider that gender-based violence touches men as well. Besides, they think that violence towards men is approved by society.
2. The male representations about gender-based violence include three categories of violence – physical, sexual and psychological violence. The female representations about gender-based violence include four categories of violence – physical, sexual, psychological and economic-based violence. The categories of violence mentioned most frequently in both groups are physical and sexual violence. However, in male group the average quantity of answers in each of these categories is less than the average quantity of answers in female group.
3. Female representations about forms of violence in society have a wider context than these male representations. In female group it was marked 14 nonrecurring definitions, at the same time in male group there was marked only 7 nonrecurring definitions.
4. The stereotypes of gender-based violence in society were divided into three groups. The first group includes two stereotypes that produce more disagreement in men than in women ($p < 0,05$). The second group contains ten stereotypes that induce same degree of agreement or disagreement in participants of both sexes. And the third group contains six stereotypes that more women disagree with ($p < 0,05$).

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ANXIETY, SELF-ESTEEM AND ENDANGERMENT LEVEL IN THE CONDITIONS OF SOCIAL CRISES

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***Abstract.** Theoretical basis of the research is Endlers interactive model of anxiety and Rosenbergs conception of self respecting. The aim of the research was to:1) determine the relationship between different dimensions of state and trait anxiety, self-esteem and the endangerment level in the conditions of social crisis; 2)to determine whether there are statistically significant differences in these variables with regard to gender and place of permanent residence. The sample: 303 secondary school pupils.Following techniques were used: Endlers multidimensional scale of anxiety, Rosenbergs' self-esteem scale,Questionnaire of the and the endangerment level. Statistical data processing included techniques of descriptive statistics, Pearson Correlation, ANOVA, t-test. The results show that there is a statistically significant negative correlation between state anxiety and self-esteem, as well as between the dimensions of trait anxiety and self-esteem; there is positive correlation between anxiety (expressed as a state and as trait) and the endangerment level. It is found the statistical significant difference into the degree of expressions mentioned variables in reference to gender and permanent residence. The strongest endangerment level and the most expressing anxiety is at secondary school pupils from Serbian enclaves on Kosovo and Metohija.*

***Keywords:** state of anxiety, trait of anxiety, self-esteem, endangerment level.*

INTRODUCTION

Endler's interactional model of anxiety and Rosenberg's understanding of self-esteem make the theoretical basis of this researching.

Endler (1990) estimates anxiety as traits and as state; anxiety as a state presents the general anxiety or how a person generally feels, and anxiety as a trait presents situational anxiety or how a person is feeling at the moment (Endler & Parker,1990). The general anxiety considers the tendency that a person got in early

childhood through relation with parents, that situations which are objectively harmless are seen as dangerous and the person reacts upon them more intensive than prescribed circumstances. Situational anxiety is subjective, consciously seemed state of fear and anxieties that appear together with higher vigilance of ANS and with changes on physical level. Endler (1990) chooses two dimensions of state of anxiety: cognitive-worry and autonomic-emotional anxiety and four dimensions of traits of anxiety: a) anxiety due to threat in social evaluation or interpersonal situations, b) anxiety due to threat of physical danger, c) ambiguous threat anxiety, and d) anxiety while engaged in innocuous activities or daily routines. Self-esteem is a widely used concept both in popular language and in psychology. It refers to an individual's sense of his or her value or worth, or the extent to which a person values, approves of, appreciates, prizes, or likes him or herself (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). Considering that menace and danger of some phenomena depend of experienced individual perception (Zvonarevic, 1981) and in a social crisis condition every individual has its own experience of danger of vital worthiness in area of living and growing up.

METHODOLOGY

Researching problem is defining the level of anxiety (state and traits) and the level of self-esteem (global) at high scholars in conditions of social crises which are characterized by the definitive level of endangerment of individual. Self-esteem has a key role in developing process of adolescence, actually that the general estimate of own value achieves at the early adolescence and it relatively stays stable and continuous in a period of several years (Coopersmith, 1967; O'malley & Bachman, 1983; Block & Robins; 1993) Many researches tell about connections of self-esteem with the general and tested anxiety (Coopersmith, 1967). General aim carried out of research was defining connection's between different dimensions of states and traits of anxiety, self-esteem and a level of endangerment in conditions of social crisis in Kosovo and Metohia and in Central Serbia. It was examined existence of significant difference in the level of expressions mentioned variables considering on control variables. The general hypothesis was: there is statistically significant connection between different dimensions of states and traits of anxiety, self-esteem and the level of endangerment in conditions in social crisis. We expected that anxiety (expressed as a state and as a trait) will be positively correlated with a level of endangerment in conditions of a social crisis, while it will be negatively correlated at the same time with self-esteem examined high scholars. We were expected to get statistically significant difference in a level of expression anxiety – expressed as a state and a traits, self-esteem and a level of endangerment of conditions of social crisis considering on sex and place of residence. Research is not experimental where they are treated as conditionally nondependent variables: Anxiety and self-esteem,

as conditionally dependent variable and Level of endangerment in conditions of social crisis. As a special variable we are going to treat anxiety as a state and as a special variables different dimension of anxiety triat. Social evaluations, physical dangers, dimensions of new unclear situations and dimensions of every day situations. Control variables are: sex and place of residence. Following instruments were applied: 1) Endrer's multy dimensional of anxiety (Endler, Edwards & Vitelli, 1991): EMAS-S (20 issues) a scale for measuring the state of anxiety ($\alpha = 0,91$) and EMAS-T scale (15 issues) a scale for measuring different dimensions of anxiety trait ($\alpha = 0,75$); 2) Rosenberg scale of self-esteem (Rosenberg 1965), 10 issues, $\alpha = 0,74$; 3) A questionnaire of level of endangerment in conditions of social crisis (Minic, 2009), 14 issues, $\alpha = 0,79$ and Socio-demographical questionnaire (independently constructed). For data processing are used methods of descriptive statistics, t-test, ANOVA and Pirson's coefficient of correlation. The example was consisted of 303 high scholars from Kosovska Mitrovica, from Serbian enclaves from Kosovo and Metohija and from Kragujevac (Central Serbia). Examinees were mostly pupilsof the third classes of high schools, 168 males (55,4%) and 135 females (44,6%).

RESULTS

Descriptive statistic was showed that examined high scholars have relatively low values of state of anxiety (globally and towards components and in a relation to theoretical diapason). Anxiety as a trait of dimension of social evaluation is a little closer to a theoretical maximum, the other dimensions are low and they are closer to the theoretical minimum. Self-esteem at examinees is higher and a level of endangerments is stronger in relation to a theoretical maximum. Results of connection between variables are given on the Table1.

TABLE 1. CONNECTION BETWEEN ANXIETY, SELF-ESTEEM AND A LEVEL OF ENDANGERMENT IN CONDITION OF SOCIAL CRISIS

	SA	CAsav	CAfo	Cans	Cass	LT
SE	0,345**	-0,152**	-0,140*	-0,144*	0,037	-0,104
LE	0,280**	0,117*	0,166**	0,181**	0,169**	

** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$

Legend: SE: Self-Esteem; LF: Level of endangerment; SA: state of anxiety; CAsav: dimension of social evaluation; CAfo: dimension of physical endangerment; Cans: dimension of new unclear situations; Cass: dimension of every day situation.

There is statistic significant negative correlation between state of anxiety and self-esteem, as well as between some dimensions of traits of anxiety and self-es-

teem that refers to a dimension of social evaluation, dimension of physical endangerment and to a dimension of new unclear situations. It is confirmed that there is a positive statistic significant correlation between anxiety and a level endangerment. Results connected with different sex and plese of residence are given in Table 2 and Table 3.

TABLE 2. DIFFERENCES IN A LEVEL OF EXPRESSED VARIABLES ACCORDING TO SEX

	SEX	N	Mean	SD	t	df	sig
Cass	male	168	38,91	9,15	2,546*	301	,011
	female	135	36,46	7,21			
SA	male	168	38,34	15,43	2,004*	301	,046
	female	135	34,99	13,23			
LE	male	167	25,89	5,01	2,798**	299	,005
	female	134	24,21	5,36			

** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$

There are significant differences in a level of expressions of anxiety as a trait, then anxieties as a state and a level of anxiety and endangerment of examinee according to sex. Male examinees have more express dimension of social evaluation, state of anxiety and stronger level of endangerment in plese of residence, then female examinees.

TABLE 3. DIFFERNECES IN A LEVEL OF EXPRESSED VARIABLES ACCORDING TO PLESE OF RESIDENCE

	RESIDENCE	N	Mean	SD		df	F	Sig.
FS	Kragujevac	91	37,81	5,26	Between Groups	2	3,148	,044*
	K.Mitrovica	89	38,85	6,34	Within Groups	300		
	S.enclaves	123	36,66	6,96	Total	302		
	Total	303	37,65	6,35				
FT	Kragujevac	91	20,25	4,31	Between Groups	2	138,082	,000**
	K.Mitrovica	87	24,90	3,79	Within Groups	300		
	S.enclaves	123	28,93	3,33	Total	302		
	Total	303	25,14	5,23				

** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$

There are statistical significant differences in a level of expressions of self-esteem and a level of endangerment. Examinees from Serbian enclaves have the lowest self-esteem, but the strongest level of endangerment in the living place in relation to the examinees from Kosovska Mitrovica and Kragujevac. Also, that there are statistically significant differences in a level of expressed anxiety according to the living place of examinee. Examinees from Serbian enclaves have the most expressed anxiety as a state and as a trait.

DISCUSSION

There is statistically significant positive correlation between anxiety and a level of endangerment in conditions of social crisis. These results have been expected and logical regarding to the known fact that in stressed situations as well in conditions of endangerment of vital human needs, so internal tension and strain as well different forms and manifestations of anxiety. There is statistically significant negative correlation between anxiety and self-esteem. Such result is one more confirmation of earlier research finding, our author (Andjelkovic, 2008) and much more international authors (Cole, 1990, Kaliopuska, 1991, Knapen et al, 2005, Dishman et al, 2006, Fathi-Ashtiani, 2007) wrote about it. Self-esteem means defined level of fate and safety into oneself, while at anxiety it is quite opposite. There is statistically significant difference at a level of expressing basic variables regarding of control variables. Secondary school pupils from Serbian enclaves have more score at scales of states of anxiety as well at the all dimensions of trait of anxiety in relation to their generation from the Kosovska Mitrovica and from Kragujevac. Secondary school pupils from Serbian enclaves have stronger level of endangerment in relation to the pupils from Kragujevac (Central Serbia).

CONCLUSIONS

The data were expected and they confirm mostly of formulated hypothesis. It is confirmed that there is statistical significant connection between different dimension of state and trait of anxiety, self-esteem and a level of endangerment of examinee.

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SOCIO-CULTURAL DETERMINATION OF COMMUNICATION

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***Abstract.** Communication is a universal prerequisite of human existence; it is impossible to understand that without turning to such notions as values. Communication is conditioned first and foremost by socio-cultural, social values. In this connection our objective was to analyze the value-determined communication in terms of culture. To achieve this objective we employed either traditional methods, or humanity methods of achieving the knowledge: an analysis of literary sources and other methods. As a result we have identified certain socio-cultural features of communication in the Russian culture. However, society shapes certain value paradigms, necessary for a successful adjustment to living in it. The extent to which social values conform to socio-cultural ones, affects greatly the way personal human values are formed and psychological well-being is achieved.*

***Keywords:** communication, socio-cultural values, social values, Russian culture, manipulation.*

INTRODUCTION

The great Russian philosopher Nikolai Berdyaev [Berdyaev N., 2004] noted, that the reality of society is determined by the reality of human communication. Therefore, such study is always urgent. At present, the relevance of the research is increasing due to the globalization problem and to the intensity of international contacts. Even the world economic crisis shows how strongly people are interrelated, regardless of ethnicity or residence place.

It should be noted that the understanding of communication as a universal condition of human existence, came to science early. Mostly thanks to the existential-humanistic psychology representatives such study of communication becomes a priority in psychology.

Communication as a factor and the condition of human existence is determined, on one hand, by human values, which help a person to understand the thoughts, goals, feelings of another person and help to be understood by them. On other hand, human relations are regulated and influenced by cultural values and peculiarities of the ethnic group. Human relations are strongly related to the national norms and such integral feature of human relationships and culture as the mentality. We can assume that different cultural and social structure will differently create the necessary and sufficient conditions for those or other forms of communication. Let's verify this assumption.

METHODOLOGY

There are different classifications of cultures: a culture based on profit or dignity – the pragmatic – non pragmatic, monological and dialogical culture, I-dependent and I-independent cultures [Asmolov A.G., 2007; Berdyaev N., 2004; Harel K.M., Shinovu K., 1991 and others]. Pragmatic and monological, so-called I-independent cultures, for example, pave the way for manipulation as the desire to profit at the expense of another person. The first ones in connection with the focus on material benefit, monological – due to the desire to control others and concentrate on your own “I”. I-independent, more than I-dependent culture, focused on success, power. That's why the risk and uncertainty are more likely in such cultures. And therefore, the probability of using manipulations by individual citizens increases and condescending attitude towards them in the society forms. Monocultural approach is typical for Western European and North American culture. Non-western cultures (Eastern, Asian, southern European, Latin American cultures) are oriented to establish emotional contact with others, to match them, that allows to define these cultures as «I-dependent». Such approach, according to some scholars, forms opinion on the “I” as a dependant, person, indistinguishable from others.

However, apart from socio-cultural factors, there are also the preconditions created by a social structure. The Society tends to cultivate values, which are necessary for successful adaptation in the social and socio-economic system, in it's citizens. Public relations are more dynamic, they may or may not correspond to social and cultural traditions, as well as universal values.

The proposed value determination scheme of communication was tested on the analysis of socio-cultural and public preconditions for communication in Russian culture. Realizing the complexity of the problem and the impossibility to present all the material in this article, we'll just consider the problem of manipulation.

Thus, the **main goal** of the study was to determine socio-cultural and public preconditions of manipulation (by the example of the Russian mentality).

Methods of research. At different stages of empirical study have been used either traditional methods, or humanity methods of achieving the knowledge: an

analysis of literary sources, ideographical method, observation, analysis of individual cases, self-reports, questionnaires

RESULTS

Based on the analysis, described above, Russian culture was designated as a collectivistic, non pragmatic, focused on the dignity, I-dependent [Ryumshina L.I., 2004]. At the same time, responsibility, liberty and justice could be spotted as the basic values for the Russian cultural archetype [Berdyaev N., 2004; Frank S.L., 1991 and others]. However, the representations of these values differs from that in other cultures, and that largely creates the mysterious phenomenon of the “Russian soul”. And individualism, counterwise, is out of the significance plane of the Russian cultural archetype. “Conscience” of Russian man appears to be more emotionally, in opposit to the rational West «conscience», and generally is associated with emotions, pangs. In relations with others there are, on one hand, the need in close contact and understanding, on other – trust and confidence. Also in Russian ethnic group as “interdependence” there can be seen conformity to the close “other” (primarily family) that becomes a “value-state”. However, conformity to the distant “other” people practically can’t be noticed. Rationality is often replaced by emotionality. For all the above, we can say that in general, Russian ethnic self-consciousness forming is based on the correlation between “I” and “other”, “fusion” of its own “I” with “I” of another, that would interfere with the manipulation. The expression of this has to be found in the products of Russian culture (folklore, language, religion, literature, philosophy) and in specific scientific research.

If you understand the mentality as a human activity, embodied in the standards, samples, values, then, first of all, it is reflected in folklore. In Russian fairy tales, epics positive heroes are not inclined to attack, all the more, calculate enemy’s steps and manipulate. They are rather unsophisticated, generous, revengeless, are able to forgive their enemies, who had unfairly offended their friends. Positive fairy-tale characters, in a whole, don’t think and discuss much, but feel deeper, they rarely plan their actions, relying more on luck and chance. However, in the fight against evil, they are not alone, as a rule. As a gratitude for their kindness, they achieve a help of other animate (animals, fish, poultry) and inanimate (trees, furnace, etc.) characters. As for the tricks, they are permissible, but only towards evil. And they are unplanned and are used in order to protect themselves and in relation to other (negative), fairy-tale characters. But the one who belong can’t be cheated, or it is a forced lie. It’s interesting, that the image of the Russian among other nationalities is mostly the same: Russian – simpleminded, unsophisticated, not very educated, he is not clever, without any kind of falsity in his actions [Petrenko V.F., Mitin O.V., Berdnikov K.V., Kravtsov A.R., Osipova V.S., 2000]. Russian folklore reflects the national character, understood as a specific combination of stable personality features

of Russian ethnos representatives. Its main feature is a polarity, the combination of opposites: great love for people and hatred, nationalism and universal humanity, weak-willed and high heroism, religiosity, linked with its desire for an ideal, and infantilism, lack of personality self-value awareness [Berdyayev N., 2004]. This contradiction is to some extent a consequence of orthodox thinking antinomy.

The unity of the behavior moral norms in Russian ethnic group, their activities, have long been provided by the Russian Orthodox Church, which united people about the ideals. The center, the nature, and the essence of the Christian ontology is and not a God and not a man, but Jesus Christ – the God-man, who had unmergebely connected two natures in one solid person. The doctrine of the simultaneous inseparability and unmergebelily of two natures in Christ – divine and human ones, is the basis for the interaction of people, united by a common spiritual principle with common religious, economic, military, cultural problems. Such “conciliarism” – is a special unity set towards «the Whole».

This point reflects in the works of Russian philosophers. Thinkers of the XIX – the beginning of the XX century have followed the humanistic tradition, which differs, althouth, from those of atheistic humanism and Protestant West. The determining factor for them is the love as a compassion, mercy, pity, sacrifice, when the “other” becomes endowed with absolute value as a creation of God. True love, according to Dostoevsky, for example, – is always love to another. It is filled with suffering and deprivation, and eliminates the lies and subterfuge. And of course, either pity, love, spiritual unity sense can not be accompanied by manipulation. Getting profit from another person and this person’s reification (but everyone is equal before God!), therefore, in our view, cannot be a feature of the national Russian character and cannot be included into the mentality of Russian ethnicity.

It is interesting that following the natural modesty tradition, tradition of not focusing on character’s own person as the center of attention, is reflected in some Russian mistakes in the choice of grammatical forms in foreign languages, particularly German: unreasonably frequent use of indefinite-personal sentences as an attempt to escape expressing their own opinion, attempt to hide behind „uncertainty“, that creates the feeling of anonymity. Unconscious depersonalization of the German language by russians is revealed in the absence of particles, – words, with the function of indirect expression of personal attitude to the subject of the utterance.

Based on analysis, mentioned above, it is clear that the manipulation is not encouraged in Russian literature, also. The manipulators – are the negative heroes, endowed with the cruelty, insensitivity, pragmatism and shrewdness by the authors. And manipulation doesn’t bring happiness either manipulator or its “victims” [Ryumshina L.I., 2003].

The mentality of the nation, defining behavioral patterns of ethnicity, adaptation, and its struggle for life, forms at least 1,5–2 thousand years, and although it has been transforming, but not substantially. However, the possibility of chang-

ing the Russian ethnos characteristics is widely discussed in scientific literature recently. The majority of these studies devoted to the analysis of values. Some of their results are alerting. For example, for younger generation the personal success ambition, the choice of their own goals, independence, well-being, become the important motives of behavior [Lebedeva N.M., 2000]. Of course, it creates the basis for manipulation.

Unfortunately, in psychology there is extremely small quantity of methods that can detect the manipulation proneness. We have used one of them – “Machiavellianism-II”, developed by a group of American psychologists, led by Richard Christie, and adapted to Russian reality by St. Petersburg scientists [Bratchenko S.L., 1997]. We have used two versions – an adult and child ones, that allowed us to have 516 people, of both sexes, residents of southern Russia at the age of 14–50 years (schoolchildren, students of various disciplines, businessmen and other professionals) examined. With an average of 23 to 30 people in each group.

The results showed up that the degree of manipulation proneness very rarely exceed 10 points out of 100, the level designated as average by us. As for high-level (more than 30 points), it was recorded in only 7.5% cases. Most of them – businessmen, trading college students. The nature of their profession (or a future profession) may drive to use people for their own purposes. However, higher rates could be expected for such professional environment. Moreover, the research of 47 businessmen, with more than 12 years of business experience, revealed an interesting trend: as the length of business experience extends, the utilization of manipulative techniques reduces. And especially pleasant to state: among the 30 students of psychology, only 1 person had a manipulation proneness. Although U.S. research shows that senior social psychology students, revealed the highest rate of manipulative tendencies [Wallace J., 1971]. These results can be explained by the fact that Russia’s psychological education is not so pragmatically oriented as an American one.

Slightly alerting is the fact of manipulation proneness extension in schoolchildren groups, that is also supported by other studies. Thus, the research of the manipulative habits of 268 high school students 14–17 years old, suggests that there are significant differences in the degree of manipulation proneness even among age groups ($p < 0,05$). Boys and girls aged 16–17 years are more prone to manipulation than younger (aged 14–15 years) students, with the young men, this trend is more pronounced. 16–17 year old students are characterized mainly by middle (10 points) and above the average (30 points), manipulation proneness expression level. For the age of 14–15-years – average and below average (–10 to +10) levels. It should be noted, this is not a high-level expression of such tendency. There were only 6 students, scored over 30 points. Naturally, without any cross-cultural research, we can hardly speak about the tendency or inclination of any ethnic group representatives to manipulation clearly. Therefore, we consider it, through the mentioned above analysis prism.

CONCLUSIONS

So, on the basis of the Russian ethnic group peculiarities, we can say that the fusion of self with others with the high intensity of self-sacrifice and compassion will prevent manipulation, exactly the same as the prevalence of emotional over the rational, the importance of love, suffering and deprivation. In opposite to American culture, where the manipulator – a successful person [see, for example, D. Carnegie], in Russian culture, I suppose, will be “born” a separate type of “repentant” manipulator. This will be contributed by inconsistency of the Russian national character, incredibly matched: infinite love for mankind and hatred, nationalism and humanity, infirmity and the highest heroism, religion and infantilism. And that’s based upon the lack of personality self-value awareness. Social and socio-economic conditions, changed in recent years, in our view, have not fundamentally changed the inner world of the Russian people yet, although, of course, influence it.

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COMPARISON BETWEEN INTERGENERATIONAL COMMUNICATION IN BULGARIA AND THE UNITED STATES: SOME RESULTS

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***Abstract.** This talk and presentation are focused on a process very important in the development and establishment of Bulgarian civil society. This is the communication between different generations. To find a fruitful framework for analyzing the data we have made a comparison of the intergenerational communication in a civil society with established democracy as it is the case with the United States. The research examines Bulgarian and American young adults' perceptions of prior experiences of intergenerational communication. Irrespective of culture, as age of target increased from young adult to middle-aged and elderly adult, so did attributions of benevolence, norms of politeness and deference, and communicative respect and avoidance; conversely, attributions of personal vitality and communication satisfaction decreased linearly. However, Bulgarian youth reported more of a tendency to avoid, but were more expressedly respectful when, communicating with older adults than their American counterparts. In both settings, young adults' avoidant communication with older people negatively predicted their communication satisfaction. Yet in Bulgaria only, age stereotypes and politeness norms also predicted communication satisfaction: the more young Bulgarians felt a need to be polite to older people and the more they perceived them as personally vital, the more communication satisfaction they reported with elders.*

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INTRODUCTION

In recent years, a growing body of literature has focused upon the role of communication in intergenerational relations (see Harwood, 2007; Nussbaum & Coupland, 2004) and, within that, the context of cultural variability has been afforded considerable attention (e.g., Giles, 2004; Pecchioni, Ota, & Sparks 2004). In this conference paper, we extend this work by investigating these issues in Eastern Europe – and Bulgaria more particularly – where there is a paucity of work in this genre.

Research in Western societies has indicated that young people construe communication with non-family older adults as often dissatisfactory and problematic (see Williams & Giles, 1996; Hummert, 2009). For instance, young adults report that they are often patronized by their elders who seem overly-nurturing and yet convey unfavorable stereotypes about their youth peer group (Giles & Williams, 1994). In addition, elderly communicators can be perceived as nonaccommodative in that they are authoritarian, dismissive, complaining, pre-occupied with their own problems, and inattentive to the concerns of others (Coupland, Coupland, & Giles, 1991; Giles et al., 2003). Consequently, younger interlocutors are often conversationally avoidant of their elders but, nonetheless, report it necessary to be respectful (Ryan, Kwong See, Meneer, & Trovato, 1992). For their part, many older people also feel victimized in being patronized and the recipients of ageist sentiments and in ways that do little to promote reports of their well-being (e.g., Giles, Ryan, & Anas, 2008). This profile is cross-culturally resilient to the extent that it spans an array of different cultures having disparate religious and social traditions, including those relating to filial piety (e.g., McCann, Ota, Giles, & Caracker, 2003; Ota, Giles, & Somera, 2007). Nonetheless, potent differences have emerged in that the intergenerational communication climate in Australia and the USA has been perceived to be more favorable than in the People's Republic of China, Hong Kong, Japan, and Taiwan (for review, see Giles, McCann, Ota, & Noels, 2002).

Given the consistency of this communicative respect-plus-avoidance pattern from younger people, a theoretically-driven program of research across different cultures has emerged to investigate it further and, more specifically, the predictors (for young people) of satisfaction when talking with older adults. This work, originally conducted in the USA (McCann, Dailey, Giles, & Ota, 2005), subsequently embraced comparative data from South Africa and Ghana (Giles, Makoni, & Dailey, 2005) as well as India (Giles, Dailey, Sarkar, & Makoni, 2007). Given the intent is to extend this work into East Europe, before presenting more details of this prior cross-cultural work, we briefly overview relevant aspects of the Bulgarian scene.

While there is a growing amount of social gerontological work in Central Europe (e.g., Rurik, 2005; Csoboth, 2006), this is very limited in Eastern European nations – apart, that is, from medical gerontology (e.g., Boyanova, Katsarov, Gergova, Nikolov, & Derejian, 2003; Mihaylova, Michailova, Penkova, & Baltadjieva,

2004). Most of the work that does exist in the more social spheres does not really inform the current inquiry (e.g., Bakracheva, 2009; De Vos & Sandefur, 2002; Silgidjian-Georgieva, 1998) and, in any case, developmental interests in Bulgaria have tended to focus on intergenerational problems between adults and children or teenagers (Silgidjian, 1978; Stoitsova, 2001). Nonetheless, there are indications that there is an under-representation of older people in the Bulgarian media (Boshnakova, 2009), and commentaries are not uncommon in social scientific texts about communication gaps between younger and elderly adults (e.g., Pachkova, 2006; Prodanov, 2006; Stoitsova, 2006).

As most elsewhere, there has been a demographic revolution in Bulgaria, and the National Health Information Center estimates that the population aged over 60 years has increased from nearly 15% to 22% in the last thirty years (Bulgarian Population Aging, 2002). Moreover, since becoming a member of the European Union in 2007, Bulgaria has been obliged to engage issues that are of general interest to this larger community, a crucial one of which relates to reforming its pensions and healthcare systems for older people (Agenda of the Meeting of the Committee on Culture of the European Parliament, 2007). Indeed, "Bulgaria is not alone in this predicament, with 28 countries in Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union facing the same challenge" (World Bank: Bulgarian Economy Threatened by Rapid Aging, 2007). In tandem, and with gradually decreasing levels of unemployment over recent years (from 18% in 2003 to 7.70% in 2008), 46% of those now unemployed in Bulgaria are older adults between the ages of 50 and 60 years (Ilieva, 2008).

METHODOLOGY

Given this stable pattern across very different cultural contexts, and with the virtue of obtaining a fresh (more contemporary) American sample for this study as recommended in Giles et al. (2005), our hypotheses were:

- H1: American and Bulgarian young adults will attribute increasing benevolence, age norms of politeness and deference, and communicative respect and avoidance as people age from younger, to middle-aged and older adulthood; the converse will be the case for attributed personal vitality and communication satisfaction with older adults.
- H2: When evaluating their past conversations with non-family older adults, young Bulgarians' reports of age norms, age stereotypes, communicative respect and avoidance, and communicative satisfaction will be less positive than their American counterparts.
- H3: Both American and Bulgarian young adults will report that high communicative avoidance will be associated with low satisfaction in communicating with older adults.

What *other* predictors, then, might emerge (if any) for our Bulgarian sample?

This is difficult to propose on the basis of the current literature and above discussion. Indeed, each culture studied to date has rendered different profiles of what predicts young people's reports of communication satisfaction with older adults. Thus in concern to Bulgarian and American culture we formulate two research questions:

RQ1: Will Bulgarian adults exhibit different regression analyses for intergenerational communication satisfaction than documented elsewhere?

RQ2: How will young Bulgarian adults be positioned across these perceived age boundaries vis-à-vis Americans?

Participants

The sample, in total included 399 undergraduate students, (54.40% male) from the two nations participated in the study, with a mean age of 21.45 years ($SD = 2.67$).

In Bulgarian sample there were 210 students from Sofia, with a mean age of 22.57 years ($SD = 2.86$), while American sample was composed by 189 students (59.80% males) from Santa Barbara, Southern California, with a mean age of 20.21 years ($SD = 17.2$).

Methods and Instruments

Using a within-subjects design, questionnaires asked participants to indicate their interaction experiences with non-family members or non-close friends regarding three target ages: young, middle-aged, and older adults.

For each target age, the questionnaires included measures of *communication behaviors* (i.e., how they actually behave during interactions with the target age), *communication satisfaction* with the age group, perceived *stereotypes* of the age group, and *norms of respect* (i.e., how they believe they should generally interact with the age group). All items for these scales (as well as their original sources) are provided in McCann et al. (2005). Exploratory factor analyses (i.e., principal components analyses using an oblimin rotation focusing on eigenvalues greater than one) were performed to determine the sub-dimensions present in the communication behaviors, stereotypes, and norms of respect scales. Separate analyses were conducted for the Bulgarian and American samples. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling adequacy measures for all factor analyses were greater than .70 (with the exception of the USA participants' reflections on younger people, communication behaviors at .65 and age stereotypes at .63) indicating the data were generally suitable for such analyses. The analyses showed the same factors between nations and across target ages for communication behaviors, age stereotypes, and norms of respect, and these were similar to the factors revealed in other cultures (e.g., Giles

et al., 2005). Separate reliability coefficients (Cronbach's α) for the resulting factors by each target were calculated for each sample

SOME RESULTS

Following the talk at the South-East European Regional Conference held in Sofia 2009, in this material we are going to present only part of the results of the project comparing Bulgarian-American intergenerational communication.

Communication Behaviors

Although both Bulgarian and Americans participants reported greatest avoidance of elderly adults and lowest avoidance of young adults, Americans reported more avoidance of middle aged ($M = 3.27$) and elderly participants ($M = 3.83$) than did Bulgarians ($M_s = 2.96, 3.34$). Conversely, American participants reported significantly less avoidance of younger adults than did Bulgarians ($M_s = 2.49, 2.$)

Communication Satisfaction

American participants reported decreasing satisfaction as target age increased ($M_s = 5.29, 5.08, 4.80$, respectively). Bulgarians showed a different pattern, in that communication satisfaction increased from younger to middle age, and then decreased again with older targets ($M_s = 4.86, 5.13, 4.59$, respectively).

Age Stereotypes

For vitality, Bulgarians and Americans rated middle-aged adults and older adults fairly equally, but the Americans rated younger adults higher than did Bulgarians (American $M_s = 5.42, 4.67, 3.14$; Bulgarian $M_s = 4.98, 4.74, 3.27$). For benevolence, Americans and Bulgarians rated younger and middle-aged adults fairly equally; however, Americans rated elderly adults substantially higher than did Bulgarians (American $M_s = 3.81, 5.14, 5.74$; Bulgarian $M_s = 3.60, 5.05, 5.27$).

Norms of respect

Concerning *respect* ($F = 7.15, p < .001, \eta^2 = .02$), although both Americans and Bulgarian participants reported greatest respect for elderly adults and lowest respect for young adults, Americans reported more respect for elderly adults as compared to the Bulgarian participants. Both Americans and Bulgarians reported fairly equal (and moderate) levels of politeness with young adults. In contrast, although both nations reported greatest levels of politeness with elderly adults, Americans reported greater politeness with middle-aged and elderly adults than did Bulgarians. (American $M_s = 4.62, 5.58, 6.41$; Bulgarian $M_s = 4.52, 5.23, 5.96$).

Regression results for Bulgarian and American data respectively, are shown on Table 1 and Table 2.

TABLE 1. REGRESSION RESULTS FOR BULGARIAN DATA

	B	F	df	R ²
Communication Satisfaction				
Respect	.117	17.23**	(6, 203)	.34
Avoid	-.377**			
Vitality	.240**			
Benevolence	.069			
Politeness	.163*			
Deference	-.048			

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$.

TABLE 2 REGRESSION RESULTS FOR AMERICAN DATA

	β	F	df	R ²
Communication Satisfaction				
Respect	.169*	12.97**	(6, 176)	.31
Avoid	-.551**			
Vitality	.051			
Benevolence	.029			
Politeness	.156*			
Deference	.058			

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$.

TABLE 3 PERCEIVED AGE BOUNDARIES

	Overall	U.S. American	Bulgarian
Young adulthood begins:	16.42 (2.37)	16.97 (2.28) ^a	15.92 (2.34) ^b
Range	7 – 25	12 – 25	7 – 21
Young adulthood ends:	30.05 (5.89)	27.59 (5.58) ^a	32.23 (5.29) ^b
Range	17 – 50	17 – 45	18 – 50
Middle age begins:	33.28 (5.60)	33.28 (5.93)	33.28 (5.30)
Range	18 – 51	20 – 46	18 – 51
Middle age ends:	55.16 (7.32)	55.70 (7.61)	54.69 (7.03)
Range	32 – 70	35 – 70	32 – 70
Elderly age begins:	58.60 (7.54)	61.71 (6.95) ^a	55.85 (6.96) ^b
Range	33 – 80	40 – 80	33 – 71

Also, it should be noted that the boundaries between younger and middle-aged categories can be rather experientially fuzzy (see Table 3) and that Bulgarians, along with other cultures, appear to have a less clear boundary at this juncture than the USA and construe elderliness typically much later (see Giles et al., 2000). Indeed, it could well be that the meanings of middle-age are quite different between cultures – and for different reasons.

DISCUSSION

The Bulgarian findings very much mirror the American data in terms of patterns for stereo-types, norms, communicative behaviors, and communicative satisfaction. More specifically, in Bulgaria, as people age, young adults confer more respect and deference, report providing more communicative respect, and accord them increasing benevolence. Yet the same time and confirming H1, the more people age, the more they were attributed lower personal vitality, the less satisfying conversations with them were reported, and the more they were avoided.

Bulgarian young adults are, and in many ways in accord with H2, more negatively disposed towards communicating with middle-aged and older people yet, unpredictably, less avoidant of older people than Americans.

Once again as elsewhere, the most potent predictor of intergenerational communication satisfaction was communicative avoidance, thereby confirming H3.

In this study participants were invited to create their own subjective boundaries of age groupings. In response to RQ2, cross-cultural differences were evident in that Americans construe young adulthood as beginning a little later, but ending earlier, than Bulgarians.

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TOLERANCE FOR AMBIGUITY, CREATIVITY, AND PERSONALITY

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***Abstract.** Ambiguity tolerance describes individual behaviour in ambiguous situations where one has to act with lack of clarity or lack of information. This workshop will discuss individual differences in tolerance – intolerance of ambiguity, their measurement, and their relation to creativity and personality. Empirical results that were obtained in Bulgaria in 14 concurrent, cross-sectional, cross-cultural, correlational and experimental studies with adolescents and adults will be brought together with findings reported elsewhere in order to outline the role ambiguity tolerance plays in individuals' behaviour and development (Stoycheva, 1998; 2003; 2005; 2008). Our work will be organised in three parts. The first part will explore the notion of ambiguity tolerance and its application to the study of human development and individual and group behavioural outcomes in different areas of life. The second part will discuss the relation of ambiguity tolerance to other personality traits and processes in a way that differentiates between individual premises for tolerance – intolerance of ambiguity and its consequences for personality and individual behaviour. The third part will examine the place of ambiguity tolerance in creativity research, and empirical data on the relation of ambiguity tolerance to creative motivation and creative performance will be presented and analysed.*

***Keywords:** tolerance – intolerance of ambiguity; personality traits; creative motivation; creative thinking and problem solving; individual differences' measurement*

THE NOTION OF AMBIGUITY TOLERANCE

Psychological science uses the notion of *ambiguity tolerance* (AT) to describe individual behaviour in ambiguous situations (Stoycheva, 2003a). Ambiguity occurs

in a wide range of settings: at work and at home, in everyday life situations, in interpersonal communication and in our interactions with social groups and institutions. Communication may be ambiguous due to multiple meanings of chosen words or inconsistency between verbal and non-verbal parts of a discourse. Imprecise concepts, missing information, unclear performance criteria and probabilistic decision-making situations challenge us in solving problems. There may be also social role ambiguity due to contradictory, or fragmented interpersonal relationships. People face emotional ambivalence, cognitive incongruity and uncertain outcomes or meet with novel or uncommon situations where the true and tried ways of doing do not work. Ambiguity refers to a lack of clarity due to either a lack of information or a lack of coherence in the available information that may come from stimuli that are vague, incomplete, fragmented or from contradictory, inconsistent, incongruent stimuli that cannot be clearly defined or understood.

How people experience an ambiguous situation and what they do in such a situation is indicative of their tolerance – intolerance of ambiguity. The term “tolerance” refers to an attitude of acceptance as it is, for example, in drug tolerance or political tolerance. Tolerance with regard to ambiguity indicates, in particular, a capacity to “live with” ambiguity, endure ambiguity, to operate with and within ambiguity; it does not imply liking ambiguity or searching for it, although this may be the case for some tolerant people. Tolerance is usually contrasted with intolerance of ambiguity on the continuum of individual differences in ambiguity tolerance, denoting how well people cope with ambiguous situations from avoidance to acceptance to deal with.

An adult for example may not perceive the double meaning in a sentence he hears on a foreign language, due to his/her lack of knowledge of this language. In such a case ambiguity tolerance is irrelevant to subject’s reactions to the situation. Objective ambiguity needs to be subjectively experienced in order to impact one’s behaviour in this particular situation. On the other hand, perception of ambiguity and ambiguity per se are not necessarily threatening (see Stoycheva, 2003a, for details). It is the need to act upon ambiguous stimuli or situations that challenges the individual to cope with ambiguity in his or her behaviour, to decide upon its meaning and react to it in one or another way.

TOLERANCE – INTOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY

Individual differences in ambiguity tolerance manifest themselves in the content and the form of the representations that individuals create in ambiguous situations, in the direction of the actions they undertake, and in the accompanying affect. They are also related to the intensity and variability of individual’s actions and reactions to ambiguity: weak to moderate reactions to ambiguity coupled with a large variability of resulting actions characterize tolerant individuals, whereas

intense reactions and small variability of responses characterize intolerant individuals.

People who are *intolerant of ambiguity* perceive and interpret ambiguous situations as a source of psychological discomfort or a threat, seem confused by ambiguity and tend to avoid it, either psychologically or operationally by leaving the situation. When faced with ambiguity, they experience intense negative affects like anxiety and stress. Their reactions are defensive, disorganised and accommodation to the situation is blocked. Intolerant people are likely to arrive at “black-and-white” judgements, to reduce their view of the situation to certain, simple and familiar cues, and defend themselves through rigid, stereotyped behaviours which lead them to less than optimal solutions to the problem. By subsuming it under well-known, familiar and clear, i.e. non-ambiguous, situations, which entail well-articulated action patterns, ambiguity about how to behave and what to do is finally avoided.

People who are *tolerant of ambiguity* are better able to tolerate the feelings of anxiety and uncertainty induced by ambiguity. Their affective reactions are less intense and more varied. They will perceive and interpret an ambiguous situation more adequately, in a realistic way, without denying or distorting parts of its complexity. Tolerant people are likely to elaborate more adaptive and better coordinated behaviour. Those who are tolerant of ambiguity are better able to meet the challenge: they can withstand the discomfort of an ambiguous situation long enough as to accommodate and generate more appropriate and flexible responses to it. At the tolerance pole, an individual will dialectically interact with the situation, balancing the processes of tension reduction and information seeking.

In a cross cultural study judges (French and Bulgarian doctoral students in psychology) rated personality traits, attitudes and behaviours with respect to their relatedness to the AT construct. Of the 46 items at the strongest level of relatedness to AT, 42 describe manifestations of intolerance of ambiguity and only 4 describe manifestations of tolerance of ambiguity. Ambiguity tolerance was related to experiencing discomfort and frustration with the lack of clarity in ambiguous situations or the unpredictability of events and people’s behaviour; to an inability to act in ambiguous situations; the avoidance of ambiguity in one’s understanding of a situation, event or idea, and the avoidance of the encounter with ambiguity, but also to a positive experience of enjoyment in uncertain or ambiguous situations, and a preference for exploration (Stoycheva, Lubart, Zenasni, Popova, 2008).

The relationship between ambiguity tolerance and the subjective experience of uncertainty was further examined in an empirical study, carried out by Valentina Lessenska. The participants – 127 high school students, university students and adults, filled in the Bulgarian adaptation of Norton’s AT scale and Intolerance of Uncertainty Scale (Freeston, Rheaume, Letarte, Dugas, & Ladouceur, 1994)

respectively. Negative relation between tolerance for ambiguity and intolerance of uncertainty was observed ($r = -0,63$; $p < 0,01$).

AMBIGUITY TOLERANCE AND PERSONALITY

Empirical findings suggest that cognitive, affective and behavioural traits influence individual's tolerance – intolerance of ambiguity. Differences in intelligence, creative thinking, cognitive style, anxiety, dogmatism and rigidity appear to shape individual reactions to ambiguous situations. On the other hand, individual differences in ambiguity tolerance influence one's beliefs, social attitudes, values, motivation and behaviour. Through their relations to social objects, groups, ideas and activities individuals tend to avoid or accept different ambiguous situations (see Stoycheva, 2003a, for details).

Tolerance of ambiguity is based, in part, on cognitive abilities and knowledge. Empirical data support this proposition, for example, showing positive relation between tolerance for ambiguity and subjects' educational level. A cross sectional study of 392 high school students, 472 university students, and 116 18 – 25 year old working adolescents, who were administered the Bulgarian adaptation of Norton's AT scale showed that university students had higher tolerance of ambiguity than their age mates who were not enrolled in a university. This finding was corroborated in a study that compared 60 university students and non-university youth ($n=53$) (Glutnikova, 2000) In particular, the low AT scores of the non-university women were contributing to the observed difference.

Similarly, adults' higher educational level is associated with higher tolerance for ambiguity across the life span. Subjects with university education scored higher than subjects with up to secondary education in two samples. A sample of 305 adults aged 18 to 69, balanced by gender and educational level filled in the Bulgarian adaptation of MacDonald's AT scale (Stoycheva, 2003a), and a sample of 116 adults was tested with the Bulgarian adaptation of Norton's AT scale (Komneva, 1999)

In another study two groups of high-school students were contrasted. Low AT students ($n = 51$) and high AT students ($n = 55$), scoring below or above one standard deviation from the mean score for the high school sample, were compared with respect to their intelligence, creative thinking abilities, personality traits, anxiety, need for achievement and self-concept. The High AT group scored higher on intelligence than the Low AT group, mainly due to the higher number of low intelligent subjects in the Low AT group (Stoycheva, 1998; 2003a).

High AT adolescents also scored lower on trait anxiety and showed a more positive self-concept (Stoycheva, 1998; 2003a). They appeared more self-confident with respect to their coping self (feelings of mastery and well-functioning, idealistic concerns and orientation towards humanistic values), while Low AT

adolescents shower poorer adjustment in this area of functioning. Furthermore, ambiguity tolerance moderated the negative relation between anxiety and adolescent self-image (Stoycheva, Silguidjian, 2001). The relation between tolerance for ambiguity and self-confidence appeared as well in a study of the self-determination in university students (Lessenska, 2002). AT scores correlated negatively with scores on a measure of impersonal causality orientation: intolerant of ambiguity individuals tended to feel more ineffective, unable to affect desired outcomes or cope with demands or change (Lessenska, 2002).

On the other hand, tolerance for ambiguity in adults was related to a preference for occupations that are characterised by high degree of ambiguity and high degree of freedom. The study involving 35 men and 87 women aged 18 to 62 investigated the relations between ambiguity tolerance, professional preferences and professional choice in adults (Komneva, 1999). In a similar vein, a study of high school students' attitudes towards geographic mobility showed that high AT adolescents were more willing to relocate when offered incentives (e.g., promotion) (Dette, Dalbert, 2005). Ambiguity tolerance related to the type of university education as well: students in arts outscored those in medical and technical studies (Stoycheva, 1998; 2003a).

MEASUREMENT OF AMBIGUITY TOLERANCE

The study of ambiguity tolerance has its roots in the research on the authoritarian personality after the World War II. It is the work of Else Frenkel – Brunswik (1948) that stimulated in particular the investigation of tolerance – intolerance of ambiguity. Subsequent research analysed the relation of ambiguity tolerance to other personality traits and processes, to human development in the life span and to individual and group behavioural outcomes in different areas of life. Researchers in decision making, organisational development, technology and innovation, education and training, career and vocation, mental health, psychological counselling and psychotherapy have also included the dimension of tolerance – intolerance of ambiguity in their studies. Publications in ambiguity tolerance come from more than 200 different journals in psychology and related fields.

Ambiguity tolerance has been measured in a variety of ways. Several paper-and-pencil self-report questionnaires and scales were developed, the most popular among them being those proposed by Budner (1962), MacDonald (1970), Norton (1975), and McLain (1993). Experimental tasks and activities that measure individual's reactions to ambiguous stimuli (see, for example, Frenkel-Brunswik, 1948), scales and sub scales from already existing personality questionnaires, and psychological methods like TAT or Rorschach were also used, as well as expert evaluation of children' and students' behaviour by parents, teachers or clinical psychologists (see Furnham, Ribchester, 1995, and Stoycheva, 2003a, for reviews).

There has been a debate over the construct validity of several of these measures, the comparability of data obtained through different methods remain controversial and their rather low intercorrelations raised questions about the validity of the construct itself (Furnham, 1994; Furnham, Ribchester, 1995; Stoycheva, 2003a). To this on-going debate on the validity of the AT measures, our research has contributed a new perspective on the content validity of the self-report measures and a comprehensive classification of the experimental measures of tolerance-intolerance of ambiguity. AT questionnaires, for example, differ with respect of the items they employ. There are items that describe a behaviour (I always want to know in advance who will be at the party) that is indicative of tolerance – intolerance of ambiguity. There are also items that tap beliefs (Women are either bad or good) or personality traits (I don't like changing my routine) that are related to individual differences in ambiguity tolerance. Items' disparity seems responsible, at least partially, for the disparity of results. AT measures that are composed mostly of behavioural items, i.e. self-reports of frequency and intensity of one's reactions of tolerance – intolerance across variety of ambiguous situations, show higher reliability and greater consistency (Stoycheva, 2003a).

TOLERANCE – INTOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY: PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE AND ENCOURAGEMENT

One of the most powerful ways in which a culture encourages or discourages certain behaviour is the way by which teachers and parents reward or punish certain personality characteristics as they develop in children and the behaviours which manifest those characteristics. A concurrent study of high school students, their parents and teachers examined the development of ambiguity tolerance in adolescents in relation to adults' encouragement for tolerance – intolerance of ambiguity on the one hand, and adolescents' perception of adults' encouragement on the other. The study involved 303 high school students aged 14 to 19 from two high schools, one in the capital city and one and in a small town, their teachers ($n = 52$) and parents ($n = 236$) (Stoycheva, 1998; 2003a)

An original psychological instrument has been designed to assess the attitudes of adolescents and adults towards the ambiguity tolerant and ambiguity intolerant behaviours. A list of 30 behaviours indicative of tolerance for ambiguity (TA) and 30 behaviours indicative for intolerance of ambiguity (InTA) was compiled from the research literature. The 60 items were given to 30 professional psychologists and 34 graduate students in psychology who served as experts in the evaluation of the content validity of the items. Out of the initial 60 items, 23 TA and 11 InTA items were correctly identified by at least 80% of the experts. The remaining 34 items were then evaluated for social desirability by 30 teachers and 48 parents. From the 34 items, an equal number of TA and InTA behaviours were

selected. Thus the scale for measuring attitudes towards tolerance – intolerance of ambiguity consists of 7 TA and 7 InTA behaviours that are thematically related and have a similar moderate degree of social desirability.

The scale was used to measure the importance that adolescents assign to these behaviours and to evaluate adults' encouragement of ambiguity tolerance – intolerance in adolescents. Parents and teachers were given the scale with the instruction to indicate how often they encourage these behaviours within their family or with their pupils on a 4 point Likert type scale from "almost always encourage" to "almost never encourage". Students were asked to indicate, on a 4-point rating scale, 1) how important these behaviours are for themselves and 2) how often their teachers encourage these behaviours, and 3) how often their parents encourage these behaviours. This scale was further used with young adults in a retrospective study of their parents' encouragement of ambiguity tolerant – intolerant behaviours (Glutnikova, 2000) and with a sample of 118 French adolescents aged 12 to 19 and their parents (cf. Stoycheva, 2003a).

Empirical data gathered throughout the construction of the scale and its subsequent application in studies of ambiguity tolerance in adolescents and young adults indicate that both ambiguity tolerant and ambiguity intolerant behaviours are valued by adolescents and positively perceived and encouraged by their teachers and parents. Results also suggest that attitudes towards ambiguity tolerant and ambiguity intolerant behaviours, although related, reveal different psychological constructs (Stoycheva, 2003a; 2005).

Thus, for example, TA behaviours were more easily recognised and were rated as more socially desirable by both groups of experts. Parents, however, rated InTA behaviours as more desirable and also reported encouraging them more often compared to teachers who both consider TA behaviours more desirable and encourage them more. Preferences for InTA behaviours (but not for TA behaviours) depended upon demographic factors like age, education and settlement: younger adolescents, parents with secondary education and those living in a small town valued and encouraged InTA behaviours to a greater extent.

On the other hand, the differentiation of the relation of AT scores to the importance assigned to TA and InTA behaviours points to a differentiation in the psychological mechanisms behind individuals' differences in ambiguity tolerance. Adolescents preferred TA to InTA behaviours, and their preferences were inversely related. Adolescents' tolerance for ambiguity however was inversely related to the importance they assigned to InTA behaviours and was not related to their preference for TA behaviours. This finding was replicated with French adolescents as well. We also found that ambiguity tolerant adolescents perceived their parents as less encouraging InTA behaviours while adolescents' AT scores were unrelated to perceived parental encouragement for TA behaviours. The same pattern of relations was observed in the retrospective study of young adults (Glutnikova, 2000).

AMBIGUITY TOLERANCE AND CREATIVITY

Theories of creativity emphasise the importance of ambiguity tolerance for the production of new, original and appropriate solution to a problem, whether it is an object, a theory or a personal or social act embedded in a particular human interaction. Empirical studies of the relation of tolerance for ambiguity to creativity are rare, however (see Stoycheva, 2003b,c).

Our research suggests that tolerance for ambiguity contribute to idea generation in the creative problem solving (Stoycheva, 2003c). High AT adolescents outperformed those who were low in AT on both verbal and non-verbal tasks from the Torrance tests of creative thinking (Stoycheva, 1998; 2003a). Ambiguity tolerant students were able to generate more original and unusual ideas and solutions to open-ended verbal tasks. They also provided more inventive, imaginative and abstract titles to their pictures – titles that go beyond what can be seen. Also, in a study of 34 pairs of French adolescents and their parents, tolerant for ambiguity participants generated more unique solutions to a verbal divergent thinking task (Zenasni, Besançon, Lubart, 2008).

In an experimental study of the impact of problem redefinition on the generation of creative solutions to the problems, two groups of students in business administration were asked to generate original and effective solutions to real-life problems. Four professional psychologists rated their problem redefinitions for breadth and generalisation while four experienced managers rated the creativity of the proposed solutions to the problems. Individual differences in tolerance of ambiguity were related to problem redefinition and creativity: a) students who were high in tolerance of ambiguity have provided problem redefinitions that were judged as more broad and generalised, and b) the mean creativity score of their solutions to the redefined problem was higher than the mean creativity score of their solutions to the non-redefined problem. (Stoycheva, Popova, Komneva, 2007).

Ambiguity tolerance is also important for decision making in creativity (Stoycheva, Lubart, 2001). Decision making is required at crucial moments in the process of generation, evaluation, selection and implementation of solutions. These are, for example, when to evaluate ideas, how to judge their originality and relevance, whether to persist or leave a stubborn problem, where to look for new possibilities, is the creative product ready to be accepted by the public. Tolerance for ambiguity seems to help restructuring the problem space and generating creative options to choose from.

An important element of individual's creativity is motivation. Motivation regulates the investment of time and efforts in problem solving, puts into action cognitive and personality resources, contributes to the development of domain-relevant creative skills and supports life-long creative performance. Research on ambiguity tolerance and motivation for creativity (Stoycheva, 1998; 2003a,c; 2008) allows specifying the motivational role of ambiguity tolerance in creativity.

It has been found that 1) creative motivation and need for achievement are positively correlated; 2) ambiguity tolerance correlates positively with creative motivation, and 3) ambiguity tolerance doesn't correlate with need for achievement. The positive association between tolerance for ambiguity and creative motivation was replicated across two samples of 106 high school students and 135 university students, tested with the Bulgarian adaptation of Norton's AT scale (Stoycheva, 2008), and two samples of 117 university students and 279 adults, who filled in the Bulgarian adaptation of the MacDonald's AT scale (Stoycheva, 2003a,c). Creative motivation scores were derived from the Bulgarian adaptation of Torrance's Creative motivation scale (Stoycheva, Stetinski, Popova, 2008).

The ability to withstand the discomfort of an ambiguous situation and to cope with induced uncertainty contributes to one's willingness to embark on the exploration of new possibilities, unusual ideas, and uncommon pathways. This proposition is further supported, for example, by the empirically found positive association between tolerance for ambiguity and openness to experience (Zenasni, Lubart, 2001) and tolerance for ambiguity and self-evaluation of creative personality traits (Zenasni, Besançon, Lubart, 2008).

Thus tolerance of ambiguity empowers the intrinsically motivated exploration of novel, unusual or complex stimuli and situations. In this way ambiguity tolerance contributes to the creative process. However, ambiguity tolerance is not related to the search for high standards of achievement in the results of the creative work (Stoycheva, 1998; 2003a,c; 2008)

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THE IMPORTANCE OF SOCIAL COMPARISON ORIENTATION ON MATE GUARDING

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***Abstract.** In this study, after reading a hypothetical infidelity scenario involving their romantic partner, 190 female and 145 male heterosexual participants filled the Schmitt and Buss' (1996) Competitor Derogation Tactics Scale. This scale consists of 83 acts (which comprise 27 tactics) intended to derogate same sex romantic competitors. Each tactic reflects the individual's mate guarding concerns by focusing particular aspects of the competitor such as financial resources, appearance or physical strength etc. Participants were also measured on Social Comparison Orientation (Gibbons & Buunk, 1999), Self Perceived Mating Success (Lalumiere et al, 1996), their current relationship status and susceptibility to infidelity. Results of multiple regressions conducted to predict each 27 derogation tactics were impressive: Participants' Social Comparison Orientation (SCO) predicted all but one of the derogation tactics significantly, while sex predicted one third of them. High SCO was related to higher derogation tendencies. These findings underlined the importance of social comparison on mate guarding. Results were discussed in the light of evolutionary psychology.*

***Keywords:** social comparison orientation; mate guarding; mate competition; derogation tactics.*

INTRODUCTION

The claim that social comparison played an important role on human evolutionary history (especially on sexual selection issues) is not a new idea (e.g. Gilbert, Price & Allen, 1995; Beach and Tesser, 2000). It's surprising, however, it's not common practice using social comparison measures in an attempt to analyze the evolved human behaviors and psychological mechanisms with the very exception of Buunk and his colleagues' research program on romantic jealousy and rival assess-

ment (e.g. Dijkstra and Buunk, 2002; Buunk and Dijkstra, 2001; see also Buunk, Massar and Dijkstra, 2007). Buunk and his colleagues showed the extensive role of social comparison processes on the evaluation of romantic rival and its adaptive functions. According to Buunk and Gibbons (2000), social comparison activity has many adaptive functions including help individual deal with the group hierarchy or intrasexual competition in the groups (see also Gilbert, Price & Allen, 1995).

SOCIAL COMPARISON ORIENTATION

Although there is strong human motivation to compare one's own feelings, opinions, abilities, accomplishments etc. vis a vis that of others, researchers suggest that there are certain individual differences in the extent to which, and the frequency with which people compare themselves with others (Buunk and Gibbons, 2006). Gibbons and Buunk (1999) labeled this as social comparison orientation (SCO). High in SCO characterized with high chronic activation of the self, and a strong interest in how others feel and respond (Buunk & Gibbons, 2006).

DEROGATION OF SAME-SEX COMPETITORS

Sexual selection depends on two main mechanisms: intersexual attraction (developing traits that help oneself making more attractive to the opposite sex) and intrasexual competition (developing traits that help oneself making more effective competition with the same-sex competitors). According to Buss and Dedden (1990) one of the important aspects of intrasexual mate competition is "rendering the competitors less attractive" to the opposite sex by using the strategic derogation acts.

METHOD

PARTICIPANTS

Participants were 190 female and 145 male heterosexual university students of Ege University, Turkey. Age range was 18 to 34 with the mean age of 21.8 (S.D.=2.36). 46.5 percent of the participants were currently committed a romantic relationship.

PROCEDURE

Participants were reached for a study on romantic relationships. When they were handed the study materials, they had been first instructed to fill out the questionnaire containing Iowa Netherlands Social Comparison Orientation Measure (INCOM / Gibbons and Buunk, 1999) and Self Perceived Mating Success Scale (SPMS / Lalumière et. al., 1995), and then were asked to reply two questions one for current relationship status and the other for perceived probability of future partner infidelity.

After completing questionnaire the participants were instructed to imagine following scenario:

You are at a party with your girlfriend/boyfriend, and you are talking with some of your friends. You notice your girlfriend/boyfriend across the room talking to a man/woman you do not know. You can see from his/her acts that he/she is very interested in your girlfriend/boyfriend. He/She seems that he/she is pleased too much due to talking with your girlfriend/boyfriend. When he/she is talking, he/she is looking your girlfriend/boyfriend in the eyes and trying to attract her/his with his/her jokes. Your girlfriend/boyfriend is laughing his/her jokes sincerely. After a minute, you notice that he/she casually touches your girlfriend's/boyfriend's hand. Your girlfriend/boyfriend pulls back her/his hand but she/he does not seem uncomfortable.

As soon as they completed the imagination task, participants filled out Schmitt and Buss' (1996) Competitor Derogation Tactics Scale.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A series of multiple regressions conducted to understand which variables (SCO, SPMS, sex, current relationship status and perceived probability of future partner infidelity) predicted the each derogation tactic. As it's seen in the Table1, participants' Social Comparison Orientation (SCO) predicted all of the derogation tactics significantly (with one exception of nonsignificant and one marginally significant). According to the data, in line with the expectations, high SCO was related to higher derogation tendencies.

On the other hand, sex predicted one third of the derogation tactics. The direction of the observed sex differences were concordant with the evolutionary literature (e.g. Buss and Dedden, 1990; Schmitt and Buss, 1996): Being a male was more related with "derogate competitor's strength", "defeat competitor physically", "dominate competitor", "outshine competitor in sports", "derogate competitor's financial resources", "question competitor's sexual orientation", "derogate competitor's habits", "speak of previous pregnancy" while being a female was more related only "call competitor boring".

There is some evidence in the recent literature that certain dispositions, individual difference variables or motivational states moderated the person's adaptive responses to the environment (e.g. Maner et. Al., 2007). For example Maner and colleagues (2007) showed that people's levels of "exhibiting intrasexual vigilance" moderated their jealous responses to the attractive same-sex targets.

TABLE 1. PREDICTOR VARIABLES FOR EACH DEROGATION TACTIC BASED ON REGRESSION MODELS

Derogation tactic	Predictor variable	β^a	t	P
Derogate competitor's intelligence	SCO	.25	3.80	.000
	SPMS	.14	2.16	.032
Call competitor insensitive	SCO	.28	4.26	.000
Derogate competitor's financial resources	SCO	.20	2.95	.004
	Relationship status	.16	2.23	.027
	Sex	.12	1.72	.087
Call competitor promiscuous	SCO	.19	2.78	.006
Call competitor unpopular	SCO	.18	2.66	.008
Derogate competitor's appearance	SCO	.30	4.54	.000
	SPMS	.17	2.59	.010
Derogate competitor's achievements	SCO	.31	4.75	.000
Derogate competitor's strength	SCO	.27	4.16	.000
	SPMS	.18	2.79	.006
	Sex	.15	2.30	.023
Derogate competitor's habits	SCO	.26	4.03	.000
	SPMS	.12	1.79	.075
	Sex	.20	2.93	.004
Derogate competitor's hygiene	SCO	.21	3.13	.002
	PPI	.12	1.71	.089
Defeat competitor physically	SCO	.16	2.57	.011
	SPMS	.16	2.55	.011
	Sex	.26	4.06	.000
Dominate competitor	SCO	.16	2.56	.011
	SPMS	.20	2.99	.003
	Sex	.16	2.41	.017
Get competitor drunk	SCO	.16	2.42	.016
	SPMS	.20	3.07	.002
	PPI	.13	1.81	.071
Call competitor exploitative	SCO	.25	3.74	.000
Call competitor boring	SCO	.24	3.80	.000
	SPMS	.11	1.69	.092
	Sex	-.15	2.29	.023

Derogation tactic	Predictor variable	β^a	t	P
Question competitor's sexual orientation	SCO	.11	1.73	.085
	SPMS	.18	2.70	.007
	Sex	.20	2.91	.004
	Relationship status	.14	2.04	.043
Outshine competitor in sports	SCO	.19	2.89	.004
	SPMS	.21	3.13	.002
	Sex	.15	2.29	.023
Say competitor has social disease	SCO	.29	4.50	.000
Call competitor selfish	SCO	.26	3.89	.000
Speak of previous pregnancy	SCO	.16	2.40	.017
	Sex	.28	4.25	.000
Say competitor has no goals	SCO	.19	2.89	.004
Derogate competitor's family	SCO	.16	2.39	.018
Call competitor emotionally unstable	SCO	.22	3.30	.001
Call competitor a tease	SCO	.17	2.56	.011
Question competitor's fidelity	SCO	.26	3.98	.000
Call competitor sexually inexperienced	SCO	.16	2.45	.015
	SPMS	.12	1.71	.088
	PPI	.12	1.73	.085
	Relationship status	.12	.68	.095
Spread rumors about competitor	No variable predicted			

^a = Standardized regression coefficient; SCO = Social Comparison Orientation; SPMS = Self Perceived Mating Success; PPI = Perceived probability of future partner infidelity.

In a similar vein, our findings may suggest the similar role for social comparison orientation on adaptive function of mate guarding. Because participants read a hypothetical infidelity scenario involving their romantic partner, their mate guarding motives were invoked. According the study, the moderating role of SCO on mate guarding was clear as SCO predicted all but one of the competitor derogation strategies.

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FIREDANCING AND FIREWALKING – A PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract. *Anastenaria and Nestinarstvo are the Greek and Bulgarian words, respectively, for a traditional ritual, that involves firewalking and firedancing and has been performed annually in several villages in northern Greece and south-eastern Bulgaria. Researchers agree that the ritual is a mixture of East Orthodox religious beliefs and pagan traditions characterizing the population of eastern Thrace. The present paper focuses on the psychological research of the firedancing ritual in the Balkans and the firewalking phenomenon of the American firewalking movement. The studies reviewed describe Anastenaria firewalking and firewalking seminars as experience that involves a certain alteration of the normal waking state of consciousness, including observed and reported changes in attention, self-awareness, perception, and emotions. The subjective experiences that occur in the altered state of consciousness during firedancing and firewalking are sometimes associated with subsequent positive aftereffects on the psychological functioning of the participants.*

Keywords: *firedancing; firewalking; Anastenaria; Nestinarstvo; state of consciousness.*

INTRODUCTION

Anastenaria and Nestinarstvo are the Greek and Bulgarian words, respectively, for a traditional ritual, that involves firewalking and firedancing and has been performed annually in several villages in northern Greece and south-eastern Bulgaria, including Agia Eleni and Langada in Greece, and Bulgari in Bulgaria. Researchers agree (Danforth, 1989; V. Fol & Neikova, 2000; Xygalatas, 2007) that the ritual is a mixture of East Orthodox religious beliefs and pagan traditions characterizing the

population of eastern Thrace. The ceremonies of the ritual have been held on the days of important religious holidays such as May 21, the day of Saints Constantine and Helen. A central belief is that the icons of the two saints are personifications of God and mediate his divine power to the people. The ritual ceremonies are performed at special shrines, known as *konaki*, where the holy icons of the saints are kept, and special gifts and ritual breads are offered. The ceremonies also include processions, which start and end in the *konaki* and involve carrying the icons to sacred springs, called *ayiasma*, where animal offerings are given and people are blessed with holy water. The traditional dance on a bed of glowing coals to the music of Thracian lyre, a drum and sometimes a bagpipe is considered the final ceremony of the whole ritual, during which the participants believe that they may be “seized” by the spirit of Saint Constantine. *Anastenarides/Nestinari* claim that during the dance, which begins in the shrine-*konaki* before the fire bed is prepared, continues for some time around the fire and finally on the embers, they are possessed by the spirit the Saints and acquire their supernatural power. As a result *Anastenarides/Nestinari* are able to walk on fire, make prophecies, and communicate the will of the Saints at any time, thus being able to function as counselors in any troublesome situation, including interpersonal relationships, the village’s public affairs, and cases of disease and illness.

Psycho-physiological research and *Anastenaria/Nestinarstvo*

In the 1970s neurological investigations of the mental state of the *Anastenarides/Nestinari* during the firewalk, involving tele-electroencephalograms (EEG) and tele-electrocardiograms (ECG), found no significant difference from normal waking state; psychiatric assessments and laboratory tests of blood urine and electrolytes were also found to be normal. Thus, fire dancers were believed to be in a high state of self-induced concentration and not in an altered state of consciousness such as possession trance, however no scientific explanation of the fire-immunity phenomenon was provided (Xenakis, 1977).

In 1980, investigation of the ritual of firewalking in Meteora, northern Greece, was conducted using direct observation, video- and tape recording, interviews and questionnaires (Lesk, Grammer, Schnitzlein, Eggebrecht, & Yfantis-Hemm, 1981). The final conclusions were that the “outstanding feature of firewalking is the complex coordination of ritual and bond formation behavior, which gives participants the necessary support to overcome sickness and mental suffering”, not the fact that they do not suffer burns on their feet. Supporting the argument that the physical aspects of firewalking are not of paramount importance, laboratory experiments demonstrated that an ordinary person, without special preparation, could safely walk on glowing charcoal. On the basis of an investigation of firewalking as practiced at a firewalk seminar and extensive interviews (Leikind & McCarthy, 1985) researchers concluded that firewalking is possible because of the

low heat capacity and poor thermal conductivity of the embers in comparison to those properties of the foot. The ecstatic or excited states that commonly accompany firewalking may distract the walker from the perception of heat but have no demonstrated effect on whether the foot will burn. Leader of the American firewalking movement Burkan (1985) hypothesizes that the intense state associated with firewalking causes the brain to secrete neuropeptides that alter the body's neurochemistry, which prevents firewalkers from burning.

Researchers who discard both the "Leidenfrost" effect explanation that vaporizing moisture forms a protective air cushion of gaseous steam as well as the low-thermal-conductivity of wood explanation, attribute the fire-immunity phenomenon to bio-energetic protective shield or altered body chemistry, however failing to provide reliable evidence.

Altered state of consciousness and Anastenaria/Nestinarstvo

It has been widely documented by observers of ritual firewalking that participants are usually in an ecstatic, absorbed state and that this alteration of the waking state of consciousness may have commonality with hypnosis, meditation as well as might provide immunity to fire. Mihail-Dede (1972) claims that during the ritual of Anastenaria participants undergo a psychological process which ends up in an ecstatic, highly aroused and euphoric state that is achieved through deep faith, self concentration and prayer in order to get "message" and protection from the Saints. Anthropologist Danforth (1989) defines Anastenaria as a healing ritual that involves an alteration of the usual waking state and ritual therapy using "complex metaphorical sets involving fire, burns, release from confinement, and the removal of obstacles" (p. 268). Vilenskaya & Steffy (1997) claim that Anastenarides undergo conditioning through certain movements, music and group solidarity that assists them in reaching a "transcendental" state. The specific group psychology and dynamics developed among Anastenarides serves as trigger of exaltation and ecstasy for all members. Sansom (1998) reports that the experience Anastenarides have during firewalking involves alteration of self-awareness as the self ceases to be the focus and "shifts". Bromley (2007) refers to the Anastenaria ritual as "spiritual edgework" and points out that its basic feature is the establishment of connections to a source of transcendent power, that leads to enhancement of the sense of empowerment and control in the practitioners. Leaders of the American firewalking movement Burkan (2001) and Robbins (1986) define firewalking as a form of psychological metaphor that rediscovers the empowering experience of walking on hot coals by forming a connection to a "higher, true self" that exists beyond the currently operating self. Robins believes that through training in neuro-linguistic programming and the symbolic transforming experience of the firewalk, people can alter their normal waking state creating a synergic relationship between the conscious and unconscious.

Anthropologist Xygalatas (2007) refers to Anastenaria as a ritual of “high-arousal” and discusses its ability to stimulate the production of endogenous substances in the human body, thus explaining the influence of the ritual on cognitive elements such as perception, attention and memory. According to him any altered experience that Anastenarides report can be referred to as delusions in an attempt to rationalize an otherwise confusing sensation. Researchers who observed and reported changes in attention, self-awareness, perception, and emotions during firewalking ritual, associate the subjective experiences which occur in the altered state of consciousness with subsequent positive aftereffects on the psychological functioning of the participants.

Empirical research on subjective experiences and firewalking

Empirical research on subjective experience of firewalking, not the physics of the phenomenon, does not include traditional ritual fire dancing. Blake (1985) did an empirical investigation with experienced and first-time firewalkers during firewalking seminars. Participants were interviewed and given questionnaires to complete before and after the firewalk. Blake concluded that the successful firewalkers experienced a strong feeling of anxiety and had a strong belief in powerful forces. Analysis of the subjective state associated with first-time participants revealed that the majority, 81%, experienced a shift in their energy while firewalking, 62% reported accurate sensory perceptions, including heat and pain, and 38% reported perceptions inconsistent with consensual reality, including coolness and wetness; 67% described their experience as euphoric, 58% reported no fear, and 54 percent reported having a feeling of timelessness.

Pekala & Ersek (1992–1993) did an empirical investigation of the mental and emotional states of firewalkers during a firewalking seminar using Phenomenology of Consciousness Inventory (PCI) and Dimensions of Attention Questionnaire (DAQ). They assessed “the subjective effects associated with firewalking, and compared them with the subjective effects associated with hypnosis and a baseline condition” (p. 207). The conclusion was that firewalking experience is characterized by “higher levels of volitional control and rationality, moderate muscle tension levels and a very absorbed attentional style wherein the mind is one-pointed, and consciousness is characterized by very strong feelings of joy” (p. 223). Pekala and Ersek’s study suggests that the subjective experience of firewalking is phenomenologically different from that of hypnosis and a baseline condition of quietly-sitting, that is, firewalking is associated with more “joy, absorption, one-pointedness of thought, fear, and unusual meanings than either hypnosis or baseline” (p. 223). There are at least two subtypes of firewalking phenomenology—one that involves an altered state of consciousness and experience, and moderate amounts of positive and negative affect, and a second one that does not involve much of an alteration in consciousness nor experience and any significant amount

of affect, instead it is associated with “somewhat more control, rationality, and self-awareness” (p. 224).

A study by Hillig & Holroyd (1997) partly supports the previously gathered data. Firewalking participants were compared to their own eyes-closed baseline and the time of retrospective report was shortened. When compared to the baseline experience, the firewalking experience was characterized by increased one-pointed attention, was reported “greater absorption, altered state of awareness and altered experience” (p. 160). Hillig & Holroyd obtained data showing significantly greater degree of hypnotic effect during the firewalk condition compared to the baseline and concluded that hypnotic effects increased while walking on hot coals. Thus, the possibility that firewalkers are in a hypnotic state needs further investigation.

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INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONS BETWEEN EMOTION, APPRAISAL, AND ACTION READINESS

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***Abstract.** Distinctions between knowledge and emotion have been shown to be less fundamental than it seems on the phenomenological level. Different arguments used to support these distinctions are questionable when examined thoroughly. Some models propose a view of emotion as a phenomenon with different components – evaluation of an event or situation, somatic experiences, affective experiences, the consequences (in terms of maintaining self-esteem and abiding social norms) and the actions expected and performed by the subject. Focusing on the relations between appraisals of an event and the corresponding action readiness and the relation of both to emotion names (labels), this report presents an attempt to replicate the results of Frijda, Kuipers, & Schure (1989). This is a pilot study assessing the utility of the method used by these authors in a sample of Bulgarian students. This study can be viewed as a first step towards developing a more extensive method including not only emotion labels, appraisals and action readiness, but also somatic experiences and consequences for the subject, uniting all these phenomena in a single construct.*

Keywords: *emotion, appraisal, action readiness.*

INTRODUCTION

According to the appraisal theory of emotion formation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Lazarus & Smith, 1988; Lazarus, 1991; Smith & Lazarus, 1993), information processing begins with a transaction that is appraised as harmful, beneficial, threatening, or challenging. The transactions involve both the goals of the person and the representation of the environmental encounters. The theory of appraisal

makes a distinction between (a) primary appraisals, concerned with how individuals evaluate the nature and meaning of a particular transaction, and (b) secondary appraisals, by which individuals determine what coping strategies are available to deal with a stressful event.

The analysis of the appraisals can be described at least at two levels: a molecular level referring to specific information processing and a molar level referring to core relational themes (Smith, Hayes, Lazarus, & Pope, 1993).

According to appraisal theory, each emotion corresponds to a specific set of appraisals about the event that evoked the emotion. The question if each emotion has the same configuration of appraisals in every occasion and in every person is still under debate (Kuppens, Mechelen, Smits, De Boeck, & Ceulemans, 2007).

Another important component that differentiates between one kind of emotional experience and another is awareness of action tendency. According to Frijda et al. (Frijda, Kuipers, & ter Schure, 1989), action tendencies or, more generally, changes in action readiness are not only important in emotional experience but also are central in the analysis of emotion as such. Action readiness is what links experience and behavior: felt action readiness can be considered a reflection of the actual state of behavioral readiness.

Frijda et al. define “state of action readiness” as “the individual’s readiness or unreadiness to engage in interaction with the environment”. The authors identify an important class of changes in emotional action readiness: “action control states”. For example, a state of helplessness is a state of readiness to welcome a change of situation, but contains some kind of awareness that no actions are available to effect such change.

In two studies (Frijda et al., 1989) the relations between emotion, appraisal, and emotion action readiness, was explored. This article presents an attempt to replicate the results of the authors using the same methodology in a sample of Bulgarian students.

METHODOLOGY

Frija et al. used 32 emotion names and collected a brief description of an instance in which the participants of the study had felt an emotion. 30 sets of data were collected for each emotion. After describing the instance, the subjects were asked to fill two questionnaires – an appraisal (23 items, 7-point scale in the second study) and an action readiness (29 items, 7-point scale in the second study) questionnaire.

Analysis of the results of the study included: (a) Prediction of emotion names by appraisals alone, by action readiness alone and by both; (b) Structure of emotion similarities – similarities between the strings of average appraisal and action readiness scores for each emotion was computed, to check the prediction that

similarities between emotions obtained from appraisal and action readiness would correspond, and that the structure in the similarity matrixes should conform to intuitive grouping of the emotions concerned. (c) Emotion patterns – describing the emotions by the appraisal and action readiness variables that received high average scores (defined as average deviations of 1 unit or more from the midpoints of the 7-point scales); (d) Appraisal and action readiness dimensions (using factor analysis); (e) Prediction of action readiness modes by appraisals.

In this pilot study, 9 emotion names were selected: anger, hope, anxiety, surprise, touched, sadness, relief, shame, boredom. The emotions were selected in such a way that they differed both in valence and in intensity. 90 undergraduate students were asked to recall an instance of feeling one of the emotions mentioned, to describe the instance and to fill in the two translated questionnaires. The study was anonymous, the subjects were asked to fill in their age, sex and the subject they studied. 10 sets of data were received for each of the 9 emotions studied. Due to the small amount data collected this far, only appraisal and action readiness dimensions and emotion patterns were computed and were compared to the results of the original study (Frijda et al., 1989). Also, feedback regarding the wording and overall setting of the questionnaires and the study was obtained from participants in order to identify problems with the method that are not shown in the statistical results.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The appraisal and action readiness profiles yielded in the pilot study are presented in Table 1 and Table 2, respectively. In order to compare the results of the pilot study with the results of the original one the same dimensions found in the original study were used when constructing the emotion patterns in the pilot one.

In Table 1, A plus denotes an appraisal component with average ratings of 1 or more above the scale midpoint; two pluses, an appraisal component with average ratings of 2 or more above the scale midpoint. A minus denotes an appraisal component with average ratings 1 or more below the scale midpoint; two minuses, an appraisal component with average ratings 2 or more below the scale midpoint. The results in parenthesis are the results of the pilot study.

In Table 2, a plus denotes action readiness modes with average ratings of 1 or more above the scale midpoint; two pluses, average ratings of 2 or more above the scale midpoint. The results in parenthesis are the results of the pilot study. In constructing the action readiness profiles of each emotion, only the average ratings of 1 or more above the scale midpoint were used; this means that the subjects actually felt the action tendency. Not having or not being aware of the action tendency (ratings below the scale midpoint) was not found to be as informative.

TABLE 1. APPRAISAL PROFILES

	An-ger	Hope	Anxi-ety	Sur-prise	Touc-hed	Sad-ness	Re-lief	Sha-me	Bor-edom
Pleasantness	-- (-)		-- (-)	++	(+)	-- (-)	++ (+)	-- (-)	-
Fairness	- (-)		(-)		(+)	(-)			
Certainty	+ (+)	(+)	-	+ (+)			++ (++)	+ (+)	+ (+)
Suddenness	(+)		+	++ (++)	(+)	+ (-)	+	+ (+)	(-)
Expectedness	(-)	--	-	- (-)	(-)				
Importance	+ (+)	++ (++)	+ (++)	+ (++)	(++)	++ (+)	++ (++)	+ (+)	
Modifiability	(+)	(+)	+				(+)		
Controllability	(+)				(+)	- (-)	(+)		(-)
Self-responsible	- (-)	(+)				- (-)	+	+	(+)
Other-responsible	++ (++)			+ (+)	(+)				+
Familiarity	+	+		+ (-)		+	+		
Someone else				+	(-)			(-)	-

TABLE 2. ACTION READINESS PROFILES

	An-ger	Hope	Anxi-ety	Sur-prise	Touc-hed	Sad-ness	Re-lief	Sha-me	Boredom
Don't want	+ (+)		++			++ (+)		+	+ (++)
Helpless			+			+ (+)			
Inhibited			+						
Antagonistic – boiling inwardly	+ (+)								(+)
Reactant	+	(+)	(+)			(+)	(+)		(+)
Approach			+ (+)	+ (+)			+		+
Protection	(+)		+						
Avoidance			+						
Excited		+	(+)	+	(+)				
Exuberant							+		
Disappear from view								+	
Attending	+		+ (+)			+	+		

As can be seen from the tables, the differences between the results of the two studies do not contradict to each other. In many cases they replicate each other. The only contradiction found in the appraisal profiles is the Familiarity dimension of the Surprise emotion. In the original study, subjects pointed that the situation that surprised them was familiar to them, which is somewhat hard to explain. In the pilot study, surprise was brought about by something unfamiliar.

As for the action readiness profiles, it is worth mentioning that subjects in the pilot study felt reactant (the most illustrative item of this dimension is “I wanted to go against an obstacle or difficulty, or to conquer it) much more often than subjects in the original study and that this action tendency is present in emotions that differ both in intensity and in valence. It is surprising that no action tendency was reported to be felt when feeling shame. But overall, the action readiness profiles obtained in the pilot study were logical and explainable.

The results of the factor analysis of the appraisal questionnaire are shown in Table 3. Comparison of the dimensions yielded in the original and the pilot study are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 3. DIMENSIONS OF THE APPRAISAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Factor name	Items loading highest on that factor
Appraisal factor 1 – Valence	Pleasant situation Bearable situation Situation enabling achievement of goals Situation enhancing self-esteem Fairness Interesting situation
Appraisal factor 2 – Unexpected-Expected	Situation had developed all of a sudden Situation was unexpected No expectations involved that came true Situation was not experienced before Situation was novel
Appraisal factor 3 – Personal engagement	Subject knew where he stood in the situation The situation would require effort Subject affected personally by the situation Situation was important Subject was responsible for what happened
Appraisal factor 4 – Certainty	Situation and consequences were clear Subject knew how the situation would end The outcome was inevitable
Appraisal factor 5 – Someone else affected	
Appraisal factor 6 – Controllable-Uncontrollable	Subject was unable to affect the situation Someone else was responsible for what happened
Appraisal factor 7 – Time of event	

TABLE 4. COMPARISON OF THE APPRAISAL DIMENSIONS COMPUTED IN THE ORIGINAL AND THE PILOT STUDY.

Original Study		Pilot Study	
Factor	% Variance	Factor	% Variance
Valence	14	Valence	16
Agency: Self-Other	4	Unexpected-Expected	13
Importance	7	Personal engagement	10
Unexpected-Expected	7	Certainty	9
Controllable-Uncontrollable	5	Someone else affected	7
Novelty-Familiarity	3	Controllable-Uncontrollable	6
Certainty	8	Time of event	4
Time of Event	2	Total	65
Interestingness	2		
Total	52		

As can be seen in Tables 3 and 4, the factor that explains most of the variance is Valence. Because in the pilot study it merges with the Interestingness factor, it explains a bit more of the variance. The factor Personal engagement is worth discussing. It corresponds to the Importance factor in the original study but it includes in itself self-agency (which is a part of the Agency: Self-Other in the original study) and required effort. This is the reason for choosing a different name for this factor and perhaps this is the reason that it explains a bigger percent of variance. The other half of the Agency: Self-Other factor from the original study is included in the Controllable-Uncontrollable factor in the pilot study. So the Agency: Self-Other is not present in the pilot study but the factors Personal engagement and Controllable-Uncontrollable explain a bigger deal of variance. The factors Unexpected-Expected and Novelty-Familiarity in the original study merge to form the Unexpected-Expected factor in the pilot study and thus contribute to its bigger percent of variance explained.

The results of the factor analysis of the action readiness questionnaire are shown in Table 5. Comparison of the dimensions yielded in the original and the pilot study are shown in Table 6.

As can be seen from the tables, most of the factors in the pilot study are logical and explainable. A big exception is the first factor; factor 4 is also somewhat unclear. Factor 1 consists of different and contradicting items that load high on it. On one side, there are items from factors Moving Against and Moving Away from the original study; on the other, there are items from the Hypoactivation, Passive and In Command-Helpless, Don't Want factors. This is why this factor explains such a big percent of variance. The meanings of two sets of items contradict to each other, while all of the items have a positive load, so clearly the factor is not bipolar.

TABLE 5. DIMENSIONS OF THE ACTION READINESS QUESTIONNAIRE

Factor name	Items loading highest on that factor
Action readiness factor 1	Subject wants to protect himself Subject wants to avoid something or someone Desire to keep something/one at a distance Subject doesn't want to have anything to do with something/one Subject wants something not to be so Subject boiled inside Desire do oppose, assault, hurt or insult Desire to go against an obstacle or difficulty Inability to concentrate Inhibition Giving up, quitting Shutting off Helplessness (Desire to do something without an idea what to do) Desire to cry
Action readiness factor 2 – attending/helping	Desire to approach, to make contact Desire to be or stay close to someone Desire to observe well, to understand Desire to help someone, to take care of someone
Action readiness factor 3 – At ease	Subject felt that he/she is in command Subject wanted to move, sing, jump, undertake things Desire to laugh Subject felt at rest, felt no need to do anything
Action readiness factor 4	Subject did not interrupt what he/her was doing Subject did not feel like doing anything, was apathetic Subject wanted to disappear from view Subject blushed or was afraid to blush
Action readiness factor 5 – Paying attention	
Action readiness factor 6 – Hypoactivation	
Action readiness factor 7 – Submission	

Obviously these items need a different wording or some other change is required in the questionnaire; another way of understanding this finding is to analyze more deeply and thoroughly the emotion instances that the participants recalled. As for factor 4, a common theme can be outlined for all the items – preserving privacy and a “leave me alone” attitude, self-preserving through avoidance, but that factor, too, remains questionable, and the items might need some new wording after a more thorough analysis.

TABLE 6. COMPARISON OF THE ACTION READINESS DIMENSIONS COMPUTED IN THE ORIGINAL AND THE PILOT STUDY

Original Study		Pilot Study	
Factor	% Variance	Factor	% Variance
In Command-Helpless, Don't Want	13	Factor 1	23
Moving Against	8	Attending/Helping	12
Moving Away	7	At Ease	10
Moving Toward	6	Factor 4	8
Hyperactivation	6	Paying attention	5
Disappear, Blush	5	Hypoactivation	5
Attending-Disinterest	4	Submission	4
Passive	4	Total	67
Hypoactivation	4		
Interrupted-In Command	3		
Total	60		

Feedback from the participants in the study revealed that the instruction should be clearer regarding the action readiness questionnaire. As was stated in the instruction, when subjects did not feel an action tendency at all, they should mark 1 – the lowest point in the scale. Although it was stated clearly, it should be emphasized more because many of the questions the participants asked while filling out the questionnaire showed that they had not understood that part of the instruction. Another issue is present in the action readiness items that are presented in a negative form, e.g. “I could not concentrate or order my thoughts.” Some participants found it hard to understand that the “totally agree” point of the scale means that they really could NOT concentrate.

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

Comparison of emotion profiles between the two studies showed no contradictions and all the differences are explainable. Results of the factor analysis of the appraisal and action readiness questionnaire can be explained in a meaningful way, except one, maybe two, factors in the action readiness questionnaire. The method, therefore, is an appropriate way to study the relations between emotions, appraisals, and action readiness, in a sample of Bulgarian students, after making some changes in it. These changes include (a) changes in the instruction of the action readiness questionnaire and the wording of items which are presented in negative form; (b) analysis of action readiness items that load high on factor 1 and factor

4, as well as analyzing more thoroughly the instances of emotions used by participants; (c) changes in these items.

After that what remains to be done is collecting additional data for these emotion names, as well as for the remaining 23 emotion names. Prediction of emotion names by appraisals alone, by action readiness alone and by both will be examined and discussed. Structure of emotion similarities will be revealed by computing similarities between the strings of average appraisal and action readiness scores for each emotion. Emotion patterns of each emotion will be illustrated. Also, prediction of action tendencies by appraisals will be examined. And finally, the factor analysis of the questionnaires after data for all 32 emotions has been collected could yield different factors from those found in the pilot study; if a different set of dimensions is found, this would be a result of the inclusion of the full set of 32 emotion names, which are unique and in many ways different (although some of them are similar) to the 9 emotions examined in this study.

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HUMAN PSYCHE AS PARADIGMAL PSYCHE – CULTURE AS THE SUBJECT OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract. I. “Artifactual theory of culture.” Artifact is the basic unit of culture. Culture is a system of artifacts. II. “Paradigm theory of psyche: The human psyche is a socio-cultural phenomenon, it is intellectualized psyche – leading function is thinking, a leading element – the actual concept (L. S. Vigotsky). The essence of the human psyche can be reduced to a paradigm. III. “The essence of culture (a community) is its paradigm. IV. Compliance “psyche” – “culture”. V. C. S. Goncharov argues that culture is subject to the development of the individual .. My thesis is its dialectical negation, not deny it, but it take off and developed, to the following: VI. Subject of the development of the individual is the culture in which he grew up, which is logically identical to: Subject of the individual development is community of the individual(communities).

“Man – this is not an animal, which had encountered the idea of culturalization....It is not a “naked ape with a big brain” (Desmond Morris), because it is not an animal with a kind of supplement.. Just the opposite – as the animal man is imperfect. Human nature is culture, not because it pleases the estheticians the result of anthropogenesis was losing its human hereditary defined from above evolutionary forms of behaviors..... As the evolutionary process had excluded the internal needs of such behavior, the man was bound to create a culture of its biology.” (St.Lem, Modelirovanie kulturi, paragraph 3 [8, p.3])

ARTIFACTICAL THEORY (OF) CULTURE

Artifactual theory (of) culture can be presented in a sentence like: “Culture is a system of artifacts.” Obviously that which appears to be a key to it`s understanding is an “artifact.” This makes it necessary to dwell on it. Common for the most of concepts of artifact, is the idea of artifact as a human creation or the result of

human impact .. example: A) Understanding of artifact in the theory of experiment – artefact is something introduced by man into the processes considered to be objective ... In the experiment the researcher is seeking to reach the processes and phenomena „in pure form.” Artifacts appear to prevent this – they should be reported and minimize ... This is decided accordingly by the relevant science.

B) Understanding of the artifact in history (archeology) – artifact is something material (object), made by a man that carries in itself “information about its creator and his life ...” Archeologists found artifacts and on that basis draw conclusions about people and their lives in distant ages...

These two notions of artifact – the most popular – I accept traditional. A non-traditional – it appears – the theory of Marx Vartofski, American scientist – philosopher and theorist of culture and psychology (for him see: http://mirslovari.com/content_fil/VARTOFSKIJ-WARTOFSKI-MARKS-R-1928-13112.html). Since it is relatively less known, I would allow myself to look in more detail.

Wartofsky understood artifacts „generally more widely, in accordance with good Aristotelian tradition, i.e. as everything that is created by people through the transformation of nature and themselves. This includes forms of social organization and interaction, and language, and forms of technology, and labor skills. Production of artifacts to be used is also the production of representations...” In this, such „highly developed forms of representation ... as a scientific theories, painting, literature, had its beginning in the forms of representation occurring simultaneously with our primary activity, social and linguistic practice ...” (M. Wartofsky, 1988, 9). He himself defines his conception as „historic epistemology“ or „historicized Kantianism”. Representations and the construction of models are considered to be „inherent in the very nature of human practice or activity.” (M. Wartofsky, 1988, 12). According to M. Vartofski artifacts are:

1. Primary – those used in the production – axes, sticks, pins, mugs and more.
2. Secondary – This are representations created for storage and transfer of skills in the production and use of „primary“ artifacts (e.g. instruments of labor, forms of social organization, motor skills and technical skills to handle the implements of labor). (M. Wartofsky, 1988, 200).
3. Tertiary – They are related to a particular area, for which is characteristic freedom of imagination in the development of rules and operations different from those adopted in ordinary “non-autonomous” practice of this world ... “(M. Wartofsky, 1988, 209).

It is particularly important to emphasize that this understanding of artifact can not be confined merely to the (physical) object. Last (automaticly) will lead to identity with a dominant understanding of artifact in history and, accordingly, archeology, . Which, of course will lead to loss of meaning of **non-traditional** concept of artifact...

In the Wartofsky world of everything is artifacts – besides these produced by man, elements of Nature itself – rivers, forests, etc. become in a some sense, artifacts; „They are gifted with properties known of human, i.e. **anthropo-shaping** through *representations* as ways to use and as forms of practice, peculiar of these ways ... Nature itself appears to be conferred with historical and public character, will stand before us as a representation of a form of experience or human activity.”(M. Wartofsky,1988, 206).

In my opinion, this process of “transformation” of Natural products and phenomena in artifacts can be called “**artifactualisation**”. I emphasize that this phenomenon does not pay enough attention to himself nor M. Wartofsky nor his successor in (socio) cultural psychology Michael Cole. This is – really – an ignored phenomenon. Because, say A, must say, and B:

There is no “nature – as such” ... there is (only) artifactualis(at)ed nature.... The artifactualisation is a culturalisation of Nature, which means its transformation in culture. That – that part of the nature – which is not artifactualis(at)ed – it is not given us (or it is given as “it”...) – it does not exist for us.... Our environment is culture – even if you’re alone in the woods, the desert, the lonely island (such as R. Crusoe) or in Space, etc. ...

The most vivid example of the nature of the concept of M. Wartofsky and M. Cole – as I understand it is that – I think – **the man is also an artifact ... Man is the most remarkable artifact!** His humanness is not due to its biology .. His humanness is due to its sociality incl. some seemingly simple basic functions such as walking... **Man is not just Homo Sapiens sapiens, even biologically he is Homo sapiens (socio) culturicus.**

PARADIGMAL THEORY OF THE PSYCHE

1. Theories of paradigms

It is not error in the title-indeed, the case today „paradigm“, the vast majority of scientists are tempted to remember T. Kuhn, author of *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*. „ Thomas Kuhn has one predecessor left forgotten in the methodology of science – Ludwik Fleck,, author of „*The Origin and Development of scientific fact. Introduction to the style of thinking* „– first edition in German – 1935 in Basel.

“Paradigm is what unites the members of the scientific community and, conversely, the scientific school is composed of people who recognize the paradigm.” (T. Kuhn, 1975, p.231). This is the famous „circular definition“ from the Addendum (T. Kuhn, 1969). In this text – two realities “Scientific School” and “paradigm” are defined one by another, which creates certain difficulties, according to T. Kuhn (Kuhn T., 1975, 221).

Scientific school is precisely the kind of community – according the classification of **Ferdinand Tonnies** – „community of spirit“. She is truly human and supreme form of community. „(F. Tonnies, 1998, p.144). This community, according to F. Tonnies, is relevant to places recognized as sacral or to gods. This type of community corresponds to a relationship (of) friendship. It is based on “common spirit, one faith,” people in it are connected in a spiritual connection and work for “a common cause.” (F. Tonnies, 1998, p.146)

It is clear that there is no reason what unites people in scientific school to be separated from the science school itself. (Scientific) school is not just a group of people, in accordance with the understanding of “community” in the traditional social psychology, whose views seem to be shared by T. Kun.... Ultimately, the scientific school and any spiritual community is nothing without what it generates – “a common spirit, one faith”, etc, and actually have a logical identity between these two concepts ...

Paradigm may ultimately be reduced to a system of common-accepted assertions. I stressed “common-acceptance” because the “common acceptance” of assertions is their most important characteristic, but not for example their truthfulness, unverifiable-ness or something else.. In this I must emphasize that a considerable part of them (like how ... the number does not change my statement) are unsupported and are generally unverifiable. This follows from the “incompleteness” theorems of **Kurt Gödel** (1906–1978), who in 1931 proved the inadequacy of a wide class of formal systems, incl. axiomatic set theory and arithmetic of natural numbers. The more famous incompleteness theorem states that for any self-consistent recursive axiomatic system powerful enough to describe the arithmetic of the natural numbers (Peano arithmetic), there are true propositions about the naturals that cannot be proved from the axioms. (see: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kurt_G%C3%B6del). In such systems has always assertions, which in their frames are unverifiable and irrefutable.

It is clear, despite the illusions of scientists, especially this from natural scientists, full verifiable-ness of one theory is utopia – something completely impossible – even purely logical ...

Thus it appears that the paradigm is a system of assertions, which does not differ from “the accepted-on-trust-world “of Alfred Schutz (A. Schutz, 1999, p.145). According to A. Schutz, “the social world in which man is born and seek his orientations, is experienced by him as tightly braided structure of social relations of symbolic and symbolic systems ...” The meaning of all these elements of the social world in all its diversity and complexity of its stratification, as well as model of its structure, just are accept-on-trust from the people living in it. „ (A. Schutz, 1999, p.147). From this point of view there is no fundamental difference between scientists active in their scientific school, and people living in their culture ... If you ask a scientist why something (which is part of the paradigm, inherent for their

paradigm) is true, he not explains ... The answer is simply that it is true or it is obvious or is simply a fact ... – Just as would answer every man, convinced of the truth of his „the accepted-on-trust-world“.

2. The contribution of L. S. Vygotsky

L. S. Vygotsky developed psychological doctrine of the concept. He understood the concept quite differently than in traditional psychology, which directly perceived ideas of the formal (Aristotelian) logic. „The traditional psychology has utilized the idea of formal logic for the concept as abstract mental construction, extremely remote from the wealth of concrete reality.“ (L.S. Vygotsky, 1984, v.4, p.72). Formal logic and traditional psychology practically limited the concept at the „general idea“. Further explanation of the concept as their general idea is based on the idea of Francis Galton for “collective photography”.

This understandings of the concept are just formal. In them.... “true nature of the concept is deeply deformed. The real concept is the image of the object in its complexity. Only when we know an object in all its connections and relationships, only when this diversity is synthesized in a word, an overall image through a number of definitions in our concept arises ...” (L.S. Vygotsky, 1982, v.4, p.73). To think (about) an object using a concept means to include an item in a complex system mediating connections and relationships, revealing in the definitions of the term. „The concept thus does not emerged as a result of mechanical abstraction – it is the result of long and thorough knowledge of the subject.“ (L.S. Vygotsky, 1982, v.4, p.73).

According to L. S. Vygotsky „the concept is actually known set of assertions, some system of acts of thinking the concept, regarded psychologically i.e. not only in terms of content as in logic but in terms of forms of expression into reality – with one word, such activity is a known quantity of assertions, therefore – not an act of thinking, a whole series... (L.S. Vygotsky, 1982, v.4, p.77). Thus “... **the concept is not part of assertion, but a complex system of assertions, brought into a known unity, and especial psychological structure** in the full and true meaning of the word. This means that the system of assertions, which reveals concept is contained in a compressed, abbreviated form, as if in a potential state in the structure of the concept. „(L.S. Vygotsky, 1982, v.4, p.77 –bolded by me – D.Y.).

So „concept is a system of assertions, which contains in itself a relation to a broader system. The transitional age is the age of shaping the outlook and personality, the emergence of consciousness and coherent ideas of the world. Basis for this is thinking in concepts; for as **the whole cultural experience of mankind, the outside world, external reality and our inner reality is presented in a certain system of concepts.** “(L.S. Vygotsky, 1982, v.1, p.122 –bolded by me – D.Y.).

Here I will remark only the role of thinking in the human psyche – as it understands L. S. Vygotsky. According to his theory of psychological systems,

the principle of development of the human psyche are that at various stages of development are changed the relationships between various psychological functions . „So the process of development is not so much modification of functions ... not so much their structure, not so much the system of their motion but is modified their relations, relations of functions between them; a new groups which were unknown to previous levels arises. Therefore, a substantial modification in the transition from one level to another is often not an internal functional modification but between functional modification, modification of between functional links, the modification of the between functional structure.” (L.S. Vygotsky, 1982, v.1,p.110).

Particularly interesting is so called „transitional age“. In thinking of the child until the beginning of this age memory play „a colossal role.“ „Think for him -in considerable extent – means be based on memory.” In the child of a transitional age – today we would say „teenager“, things are already turned:”To remember, for a teenager means to think. If the child from before-transitional age rely on memory and to think for him means to remember, for „teenager“ memory relies mainly on the thinking: to remember, above all means to seek in a certain logical sequence what is needed.“

(L.S. Vygotsky, 1982, v.1,p.120, translation “подросток” → “teenager” is mine – D.Y.).

This reconstruction of functions – changes in their relationships ... **as a result of that thinking does not appear to be one function among others, but a function who really reconstruct and replace all other psychological processes** – we observe in a transitional age.“ (L.S. Vygotsky, 1982, v.1,p.120 – bolded by me – D.Y.) Based on this understanding of the human psyche, I define it as **intellectualized** psyche.

As well the whole theory as and private theories of L. S. Vygotsky are unfinished and open for discussion and development. I try to do just that. **I think that „some system of concepts“ – in line with available today presented concepts – can be identified as a „paradigm“.** On this basis, the human psyche can be defined as **paradigm one**.

THE ESSENCE OF CULTURE (OF A COMMUNITY) IS ITS PARADIGM

Paradigm theory of culture

According to M. Wartofsky for the evolution of the culture *artifact* is the same which is a *gene* for a biological evolution.” (M. Wartofsky,1988,202). I emphasize the value of this idea ... but I venture to subject it to certain revisions. Source of this is biology, respectively. genetics.

In biology (one can) differ:

- ♣ genotype – a system of genes, in which is encoded the development of the organism;
- ♣ phenotype – a system of concrete outward signs of the organism.

Signs are divided into inherited and acquired in lifetime . Inherited only what is encoded in the genes. Acquired in lifetime properties (uncoded in genes) are not inherited It is not difficult to see analogous correlation between: on the one hand, genotype-phenotype, and, on the other hand, secondary artifacts (representations of primary artefacts)-primary artifacts ..

Based on these Principles, I believe that in a more accurate analogy to „gene“ does not correspond simply „artifact“ but „representation“, respectively „Secondary artifact.“ (In the same analogy, the primary artifacts appear relevant to the phenotype). On the basis that the human psyche is an intellectualized one, we continue our reflections and – ultimately, it appears that in this analogy, **what corresponds to the gene in biological evolution is not exactly „artifact“, but a concept – in evolution of culture.**

The analogy have a prolongation – **to genotype in the biological evolution correspond paradigm in cultural evolution.** As well genotype determine the development and full life of an organism as the paradigm of culture determines the overall development of culture and life. This becomes clear again invoke of L. S. Vygotsky.

„A known system of concepts“ (Vygotsky L. C.), (which I was identified as a paradigm) is a **conceptual model of the world.** This model directs and regulates the overall behavior of the community, respectively. of the „community individual.“ [see “The essence of culture (of a community) is its paradigm”, in: Yovchev, 2005,459]

Another necessary conclusion: similar to “circular definition”: paradigm appears to be the essence of both the community and its culture .. So both (community and its culture, like the scientific school and its paradigm in science) are logically identical.

Conformity (Paradigm) psyche – (paradigm) culture

Paradigm-ness means that the essential elements of the psyche and culture, ultimately, can be reduced to

1. Concepts – the psyche is intellectualized, .. and the culture is intellectualized. They are organized
2. As a system~paradigm.

The same (analogical) structure of the psyche and culture is a cause and consequence of the fact that:

1. The human psyche is formed only in the community, and
2. Subject of the formation of the psyche of a child is a community to which he originally belongs ...

The thesis of C. S. Goncharov

The Russian psychologist C. S. Goncharov (who belong to the (school of) cultural-historical psychology,) offer the thesis that the the culture (the society) and its subordinated levels are determining one and the social individual is determined oneV. Тезата на (В.С.Гончаров, с.134). In doing so, however, he expresses quite controversial. On the one hand, criticizes stereotypes of materialistic thinking which prevent incorporeity of subject.: “Society as a materialized entity, whose prototype was immaterial Hegelian absolute spirit, Marxist psychologists and philosophers have not been explicitly recognized creative subject.”(В.С.Гончаров, с.134).

On the other hand, C. S. Goncharov makes serious setback of his own argument by saying “The phrase “culture – the subject of cognitive development”, we propose to regard as a scientific lexical euphemism that makes more euphonious and easy expression of certain thoughts.” (В.С.Гончаров, с.132).

This yields a dilemma – who is the subject of the development of the individual – the socium or culture? Given what we showed above (in III) – that the community and its culture have logically identical – shows that the dilemma of ‘culture or the society is wrongly formed.

Thesis “Culture is the subject of the development of individuals’ is logically identical with the thesis” Community is the subject of the development of individual.

Community as a subject of the overall development of the individual

1. *We are talking about community individual but not for personality. Community individual is “isomorph” to the community, i.e. medium of its systemic quality. [“Isomorph” is a concept introduced by Fofanov V.P. (V.P. Fofanov, 1981, p.86)]. That is, **any person from this community, regardless of his personal qualities.** Each individual belongs to his mature age of the various communities and as such he is the medium of their systemic qualities – he could be a Bulgarian, and not a Turk, from Burgas, not from Sofia, a psychologist, not a historian, etc. This is tantamount to claiming that he is both a medium of different cultures.*
2. In any case, subjectness of the community (culture) can not be confined to cognitive development. The Community [communities = cultures]) is a subject of the both the cognitive development of the individual and his development as a Community individual and as a personality. Moreover, it is not even just limited to the overall mental development. Examples of

„children Mowgli“ is known that they can not walk upright, do not tolerate human food, etc. This shows that whole human biology of the individual are formed in a certain way – human – only in a human community – incl. such simple and seemingly purely biological functions such as walking or food preferences ...

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**PAPERS OF SYMPOSIUM 5:
PSYCHOLOGY IN THE ECONOMY,
PUBLIC POLICY AND GOVERNMENT**

“CONSUMER DEFENSELESSNESS LAW”: EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE THAT PRICE STRUCTURE INFORMATION ASYMMETRY REALLY MATTERS IN SHOPPING DECISION-MAKING

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Abstract. *This paper investigates the claim that shopping decision-making and behavior are strongly influenced by the price structure information provided to the consumers. The author argues that it is driven to a large extent by asymmetries in price structure information between customer/consumer and producers/traders. In a series of laboratory experiments with regular, or “price structure non-informative” and “price structure information enriched” price tags of different fast moving products (food, drinks, clothes), it is confirmed that when price structure information asymmetry was low, shoppers tended to change their intended purchase behavior selecting products with smaller excess profit-making capacity for producers and traders, and spending less. All subjects who had access to “price structure information enriched” price tags expressed their strong conviction that they allow them more rational choice and better protection of their consumer rights. Given the fact that price structure information asymmetry is generally promoted by the current trade secret protection policies, the **General Law of Consumer Defenselessness** is postulated. Implications for the applied social psychological study of consumer behavior, consumer rights protection and economic policy are discussed in the context of the current global economic crisis.*

INTRODUCTION

In economics and contract theory, information asymmetry deals with the study of decisions in transactions where one party has more or better economic information about products and services than the other. This creates an imbalance of power in market (buyer-seller) exchanges which can sometimes cause the trans-

actions to go awry. Examples of this problem are adverse selection and moral hazard. Most commonly, information asymmetries are studied in the context of principal-agent and shopping decision-making problems. In 2001, the Nobel Prize in Economics was awarded to George Akerlof, Michael Spence, and Joseph E. Stiglitz „for their analyses of markets with asymmetric information.“ (Nobel Foundation, 2001).

Information asymmetry models assume that at least one party to a transaction has relevant economic information whereas the other(s) do not. Some asymmetric information models can also be used in situations where at least one party can enforce, or effectively retaliate for breaches of, certain parts of an agreement whereas the other(s) cannot. In adverse selection models, the ignorant party lacks information while negotiating an agreed understanding of / or contract to the transaction, whereas in moral hazard the ignorant party lacks information about performance of the agreed-upon transaction or lacks the ability to retaliate for a breach of the agreement. An example of adverse selection is when people who are high risk are more likely to buy insurance, because the insurance company cannot effectively discriminate against them, usually due to lack of information about the particular individual's risk but also sometimes by force of law or other constraints. An example of moral hazard is when people are more likely to behave recklessly after becoming insured, either because the insurer cannot observe this behavior or cannot effectively retaliate against it, for example by failing to renew the insurance. A classic paper on adverse selection is George Akerlof's „The Market for Lemons“ (Akerlof, 1970). It discusses two primary solutions to this problem, signaling and screening. Michael Spence (1973) originally proposed the idea of signaling. He proposed that in a situation with information asymmetry, it is possible for people to signal their type, thus believably transferring information to the other party and resolving the asymmetry. This idea was originally studied in the context of looking for a job. An employer is interested in hiring a new employee who is skilled in learning. Of course, all prospective employees will claim to be skilled at learning, but only they know if they really are. This is an information asymmetry. Spence proposes, for example, that going to college can function as a credible signal of an ability to learn. Assuming that people who are skilled in learning can finish college more easily than people who are unskilled, then by finishing college the skilled people signal their skill to prospective employers. No matter how much or how little they may have learned in college, finishing functions as a signal of their capacity for learning. Joseph E. Stiglitz (Nobel Foundation, 2001) pioneered the theory of screening. In this way the underinformed party can induce the other party to reveal their information. They can provide a menu of choices in such a way that the choice depends on the private information of the other party. Examples of situations where the seller usually has better information than the buyer are numerous but include used-car salespeople, mortgage brokers and loan originators,

stockbrokers, realtors, real estate agents, utilities, telecommunication subscribed servives and life insurance transactions. Examples of situations where the buyer usually has better economic information than the seller include estate sales as specified in a last will and testament, or sales of old art pieces without prior professional assessment of their value. This situation was first described by Kenneth J. Arrow (1963) in an article on health care in 1963. George Akerlof in *The Market for Lemons* notices that, in such a market, the average value of the commodity tends to go down, even for those of perfectly good quality. Because of information asymmetry, unscrupulous sellers can „spooﬀ“ items (like food, drinks, clothes, software or computer games, utilities) and defraud the buyer. As a result, many people not willing to risk getting ripped off will avoid certain types of purchases, or will not spend as much for a given item. It is even possible for the market to decay to the point of nonexistence.

Although information asymmetry has recently been noted to be on the decline with the rise of the internet and consumer protection movements, which allow ignorant users to acquire hitherto unavailable economic information about products and services such as the costs of competing insurance policies, the costs of ineffective and excessive advertising, or the price of used cars, it is still heavily applied to daily micro-marketing, human resource and personnel economics regarding incentive schemes when the employer cannot continually observe worker effort. Since the seminal contributions of Akerlof, Spence, and Stiglitz, the pervasive effects of information asymmetry in markets have been documented and studied in numerous contexts. In particular, a substantial portion of research in the field of accounting can be framed in terms of information asymmetry, since accounting involves the transmission of enterprise's information from those who have it to those who need it for decision-making. Likewise, financial economists apply information asymmetry in studies of differentially informed financial market participants (insiders, stock analysts, investors, etc) (*See the references for more sources*).

Economic information asymmetry is the key building block of revenue management for producers and traders (sellers). Would-be customers and consumers have far less indication of manufacturing value of products, future sales rates, products price structures and availability than do the product and service providers. Even with the relatively transparent pricing on various consumer-friendly websites, customers and consumers do not know the extent of demand and economic features for their desired itineraries reflected in the final consumer price structure. For most consumers nowadays buyer – seller information asymmetry is a growing problem from consumer rights protection perspective despite electronic modes of free global communications.

The present research investigates this phenomenon from micro-market economic behavior perspective of daily individual shopping decision-making and behaviour. We first make an attempt to identify the “defective” (information

asymmetric) structures of regular price tags in supermarkets and outcomes of buyer-seller information asymmetry at point of purchase, and then examine the underlying structures of injustice and consumer rights violations that buyer-seller economic information asymmetry implies (given the policy-justified protection of “trade secrets”) from a distributive justice point of view.

Although distributive justice focuses on an universal mission of distributing burdens and benefits among all market stakeholders, a complementary consumer rights protection system, corrective regulation justice, would be needed to rectify specific injustices inherent in individual market exchanges. Accordingly, in case the tested research hypothesis is confirmed it would be leading us to a proposal of buyer–seller information asymmetry reduction protocol based on both distributive and corrective justice principles so that the risks and causes of consumer harm inherent in buyer-seller economic information asymmetry would be progressively reduced.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

This study’s data were collected with a sample of 1200 working urban Bulgarian citizens (60% – women, 40% – men) from 5 larger cities in Bulgaria (Sofia, Plovdiv, Varna, Bourgas, and Rousse). The mean age among participants was 36.12 years (SD= 12.6). The quasi-experimental laboratory test sessions were a part of participation in different occupational and management skills training programs in the period of 2004 to 2009.

Quasi-experimental Design

Economic information asymmetry. A laboratory quasi-experimental test of a simulated shopping decision-making was designed with two groups of consumers/customers of fast-moving products (food, drinks, and clothes). All participants had to make a decision how to spend wisely their household weekly budget for the products (food, drinks, and clothes) available in the experimental supermarket (101 products enlisted). Randomly, participants were assigned to a *control group* (50% of participants) and to an *experimental group* (50% of participants). The control group received a list of the regular supermarket price tags for all available 101 products. This regular list was considered “price structure non-informative” and provided the regular supermarket information for each item price. The experimental group received a list of the same 101 items with “price structure information enriched” price tags. It included the production value (manufacturing and delivery costs) of each item, advertising costs estimate, sales point profit estimate and the final consumer prices for each product in the list.

Shopping behavior and Perceived consumer rights protection scale. All participants were instructed to “spend their weekly budget wisely” using the provided lists of 101 available products. Each participant kept exhaustive personal record of all items selected, quantities “ordered”, and money spent after the shopping decisions were finalized. In addition, participant were asked at the end of the experiment to make a general rating on 1-item Perceived Consumer Right Protection Scale, ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). The scale consisted of a single item: “I feel that my consumer rights in this shopping visit to the supermarket are well observed”.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics were computed and compared among the main variables to test the research hypotheses.

TABLE 1. MEANS COMPARISONS – EXPERIMENTAL VS. CONTROL GROUP

VARIABLES	EXPERIMENTAL-GROUP Means, (SD)	CONTROL GROUP Means, (SD)
Average Budget Spent (BGN leva)	276,90 (43.55)	330.55 (21.5)**
Perceived Consumer Rights Protection Score	5,82 (2.12)**	3,28 (3.0)
Selected Products' Excess Profit-Making for Producers and Traders	Informed 75,30 (52.45)	Not Informed 141.2 (95.4)**
Number of subjects	600	600

** Means significantly higher ($p < .001$)

The participants in the experimental group (using the “price structure information enriched” price tags) spent significantly less of their weekly budget ($p < .001$) deciding to buy smaller quantities and less products. In average they “spent” 53–54 leva/per shopping visit less than participants in the control groups who used the standard supermarket price tags. In addition, participants from the experimental group who were exposed to lower economic information asymmetry made shopping decisions which allowed significantly less opportunities for excess profit-making by producers, advertisers and traders. They did select less items with high advertising costs and sales margin potential for 92% (in average), when given the information about these price structure components. For participants

from the control group such information was not available and the buyer-seller information asymmetry produced significantly higher (almost double) profits for advertisers and sellers. There is a significantly higher average score for the Perceived Consumer Rights Protection Scale in the experimental group ($p < .001$) who experienced experimentally reduced information asymmetry while making their shopping decisions.

DISCUSSION

All research hypotheses were confirmed – consumers facing economic information asymmetry of the regular supermarket price tags list are generally less protected, spend more, make less rational shopping decisions, paying more for excessive advertising costs and sales margins. In general terms, without additional economic information on their price tags they are practically twice more defenseless in comparison to price structure informed sellers and those customers/consumers who experience low information asymmetry in the moment of their daily shopping decision-making. That is a good reason to formulate a **General Consumer Defenselessness Law** based on the empirical research findings reviewed in the context of the current policy-justified unilateral protection of “trade secrets” of producers and sellers) from a distributive justice point of view.

This study investigates just the basic effects of economic information asymmetry on the daily shopping decision-making at micro-marketing level. The findings indicate the presence of clear negative relationship between information asymmetry and consumer rights protection and consumer/customer rational choice. More specifically, the results indicate that a higher level for economic information asymmetry in everyday supermarket environment was associated with a higher level of shopping behavior irrationality and higher risk for consumer defenselessness for a representative Bulgarian sample of urban working adults.

Having evaluated and experimented with a number of indicators of rational shopping behavior, we have adopted a quasi-experimental laboratory approach using information from controlled experiment setting, not real market operation. Our empirical results do seem to be broadly consistent with the research model predictions and our conceptual analysis. This lends support to both our assumption that customers/consumers in low information asymmetry are generally better protected, act rationally towards their self-interest, feel more confident that their consumer rights are observed, and consider their shopping behavior as more rational. Our empirical findings suggest also that high information asymmetry in buyer-seller relationships is a significant economic policy problem. There is clear evidence to support the development of a proposal of buyer – seller information asymmetry reduction protocol based on both distributive and corrective justice principles of fair market economy so that the risks and causes of consumer harm

inherent in buyer-seller economic information asymmetry. Therefore, further consumer protection policy measures could potentially benefit a significant proportion of consumers/customers, particularly those interested in optimal spending, rational and informed shopping behavior, and lower economic information asymmetry in daily market transactions in the context of current economic crisis and austerity consumption/spending climate.

In general, the **General Law of Consumer Defenselessness** in daily information asymmetry market situations affects all age groups and all income groups. As a result, reduced level of information asymmetry can be considered a factor, even a major factor, in creating and sustaining higher consumer confidence, particularly among low-income, old age customers and consumers who are informed and concerned about their consumer rights protection. Finally, our empirical results tend to confirm the finding by other studies of the pervasive effects of information asymmetry in markets.

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PSYCHOLOGY AND PSYCHOLOGY-RELATED POLITICS IN SPORT

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***Abstract.** Sport is a specific social phenomenon with an important role as a constructive element of the society. On the one hand sport reflects and reaffirms the social values and on the other hand it shapes some behavior models. In the present report the analyses is focused on the development and the realization of the personality in sport, considering the role and the aspects of interaction with the specific sport environment in terms of dynamics and of spontaneous situation. The contradictions in contemporary professional sport, resulted from an objectively complicated situation, are worked out. Therefore, the necessity of psychological interventions and their directions result to be reasoned. There are different levels of psychological support realization in sport with the purpose of having a maximum competition realization and following adaptation of the personality to the new life and activity context after the conclusion of the sport career.*

INTRODUCTION

Sport is a specific social phenomenon with its particular place and value as an element of society's culture. Sport reflects and establishes social values, but at the same time it also models specific behavioral patterns.

Sport environment is a specific one. On one hand it is quite conservative, on the other – it is dynamic with constantly changing factors. Characteristics of sport environment can be examined at two levels – social and personal.

The first level, the social level, is manifested in the specifics of the interactions with the environment. The increasing complexity and dynamics of the environment and its processes requires determination and definition of its factors and characteristics, as a necessary prerequisite for adequate expectation and preparation for coping with changes. This would provide opportunity for examination of strategies for coping with the unexpected and not just for optimization in terms of the expected changes.

Analysis of environment is a priority task of strategic management in sport. Adequate evaluation of existing factors and tendencies of environment ensures adequate anticipatory decisions and provisioning of the necessary conditions for successful development of sport. Analysis of environment on social level outlines the following factors (Fig.1):

- ♣ political and international situation;
- ♣ socio-cultural and economic environment;
- ♣ social attitudes, needs and values (attitude toward sport, social status of sport, etc.);
- ♣ level of development of science;
- ♣ population (demographic tendencies);
- ♣ labour market in sport (staff, opportunities for professional realization of coaches and athletes, competition, etc.);
- ♣ laws, norms and regulations in sport.

As part of social system, sport, as well as the professional realization of people involved in it, cannot be viewed separately.

This poses the problem of **personality – environment** interaction and its characteristics in specific social conditions. The approach toward analysis and evaluation of sport as a valuable socio-cultural phenomenon is influenced by the dominating tendencies in the society.

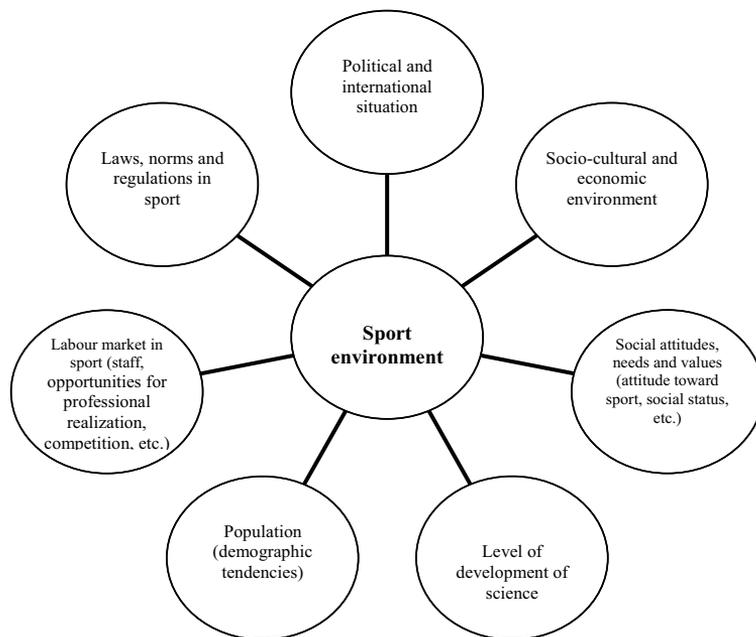


FIGURE 1. FACTORS FOR ANALYSIS OF THE SPORT ENVIRONMENT

Our analysis of sport activity is based on the holistic approach. In its light athlete's actions and behavior can be interpreted only in the context of the whole functioning athlete's personality together with the combined significant characteristics of its environment.

Analysis of the essence of sport, determination of factors and prerequisites for successful functioning, development and realization of personality in and through sport, requires taking into account the complicate connections and interactions of personality and environment. This interaction has reciprocal character. Personality and environment mutually influence and interact with one another and together determine athlete's behavior. Traits of personality influence his/her environment (Caspi, Herbener, 1990; Plomin, Bergeman, 1991 etc.). At the same time specific situations can alter personality traits (D. Seaman, D. Kenrick, 2002).

In the analysis of interaction between personality and environment was used *toponomic analysis*, in which environment is viewed as a concentric structure. Behavior in its context requires relational explanation: objects and types of context emerge together as part of a bio-socio-cultural developmental process (Cole, Griffin, 1978). Adequate understanding of human behavior and actions is possible only through study of personality in its integral functioning and interaction with the environment. "Context could be perceived as a situation- and time-bound arena of human activity" (W. Wentworth, 1980).

In analysis of sport environment we use Bronfenbrenner's approach. In the context of human development he defines four structural environmental systems: macrosystem, exosystem, mesosystem and microsystem.

Macrosystem, according to Bronfenbrenner includes culture or specific subcultures which influence ideology, society's value systems, lifestyle, etc. At this level is the globalization which has a great influence on contemporary development of sport. Its derivative processes affect to the greatest extent the sport sphere.

Exosystem includes elements which influence the development and realization of personality. Those are parents – their attitudes and values – family friends, siblings, etc. Although not directly involved in personality's life, those elements of environment create specific atmosphere which influences personality development in the specific context and determines its future realization.

Mesosystem includes several subsystems in which the developing personality actively participates. Those are family, school, friends, etc. Those subsystems broaden and enrich the character of communication in the "Self-World" system by involving the personality in a number of formal and informal relations.

Microsystem has a direct impact on personality's development. Its elements exert direct influence on personality. It includes different activities in which personality participates, its social roles, interpersonal relationships in the specific environment with their physical and material characteristics.

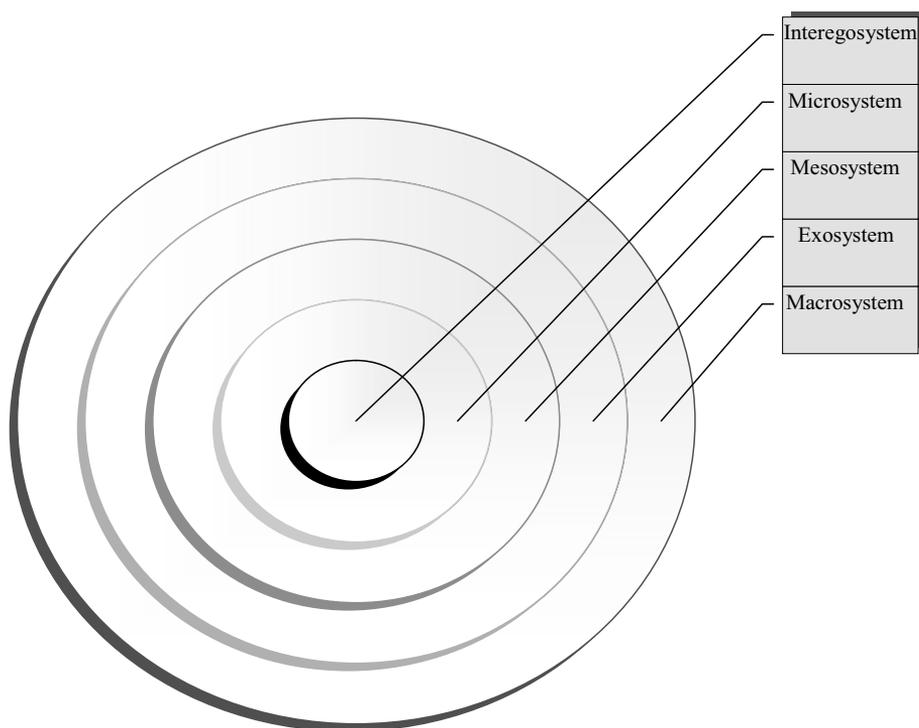


FIGURE 2. TOPONOMIC ANALYSIS OF SPORT ENVIRONMENT

Main factors in the microsystem are activity, repertoire of social roles played by personality and the character of interpersonal relationships, i.e. the way personality perceives, interprets and reacts to influences of the environment, especially the significant for personality environment. The theory focuses on the activity of personality towards the environment, which to a great extent determines the level of personality's development and self-expression. This activity is expressed in personality's cognitive competency, its value systems and socio-emotional characteristics.

In this aspect, analysis of the interaction between personality and environment examines their interconnectedness on the different levels of personality functioning. This analysis however does not include the role of personality as an active subject in its own development, i.e. the development of "inner personality environment".

This fact gives ground to Sv. Dimitrova to include another, fifth, central system in the U. Bronfenbrenner's topological structure of the context of human development, which she calls "interegosystem" (Sv. Dimitrova, 1996).

Interegosystem includes "elements of self-conscience, value system and attitude of personality toward itself; its own subjective experience and criteria which

determine one's attitude and actions toward oneself; self-evaluation for creation and support of personality's own harmony and ecological purity which determine personality's preservation, development and effective self-realization in broader context." (Св. Димитрова, 1996).

Topologic analysis of environment makes it possible to fully understand the leading mechanisms of development, functioning and realization of personality, under the combined influence of the specifics of personality and environment. Personality's development and realization is examined in the context of ongoing processes.

Each level of the system of the context of human development in sport is characterized by its own specifics and places high requirements towards all subjects in this activity – athletes, coaches, teams.

We witness “a process of new stratification of the world, through which is established a new global socio-cultural hierarchy” (Z. Bauman, 1999). Athletes were one of the first to become citizens of the world. International competitions attract athletes from every continent. Countries, members of IOC (International Olympic Committee) equal in number the members of the United Nations. In so far as the achievements in sport are to the highest extent commensurable, comparable and absolute, they are not bound by any specific country or location. Globalization transforms athletes into people beyond space, time and boundaries, who are bound only by the rules and regulations in sport. In this way athletes, independent as they may be from the causes and processes of globalization, become vanguard of the new era.

Thus sport becomes “good universal order” aspired to by everyone, and the athlete becomes the perfect role model. Actually athletes become what everyone dreams of being, they become “people of the future”. In this way *elite sport influences to a great extent social value system*. It influences also the level of culture in this aspect of social life. It stimulates development not only on a global, but also on national level. Athletes are turned into a living advertisement of global society. Of course this is true only for some of the athletes, the “top-athletes” who are in the focus of cameras, media and everyone's attention. Great athletes are great everywhere – they do not belong to a single country, they exceed national boundaries. Their social role of public personalities greatly increases the requirements for their training and realization, for their overall performance as personalities.

In this way macrosystem exerts significant influence on sport and on the opportunities for choice and realization in global society. At the same time it imposes its high requirements on the athletes and their coaches.

Sport is a prestigious, elitary and markedly public activity. Athletes' behavior has public character. It is connected with high requirements and expectations from society. Each victory or loss in elite sport echoes in the society and is subjected to public discussions and evaluation on a national and international level.

People tend to perceive their favourite athletes as role models and symbols of perfection. Society does not tolerate weaknesses or negative behavior from its idols.

The excessive commercialization in sport in later years and its consequences lead to significant changes in sport subculture, which modifies on one hand the sport life itself, and on the other – public attitudes toward it. Requirements and public expectations towards the athletes increase dynamically. This fact leads to incredible tension in professional sport. The values of Fair Play tend to give way to “victory at all cost”.

The abovementioned changes affect mainly the professional, “elite” sport in all its aspects. Some rules and regulations during competitions are changed. In many sports are added certain “show elements”. The equipment is changing. Functionality often gives way to attractivity.

Macrolevel of sport environment is additionally complicated by the **constantly increasing competition** and the broadening of geographic boundaries of certain sports. On one hand competition is a logic consequence of the continuously improving system of training and of the increased level of sport and technical skills. This leads to equalization of the potentials of a considerable number of athletes. On the other hand the **power of money** imposes its laws in sport as well. Noble competition and Fair play give way to fight for victory at all cost, sometimes regardless of the used to achieve it means (doping, prearranged games and races, etc.).

Contracts by which athletes and coaches are bound pose high requirements on their achievements and respectively on their training and realization. Contracts strictly regulate athletes’ and coaches’ behavior and actions not only regarding their actions during sport-practices and competitions, but also their public behavior.

Athlete’s strive for a **longer professional career in sport**. Once a community act, sport becomes more and more a personal professional career.

These macrolevel processes are combined with a significant restriction at exo-, meso- and microsystems.

At the level of **exosystem** sport environment also has its specifics. One of the tendencies in contemporary sport is the continuously decreasing age of the athletes. In this respect parents, family and friends play an important role for the preliminary sport orientation of children and adolescents. The early inclusion of athletes in elite sport and the requirements for the volume and intensity of sport practice and training also reflect on the modern sport. Many of the athletes leave their families too young (or spend too little time with their families). This might lead to a certain restriction and impoverishment of the social interactions of the young people and might reflect on their personal development.

These limitations affect most strongly the **mesosystem**. It is known that participation in professional sport requires total concentration and restriction of all other ways of expression in order to achieve maximal realization in sport. This

leads to a certain deficit of environment which could be compensated by the system of sport training and practice itself.

Specifics of sport environment on macro-, exo- and meso-levels unavoidably reflect on the **micro-environment**. Impoverishment of the social environment of adolescent athletes, restriction of activities in which athletes could participate, types of interpersonal relationships, etc. restrain the repertoire of social roles, thus creating prerequisites for certain one-sidedness in athletes' development. Such tendencies were reported in our previous studies (T. Iancheva, 1994).

The abovementioned specifics of sport environment pose a serious challenge to the creation and functioning of the **interegosystem**. The extremely high expectations from athlete's personality require increased attention to the creation of corresponding personal mechanisms which ensure functioning of that level. Following factors play crucial role for athlete's effective development and successful realization: level of development of self-consciousness, self-evaluation, ability for mobilization and self-regulation. As important psychological factors in athlete's actions and behavior they influence and to a great extent determine the level of realization as expression of athlete's integral personality.

The so-described specifics of sports environment create quite complicated situation and lead to a number of contradictions in contemporary professional sport and within the athlete's interegosystem.

On the first place we put the contradictions between the **continuously increasing requirements of the macro-environment and the actual athlete's abilities at any specific moment**. The above-stated specifics of sport macro-environment generate great interest and high social expectations. That contradiction is strengthened by the media-created image of sport and people participating in it, associated with the shocking for the Bulgarian standard transfer fees, prize funds, material status, etc. On one hand this significantly increases social requirements and expectations, and on the other hand – it increases social judgment and disapproval in case of loss or failure in competition. Society does not accept athletes' weakness, failure, lack of abilities or inadequate preparation.

On the second place are the contradictions between the **played social role and the ability to fulfill it**. One of the tendencies in contemporary sport is the decrease of age level of athletes. In some sports the optimal age for realization (14–18 years of age) corresponds with the most sensitive period for development of personality (sports and artistic gymnastics, acrobatics, swimming, etc.). Athletes are required to exert maturity and self-control of behavior, not typical for their age. The extremely high requirements towards behavior and realization of athletes, combined with their still unstable and immature personality generate high tension and pose a serious challenge to athletes and their coaches.

On the third place are the **contradictions generated by the specific essence of sport**. Sport life is intensive, competitive, elitary. One of the characteristics of

sport activity is the early participation in competitions and early publicity, which too early leads to the idea of self-empowerment. Accepting and dealing with the **problems of fame and publicity** requires development of certain personal qualities and mechanisms, high level of self-control and self-regulation of actions and behavior. That's why problems with extremely high self-esteem and over-confidence are more frequent in sports and art – activities with highest level of public expression subjected to social evaluation.

On the fourth place we have to state the contradictions related to **Self-formation and functioning**.

It is known that Self-conception of personality includes several components:

Specifics of personality's functioning are to a great extent determined by the balance among the different components of athlete's Self-conception. The balance between *Real Self and Ideal Self defines athlete's self-esteem*. Correlation between *Ideal and Potential Self outlines the subjective range, the idea for personal development and realization*, which is of extreme importance for the development of athlete's personality and for his/her activity in the process of training and competition. Of great significance in sport is the balance between *Real Self and Social Self*. Publicity of sport competitions, continuous media attention and interest from society create prerequisites for intensive (in some cases exceeding) development of Social Self. **Sport fame** may induce *certain distortions in Self*, which in their turn may lead to a series of problems during and after sports career.

Thus we outline a number of problems that are addressed by the psychological provisioning, during active sport activity and after its termination with the aim of ensuring adequate adaptation of the athlete to the new conditions of life.

On the fifth place, we should not omit the contradictions caused by the **specifics of exo-, meso-, micro-environments and interegosystem**, which lead to certain disharmony among the levels of social context and the interegosystem.

Prolonged work in professional sport inevitably leads to changes in athlete's personality – his/her value system, self-esteem, self-conception, etc. Processes within athlete's interegosystem are modeled by his/her competitive behavior and sport realization. The so-described objectively difficult and complicated situation in contemporary elitary sport poses extremely high requirements to athlete's activity, behavior and realization. This on one hand increases the requirements towards the organization and management of the training process and on the other toward athletes' and coaches' personalities.

All this objectively increases **the role and the importance of the interegosystem** as a fundamental and at the same time unifying mechanism of sport environment and athlete's realization in it. That is why special care should be taken for its adequate formation and development.

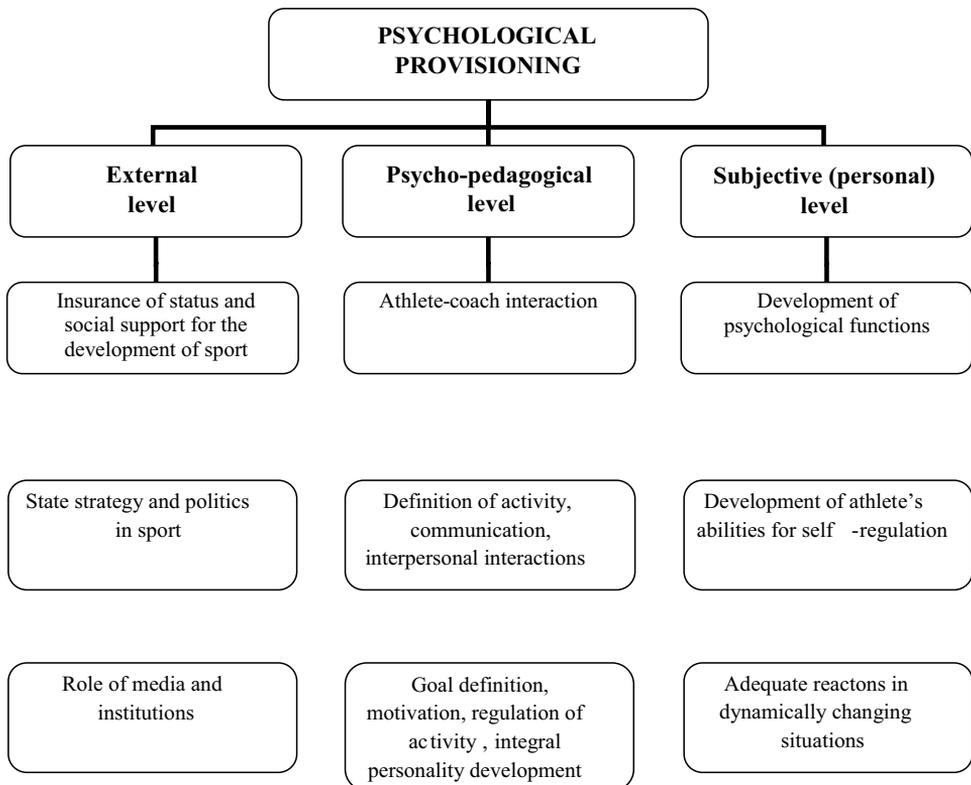
Specifics of sport environment and its context outline *three main levels of psychological provisioning of sport training and practice.*

I. External level

External level is connected with the insurance of status and social support for the development of sport in our country and for the athlete’s activity; state’s strategy and politics regarding sport; the role of media and institutions that influence society’s attitude toward sport in general and towards the athlete in particular, that form social expectations and attitudes toward the need of psychological provisioning of sport training and practice.

II. Psycho-pedagogical level

This level includes: interactions between athlete and coach, and team and coach; definition of activity, communication, interpersonal interaction, goal definition, motivation and regulation of athlete’s activity in the training process and during competition; integral personality development as an essential element of the pedagogical coaching during the training process.



III. Subjective (personal) level

This level is connected with the development of psychological functions; athlete's abilities for self-regulation and self-control; adequate reactions in dynamically changing situations of sport activity during competition.

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AUTHORITARIAN ATTITUDES IN SOCIETY: CAN WE COME CLOSE TO FORECASTING?

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***Abstract.** Authoritarianism has captured the interest of psychologists ever since the classic study of Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson and Sanford (1950). The subject has great relevance for explaining ethnic and other forms of discrimination, intolerance, hostility and aggression against outgroups and the support of totalitarian movements, regimes and ideologies. The advance of research in recent decades has been such that one can ask whether its level in society can perhaps be forecasted several years ahead. This contribution outlines these developments, addresses the issue of prediction, and proposes an initial strategy. The approach is illustrated using representative data from a longitudinal study in the Netherlands between 1970 and 1992, and data from a study of employees in Bulgaria in the 1990s. It is concluded that forecasting can be done on the basis of monitoring authoritarian attitudes regularly, especially in the age groups between 20 and 30, and keeping a close eye on societal developments as they unfold.*

***Keywords:** authoritarian attitudes; forecasting.*

INTRODUCTION

Would it not be interesting – and in some ways useful – to know whether the support for ethnic discrimination, intolerance and aggression against minority groups and outgroups in general is growing or diminishing in society, whether there is mounting support for harsh measures against dissenting views and a tendency to call for and follow strong, perhaps fascist and dictatorial, leadership? Would it not be interesting and useful to know these tendencies for society as a whole and for specific groups within society?

We can, of course, monitor events as they unfold by using polls of public opinion or by witnessing shifts in the political landscape, and historians may elucidate what happened years later, but would it not be of great value if we could forecast these events years in advance?

Central to the mentioned phenomena, in psychological terms, is the notion of authoritarian attitudes and authoritarian personality.

Authoritarianism has captured the interest of psychologists ever since the seminal study *The Authoritarian Personality* by Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson and Sanford (1950). The concept has proven to be of great relevance for explaining ethnic and other forms of discrimination and intolerance, hostility and aggression against outgroups and the support of totalitarian movements, regimes and ideologies. The advance of research in recent decades has been such that the possibility of prediction may be more near than we think.

I will start with a recapitulation of the many decades of research and a summary of the present state of our knowledge. Secondly, I will list the requirements for prediction and check these against this knowledge. Thirdly, I will propose an initial strategy and illustrate this in a representative longitudinal dataset from the Netherlands ranging between 1970 and 1992 (forecasting the 1992 figures from the 1970 data), and another dataset from a study of Bulgarian employees in the 1990s.

AUTHORITARIAN ATTITUDES: CONCEPTS, MEASUREMENT AND RESULTS

The first studies of authoritarian attitudes were made by social scientists in Germany in the 1930s, notably Reich, Fromm and Horkheimer, who tried to uncover the background of Nazism and, in particular, why so many people felt attracted to its ideology of intolerance, aggression and leader-worship. For the earlier history of the subject see Samelson (1993) and Lederer (1995), for later years Roiser and Willig (2002) and Meloen (1994). The earlier studies were, mainly, sociological in nature, although Reich (1946) strongly argued that a sociological approach, especially Marxism, could not explain what had happened, and that a proper understanding could only be gained if psychological determinants were taken into account. According to Reich the working classes, although faced with the 'Verelendung' and hardships predicted by Marxism, did not develop a strong class-consciousness, and were not ready to start a revolution to oust the capitalists. On the contrary, they turned to irrational behaviour based on suppressed emotions and frustrated psychic needs that lay deep in their personalities as a result of societal and educational conditions.

The subject became truly the focus of psychological research with the fundamental work of Adorno et al. (1950) at the University of Berkeley, who uncov-

ered similar fascist and authoritarian tendencies in parts of the population of the United States. The 'Berkeley group' defined authoritarianism as a personality trait characterized by a set of nine aspects (Adorno et al., 1950, p.228). Later, researchers reduced that number to three core elements (see e.g. Stone, Lederer & Christie, 1993; Altemeyer, 1996): (1) *conventionalism* in opinions and strict adherence to a dominant, dogmatic and unquestioned belief system; (2) *submission* to absolute authority and authoritarian leadership which the authoritarian person is ready to follow blindly and without question; (3) *aggression* in dealing with dissident beliefs and outgroups. The origins of the phenomenon were sought partly in patterns of upbringing and the experience of authority in childhood within the family, and partly in political and socioeconomic circumstances. The group developed a scale for the measurement of authoritarianism, the California F-scale, and showed the phenomenon to be correlated with anti-Semitic attitudes, racism, ethnocentrism and prejudice against outgroups generally.

The book precipitated an avalanche of research and raised much controversy. The interest in the subject waned after the 1960s, but some of the best contributions stem from this later period. The initial research efforts (see for overviews Meloen, 1994; Altemeyer, 1996; 2006; Ten Horn, 2007) focussed on issues of conceptualization, measurement and validity and questions related to the political implications of the findings.

The attempts at alternative concepts have not greatly increased our understanding, but in the course of time the conceptualization has become broader and more precise. Although initially high scores on authoritarianism were mainly identified on the extreme political right, later-on it became clear that the contents of the authoritarian beliefs are not the defining factor but rather the intransigent, fanatic, and intolerant way beliefs are held, promoted and defended. Research in communist eastern Europe – which only became possible in the late 1980s – revealed high scores in supporters of the communist regime and low scores among dissidents (Altemeyer & Kamenshikov, 1991; McFarland, Ageyev & Abalakina, 1993; McFarland, Ageyev & Djintcharadze, 1996; Kraus, 2002; Ten Horn, Roe & Zinovieva, 2003) and studies of religious groups showed authoritarianism to be an important factor in religious fundamentalism (Altemeyer, 1996; Hunsberger, 1996; Laythe, Finkel & Kirkpatrick, 2001; Altemeyer & Hunsberger, 2006). Therefore, authoritarianism can best be described as a syndrome of dogmatic, totalitarian attitudes regardless whether expressed as support for radical rightist, leftist, religious fundamentalist or any other extreme set of convictions, an eagerness to submit unconditionally to the authority figures representing that system and a readiness to join in aggression if the leaders require or allow this. It is important to note that authoritarianism is an attitude of *followers*; the leaders may have different characteristics (Duckitt, 2000; Altemeyer, 1998; 2004).

The methodological critique was mainly concerned with acquiescence response, a bias postulated on basis of the fact that all items of the F-scale were phrased positively. Although Rorer (1965) and Samelson and Yates (1967) had already early on argued convincingly against this idea, the controversy has marred the discussion for decades. However, attempts at constructing improved instruments did not result in scales with greater reliability or validity than measurements following the original method. In the end, instruments like the original F-scale proved as good as the alternatives (Meloan, 1994; 1999; Meloan, Van der Linden & De Witte, 1996; Meloan, De Witte & Van der Linden, 1999; Ten Horn & Roe, 2003).

A large range of instruments has become available with well-established reliability and validity. Moreover, different instruments produce similar statistics and correlations with other attitudes and behaviour, and the psychometric characteristics remain stable over the years.

The years of research have also contributed greatly to our understanding of the phenomenon itself. The link with discrimination, intolerance, racism and the like has already been mentioned. The list of correlations with attitudes and behaviour is much longer and includes for instance ways of information processing, use of double moral standards, a different way of dealing with personal failure and guilt, and a sense of fundamental insecurity. Much is also known of the distribution of authoritarian attitudes in society. They are present in virtually every corner and hardly discriminate between sexes, socio-economic status or class. However, a link is consistently found with level of education (the more education the less authoritarian), which might well be causal (see e.g. Farnen & Meloan, 2000). Correlations with age have also been found, older people scoring higher. This, however, does not mean that authoritarianism increases with age. Authoritarian scores on the individual level remain more or less stable after adolescence. Test-retest correlations are remarkably high. Altemeyer (1996, p. 87) for instance, reported correlations for Manitoba University alumni of .62 and .59 over 12 and 18 years respectively; Ten Horn and Roe, (2003) found a correlation of .40 over 5 years in a panel of Bulgarian employees in the 1990s. More likely, the relationship with age is an artefact of systematic differences between successive generations. Finally, large differences in authoritarianism were found between countries and cultures.

Less is known about its causes. The Berkeley group looked at experiences in childhood and socioeconomic influences, as mentioned. Others (e.g. Altemeyer, 1996) suggested processes of social learning in a person's individual history. Differences between societies may be explained by factors like level of education, the economic situation, political factors and cultural differences.

The development of authoritarian characteristics in the individual may tentatively be summarized in the following way: a person's level primarily results from

early upbringing, followed by the influence of education and experiences during adolescence. In early adulthood a more or less stable level is reached. In later life, this level can change (but not dramatically), with the ups and downs of a person's life or as a consequence of incisive events in society, like change of regime, massive unrest or wide-spread insecurity. The latter factors act on society as a whole, but also affect each individual personally. Ten Horn, Roe and Zinovieva (2005), for instance, have shown such an effect linked to the societal transition in Bulgaria in the 1990s.

Although the relevance of authoritarian attitudes for broader societal perspectives and politics has been a driving force for most researchers, many studied the subject only on the individual level. A few, however, addressed society-wide trends directly and concerned themselves with long-term developments. Meloen (1998) looked at trends in the US student population between 1954 and 1977. He also constructed a time series for the US as a whole (on basis of indicators) ranging from 1920 to 1977. Lederer (1982) reported trends for adolescents in West Germany and the US with data gathered in 1945, the 1960s and 1970s, later extended to 1992 (Lederer & Kindervater, 1995; Rippl, Seipel & Lederer, 1995). Altemeyer (1996, p. 57) reported time series for Canadian undergraduate students for the years 1973 to 1995. The most extensive study was done by Meloen (1999). He investigated random samples of the population of the Netherlands in 1970, 1975, 1980, 1985 and 1992. A steady drop in authoritarianism was revealed over the entire period. These studies taken together suggest that authoritarian attitudes in society change gradually. Downward trends can go on for many years. Upward trends may be gradual and long-lasting as well, although this was not specifically observed in these studies. Based on these inquiries, Ten Horn (2009) advanced the hypothesis that trends may meander up and down in patterns of 60 to 70 years.

The gradual character of the long-term trends may be explained in the following way. Individual scores remain reasonably stable after adolescence. Therefore, changes in population values will predominantly be the result of the inflow of new cohorts (at the younger end of the population) and the outflow of cohorts (at the older end). If the incoming cohorts show systematically lower scores than the average of the population, and the outgoing cohorts have higher values, the net-effect is a decline of the mean value. The reverse is true if the incoming cohorts score higher and outgoing cohorts lower.

Therefore, change in the population average can partly be explained as a generation effect. The process was identified in a study by Meloen and Middendorp (1991) and can clearly be seen in the 1970–1992 study (Meloen, 1999); see Table 1. Older cohorts score systematically higher and the incoming cohorts systematically lower, thus producing most of the general decline.

TABLE 1. TRENDS IN AUTHORITARIANISM 1970–1992 IN THE NETHERLANDS: MEAN F-SCORES OF AGE COHORTS (MELOEN, 1999, P. 63)

Year	1970	1975	1980	1985	1992
Age group					
17–19	4.10	3.96	3.79	3.60	3.67
20–24	4.08	3.80	3.67	3.62	3.50
25–29	4.16	4.00	3.75	3.64	3.44
30–34	4.32	4.19	3.98	3.82	3.48
35–39	4.62	4.39	3.93	4.02	3.66
40–44	4.52	4.50	4.24	4.03	3.75
45–49	4.61	4.51	4.29	4.16	3.92
50–54	4.68	4.56	4.41	4.47	4.29
55–59	4.83	4.61	4.53	4.39	4.42
60–64	5.05	4.81	4.46	4.59	4.53
65–69	5.08	4.73	4.75	4.51	4.57
Total	4.48	4.33	4.10	4.01	3.83
N	1905	1803	1859	1791	1754

Middendorp F-scale F7; range: 1.00 (low) to 7.00 (high)

REQUIREMENTS IN FORECASTING

What are the minimal conditions for an attempt at forecasting to be successful? We must, of course, know precisely what we are talking about and there may be no confusion about the concept. The variable to be predicted must be conceptually clear. It would be an advantage if there is some sort of general agreement among researchers, but this is not strictly necessary. Secondly, there must be a reliable and valid way of measuring the variable and this may not be subject to substantial controversy or debate. Thirdly, we must be sure that the psychometric qualities of the instruments are not affected by the lapse of time. If reliability and validity do not remain stable, we cannot be confident that observed changes are 'real' and not the result of unobserved deterioration of the instrument. For transversal studies, this requirement is not greatly important, but for longitudinal work it clearly is. Fourthly, it would be great if we have some idea of the dynamics behind the changes we observe, although this is not strictly necessary. Predictions can be made on the basis of regularities we do not understand, but this is not to be preferred. Generally, it is useful if ample and proper knowledge exists about the phenomenon, its causes and consequences.

As regards authoritarianism, we think the first and second point are clearly met. The third one was explicitly addressed by Meloen (1999) who came to the conclusion that measurements did not deteriorate over the years and remained

reliable and valid. The fourth point appears the weakest; our insight into the dynamics of long-term developments is limited, as is our knowledge of the causes of authoritarianism generally. Nevertheless, a large body of knowledge is available and fierce battles over concepts and measuring devices are a thing of the past.

FORECASTING AUTHORITARIAN ATTITUDES

Change in population averages appears to be driven mainly by a gradual shift in the scores of subsequent generations. An additional factor may be the effect of major societal events affecting an entire population.

Therefore, in order for forecasting to be possible, (1) we need an overview of the distribution of scores of the various cohorts in the population at a particular moment in time; (2) we need to foresee if and when 'major societal events' are likely to occur during the period of prediction; (3) we need a way to spot a shift of direction in the general trend (from downward to upward or vice-versa).

The first point is a matter of a sufficiently large, representative sample and a good measuring device. The second point is more problematic. Important societal events may perhaps be foreseen but establishing the moment with the required accuracy is difficult. Besides, we have, as yet, little idea about the severity of the impact on the scores or how long such an effect would last. Moreover, we do not know whether such events are causing the scores to change or that, vice-versa, shifting levels of authoritarianism are driving societal change. For the time being, we can perhaps avoid a decision on such points by attaching a proviso to our forecast, although this is not very elegant. As for the third point we can monitor what happens in the younger age groups (20–29). If a change of direction occurs here, this might signal a major reverse of the trend coming up.

To see how far such an approach can bring us, an attempt at prediction was made using the longitudinal data for the Netherlands presented in table 1, forecasting the 1992 figures on basis of the 1970 data.

Table 2 gives the results. We took the following steps. For a start, we left out the age group in late adolescence (17–19), because their scores might not have reached a stable level; we recalculated the population mean accordingly. The prediction itself is made under the assumption of the downward tendency visible in the 1970 distribution continuing through 1992 and no societal upheaval to rock society between the two dates. In hindsight both assumptions appear reasonable, but could not have been made in 1970. The age groups 20–47 in 1970 are still present in 1992 as age groups 42–69. These groups were given the scores they had in 1970. (Note that the values are interpolated because of the two-year shift in grouping). The age groups 20–42 in 1992 have entered the population between the two dates. Based on the assumption of a continued downward trend, each successive 5-year cohort was given a lower score than the adjacent higher one. The decline

rate was determined as the average decline between cohorts in 1970. The results are given in column 3. The population mean was computed taking into account the actual number of persons in each cohort in 1992 based on the 1992 population distribution (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 1993).

The procedure used is rather simple and unsophisticated and the prediction could only be made with reservations. More refined approaches can be developed when the relevant knowledge becomes available and more experience is gained. As a first approximation the results look nonetheless promising. The prediction of the scores of the four oldest groups is spot-on. The values of the lower age groups are a little too high, the decline rate for incoming generations appears to have been underestimated. The difference in prediction of the population mean (0.18) is rather small compared to the standard deviation of the full sample ($SD=1.21$). It also compares well to the actual decline between 1970 and 1992 (0.68).

TABLE 2. PREDICTION OF AUTHORITARIANISM FOR 1992 ON BASIS OF THE 1970 DATA IN A DUTCH SAMPLE: MEAN SCORES OF AGE COHORTS (BASED ON MELOEN, 1999)

Year	Actual measurements		Prediction for 1992 on basis of 1970 *)
	1970	1992	
Age			
20–24	4.08	3.50	3.59
25–29	4.16	3.44	3.71
30–34	4.32	3.48	3.82
35–39	4.62	3.66	3.93
40–44	4.52	3.75	4.04
45–49	4.61	3.92	4.13
50–54	4.68	4.29	4.26
55–59	4.83	4.42	4.50
60–64	5.05	4.53	4.56
65–69	5.08	4.57	4.57
Total mean**)	4.53	3.85	4.03

scale: 1 (lowest), 7 (highest)

*) average postulated decline rate between age groups 20–42 per 5-year period: 0.11

**) adjusted for absence of age group 17–19

The first attempt was made under ‘normal’ societal conditions; for the second trial we used a panel study of Bulgarian employees made during a period of rapid social change (Ten Horn et al., 2005). Authoritarianism was measured four times between 1994 and 1999 using a ten-item instrument (Ten Horn & Roe, 2003). Table 3 shows the results for 1994 and 1999.

TABLE 3. MEAN SCORES ON AUTHORITARIANISM FOR AGE GROUPS IN A PANEL OF BULGARIAN EMPLOYEES IN 1994 AND 1999 (TEN HORN, ROE & ZINOVIEVA, 2005)

Year Age in 1995	Nr. of respondents	Mean authoritarianism score in:	
		1994	1999
20–29	59	41.71	40.54
30–34	49	43.10	41.29
35–39	45	41.93	43.22
40–44	61	44.74	42.23
45–49	68	45.59	42.26
50–65	57	46.67	43.39
Total mean	339	44.10	42.14
Standard deviation		8.60	8.09

scale: 10 (lowest), 60 (highest)

The 1994 data show the same pattern of higher scores for older age groups as found in the Dutch data, although less clear-cut. The stability of scores on the individual level is moderate with a reported correlation of $r = .40$ between 1994 and 1999. A generational effect on the population means can, therefore, again be postulated. The data, however, also show a significant decrease in population mean over the five-year period. Being a panel study, this means that respondents decreased in authoritarianism between the two measurements. The authors show the decline to be widespread and not the result of changes in single categories or groups only. They also argued that the decline might well have a relation to the social changes happening in those years. Under such circumstances, prediction becomes hazardous and we do not think making one is justified; too many factors remain unknown. The generational effect could be used but we lack sufficient knowledge of the impact of the societal change taking place. Neither do we have an idea whether a directional shift might be near. An attempt would be little more than a guess. Moreover, there are no figures from later years (as yet) to evaluate the quality of a forecast.

This, of course, is disappointing. The failure, however, makes clear where our knowledge is still defective and it points to a way forward.

Where do the two attempts leave us? Forecasting can likely be achieved successfully under stable societal conditions. Prediction in times of transition, however, still presents too great a challenge, mainly because we do not understand the dynamics of such events and have little knowledge of the interaction between individual scores and authoritarian tendencies in society.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The answer to our initial question is that – indeed – we can come close to forecasting, although several problems have still to be solved.

The first is a practical point. In order to gain the necessary experience and knowledge, it appears essential to monitor authoritarianism in society on a regular and sustained basis. Meteorologists began their work by taking notes and they already started this in the 17th century. May be, we can advance quicker but only if we make a beginning at recording population data in a systematic and standardised way and keep on doing so over long stretches of time. In fact, this can be achieved quite easily: good instruments are available and these can be clipped to opinion polls that already take place.

Secondly, more research is needed into processes and dynamics. Especially, our understanding of the interaction between authoritarian tendencies in the population and incisive social events requires improvement. Besides, we need a better understanding of the interplay between the individual and the societal levels. This cannot be achieved if researchers stick to the individual-centred, mainly psychological approach that is still dominant today. It requires the development of links with social-, mass-psychological and sociological perspectives. This is a challenging task and requires work both on the theoretical and the empirical level. Unfortunately, such perspectives have not attracted much attention in recent years, though the understanding of precisely the interaction between individual and society was the prime force motivating the initiators of the study of authoritarianism long ago. They tried to unravel the Gordian knot of the social and individual forces that produced the types of society that brought great trouble in their time. By their studies they hoped to contribute to the building and securing of more healthy societies. A reliable prediction of developments may help to reach this goal.

Our study holds out the hope that forecasting is possible, even if at present we are only able to predict developments under stable conditions. What we really want to forecast and understand, however, is not the continuation of fair weather, but the dynamics of social storms developing in the distance. Therefore, much work remains to be done.

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IMPLICIT THEORIES OF CITY ATTRACTIVENESS: HOW KNOWLEDGE ECONOMY MANAGERS MAKE INVESTMENT DECISIONS

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Abstract. *Investigated are the implicit theories held by managers from the knowledge-economy about the business attractiveness of a city (in this case Brussels) as a basis for investment decision-making. The study is focused on two types of explanatory concepts, dominant in the managers' thinking: 1) factors attracting business in general and knowledge-intensive investment in particular, 2) factors inhibiting them. The attractors describe city characteristics that make knowledge-intensive companies start or continue conducting business in the city. Inhibitors describe what has deterred company performance in a city but has not caused relocation decisions. The empirical information was obtained from semi-structured interviews, conducted with 150 senior managers of companies working in information and communication technology, management consultancy, finance, and companies creating and commercializing know-how. The city attractiveness was evaluated by companies located: within the studied city (Brussels); in other towns of the same countries (Belgium); in major rival cities across Europe: Amsterdam, Barcelona, Copenhagen, Dublin, Frankfurt, Helsinki, London, Munich, Paris, Stockholm. The analysis of the manager's implicit theories reveals that city is perceived as a vehicle through which the knowledge intensive companies fulfill their major needs. Five attractors and four inhibitors in the process of investment decision-making are discussed.*

Keywords: *implicit theories, managers, knowledge economy, investment decision-making, city attractiveness, Brussels*

INTRODUCTION

Most cities make considerable efforts to create favourable conditions for investment. The modern knowledge economy, which is a fast changing field with growing importance, starts attracting their attention. However, the municipal authorities need to adjust their strategies to the knowledge-intensive companies' expectations. In this article we provide insight into the implicit theories about city business attractiveness held by the knowledge-economy managers who are in the position to take decisions about company re/location.

The concepts of competition among cities and city competitiveness are usually used in relation to attracting foreign investment. An approach to studying city competitiveness is the world hierarchy of cities (Friedman, 1986; Knox & Taylor, 1995). Friedman (1986) hypothesized that world cities act as control centres of world capital accumulation and have specific economic and social structures. Kresl (1995) introduced a distinction between the economic and strategic determinants of the city competitiveness. City governmental policies and institutional design were considered strategic and capable of enhancing city economic development and city competitiveness. Castells (1996) advanced the hypothesis of the world city network.

In different studies several potential characteristics of a competitive city have been explored: advanced research, development and innovation, as well as regional innovation support systems (Begg, 2002; Hassink, 2002); a reputation for effective governance and efficient services (Newman, 2000); strategic transport and IT connections to markets and good internal connectivity; sophisticated cultural infrastructure and services (Cohen & Nijkamp, 2002); a wide range of high quality of life choices (Scott, 2000); a diverse and inclusive society (Winden, van der 2001); a highly skilled workforce (Florida, 2002). Research has also identified a number of attributes used to compare and rank cities (Knox & Taylor, 1995).

Another important aspect comprises the national government policies, including their support for national urban development and the powers and resources given to cities. Special attention has been paid to fiscal incentives available to cities (McGreal, 2002) and labour law (Pull, 2002). The urban level policy was also shown to be very important in determining the competitiveness of cities (Begg, 2002; Sim et al., 2003). Cheshire and Gordon (1995) stressed the role of local business conditions in the competition between cities to gain investment.

Dicken and colleagues (Dicken et al., 1994) have shown that local governments make effort to attract trans-national companies but when these companies invest in the city, authorities pay little further attention to their needs. These authors suggested that local authorities should strive to provide an attractive business environment in which multinational companies can operate. However, the city competitiveness does not apply to trans-national companies exclusively. Although local companies have less choices they too could be attracted or not by

the local business environment. Under certain conditions they too could take decisions to leave or relocate. To account for the local aspects of the competition between cities we introduce the concept of city business attractiveness. It reflects both the foreign investors' expectations and the local economic agents' evaluation of the business conditions offered by the city.

Many studies on city competitiveness and competition typically consider the economy as a whole and do not deal with the knowledge economy in particular. Due to numerous fundamental differences from the traditional economy, the knowledge economy could be expected to have specific needs. Therefore, it is possible that what makes cities competitive or attractive for the industrial economy might not be sufficient to make them attractive for the knowledge economy.

In this article we employ the implicit theories as a major tool to extract knowledge about the city business attractiveness and focus on the knowledge intensive enterprises to account for possible specific requirements of the knowledge economy. The city business attractiveness is analysed by exploring three different perspectives: the perception of the city held by companies located in Brussels; companies located in other Belgian towns, and finally, companies located in other countries.

THE KNOWLEDGE ECONOMY

Today's global economy is often described as one in transition to a 'knowledge economy', or an 'information society' (Cross et al., 2003; Eliasson, 2005; McGee & Bonnici, 2002; Powell & Snellman, 2004; Sheehan, 2005). The main difference between a knowledge economy and the industrial economy is in the way knowledge is generated in the production process. In a knowledge economy knowledge is created and used as an internal part of the process of designing and implementing new business activities and products. This systemic use of knowledge as a production factor gives rise to products the value of which is less and less embedded in their physical components, and more and more in the knowledge component. "Knowledge-intensive firms create value by solving problems in contrast to industrial firms, which create value by transforming inputs into outputs. This different value-creating logic demands a new activity framework." (Sheehan, 2005, p. 57).

The rules and practices that apply to the industrial economy seem quite different from those in the knowledge economy. The new knowledge industries based on electronic networks create different patterns of supply and demand as well as different competitive strategies (McGee & Bonnici, 2002). Sheehan (2005) found major differences in the forms of competition, interactions with clients, interactions with company experts and the role of the company reputation in attracting business. In his analysis, that author argued that the old theories and other analytical tools cannot work in the „new“ knowledge economy and that new tools have

to be developed since the tools available to deal with the knowledge economy are scarce.

The knowledge as a production factor is a result of interlinked socioeconomic elements, such as a national innovation system, educated population, a modern ICT infrastructure, and an adequate business environment. Those prerequisites are easier to find in big cities rather than in small towns and, consequently, the major cities are natural breeding places for knowledge economy (Hospers, 2003). On the other hand, cities compete for investment and the knowledge economy is attracting their attention. Although a variety of studies on this issue have been conducted, we did not find any scientific publication on city attractiveness for the knowledge economy. That is why our research had to take the form of an exploratory study.

IMPLICIT THEORIES

An exploratory study should take unprejudiced approach, especially when its subject is a new type of economy, different in its ways of operation from the traditional one. In this vein we seek to reveal the major concepts around which the decision-makers form their thinking about a city business attractiveness. We are particularly interested in their reasoning with regard to perceived causal links among factors and concepts, existing in their own minds. A useful instrument for such tasks are the implicit theories. They are generalized cognitive orientations reflecting the ways in which information from the daily life is understood and used for judgments and decisions. This definition takes into account both the spontaneous comprehension of information and the more deliberative, goal-directed interpretation of information that occurs when it is acquired in social context (Dweck, 1996). Contextual as well as informational factors may influence both the interpretation of events, and the implicit theories that are activated and used to construe the implications (Wyer, 2004).

Numerous studies reveal that people have systematic implicit theories for almost any area of their lives: intelligence, creativity, and wisdom (Sternberg, 1985), personality traits and motivation (Dweck, 1996), ability and self-regulation strategies (Ommundsen, 2005). Implicit theories are used accurately in evaluating oneself and hypothetical others (Sternberg, 1985). The economy does not escape them too. Decision-makers' implicit theories about the human nature are known to influence marketing issues in the organization (Colarelli & Dettmann, 2003). That study found that to be successful, many consumer products and advertisements need an accurate view of people's thinking and attitudes. When the implicit theories are out of synchrony with reality, sales shrink. As demonstrated in another study, venture capitalists' implicit theories on new businesses influence their investment decisions (Riquelme & Watson 2002). A study of the best value

regime in UK local government also involved implicit theories. This regime introduced new regulations on spending tax-payer money and evaluating the service providers. The new policy was based on the implicit assumption that improvements come through change in organizational structures, processes, culture and strategy (Boyne et al, 2004).

Implicit theories serve as organizers of goals and behaviour (Dweck, 1996). In the absence of systematic knowledge, implicit theories function as a perception filter which is driven by goals, and is using incoming information to formulate subsequent directions for decision-making and action. Since established scientific facts about business attractiveness for the knowledge economy are scant, the agents have to rely entirely on their subjective statistics and inferences. Therefore the instrument of implicit theories may be very appropriate for studying the knowledge economy managers' understanding of the city business attractiveness.

METHOD

We investigated the views held by senior managers from the knowledge economy with regard to the attractiveness of Brussels. We were interested in two types of concepts and inferences. The first were related to factors making Brussels attractive, and the second were issues that hampered the business in it. In particular, we conducted semi-structured interviews. Throughout the interviews we encouraged our respondents to bring in new topics relevant to the subject. In this way we interviewed 150 senior managers from the knowledge economy from companies located: within the studied city (Brussels); in other towns of the same countries (Belgium); in major rival cities across Europe: Amsterdam, Barcelona, Copenhagen, Dublin, Frankfurt, Helsinki, London, Munich, Paris, Stockholm.

To uncover the respondents' reasoning and implicit theories we have applied conceptual cluster analysis. It is based on the grounded theory as detailed by Pidgeon and Henwood (1997), however in our work we do not use it to develop a theoretical framework, only to analyse the interviewees' implicit theories. We began our analysis by making a list of all topics mentioned by more than one interviewee. Naturally, some of them appeared more frequently than others. Those raised by more than 50% of the respondents were held to occupy the centre stage in their thinking about the attractiveness of Brussels for their business. Therefore, we expected those issues to form the backbone of our managers' implicit theories. Here we went one step further by looking in our material for any existing links among those frequent topics. Those that were actually linked formed categories. For example two frequent topics were Clients (big clients, important clients, prestigious clients) and Contracts (big contacts, interesting contracts). They were linked together to form a category in the following way: clients decide on contracts, contracts give our company prestige, influence etc. (there were a number of variations here).

We looked for all clarifications, explanations, and justifications that our material provided around each category. We were interested in all reasons and factors, causing the phenomenon described by a particular category. The category together with its relevant reasons formed a conceptual cluster. Then we gave names to all clusters.

We filled a matrix with the contribution of each interviewee to each topic and category. Then we calculated the percentage of people contributing to each conceptual cluster, which is our measure of cluster importance. We did this for both the total sample and the sub samples ‘within Brussels,’ ‘outside Brussels within Belgium,’ and ‘outside Belgium.’

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The conceptual clusters were either attractors or inhibitors for the knowledge economy in Brussels.

TABLE 1. CONCEPTUAL CLUSTERS OF CITY BUSINESS ATTRACTIVENESS IN THE IMPLICIT THEORIES HELD BY KNOWLEDGE ECONOMY MANAGERS: PERCENTAGE OF MANAGERS SUPPORTING EACH CLUSTER GROUPED BY COMPANY LOCATION, N=122.

Conceptual clusters	Total	Companies located in Brussels	Companies located in other towns, same country	Companies located in other countries
Attractors				
Decision-making power of the city economic agents, which enables them to offer innovation-fostering contracts	81.1	90.9	76.0	70.7
Swift adoption of new technologies	67.2	70.9	60.0	65.9
Political and economic importance, and geographic location	65.6	65.5	52.0	73.2
High quality of the labour force	61.5	63.6	56.0	61.0
Competitive price/quality ratio of the labour force	52.5	52.7	44.0	56.1
Inhibitors				
Taxes and administrative burden	77.0	83.6	92.0	58.5
Labour inflexibility	77.0	83.6	84.0	63.4
Shortage of qualified labour	52.5	45.5	56.0	51.2
Infrastructure issues	50.8	83.6	56.0	2.4

Attractors provide general description of what makes the companies start or continue doing business in this city. Inhibitors are city characteristics that hinder company performance. Attractors were more universal in the sense that a majority of interviewee opinions coincided in large measure. Inhibitors, in contrast, were more varied as some of them were important to groups of companies, and of no concern to all the others. All the major clusters of both types are summarized in Table 1. We now discuss each cluster in detail.

ATTRACTORS

1. Decision making power of the city economic agents, which enables them to offer innovation-fostering contracts

A number of closely related topics emerged from our material: “big clients”, “important clients”, “prestigious clients”. They all related to opportunities to secure “big contacts”, “interesting contracts” etc. The latter were offering interesting work and were pushing the company to innovate. Interviewees provided some typical reasons for this phenomenon: “Big contracts are complex, they push our innovation capacity to the maximum”; “It is very interesting to work for very big clients, from these contracts we learn a lot”. Such partnerships not only developed a company’s innovation capacity, but also raised its reputation: “In Brussels there are many big companies and important institutions that decide over large contracts... if they implement our products we get large influence”. Often from their regional headquarters located in Brussels multinational companies decide on technology implementations on European, Middle East and Africa or even world-wide scale.

It turned out that the key factor here is the decision making power vested in the economic agents, which enables them to offer those innovation-fostering contracts. Those are not only the large IT, ICT, and other multinationals, but also the European and Belgian government institutions. Government contracts also provide some security as they are typically long-term, which is vital in times of economic crises. It is interesting that government contracts are also praised for the opportunity to learn things from competitors. In addition, fairness of the bids for public contracts was mentioned as very important: when present, it contributed to an atmosphere of trust in the city business climate and facilitated inter-company partnerships.

As Table 1 suggests, 81% of all respondents contributed to this conceptual cluster, and those from within Brussels reached as high as 91%.

2. Swift adoption of new technologies

This conceptual cluster summarises a number of points about the speed of new technology adoption and exchange of professional knowledge and expertise. Our

respondents regarded as important issues, such as “how quickly the latest technologies, mainly in IT and ICT, come to Brussels”, “how fast the new developments in our field are adopted by the local economy”, “the time span between a new technology’s first appearance and its coming to the city”. The speed with which a company implements the latest technology is perceived as not only bringing comparative advantage, but also as an ingredient of its business reputation.

Brussels appeared as a city which offers good opportunities for extensive knowledge adoption not least due to the local companies’ willingness to use latest technologies. This demand is considered as vital for the knowledge economy businesses.

Many companies from the city report a more open knowledge exchange among competitors, which they regard as a particular advantage of the big city. Indeed, here one could find numerous exhibitions, fairs, seminars, and opportunities for professional training in a wide variety of branches from both the more traditional industries and the knowledge economy.

The large multinationals’ local branches reported instant access to not only their own latest proprietary technology, but also to their rivals’ achievements. Like other important cities, Brussels shows the diminishing role of the originating location of an innovative technology. Large companies do their research and development, and production in many places around the globe, often with virtual teams. However, some of their important market points are major cities like Brussels.

Our interviewees from outside Belgium supported the view of Brussels as a city with high absorption capacity for latest technologies and innovative business practices. They also highlighted the role of high quality universities and research centres as an attractive point of its own. As shown in Table 1, about two thirds of our respondents contributed to this conceptual cluster.

3. Political and economic importance, and geographic location

Three related topics appeared systematically in the interviews: city location, how important the city looked among other cities and how well connected it was to other cities. The following statements were frequently mentioned: “From Brussels, in a three to four hours ride one can reach London, Paris, Amsterdam, Frankfurt”, “Brussels is an important city, ... the capital of Europe”, “Brussels is one of the world’s most important cities”. This conceptual cluster highlights the advantage that Brussels derives from its unique combination of geographical location and political weight as host to many international institutions. As Table 1 tells, this arrangement matters to about half of our respondents from the other Belgian towns, much more so to our Brussels interviewees, and is found really significant by almost three fourths of our respondents from outside Belgium. The latter, many of whom are senior managers in large multinationals, shared that the greater the

city importance, the greater the necessity for their company to be present in it. And Brussels ranked highly in their location considerations.

4. High quality labour force

As our interviewees were senior managers in the knowledge economy, they all paid particular attention to the qualification and productivity of their labour force. That attitude may be illustrated by quotes such as: “We are peoples’ business.” or “We are as good as our people are”. “We go where the talent is”, said a vice-president of one of the top information technology companies in the world. For this factor the variance in opinions among our three different geographical groups was the smallest, about 62% (Table 1).

The interviewees stressed that if there were unique competence, which their company needed, they would be prepared to go quite a long way to get it. Brussels was praised for its labour force’s high productivity, well developed language skills, and easy adaptation to new work requirements.

5. Competitive price/quality ratio of the labour force

This conceptual cluster may be seen as related to the preceding one, however, from business point of view it is distinctly different. The topics that formed this cluster were “costs for a good expert” and “we can/cannot afford the good experts we need” (in terms of the necessary numbers of experts). This cluster was perceived by almost all the interviewees as a very desirable characteristic for city attractiveness, but not readily available in the city of Brussels. That is why a lower percentage of interviewees contributed to that attractor (52.5%). The imbalance was seen as a long-term threat for the knowledge-intensive companies in Brussels. Some companies told us that they have considered even leaving Brussels due to the shortage of labour force at good price.

INHIBITORS

1. Tax and administrative burden

This cluster summarizes two major topics – taxation and administrative issues. The first consists of the level of taxation, tax structure, and complexity of tax law. The second covers the complexity of administrative rules imposed on the business, and the ways to tackle them.

These issues were a cause for concern to all of our Belgian respondents. As Table 1 shows, 84% of those operating in Brussels and 92% in the rest of the country contributed to this conceptual cluster. Managers from the large foreign companies told us that they needed tax consulting services virtually from the start of their operations in Brussels. Failing to benefit from the complicated system of tax

exemptions made a potential investment in Brussels simply unattractive, some of them said. About 59% of our respondents from outside Belgium found this set of issues to be inhibiting Brussels' ability to attract knowledge-based businesses, not least due to the need to hire costly tax consultants permanently.

2. Inflexible labour market regulations

The labour market inflexibility was a big concern to the senior managers we interviewed. In the knowledge economy the pace of change due to technology development is so high, that labour flexibility is perceived as an area on which no company can compromise. In particular, the topics in this cluster with regard to Brussels were: (1) high cost of layoffs, (2) many months of layoff notice for long-serving employees, (3) high social security contributions by the employer, and (4) high total labour costs for qualified personnel.

3. Shortage of qualified labour

This inhibitor looks very similar to the previous one as it deals with the same issue – the work force. Our respondents, however, treated the two quite separately and saw them as having different origins and different solutions. While the previous inhibitor clearly depends on government policies, the present one has to do with societal and personal choices.

The topics contributing to this cluster sounded like: “It is very difficult to find good people”, “We need [people with] qualifications that we cannot find” “We do not find qualified people for a very long time”. The problem was less severe for companies located in Brussels (46%) and more for those from the small towns (56%) and from other countries (51%). Nevertheless, it was considered by our interviewees as an ultimate inhibitor. They pointed out that their companies had policies to cope with all sorts of problems, however, with this one they mostly failed and had to continue working with a shortage of skilled staff.

4. Infrastructure issues

Traffic jams and insufficient parking places in Brussels were two topics mentioned by almost all companies located within the city and other Belgian towns, but almost never by participants from foreign countries. The companies from the city suffered so much that 84% of the interviewees shared their resentment about this issue. Another 56% from the other towns perceived it as a serious problem too. These are some of the consequences: “In the past a salesperson could visit 7–8 clients a day. Today, with these traffic jams, one can reach only three clients”. Needed highly qualified people refused to accept employment within the city due to these inconveniences. Also, people who have worked in Brussels for years had begun looking for employment elsewhere.

CONCLUSIONS

We studied how knowledge-economy managers reason when they assess the attractiveness of a city, in this case Brussels, for their business. We conducted structured interviews during which we asked them to speak freely on the subject. Our major interest was in the implicit theories those individuals held in their minds. The picture that was revealed contained two types of conceptual clusters. The first described city characteristics that make companies start or continue their business in Brussels. The second show what hampers the knowledge economy firms operate, but not to the point of leaving the city. We refer to the former as attractors and to the latter as inhibitors.

Naturally, our managers from the knowledge economy were very sensitive to innovation, putting it at the conceptual centre of both the first and second most influential attractors. It seems logical that another key concept concerned the human capital. The importance of qualified labour force formed two other attractors and two inhibitors. So, innovation and quality of people seem to be the two major players in the knowledge economy, at least from the point of view of our interviewees. Generally, such a view was shared by three cohorts of managers we asked: residing in Brussels, in the rest of Belgium, and in other Western countries. Their opinions coincided in substantial ways.

A city in general, and the city of Brussels in particular, was perceived as a system through which the knowledge intensive companies can fulfil their major needs. Which, based on our study, may be listed as follows: advance their innovation through challenging contracts, obtain influence by serving clients that cover large areas, develop company reputation interacting with rivals and partners, keep informed about the global developments through knowledge exchange and latest technologies, find high quality labour force. When Brussels was seen as capable of meeting those demands, it was named attractive. If the interviewees considered the attractors strong, they expressed satisfaction and willingness to continue doing business in the city. Of course, a company's decision to start or further invest in a subsidiary is a complex one. It involves factors beyond city attractiveness, and is mainly driven by issues of business strategy. In any case, the implicit theories of 150 managers reveal advantages and disadvantages of Brussels, which make it look reasonably well positioned on the global knowledge economy map.

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SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL DIMENSIONS OF OTHERNESS: CHALLENGES BEFORE SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL KNOWLEDGE

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Abstract. *The EU enlargement and the common European reality, enriched with diverse social representations, entail specific social-psychological dimensions of otherness. The models of self-categorization and identification change together with the current conditions of dynamic intercultural relations, images, communication. One's involvement in broader and complex social networks of relations and larger mobility opportunities - movement between different social and cultural groups - develops their cognitive schemes and categorizations. Personality has to face challenges and choices in regard to their belongings, social contacts and in concern to the acceptance (or non-acceptance) of the Other, the others, of a diversity of individualities, groups, institutions. Conceptualizing these problematic circles poses new requirements before the social psychology. Based on metaanalysis of data from the European Social Survey, the discussed problems are illustrated and the contemporary European citizens' willingness to accept the diversity of cultures, social groups, institutions is clarified.*

Keywords: *otherness, co-otherness, EU, migrants, citizens, diversity.*

INTRODUCTION

Identity – be it social, ethnic or other – in the diversity paradigm, is considered not in terms of contradistinction to the others but as one of multiple realities, a phenomenon of the self-definition within a diversity of similarities. The conceptual distance between this paradigm and psychology is visible. To a big extent this distance is imposed because of the traditionally leading individualistic direction

of the studies since more than a century. There isn't much of a conceptual basis for development of knowledge on an *over-individual* level of behaviour, attitudes, characteristics – i.e. the *over-personal*, collective, group, community and national are often studied with the methods designed to discover individual and not inter-group differences

The theory of social identity, developed into a theory of self-categorization is one of the most significant achievements in the social psychology but in their core lays the paradigm of difference - “we against them”. To reach the ideas of diversity and especially ideas of otherness, more research is necessary. It is well-known that C. H. Mead is one of the first to set the direction towards the study of the other but his ideas are hardly applied outside of the empirical-individualistic plan, or, as two authors put it: “Such an approach *conventionalizes* (in Bartlett's sense) Mead into the dominant individualist framework of psychology, and thus avoids his comments about the constitutive role of society and social interaction in the construction of self.” (Wagoner and Kadianaki, 2007, p.489)

CHALLENGES

For social psychology, a challenge exists in several directions – besides the otherness and its systematical study, there is a number of tasks of a new reading or analysis of the society's development from the point of view of the social psyche's development. Based on this kind of analysis a firm social psychological knowledge can be built, fruitful for the social polity and economics and aimed at the social problems of the actual situation. It is necessary to profoundly analyze Modernity and Postmodernity, as well as the formation of the social-psychic phenomena, corresponding to this context. Modernity builds attitudes and stereotypes in regard to the foreigner, the unknown, as an object that should remain out of the social order so that it won't cause instability and chaos. And if during Modernity a certain ambivalence is presented, formed, Postmodernity continues this tradition, which opens spaces for otherness. (Marotta, 2002). As an example of a transition from “foreign” and “other” to “one of all”, the difficulties and changes that Jewish people pass through in a historical plan can be mentioned – in the contemporary conditions, they “lose” their distinctiveness and there is no other reason for it but the fact that, as Baumann puts it, “the state of being distinct' has turned into only truly universal mark of the human condition“ (as cited by Marrota, 2002, p.47).

The processes of globalization and integration don't “leave” the development on this stage – the acceptance of the different, their perception as possible does not abolish discrimination, stereotypes and dehumanization (Haslam, 2006).

DIVERSITY PARADIGM AND OTHERNESS – CO-OTHERNESS

The diversity paradigm stresses on the possibility of everyone's acceptance as equals not only in their difference but also as subjects with equal rights, representing the European space. The multidisciplinary study of diversity in European scientists' research is oriented not only towards a progress in the field of knowledge but also towards a development of European communication spaces, to which all the actors will contribute equally with their own specifics and will accept the others' specifics – to develop attitudes and skills to act and think as co-others or co-Europeans.

The diversity perspective is based upon the notion of otherness rather than difference. Whereas “difference” signifies disparities between persons or between groups, or between both, “otherness” signifies both disparities and commonalities. “Otherness” here is not about being “the Other” (noun); but being “other” (adjective). This removes the ontological and normative priority of the Self over the Other, and establishes the Self as “just another other, that is, as a co-other” (Sicakkan 2003). According to Sicakkan the diversity perspective thus includes: *“mobility of minds between different references of identification ; mobility of bodies – i.e., migration and frequent movement across places and different spaces of interaction; mobility of boundaries – i.e., shifting territorial, political, cultural, economic, social, and individual boundaries”*. The “co-other” is not a physical reality. It is a state of mind that enables individuals to see themselves as “just another other”, i.e., as a third person who is different both from the self and from the concrete others surrounding the self. (Sicakkan, 2005)

To get to the goal to study in broad samples of European citizens their readiness to be active in the European processes and ability to think and act as co-Europeans the meta analysis of ESS data can be achieved through re-categorization of the variables in Eurosphere, and then finding again those variables in the indicators, measured by the ESS.¹

For now, pilot and partial analyses of the ESS data /ESS Round 03 ;ESS Round 04/ are conducted and I will present here some of them.²

As one of the significant indicators of intergroup tolerance and development of the attitude to otherness both on an individual and group levels, is the attitude towards immigrants coming from different countries. Cross-cultural analysis of

¹ Here a part of the pilot study in the Integrated project EUROSHERE in 6FP is presented.

² I would like to express my gratitude to Borian Andreev - a researcher in Institute of Psychology for his kind assistance he rendered to me while processing statistically the ESS data

the attitudes in the various EU member-states to migrants from poorer states out of Europe definitely reveals positive results.

As displayed on Figure 1, the most positive attitude is measured in Estonia – one of the young Member-states; moreover, it is definitely stable during the period from 2006 to 2008. It is interesting to note that in Bulgaria the attitudes towards immigrants coming from poorer countries are also relatively positive, i.e. even though the social-economical situation of the country could be better, this doesn't set ethnocentrically directed parameters of the social psyche. The dispersional analysis /ANOVA/ of the differences between several selected from the ESS data countries, produces main effect of the independent variable “country” on the three indicators – acceptance of immigrants of a race/ethnic group same as the majority / $F=127,42$; $p<0.001$ /, acceptance of immigrants of race/ethnic group different than the majority / $F=58,57$; $p<0.001$ /, acceptance of immigrants coming from poorer non-EU countries / $F= 81,30$; $p<0.001$ /.

Time slot is defined by some tendencies in the various states, for instance Bulgarians and Germans decrease their positive attitude for the first indicator and for the third indicator in 2008 compared to 2006 – i.e. it is observed some tendency to non-admission of various migrants for these two years – it can be supposed that in Bulgaria economy failed to develop in sustainable manner and increase of the immigrants wave is perceived as related to much higher problems – furthermore, Bulgaria as mainly sending state “receives” in general migrants from poorer states. However, paradoxical is the attitude of Germans who increase positive attitude towards the fact that migrants improve economy, but nevertheless their positivism to admission of migrants decreased in 2008 (see Fig.1).

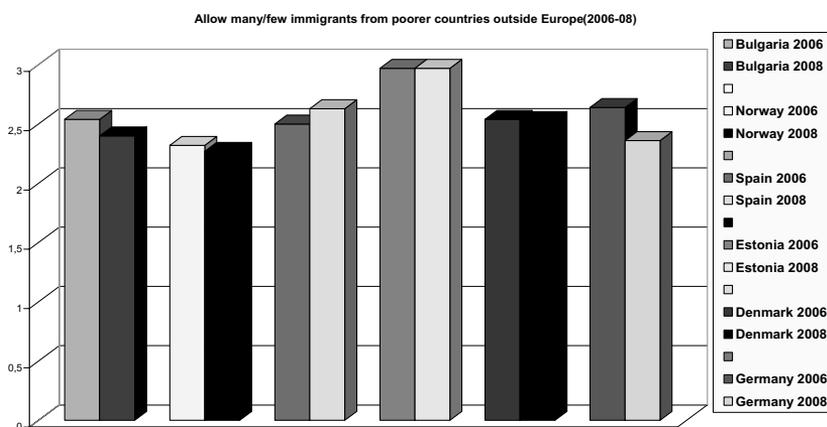


FIGURE 1. ALLOW MANY/FEW IMMIGRANTS FROM POORER COUNTRIES OUTSIDE EUROPE (2006-08)

It can be suggested that having in mind the already great immigrant mass, Germans forecast future problems if number of migrants proceeds to increase, whereas this hypothesis is subject to verification. Estonia's attitudes to immigration acceptance from poorer countries are opposed to Norway's, the former being the most positive and the latter – explicitly negative. But if this data is compared to those below, concerning the highly positive attitude of Norwegians to the importance of supporting others and to the everyday pro-social and mutual aid behaviour, it could be supposed that the social experience of accepting migrants have created a representation of the direct relation between acceptance and support – that is, a non-abstract readiness to help.

The issues related to the migrants within EU are particularly important because they require similar, even though specific policies in regard to migration problems. The new realities and mutual relationships require and also provoke, due to our membership in EU, development of new representations of the others and new skills for social activity, supporting different groups, ethnic groups and their representatives. A complete change is not necessary because “it is only our interests, prejudices (i.e. in Gadamer's sense ‘pre-judgments’), traditions, and the like, that allow us to understand at all”/ Wagoner and Kadianaki, 2007, p. 494/.

Thus, in the sense of co-otherness, it can be assumed that we are, to an extent, “co-authors” of contemporary Europe and co-authors must work together, accept the others' role and suggestions, understand and support each other. Willingness to support others without expecting some benefits means literally altruism in social psychological aspect. This willingness is also indicator of the extent of co-otherness or placing oneself on the place of someone else, “as other”, which can be considered representative for the European states. Here also “country” in the role of independent variable exerts influence in the dispersional analysis and its main effect is $F = 95,34$; $p < 0.001$ /, with a number of the persons interviewed from the countries selected here – for 2006 - $N = 10398$, for 2008 – $N = 11922$. Some divergence is observed between the values of importance to help people and care for others' well-being /Fig 2/ and personal attitudes, most of the people rendering assistance or caring for themselves /Fig.3/. In stable states as Norway there are relatively high values assessing the importance of support and care for others and highest values compared to the rest states of the daily representations of mutual support and the fact that most of the people really support each other or mutually care for each other. In the new EU member-states are observed some rather high values of the value orientation for the significance of support to others – both in Estonia/ its data having significantly higher values compared to the other countries/ and Bulgaria, however at the same time are observed lower values compared to the other states in respect to the representations of real mutual support among people – i.e. pro-social orientations have been socialized, but low daily expectations and representations of mutual support and willingness of people to render support.

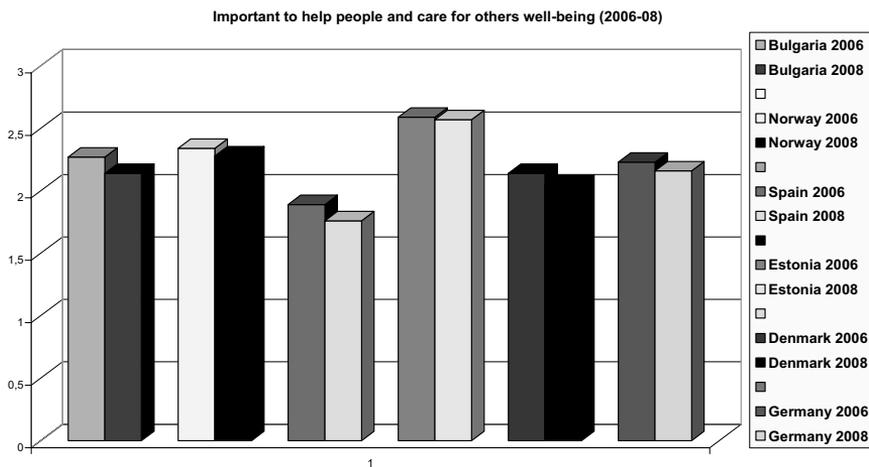


FIGURE 2. IMPORTANT TO HELP PEOPLE AND CARE FOR OTHERS' WELL-BEING (2006-08)

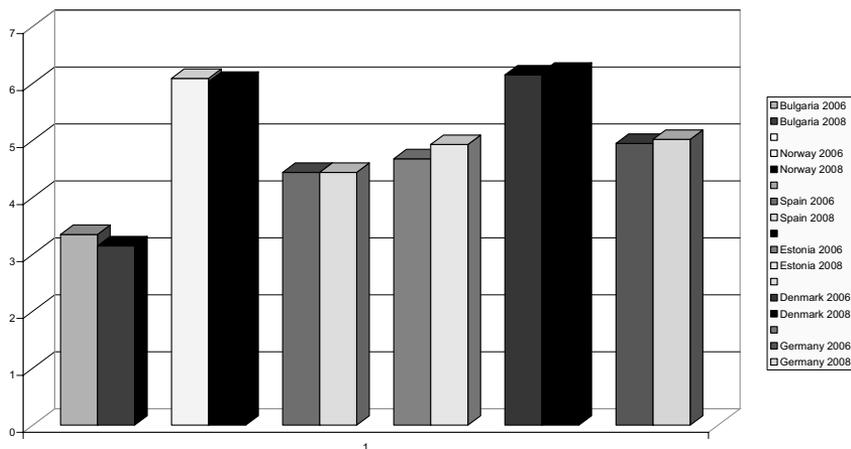


FIGURE 3. MOST OF THE TIME PEOPLE ARE HELPFUL OR MOSTLY LOOKING OUT FOR THEMSELVES

Spanish respondents demonstrate lowest values of their value orientation in respect to significance to care for others and one of the lowest, after Bulgaria, values of daily representation of mutual support. It can be suggested that in the ex-socialistic states orientation had been dominated for a long period mainly by terminal values and especially in respect to the value they to be known, but instrumentality, implementation in real situations is rather far from these basic cognitive structures. Therefore, in the situation of enlarging Europe and increasing diversity of individuals, groups and cultures more and more significant corrections towards realization of social cognition, i.e. its pragmatics – will be imposed. Regarding Spain we can refer to individual circumstances, however there the combination of numerous migrants, complicated social and economic factors can create distance among people.

The enlargement of EU, increasing mobility, the change in social representations among the representatives of different nations and cultures, the acceptance of migrants' diversity contribute to the enrichment of the categories in which one thinks about the others and themselves. The cognitive schemes change which, as it is well-known, leads to a new type of regulation of the social behaviour. In a new situation of a European community being integrated – individuals rely on a development of the skill of maintaining multiple identifications. After the acceptance of the other and otherness, the next step is expression of co-otherness – intersection of a number of identities, that one affiliates to, facilitating the mechanisms of acceptance of individuals and groups, considered until recently deviating groups and communities as the gays and lesbians.

In the dispersional analysis of the differences by country, the independent variable "country" has a main effect / $F=289,65$; $p<0.001$ / The data analyses demonstrates clearly that Estonian and after them Bulgarian citizens are the most tolerant in regard to these communities, compared to the other countries /Fig.4/.

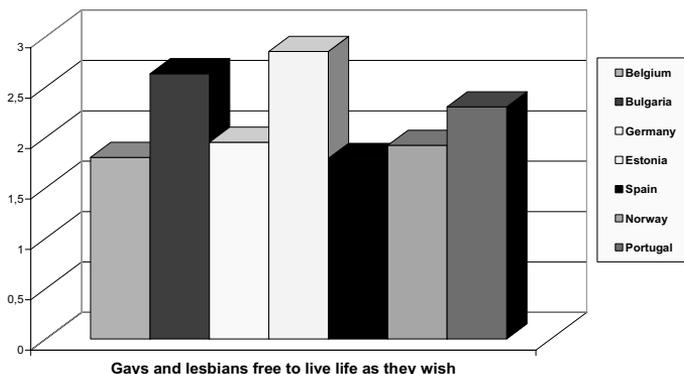


FIGURE 4. GAYS AND LESBIANS FREE TO LIVE LIFE AS THEY WISH

Estonia is the leading country with its unrivalled value of a highly positive attitude towards these groups and their right of free choice of lifestyle. Other cross-cultural differences are also visible, for example Germans being to a bigger extent positively disposed towards the free choice of people with a different sexual orientation, in comparison to Spanish and Dutch. In fact, these results are relevant and expected from the point of view of the social-historical development in different countries, reflecting on the change of stereotypes, regulative schemes and moreover for the former socialist states breaking the taboos, a development of a tolerance higher than before is a logical consequence. On the other hand, however, conclusions could not be drawn but with a new systematic study, about the reasons why countries like Norway, Denmark - well developed in a social-economic aspect, active in civic processes and obviously developed pro-social values attitudes at a group level – are negatively disposed toward the freedom of similar groups.

In this complex process of thinking and behavior change, a psychic “flexibility”, readiness to accept diversity that no more scares with its “foreign”, unknown particularities, is acquired. Diversity attracts with its cultural specifics – a capability to think and act as a co-other and co-European. (Sikaccan, 2005; Zografova, 2008) Active involvement of the citizens of today in European processes of integration can be realized both on the grounds of enrichment of cognitive skills for perception and tolerance to the various others, and by the means of the attitude towards politicians and the overall public political sphere. Such active role is a rather serious factor often having key importance for enlargement of the EU and transition from one stage to the next through significant processes and events as ratification of the Lisbon Treaty. In view to test the extent of trust in politicians and other political sphere subjects we have realized comparative analysis for some of the states, comprised by the ESS data.

In the ANOVA analysis of differences by country, the independent variable “country” has a main effect $/F=384,26; p<0.001/$. Bulgarians have the most negative attitude towards politicians and this is an indicator of a slow and difficult process of development of their participation in the communication spaces, in social-political processes which is proven particularly by the electoral involvement going lower and lower. In Denmark attitudes opposite to the Bulgarian case are measured – the Dutch have the highest level of trust in politicians, which is valid also for Norwegians /see Fig.5/ At the same time, Bulgarians are convinced that the EU integration must expand, while the citizens of other countries, for example of Norway, Germany, are significantly more reserved in giving a similar assessment /Fig. 6/. The number of social-economical difficulties during the democratic transition and the consecutive drastic changes in a social, economical, psychological aspect, as well as the arduous acceptance of Bulgaria in EU, formed attitudes of distrust towards politics in general and its representatives; but parallel to them, social representations of the necessity of a constructive European Union of mutually helping countries were also developed.

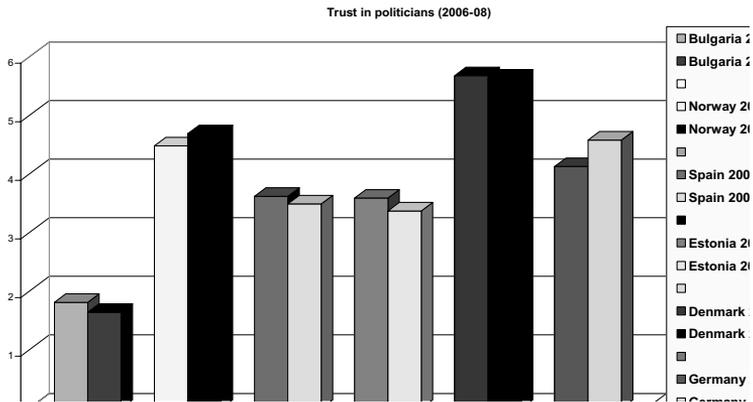


FIGURE 5. TRUST IN POLITICIANS (2006-08)

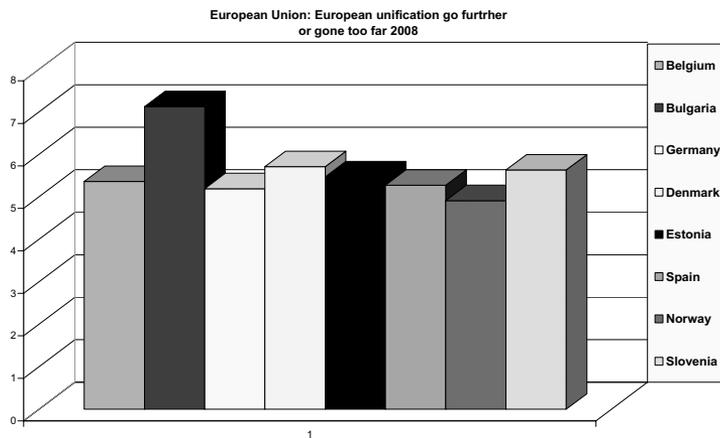


FIGURE 6. EUROPEAN UNION: EUROPEAN UNIFICATION GO FURTHER OR GONE TOO FAR 2008

In the forthcoming research we will try to find an answer of questions like: Do the public attitudes to different ethnic groups develop towards a larger openness, i.e. do the stereotypes, values orientations, tolerance change and do the social distances in EU shorten? Do traditionally negative attitudes towards some ethnic minorities, respectively groups of migrants change or develop in a situation of EU enlargement?

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**PAPERS OF SYMPOSIUM 6:
ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY**

LEADERSHIP IN AN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE: A COMPARATIVE STUDY WITH SPANISH AND BRAZILIAN ORGANIZATIONAL MANAGERS BASED UPON THE GLOBE PROJECT

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Abstract. *The main objective of the present study is to analyse organizational leaders' styles in Spain and Brazil. The proposed comparative study among Spanish and Brazilian organizational leaders follows the GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness) project according to its methods and goals. For the present research 40 Spanish and 40 Brazilian enterprises were approached in a transversal and correlation study with the participation of 72 Spanish and 88 Brazilian organizational leaders. Both directors (20%) and managers (80%) took part in the study. Comparatively, the main results point to differences among Brazilian and Spanish leaders in what concerns the following leadership dimensions: authoritarianism, relationship and anticipation for changing. On the other hand, it was found a negative relationship between authoritarianism and social ability; a positive relationship between authoritarianism and relation, as well as a positive relation between relationships and social ability. At last it was discussed the limitations and practical implications of the found results for leadership in organizations of both approached countries, comparatively.*

Keywords: *Spain; Brazil; organisations; leadership; culture.*

INTRODUCTION

We are witnessing at this time to a relentless process of globalization that affects all activities and sectors. In business is not different; it increasingly diversifies its business relations and collaboration between countries with intensity. If it will

be maintained the current growth rates, in 2015 international trade will have a volume of business greater than that generated by the internal trade of all countries (Gregersen, Black and Morrison, 1999). In sectors such as semiconductors, automobiles, commercial aircraft, telecommunications, computers and electronics will be impossible to survive without leaving to the world to seek alliances, customers, suppliers, technology and human resources (Welch, 2001). However, this globalization of business does not mean that differences between cultures are disappearing (Hofstede, 1991).

Another important aspect of concern to companies that maintain international relations is the fact that in a globalized market they are obliged to multiply the number of executives with the capacity to be leaders anywhere in the world, for only thus will get to win new markets. Gregersen, Black and Morrison (1999), in a study conducted between 1994 and 1997 attended by 50 companies in the U.S., Europe and Canada, where 130 executives were interviewed, made the following questions: 1) When selecting people who will be managing international operations what qualities should these leaders have? 2) These differences should be related to the character or cultural background? and 3) Are there training that show themselves as infallible? The results of this study showed that most companies do not have sufficient competent executive to act globally. The study also revealed that almost all companies are deficient in what concerns international leaders.

Whether you're working in international operations of joint ventures, or work for companies establishing subsidiaries in another country, the business needs the named "geocentric staff", that is, leaders who can work with employees and other leaders from different cultures (Walker, 1992). In this scenario, it is clear the need for scientific studies on the formation of leaders that are capable of facing the globalized world's cultural diversity.

It is known that exports from South America and Europe, for example, have intensified. In 2004, it was noticed an export tax of 22% compared with 16% in 2003 (IBGE, 2006). More specifically we found that the 2004 transactions between Brazilian and Spanish companies grew, which represent 8% of all transactions between South America and Europe (ICEX, 2006). In 2004, Spain occupied the thirteenth position among the main destination markets for Brazilian exports, with an investment of U.S. \$ 1.5 billion. Furthermore, Spain is the 3rd place among the major investors in Brazil, with a sum of \$ 16.2 billion accumulated until 2005 (BTD, 2006).

According to the presented context, this research aims to develop a theoretical framework that allows a better understanding of organizational leadership styles of Brazilian and Spanish leaders and thus be able to provide scholars, leaders, and entrepreneurs more knowledge about this issue, helping to facilitate trade relations. Specifically, with this study it is aimed to profile the Brazilian leader and then compare it with the Spanish style of organizational leader, within the framework of the GLOBE project (House, et al., 2004).

METHOD

HYPOTHESIS

Based upon the previous review it is possible to indicate that there are both clear similarities and differences between the behaviour of Brazilians and Spanish leaders. For the project GLOBE, Spain has been drawn in the group of Latin Europe and Brazil in South American group (House et al., 2004).

Moreover, assuming that the social culture and its form and the culture and organizational practices influence the process by which people come to share implicit theories of leadership, it will be used four types of leadership practices which we presume are the ones most likely to have differences: relationship, authoritarianism, social skills and anticipate change, to make comparisons between Brazil and Spain.

Hofstede (1991) studied 50 countries with respect to power distance level (PDL), and found that Brazil has a PDL equal to 69 (14th position). Meanwhile Spain has an PDL equal to 57 (31st position). In this classification, Brazil has a high PDL and Spain average. Note that the power distance maintained by bosses and subordinates is higher in Brazil than in Spain, so we predict that Brazil will present an authoritarianism index greater than Spain.

H1A: The leaders of Brazil and Spain are different in the practice of authoritarianism. The practice of leadership of authoritarian nature (authoritarianism) will be greater in organizational settings in Brazil than in Spain.

Whereas the first GLOBE studies, which found that both the leaders of Latin America and Latin Europe's leaders were charismatic (House, Javid and Dorfman, 2001), and knowing that Hofstede (1991) found that Brazil and Spain are collectivist countries, we believe that the leaders of both countries will be social skilled and have similar rates in the factor "relations." Thus, we expect to find similarities in practice and in the management of "social skills" and in "relationships". On this basis, we propose hypotheses 1b and 1c:

H1B: The practice of "social skills" leadership is equally used by Brazilian and Spanish leaders. Therefore, Brazilian and Spanish leaders will be similar in "social skills".

H1C: The practice of "relational" leadership is also used by Brazilian and Spanish leaders. Therefore, the Brazilian and Spanish leaders will be similar in terms of "relationships".

The Index of uncertainty avoidance of a country measures the degree of anxiety among nationals about unknown situations (Hofstede, 1991). Based upon Hofstede's study covering 50 countries that found that the rate of uncertainty avoidance is higher in Spain (0.86, occupying the 10th position) than in Brazil (0.76, occupying the 21st position), we presume that we will find differences between the leaders of Brazil and Spain in terms of "the anticipation of change." We propose, then, the hypothesis 1D:

H1D: Spanish and Brazilian leaders differ as to the practice of “anticipation of change.” The Spanish organizational leaders will get higher scores than Brazilian leaders. Furthermore, we propose hypotheses 2A, 2B, and 2C by relating some of the studied factors, and supported by Hofstede’s cultural theory (1991) who studied the behavior of “authoritarianism “and” human-orientation” and found negative correlations between the two behaviors, we predict that there are also negative correlation between the behaviors of “authoritarianism” and “social skills” here studied as well as between “authoritarianism” and “relationship”. In its turn, also supported by Hofstede (1991), who found that in the organizational context, the “human orientation” is positively correlated with “social skills” and with “relationship”, we are supposed to find a positive relationship between “social skills” and “relationship”.

H2A: We expect to find a negative relationship between “authoritarianism” and “social skills”. And therefore the extent that leaders of both investigated countries show a high rate of “authoritarianism”, consequently a low rate in the “relationships”.

H2B: We expect a negative relationship between “authoritarianism” and “relations”. Therefore, and as far as the Brazilian and Spanish organizational leaders present high scores on “authoritarianism”, will present, consequently, low scores on “relationship.”

H2C: We expect a positive relationship between “social skills” and “relations”. Therefore, and as far as the Brazilian and Spanish organizational leaders present high scores on “social skills”, they will present, consequently, high scores on “relationships”.

PROCEDURE AND PARTICIPANTS

The Spanish sample counted with the participation of 72 leaders (was developed in Phase 3 of GLOBE Project in Spain). The primary sample was attended by 88 Brazilian leaders. Both samples counted with 50% of *chief executive officers* (CEOs) and 50% of middle managers, subordinate to those, representing 40 companies, half of which were small and medium sized owner-managed and half large and managed by salaried executives. The business activities were 40% engaged in food processing, 30% were formed by financial companies, 30% belonged to telecommunications services. The choice of the sample followed the same instructions of the GLOBE project, so participants were senior leaders (20%), and team leaders subordinated to managers (80%).

VARIABLES:

After the phase 3 of GLOBE in Spain program was concluded, we followed the same model and applied the same tools to understand the behaviour of organizational leaders in Brazil and compare them with their Spanish counterparts. 4 different questionnaires were applied to ascertain the organizational leader’s style:

Questionnaire 1 – For senior leaders – CEO; Questionnaire 2 – Form E – for leader of financial and accounting areas of the company, subordinate to the head of the company; Questionnaire 3 – Form C – for intermediate leaders of administrative area, human resources, and information technology who were subordinated to the senior leadership of the company and Questionnaire 4 – Form D – for sales intermediate leaders as well as of marketing, operations and related areas, that were subordinated to the leader of the company.

The participants answered one of the 4 questionnaires (according to their working area) with a 7-point scale, where 1 is “strongly disagree” and 7 “strongly agree.” Questionnaires were available in printed and virtual versions, so they could be answered via Internet (www.s3006.com.br) for the purpose that the program could be accessible from any region in Brazil. Print questionnaires were sent in sealed envelopes to leaders who preferred this mode of participation. The print questionnaires were processed by the investigator and subsequently added to the same database of the electronic questionnaires. Of this set of questionnaires and whose data were analyzed progressively in various stages of the project Globe itself it was used exclusively subscales of leadership patterns: 1. Relationship; 2. Authoritarianism; 3. Anticipation of change and 4. Social skill.

DATA ANALYSIS:

We used statistical descriptive techniques, Student’s *T* test and Pearson’s correlation, through Descriptive Statistic procedures, compared Independent Means – samples *T* test and correlate, respectively, from the statistical package SPSS for Windows.

In order to test the hypothesis of group 1, listed above, for each studied factor, the average was calculated of the respective factor levels, as measured by their corresponding questions on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Thus, we proceeded with the comparisons of the means of the notes to the levels of each factor under study, in regarding organizational leaders in Brazil and Spain through *T* test and *p*-value factors We could though verify how the two are similar or different in which factors.

To verify the existence of correlations between two factors, we proceeded with the Pearson’s correlation coefficient.

The ranges were developed to enhance post comments.

RESULTS

Table 1 shows the results of the four behaviours studied for Brazilian and Spanish leaders, respectively (t test, *p*-value, significance). Table 2 shows the correlations of factors by the Pearson’s correlation coefficient.

To test the hypothesis of group 1, were created test hypotheses.

- ◆ First, as “authoritarianism”, the T test result was: Medium of factor “authoritarianism Brazil”, $\bar{X}_{ab} = 4.29$, and medium of the factor “authoritarian Spain”, $\bar{X}_{ae} = 3.97$ (p-value = .04). Thus, we confirm the hypothesis 1A, with confidence level of 95%. Brazilian and Spanish organizational leaders differ on “authoritarianism”.
- ◆ Second, regarding the “social skill” (Hypothesis 1B), the T test results were: mean for Brazil, $\bar{X}_{hb} = 4.59$, and for Spain, $\bar{X}_{he} = 5.03$. With the p-value = .06, it is not significant.
- ◆ Third, regarding the factor “relationship”, the T test results were: medium for Brazilian leaders, $\bar{X}_{rb} = 4.19$, and $\bar{X}_{re} = 4.37$ for Spanish leaders (p-value = .04). With a confidence level of 95% the Hypothesis 1C was not confirmed, therefore, Brazilian and Spanish leaders differ on this factor.
- ◆ Fourth, regarding the factor “anticipation of change”, the T test results were: average value for Brazilian leaders, $\bar{X}_{mb} = 5.04$, and Spanish leaders mean $\bar{X}_{me} = 5.88$ (p-value = 0.00). The H1D hypothesis was confirmed, and with a confidence level of 95%, the factor “anticipation of change” differs for Brazilian and Spanish leaders (p-value = .00).

TABLE 1. TEST RESULTS

Factors	<i>T</i>	p-value	significance
Autoritarianism	1,98	.04	5%
Social Skill	-1,30	.06	Not significant
Relationship	-2,08	.04	5%
Anticipation of change	-4,29	.00	1%

Tables 2, 3 and 4 present the results of the ranks of the factors: authoritarianism, relationship, and anticipation of change. The ranges of social skill factor are not presented because the differences are not significant.

TABLE 2. MEANS OF THE BRAZILIAN AND SPANISH LEADERS IN AUTHORITARIANISM

Levels	Brazil		Spain	
	Xb	Range	Xe	Range
20. Authoritarianism	3.60	9o.	4.38	3o.
31. Impose own values and opinions to others	4.51	3o.	4.42	2o.
38. He is arrogant, he is convinced of his own worth and abilities	5.12	1o.	3.54	8o.
49. Avoids to make negative comments to maintain a good figure	4.00	7o.	3.75	5o.

65. Tells to his workers what to do in a authoritarian way	3.83	8o.	3.53	9o.
72. Avoids to discuss with other members of his group	4.14	6o.	3.69	6o.
74. Tends to be temperamental, changes easily	4.36	5°	4.21	4o.
80. Keeps himself on the top, while in charge, insists in taking himself all decisions	4.65	2o.	3.55	7o.
81He doesn't brag, keeps himself modestly	4.42	4o.	4.68	1o.

Xb = media de líderes de Brasil, Xe= media de líderes de España.

As for hypothesis 2A, 2B and 2C, the results are in Table 5. With regard to correlation between the factors “authoritarianism” and “social skills”, we obtained the Pearson correlation coefficient = -0.395 , and p -value = 0.000 . In obtaining a negative correlation coefficient, we affirm with a confidence level of 99%, that the higher the score of authoritarianism, the lower the score of social competence. This confirms the hypothesis 2 A. With respect to correlation between “authoritarianism” and “relationship”, the hypothesis 2B is not confirmed. We found a Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.208 , and p -value: 0.025 , and so with a confidence of 95%, we conclude that there is a positive correlation between the factors “authoritarianism” and “relationship”. When the score of behaviour “authoritarianism” grows, the score of behaviour “relationship” grows.

Regarding the “social skills” and “relationship”, we found a Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.342 and p -value = 0.000 . Since the correlation is positive, we say with a confidence level of 99% that the higher the score of “relationship”, the higher the score of “social skills”. This confirms the hypothesis 2C.

TABLE 3 – MEANS OF BRAZILIAN AND SPANISH LEADERS IN RELATIONSHIP

Levels	Brazil		Spain	
	Xb	Range	Xe	Range
2. I like to solve myself the problems	4.72	7o.	5.90	1o.
18. Woks together with others	5.05	2o.	5.20	7o.
19. Communicates frequently with others	5.16	1o.	5.28	5o.
22. Shows confidence to others, showing confidence to them	4.77	4o.	5.28	6o.
27. He is cunning, false, malicious	2.93	17o.	2.45	16o.
28. Tends to think the worst about people and happenings	3.09	16o.	3.03	14o.
34. Keeps distance and keeps himself distant to others	3.81	11o.	3.46	12o.
35. Tends to dominate others	3.77	12o.	4.21	11o.

41. Shows value, confidence and hope, comforting us	4.26	10o.	4.89	10o.
42. Acts independently, doesn't count with others	3.56	13o.	3.25	13o.
43. Demonstrates and transmit strong positive feelings in relation to work	4.77	5o.	5.67	2o.
56. He is concerned to the well-being of the group	4.83	3o.	5.47	3o.
59. He is disagreeable; shows negative behaviour toward others	3.19	15o.	2.08	17o.
77. He likes to be alone; tends to work without other people	3.45	14o.	2.72	15o.
78. He supports and stays with his friends even if they have problems	4.47	9o.	5.31	4o.
79. He interferes for resolving conflicts between people	4.76	6o.	5.06	8o.
82. He increases the moral among his workers while he encourages and praises them	4.52	8o.	5.00	9o.

Xb = means of Brazilian leaders, Xe= means of Spanish leaders.

TABLE 4 MEANS OF BRAZILIAN AND SPANISH LEADERS IN ANTICIPATION OF CHANGE

Levels	Brazil		Spain	
	Xb	Range	Xe	Range
7. Anticipates; is attent to what can happen in the future	4.40	7o.	5.70	5o.
17. He sees obstacles as challenges rather than threats	4.98	4o.	5.94	1o.
50. He anticipates possible future happenings	5.00	3o.	5.69	6o.
60. Always tries to improve his performance	5.26	1o.	5.75	4o.
64. He is informed and his information is up to date	5.13	2o.	5.93	3o.
69. He is smart and he learns and understand things easily	4.98	5o.	6.24	1o.

Xb = means of Brazilian leaders, Xe= means of Spanish leaders.

TABLE 5. TEST OF CORRELATION

Correlated Factors	Correlation	p-value	Significance Level
Autoritarianism X Social Skill	- 0.395	.000	1%
Autoritarianism X Relation	0.208	.025	5%
Social Skill X Relation	0.342	.000	1%

The results of correlations are also presented in Figures 1, 2 and 3. First, the negative correlation between "authoritarianism" x "social skills".

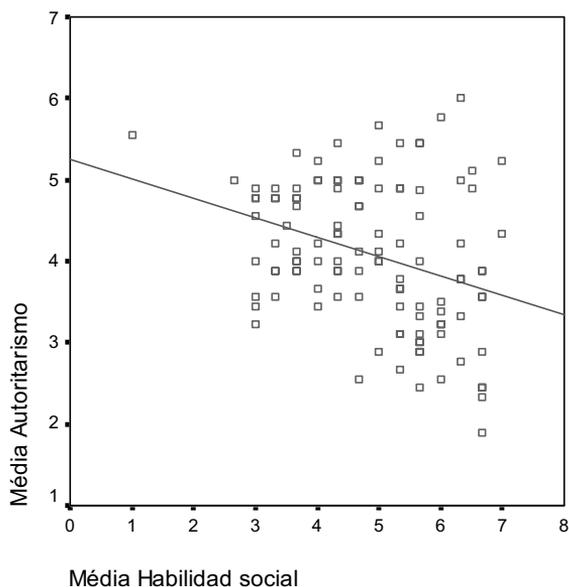


FIGURE 1. CORRELATION: AUTORITARIANISM X SOCIAL SKILL

Second, in Figure 2, the positive correlation between “authoritarianism” and “relation”:

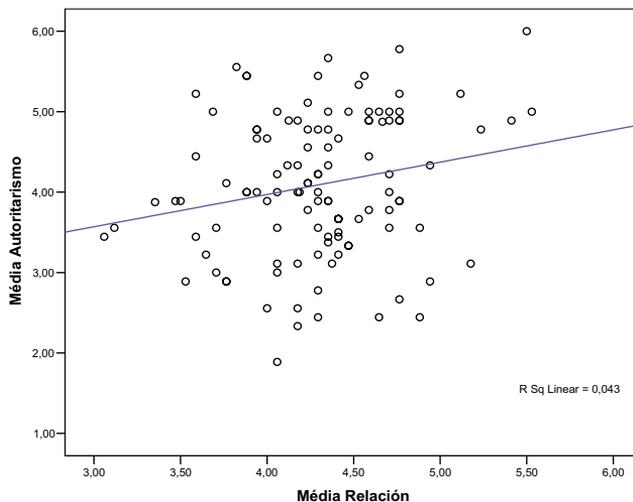


FIGURE 2. CORRELATION: AUTORITARIANISM X RELATION

In Figure 3 it is presented the result of correlation between the factors “social skill and relation”:

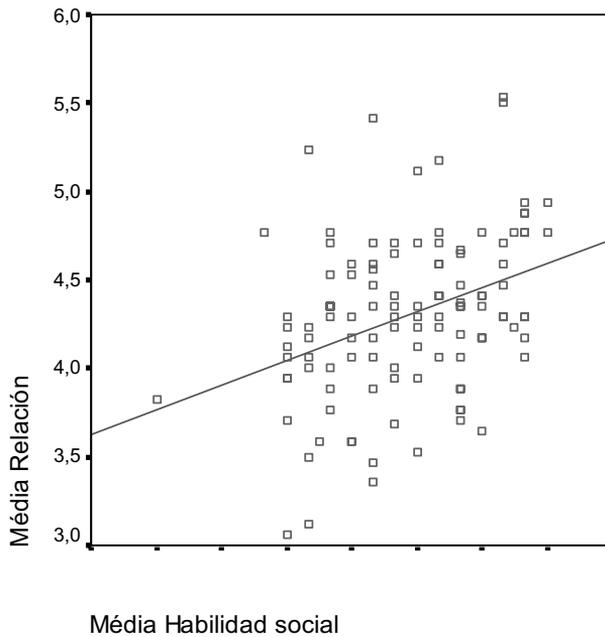


FIGURE 3. CORRELATION: SOCIAL SKILL X RELATION

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study was designed to raise the style of Brazilian organizational leader and also compare with their Spanish counterparts in the format GLOBE (House, et al., 2004), also applying the methodological and instrumental resources developed in the named project.

4 patterns of leadership: authoritarian, social skills, relationship, and anticipation of change were considered for the present study. We compared the average values of Brazilian and Spanish organizational leaders. Then, it was observed how the two are different in the considered factors. Finally, we analyzed the correlations between factors such as: authoritarianism x social skills, authoritarianism x relationship and social skill x relation.

Authoritarianism: The hypothesis 1A was confirmed. According to the pre-supposition, organizational leaders in Brazil and in Spain are different in terms of this factor, showing more authoritarian Brazilians compared to their Spanish counterparts. Calculating the ranks of the middle levels of authoritarianism, we verify that the item with the highest average score attributed to the behavior of authoritarian of leaders in Brazil was related to the assertive that they are: “convinced of his own worth and abilities”, while for the Spanish leaders was that they prefer: “not bragging, showing modest.”

Social Skills: Regarding the hypothesis 1B: data did not allow us to assert that organizational Brazilian and Spanish leaders show different pattern in terms of “social skills” in their leadership practices.

Relations: The hypothesis 1C was rejected. Spanish and Brazilian leaders show different levels of the pattern of leadership ‘relationship’. Spanish leaders show a higher level in this factor than Brazilian leaders. Calculating the ranks of the mean levels of leadership behaviour “relationship”, we could verify that the item with the highest average score attributed to Brazilian leaders was “communicating with each other frequently”, while for the Spanish leaders was “I am encouraged to solve problems myself.”

Anticipation of change: Hypothesis 1D was confirmed. Spanish and Brazilian leaders show different levels on the “anticipation of change”, so that Spanish organizational leaders are the ones who are anticipating more strongly further change in comparison with the Brazilians leaders. In turn, calculating the ranges of average levels of leadership behaviour “anticipation of change”, we could verify that the item with the highest average score attributed to Brazilian leaders was “continually try to improve performance”, while for the Spanish leaders was “smart, learns and understand easily.”

Concerning the second group of hypotheses with comparisons between the different patterns of organizational leadership employed by Brazilian and Spanish leaders, the results show the following: In relation to hypothesis 2A, the data confirm this hypothesis by showing a negative relationship between the pattern of conduct “authoritarian” and “social skills” so that when increasing the degree of authoritarianism decreases the degree of “social skills” for both Brazilian, and Spanish leaders. Regarding the hypothesis 2B, the data do not confirm this hypothesis, because curiously it was found a positive correlation between the behaviour “authoritarianism” and “relationship”. We can see that when increasing the level of “authoritarianism”, so does the behaviour “relationship”. Regarding the hypothesis 2C, the results also confirm this hypothesis, so that we notice a positive relationship between patterns of leadership “social skills” and “relations”. When it is increased the level of “social skills”, it is also increased that of “relationship”.

In summary, when comparing both leadership patterns in the two samples (Spanish and Brazilian), we see differences in most of them (authoritarianism, relationship and anticipation of change), but not in the other factor (social skills). On the other hand, they find similarities between the two samples in terms of relation of patterns between themselves (negative relationship between authoritarianism and social skills, positive relationship between authoritarianism and relationship and positive relationship between social skills and relationships).

These findings expand the knowledge already present in the GLOBE study (House, et al, 2004), deepening its understanding when making new comparisons of leaders of different nations. This is one of the main objectives of the present

study, i.e., to study the leadership styles and practices in different countries and cultures according to the GLOBE Project.

This work contributes, therefore, to strengthen cultural leadership theory, to the extent that practices that differ organizational strategies are the predictors of leaders' behaviour and organizational practices more accepted and considered the most effective (Dorfman, 2004; House, Wright, y Aditya, 1997; Schein, 1992; Schneider, 1987; Schneider, Goldstein, y Smith, 1995).

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THE ANALYSIS OF STEREOTYPES AND FAULTY JUDGMENTS IN A SEARCH FOR A JOB: BASED ON THE RESULTS OF INDIVIDUAL PROFESSIONAL CONSULTATIONS BY SPECIALISTS AND MANAGERS

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Abstract. *The dynamic environment imposes more new requirements to the professional consciousness of a specialist, i.e. the critical slenderness and readiness ratio to review one's own professional opinion and purposes. It is not a rare case when professional stereotypes and mistakes hamper the competitiveness in the labor market. They are the appraisals of the environment and the attitude towards it that were formed in the mind of an individual long before that he/ she pondered over it and checked it against the reality, in particular, against his/ her own observations and experience. Stereotypes are inviting in terms of the fact that they can strongly and simply enough explain the situation and make you quickly find the solution to a problem. In the mind of a specialist they exist in the form of faulty judgments, in particular, judgments about behavioral strategy in the labor market. The analysis of the judgments and stereotypes in a search for a job was done in 2008–2009 in the Business School of the Urals State Technical University of the city of Yekaterinburg. The basis of the analysis was formed by the materials from 53 professional consultations concerning the search for a job among the students of the MBA program, Presidential Program for Training Managers and similar programs of advanced training. The results of the research allowed differentiating between three groups of stereotypes: **attitude** (“The beginning of a new life”), **definition of objects** (the creation of a “Bright Brand” as a winning formula for finding a job) and **behavior** (“Avoid any negative prediction”). Each of the defined stereotypes corresponds to a certain set of faulty judgments that we were able to describe and classify. The analysis of stereotypes and faulty judgments served as a basis for the elaboration of efficient methods to overcome them when searching for a job.*

Keywords: *stereotypes of professional consciousness, faulty judgments in career development, strategy of career development when searching for a job.*

INTRODUCTION

The highly dynamic market environment, having vast majority of able-bodied citizens, imposes new requirements to the professional consciousness i.e. the critical slenderness and readiness ratio to review one's own professional opinions and purposes. Comfort life and development, guarantee of professional longevity and realization of stability and demand in the job market are necessary norms of human life.

The effective solving of strategic tasks set for a person (including ones concerning he's own professional development) is explained by the ability to go out of the habitual problem area and take a view of a situation in the broad «market context», by rational approach to an appraisal of the situation and reason to project probable changes, also related to existing stable interdependences and relations.

It is noted by researchers studying general trend of changes in professional consciousness of Russian specialists that the goals guiding workers in their own behaviour, have clear and distinct nature only in the beginning, and professional intentions are connected with long-term goals and plans, that actually bring all behaviour under. Even a successful specialist begins by degrees drawing his attention to achievement of momentary goals; meanwhile, general intents assume ever vaguer character and gradually become not kept in view, in behaviour the orientation on pending business is predominant.

It becomes an ingrained course of action, prescribed by existing professional consciousness stereotypes. Stereotypes by their nature are intended to make easier the understanding of concrete life situations or phenomena. Stereotypes are attractive because they clearly and so simply explain a situation and suggest the speedy problem solution. But their danger consists in the fact that they are automatically borrowed from a quite other context and minutely transferred to the strategic environment. Such mechanisms of course of action shaping are particularly popularized when choosing strategy of one's own career development.

METHODOLOGY

There are in foreign scientific literature a great number of areas developing psychological (T. V. Adorno, M. Horkheimer et al.), symbolistic-interactional (T. Shibutani, D. Davis et al.) social–behaviouristic (W. Lippman, R. J. O'Hara et al.) and phenomenological (Weinek et al.) theories in research of stereotypes. In papers of Russian scientists (P.N. Shihirev et al.) there exists the definition of stereotype as «image» or «set of qualities», as notion about reality that is rather primitive or having emotional colouring and inadequately reflecting objective processes. At the present time the majority of Russian scientists, following the westerns, considers stereotype as comprehensive formation and gives not only negative appraisal to it. In this way, V.S. Adeev, T.E. Vasilyeva, I.S. Kon et al. consider the stereotype as

instrument of incoming information treatment and model of adequate action in one or another life situation.

Approaches in study of stereotypes allow making out some appropriateness and notions:

Stereotypes are stable, having emotional colouring and simplified models of objective reality, provoking feeling of sympathy or antipathy to phenomenon that is associated with one or another acquired experience of a person. It is very important, what content is kept in the stereotype, how deeply it grasps essential interconnections of phenomena, typical traits, characteristic for events and these phenomena. If connections having attention accentuated to, or emphasized traits are inessential or superficial, the developing stereotype (image) is far from the life.

In W. Lippman's opinion, stereotypes being passed on from one generation to another are taken as real, stable and invariable facts of social reality. The truth degree of appraisements or judgments, made by an individual on the basis of stereotypes (images), is in direct proportion to his knowledge profundity in such sphere of life where it is formed.

Owing to the influence of stereotypes in daily life people is often behaving in an ordinary way, in accordance with existing stereotypes. The lasts help to orientate quickly in life circumstances that do not require special mental analytical efforts and are not in need of especially crucial individual decision. Stereotypes are attractive because they clearly and so simply explain a situation and suggest the speedy problem solution.

The research of stereotypes of the professional consciousness granted by the Russian State Scientific Fund and named «Research of the professional consciousness stereotypes of specialists on Urals large-scale industrial enterprises» 2007–2009, RGNF № 07-06-00791a) made by Doctor of Psychology, professor E.S. Ismagilova, resulted in study and description of the following groups of the professional consciousness stereotypes:

- ◆ Attitude stereotypes («Bounded rationality»);
- ◆ Behavior stereotypes («Substitution of technology for «creative» solution», «Weak tracking of dynamics of alteration of objects, nonmetering dynamics of connections»)
- ◆ Definition of objects («Problem elimination», «Unreadiness for resolution of priorities», «Vision of object field only») (Harvard Business Review, № 1, 2008)

The research was developed within the bounds of realization of professional consultation of students of MBA program, Presidential Program for training managers and similar programs of advanced training, on career development and searching for a job. During years 2008–2009, 74 consultations were realized among managers and specialists who were being educated in the Business School

of USTU-UPI. As result of consultation analysis there were selected only materials of consultations that were closely connected with searching for a job and job change (only 53 persons), because there was assume as a basis the assumption that the stereotypes become apparent when a person is faced with the choice of same definite strategy of behavior on the labour market.

RESULTS

As result of made research 3 groups of professional consciousness stereotypes in a search for a job were revealed: **attitude** («Beginning of the best life»), **definition of objects** («Creation of a «Bright Brand» as a winning formula for finding a job») and **behavior** («Avoidance of negative predictions»). Every one of the stereotypes has a definite repertoire of delusions, which was successfully described and classified (Table 1).

TABLE 1. STEREOTYPES AND FAULTY JUDGMENTS IN A SEARCH FOR A JOB

Stereotypes	Faulty judgments	
Attitude	What is an attitude towards problem situation?	«Activization of cause of a search for a job is the answer to dissatisfaction of the job context » «Lack of experience in interview» «Bounded rationality»
Goal-setting	Where to start a problem solving?	«Unreadiness to take individual responsibility for one's own career in a search for a job » «Unreadiness for evaluation of one's strengths and weaknesses, revision of one's professional experience»
	What result is expected in a problem solving?	«Attribution of only positive characteristics to a future job» «Unreadiness to define priorities»
	How a problem is described?	«Reason to work only in a stable and prestigious company»
Behavior	How a problem is solved?	«Prestigious post-secondary training as condition of career development in a search for a job» «Good fortune as a form of a proposal receiving from an employer»
	What period of time is under review?	«Unreadiness to have feedback about competitive advantages» «Understated professional self-feeling as cause of absence of employer proposals»

So, being under influence of stereotypes, managers and specialists create for their-selves such «world image» as that determines choice of career development strategy when searching for a job. In the same time and as a rule, lack of priorities when choosing a concrete job place, hope on singular coincidences and undeveloped long-term plans become signs of this strategy.

DISCUSSION

So, the revealed faulty judgments, and also stereotypes underlying the building of career development strategy when searching for a job change logic of professional consultation. The overcoming of these stereotypes is possible if: a) to draw a special attention of managers in the course of strategy management training, b) to provide managers with special mode of self-control in the course of organizational strategy developing, c) to form an aim at rational approach in a situation and discrete planning of interconnections and relations. Building career strategy in a search for a job, it is important to clarify the following points.

- ❖ What market opportunities allow hoping for success of further career development?
- ❖ What market limitations put obstacles in the way of self-actualization in profession?
- ❖ What personality quality and peculiarities of previous experience allow to be successfully realized in chosen profession?
- ❖ What quality of character and past fails are able to make career so complicated?
- ❖ How to transform market limitations and fails of the past experience in opportunities of good career in the future?
- ❖ How to act in case of coming of some kind of risks (limitation of market or personality restriction), in order that the way of career may not do down?

CONCLUSIONS

In whole, the question of study of professional stereotypes is only beginning to acquire its topicality. The sweeping changes coming into our life, are not only requiring opportune review of stereotypes that became at some moment obstacles for effective behavior strategies, but these changes them-selves are also provoking the appearance of stereotypes.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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NEW PSYCHOLOGICAL DISCIPLINES AND THEIR IMPLEMENTATION IN THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

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Abstract. *Development of psychology as the system of science disciplines is progressive. Some important factors for differentiation of the applied psychology and development of psychology disciplines and psychology university courses are the following: new practical context, development of some professions, which are based on psychological knowledge; development of different social categories; development of theoretical disciplines and other sciences, especially related sciences. Psychology disciplines and courses are the formative part of professional education, especially of the prosocial professions education curricula. Education of the prosocial professions caused differentiation of two relatively new disciplines: psychology of communication and psychology of learning and teaching in e-education. In the paper, we explored differentiation of psychology and reasons of derivation of the separate domains. The relationship between these psychological disciplines with other psychological disciplines and other sciences are also presented. The status of these new psychological disciplines in Serbia is analyzed. We concluded that the status of the courses and psychological approaches to communication and learning and teaching in e-education in Serbian university teachers' education is keeping pace with the university community in the surroundings.*

Keywords: *psychology of communication, psychology of e-education.*

INTRODUCTION

Science is a continuing effort to discover and increase human knowledge and understanding through disciplined research.

“Researchers are well aware of the limitations existing for the generation of new knowledge from a single discipline. For this reason, they have long combined the resources, techniques and methodologies of different subject matters to foster the appearance of new knowledge, and even of new disciplines.” (Vargas-Quesada and Moya-Anegon, 2007: 1).

Different definitions of psychology:

- ❖ Psychology is the science of the mind or of mental states and processes.
- ❖ Psychology is the science of human and animal behaviour.
- ❖ “Psychology is a discipline devoted to the scientific study of behaviour.” (Graziano and Raulin, 2007/2010: 2, 15).
- ❖ Psychology is an academic and applied discipline involving the systematic and scientific study of human and animal mental functions and behavior (Wikipedia).
- ❖ Psychology is the system of scientific disciplines which investigate the psychical/mental life and reality, using the objective and subjective data resources and methodology.” (Serbian psychologist Nikola Rot and Slavoljub Radonjic, since 1966 till today).
- ❖ Psychology is the system of scientific disciplines which investigate the psychical life, the conditions of psychical life, using the objective and subjective data resources and methodology.” (Serbian psychologist Sulejman Hrnjica).

Today, psychology is an independent scientific disciplines (Graziano and Raulin, 2010: 19). According to Cacioppo, psychology is considered as one of the seven “hub sciences” – mathematics, physics, chemistry, earth science, medicine, psychology and social science (Cacioppo, 2007, according to Graziano and Ralin, 2010: 19).

Based on the visualization of scientific information, domain analysis and scientography methods, Vargas-Quesada and Moya-Anegon (2007) developed scientogram where the status of psychology is the highest. Based on the central measures and highest world grade, psychology is the second grades sciences (Tab. 1; Vargas-Quesada and Moya-Anegon, 2007: 130).

TABLE 1. TOP 16 CATEGORIES OF THE HIGHEST GRADE IN 2002

Category	Grade
Biochemistry & Molecular Biology	31
Psychology	10
Medicine, General & Internal	9

Material Science, Multidisciplinary	9
Economics	9
Geosciences, Interdisciplinary	8
Chemistry, Multidisciplinary	6
Environmental Sciences	6
Public, Environmental & Occupational Health	6
Physics, Multidisciplinary	5
Psychiatry	5
Immunology	5
Engineering, Electrical & Electronic	5
Political Science	5
History	5
Literature	5

Current approaches emphasize that “psychology is a large, diverse discipline” (Graziano and Raulin, 2010: 19).

IMPACT ON THE MODERN PSYCHOLOGY

Development of psychology as the system of science disciplines is intensive and progressive. Some important factors for differentiations of the applied psychology and development of psychology disciplines and psychology university courses are:

- ♣ new practical context,
- ♣ development of some professions which are based on psychological knowledge,
- ♣ development of different social categories,
- ♣ development of the theoretical discipline and other sciences, especially related sciences.

IMPACT OF PROFESSIONAL NEEDS ON THE PSYCHOLOGICAL DISCIPLINES DEVELOPMENT

Psychological disciplines are the formative part of the prosocial oriented professions: psychologists and teachers.

Initial psychologist education institutions in Serbia:

10 university departments (faculties) of the psychologist education on the bachelor level and master level,

Five university departments (faculties) of the psychologist education on the doctoral (PhD) level.

Teacher education is the one of national priorities. Than, there are more faculties for teacher education in Serbia (Tab. 2).

TABLE 2. STRUCTURE OF INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN SERBIA

Education of	Higher vocational TE school	Universities with TE programme	Teacher education faculties – part of universities	The curricula of the BSc, BA level	The curricula of the master
Pre-primary teachers	8	6	7	15	11
Class primary school teachers		5	7	7	7
Subject teachers		7	26	67	76
Teacher for the special education		1	1	6	6

Teachers' social interaction, which is based on the teaching communication with and without technology support, is necessarily explained and organized by the psychological concepts. Teachers' profession (not only) caused differentiation of two relatively new disciplines: psychology of communication and psychology of e-education.

In the research "Enhancing Professional Development of Education Practitioners and Teaching/Learning practices in SEE countries" (Zgaga, 2005), the teachers from South-East Europe countries assessed that development of communication skills is very important (the fourth place of 10 thematic blocks).

TABLE 3. SCIENCIES FORMATIVE TO PSYCHOLOGICAL DISCIPLINES/BRANCHES

Science formative to psychology	Psychological disciplines
Communication sciences, Communicology Social sciences, Humanistic fields	Psychology of communication
Computer sciences, Information technology and sciences, Science of e-learning	Psychology of e-education

PSYCHOLOGY OF E-EDUCATION

Does the name of new discipline Psychology of e-education or Psychology of e-learning? Does the psychology of e-learning an interdisciplinary fields or single psychology discipline?

Yan (2004) considered that the Psychology of e-learning is an interdisciplinary field.

According to Bjekic et al, Psychology of e-education is developed as the autonomous discipline. It is derived from the Educational psychology, Science of e-learning etc, and formed as the unique development.

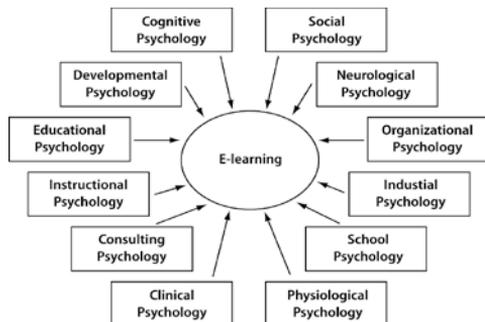


FIG. 1. E-LEARNING IN THE FOCUS OF PSY- CHOLOGICAL DISCIPLINES (Yan, 2004)

FIG. 2. PSYCHOLOGY OF E-EDUCATION AND THE OTHER SCIENCES

E-learning has been studied from technical, economics, administrative, and pedagogical perspective. E-learning is also an important and complex psychological phenomenon because it concerns how best to learn and teach new knowledge with information technologies. Science learning and teaching are essentially human behaviour, it is important to study people psychological processes;

- ♣ Cognitive processes, information processing,
- ♣ Emotional processes,
- ♣ Social processes and group dynamics of online courses.

PSYCHOLOGY OF COMMUNICATION

The number of psychological disciplines influenced to the communication processes and investigated communication (Fig. 3).

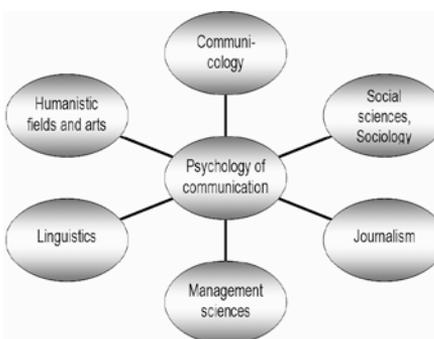
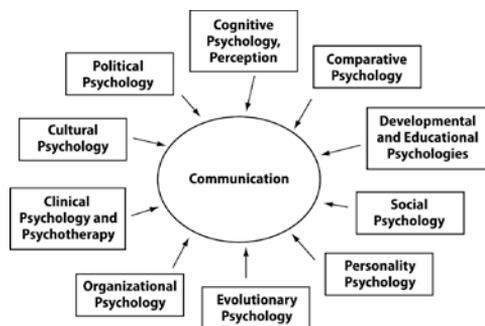


FIG. 3. COMMUNICATION IN THE FOCUS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL DISCIPLINES

FIG. 4. PSYCHOLOGY OF COMMUNICATION AND THE OTHER SCIENCES

On the base of the influence of different psychology disciplines, Psychology of communication is developed as a new discipline of Psychology. Psychology of communication is derived from the psychological disciplines, social sciences and humanistic fields (Fig. 4).

The most frequent contents in psychology of communication curricula are the following: model of communication, characteristics of messages in teaching, channel of communication, verbal communication, non-verbal communication, active listening, conversation, interpersonal, boundaries of communication, rules of communication, assertiveness, emphatic.

WHAT IS THE STATUS OF THE PSYCHOLOGY OF COMMUNICATION AND PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATION?

There are two ways to answer the question.

The investigation of the scientific production in this field represented in the journals and the other publications (Tab. 4).

TABLE 4. STATUS OF THE NEW PSYCHOLOGICAL DISCIPLINES IN SERBIA BASED ON THE THEMATIC ARTICLES AND PUBLICATION

Period from 2004 to 2008	Articles in the specialized journals on Serbian citation index	Books: monographs, textbooks, registered in Serbian	Articles in conference proceedings, selected readings
Psychology of communication	9	2	45
Psychology of e-education	0	0	36

New psychological disciplines are the part of the psychologists' and teachers' education in Serbia. We can present the status of Psychology of e-education and Psychology of communication based on the status of the relevant segment of the educational system – as the courses or the part of the other courses.

TABLE 5. COURSES AND CONTENT OF THE COURSES IN SERBIA

	Psychology of communication		Psychology of e-education (e-learning and e-teaching)	
	Teacher education	Psychologist education	Teacher education	Psychologist education
University courses	1	10	2	0
Part of the university courses	21	More than 40	8	0

CONCLUSION

Psychological disciplines and courses are the formative part of the professional education, especially of the teachers' education curricula and psychologist education curricula. The relationship between these psychological disciplines with other psychological disciplines and other sciences are also presented. The status of the courses and psychological approaches to communication and learning and teaching in e-education in Serbian university teachers' education is keeping pace with the university community in the surroundings.

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ON THE USING OF PSYCHOSEMANTIC METHODS FOR THE TRAINING PRACTICE WITH GROUPS OF THE UNEMPLOYED

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Abstract. *In the environment of the increasing unemployment rendering the psychological services to the unemployed population is more and more in demand. For this purpose we conduct a special-purpose training. The trainees are grouped based on their personal experience. During the sessions, they share their problems and feelings, discuss the difficult situations and coping strategies with the instructors. The psychologists appeal to the resources of each person in a group, boost the internal regulation mechanisms formed by the previous experience, and help to obtain the new targets of life other than those related with the job. We use the psychodiagnostic tests and psychosemantic methods to make a diagnoses and to reveal the human personality. At the same time, these methods enable to initiate the reflection processes. They help a trainee to become aware of some of his/her characteristic features that allow to overcome the situation, become more self-confident and determined in gaining new experience and learning a new trade. We have been conducting the training since 2003 and used our methods for training of more than 3 thousand trainees in about 250 groups.*

Keywords: *unemployment, training group, psychosemantic methods.*

SOCIAL BACKGROUND

In the first quarter of the year 2009, the unemployed population in Russian Federation makes up a total of 7.1 million persons, in March about 700 persons joined the army of unemployed. According to information provided by Statistical agency of Russian Federation, about 2.2 million unemployed persons are listed officially.

The Department of health protection and human services predicts that, by the end of 2009 the number of officially listed unemployed population will make

up 2.2 to 2.8 million persons (the lower limit is already reached), while the real quantity will make up to 7 million. Today we are close to this milestone.

We have developed a new training program for “Psychological assistance to the unemployed population and formation of individual strategies for efficient search for job hunting”. The main principles of the program were already used for the training in about 250 groups of unemployed persons (more than 3 thousand trainees).

The results are as follows: according to official data provided by Federal unemployed population assistance agency, 35 to 52 percent of former trainees were recruited in small towns and rural areas of the Bashkir Republic; 55 to 84 percent of trainees found their occupation in Ufa, the capital of Bashkir Republic (the data of 2007).

INTRODUCTION

Methods of experimental psychosemantics begin with the investigations of such foreign authors, as Ch.Osgud and J. Kelly, in Russian psychology they are developed by A.G. Shmelev (1983), V.F. Petrenko (1983) and V.I. Pohilko (1987) in the early 1980s. At that time the translations of different foreign authors (Francella and Bannister, 1987) appeared. These methods were used in the field of person's consciousness and selfconsciousness. The personality inventories were narrow to enucleate the informatory structures of a person's consciousness. These methods are called so because they help to get some data to construct semantic space of a person's consciousness in the investigated field: perception of oneself, other people, and definite objects of environment. The measuring diapason was very extended.

Now the methods of experimental psychosemantics are used to decide different practical tasks. In particular, to show up the particularities of a person's attitude to oneself in the diagnosis of the motives of different kinds of activity, also concealed or hidden by a person (Solomin, 2001). We use the technique of a person's motivation by I.L. Solomin, developed on the ground of the semantic differential by Ch.Osgud, in our research and practical work with the groups of unemployed men.

In this article we present the investigation results of the field of people consciousness, who lost their job long time ago, registered in the Employment Service and were directed by the Employment Service to try out for formation of effective skills of job search training. During this training the unemployed people testing was held in force of the semantic differential technique by Osgud in the move by I.L.Solomin (2001).

METHOD

Participants

Participants were 25 unemployed persons, 21 women and 4 men. Age ranged from 20 to 50.

Measure

Using the semantic differential technique we offered our respondents the following notions, suggested by Solomin:

- ♣ *my past*
- ♣ *my present*
- ♣ *my future*
- ♣ *my job*
- ♣ *I*
- ♣ *my free time*
- ♣ *my profession*
- ♣ *my family*
- ♣ *my material welfare*
- ♣ *my career*
- ♣ *and etc.*

We offered 31 notions (the most important for the result of the following analysis are in the list).

The notions were measured according to the 18 ranks by the respondent, the ranks were chosen from the variety of ranks by Osgud. Those were the ranks, which include value factor, potency factor and activity factor. Then there were procedures, traditional for the processing of such a technique: assessing the notions by ranks, assessing the notions by factors, calculation of semantic distance between the notions, construction of the notions' dendrogram. All the procedures were worked out with the help of a special software.

RESULTS

The list of indicators offered by Solomin was used in the analysis:

- ♣ *Realized needs*
- ♣ *Base needs*
- ♣ *The degree of satisfaction of base needs actual needs at present*
- ♣ *The attitude to the future*
- ♣ *The attitude to oneself*
- ♣ *References to the stress*
- ♣ *Displaced notions*

Besides, we added some extra indicators to achieve the aim of the investigation:

- ♣ *Attitude to the job*

- ‡ *Presence (absence) of the connection between the job and the profession*
- ‡ *The realized valuation of the present*
- ‡ *The present in comparison with the future and the past*

While analyzing of the received data, the individual results of each respondent and the group results were examined.

DISCUSSION

Most of our respondents, namely 17 people (68 %), demonstrated the admission of social values and positive attitude on the conscious level, the indefinite attitude was showed by 5 people (20%), the negative attitude to the offered values was demonstrated by 3 people (12 %).

The most attractive admitted values were:

- ‡ *“my future”* (17 respondents), the significance of the past and the present is lower (noted in 7 cases in both positions);
- ‡ *“my friends”* (14 respondents). We should mention that such a value as *“communicating with people”* is less popular (5 respondents). On the basis of our own experience of the work with unemployed people, we can notice, that after their loosing a job, the circle of their contacts deminishes, they immense into oneself, while the significance of close friends, who can support or sympathize with the person, grows;
- ‡ *“I”* (in 13 cases)
- ‡ *“my free time”* (in 13 cases)
- ‡ *“my material welfare”* (in 11 cases)
- ‡ *“creation”* (in 11 cases)

The respondents could add their own notions to this list. 20 persons did it. These notions were their close people: their children, parents, *“my relatives”*, *“my husband”*, *“my home”*. The abstract notions, reflected the people values were also added: *“my life”*, *“my love”*, *“health”*, *“aim”*, *“activity”*, *“family happiness”*, *“my senility”*, *“policy”*. The last two notions were valued negatively. We registered that the respondents had communicative, occupational, leisure factors as base needs.

The satisfaction of the base needs are showed by the following. The 13 respondents have the frustration of their base needs at the present. 5 persons have partitive satisfaction of their base needs, they take their present as something interesting and attractive, three persons connect satisfaction of their base needs with their future and present, they take their present and future as something interesting and have an optimistic looking in their future, they occupy a safe position.

The comparison of these data with the data, received with the help of such factors as *“attitude to the future”*, *“valuation of the present”*, *“the present in comparison with the past and the future”* proves the above mentioned tendencies. Some of our respondents give a low mark of the significance of the present (4.33;

2.83; 2.50 with the maximum of 7.00). Only 6 persons have a positive valuation of the present in comparison with the past and the future, 7 persons value their future more positively than their present, 11 persons take their past and future more positively than their present, 11 persons take their past more positively than their present and future. Thus, the most part of our unemployed people take their present as period which lacks aims in life, values and events.

CONCLUSION

The results of the diagnostics are used in our training work with unemployed people; they help to identify those values and senses of life, that lose their motivation and direct the further work aimed at the rehabilitation of those values. We discuss the individual results with the members of the groups, analyse the possible reasons and consequences of these data with each person, try to find the ways to comprehend the sense of the present situation. The sited training often leads to positive results, because the final aim is to help the unemployed people to correct and increase the inner resources of a personality. It also becomes a factor, stimulating to change the situation, connected with the loss of the job.

NOTES

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PROFESSIONAL BURNOUT

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Abstract. *Professional stress is most often determined as a harmful physical and emotional reactions that emerge when the job demands do not correspond with the employees needs and possibilities or they are higher than his abilities. In situations where long term stress causes problems in the daily tasks, problems in the professional's everyday routines, in performing other roles – parental, marital, is a case of a state called professional burn-out (burn-out phenomenon). Professional stress is a serious problem not just because of the consequences to the mental and physical health of the employees but also because of the decreased quality of work and the significant financial repercussions to the organizations. In the literature there are several attempts to identify the sources of professional stress. One of them is the classification suggested by Cooper (1995), who has presented a list of six sources of stress in the job: factors intrinsic to the job, stressfulness of the profession, relationships with other people, career and achievement, structural design and process features of the organization and climate and relationship between work and home (insufficient support from the husband/wife, dualism in the career). The list of symptoms, much wider, appears in different areas such as: in the area of psychological, psychosomatic and somatic functioning of the individual. The appearance of symptoms is the first step of "warning" that something is happening to us. If the symptoms are not recognized and if certain measures for decreasing the stress are not taken, after some time, it almost always leads to unfavorable consequences. The consequences of the long-term condition of professional stress are numerous and impair the health, ability to work, decrease the effects of the work done and cause increase of accidents and injuries at work. Also, damages can be done to the relationships in the working environment, family and friends; in short they change the life of the person affected by stress in the job. The most severe consequence of the accumulated professional stress is the manifestation of professional burn-out which needs much more serious interventions in overcoming the stress and the individual's recovering.*

Keywords: *professional stress, professional burn-out, sources of stress, symptoms, consequences and prevention from professional burn-out.*

INTRODUCTION

Stress is not a phenomenon of the contemporary civilization, although as a theoretical concept it is a product of the twentieth century. It has been present with individuals since they exist as human beings. Since their existence, people have been exposed to the influence of different factors that cause stress, very often with consequences to the health, even life. Every social environment, especially the changes in society, creates conditions for the emergence of stress. Changes in the lifestyle, the speed with which these changes occur, the progress of civilization in every sphere of life, the advance in technology, new living and working conditions and possibilities, despite the positive benefits they all create conditions for the appearance of different forms of stress.

The main aim of this paper is to define the professional stress and the possibilities for protection and reducing the consequences caused by it, which should be an impetus for further research within this area.

NOTION OF PROFESSIONAL STRESS AND BURN-OUT SYNDROME

Each period of our life faces us with a series of new roles and positions, new conditions and situations, new challenges, events and activities, connects us with different people and institutions, makes us part of different organizations all of which represents either a challenge that will advance us or a danger that is out of our control and threatens our physical, mental and social wellbeing.

The profession plays an important role in a person's life. It is traditionally understood as an activity that we perform in order to satisfy a certain social need by doing a certain social function for which, as compensation, we receive money needed for living. The profession occupies the lives of many people and considerably affects our wellbeing.

Professional stress and professional burn-out have become frequently used terms, especially in the nineties of the last century, in the industry and particularly in the human resources sectors. According to the National institute for professional safety and health, a quarter of the employees refer to their jobs as the number one stress in their life and three-quarters of the employees believe that the modern worker is under much higher stress at work than before. The professional stress has become a serious health problem not just in relation to individual mental and physical health of workers but also in terms of organizations and governments that suffer financial consequences from the stress at work. The researches made indicate that the stresses at work have many sources, and the professional stress has many reasons. Thus some stresses appear in a routine work, some are connected with the worker's role in the organization, some with the interpersonal relationships, some with the advancement and others relate with the stressors in the working environ-

ment or the climate and organization of the job etc. The individual characteristic also interact with these causes of stress – the traits of the worker’s personality. These characteristics include the level of subjection/resistance to stress, emotional stability, anxiety, tolerance, perfectionism, etc. The professional burn-out is the most severe consequence from the high level of professional stress. The professional stress is not only a problem for the employee, with which he has to face. It is also a problem for the organization which feels the negative effects from the worker’s stress.

DEFINING PROFESSIONAL STRESS

There are several definitions for professional stress. According to one definition “professional stress is a physical and emotional reaction which appears when the demands of the job exceed the abilities, resources or needs of the employee”.¹ “Professional stress is an emotional cognitive, behavioral, and physiological reaction to the harmful aspects of the profession, professional environment and organization. A state characterized with high level of exhaustion and a frequent feeling of powerlessness to deal with the situation imposed to him”.² “Professional stress is a reaction of people to the high pressure or another kind of demand by their job”.³

We believe that the previously mentioned definitions are incomplete in defining professional stress. Therefore, we tried to give our own definition, which reads: “professional stress is a psychological and physiological reaction, of the worker, to the stressful factors of the profession which exceed his real abilities and reduce his ability for optimal professional and social functioning”.

SOURCES OF PROFESSIONAL STRESS

In the literature several attempts for identification of the sources of professional stress can be found. One of them is the classification suggested by Cooper (1995), who gives a list of six sources of stress at work:

- ♣ Factors intrinsic to the job – quantitative and qualitative work overload, physical danger;
- ♣ Stressfulness of the profession;
- ♣ Relationships with other people – unstimulating job and socially unsupported system, lack of managerial care for the employee, political rivalry, jealousy;

¹ US National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health –NIOSH: Stress at work, Cincinnati, ; (1999)

² European commission directorate– general for employment and social Affairs; Guidance on work related stress, Spice of life or kiss of death

³ United Kingdom Health and Safety Commision,London,1999.:Managing stress at work: Discussion document

- ❖ Career achievement – insufficient promotion, недоволно унапредување, too big promotion, security at work, frustrating ambitions;
- ❖ Organizational structure and climate – rigid and inflexible staff structure, political battles, inadequate supervision or training.
- ❖ Relation between work and home: family environment – working environment; insufficient external support.

SYMPTOMS OF PROFESSIONAL STRESS

The American academy of family doctors has presented a list of several possible warning symptoms or signs that would help to recognize the professional stress. The list includes the following:

- anxiety
- depression
- interpersonal problems
- back and neck pain
- headache and insomnia
- lack of air
- diarrhea
- high blood pressure
- problems with digestion
- increase or reduction of body weight

The most often but the most difficult to recognize is the symptom is anxiety. It is explained as an inner tension, unpleasant upsetting excitement and a feeling that something bad will happen. It is an emotional disorder – a syndrome which involves emotions: insecurity, fear, panic, tension. Other symptoms that the anxiety includes are increased muscle tension, rapid surface breathing, fast heartbeat, headache, chest pain, digestive problems, insomnia, in other words almost all previously mentioned symptoms. Bill De Leno, in his book “The 20th century disease” (1998) lists the following symptoms as more apparent:

- migraine
- substance abuse
- marital and family conflicts
- financial problems
- weak professional success

CONSEQUENCES OF PROFESSIONAL STRESS

A crucial consequence of the professional stress is the professional burnout. The burnout syndrome is a result of a long-term exposure to stress in day-to-day rou-

tines as well as extended duration of the state of high chronic stress. It is defined as a syndrome or a state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion, a cynical attitude of the employee toward the work as a response to chronically organized causes of work-related stress. Although there are different definitions for the burn-out syndrome, there are similar descriptions of this phenomenon's components. They are: the psychological syndrome of physical exhaustion, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, reduction of personal accomplishment, (loss of working abilities) and inadequate job performance which may occur in individuals working with others helping them to resolve their problems.

- ♣ Physical exhaustion – refers to the emergence of a feeling of general bodily weakness, chronic fatigue.
- ♣ Emotional exhaustion – refers to the feeling of inner tension and exhaustion from work. The emotional exhaustion is accompanied by the physical exhaustion. Both of these states are a result of the influence of stress.
- ♣ Depersonalization – is characterized with negative unemotional, disproportionate intangibility in the communication with other people who usually are the receivers of their care or services. The feeling of care towards the client/patient is lost which is expressed through physical and emotional distance.
- ♣ Reduction of personal accomplishment – in other words loss of working abilities, it refers to the emergence of a feeling of ineffectiveness regarding work. It consists of negative opinion of own personality, a feeling of uselessness, reduced working efficiency and productivity.
- ♣ Unsuccessful execution of tasks – inadequate job performance.

The prevention from the burn-out is most efficient before the emergence of the symptoms. The wise managers keep this in mind but once this process has started, the employees as well as the informal and unobtrusive interventions are considered as the first steps in the treatment of the already started burn-out process. We will present several general ways to prevent the burn-out.

Primarily, it is important to understand and treat the need of prevention not as an individual but as a collective process. A context of natural professional and interpersonal relationships should be created, where the varieties and differences are valued. In the prevention from burn-out it is very important to carefully choose the team work representatives. It is possible that some individuals have excellent skills for individual work, but are not able to create proper atmosphere for teamwork. The next important step to prevent burn-out is the ability of the managerial structure in the institution/organization to identify the exceptionally talented individuals in order to include them in the process of the managing system. The ability to achieve harmony and loyalty, towards the individuals and the system, is a quality of an effective supervision. The seminars, congresses, litera-

ture and the professional education are of great importance for the efficiency of a supervisor. The minimizing of the employees' administrative tasks, except the ones responsible for them as their primary profession, is also an important step in the prevention from burn-out. Administrative meetings should not last longer than one hour and should have well defined goals. The administrative tasks should not be assigned to only one person, especially in the case of a population highly sensitive to stress.

Permanent and continuous education and supervision helps employees and institutions to cope with changes which are a result of the changes and development of the system. It is very important for the system to be sensitive to the phenomenon of professional burn-out.

CONCLUSION

According to the above mentioned we can conclude that the first step in the prevention from stress at work is the awareness of the problem i.e. the awareness that every profession is stressful and there is a series of factors which seriously endanger health and the work performance of the employees. The basic problem in our country, which we pointed out earlier, is the fact that professional stress is still not identified by the employees, and even less by managers, which is a fundamental reason for the lack of strategies to prevent it. Having this in mind, to prevent stress at work, I suggest strategies which should be implemented at institutional and individual level – self-help strategies.

I will finish this report with the conclusion that: the creation and enforcement of part of these strategies, particularly the section related to the continuous education and supervision, are an elementary condition in the prevention from professional stress in all professions.

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IDENTIFYING AND DEVELOPING MANAGEMENT TALENT BU USING CORPORATE ASSESSMENT AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT CENTER

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***Abstract.** This paper focuses on the design and decision-making aspects of a Corporate Assessment and Career Development Center to develop an integrative competency-based assessment center practice that links competency development, management development design, multidimensional assessment center and multi-rater performance appraisal methods together. Built around validity issues of a corporate assessment center development, the model guides HR management and practitioners on how to design a competency-based assessment and career development center that has potential to improve construct-related validity and capability to build into management development and training programs design and other HRD functions. Several propositions related to validity were developed in accordance with model utilization to evoke future research. Practical implications are also provided.*

INTRODUCTION

Although assessment center method has been proven effective in predicting job performance, the issue of establishing construct-related validity of assessment center is still unsolved, resulting in many unmet research and HRD practice challenges. A review of related literature indicates that researchers have not reached yet a clear definition of competency. The term sometimes refers to outputs of competent performers and sometimes refers to underlying characteristics that enable an individual to achieve outstanding performance (Dubois & Rothwell, 2004). Most definitions, however, relate to exemplary performers or performance in a specific job or job level (Boyatzis, 1982) in a particular organizational setting, whereas a relevant term, core competency, is tied to strategic, future-oriented, col-

lective functions in organizational level (Moingeon & Edmondson, 1996; Prahalad & Hamel, 1990).

Thus, designing and managing the **Corporate Assessment and Career Development Center in Overgas, Inc. – Bulgaria**, we have adopted an overarching perspective that combined both the performance and strategic aspects associated with the various definitions found in the literature and current practice. We, for example, considered managerial competency to refer to the underlying individual work-related characteristics (e.g., skills, knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, motives, and traits) that enable successful job performance, where “successful” is understood to be in keeping with the organization’s strategic functions (e.g., vision, mission, uniqueness, future orientation, success, or survival). A similar construct, competency development or competency modeling, was adopted as well to present the process of identifying a set of competencies representative of job proficiency. With the generic term just defined, competency development enhanced various human resources (HRD), career and organizational development activities including personnel selection, job promotion, training and development, training needs analyses, performance appraisal, individual career planning, HR planning, placement, strategic planning, succession and promotions planning, compensation, and recruitment (Byham & Moyer, 2004).

Corporate assessment centers are not diagnostic centers or building. They are, rather, an abstract concept that exists in the corporate practice and refers to standardized procedures used for assessing behavior-based or performance-based dimensions whereby participants are assessed using multiple tests, exercises and/or simulations (Thornton, 1992). Common simulation exercises used in our assessment center setting, for instance, included oral presentations, leaderless group discussions, role-playing, in-basket exercises, oral fact-finding, business games, and integrated simulations. Dimensions for assessment (equated to competencies) were identified strictly through job analysis at organization-wide level (Shippmann et al., 2000).

Research on corporate assessment centers has evolved over the past few decades as researchers have moved from focusing on an understanding of what an assessment center is and how it works to establishing some criterion-related validity and generalizability (Howard, 1997; Robie, Osburn, Morris, Etchegaray, & Adams, 2000). Construct-related validity refers to the degree to which a theoretical concept is operationalized and the degree to which the operational inference exhibits consistency of what a researcher intends to measure. In our assessment center design it fundamentally referred to discrepancies between competencies and the measures that are used to demonstrate such competencies in assessment center activities. Woehr and Arthur (2003) asserted that the lack of construct-related validity in assessment centers is primarily due to issues of design and development. This challenge also clearly relates to an ongoing debate as to whether the design of assessment

centers should be based on dimensions and competencies or tasks and exercises (Byham, 2004). On the other hand, as mentioned, although assessment centers have received a wide range of applications in HR-related functions, the applications appear to be piecemeal and not systematically connected to corporate functioning. More important, its utilization in human resource development (HRD) practice is relatively sparse (Chen, 2006). An obviously and immediately useful application of assessment center to HRD is for assessing effectiveness of competency-based training programs. Because HRD is deeply rooted in the design and development of learning activities across various levels, integrating the HRD perspective into assessment center has strong potential to contribute to assessment center management and development in resolving the construct-related validity issues of assessment center method. Meanwhile, the application of the assessment center method to HRD proved – at least in our case in Overgas, Inc., Bulgaria, – to be of help to the HRD corporate practices, particularly the design of training assessment, career planning, and professional development programs, move further away from cognitive or reactive assessments toward behavioral assessment—a more reliable measure.

Another issue existing in assessment center practice is that changes of individual behavior can be readily observed through assessment center activities. It is regrettable that the ability to assess implicit behavior (e.g., motivation, emotion, beliefs, values, visions, etc.) through an assessment center is limited. In contrast, multi-rater assessment such as dual-ratings assessment we use in our assessment center can potentially be more effective in assessing implicit behavioral competencies, but these methods are not able to provide the level of information regarding tangible outcomes that assessment center can. This is primarily due to the fact that assessment center typically involves observation of outcomes or performance behaviors, whereas the multi-rater assessment method relies on perceptions and/or memories of behavior. Accordingly, assessment center and multi-rater assessment seem to complement each other perfectly (Howard, 1997). We developed the corporate competency-based assessment and career development center design model in Overgas, Inc. that integrated competency development, training design, assessment center activities, and multi-rater assessment strategies. Because of the integration, the competency-based assessment center evidently differed from traditional assessment center in scope. As mentioned, we have adopted an over-arching definition of competency that includes the organization's strategic functions, so the traditional assessment center, which mainly serves selection and promotion purposes, no longer satisfied the extended scope of our center. Traditional assessment center is developed through job analysis to identify individual work-related characteristics. To the contrary, our competency-based assessment center rooted by competency development and integrated with multi-rater assessment overcome or complement the limitations of the traditional approach. Our model attempts to serve multiple purposes. First, it introduces a systematic

approach to linking competency development, training design, assessment center strategies, and multi-rater assessment. Second, it provides a design process that has the potential to enhance the construct-related validity of an assessment center. Third, the model helps develop a set of propositions for future research.

Conceptual Framework

Our model is guided by best practice and research in competency-based development, training design, assessment center, and multi-rater assessment.

Competency-Based Development. Common practice of competency development is through quantitative and/or best practice approaches to develop a set of competencies characterized by individual skills, knowledge, behaviors, and traits. The quantitative approach is through reorganization of exemplary performers on a specific job and identification of their characteristics toward the successful performance on the job (e.g., Spencer & Spencer, 1993). The best practice approach is through adoption of an existing competency model (e.g., leadership skills identified by a benchmarked organization) and is often followed by a dynamic customization of competencies for use in a particular organization (Naquin & Holton, 2003).

Competency-Based Training and Career Design. A generic difference between traditional training and competency-based training and career development program designs is that the former is learning-focused whereas the latter is based on performance. Accordingly, competency-based training must tie to work-related performance outcomes such as transfer of learning or behavior change. Blank (1982) identified four major characteristics of competency-based programs that are essential for competency-based training and career development program design: outcome driven, trainee centered, task mastering, and high level of proficiency in a job-related setting.

Assessment Center. As mentioned, the assessment center is a standardized procedure used for assessing behavior-based or performance-based dimensions whereby participants are assessed using multiple tests, exercises and/or simulations. According to Joiner (2000), our assessment center included 10 key components: (a) job analysis, behavior classification, (b) assessment techniques, (c) multiple assessments, (d) simulations, (e) two to three assessors per participant, (f) in-depth assessor training, (g) comprehensive and detailed recording of behavior, reports, and (h) data integration by multi-raters team. Common errors of assessment centers (Caldwell, Thornton, & Gruys, 2003) were also considered in developing the model. These errors as described by Caldwell et al. (2003) include (a) poor planning, (b) inadequate job analysis, (c) weakly defined dimensions, (d) poor exercises, (e) lack of pretest evaluation, (f) unqualified assessors, (g) inadequate assessor training, (h) inadequate candidate preparation, (i) sloppy behavior documentation and scoring, and (j) misuse of results.

Multi-rater Assessment. Multi-rater assessment is also known as 360-degree feedback assessment or multisource assessment. Similar to the assessment center that has gone beyond its traditional application for selection and promotion, research related to 360 degree has also reached beyond its traditional application for management development to other HR functions such as performance appraisal (Toegel & Conger, 2003). Multi-rater assessments collect information from individuals and their subordinates, peers, supervisors, and customers with regard to their perceptions of research interests, such as performance and developmental feedback. The process involves an individual's self-evaluation against a set of criteria and in comparison to norms from other raters about the individual. In other words, multisource assessment or feedback is through an objective lens and is a dynamic process that provides developmental or evaluation information about one's performance or behavior. Wimer and Nowack (1998) suggested 13 common mistakes using 360-degree feedback including (a) unclear purpose, (b) using it as a subtitle for managing a poor performer, (c) lack of pilot testing, (d) no key stakeholder involvement, (e) insufficient communication among people involved in the process, (f) compromising confidentiality, (g) lack of clarifying the feedback to be used, (h) insufficient resources for implementation, (i) lack of clarification of ownership of the data, (j) unfriendly administration and scoring, (k) improper link to existing systems without a pilot, (l) treating it as an end, not a process, and (m) lack of measuring effectiveness.

Competency-Based Assessment Center Design Model. The model consists of eight components as a practical guide for designing a competency-based assessment center. Built around the model are ten propositions presented below and followed by the author's rationale for each.

Building a Hierarchical Competency System. The first step in developing our competency-based assessment center was to build a hierarchical competency system that breaks a whole into supporting parts. This step is critical because it lays out a framework to guide training design and assessment center measurement. The number of levels of competencies depends on the complexity of a system. The task of identifying competencies in current competency modeling practice takes various forms. Some identify competencies in specific ways such as in performance or behavioral indicators (e.g., respond to customer's inquiry politely and consistently, adjust equipment in terms of a mechanical manual, etc.). Others describe them in generic or abstract terms (e.g., communication, problem solving, networking, team building, etc.). As Holton and Lynham (2000) pointed out, "competencies are less specific than tasks, but more job related than learning objectives alone" (p. 11).

For discussion purposes, we divide the hierarchical competency system into three levels: competencies, subcompetencies, and procedures or steps. Competencies are described in collective, abstract form, whereas their supporting sub-

competencies are more measurable, specific (behavior-anchored), but less collective than competencies. Subcompetencies normally consist of a set of observable, specific, behavior-based steps. The three-level hierarchical competency system appears to be effective in communicating with stakeholders and linking competency to training design and assessment center. The first level, which is in abstract form, can be easily communicated in discussing competency issues with stakeholders. The second-level items (the subcompetencies) are the action statements that support competencies. The third level provides detailed guidelines for achieving the action statements in level two.

STEP BY STEP COMPETENCY-BASED ASSESSMENT CENTER DESIGN

Building Hierarchical Competency System:

- Develop a three-level competency system.
- Embrace both qualitative and quantitative approaches to develop and refine definitions of competencies and their behavior-anchored indicators.

Designing Competency-Based Assessment Center Materials:

- Use customized materials to enhance fidelity.
- Develop action-oriented supporting performance indicators.

Determining Appropriate Competency-Based Assessment Center Activities:

- Use numeric rating scales rather than dichotomous scales at the subcompetency level to determine appropriateness of assessment center activities.

Determining Performance Outcomes for Activities:

- Performance outcomes are informed by job outcomes in training design and subcompetencies in competency development.
- Leverage number of performance outcomes in an activity.

Selecting and Developing Assessors:

- Select assessors from at least two levels different than individuals to be assessed in the organization in addition to peer assessors.
- Clearly identify training objectives and performance guidelines in the assessor training.
- Use a team of experienced, skilled trainers for assessor training.

Developing Subcompetency-Assessment Center Activity Matrix:

- Use subcompetency rather than competency to develop the assessment center matrix.
- Build multi-rater assessment into matrix design.

Linking Subcompetency to Competency-Based Training and Career Development:

- Subcompetencies serve as central links to training design and competency-based assessment center design.

Differentiating Implicit and Explicit Behavior:

- Differentiate explicit-behavioral and implicit-behavioral subcompetencies.

KEY PRACTICAL PROPOSITIONS

Well-trained assessors will contribute to criterion-related validity of competency-based assessment center.

Using customized assessment center materials which are designed to closely relate to participants' work settings will lead to a stronger predictive validity of competency-based assessment center.

Developing customized materials for different individuals (e.g., administrators, assessors, resource persons, and role players, etc.) involved in the competency-based assessment center and building extraneous factors (e.g., setting, technology, and level of difficulty of indicators) into design will lead individuals to better understand the process of assessment center and therefore can indirectly improve the construct-related validity of competency-based assessment center (rating accuracy).

Measuring no more than 10 sub-competencies in an activity will enable assessors to accurately assess the sub-competencies that are supposed to be measured. Doing this will increase the construct-related validity of the competency-based assessment center.

Using a numeric rating scales rather than a dichotomous scale will lead to an appropriate assessment center activity selection. Therefore, the numeric scale will indirectly influence the construct-related validity of competency-based assessment center.

Using subcompetencies, which collectively represent competencies in a more observable way, to develop the competency-based assessment center activity matrix will enhance the construct-related validity of competency-based assessment center.

Differentiating between explicit-behavioral and implicit-behavioral subcompetencies will improve the construct-related validity of competency-based assess-

ment center where explicit-behavioral subcompetencies are measured by traditional assessment center mechanisms, and implicit-behavioral subcompetencies are assessed by multi-rater assessments.

Using factor analysis, in addition to qualitative competency development, to examine construct-related validity of competencies will help refine the definition of the competency and enhance the validity of competencies-based assessment center.

Linking subcompetency to corporate training and career development programs and assessment center will improve the construct-related validity of the competencies-based assessment center.

The collected data can be analyzed through factor analysis to examine the relationship between competencies and subcompetencies.

The implementation of a competency-based assessment center cannot solely rely on designers or implementers. Organizational stakeholders' involvement and support will be key to its success. Therefore, communicating responsibilities before a center is implemented is as important as the other strategies proposed here.

CONCLUSIONS

Through the development of the corporate competency-based assessment and career development center in Overgas, Inc. – Bulgaria, we provided ten propositions to guide future research in HRD. We advise that the propositions should be examined entirely because the propositions closely link to the model and are all related to validity issues. On the other hand, these propositions could also be examined individually. Traditional assessment centers have been challenged by lack of strong construct-related validity. This article – through a systemic, integrative perspective – focuses on design aspects of a corporate competency-based assessment center to enhance validity issues of assessment centers. The integrative model not only expands the scope of traditional assessment centers by incorporating multi-rater assessment into design but also guides HRD practitioners on how to design a competency-based assessment center that has potential to improve construct-related validity and has capability to build into training and career development program design, assessment, and other HRD functions. In addition, the model provides a set of research propositions to be examined.

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THE MANAGER AS ENTREPRENEUR

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***Abstract.** This article suggests a specific vision of the management – the managers as entrepreneurs. This role is imposed from the aggressive market, worldwide economic crises and the high level of professionalism, education and quality of the contemporary management. There is discussed the resistance of the high management in the organization against this process, and also the opposition of the employees. A new instrument for measuring the entrepreneurship is developed and verified. Some results of implementing the instrument to different groups are adduced. A training system for developing entrepreneurship in middle management, including diagnosing, innovation, strategy planning, crisis managing, and business planning, is offered.*

***Keywords:** entrepreneurship, intra-firm entrepreneurship, corporate entrepreneurship.*

INTRODUCTION

The presented exploration will begin with a notion, that should be between the most important in the modern management. It is “**intra-firm entrepreneurship**” (**corporate entrepreneurship**) and means all these processes of undertaking and realizing innovative behavior, that brings profit to the company. This notion include in the enterprising process not only the employer and owner of the company, but the managers from all levels and the employees also.

For contemporary Bulgarian business is not sufficiently to apply participative techniques only for including the lower levels of management and employees in the decision making process together with higher managers. For profiting from the motivational resources and initiative of the employees is necessary something more powerful... The too high destabilization of economic situation and world-

wide financial crises, the very aggressive market and competitors, the high intellectualization and professionalization of the human labour need something more than participation. They need initiation, energy, drive, identification with the firm and the practiced, activity.

All these together we include in the notion “**intra-firm**” or “**corporate entrepreneurship**”.

The second direction on which it deserves to focus our attention is the **intra-organizational conditions for intra-firm entrepreneurship**. The practice of organizational consultants meets them every day with these conditions:

At the surface of the problem you hear the complains of the middle managers, operative managers and employees that their ideas do not meet understanding and support from authoritarian and ordering high managers and employers. From the other side you hear the complains of the high managers and employers about the indifference of the employees and lower levels of management, about the lack of interest between them to the firm’s business, difficulties with the motivation of these people.

But behind this visibility you could discover the genuine reasons and barriers in front of intra-organizational entrepreneurship:

On the part of the high management you will detect:

- the jealousy and the fear of the managers about their authority, functions and privileges of their position;
- the distrust of the higher managers to the people at lower positions about their potentiality to be of benefit with ideas and visions to the business;
- authoritarian stile of management, that doesn’t allow the participation of the lower levels in the business running;
- lack of skills for enterprise managing;

On the part of the employees, operative and middle management the barriers are:

- lack of motivation for entrepreneurship;
- lack of skills and qualification for enterprising;
- lack of information;
- lack of realism for producing winning ideas and criteria for evaluating them;
- lack of commissions, delegated for enterprising.

An example with a cable TV supplier company could be convenient to illustrate the deficit of competence between managers. Some of the middle managers of the company complained that their ideas concerning the technical support in a small town meets lack of understanding and support from the highest management and from the employer. When at the educational course they elaborated

business plan with a financial balance for their innovative idea, they found out that it was loosing idea and gave it up.

So our main purpose with this investigation was to diagnose and evaluate the potential entrepreneurship in organization, its distribution between the different hierarchical levels, the specificities of enterprising behavior in different organizations, the differences between men and women.

There are two hypotheses concerning the dependence: 1) between entrepreneurship and hierarchy and 2) between entrepreneurship and gender.

The second purpose of the investigation was to check our hypothetical structural model of the entrepreneurship. Ouer theoretically brought out structural model of the entrepreneurship contained six ingredients:

- ❖ Initiative;
- ❖ Risk taking;
- ❖ Innovation;
- ❖ Creativity;
- ❖ Profit orientation;
- ❖ New models establishing.

INSTRUMENT

Following these model we elaborated six scales for measuring and testing the individual level of entrepreneurship.

With this instrument we examined 118 persons and 30 companies.

We divided the sample at six levels (Table 1):

TABLE 1. HIERARCHICAL LEVELS IN THE SAMPLE

Hierarchical levels in the sample
Employees
Operative managers
Middle managers
The highest level managers
The highest level managers-relatives of the employer
Employers

Here are the Kronbah α of the scales and of the whole test (Table 2):

TABLE 2. KRONBAH A FOR THE SCALES OF THE TEST FOR ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Scales	Kronbah α
Initiative	0,874
Risk taking	0,902
Innovation	0,827
Creativity	0,873
Profit orientation	0,700
New models establishing	0,840
The whole test	0,932

RESULTS

The general hypothesis was proven – **the dependence between entrepreneurship potential and hierarchy exists**. With increasing of the hierarchy the entrepreneurship increases also (Fig. 1):

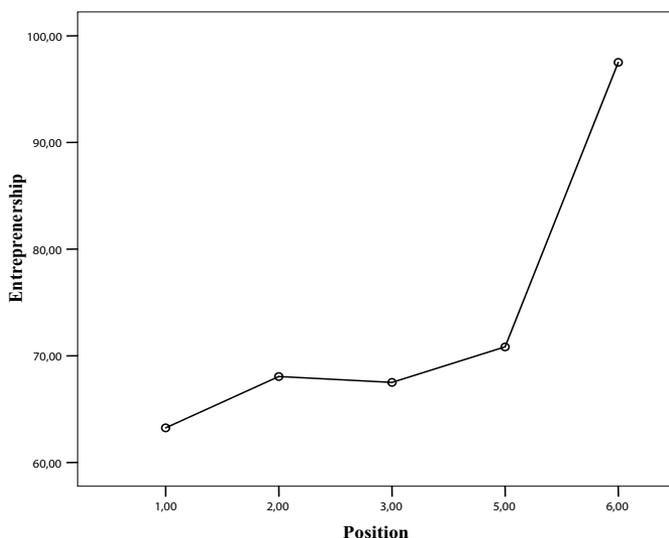


FIGURE 1. THE DEPENDENCE BETWEEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP POTENTIAL AND HIERARCHY

This is the common result for whole test and most of the scales repeat the trend of this curve. But there is some specificity in each company that could be interesting for organizational consultant.

For example, in the cable TV supplier company the middle managers are lower in entrepreneurship as whole then operative managers (Fig. 2):

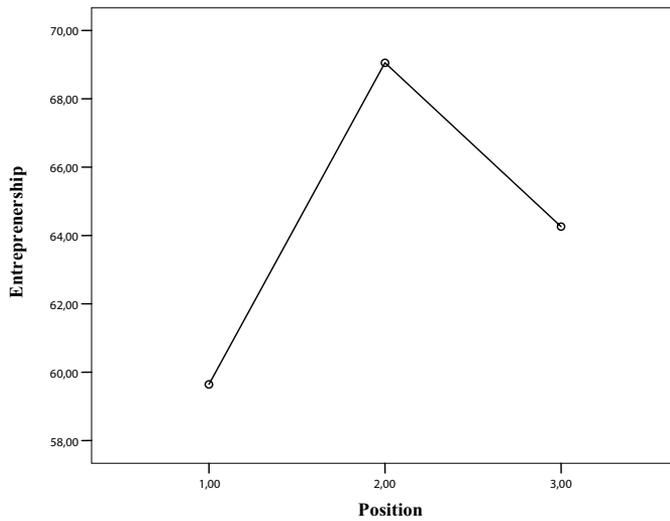


FIGURE 2. THE DEPENDENCE BETWEEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP POTENTIAL AND HIERARCHY IN THE CABLE TV SUPPLIER COMPANY

Especially in the subscale of “Creativity” – this is dramatically. The middle managers are lower then operative managers, but lower then employees also (Fig. 3):

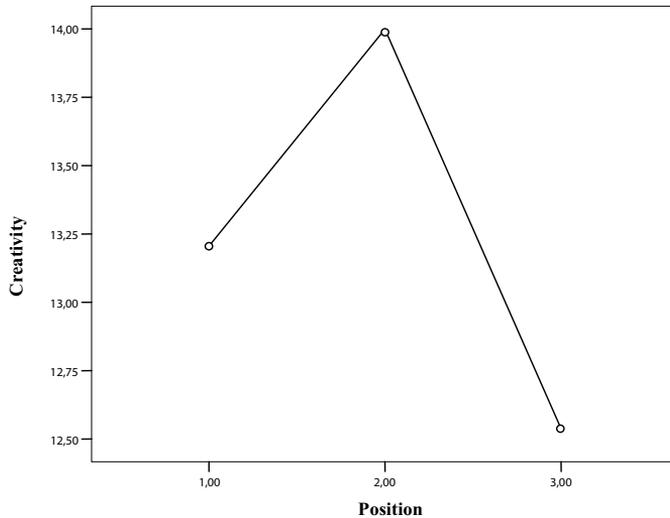


FIGURE 3. THE DEPENDENCE BETWEEN CREATIVITY AND HIERARCHY IN THE CABLE TV SUPPLIER COMPANY

But not in “Profit orientation” (Fig. 4):

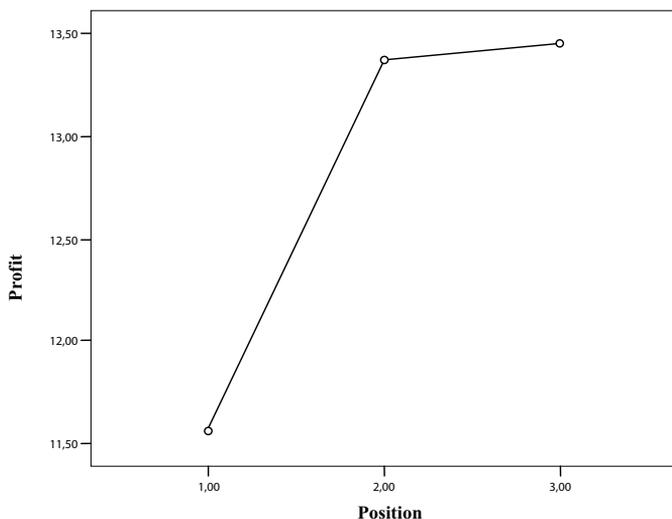


FIGURE 4. THE DEPENDENCE BETWEEN PROFIT ORIENTATION AND HIERARCHY IN THE CABLE TV SUPPLIER COMPANY

The highest managers-relatives of the employer in the dressmaking industry have their specificities in the enterprising behavior also. They are the lowest in the “Initiative” (Fig. 5):

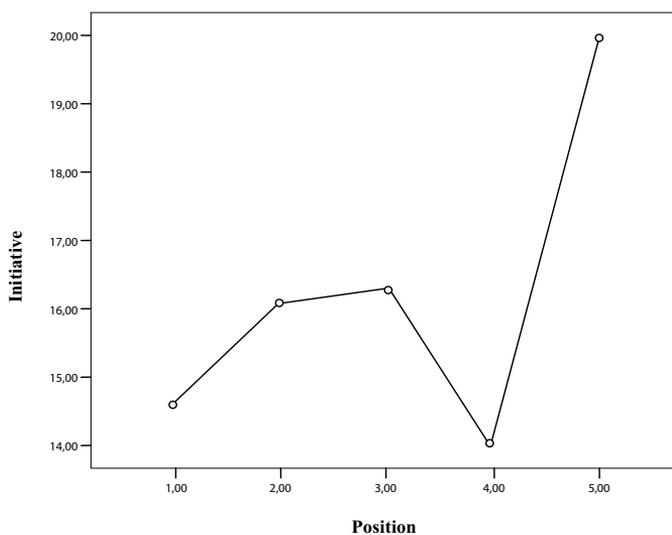


FIGURE 5. THE DEPENDENCE BETWEEN INITIATIVE AND HIERARCHY IN THE DRESSMAKING INDUSTRY

The highest managers-relatives of the employer are low (out of the trend) in “Creativity” (Fig. 6):

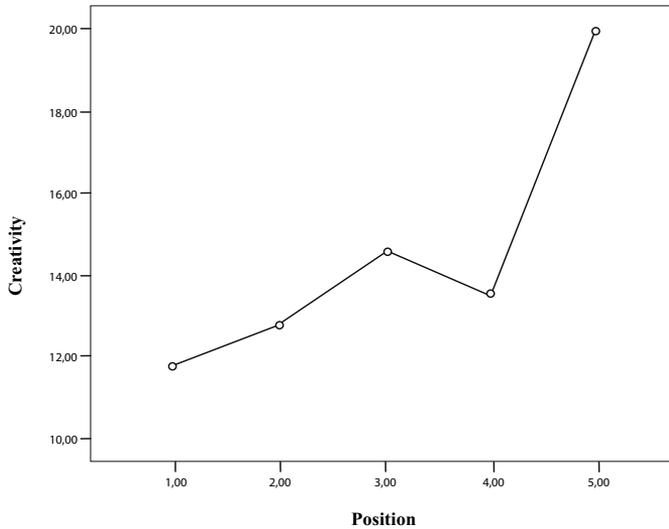


FIGURE 6. THE DEPENDENCE BETWEEN CREATIVITY AND HIERARCHY IN THE DRESSMAKING INDUSTRY

And very low in the “Profit orientation” together with middle managers (Fig. 7):

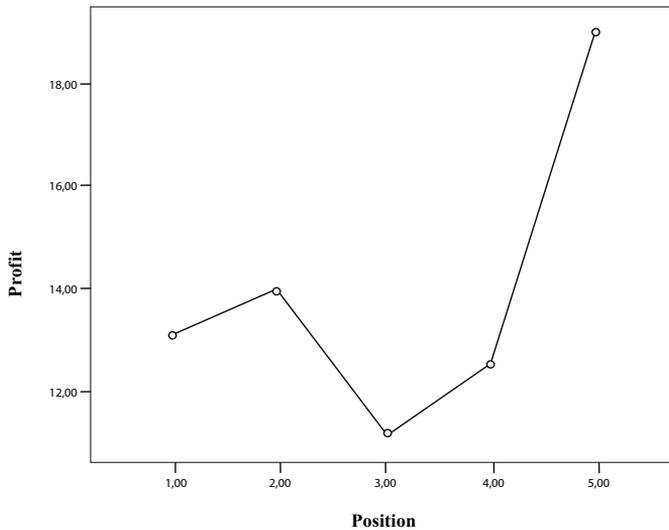


FIGURE 7. THE DEPENDENCE BETWEEN PROFIT ORIENTATION AND HIERARCHY IN THE DRESSMAKING INDUSTRY

So, with the assistance of the subscales we could diagnose hidden aspects of the entrepreneurship of the staff and to specify the necessary consultative help.

A very convincing support receives the hypothesis about **corelation between gender and entrepreneurship** (Fig. 8):

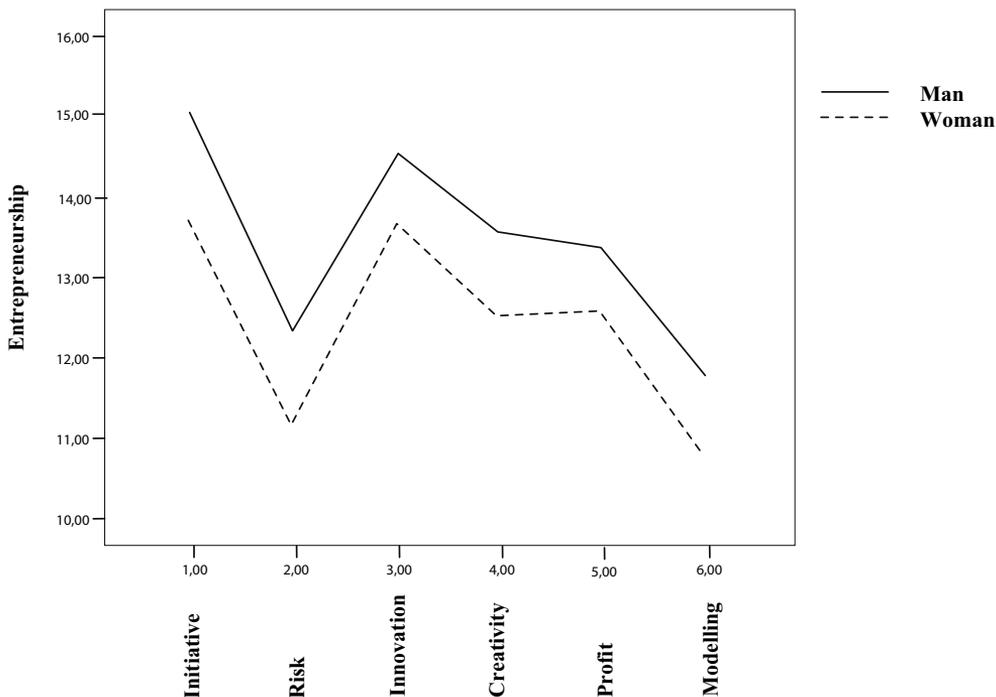


FIGURE 8. THE PARALLEL IN CHANGES OF THE RESULTS FOR MEN AND WOMEN IN ALL SUBSCALES OF THE ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The women are systematically lower than men during all subscales and entrepreneurship as whole. And this difference is statistically valid at level Sig =,036.

Our last task in the investigation was to check the hypothetical **structural model of the entrepreneurship** and to improve it if necessary and if possible.

We used factor analysis for realizing this. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin coefficient was 0,822; Bartlett' Test was valid at level Sig = 0,00; so the statistical conditions are excellent for factor analysis.

As the result we received 8 factors instead of the 6 former. The factorial model explains 63,148 % of the variation (Table 3, 4).

TABLE 3. 6 INGREDIENTS THEORETICAL MODEL

TABLE 4. 8 INGREDIENTS FACTORIAL MODEL

6 ingredients theoretical model	8 ingredients factorial model
1. Initiative	1. Risk taking
2. Risk taking	2. Innovation
3. Innovation	3. Excellent ideas having
4. Creativity	4. Quickness
5. Profit orientation	5. Profit orientation
6. New models establishing	6. Modeling as activities
	7. New models establishing
	8. Ingenious

The new factors:

- Factor 1 Risk: entirely doubles the notion risk from the first scale;
- Factor 2 Innovation: included in itself the idea of energetic activities for introducing new ideas;
- Factor 3 Excellent ideas having: of good quality, risky, profitable. It could be identified with the creativity, but in the specific sphere of business entrepreneurship.
- Factor 4 Quickness: expresses the advantages that entrepreneur takes out from the speed of his reactions, that guarantees him leadership and profit;
- Factor 5 Profit orientation: this factor entirely doubles the orientation of entrepreneurship to the earnings;
- Factor 6 Modeling as activities: expresses the process of active introducing of new models, theirs testing and modernization of the world around;
- Factor 7 Modeling as effect: the consciousness that the others are cooping you, that you are building another different world around you.
- Factor 8 Ingenious: expresses independence and autonomy of behavior, nonconventionalism, nonconformism.

DISCUSSION

In the pilot investigation, we have done, we found some new factors and made observations that suggested to include several important ingredients in entrepreneurship model: quickness, activity, ingenious and determination. Besides, strategic planning and social competence show their importance for manager entrepreneurship. With this ingredients we hope, the model will improve much more its explanatory power.

In its entirety we think that the idea of the “intra-firm entrepreneurship” is productive and fruitful. It allows the managers to be tested and diagnosed as entrepreneurs and to orientate consultative practice of developing a strong and viable organization.

To this end a training system for developing entrepreneurship in middle management is offered. It includes advance in manager skills of problem diagnosing, process orientation, strategy and business planning, crisis managing, leadership etc. (Fig. 9):



FIGURE 9. TRAINING SYSTEM ORIENTATED TO CORPORATIVE ENTREPRENEURSHIP

At the moment this training system is in practice and gives us its first, very optimistic feedback.

We intend to continue this research, expanding it as an intercultural investigation and are looking for partnerships.

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THE OCCUPATIONAL STRESS IN JUDGES' PROFESSION

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***Abstract.** The present article is not in the sphere of juridical psychology, but a pilot research in the sphere of work psychology, and treats the problem of the occupational stress in the judges' profession. The magnitude of the occupational stress is measured and its determinants are diagnosed. Our own results are compared with the results of other researchers in other juridical systems. Several instruments are elaborated: a scale for stress assessment; a questionnaire concerning the causes of the occupational stress; and an inquiry, exploring the organizational problems and determinants of the stress. Part of the research is devoted to the role and significance of the Union of Bulgarian Judges in the organization and regulation of the judicial profession.*

INTRODUCTION

The present pilot research is conducted in the context of the initiative of the Union of Bulgaria Judges (UBJ) as a part of the project "The Judges: Cooperation and Dialogue", co-funded by the EU European Social Fund, and performed with the assistance of the Bulgarian Psychological Society. The research follows the „Work-Related Stress Guidance" of Division D.5 of the Directorate-General for Employment and Social Affairs, European Commission. In the process of research methods elaboration the research team applies the approach adopted by the large-scale international study „Exploring Causes and Effects of Judicial Stress", led by Miller, M., Chamberlein, J., Flores, D. & Richardson, J., (2007), published at the Annual Summit of the Law and Society Association, Berlin, 2007.

RESEARCH SUBJECT AND AIMS

A numerous symptoms at everyday level indicate that the working conditions of judge's professional work in many cases are stressful and require urgently research attention and adequate intervention. On that basis **the main subject area** of the present research became **the occupational stress in judges' profession**. The stress – defined as **a negative emotional condition of the individual due to deficit of coping resources in particular situation**. **The research aim** is to develop and pilot an instrumental toolkit for studying occupational stress in judges' profession, its determinants and consequences with adequate reliability to serve in the role of starting point for further steps in stress prevention and reduction measures directed towards the stress induction factors.

METHODOLOGY

Research Sample

The sample consisted of 56 acting judges in two subgroups: 41 acting judges randomly involved in a questionnaire survey and a focus group of 15 acting judges who participated in a special training program on coping with occupational stress. On the basis of their territorial distribution the subjects are in the following groups:

- ♣ Working in Sofia – 61 %, in country – 17 %, 22 % – no specification;
- ♣ Men – 14,6 %, women – 73,2 %, 12,2 % – no specification;
- ♣ Court level at their professional activity: Regional Courts – 56,1 %, County Courts – 22 %, Higher Administrative Courts – 4,9 %, 17,1% – no specification.

TABLE 1. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA FOR THE SAMPLE

Demographic Data	min [years]	max [years]	Average [years]
Age	27,00	58,00	36,4412
Years in legal profession	2,00	35,00	10,0882
Years in judicial position	,50	20,00	6,8824
Years at the current Court level	,30	15,00	5,0242

The research project involved two control groups of up to 30 legal councilors and barristers, and 30 court/criminal journalists as well, considering their expert observation of the judge's professional and court environment. This part of the research is not discusses in the present report.

Research Instruments

To achieve the goals of the research project, 3 research instruments have been developed:

1. “Stress and work quality” Questionnaire.

The questionnaire consists of three parts:

- ‡ Stress Scale, including 20 occupational stress indicators;
- ‡ A questionnaire for assessing the quality of work conditions, including 54 indicators;
- ‡ 6 items measuring specifically the workload, the work reserves of the subjects, job norming, stress coping capacity and job remuneration.

2. Organizational Questionnaire.

The Questionnaire consists of 5 parts:

- ‡ 1 item for the occupational stressors;
- ‡ 10 diagnostic items for the problems in different aspects of work organization related to potential stress reduction at individual job level;
- ‡ 1 item about the corruption effects;
- ‡ 5 items about the role of the Union of Bulgarian Judges and its role in the judicial system;
- ‡ 7 socio-demographic items.

3. Advocacy and Journalism Questionnaire.

The questionnaire consists of 7 parts:

- ‡ conditions in Bulgarian courts – 9 items;
- ‡ quality of the court interactions with other state and legal institutions – 3 items;
- ‡ stress and workload problems of judges – 2 items;
- ‡ recommendations for judiciary system improvement – 1 item;
- ‡ 3 items about the role of the Union of Bulgarian Judges and its participation in the development of judiciary system in Bulgaria;
- ‡ Additional information – 1 open question;
- ‡ 6 socio-demographic items.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Stress Diagnostics

Stress diagnostics includes three scales: Objective Diagnostic Scale, Subjective Stress Perception Scale and Subjective Stress Coping Scale. Their scores' correlations are high, ranging from .674 to .818:

1. Stress diagnostics using Objective Diagnostic Scale:

The Scale includes 20 items, referring to key stress symptoms. The scale reliability shows a high internal scale consistency (Cronbach $\alpha = .945$), speaking about the scale's excellent measurement qualities.

The average stress score on this scale for Sofia based judges is 55,8333 (the range of scale varies from 0 to 100): The real stress is represented by scores higher than 50 points on this objective symptoms scale. The value of 55,8333 is practically at the entry of the real stress zone and is not generally problematic. **The average for the same score for judges based in the country is 25,83**, which is representing lack of stress in their sub-samples. These means, however, are covering the reality of existing different subgroups in these two sub-samples, and more specifically the existing groups of judges with light and average levels of stress symptomatology:

The empirical findings about the **stress levels by group** indicate that:

- ‡ **51,2 %** of all subjects have individual stress scores which reveal **no stress level** (scores below 50);
- ‡ **24,4 %** of all subjects have individual stress scores which reveal **lighter stress symptoms** (scores between 51 and 67);
- ‡ **22,0 %** of all subjects have individual stress scores which reveal **average stress** (scores between 68 and 83);
- ‡ **0 %** of all subjects have individual stress scores which reveal **severe stress level** (scores above 84);
- ‡ **2,4 %** of all subjects didn't provide information of the stress symptoms scale.

What are the typical stress symptoms in the groups of judges with light stress symptomatology (24,4 %)? In this early stage of occupational stress development the symptoms reported are as follows:

- ‡ *Feeling tired and exhausted;*
- ‡ *Anxiety;*
- ‡ *Prolonged episodes of high tension and accumulation of fatigue;*
- ‡ *More mistakes at work than usual;*
- ‡ *Depressiveness;*
- ‡ *Exhaustion and burnout;*
- ‡ *Avoidance / Escapism, willingness to hide away for awhile;*
- ‡ *Subjective feeling of stress vulnerability;*
- ‡ *Anticipation of breakdown;*
- ‡ *Regular headaches.*

Stress symptoms in the groups with **average level of occupational stress** (22,0 %) add 7 indicators and show more severe occupational stress picture among judges :

- ‡ Feeling tired and exhausted;
- ‡ Anxiety;
- ‡ Prolonged episodes of high tension and accumulation of fatigue;
- ‡ Health problems related to nervous system functional problems;
- ‡ More mistakes at work than usual;
- ‡ Feeling sick;
- ‡ Depressiveness.
- ‡ Anxiety attacks and Fear of Future;
- ‡ Exhaustion and burnout;
- ‡ Terrible bad mood;
- ‡ Avoidance / Escapism, willingness to hide away for awhile;
- ‡ Episodes of unprovoked aggressiveness.
- ‡ Subjective feeling of stress vulnerability;
- ‡ Anticipation of breakdown;
- ‡ Feeling own nervous system is disturbed;
- ‡ Feeling incapable to perform job tasks;
- ‡ Regular headaches.

As indicated earlier, **no subjects experience severe levels of occupational stress**. The empirical findings, however, reveal that in both sub-samples (light and average stress levels) **an ongoing and painful discomfort is experienced, and its is exhausting subjects nervous system and eroding their health**. This picture is affecting a significant part of the judges sample – 24,4 % with light occupational stress level, and 22,0 % with average level of occupational stress, and deserves special attention and consideration.

2. How Judges cope with occupational stress?

Subjects self-reports for their “capacity to cope with occupational stress” shape the following picture:

- ‡ 17,1 % do not report any stress;
- ‡ 12,2 % experience **stressors as challenges which they cope with by mobilizing themselves**;
- ‡ 43,8 % **cope with the stress, but it costs them a lot of efforts and is highly exhaustive experience**;
- ‡ 17,1 % report about **symptoms of serious distress** – nervous exhaustion and behavioral breakdowns;
- ‡ 9,8 % do not provide responses to the questionnaire.

In other words, 29,3 % only report that they are coping with the occupational stress with no problems at all. 9,8 % of all subjects do avoid sharing about the issue of coping. For the larger majority of the rest (60,9 %) the occupational stress is experienced as a complete exhaustion or nervous breakdown. And it means that **less than one third of the Bulgarian Court staff work as a stable, balanced, task-focused system. The rest two thirds are working under serious tension, in high anxiety, and are overstrained.**

Depending of the court location – Sofia or country – the efforts to cope with the occupational stress varies significantly (Table 2):

TABLE 2. CAPACITY TO COPE WITH OCCUPATIONAL STRESS DEPENDING ON COURT LOCALIZATION –SOFIA VS. COUNTRY

Capacity to cope with occupational stress	Country [%]	Sofia [%]
No serious stressors	42,9	0,0
Stressors are challenges which we cope with by self-mobilization	14,3	8,0
We cope with the stress, but it costs us enormous efforts and debilitating exhaustion	14,3	60,0
Stress causes nervous exhaustion and behavioral breakdowns	0,0	28,0
No response	28,5	4,0
In total	100,0	100,0

Abovementioned observation (in bold) concerns exclusively Sofia located judges and leads to a conclusion **that there is a difference in the psychological condition of the courts located in the country and the capital city, which might be a good reason for a serious discussion about the personnel and organizational development of court system nationwide.**

3. Stress Levels Conclusions:

Approximately one half of the subjects manifest light and average levels of occupational stress.

The subjective experience of the stress is higher than its objective measures based on objective symptom-based criteria.

The Judges working in Sofia experience significantly higher levels of occupational stress than judges located in the country.

4. Work Quality Scale

The quality of worklife conditions is a complex category which integrates multiple work environment components: workload, professionalism, interpersonal relations at work, work motivation and remuneration, personal life at work, social environment, organizational environment etc. The quality of worklife conditions is one of the primary areas in searching for the stress induction determinants. On the basis of our conceptual analysis and practical experience in the field of occupational stress we adopted in the present research project a list the 58 most relevant empirical indicators of the court worklife quality.

Here again, the empirical findings reveal two different realities for courts in Sofia, and in country: **Out of all 58 indicators only 3 indicators are in the negative spectrum for judges working in the country, 55 indicate positive aspects in their work conditions.** The negative indicators for the courts in the country are the following:

- ‡ The public opinion is unfair in its criticism towards Bulgarian court;
- ‡ In my work there is no system of moral and social incentives;
- ‡ I am unable to spend enough time for my family.

Out of all 58 indicators 20 indicate positive quality aspects in their work conditions, and 38 indicators are in the negative spectrum for judges working in Sofia. The most negative aspects of worklife quality are as follows:

- ‡ The high pace of work;
- ‡ Assignment and Pressure to observe deadlines combined with high levels of workload;
- ‡ Painful lack of work time;
- ‡ Insufficient capacity and resources to cope with the workload;
- ‡ High expectation to judge's work, over passing the normal for a person;
- ‡ Obligation to perform duties above the normal;
- ‡ Obligation to perform duties which are not part of judge's functions;
- ‡ Unfavorable physical work conditions and work environment;
- ‡ Working in unhealthy work conditions;
- ‡ Insufficient remuneration for the performed level of work;
- ‡ Lack of recognition for the work and work-related achievements;
- ‡ Unfair public opinion about the work in courts;
- ‡ Debilitating routine and everyday monotony of work;
- ‡ The pressure to make tough decisions;
- ‡ Everyday worklife full of crisis situations;
- ‡ Working in an environment with double standards;
- ‡ In the court many rules are not observed by those who are supposed to enforce them;

- ‡ No sufficient time with own family;
- ‡ No conditions for normal regeneration and leisure;
- ‡ Lack of time for self-care;
- ‡ All objective conditions to not perform well are present.

It is self-evident that **the quality of worklife conditions for the court system in Sofia is lagging behind the same quality measures for courts in the country, and needs urgent measures for improvement – especially in the areas of judges' workload, work environment, and judges' work motivation.** The research team had the opportunity to work in this work environment alongside with research subjects and experienced the impact of this style of work, and to propose measures to overcome existing problems, accordingly.

5. Is Worklife Quality a cause of Occupational Stress?

In the present research a regression analysis was used to assess the factors of worklife quality which cause occupational stress. The regression analysis was performed in three steps with successive variation of the dependable variables – including three scores on the three stress measures, using as predictors of stress the controlled 58 hypothetical worklife quality factors. Out of all 58 factors, valid predictors of occupational stress are confirmed to be 35, which explain 100 % of the stress measure variation (Coefficient of multiple regression $R = 1$ and % of explained variation of the dependable variable in the model $R^2 = 1$).

The further tests of these factors internal co-variation and similarity in different research sub-samples were based on the statistical procedures of the factor analysis, allowing for reduction of the key determining factors to 10, including the following **stress-factors in the judge's work:**

- ‡ *Incapacity to cope with the job tasks due to insufficient time and unfavorable work environment;*
- ‡ *Self-negligence due to work overcommitment, turning the work into a burden;*
- ‡ *Low self-confidence, hesitation and low decisiveness in front of the public scrutiny;*
- ‡ *Feeling of self-harming and family-harming due to fights and difficulties at work;*
- ‡ *High risk with no guarantees that the contradictory public expectations to judges' work could be met;*
- ‡ *Incomplete and insecure material, professional and social status, despite the huge efforts to withstand the external pressures;*

- ‡ *The judge has no control on his/her plans being under media pressure and intrusive organizational control;*
- ‡ *The control and conflicts at work which generate constant tensions;*
- ‡ *Public profile of the judge's profession which affects his/her personality in all aspect of life out of court – in the family, where many of the professional problems are transferred, and in the unfair public opinion about judges;*
- ‡ *The pressure to make tough and unpopular decisions.*

This picture of worklife quality factors speaks about the existence of a frustrating working environment – presence of multiple barriers to effective job performance: work overload, unfavorable work conditions, multi-level psychological discomfort, and lack of situational control even when there is full professional commitment.

It is important to remind here that not all judges are exposed to such harming factors, but where occupational stress is detected (approximately in 50% of all subjects), the working environment corresponds to the picture described. Again, what needs to be underlined is that the condition in Sofia courts is worse than the situation in country located courts.

6. Lines to Judge's psychological portrait

The regression analyses performed in this research add some lines to the psychological portrait of the contemporary judge – both positive and negative, depending on influential factors of occupational stress:

- ‡ Used to keep things under control and experiencing stress, when losing this control;
- ‡ Developing his/her hardiness and resilience in challenging situations, which affects in positive way his/her capacity to cope with occupational stress;
- ‡ Exposed to “all objective conditions not to perform well his/her job”;
- ‡ Adopting the fact that occupational stress is unavoidable as a personal philosophy of stress acceptance;
- ‡ Major source of judge's occupational stress is the very specifics and organization of his/her work;
- ‡ The stress coping tactics which could be determined as self-sacrifice.

The uniqueness of the judge's personality portrait and imposed worklife conditions deserves a special emphasis indeed. It is even possible to distinguish a **set of certain personality professional deformations** caused by the non-hygienic and non-ergonomic work conditions.

7. Workload and Job Pay as Stressors

Special attention in the present research was paid to the workload and remuneration practices as riik factors in judge's occupational stress. It is interesting to discuss the findings about judges' work overload, about the potential workload norming, about the job pay, and about the existing reserves in additional commitment to the work process:

Workload

The average workload of a judge is 604,8 court cases per year and 497,4 finalized cases with final disposition. It is impressive to observe the large-scale difference in levels of workload of different judges – minimal and maximum workload differ in level tenfold:

- The minimal new cases is 145 and 116 – finalized, respectfully;
- The maximum new cases is 1305 and 1090 – finalized, respectfully.

Judge's Work Norming

34,1 % of all subjects believe that it is possible the judge's job to be properly normed; other 34,1 % consider it not subject of norming; and 31,8 % – could,t decide on the issue. Given the tenfold difference in case workload for some judges speaks for itself – both in terms of nature of the court cases in consideration, and in terms of the necessary work efforts per case, on one hand; and about the real problems of court work organization practices, on the other hand. The later requires urgently some form of regulation.

The Length of the Working week

The average working week is 54,49 hours. There are major individual differences again – from a workweek of 40 hours to workweek of 90 hours length. Considering these fact it is necessary to study in-depth the judges' work; to develop research-based professional specification and psychographic description of judge's profession; to rationalize the judge's work organization; to set professional hygiene norms for the workweek length; and to implement effectively time budgeting and management measures alongside with strict labor rights protection, as specified by the Labor Code

Workforce Reserves

The availability or lack of workforce reserves, which might be put in action under higher work motivation conditions is an important indicator for the job's motivational climate. The present picture of the available workforce reserves is as follows:

- I have no available reserves – 39,0 %;
- I do have some very limited reserve – 24,5 %;
- I do have limited to some extent reserve – 12,2 %;
- I do have significant reserve – 9,9 %;
- I do have very large extent of reserve – 2,4 %;
- No reply – 12,2 %;

As seen above, approximately 49,0 % of all subjects report about the availability of some workforce resources. It deserves noting as well that there is negative correlation between the available workforce resources and the occupational stress level. This negative correlation indicates that the occupational stress work against the identification and utilization of the judges' workforce reserves – the higher the judge's occupational stress, the lower the available workforce reserve.

Stress, Job Pay and Work Incentives

The issue of job pay and work incentives is closely related to the judge's occupational stress problems because it affects the access to resources needed to cope with life problems of judges. The research allowed us to evaluate the degree of job pay satisfaction among judges, to observe their perceived fairness of the pay, and to discuss the presence/absence of non-material work incentives and their effects. The frequency analysis picture is quite colorful. All means calculated – both for job pay satisfaction and pay fairness are close to the point of reversal – where satisfaction turns into non-satisfaction:

- ‡ **I have a sufficient means to make living** at the level of “To equal extent agree, and disagree with the statement”;
- ‡ **I get what I deserve for my work** at the level “Disagree to some extent”;
- ‡ **I get recognition for my work and achievements** at the level of “To equal extent agree, and disagree with the statement”;
- ‡ **Presence of moral and social work incentives** at the level “Disagree to some extent”

The correlation of these four scales with the occupational stress level provides an interesting outcome: It is not the access to sufficient means to make living which correlates to the reduced level of judge's occupational stress (obviously it is the minor problem in the case), but the fair job pay, the recognition received, and the moral and social incentives provided is what counts in this respect. Apparently, the human factor and the humanistic approach to court administration practices remind about themselves here – not the absolute value of material job remuneration is of exclusive importance to judges, but the organizational human relations in their full-fledge richness and nuances.

7. Organization of the Judiciary System

Many of the urgent measures for occupational stress prevention and reduction require system-wide and institutionalized work– and organizational-psychological transformation of the work conditions and work organization in Bulgarian courts.

CONCLUSIONS

The present research provides answer to one question "Which are the problems demanding immediate solution in all these areas?":

- ⌘ Lack of in-depth professional specification and psychographic description of the judge's profession in all its variations for all types of courts, nature of court cases, etc.;
- ⌘ Lack of norming framework for a normal workload, considering the specificity of the work of different categories of judges;
- ⌘ Extremely unfavorable work conditions, non-ergonomic work environment in which judges work;
- ⌘ Need to improve the system of judges' training and professional qualification to make sure it provides higher quality, access, and graduation;.
- ⌘ Need of accepted and strictly followed criteria for job performance, career development, and prevention of vicious personnel promotion and deployment practices via temporary assignments to courts;
- ⌘ Need to review, update and upgrade the system of job-related pay and work incentive programs in the whole judicial system;
- ⌘ Problems in the dialogue between the levels and units in the judicial system.
- ⌘ Urgent need to start a new program for "Process-Oriented Organization" of the court work;
- ⌘ Problems in the dialogue between the judiciary system and other non-court systems and organizations;
- ⌘ Imperfect normative basis and legislation, plagued with chaotic and contradictory law-making practices.
- ⌘ Need for further development of the administrative skills of the court administrative staff in order to build and develop teamwork culture and improve the psychosocial climate at local level.
- ⌘ Need to develop and implement effective anti-corruption strategy in the judicial system.
- ⌘ Need to enhance the activity of the Union of Bulgarian Judges and its dialogue with all sectors in the judicial systems, with the general public, and its own members in order to perform its organizational mission.

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GENDER DIFFERENCES IN PREFERRED STRATEGIES FOR COPING WITH STRESS FOR ATHLETES

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Abstract. *The research analyses the influence of the peculiarities of achievement goal orientation, the components of the dominant motivational climate in the teams and competitive anxiety, on the choice of preferred strategies for coping with stress. The subject of the research is a group of 612 athletes (335 women, 277 men; competitors from individual, team and single combat sports; all aged 18 +/- 3,5 on average). The following materials have been used in the research: Coping Orientations to Problems Experienced scale – COPE 1, including 14 strategies under three more general factors (cognitive engagement, emotional engagement, cognitive and emotional disengagement); Perceived Motivational Climate in sport Questionnaire 2 – PMCSQ-2, Task and ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire – TEOSQ, Competitive State Anxiety Inventory 2 – CSAI-2, Participation Motivation Questionnaire – PMQ.*

Keywords: *achievement goal orientation, motivational climate, competitive anxiety, coping.*

INTRODUCTION

Modern sport requires the athletes to develop and improve various skills in order to cope with the numerous stressors efficiently. Coping represents an individual's cognitive, affective, and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands (Crocker, Kowalski, & Graham, 1998; Lazarus, 1999). Athletes must develop a range of cognitive and behavioral coping skills to manage the competitive stressors they face (Scanlan, Stein, & Ravizza, 1991). The experienced stress involves a wide range of cognitive, behavioral and affective factors. There

are requirements towards sportsmen in terms of their physical and psychological abilities. They are subject to pressure from the environment which has definite expectations in terms of their performance and life as a whole. The copings used are the result of the dynamic interaction of personal and contextual influences. In the process of sport activities, they interact and determine the peculiarities of motivation tendencies, of activation, intensity and qualitative characteristics of dynamic mental states and the total mental organization of the personality.

The most widely used coping model in sport psychology is based on Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transaction process perspective. They view coping as a process that begins with situational appraisal. Primary appraisal refers to how an individual evaluates the personal significance of a situation with regard to his/her values, personal beliefs, situational intentions, and goal commitments. If the individual appraises that his/her goals are at stake, an emotional response occurs and the outcomes are perceived in terms of harm/loss (i.e., damage has already occurred), threat (i.e., the possibility that damage may occur), or challenge (i.e., where people enthusiastically pit themselves against obstacles). Secondary appraisal refers to a cognitive-evaluative process that focuses on what can be done about a stressful person-environment relationship, especially when there has been a primary appraisal of harm/loss or threat. Secondary appraisal provides the cognitive underpinning for coping.

The transactional perspective assumes there to be coping responses that serve one of two important functions (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Problem-focused coping refers to strategies used to manage or alter a stressor through behaviours such as information gathering, goal-setting, time management skills, and problem-solving. Emotion-focused coping refers to attempts at regulating emotional responses resulting from a stressor through actions like meditation, relaxation, and cognitive efforts to change the meaning an individual attaches to a situation.

The components of achievement goal orientation – task orientation and ego orientation have different influence in achievement situations. It is considered that athletes with domineering ego orientation, especially those with a perception of a lower level of competence, are more apt to stress and anxiety in competition (Nicholls, 1989; Duda, & Nicholls, 1992). The uncertainties of sport victory, as well as the great number of objective requirements, provoke negative emotional states in sport. On the other hand, athletes well-directed to the task are less susceptible to competitive anxiety, because they set for themselves inner standards for their performance and strive towards subjective and relatively controllable results.

Motivation climate, along with goal orientation, can also influence physical activity. It depends on the social environment and circumstances: the level of the competition, its subjective importance for the athlete, the coach's expectations and requirements, the Board of the Club and other persons of importance – rela-

tives, friends, the fans, the general public, it also depends on the type of feedback received by the athlete and the style of instructions. The structure of motivation climate includes two basic factors -- motivation climate oriented at mastery of execution and motivation climate oriented at performance (Ames, 1992). With mastery-oriented motivation climate, it is the perfection of skills and the value of the effort put into the task that matters, the idea that each athlete plays an important part in the team, i.e. team cooperation is important. Mistakes are accepted as part of the learning process and the individuals are probably involved in the task. The main accents in performance motivation climate are connected with high value placed on individual skills, stimulation of competition among athletes, paying more attention to top performers, the feeling of satisfaction due to superiority over other members of the team and over the opponents. Punishments for committed mistakes could also be added to the ego.

The motivation climate accepted by the team members could lead to increased pre-competition anxiety. According to the Multidimensional theory (Martens, et al., 1990), competitive anxiety includes the cognitive and somatic components, which could have different influence on the performance. The cognitive component contains negative expectations about the performance and the possible consequences of failure, inability to concentrate, distraction of attention before and during the performance. The somatic component refers to the physiological effects of anxiety, increased arousal, together with increased breathing, increased muscle pressure and other vegetative reactions. Self-confidence is considered as the level of reliance on one's own abilities for achieving success in sport. The prerequisites of cognitive anxiety and self-confidence are those factors in the environment which refer to athletes' expectations for success, including perception of personal abilities and those of the opponent (Martens, et al., 1990).

We suppose that some basic motivation and situation constructs do exist, which determine the strategies for coping with stress and anxiety used by athletes in competition and training.

The aim of this research is to reveal which of the components of dominant motivation climate, goal orientation for achievement and pre-competitive anxiety influence the use of preferred strategies for coping with stress and anxiety of athletes, grouped according to the gender.

METHODOLOGY

1. Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) (Duda, Nicholls, 1992) assessed dispositions towards task and ego achievement goal orientations. The TEOSQ elicits scores on task (7-items) and ego (6-items) orientation through the stem "I feel most successful in sport when ...". Each item was answered on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree").

The coefficient of reliability in the first scale α of Cronbach is 0,75 and in the second – 0,86.

2. Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire–2 (PMCSQ–2) (Newton, Duda, & Yin., 2000). Evaluates athletes perception – to what extent the motivation climate in their teams is characterized by the domineering of tasks connected with mastery or performance. It consists of 33 items and a 5-level scale of the Lickert type to evaluate the degree of expression. It measures two factors – motivation climate oriented to mastery (it is determined by 17 questions referring to the following subscales: significance of the role, cooperative learning, effort/improvement and motivation climate oriented to performance (it includes 16 items forming the following subscales: unequal recognition, punishment for mistakes, intra-team member rivalry). Good internal consistency is observed in both scales (with mastery-oriented climate α of Cronbach is 0,83; with performance-oriented climate α of Cronbach is 0,84).

3. Participation Motivation Questionnaire (PMQ) – a test which consists of 30 items researching the possible reasons to take up sports (Gill et al., 1983), divided into seven subscales that measure the motives: achievements, teamwork orientation, energy release, emotions and challenges, skills improvement, affiliation, fitness orientation. The answers are assessed according to a five-grade Likert type scale.

4. Competitive State Anxiety Inventory –2 (CSAI–2), specially created for sport practice (Martens, et al., 1990). The scale measures three factors – cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety and self-confidence, evaluated by a four level scale of Lickert type. The reliability coefficient is: α of Cronbach 0,85 for the first one, α of Cronbach 0,86 for the second one and α of Cronbach 0,88 for the third subscale.

The four tests have been adapted to the Bulgarian conditions (Domuschieva – Rogleva, 2003 a, b, 2007 a, b).

5. Coping Orientations to Problems Experienced scale – COPE – 1 (Carver, et al., 1989). The test evaluates various ways of coping with stress, used by people. It is adapted for Bulgarian conditions (Rusinova-Hristova, Karastoianov; 2000) and it is optimized for sports practice (Georgiev et al., 2003). It includes 52 items, organized in 14 subscales, determining the following copings: active coping, planning, suppression of competitive activities, restraint coping, seeking social support for instrumental reasons, seeking social support for emotional reasons, positive reinterpretation and growth, acceptance, turning to religion, focusing on and venting of emotions, denial, behavioral disengagement, mental disengagement, alcohol-drug disengagement. These fourteen strategies have been joined together through factor analysis into three generalized secondary factors: cognitive engagement, emotional engagement, cognitive and emotional disengagement.

Participants – the research included 582 competitors – 127 from individual sports (athletics, badminton), 383 from team sports (basketball, hockey); 72 from

single combat sports (boxing, wrestling), 354 women and 228 men, aged 17+/-3,9 on average.

RESULTS

The athletes in the research show relatively high values for task orientation, motivation climate, mastery orientation and its components, self-confidence, cognitive engagement coping strategies. Average values have been observed for ego goal orientation, performance-oriented motivation climate and its components, cognitive anxiety, and emotional engagement strategies for coping. Low values have been observed for somatic anxiety, cognitive and emotional disengagement strategies for coping. The mean values of the research variables have been presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1. AVERAGE VALUES OF THE VARIABLES IN THE RESEARCH ACCORDING TO GENDER

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Athletes in the research	4,2	2,5	4,2	4,0	4,4	4,4	3,1	2,9	3,2	3,2	2,1	1,7	2,6	4,0	4,2	3,3	3,9	4,5	3,9	4,4	2,8	2,6	1,9
women	4,2	2,4	4,2	3,9	4,4	4,4	3,1	2,8	3,3	3,2	2,1	1,8	2,5	4,0	4,2	3,2	3,8	4,5	3,8	4,4	2,8	2,6	1,9
men	4,2	2,6	4,3	4,1	4,4	4,4	3,1	3,0	3,1	3,2	1,9	1,5	2,9	4,1	4,1	3,5	3,9	4,5	4,0	4,5	2,8	2,5	2,0

Legend:

1 – task goal orientation; 2 – ego goal orientation; 3 – mastery-oriented motivation climate; 4 – cooperative learning; 5 – role significance; 6 – effort/improvement; 7 – performance motivational climate; 8 – unequal recognition; 9 – punishment for mistakes; 10 – rivalry; 11 – cognitive anxiety; 12 – somatic anxiety; 13 – self-confidence; 14 – achievements; 15 – teamwork orientation; 16 – energy release; 17 – affiliation; 18 – skills improvement; 19 – emotions and challenges; 20 – fitness orientation; factor 1 – cognitive engagement; factor 2 – emotional engagement; factor 3 – cognitive and emotional disengagement.

Stepwise regression analysis has been applied in keeping with the aim of the research and regression models have been checked for groups of athletes according to gender. The generalized factors of cognitive engagement, emotional engagement and cognitive and emotional disengagement have been analyzed in succession as dependent variables. The influence of the two types of accepted motivation climate with their six components, the seven types participation motives in sport, as well as the two types of goal orientation and the components of competitive anxiety have been analyzed as independent variables.

The preference for cognitive engaged strategies for coping in the women's group is positively determined by the motives directed towards improving the skills, by investing efforts and improvement, as a component of the motivation climate oriented to mastery and by self-confidence (Table 2). The task goal orientation ($\beta=0,336^{***}$) and once again efforts and improvement ($\beta=0,243^{**}$) stimulate the preference for such type of copings in the men's group. The orientation in the team towards cooperative learning which is part of the perception for motivation climate directed to mastery leads to the avoidance of such strategies ($\beta=-0,159^*$).

TABLE 2. INFLUENCE OF INVESTIGATED VARIABLES ON THE USE OF DIFFERENT COPING STRATEGIES DEPENDING ON THE GENDER

		Cognitive engagement coping strategies	Emotional engagement coping strategies		Cognitive and emotional disengagement coping strategies	
		β (t)	β (t)		β (t)	
women	Skills	.190 (3.25)***	Cognitive anxiety	.177 (3.14)***	Energy release	.248(4.33)***
	Effort/improvement	.164(2.82)**	Task goal orientation	.154 (2.75)**	Performance motivational climate	.151(2.66)**
	Self-confidence	.150 (2.72)*	Unequal Recognition	$\Delta R^2 = .078^{***}$	Task goal orientation	-.115(-2.08)**
		$\Delta R^2 = .173^{***}$				$\Delta R^2 = .110^{***}$
men	Task goal orientation	.336 (4.57)***	Emotions and challenges	.311 (4.33)***	Ego goal orientation	.316(4.95)***
	Effort/improvement	.243 (3.15)**	Energy release	.217 (3.02)**	Energy release	.329(5.08)***
	Cooperative learning	-.159 (-2.08)*	Ego goal orientation	.183 (2.80)**	Cognitive anxiety	.258(4.01)***
		$\Delta R^2 = .105^{***}$	Cognitive anxiety	.178 (2.51)**	Punishment for mistakes	.161(2.52)**
		Self-confidence	-.161 (-2.25)*		$\Delta R^2 = .256^{***}$	
			$\Delta R^2 = .218^{***}$			

* $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$.

The orientation towards emotionally engaged strategies for coping in the men's group is determined to the largest extent by the motives for taking up sports related to the desire to experience emotions and challenges ($\beta=0,311^{***}$) and to releasing energy ($\beta=0,217^{**}$) as well as by the ego orientation ($\beta=0,183^{**}$). The high level of self-confidence is negatively related to this type of copings ($\beta=0,161^{**}$) while the cognitive anxiety as a component of the pre-competitive anxiety strengthens the usage of strategies providing emotional support and allowing to ventilate the accumulated pressure both for men ($\beta=0,178^{***}$) and women ($\beta=0,177^{***}$). The task goal orientation ($\beta=0,170^{**}$) together with the unequal recognition to the team members ($\beta=0,154^{**}$) also direct to the emotional abreaction to the accumulated stress and anxiety.

The next step analyses the influence of the researched variables on the used copings included in the third generalized factor cognitive and emotional disengagement. The motives for participation in sports directed towards releasing energy stimulate their application in both groups of researched people, in the men's group their influence being more strongly expressed ($\beta=0,329^{***}$) compared to the women's group ($\beta=0,248^{***}$). The perception for performance motivation climate determines positively ($\beta=0,151^{**}$), and the task goal orientation ($\beta=-0,115^{**}$) – negatively the preferences for disengagement strategies for coping among women. In the men's group the ego goal orientation ($\beta=0,316^{***}$) significantly influences the orientation to these copings, followed by the cognitive anxiety ($\beta=0,258^{***}$) as well as by the application of punishment for mistakes in the team as a subcomponent of the performance motivation climate ($\beta=0,161^{**}$).

DISCUSSION/CONCLUSIONS

The obtained results support the hypothesis for the influence of situational and dispositional determinants such as the adopted motivation climate related to the influence of social environment, task orientation to achievement, motives for participation in sports and competitive anxiety upon the usage of different types of copings which supports the data from other researches (Domuschieva – Rogleva, 2008). Certain differences are established between the two groups of contestants differentiated according to their sex, in terms of the determinants of preferred strategies for coping with stress and anxiety typical for sport activity.

The formation of motivation climate oriented to mastery in the teams in which the focus is on investing efforts and improving skills stimulates the usage of cognitive engaged strategies for coping in both groups of researched people while the display of cooperative learning in the group of men leads to avoiding this type of strategies. The task goal orientation and self-confidence explain the preference to these problem oriented copings among in the group of women.

In both groups the orientation to emotionally engaged strategies for coping is influenced by the level of cognitive anxiety. In the group of women the task goal orientation as well as the inadequate recognition of the sportsmen and favouritism of the “stars” have a weaker influence. In the male group, the leading incentives for undertaking sports activities related to emotions and challenges, determine most definitely the orientation towards this type of strategies, followed by the aspiration towards energy release and the ego goal orientation, whereas the athletes with high levels of confidence avoid these copings.

The aspiration towards energy release accounts for the high levels of variation in the use of cognitively and emotionally disengaged copings in both of the groups that were studied. The perception of domination of the performance motivational climate in the team determines the preference of this type of copings, while the task goal orientation determines the avoidance of these copings, in the female group. The members of the male group resort to this type of strategies when the ego goal orientation is dominant the level of cognitive anxiety is high, and when punishment for mistakes is employed.

Studying and revealing motivation and situational determinants of strategies for coping with stress are a basis for solving numerous practical problems in the field of sports. The obtained results are an important direction for sport psychologists and coaches in their efforts to increase the contestants’ self-confidence for coping with the challenges of stress and anxiety and to achieve maximum realization.

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPATHY AND TEAM EFFECTIVENESS

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Abstract. *The term empathy reflects one of the fundamental human skills. Empathy is defined as an ability to perceive and comprehend the feelings of other people. It denotes identifying with another's experiences and acceptance of their emotions. Empathy is one of the components of emotional intelligence, a concept which is particularly significant for modern organizations, where managers emphasize on leadership, organizational climate and teamwork. Assuming that understanding frameworks different from your own and empathizing with others is fundamental to collaborative working, the present study aims to investigate to what extent employees' empathy is related to teamwork and the perception of work groups as effective teams by their members.*

Keywords: *empathy, team, team effectiveness*

INTRODUCTION

Today people spend at work a greater part of their lives. The workplace provides us a wide range of human emotions, both positive and negative. Despite the centrality of these emotions to our lives, the vast majority of them are rarely openly discussed in organizational and work psychology. To understand and explain behavior in organization and work, it's necessary to pay attention on feelings and emotions evoked in the workplace. Interpretation of other people's emotions and also of our own emotions, as well as coping with them is a major contributing factor in understanding job performance and interpersonal relations. It's especially applying to group interactions and teamwork where collaboration and constructive management with conflicts and diversity are crucial. Therefore, now one of the challenges to successful human recourse management is to deal with employees' emotions which are an important element of change management.

From this point of view it seems interesting to study empathy at the workplace and its relationship with such organizational processes as leadership, adjustment and teamwork.

DEFINITION OF EMPATHY

There are various definitions about empathy and several ways to its study. In their review Kynyk and Olson identified five conceptualizations of empathy: empathy as a trait; as a professional state; as a communication process; as caring, and as a special relationship (Kynyk & Olson, 2002). Duan and Hill identified two key approaches to study of empathy. First approach is dispositional and considers empathy as a relatively stable trait or general ability to perceive the feelings of other people (Duan & Hill, 1996). From this point of view, Gunther et al. defined empathy as a fundamental human attribute, a developmental phenomenon that appears in early childhood and allows a person to comprehend another's view point (Gunther, et al., 2007). Therefore people can have different predispositions to empathize and some individuals are more able to take the perspective of others. This approach to empathy is reflected by terms as „empathic disposition“ (Hogan, 1969, p. 309) and „dispositional empathy“ (Davis, 1983a, p. 113).

Second approach views empathy as a cognitive-affective experience that varies with the situation. Empathy is a response, related to entering another's private world. So, empathic experience is a function of one's cognitive appraisal of a situation. From cognitive point of view, empathy can be defined as ability to use imagination to comprehend another's feelings and their meaning in the “here and now” situation (Gunther, et al., 2007).

Mehrabian and Epstein focused on the emotional component of empathy. They defined empathy as „the heightened responsiveness to another's emotional experience“ (Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972, p. 526). Thus, empathy is emotional arousal in response to the feelings or experiences of others (Caruso & Mayer, 1998).

Davis conceived empathy as a multidimensional construct included cognitive and emotional components. He believes that empathy can best be considered as a set of constructs, related in that they all concern responsivity to others (Davis, 1983b). Duan and Hill used two terms in relation to empathy: “intellectual empathy” which refers to the cognitive process of taking another person's perspective and “empathic emotions” to refer to the affective experience of empathy. Perspective taking is a cognitive process that can result in the affective response of empathy (Duan & Hill, 1996, p.263). Empathy is distinct from sympathy. Sympathy involves feeling sorrow and pity for someone rather than identifying with or understanding his/her emotions and experiences. Sympathy is a less demanding emotional pro-

cess than empathy, because it does not include direct sharing of another person's experience (Goleman, 1995). Sympathy does not require put yourself into others' shoes. Sympathy is a prerequisite to the development of empathy, but unlike empathy, the person can retain his or her private feelings while understanding those of someone else (Huy, 1999).

Empathy is an element of competence in interpersonal relations along with health, intelligence, judgment, autonomy and creativity (Farber, 1962). Nowadays empathy is a basic component of emotional intelligence, a concept that has become popular in business literature due to Goleman's work. Emotionally intelligent people are capable to identify and become aware of their own feelings and others emotional states and can use this information to solve problems and regulate behaviors.

Empathy is an ability to share feelings and emotions of others in the absence of any direct emotional stimulation. Experience of empathy is due to an event that is happening to someone else, and individual who is empathizing should try to understand and feel emotions of other person in this situation. Humans can feel empathy for other people in a wide variety of contexts. According to Singer and Fehr, this ability enables people to predict others' actions more accurately (Singer & Fehr, 2005). Understanding frameworks different from your own and empathizing with others is fundamental to collaborative working.

TEAM EFFECTIVENESS

For modern organizations teams have become the main structural unit for job performance. Challenges as customer services, technological change, competition and environment limits require fast reactions, high quality and flexibility which are beyond possibilities of individual job performance. In spite of increasing application of teams in different areas of organizations, their functioning is not always successful. There are various reasons for this failure like misunderstanding of the term "team" and its nature, situations and job design inappropriate to teamwork, lack of recourses and trainings and other factors hindering work of teams.

Team is a specific type of group consisting of small number of people with complementary skills who work together and interdependently to achievement of a common goal (Levi, 2001; Katzenbach & Smith, 1993). To become a work group a real team, it has to possess a wide range of characteristics which determine team effectiveness.

Team effectiveness is a continuous process, not a state. Effectiveness of team has many aspects, so a wide set of criteria for its assessment is necessary. Hackman identified three indicators of successful team. According to him, the effective team attains its goal and tasks, maintains good social relations and contrib-

utes personal and professional development of its members (Hackman, 1987). Thus, effective functioning of teams can be assessed through criteria as work quality and quantity, group stability over time and members satisfaction. Despite these characteristics customers' satisfaction is also very important (Ilieva, Djenkova, Altimirska, 2000). Assessment of team effectiveness should be multidimensional and complex, since the presence of a particular criterion is not enough.

A great number of interacting factors have influence on team effectiveness. Guzzo and Dickson proposed a model of team interaction in which effectiveness of team depends on four factors: group composition, task characters, group process and organizational context. A key aspect of team composition is the relative size. Team members should have complementary knowledge and skills corresponding to the task. Diversity of individual competence, backgrounds and perspectives in the team improves group effectiveness. The level of skills of the individuals in a team correlates with the success of the team.

The job must be appropriate to teamwork that means complicated, non-routine and interdependent tasks characterized by autonomy, feedback, diversity, identity, participation in decision making. Having the right people and the suitable job design is not enough and does not guarantee team success per se. Good social relations and group cohesion are crucial for team effectiveness. They are possible due to open communication, group norms, team roles of members, good leadership and trust.

Teams need supportive organizational environment to be successful. These favourable organizational conditions include: supportive organizational culture; clear goals; empowerment; assured resources and trainings; reliable information and feedback from the organization; reward system; good external relations between team and other parts of the organization and their representatives (Guzzo & Dickson, 1996). So, team effectiveness is determined by the interaction of internal processes and external conditions. Therefore, building effective teams requires the efforts of both team members and their organizations.

The aim of present study was to establish if there is a relation between employees' empathy and effectiveness of their teams. The main assumption was that understanding and sharing of emotions and experience of other people contribute different aspects of team effectiveness.

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE

The sample consisted of 119 participants with various occupations from seven different organizations in Sofia in the field of telecommunication (n=29), phar-

macy (n=10), IT solutions (n=21), soft drinks production (14), automotive experience and power solutions (n=3) and public transport (n=34). Subjects were asked to report their gender, job position, type of organization, age and length of service in organization. The sample included 48 men and 71 women with an average age of 33 years (range from 18 to 62) and an average length of service in their organization of 6 years (range from 4 months to 40 years). 19 of them are managers, 94 are employees (6 subjects did not report their position). 34 of participant work in public organization, 83 work in private organizations (2 subjects did not report).

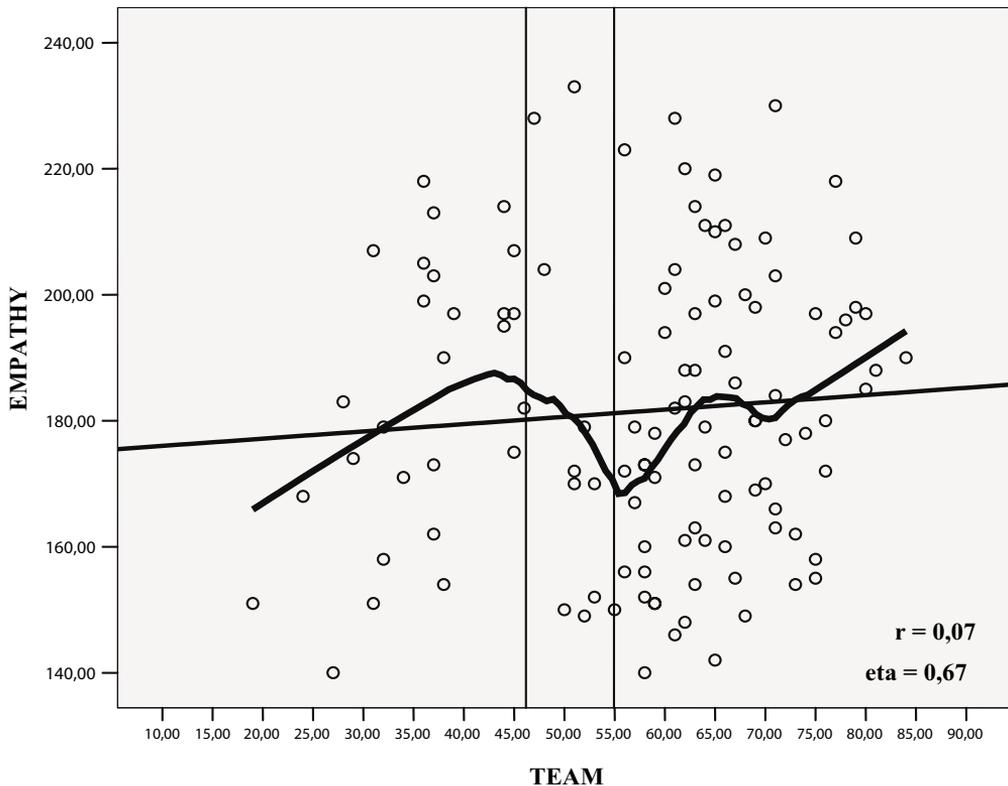
METHODS

The level of emotional empathy in this study was measured by Mehrabian's (1996) Balanced Emotional Empathy Scale – BEES, an updated version of Mehrabian and Epstein's (1972) scale, the Emotional Empathic Tendency Scale (EETS). The scale consists of 30 items – 15 positively-worded and 15 negatively-worded. A 9-point response scale was used. For Bulgarian conditions this questionnaire was adapted by Elena Paspalanova and has excellent internal consistency reliability ($\alpha = .87$) (Paspalanova & Lubenova, in press).

Teams and their effectiveness were evaluated with the questionnaire of Sava Djonev "Is your group a team?". The scale consists of 21 items. The scale is unidimensional, but each item can be measured and analyzed separately as well, because it refers to distinct characteristic of team, important for its success. Items relate to such aspect of teams like organization, task alignment, communication, integration, positive thinking, common goals, participation, initiative, trust, equality, responsibility, professionalism, team spirit, rationality, team roles, self-realization, conflict management, norms, motivation, leadership and effectiveness. All these aspects are main components of successful teams. Answers were fixed on a 4-point scale. The questionnaire has excellent internal consistency reliability (Djonev, 2005).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Interestingly, on the first glance, there was no significant relationship between empathy and team effectiveness ($r = 0,07$, $p > 0,05$). That's why a graphic representation of correlation analysis was deeply explored to have a more profound look. A Scatter Dot with the Loess model with 40% points to fit was carried out. Two subjects in the sample were removed from further correlation analyses, because they were outliers, having an extra large effect on the estimated coefficients. Graph 1 illustrates the relation between employees empathy and team effectiveness.



GRAPH 1. CORRELATION BETWEEN EMPATHY AND TEAM EFFECTIVENESS

Of interest on the graph was the double increase of the curve. The curve was raising, but after the first peak there was a decrease, followed by a new growth. On the base of these findings the sample was divided into three groups. In the first group ($n=27$) the level of team effectiveness was low as a whole. In the second group ($n=10$) the effectiveness had an average value and the third group ($n=80$) was characterized by high team effectiveness.

Observing the curve, in the first and the third group empathy increase was related to team effectiveness enhancement. In the second group however the increasing of effectiveness was accompanied by decreasing of empathy. Correlation analyses were carried out separately for each of these three subsamples. Results are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1. CORRELATION BETWEEN EMPATHY AND TEAM EFFECTIVENESS IN THE THREE SUBSAMPLES

Team effectiveness	Empathy
Team effectiveness (n=117)	,073 p=,435
Team effectiveness in the 1-st group with low scores (n=27)	,523 **
Team effectiveness in the 2-nd group with average scores (n=10)	-,616 p=,058
Team effectiveness in the 3-rd group with high scores (n=80)	,220 *

** p<0,01; *p<0,05

In the subsamples with low and high team effectiveness positive significant correlations between empathy and team success were found. This association was considerably stronger in the first group where team effectiveness scores varied from low to average ($r = 0,523$, $p = 0,005$). Therefore, team effectiveness is improving with increasing of empathy level and vice versa. In the subsample distinguished by an average degree of team effectiveness a negative correlation between empathy and effectiveness of teams were obtained. The size of this relationship was strong, but non-significant ($r = -,616$, $p = 0,058$), most likely because of the small number of the sample – only 10 subjects. Nevertheless, a strong tendency of negative relation between both variables was found in this special case. People in this group worked good as a team to some extent, in spite of the decreasing level of empathy.

These interesting and contradictory results suggested that between empathy of employees and perceived effectiveness of their teams existed a non-linear correlation. This assumption was confirmed by eta coefficient – $\eta = 0,67$. Thus, the main conclusion is that between empathy and team effectiveness there is a more complicated relationship, mediated by other additional factors.

One possible explanation of this non-linear association of empathy with the perception of work group as a team can be the theory of Tuckman & Jensen (1977) about stages of team development. Groups have to run a long way to become real effective teams. They go through different stages and each stage has its specific tasks and problems. According to this theory each group passes through 5 stages: forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning. Stages, without the last

one, can be repeated over time. In general each team has to concentrate on two things: goal accomplishment and social relations and it is important to find a balance between both orientation. In the first three stages according to Tuckman this balance is destroyed and as a result team effectiveness is low. During the forming stage team members do not know each other well, so their first task is orientation. They demonstrate good behavior, try to become familiar, but do not have enough information about goals, roles and teamworks. In this stage the efforts are focused on the relationship and effectiveness is low. Storming is the most difficult stage when conflicts and disagreements about roles and power emerged. Then the ability to perceive and understand another's view point and feelings decreases and achievement of tasks is low. During the norming stage the situation is gradually improving. Trust and collaboration is developed and team has established norms and procedures, which help people to work together. The performing stage is the most productive and effective period when the balance is established: team members have learnt to respect each other and to work together that allows them to devote to their tasks. In some cases however stage theory cannot be applied. For example in some project teams with temporary character where members do not have enough time to go through all stages people give priority to goal achievement over development of social skills and relations. Then empathetic ability remains on the second place. So, empathy per se is not sufficient predictor of team effectiveness. There are teams with very good relationship, but low effectiveness and vice versa depending of various internal and external conditions.

The different correlations between empathy and team effectiveness established in the three subsamples in the present study most likely reflect different stages of development of examined teams. Teams in the first subsample probably are in their forming or norming stage where the strong emphasize on social relations facilitates to some extent task performance.

The negative correlation between empathy and team effectiveness in the second subsample indicates that these members do not evaluate the teamwork in its complexity. For some of them the team is not valuable as a social unit, but only as an instrument for work. For others work in teams is associated only with good relations and harmony at the expense of goal and tasks attainment. It's possible also that these members experience a transitional period of development of their teams requiring adaptation and formation of new skills and rules. The negative tendency between both variables may due to misunderstanding of the term „team and team work“.

In the third subsample levels of empathy and team work are high which reflect the performing stage where people put an accent on relationship and work results.

Independent-Samples T-test was used to analyze mean differences between gender.

TABLE 2. GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE TOTAL SCALES OF EMPATHY AND TEAM EFFECTIVENESS

	Men (N=48)		Women (N=71)		Mean Difference	t	P
	M	SD	M	SD			
Team effectiveness	58.0833	14.03466	57.7183	15.10646	,36	0,133	0,89
Empathy	167.8958	19.71201	189.0141	23.31369	- 21,11	-5,15	0,000

Significant gender differences were found only in empathy. Women scored higher on empathy scale than did men. This result corresponds to findings in other studies (Caruso, Mayer, 1998). Differences in the ability to empathize and evaluated team effectiveness between managers and employees were not obtained.

Significant differences for the total scales of empathy and team effectiveness between participants from public and private organizations were not found, but differences in some items of team effectiveness scale were established. Each item can be measured and analyzed separately, because it refers to distinct aspects and components of teams. Results are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE ORGANIZATIONS IN SOME ASPECTS OF TEAM EFFECTIVENESS

Aspects of team effectiveness	Public organizations (N=34)		Private organizations (N=83)		Mean Difference	t	P
	M	SD	M	SD			
Organization (Item 1)	2.5294	.89562	2.9759	.78049	.44649	2.690	.008
Task alignment (Item 2)	2.2941	1.00089	2.8916	.88362	.59745	3.193	.002
Integration (Item 4)	2.3529	1.04105	2.8554	.97696	.50248	2.478	.015
Conflict management (Item 17)	2.7647	.92307	3.1446	.93877	.37987	1.997	.048
Norms (Item 18)	2.8529	.92548	3.1566	.78836	.30369	1.797	.075
Motivation (Item 19)	2.5294	.86112	2.8916	.89731	.36215	2.005	.047
Team culture and team effectiveness (Item 21)	2.4706	.74814	2.7952	.98475	.32459	1.788	.087

It is obvious that the public organization studied in the present paper have some problems in the process of teamwork. Team members from this organization, in comparison with subjects from private companies, scored lower on such

team aspects like organization of groups, balanced task alignment, integration with others, dealing with conflicts and motivation. These differences were significant. They also reported that in their teams norms were not clear enough and were not convinced that their groups had team culture and worked as effective teams. Differences in last two components were non-significant, but they indicated a tendency. These results can be explained by the fact that this particular public organization is an old, big company with huge size and divisions in many towns in Bulgaria. It has a bureaucratic structure and organizational culture which make difficult the acceptance of various components of teams and application of teamwork as more effective way for doing the job. Some people resist the new norms and values that team as a structure unit is distinguished for.

Age and length of service did not correlate with the total scales of empathy and team effectiveness in the whole sample in this study. However length of service in the work place related weakly, but significantly with two aspects of team effectiveness: communication ($r = .195$, $p = .036$) and team roles ($r = .212$, $p = .022$). The relationship is positive, thus the longer work experience allows people to communicate more effectively and openly with their colleagues and to make their mutual role expectations clearer, most likely because they have already known each other better and are well acquainted with the tasks.

Deeper analyses were carried out about eventual changes in empathy and team effectiveness with age and length of service of employees. Correlations of the total scales of empathy and team effectiveness with age were examined separately for subjects from 18 to 33 years old ($n = 78$), and for subjects above 33 years of age. In the first group was established that age was related weakly and negatively to empathy ($r = -.265$, $p = .019$) and team effectiveness ($r = -.212$, $p = .062$). For the subjects above 33 years of age the correlations of empathy and team effectiveness with age were not obtained.

The same procedure was conducted to study the relationship of both variables with length of service. When the whole sample was divided into two groups according to work experience (subjects up to 5 years, $n = 85$, and subjects above 5 years, $n = 31$), a negative low correlation between empathy and length of service was found for subjects with work experience to 5 years in the organizations ($r = -.227$, $p = .037$, $n = 85$). In the sample with work experience more than 5 years relationship was not established.

These results are very interesting and overlapped to some extent, because subjects from 18 to 33 years old most probably have work experience about 5 years and obviously by the results in this sample with the increasing of age and length of service the level of empathy and team effectiveness slightly decreases in the sample of young or new employees. May be in the beginning during the socialization and adjustment process to the new work context people are more emotionally sensitive and responsive to others, because they try to develop social

relationships and to make good impression. Thus, in this early career stage they are more orientated to others. In the course of time newcomers switch over to their own interests, goals and self-realization in work. Beside this at the beginning of career development in the concrete place people are more enthusiastic and have higher expectations, but later they are may be a little bit disappointed with the reality, burned out or reach to the so-called plateau in their work performance.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study confirmed the assumption that empathy of employees was related to the way they perceived their work teams and team effectiveness. A non-linear correlation between empathy and team effectiveness was found, which means that they are more complicated related and in some cases their relationship is mediated by other additional factors.

Significant gender differences in empathy were obtained as women were more empathetic than men. Teams in public organization compared to private organizations had some difficulties with several aspects of team effectiveness such as organization, task alignment, integration, conflict management and motivation.

Changes in empathy level and team effectiveness with age and length of service of employees were found. Age related weakly and negatively to empathy and team effectiveness for subjects from 18 to 33 years old. Work experience correlated negatively with empathy only for subjects with length of service to 5 years.

Understanding other people's view point and emotions, application of this ability in team works and team effectiveness are the new challenges to successful management, because they are components of change management. This requires deepen investigation of both constructs empathy and team effectiveness and study of their interaction.

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GENDER-RELATED ASPECTS OF MANAGERS' COMPETENCE TO COOPERATE WITH EMPLOYEES IN CONFLICTS

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Abstract. *Gender-related aspects of managers' competence to cooperate with employees in conflicts are analyzed and an idea of managers' psychological readiness for interaction in conditions of conflict is based in the article. Peculiarities and conflict situation perception by education managers of different genders (cognitive component) is researched. Differences in levels of anxiety, frustration, aggression and rigidity among women-managers and men-managers are defined.*

Keywords: *manager, psychological readiness, interaction in conditions of conflict, gender differences.*

INTRODUCTION

At the present stage of reforming vocational education ideas of managers' personality-oriented technology training acquire a large practical significance. In the innovation-reflexive [3], protectively active [6] and conflict-oriented [1] approaches that are increasingly used in the training of administrative staff, crucial topicality gains study of gender managers' psychological readiness aspects to interact with personnel in a conflict.

Psychological manager's readiness to interact with personnel under conditions of conflict means a stable system psychological formation in the structure of the specialist personality which ensures effective implementation of administrative activities in a "potential" and "real" conflict.

The structure of this implementation consists of three interrelated and interdependent components: a) *cognitive* – set of conflict knowledge required to adequate determination of the perception and understanding of interaction as conflict one b) *operational* – set of conflict skills and providing an effective solution of conflict situations, and c) *personal* – a set of constructive conflict qualities of professional that affects the nature of his conflict-competent behavior, contributes to the development of constructive conflict positions.

Present-day stage of reformation of the system of personality and technology-oriented training in the system of professional training have gained great importance.

Research Tasks

- To research peculiarities of conflict skills among men and women.
- To research peculiarities and conflict situation perception by education managers of different genders (cognitive component).
- To define differences of value orientation among education women-managers and men-managers.
- To define differences in levels of anxiety, frustration, aggression and rigidity among women-managers and men-managers.

METHOD

The research has been conducted on 361 subjects (education managers from educational establishments of different levels of accreditation) using the method of *A. Tascheva Interpersonal Perception In Conflict Situations* and *O. Yershov Managers' Value Orientations In Business Interactions*.

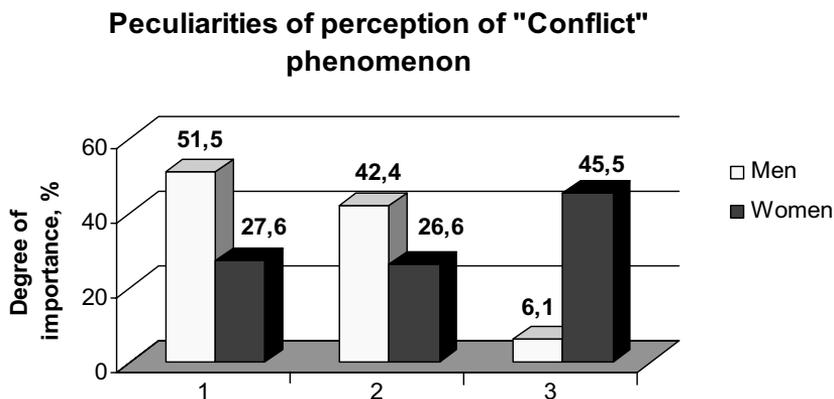
RESULTS

Task 1.

Education women and men managers tend to perceive the situation and importance of conflict for management activity differently. On the level of cognitive component (conflict skills) it has been stated that according to the level of conflict knowledge women-managers are ahead of men-managers ($p < 0,05$).

Task 2.

As the research data show most men managers (51.5%) perceive the conflict as physical aggression (outer side of display), when most women-managers (45.5%) identify this phenomenon on the level of psychological incompatibility (inner side of display) (see Picture 1).



PICTURE 1. DEPENDENCE OF PHENOMENON «CONFLICT» PERCEPTION BY MANAGERS ACCORDING TO GENDER

(1 – «Conflict as physical aggression»; 2 – «conflict as verbal aggression»; 3 – «conflict as psychological incompatibility»)

Under indicators of *operational component* of the psychological readiness of managers of education to interact under conditions of conflict such as: conflict skills and behavior strategy in a conflict situations, statistically significant differences relatively to gender were not found.

Accordingly, we can draw the following *conclusions*:

- 1) factor of educational managers' gender does not determine the level of specialist's conflict skills,
- 2) factor of gender significantly affects the choice of behavior strategy in the conflict. However the results of some foreign and Ukrainian researches, accordingly to those men managers are mostly inclined to use power techniques in conflict management, while women managers are oriented on compromise and cooperation, did not find experimental confirmation in our study.

Tasks 3.

Men tend to be more «self-orientated in comparison to women (45.5% for men and 32.5 % for women) as well as «official subordination» – orientated (30.3 % for men and 18.1 % for women).

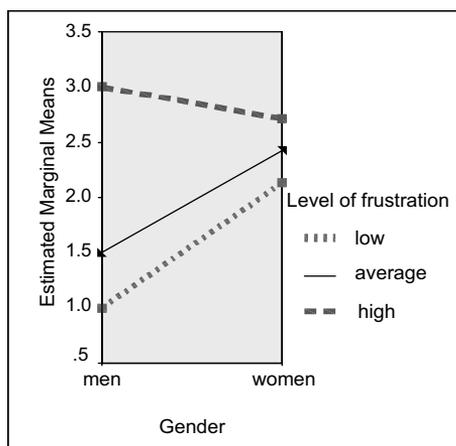
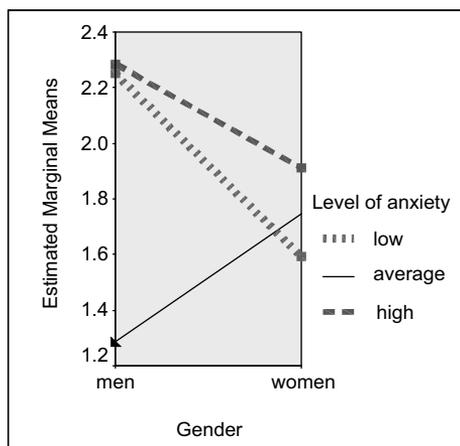
While women tend to be more «public interest» – orientated (40.5 % for women and 24.25 % for men) and «attitude-towards-subordinate» – orientated (8.9 % for women and 0.0 % for men) (See Table 1).

TABLE 1. INTERCONNECTION BETWEEN PERSONAL COMPONENT INDICATORS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL READINESS OF MANAGERS FOR INTERACTION IN CONDITIONS OF CONFLICT AND GENDER(% OF GENERAL NUMBER OF SUBJECTS)

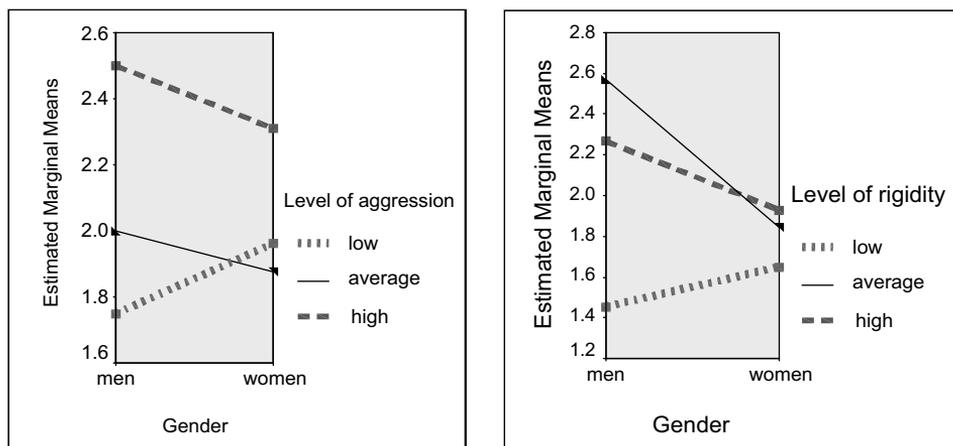
Personal component of psychological readiness for interaction in conditions of conflict	Interconnection between skill level of personal component indicators and gender (% of general number of subjects)							
	Women				Men			
	«public interest»-orientated	«attitude-to-subordinate»-orientated	«self»-orientated	«official subordination»-orientated	«public interest»-orientated	«attitude-to-subordinate»-orientated	«self»-orientated	«official subordination»-orientated
Value orientation in problem situation	40,5*	8,9*	32,5*	18,1	24,2*	0,0*	45,5*	30,3*
* – p < 0,01; ** – p < 0,05.								

Task 4.

Statistically significant differences (p < 0,05, p < 0,01) have been found immediately between indicators of anxiety, frustration, aggression and rigidity levels among education women-managers and men-managers (see Pictures 2.1–2.2 and Pictures 2.3–2.4).



PICTURES 2.1–2.2. CORRELATION BETWEEN LEVELS OF ANXIETY AND FRUSTRATION OF EDUCATION MANAGERS ACCORDING TO GENDER



PICTURES 2.3–2.4. CORRELATION BETWEEN LEVELS OF AGGRESSION AND RIGIDITY LEVELS OF EDUCATION MANAGERS ACCORDING TO GENDER

CONCLUSION

Analyzing the data, we can say that the level of anxiety and level of frustration of men managers of education is somewhat lower than in women managers of education, while the level of aggressiveness and rigidity are the opposite. The difference between the abovementioned indicators in men and women could be explained by the fact that the behavioral responses of men in a conflict situation, from our point of view, can be characterized as *“rational and manipulative”*: they are more independent, emotionally restrained, persistent, authoritarian, indicators of their will-power, self-control, aggression are stronger. Male leaders in dealing with subordinates are more formal, oriented on subordination, their self-estimation depends on their professional activity, it is more stable and, in whole, higher than in women. At the same time women, from our point of view, in a conflict situation use *“emotionally-empathic”* style: they are more extroversive, active, empathize, emotionally open; indicators of mutual understanding and care are more intense. Women’s leadership style is more flexible: women tend to involve juniors in common management activities, supporting their sense of self-value.

Received results prove necessity of development and application of a special training course in the system of managers’ professional training that would enhance their competence in interacting with subordinates in conflict management.

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DIVERSITY ICEBREAKER: DEVELOPING SHARED UNDERSTANDING OF COOPERATION

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Abstract. *Diversity Icebreaker (DI) is a psychological test of personality and preferences for communication and thinking styles (Ekelund & Langvik, 2008). When DI is used in seminars it leads to a stronger focus on involvement, language and collective reflection than is normal compared to traditional tools like Belbin and MBTI. This involvement process includes a social construction of the categories used for personal interaction. Seminars of this type have been documented having a positive effect on interaction. In this paper we draw on theoretical perspectives from drama / theatre, epistemology and political theory in order to more precisely describe five different stages in the DI seminar. At the end we see that the accompanying process promotes collective learning and empowerment among participants. Theoretically, we point at how this establishes a potential position leaving the dilemma between modernism and post-modernism behind; we suggest taking a post post-modern position. We show the relevance of this DI concept and seminar in relation to cross-cultural training*

Keywords: *diversity; icebreaker; cooperation; reflection; culture.*

INTRODUCTION

Diversity Icebreaker (DI) builds on a model of categorising persons in three different preferences for communication and interaction. The concept of these three

categories was first developed by Ekelund (1997) primarily for market communication and effective communication strategies in consultation for changed consumer behaviour. The three core types are labelled by assumingly neutral colours – Red, Blue and Green. The Red role preference is characterized by a relational focus, personal involvement and a social perspective; the Blue role is identified by a focus on structure and task, with a logical perspective; while the Green role is recognized by a focus on change, vision and ideas.

In 1998 the first questionnaire identifying individual propensity to either role was made. It has been revised a few times, and today the questionnaire has 42 statements that are rated in an ipsative form. The Red, Blue and Green dimensions have demonstrated good internal reliability, with Cronbach Alpha levels of .82, .81, and .75 respectively (Langvik, 2006). A Likert scale organized survey done in 2008 with shows about the same reliability (.80, .83, and .75), indicating that the ipsative form does not inflate the internal reliability (Langvik, 2009). Validation of the questionnaire has been done in relation to different psychological concepts reported in an edited book by Ekelund & Langvik (2008).

In this article we will primarily address the unique qualities in the use of the questionnaire in seminars. A qualitative analysis of expert users' experiences (consultants) carried out by a team of researchers, ended up in the identification of six categories of the impact of the DI seminars (Ekelund, Langvik & Nordgård, 2008). Participants perceive it as a tool which

- is user friendly and draws upon intuitive categories;
- evokes positive emotions;
- elicits new language and creates shared understanding about managing diversity;
- illustrates dynamic polarisation in-between groups;
- creates self-, other- and team knowledge; and
- organises and facilitates cooperation.

These conclusions point to effects which go far beyond self-understanding and recognising individual preferences for interaction. In order to understand the dynamics of the seminar and the effect it produces on both the individual and organisations, we present perspectives derived from traditions outside the psychological theories. More precisely we explore theoretical perspectives from drama / theatre (spectator – actor), epistemology (paradigms – justifications), and political theory (authority – power). Here, for the first time, we spell out the application of these theoretical traditions in relation to the DI. Further, we present a social reconstruction of the seminar processes and believe that it will help evaluate and develop these seminars in the future.

METHODS

We introduce the DI seminar as a process unfolding in five stages. We apply concepts from three different traditions – drama / theatre, epistemology and political theory. In drama / theatre we focus on the dividing line between stage and hall, and on the cooperation between the actor, in this case the instructor (trainer) of the DI, and the participants. There are many different dramaturgical models and we have used elements from classic Aristotelian dramaturgy, from epic dramaturgy – the way Brecht used it, and the dramaturgy that Boal created with his Forum Theatre (Engelstad, 2004). Epistemology is about the study of knowledge and justification of beliefs (Dancy, 1985). Political theory is about ideas of how people should interact, how nations should be set up, and how interactions between nations should be regulated (McKinnon, 2008). In the context of the DI seminar, we introduce the idea of interactions between people being regulated through applying authority both through the trainer, due to their role as instructor, and through the expert knowledge of the seminar concepts.

PRESENTATION

The **first stage** of the seminar is setting the scene. Often this is done by the trainers saying,

We are gathered here to promote a better cooperation in between participants. A basic premise for good communication is that we need to understand our selves, and the other, and how the other perceives us. Then we can choose words and statements that will function well in the communication. In order to help in this self- and other- understanding psychologists have developed a questionnaire on different preferences for communication. We would like you to fill this out.

From a drama perspective the trainer sets the scene and the participants take part through attending to the instructions. In some way they are spectators, even if they are not just sitting there and listening. They are instruments for the trainer, and some kind of objects to the result of the test.

From an epistemological view we apply a classical test psychological model based upon a natural scientific paradigm. The participants expect to receive new insights of themselves through the lens of objective personality tests.

From a political theoretical perspective the trainer leads the process through his / her authority implied in his / her role, and also due to expectations that s/he has expert tools that can bring better understanding. The trainer shows authority through being the conductor / instructor, as well as through the expertise which is integrated in the questionnaire itself.

Then the candidates fill in the Diversity Icebreaker questionnaire. The participants self-administer the scoring immediately and figure out what their score

is in each preference, named in the three different colours: Red, Blue and Green. Since the preferences and colours have not been explained or defined, the results are meaningless. And the candidates ask questions like *What do the results like 38 Blue, 20 Red and 36 Green really mean?* The quest and motivation for self-understanding is driving the curiosity of the participants.

The second stage starts with splitting the participants in three evenly numbered groups, based upon their most dominant colour, relative to the general characteristics of the group, as they arise from the results. When the groups are set, participants are given two questions to answer, *What are the good qualities of your own colour in interaction with others?* and *What are the qualities of the two other colour groups in interactions they have with each of the other groups?* Each group lists characteristics on flip chart paper, and when the good sides of their own colour are presented, some of the participants raise the issue of putting down negative descriptions, too. This sometimes leads to a discussion of what are the good and the bad ways of representing oneself to the other. This continues as they write down the qualities of the other colour groups. Participants often feel amused and slightly embarrassed when they suggest negative characteristics for the others. The forming of a distinct in-group and out-group feeling is very typical.

From a drama perspective we can see here that the participants have shifted positions from being an object of study to being involved as actors in the seminar. From spectators in the beginning, they become actors, or as Boal would have said it “Spect-Actors”, a synthesis of spectator and actor (Engelstad, 2004).

From an epistemological perspective the group creates the meaning of each label. Our experience is that this social construction of the meaning of labels is based on at least three different types of sources, namely, the statements in the questionnaire and its paradigmatic foundation in a modernistic science oriented psychology, the participants’ earlier experiences, and at last the interactive discussion within the group. It is this interactive process of the social construction of meaningful categories, the experience of its effect on perceptions, and the development of obvious prejudiced perspectives on Red, Blue and Green that makes this stage an exciting mini-replication of language development, cultural stereotypes, and possible cross-cultural clashes.

From a political theory perspective, the trainer is still leading the process. But, through posing questions to the groups, s/he lets the group take responsibility for providing the answers. Positive interaction and self-enhancement create energy and viability within the group. It is willing to act together with extra power – the type of power we can see in aligned and motivated groups.

When groups have finished their tasks, we move on to the **third stage** when the trainer asks each group to present its characteristics to all the other groups. The trainer also explains that this is an important part of learning about ‘the

other' as well as about seeing the difference between personal identity versus social identity. Participants become aware of how the concepts of Red, Blue and Green are perceived both from an insider, and an outsider perspective. They experience a feeling of cohesion within the in-group, and how easy and fun it is to be together with people who are similar. This is contrasted to the ideas they have developed of the others, and their fantasies of how difficult interacting with them could be.

From a drama perspective this moment of revealing what one has written about one self, and about the others is the climax of the process. While the first stage is marked by frustration because the questionnaire results are seen as meaningless, the second stage involves a social construction of the meaning of the categories. It becomes easily obvious that descriptions of self are positive, while descriptions of others bear quite a number of negative connotations. The participants understand that this is influenced by their own pride of themselves, as well as by their willingness to highlight an outsider perspective on the other groups. They are all put in a position where they feel that they might have acted unfair, and for this reason have become vulnerable to criticism. They have to suppress their thoughts and feelings. This is the modern way of oppression as Boal would articulate it. They are excited to find out how others will react to what they have in store for them. Through revealing information across the groups they develop a shared understanding that all the groups have been through the same process. This creates a kind of shared humoristic perspective of self-enhancement and prejudice. The sharing of experience, including the sense of being vulnerable and dependent on others, creates a positive feeling of trust between the participants and across the groups. Together they have worked through their own oppression and experienced a collective freedom to express their work and see that being different is acknowledged.

From an epistemological perspective we are now in the situation where views are presented from outside and inside the groups without any claim on objective truths. There are only different ways of seeing – all evenly valid. This leads to a situation where different perspectives become negotiable and interactions develop further, either in a positive, or in a negative way.

From a political theory position we see a situation where different perspectives of Red, Blue and Green are presented. We observe a political process where the meaning of categories changes through conflict, agreement, and recognition. The need for reconciliation leads to a collective reflection on learning points and how conflict could be resolved. These are the main issues which emerge in stage four.

The **fourth stage** is a learning process which we initiate by asking the participants to take a look from the outside. The question which triggers it off is *What has been going on and what have you learned from the time you started filling in*

the questionnaire until what you have now said and heard? The answers to this question are, for example, *It is nice to be working among equas. There are some significant consequences of labeling each other. This process has created conflicts between the groups. Isn't it strange that it is so easy for me to act and identify myself with Blue, even though I am predominately Red really? We need all colours when we work together. It is OK to be Red if the others acknowledge this as a positive quality in our interaction.* All these comments are then acknowledged by the trainer and discussed with regard to the goals and objectives of the training session. Among the significant outcomes of this stage is a realisation that differences, surfacing through interaction with others, create in-group vs. out group dynamic, growth of prejudices and stereotyping, polarisation, and identity challenges. On the positive side, a shared understanding emerges that we can all benefit from each other as long as individual qualities are positively acknowledged and utilised in the interaction.

From a drama perspective this stage is a 'work-through' process, or a cognitive debriefing, among participants who have ultimately become actors in the seminar. They have experienced a growing tension resulting from the movement of individuals from objects of study in the first stage (finding out personal qualities through a questionnaire) to subjects and actors who attribute meaning to the labels. Gradually the groups become polarised, reveal own work, and interact with the other groups, until a climax point is reached. Following such a process of polarised tension and cognitively skewed perceptions, the process of collective reflection in stage four constitutes a relief, a shared reconciliation, and a positive end to the continual surprises. The underlying question *What have you learnt?* brings value to the meanings formulated in the actors' perspectives, emphasising the right of the actors to build upon their own experience and formulate general knowledge at group level.

From an epistemological perspective this is a position where we ask participants to look upon themselves from an outsider perspective. This position is described in a variety of ways: by Løvlie (1983), as a reflective position where the Self is developing, by Argyris (1988), as a learning process, and by West (2000), as reflexivity in teams. Further, the concepts of mindfulness and meta-cognition in the relatively new tradition of cultural intelligence suggest similar processes too (Early & Ang, 2003, Thomas & Inkson, 2009, Thomas et al, 2008). Thomas and Inkson, in their description of cultural intelligence, define meta-cognition as consisting of both seeing, monitoring and acting flexible. The fourth stage relates only to the first two components of cultural intelligence, seeing and monitoring. In order to work with the behavioural consequences of being culturally intelligent we need to go to the fifth stage.

From a political theory perspective we have moved into a reflective debate or dialog format. Discussions about how to perceive the world and, consequently,

implications of how to act develop. A forum for dialogue is established. But there are also elements of evenness in this process that make it easier for non-dominant persons, positions, and perspectives to be voiced and listened to. Why is it so? First, the even number of participants in each group representing Red, Blue and Green, makes a symbolic manifestation of equal strength. Second, the drama process where everybody has shared the same experience and laughed at their own prejudices enhances a spirit of self-reflection and humbleness. Third, a stage is reached whereby all agree that all colours are needed, as long as we have a shared positive understanding of how, when, and to what purpose each should contribute. These three perspectives seem to evoke an egalitarian dialogue which we often see unfolding in these seminars.

The **fifth stage** is focused on developing ideas about what to do tomorrow. This is a salient follow-up of the understanding of the social construction of the categories. It can be applied if a trainer has a group and a consultation task to help develop the collective group into a self-managed group. For example, in a reconciliation process between two conflicting parties a fifth stage like this can be nurtured by questions like, *What social constructs have in a dysfunctional way influenced our interaction? How can we build a shared platform for understanding and new social constructs that works better, brings more beauty and contributes to a better understanding of our world? What are the more functional ways of interacting? What are the plans for tomorrow?* Thus the participants are more likely to take control of how to define the world, what language to use, and how to act in the days to come.

From a drama perspective we can see the dramaturgy in the DI as the beginning of a story where the participants / spectators are excited to figure out what the test will tell them and what the psychologist will say. It is like the touch of a play in an Aristotelian way. When they have done the test they have the answer and try to analyse it. The trainer urges them to be active, the way Brecht wanted his audience. Even if they did not talk in the theatre, the idea was to make them reflective. This is achieved through the participants sharing their thoughts and feelings across all the groups. This part leads to a 'demand' or vision for them to act differently in their real lives and jobs. There also emerges a sense of freedom from their own oppression – due to a lack of knowledge and / or lack of strategies of how to look at themselves or other people. According to the theories of drama we then leave the fiction, and enact initiatives into the outer world. We have staged a process whereby participants have been open about their concerns, taken charge of their own perceptions, established shared understandings, and created a powerful collective group.

From an epistemological perspective the action leads to new experience, which then transforms into learning and social reconstruction. Constructs become revised and new questions are put forward.

From a political point of view the participants take responsibility for formulating categories and planning action. In a way, they have taken control of the categorical system applied in their interaction, described it, shared their understandings, and thus empowered the group into self-managed actions. If we assume that the power to define the world comes from historical heritage anchored in our language and the norms by which we are brought up (Mead, 1934), that the organizational power of dominant leaders and organizational units sets the norms for ways of thinking and acting (Alvesson, 1996), and that some of the constituent parts in the DI seminar have in a negative way dominated the interaction, the opportunity then lies there for leaving this behind and move on with shared mental models.

DISCUSSION

The drama perspective has punctuated the DI seminar into five different stages. Each of these has different systemic components but the sequencing is important. The participants move positions from being objects of study to becoming actors in the drama and fiction, but potentially end up as actors within a group of people in the real world. Fiction is left behind but the drama is still relevant. This is in line with what modern theatre, for example Boal, would prescribe. In our view the concepts from drama confirm the applicability of what originally starts as personal learning about personal preferences for communication. The process description of the seminar clearly shows that both cognitive and emotional components are triggered in different stages, and that behavioral interaction in and between groups is tightly linked to cognition and affect. The triple components in the seminars are seen as essential contributors to promoting change and action.

From an epistemological perspective the DI seminars start with setting the scene with a classical personality and preference test, a paradigm from classical test theory, inspired by natural science objectivity. Such a concept belongs to a traditional modern idea of psychological knowledge – that you can measure individual qualities based upon self report with questionnaires of proven reliability and validity. When the questionnaire itself results in meaningless answers, and the participants are probed to formulate ideas themselves, the process turns into a social construction of categories for interaction. The climax comes at the point where the sharing of work across the groups is felt as a joint relief resulting from differently positioned, but shared experiences, ending in a self-reflective and collective laughter and cohesion. The laughter, and its imperative effect with emotions, cognition and behavior, illustrates one of the reasons for stretching into the field of drama and theories of humor, namely, to understand the positive and profound effect of the seminars.

From a political point of view the process starts with the trainer as the man / woman in power, that uses both role and expertise to map participant's prefer-

ences. However, the expertise position is not fulfilled, and processes of participant involvement take over. Gradually the trainer leads the groups to a zone of social dynamics where labeling takes a central position. Conflicts and negotiations of categorisation follow as the seminar develops a different focus, almost as if it were a post-modern discussion. Self- and collective reflection leave the differences of modernity and post-modernity behind, by focusing on the freedom to build on both traditions, when decisions are made on how to define the world and what to do. Epistemology becomes a politically discussed phenomenon for the actors involved. The drama terminology brings in power and liberation as politically important values. Drama and epistemology perspectives enable participants to take freedom in their own self management and for what they decide to do in the future. In such settings we train people to take definition control in the tradition of emancipation from Marx and Freud, but not with capitalists or neurosis as controlling institutions, but with the power to define the world of social interaction.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TRAINING OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE

The field of diversity management and training has been dominated by a paradigm in which the most important sources of diversity are considered to be demographic characteristics, and race and gender are of primary concern (Milliken & Martins, 1996; Jackson, Joshi & Erhardt, 2003; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). In our view, in international business contexts deep-level sources of diversity are more salient than demographic characteristics, and the goals for diversity management are efficiency and innovation of performance, and ultimately the empowerment and autonomy of individuals and groups.

The latest development of concepts for training in the cross-cultural area is the concept of cultural intelligence (Earley & Ang, 2003; Thomas & Inkson, 2009; Triandis, 2006). Central components in these models are relational skills, tolerance for uncertainty, adaptability, empathy, perceptual acuity, meta-cognition, suspended judgment, and seeking information to understand situations with greater precision. Both Earley & Ang (2003), as well as the research group on cultural intelligence led by Thomas (Thomas et al, 2008), have focused on meta-cognition. Some components in the DI seminar have a potential pedagogical effect in cross-cultural training due to similarities with ideas from the cultural learning field. We are listing some of these below.

First – the concept of culture. Culture, as well as Red, Blue, and Green, have unconscious components that constitute behavior, identity and emotions (Schein, 1983).

Second – the idea of cultural dimensions. In cross-cultural interaction training the use of cultural dimensions is relatively common (Bird et al, 2000). Red,

Blue, and Green have similar qualities in the way that they simplify the variety into a manageable amount of categories to be used across situations. The effect of categorisation, as well as the prejudices and polarisation between groups in stage three of the seminar resonates with real cross-cultural clashes.

Third – the promotion of individual and collective reflection. The meta-cognitive component highlighted in the concept of *cultural intelligence* is applied systematically in the fourth stage of the DI seminar.

Fourth – the idea that everyone should be acknowledged. Marginalisation and discrimination present a global challenge in cross-cultural interaction and diversity management in general, is (Bell, 2007). The collective qualities of the seminar lead to a shared understanding that we all need and deserve to be acknowledged. This is also a philosophical normative position important to take in our globalising world (Honneth, 1995). It sets the standard for action planning in stage five of the seminar.

Fifth – the humoristic and positive affective experience. In our experience, the humoristic part described in stage three of the seminar, combined with a shared understanding of how diversity should be managed in stage four and five, creates a safer psychological climate concerning individual misjudgements, shortcomings, prejudices, fears, and anxieties – all important components of becoming a more culturally intelligent person (Ekelund & Maznevski, 2008).

In the area of cultural intelligence training, Early & Peterson (2004) have voiced a wish for more pedagogical use of drama in order to facilitate learning. DI seminars are staged in this way. It is our view that the use of perspectives from drama, epistemology and political theory combined with a five-stage description of the DI seminar will promote a more relevant and precise formulation of goals for cross-cultural training. Such goals are important premises for further evaluation and research of the use of Diversity Icebreaker in cross-cultural training.

CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we have presented the concept of Diversity Icebreaker as it is used in seminars. We have chosen to present perspectives from three different theoretical traditions – drama, epistemology, and political theory – to see how these concepts create meaning as to how the participants experience and learn from the seminar. We have also pointed at similarities with concepts of culture and some of the challenges in cross-cultural management training. We think that there is a huge potential for use of the DI seminar in this context. The ideas formulated in this paper have implications for evaluation and research on the DI seminar when used in cross-cultural training.

We think that the different epistemological perspectives enable the participants to pull learning together both from a modernistic view of science (stage one

and two) as well as from a post-modern view (stage three). The meta-cognitive parts (stage four) and the discussions of what to do in the future (stage five) invite the participants to take an active position on how to understand social interaction and what to do tomorrow. The freedom to decide is an interesting position to take due to the classical opposition between modernistic and post-modernistic view. Is it possible to call this position a post post-modern position? Is it possible that we, as practitioners in these training and development sessions, can take an ethical position, act accountable, and leave behind the dilemma between these opposing academic views? The ability to formulate such questions is a consequence of integrating these three different traditions and perspectives. Science develops when new questions are posed.

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SPECIFICS OF A SELECTION OF THE UNEMPLOYED FOR ENTREPRENEURSHIP RETRAINING

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***Abstract.** Unemployment is an economical, social and psychological problem. Any society can make easier realization of its potential through solving the problem of unemployment. On the other hand economical growth depends on development of entrepreneurship in a state. Training the unemployed for the entrepreneurship seems like one of the most rational ways for achievement the goal of social prosperity. Psychological state of jobless people can cause some inexactitudes in diagnostic results and as an aftermath – wrong decision on entrepreneurial abilities of a jobless. The following results of testing shows some differences between psychological profiles of the unemployed with Enterprising dominant type and the unemployed with other dominant types.*

***Keywords:** unemployed, enterprising dominant type, entrepreneurship*

INTRODUCTION

Since unemployment is a specific psychological state of adults ([5], [9]), there is a need to identify the most appropriate instruments for the selection of jobless for retraining in general and for entrepreneurial retraining particularly. Real working entrepreneurs are characterizing by a peculiar psychological profile [2], which is important to compare with a psychological profile of the unemployed who are willing to start their own business. The key stages in studying psychology of future entrepreneurs among unemployed are selection for the retraining, retraining proper, which has to be combined with a psychological training, and a final research of the psychological factors of competitiveness [4] of unemployed at the completion of the retraining.

The objective of a study is to identify psychological features of the unemployed with enterprising types («entrepreneurs») (according to J.L. Holland) in comparison with the unemployed with other dominant types («non entrepreneurs»).

METHODOLOGY

The following procedures were held ([1], [3], [6], [7], [8]):

- 1) Cattell's Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (№105), which permits to examine personality traits – Warmth (A), Reasoning (B), Emotional Stability (C), Dominance (E), Liveliness (F), Rule-Consciousness (G), Social Boldness (H), Sensitivity (I), Vigilance (L), Abstractedness (M), Private-ness (N), Apprehension (O), Openness to Change (Q1), Self-Reliance (Q2), Perfectionism (Q3), Tension (Q4);
- 2) Holland's Vocational Preference Inventory (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, Conventional dominant types).

The sample consists of 48 jobless with an age range of 18 to 52. Among them there are 39.6% men and 60.4% women. 47.9% of the unemployed have a higher education, 25% have a secondary education and 22.9% of unemployed have a special education.

The investigation was conducted in a regional job center (Kiev) in 2009.

RESULTS

Analysis of the respondent's answers (Holland's Inventory) found 25% of «entrepreneurs».

As a result of testing by Cattell's 16PF, comparing arithmetical means of factor' levels of «entrepreneurs» and «non entrepreneurs» we identify the next main trends (Table 1, Fig.1):

- 1) Significant excess of «entrepreneurs'» average over «non entrepreneurs'» average is found for the following factors: Warmth (A), Dominance (E), Social Boldness (H);
- 2) Significant excess of «non entrepreneurs'» average over «entrepreneurs'» average is found for the following factors: Abstractedness (M), Apprehension (O), Self-Reliance (Q2);
- 3) There were factors with difference between «entrepreneurs'» average and «non-entrepreneurs'» average within the 2% scope: C (Emotional Stability) and L (Vigilance).

TABLE 1. ARITHMETICAL MEANS OF FACTORS' LEVELS FOR GROUPS OF «ENTREPRENEURS» AND «NON-ENTREPRENEURS»

	MD	A	B	C	E	F	G	H	I	L	M	N	O	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
1	5,2	7,5	4,7	8,2	7,4	5,3	6,8	6,6	6,5	6,0	4,3	5,5	4,0	6,3	3,6	7,1	4,6
2	5,4	5,5	5,6	8,1	5,9	4,8	6,5	4,7	5,4	6,1	5,4	4,6	4,9	5,5	5,6	6,7	4,1

1 – Group of the unemployed with Enterprising dominant type

2 – Group of the unemployed with Other dominant types

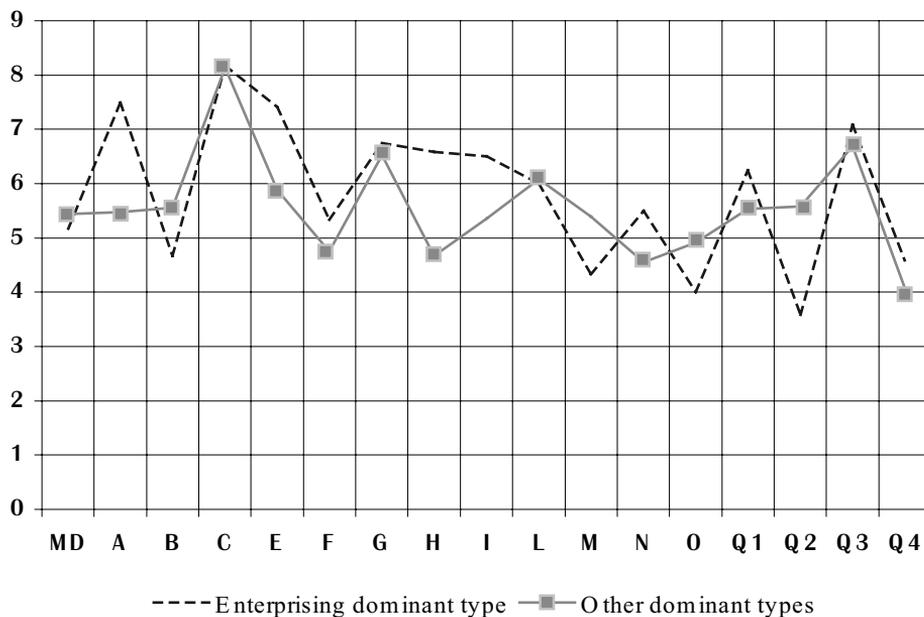


FIGURE 1. ARITHMETICAL MEANS OF FACTORS' LEVELS FOR GROUPS OF «ENTREPRENEURS» AND «NON-ENTREPRENEURS»

CONCLUSIONS

According to the results of the investigation the unemployed with Enterprising dominant type are more open to people (A), more dominant and assertive (E), more socially bold (H), more practical and grounded (M), more self-assured and unworried (O), and also more group-oriented (Q2) than unemployed with other dominant types. At the time there are some coincidences in levels of emotional stability, adaptiveness (C), and vigilance (L) both for the unemployed with Enterprising and the unemployed with other dominant types. In general, levels of all

these traits (except one – Q2 [1]) could be accepted as positive factors for decision on participation of a jobless in the retraining. The results of the study can be used during the selection of the unemployed for entrepreneurship and for the purpose of psychological training of the unemployed-future entrepreneurs.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL SKILLS AND PERFORMANCE DURING COMPETITION

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Abstract. *In the recent decades more trainers, competitors and psychologists, working in the area of elite sport, submit for discussion and share the understanding that in order to accomplish peak sport achievements, at a maximum sport realization, certain psychological skills are necessary which form the so called “competitiveness” of the athlete. For some authors this becomes a reason to raise the issue of the so called “psychological talent” of the champion. (Bloom, 1985; Gould, Dieffenbach, & Moffett, 2001). The current report presents a theoretical model of the psychological skills of the competitor which are decisive for the achievement of a maximum sport result. They are incorporated in the foundations of the executed empirical research. Subject of the research are 164 competitors in various sports with different level of qualification, separated in two groups: 1) World and European Championships’ Prize Winners; 2) Republican level competitors. Subject to analysis were the mutual relations between the psychological skills of the competitors and the sport’s results, the level of qualification, the athletic experience and previous competition background, as well as the gender. The results of the analysis give us the reason to outline some of the qualities which define the psychological profile of the successful competitor – high sports confidence, self-efficiency, organization, personal standards, low self-hindering. Along with the above, we could also outline some qualities which obstruct the successful realization. They relate mainly to the so called “non-adaptive perfectionism” – parental criticism, parental expectations, doubting the actions, anxiety for mistakes. On the grounds of the achieved results and the disclosed interactions between the researched indexes, general directions were drawn aimed at elaboration of a model for training of psychological skills in the elite sport.*

INTRODUCTION

The question about the role of specific psychological skills, which determine the so called “psychological talent” of a champion is posed with increasing frequency in specialized literature (Bloom, 1985; Gould, Dieffenbach, & Moffett, 2001). While defining and comparing the psychological characteristics of the most successful and the not-so-successful professional athletes some authors (Hardy, Jones, & Gould, 1996; Williams & Krane, 2001) focus on the problem of the possibility of developing and enhancing these skills in the training process. Studies on the development of talent in many different areas reveal a lot of common aspects (Bloom, 1985; Csikszentmihalyi, Rathunde, Whalen, & Wong, 1993). In order to direct the talent towards an actual achievement the athlete has to acquire specific qualities and skills and to develop them in a supporting environment. Many authors (Gould, Eklund, & Jackson, 1993; Gould, Jackson, & Finch, 1993a, 1993b; Gould, Greenleaf, Dieffenbach, Lauer, Chung, Peterson, & McCann, 1999) define the following characteristics of a champion: ability to focus, high level of optimism, mental strength, drive, competitiveness, self-confidence, sport intelligence, ability to acquire new knowledge, ability to cope with stress.

We believe that essential for the effective performance in sport is the transition between training and competition. In this context we determine two groups of athlete’s qualities. On one hand are the abilities, qualities, and skills which determine the so called “sport suitability» and are the basis for successful acquisition and practice of the respective sport. On the other hand are the abilities, qualities and skills connected with the regulation of behavior, actions, efforts and interaction with the environment, which are decisive for the effective performance during competition. While the first group of qualities determines the potential for athlete’s development and performance, the second group plays a decisive role in the process of actual performance during competition. We could label the second group “competitive qualities and skills”. These two groups qualities and skills are interconnected and in their unity determine the efficacy of athlete’s training and performance during competition.

The objective of the present study was to examine some of the competitive qualities of the athletes (Perfectionism, Self-efficacy, Sport confidence) and their manifestation in athletes with different level of qualification.

METHODS

Subjects

In the study took part 164 athletes (94 men and 70 women) ages 15 – 28 with different level of qualification. They were divided in two groups: 1) finalists in

World and European competitions 2) athletes with high results in national competitions.

The following psychological methods were used:

1. Methodology for Self-efficacy research in sport (T. Iancheva, Tzv. Misheva-Aleksova, 2006) with two subscales – Self-efficacy and Self-handicapping.
2. Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale in Sport (Frost-MPS), developed by Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate (1990), with six subscales: Parental Criticism, Personal Standards, Concern Over Mistakes, Organization, Parental Expectations, and Doubts About Actions.
3. Trait Sport Confidence Inventory (TSCI; Vealy, 1986).

All three methods have very good psychometric characteristics.

RESULTS

The obtained results demonstrate that elite athletes (finalists in international competitions) (Figure 1) score higher on Self-efficacy, Perfectionism, Personal standards, Organization, and Sport Confidence and lower on Self-handicapping, Parental Criticism, Concern over Mistakes, Parental Expectations, and Doubts About Actions.

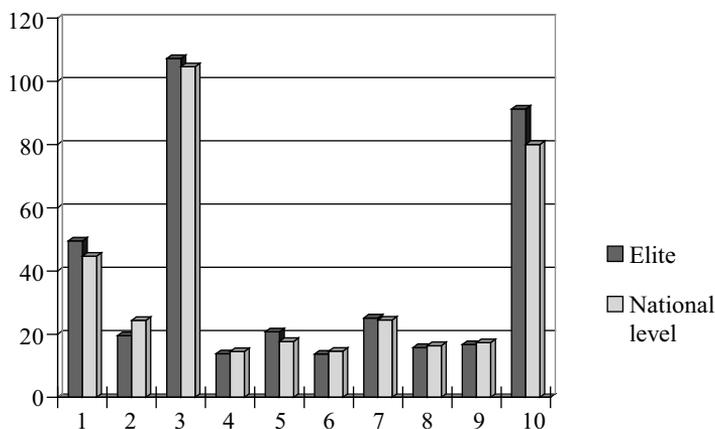


FIGURE 1. MEAN VALUES OF STUDIED PARAMETERS DEPENDING ON THE QUALIFICATION OF THE ATHLETES.

1 – Self-efficacy; 2 – Self-handicapping; 3 – Perfectionism; 4 – Parental Criticism; 5 – Personal Standards; 6 – Concern Over Mistakes; 7 – Organization; 8 – Parental Expectations; 9 – Doubts About Actions; 10 – Sport Confidence

The stated differences are statistically significant only in three of the measured parameters. The elite athletes score significantly higher than the athletes from the second group (Table 1) on Self-efficacy ($F=17,487$; $p<,000$); Personal standards ($F=10,764$; $p<,002$), and Sport Confidence ($F=11,163$; $p<,001$). At the same time their scores on Self-handicapping subscale are significantly lower than those of the second group ($F = 13,144$; $p<,001$). Based on these results we could state that successful athletes believe in their ability to act in a way that would achieve the desired result, they are confident in their efficacy, they set high personal standards and are confident that they could attain them.

Our research reveals that the athletes from both groups score very high on Organization subscale of Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale. That's why we could argue that this is one of the universal characteristics of every athlete.

Results reveal no significant differences among men and women. The analysis of the results depending on the type of sport however reveals significant differences only in one of the studied parameters – Concern over Mistakes ($F=5,928$; $p<,002$). Football players and weight-lifters score higher on this subscale, while basketball players demonstrate lowest results.

Correlation analysis of data reveals strong positive correlation between Self-efficacy and Sport Confidence ($r=,494$; $p<,001$) and Self-efficacy and Personal Standards ($r=,376$; $p<,001$). Negative correlation is observed between Self-efficacy and Self-handicapping ($r=-,433$; $p<,001$). Athletes with higher expectancies for self-efficacy set higher personal standards, but at the same time demonstrate higher level of confidence in their ability to achieve those standards. High correlation is observed also between Sport Confidence and Personal Standards ($r=,608$; $p<,001$). Analysis reveal strong correlation between Personal Standards and Perfectionism ($r=,494$; $p<,001$), and Parental Expectations ($r=,323$; $p<,001$). An important for the sport practice fact are the observed positive correlations between Parental Critics and Self-handicapping ($r=,355$; $p<,001$), Perfectionism ($r=,740$; $p<,001$), Concern Over Mistakes ($r=,475$; $p<,001$), and Doubts About Actions ($r=,539$; $p<,001$). That information poses the problem about parents' behavior and their responsibilities concerning the development of sport talent and most of all its psychological aspects.

Qualification is a factor which strongly influences some of the studied parameters, or it would be more proper to say it in an opposite way – those psychological characteristics in the levels of which we observe differences depending on the qualification of the athlete, are decisive for athlete's performance during competition (Fig. 2).

TABLE 1. RESULTS OF COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

		N	M	SD	Min.	Max.	F	Sig.
Self-efficacy	1,00	69	49,5200	3,76519	40,00	55,00	17,487	,000
	2,00	95	44,6735	5,12505	34,00	54,00		
	Total	164	46,3108	5,22094	34,00	55,00		
Self-handicap- ping	1,00	69	19,5200	3,61847	13,00	25,00	13,144	,001
	2,00	95	24,3265	6,09094	12,00	40,00		
	Total	164	22,7027	5,82562	12,00	40,00		
Perfectionism	1,00	69	107,2000	14,86327	81,00	134,00	,323	,571
	2,00	95	104,5714	20,49492	55,00	152,00		
	Total	164	105,4595	18,71867	55,00	152,00		
Parental Criticism	1,00	69	13,8400	5,55788	7,00	30,00	,270	,605
	2,00	95	14,5306	5,33503	6,00	25,00		
	Total	164	14,2973	5,38321	6,00	30,00		
Personal Standards	1,00	69	20,7600	3,03150	14,00	25,00	10,764	,002
	2,00	95	17,6939	4,13423	7,00	25,00		
	Total	164	18,7297	4,04867	7,00	25,00		
Concern Over Mistakes	1,00	69	13,6800	3,56745	7,00	22,00	,641	,426
	2,00	95	14,6327	5,36460	6,00	29,00		
	Total	164	14,3108	4,82836	6,00	29,00		
Organization	1,00	69	25,1200	6,31348	2,00	30,00	,290	,592
	2,00	95	24,4694	4,03166	16,00	30,00		
	Total	164	24,6892	4,88757	2,00	30,00		
Parental Expectations	1,00	69	15,7600	5,07674	6,00	27,00	,213	,646
	2,00	95	16,3673	5,49126	6,00	29,00		
	Total	164	16,1622	5,32769	6,00	29,00		
Doubts About Actions	1,00	69	16,7200	5,37370	6,00	30,00	,216	,644
	2,00	95	17,3061	5,00918	6,00	30,00		
	Total	164	17,1081	5,10591	6,00	30,00		
Sport Confidence	1,00	69	91,2000	10,49206	67,00	107,00	11,163	,001
	2,00	95	80,0204	14,93247	23,00	107,00		
	Total	164	83,7973	14,53101	23,00	107,00		

1 – Elite athletes; 2 – Athletes on National level

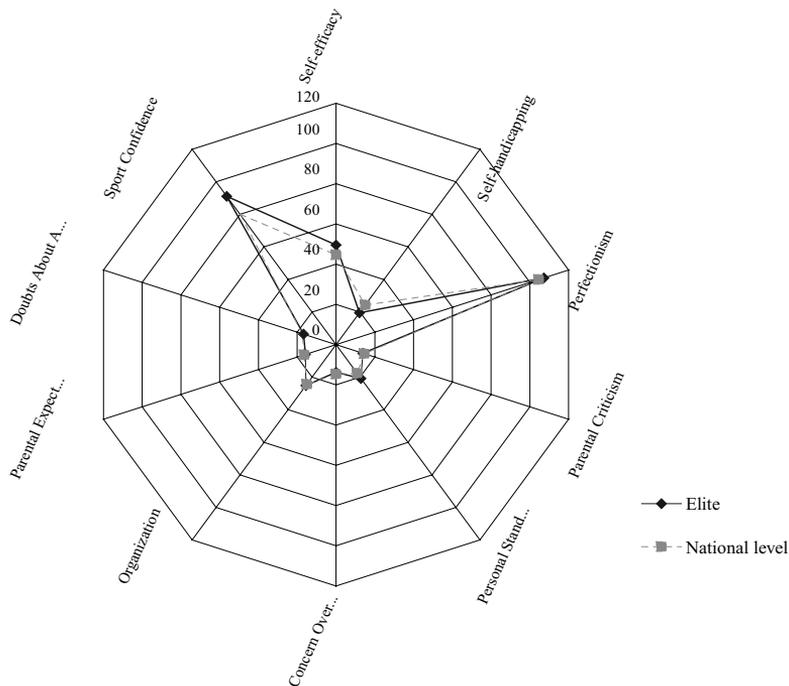


FIGURE 2. ATHLETE’S PERFORMANCE DURING COMPETITION

Correlation analysis data confirms the results from the comparative analysis. Successful athletes are more confident ($r=,366$; $p<,001$), have higher expectations for self-efficacy ($r=,393$; $p<,001$), set higher personal standards ($r=,361$; $p<,001$) and exhibit lower levels of self-handicapping ($r=,393$; $p<,001$).

TABLE 2. RESULTS FROM FACTOR ANALYSIS

Items	Factors	
	1	2
Perfectionism	,954	,247
Parental Criticism	,813	-,092
Parental Expectations	,762	,162
Doubts About Actions	,761	-,061
Concern Over Mistakes	,761	-,074
Sport Confidence	,050	,808
Self-efficacy	-,107	,765
Personal Standards	,340	,740
Self-handicapping	,373	-,609
Organization	,057	,409

Factor analysis of the data, made with Varimax rotation reveals two clearly defined factors. The first factor includes five items – Perfectionism, Parental Criticism, Parental Expectations, Doubts About Actions, and Concern Over Mistakes – parameters which are connected with maladaptive competitive behavior and could to a great extent influence negatively athlete's performance during competition. The second factor includes Sport Confidence, Self-efficacy, Personal Standards, Self-handicapping (low level), and Organization. This second factor could be linked with the adaptive competitive behavior and in this aspect it could influence positively the successful performance during competition.

DISCUSSION

1. There are specific psychological qualities and skills which influence the efficacy of athlete's performance during competition.
2. Based on the results of the study we could outline some qualities which determine the psychological profile of a successful athlete. These are high levels of sport confidence, self-efficacy, organization and personal standards and low level of self-handicapping. At the same time we could outline several qualities which inhibit successful performance during competition. They are connected mostly with the so called “negative perfectionism” – parental criticism, parental expectations, doubts about actions and concern over mistakes.

The established relations among the studied parameters could be applied in the process of selection for elite sport, training and examining the parameters, influencing the development of psychological talent as a factor which plays a significant role in athlete's performance during competition.

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MATRIX OF COMPETITIVENESS OF WORK EXPERIENCE AS AN INSTRUMENT OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract. *Matrix of competitiveness of work experience (CWE Matrix) was worked out on principles of BCG Matrix, which is based on product life cycle theory. CWE Matrix helps a specialist to coordinate his/her work experience with organizational product life cycle. A specialist may apply CWE Matrix as a frame of his/her work experience to inspect a portfolio or set of his/her professional competences, skills, know-how, etc. integrated in work experience. CWE Matrix has two modified dimensions: “investments in work experience (high, low)” and “benefits of work experience (high, low)”. Investments in work experience are trainings, asking for coaching or mentoring, e-learning and so on. Benefits of work experience are high salary, career growth, rewards and so on. There are four segments of the CWE Matrix: 1) high investments and benefits (Stars, in BCG Matrix); 2) low investments and high benefits (Cash cows, in BCG Matrix); 3) low investments and benefits (Dogs, in BCG Matrix); 4) high investments and low benefits (Question marks, in BCG Matrix). The first segment includes competences which are expected by a new organization strategy and require supplementary efforts of professional development. The second segment describes a part of specialist’s work experience (high level competences, professional achievements, practical skills) which provide organizational effectiveness today. The third segment consists of a part of work experience which was suitable for previous strategy and now has become obsolete from organizational position. But at the same time this part of experience is of great value for a specialist. To manage the forth segment a specialist should look forward because a turbulent environment requires constant organization changes and suitable competences. CWE Matrix can be used to determine what priorities should be given in the competences portfolio of work experience. To ensure a long-term value creation a specialist should have a portfolio of work experience that contains both*

competences providing benefits today and competences demanding investments to provide benefits in future.

Keywords: *Competitiveness of Work Experience, Professional Development, "Portfolio" of competences, Segments of CWE Matrix, Psychology of individual competitiveness.*

INTRODUCTION

Let us take up an abstract example. Most probably you keep a memorable and thus a very important for you thing from your childhood. It may be a teddy bear, a toy lorry, or something of the kind like a small box given by your grandmother. And this thing is really of great and sentimental value to you. However try and put it up for sale! You will be told that the teddy bear's ear is torn and it has a stain on its side, the toy lorry is peeling, the box has long ago and hopelessly cracked, and that is why either nobody is going to buy them, or will pay a few pence only. That is how we understand the difference between a subjective value of a thing for you personally and its objective market value.

The very same thing can be said about a work experience. Our experience for us is a pained, achieved by our own sweat and blood, developed due to our great efforts important part of our "self", i.e. the thing that allows us to say "I am a professional". How much would you pay for it? Of course, it is very valuable for us, and thus our experience seems if not priceless then deserving a huge reward. However the labor market is governed by its own laws and, what is more important, quite different value measuring principles. And our experience is estimated not by our invested efforts, but solely from the point of view of its usefulness for organizational problem solution and organizational goal achievement.

It is an entrapment for a person with a rich work experience: the person estimates his/her experience by invested efforts whereas the market estimates it in terms of its real efficiency. There are no prizes for guessing that there is no direct relation between efforts invested in experience and its efficiency.

That is why a professional becomes a hostage of his/her own illusions about his/her professional value. In the meantime, in the today's conditions of quickly changing market requirements, experience faster and faster becomes obsolescent.

Experience gradually accumulates obsolescent features. The problem exactly what from the experience can be successfully integrated into a professional activity and what had to long ago be abandoned is the very problem of a modern professional's competitiveness.

The escape from this entrapment consists in observance of the following rule: Each professional has to treat his/her experience not as an obvious value that has

a constant high price, but as a value with a permanently changing price which can and should be managed.

I have been for a long time interested in a work experience as a factor of a professional's competitiveness. My researches have been supported by scientific grants by the Russian Foundation of Theoretical Researches and by the Russian Humanitarian Scientific Foundation during past decade. I wondered what was happening to a work experience if it suddenly transformed from a competitive advantage ("Work experience is required") to a reason of no demand in the labor market or even a key factor of a person's complete professional incapacity for a certain professional position ("We are sorry but we are not satisfied with your work experience!"). For example, a person's work experience in a Soviet hotel industry can become the reason why he/she will be refused a position at a modern hotel with an excuse that "it is easier to train than to re-train".

METHODOLOGY

Modern researches of a work experience help to solve problems connected with the development of a work experience model (Tesluk P., Jacobs R., 1998), with efficient ways of a work experience obtaining (Moreland K.A., Angur, 2006), with peculiarities of a work experience of certain professional groups (Davies J. and M. Easterby-Smith, 1984). Experience is perceived as an integrated psychological phenomenon and is not researched as a process.

However if experience is not constantly dynamic, it becomes rigid and inflexible and turns into "Velvet Wristbands" (this is the way an obsolete experience is referred to in Western literature). Consequently, if you do not manage your work experience, sooner or later it starts to manage you and dictate your own professional potential and limits. In order that a professional's experience does not become velvet wristbands, it must be viewed as a "portfolio", i.e. a carefully selected material allowing to understand the potential of its owner.

However such portfolio has to have a structure allowing to render experience manageable. I used the BCG matrix (Ismagilova F., 2000) as a basis of such structure. I modified it in such a way that it reflects experience in dynamics and signals to its owner "It is high time to change!" Actually this is the reflection of how competitive advantages of a work experience gradually appear on the horizon, then reveal themselves to full extent and then become obsolescent. With this purpose we should view our experience from the point of our professional past, present and future, i.e. from the point of requirements of the modern labor market or strategic plans of an organization we work with.

In his famous book on marketing, Philip Kotler refers to the Boston Consulting Group (BCG), a leading managing and consulting company, and describes the development and realization of independent strategies in accordance with the

following principles: “it was important yesterday” and “it will become important tomorrow”. As a rule big companies manage different business directions each requiring a certain strategy that Ph.Kotler calls strategic business units (SBU). Strategic business units are characterized by a unity of a field of activity and presence of competitors. The BCG divides different areas of a company’s activity (i.e. its SBU) into four types (figuratively defining them as question marks, stars, cash cows and dogs) and characterized each depending on its success in the market.

Actually such matrix contains a universal and suitable for our rushing time approach to a problem solution choice.

Theories of competitiveness developed by M.Porter and Ph.Kotler, proved by the market laws, help us (assuming certain analogies) develop a tool for a specialist’s work experience management viewing it as a factor of competitiveness. Actually, there is no controversy because the labor market where goods referred to as “labor force” are bought and sold lives and acts under the same laws as the goods and service markets do. In his/her turn, a when offering labor force as a product, a specialist actually sells his/her work experience that an employer perceives as a guarantee of a professional competence and qualification.

Thus, in the matrix I managed to relate a competitive environment (labor market or a professional’s workplace) with present and future competitive advantages and professional limits of a professional. The matrix of competitiveness of work experience (CWE Matrix) is presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1. MATRIX OF COMPETITIVENESS OF WORK EXPERIENCE (CWE MATRIX)

Investments in work experience	Benefits of work experience	
	High	Low
High	<p><u>Stars</u></p> <p>This segment of work experience includes new competences which are expected by new organization strategy and requires supplementary efforts of professional development.</p>	<p><u>Question Marks</u></p> <p>To manage this segment of work experience, a specialist should look forward because a turbulent environment requires constant organization changes and suitable competences.</p>
Low	<p><u>Cash Cows</u></p> <p>This segment of work experience embraces competences and practical skills which provide organizational effectiveness today.</p>	<p><u>Dogs</u></p> <p>This segment consists of a part of work experience which was suitable for previous strategy and now has become obsolete from an organizational position. But at the same time this part of experience is of great value for a specialist.</p>

General requirements of management of one's own work experience competitiveness are on the whole similar to the requirements to the BCG matrix users. With time the positions of certain experience competences in the Matrix of competitiveness of work experience (CWE Matrix) change: a professionally important characteristic is a question mark in the beginning, then it transforms into a star, a cash cow, and, finally, a dog.

Hence, a professional has to trace a characteristic position not only now (on the principle of a photo), but its prospective positions (on the principle of cinematography) as well.

Investigation steps:

- 1) Construction of CWE Matrix for ML Managers by top managers (TM) as experts
- 2) Construction of CWE Matrix by postgraduate students of President Program&MBA (PgS)
- 3) Comparison between CWE Matrix for ML Managers, constructed by Top Managers and CWE Matrix for ML Managers, constructed by ML Managers

The example of 1 part of research:

Top managers as experts

Place of research – Business Schools and Enterprises of the Urals Region: Ekaterinburg, Perm, Chelyabinsk, Tyumen.

1st group of tested – Top level Managers of large industrial enterprises of the Urals region, MBA alumnus making decisions at Strategy Management area.

1st group total – 80 participants.

2nd group of tested – Postgraduate students with managerial experience not less than 1 year, Middle level Managers of large industrial enterprises of the Urals region

2nd group total – 560 participants. Research period – 2003–2009.

Instruction for participants:

Please, fill in the CWE Matrix for ML Manager. Please, indicate not less than 10 features/competences for each segment of CWE Matrix:

- ♣ Dogs
- ♣ Cash Cows
- ♣ Stars
- ♣ Question Marks

First segment of the CWE Matrix: high investments and benefits (Stars, in BCG Matrix):

If I make additional efforts, which exactly part of my work experience allows me to earn more money than presently? What I do not do now to achieve this? How to change it? Options: to expand business connections and contacts; gain sufficient prominence in business circles; improve skills requiring additional development; change life style and pay more attention to health.

Second segment of the CWE Matrix: low investments and high benefits (Cash cows, in BCG Matrix):

Which exactly part of my work experience allows me to earn most part of my salary? Exactly for which characteristics of my experience do I get my main reward? Options: my client base (business connections and contacts); my name, reputation; things I surely mastered best of all; my copyrighted know-how.

Third segment of the CWE Matrix: low investments and benefits (Dogs, in BCG Matrix):

What things in my work experience should I gradually refuse from? Even if I care for it, got used to and like doing it, what things should I now look more unbiased and critically at? Options: my professional role; my principles, techniques and methods; the things I have been doing for quite a long time; the things other people do better than me.

Forth segment of the CWE Matrix: high investments and low benefits (Question marks, in BCG Matrix):

Which exactly part of my work experience will allow me to earn more in the nearest future? What characteristics of my experience I have to invest into right now? Options: my potential in terms of contribution to the development of the organization's key competences. New competences appearing in the labor market.

RESULTS

The results obtained are shown in Tables 2 and 3. Table 2 contains those competences that both groups referred to the same segment. Table 2 shows that mostly these are the competences of the Cash Cows segment. Thus we see that top managers and line managers have similar attitude to what competences are the most useful at the moment for the organization.

TABLE 2. EMPIRICAL RESEARCH RESULTS: COMPARISON BETWEEN CWE MATRIX FOR ML MANAGERS, CONSTRUCTED BY TOP MANAGERS AND ML MANAGERS – CONCURRENCES

Competences of WE	Segment of CWE Matrix
Be ready to change the activity according to organization goals	Cash Cows
Be ready for different jobs	Cash Cows
Experience to work in groups and teams	Cash Cows
Stress management	Cash Cows
Experience of successful presentations	Cash Cows
Worker holism	Cash Cows
Professional society membership	Cash Cows
Using the Internet, but not “.ru” only	Stars
Strategy thinking and strategy management knowledge	Stars

Table 3 shows those competences that top and line managers evaluate differently. As we can see, line managers think that 3 competences (Skills corresponding to key competences of company, Business connections and relationships, Business reputation) require them to make additional efforts. Top managers think that these competences had long ago been mastered by line managers and do not require any additional efforts. Line managers think that 3 competences (Foreign language, Take a rest as fast as it is possible, Professional memory) are important at present and try and developed them in themselves. However top managers think that these competences will be demanded only in future but not now. To the Question Marks segment the top managers refer competences that are connected with the company's strategic business units development (SBU according to the BCG Matrix), however line managers when filling in the Question Marks segment do not name these competences.

It is interesting to mention that line managers refer the “Heroic” Management competence to the Cash cows segment, whereas top managers think that these competence belongs to the Dogs segment. We discovered this competence in our previous researches when we used R. Blake-G. Mouton's managerial grid to evaluate the style of Russian managers at big industrial enterprises. We found out that most part of managers show “low concern for process” and “low concern for people”. In order to find out which concern prevails we additionally introduced the “Heroic” Management scale and got high results. It allowed us to state that Russian managers widely use “Heroic” Management competence, i.e. try and solve most part of problems themselves, work alone as heroes and always perform exploits (Ismagilova F., 2008). They do not engage subordinates into solving problems and performing tasks (“low concern for people” style – стиль «низкая ориентация

на отношения»), do not analyze and organize work processes (“low concern for processes” style – стиль «низкая ориентация на процессы»). As the table shows, line managers and top managers view this competence differently.

TABLE 3. EMPIRICAL RESEARCH RESULTS: COMPARISON BETWEEN CWE MATRIX FOR ML MANAGERS, CONSTRUCTED BY TOP MANAGERS AND ML MANAGERS – DIFFERENCES

Competences of WE	Top-managers	ML Managers
“Heroic” Management	Dogs	Cash cows
Skills corresponding to key competences of a company	Cash cows	Stars
Business connections and relationships	Cash cows	Stars
Business reputation	Cash cows	Stars
Foreign language	Question Marks	Stars
Take a rest as fast as it is possible	Question Marks	Stars
Professional memory	Question Marks	Stars
Competences corresponding to “Question marks” SBU according to BCG Matrix	Question Marks	–

DISCUSSION

Main conclusions based on the research results:

- ◆ The main concurrences are located at the “Cash Cows” segment.
- ◆ ML managers refer some competences to the “Cash Cows” segment, but Top Managers refer them to the “Dogs” segment.
- ◆ ML managers refer some competences to the “Stars” segment, but Top-managers refer them to the “Cash cows” segment.
- ◆ ML managers say that competences in the “Question Marks” segment correspond to their personal and professional positions, but Top-managers say that competences in the “Question Marks” segment correspond to organization strategy position and the “Question marks” SBU according to BCG Matrix.

CWE Matrix can be used by organizations for coordination of goals and directions of the personnel professional growth with the organization’s strategic goals. In order to achieve this, it is necessary to make group consultation with employees. A group must consist of people with similar key competences. In a crisis situation when Russian companies are forced to significantly reduce their expenses on training, such groups are mainly the groups of specialists who actively

work with customers and partners (the latter should be informed about key strategic intentions of the company) and the groups of specialists who develop products or services (because they are responsible for direct realization of the company's strategic plans inside the company).

Group consultation consists of 3 steps:

Step 1 – to present the CWE Matrix and offer to fill it in with the orientation on one's own experience and professional intentions.

Step 2 – to present the CWE Matrix filled in by managers during a strategic planning session.

Step 3 – to compare the content of both matrices, to find out similarities and differences, to discuss the differences.

CONCLUSIONS

Work experience management strategies are strategies of a professional's efficient use of his/her professional resources. Actually it is a set of decisions concerning a work experience structure and content aimed at either modification or maintenance of a professional's competitiveness in the labor market or in a company.

In order to remain demanded during our working life, we should focus our efforts on our work experience, i.e. to work out and use our own efficient strategies of a work experience management. If we do not focus management (direct impact) on our work experience and do not re-organize and re-structure it, experience becomes closed and rigid. "Professional – work experience" relation pre-determines a professional's competitiveness in conditions of market relations.

Nowadays it is very important to find and master tools that allow managers and specialists to rationally fit into the current time always regulating their relations with past, future and present.

On the basis of this idea I worked out the following courses of lectures and Workshops:

1. "Psychology of individual competitiveness", for students and Postgraduate students of psychological department,
2. "HRM Strategy and Career development", for MBA students, (Ekaterinburg, Moscow, Perm, Chelyabinsk, Tyumen, Ulyanovsk), and for Managers of Urals industrial enterprises.

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STATE ADMINISTRATION PERSONNEL'S TEAMWORK ORIENTATIONS AND LEVELS OF DEVELOPMENT OF THEIR TEAMWORK SKILLS

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Abstract. Introduction. Personnel's teamwork competence is an important factor of improving performance of state administrations in Ukraine. This problem remains under-investigated in Ukraine. **Objectives:** 1) To find out levels of state administration personnel's teamwork orientations; 2) To find out levels of development of state administration personnel's teamwork skills; 3) To find out correlations between state administration personnel's teamwork orientation and levels of their teamwork skills, on the one hand, and organizational-professional (position in the organization, overall length of work, education) and demographic (age, gender) factors, on the other. **Methods:** The investigation was done on a sample of 234 state administration employees using R. Blake – J. Mouton Managers' Work Style questionnaire, D. Wetten – C. Cameron Self-Assessment of Managerial Skills and Team Promoting Behaviors questionnaire, D. Wetten – C. Cameron Attitudes Toward Innovations Scale, and SPSS. **Results:** 1. The state administration personnel's task-orientation prevailed over their orientation toward employees with their team-work orientation being underdeveloped. 2. The state administration personnel's teamwork skills were formed by three types of skills: creative team leader (innovative skills), joint teamwork and self-assessment (basic skills). Two types of employees were identified: those with the basic teamwork competence and those with the innovative team-work competence. Only a minor part of state administration personnel had innovative teamwork skills. 3. The investigation found statistically significant correlations between levels of the respondents' teamwork orientation and levels of their teamwork skills, on the one hand and organizational-professional (position in the organization, over-

all length of work, education) and demographic (age, gender) factors, on the other. Conclusion: The investigation found the state administration personnel to be poorly teamwork orientated with underdeveloped teamwork skills affected by organizational-professional and demographic characteristics. To improve the situation state administration personnel should undergo a special teamwork training.

Keywords: *state administration, state administration personnel, teamwork orientation, teamwork skills.*

INTRODUCTION

Intensification of professional activity today has increased the role of teams in improving organizational performance (Belbin, R.M., 2000; Gellert, M., Novak, C., 2002; Katzenbach, J., Smith, D., 1993; West, M.A. 2004; Wetten, D., Cameron, C., 2004, etc.). Special attention in this process has been paid to finding out state administration personnel's teamwork orientations and skills which development can improve overall organizational performance.

Team building is an important factor of improvement of state administrations' efficiency in Ukraine (Yevdokimov, V.O., 2006). *Team building and team work competences* are leading requirements to be met by state administration personnel today (Karamushka, L.M., Fil, O.A. Mikhailenko, V.O. and others, 2008). However, there is a certain contradiction regarding solving the problem of development of civil servants' team-work competence in Ukraine: on the one hand, there are official requirements to be met by state administrations and their personnel whose team work competences are of great importance for organizations' work efficiency. On the other hand, some distinctive characteristics of state administrations (closeness to innovations, prevailing orientation toward vertical relations; administration's strictness, authoritative type of organizational culture, etc) go against the very nature of teamwork which is aggravated by lack of administration's attention to personnel's team work training and refresher training. Therefore in order to overcome this contradiction we have to know distinctive features of state administration personnel's teamwork orientations and levels of development of their teamwork skills as well as their determinants. This is important in view of development and organization of personnel's teamwork training. The problem in question in relation to state administrations remains under-investigated in Ukraine. Our previous works (Karamushka, L.M., Maksymenko, S.D., Fil, O.A., 2005; Karamushka, L.M., Fil, O.A., 2007) were dedicated to investigation of this problem in the settings of educational organizations. Thus, social importance and lack of investigation of the problem under consideration have determined this research's tasks.

OBJECTIVES AND METHODS

Objectives. The investigation had the following tasks: 1) to find out levels of state administration personnel's teamwork orientation; 2) to find out levels of development of state administration personnel's teamwork skills; 3) to find out correlations between state administration personnel's teamwork orientation and skills and their organizational-professional (position, overall length of work, education) and demographic factors (age, gender).

Sample:

The investigation was done on 234 state administration employees at Kyiv Retraining Center for employees of state power bodies, local authority bodies and state enterprises and at Odessa Regional Institute of state administration in 2008.

Methods. We used *R. Blake – J. Mouton Managers' Work Style* questionnaire, *D. Wetten – C. Cameron Self-Assessment of Managerial Skills and Team Promoting Behaviors* questionnaire, *D. Wetten – C. Cameron Attitudes Toward Innovations* Scale and SPSS.

RESULTS

In keeping with its tasks the investigation had **three stages**. Stage 1 was dedicated to investigation of state administration personnel's teamwork orientation and its correlations with a number of factors (position, overall length of employment, age, gender). Stage 2 envisaged finding out levels of development of state administration personnel's teamwork skills and their correlations with a number of factors (position, overall length of employment, age, gender). And at stage 3 we analyzed correlations between levels of state administration personnel's teamwork orientation and skills and their organizational-professional (position, overall length of work, education) and demographic factors (age, gender). Each stage findings are given below.

The first stage of the investigation was dedicated to exploration of state administration personnel's teamwork orientations using *R. Blake – J. Mouton Assessment of Managers' Work Styles*.

The analysis of the obtained data found that the majority of the respondents oriented toward tasks in their teamwork (Table 1). Thus, 70.0% of the respondents had high level of task orientation against only 18.6% of those highly oriented toward personnel. Positively assessing high level of task orientation, being a determinant of efficient organizational management, it should be noted that individual resources of organizational management were underestimated in organizational work (poor consideration of employees' interests and needs, etc.).

TABLE 1. LEVELS OF STATE ADMINISTRATION PERSONNEL'S ORIENTATIONS TOWARD TASK AND PERSONNEL (% OF THE WHOLE SAMPLE)

Orientation toward tasks			Orientation toward personnel		
<i>Level of orientation</i>					
<i>Low</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>High</i>
0.0	30.0	70.0	30.0	51.4	18.6

Besides, it was found out that the respondents were poorly oriented toward teamwork: only 11.40% of them oriented toward teamwork with the rest oriented toward other work styles (Table 2). It suggests that state administration personnel are poorly oriented toward application of contemporary task accomplishment techniques which can cause certain difficulties in doing various professional tasks, in particular in project tasks.

TABLE 2. LEVEL OF STATE ADMINISTRATION PERSONNEL'S TEAMWORK ORIENTATIONS (% OF THE WHOLE SAMPLE)

Work styles	
Team work	Other work styles
11,4	88,6

Stage 2 investigated levels of development of stage administration personnel's teamwork skills using *D. Wetten – C. Cameron Self-Assessment of Managerial Skills and Team Promoting Behaviors* questionnaire, *D. Wetten – C. Cameron Attitudes Toward Innovations* Scale, and factorial and cluster analyses.

Using the factorial analysis we found that the respondents' teamwork skills were formed by three factors: *creative team leader* (innovative skills), *joint teamwork* and *self-assessment* (basic skills) (Table 3).

Factor 1 (Creative team leader) combined the following measures: 'finding out levels of team development and help in transiting to a higher level' (0.720), 'team leadership (team leadership, team membership, group work)' (0.707), 'building an effective team and teamwork' (0.685), 'inclination to innovation' (0.629), 'creativity in problem solving (rational and creative problem solving, supporting new ideas and approaches' (0.478). State administration employees who had well developed above mentioned attributes were capable of being effective team leaders, ensuring efficient teamwork and stimulating team creativity, that is team's ability to support new ideas and approaches, as well as its innovative activity. Besides, such employees could promote team development, that is its transition to a higher level of development.

Factor 2 (Teamwork and cooperation) included the following variables: ‘motivating others’ (0.809), ‘conflict management (prevention of dissatisfaction, response to a conflict, mediating)’ (0.766), ‘empowering and delegation’ (0.731), ‘supportive communication (coaching and counseling, feedback, supportive communication)’ (0.543). The leading attribute of the respondents of this type was their orientation toward effective in-team interaction (favorable in-team interaction, conflict management, involvement of team members in discussing and solving problems, maintaining positive motivation, etc.).

Factor 3 (Self-appraisal) was a two-pole factor with: ‘self-appraisal development’ (self-appraisal and openness, self-confidence) at the positive pole (0.437), and ‘problematic organizational work’ at the negative pole (-0.837). The respondents with these skills had positive self-perception and self-appraisal which is essential for team work in organizations with positive climate, innovative approaches to task accomplishing, etc. And vice versa: employees’ negative self-perception is found in organizations with opposite characteristics.

Generally, *skills* which belonged to Factor 1 can be called ‘*innovative teamwork skills*’ while those of Factor 2 and Factor 3 belonged to ‘*basic team work skills*’.

TABLE 3. STAGE ADMINISTRATION PERSONNEL’S TEAMWORK SKILLS (FACTORIAL ANALYSIS FINDINGS)

#	Variables	F1	F 2	F 3
1	Finding out levels of team development and help in transitioning to a higher level’	0.720		
2	Team leadership (team leadership, team membership, group work)	0.707		
3	Building an effective team and teamwork’	0.685		
4	Inclination to innovation’	0.629		
5	Creativity in problem solving (rational and creative problem solving, supporting new ideas and approaches’	0.478		
6.	Motivating others		0.809	
7	Conflict management (prevention of dissatisfaction, response to a conflict, mediating’		0.766	
8.	Supportive communication (coaching and counseling, feedback, supportive communication)		0.731	
9.	Supportive communication (coaching and counseling, feedback, supportive communication)		0.543	
10.	Self-appraisal development’ (self-appraisal and openness, self-confidence)			0.437
11.	Problematic organizational work			-0.837

Using the cluster analysis two types of employees were identified: those with the basic teamwork skills and those with the innovative teamwork skills (Table 4). The first group (81.0% of the respondents) which was made up of the respondents with Factor 2 (Teamwork and cooperation) and Factor 3 (Self-appraisal) attributes could be called employees with basic teamwork skills (joint work and cooperation in teams, and positive self-perception). Thus, the majority of the respondents had only *basic teamwork skills*.

The second group made up of the respondents with Factor 1 attributes (*Creative team leader*, 19.0% of the respondents) could be called 'employees with innovative teamwork skills' (orientations toward leadership, work innovations, team development, etc.). Only a minor part of state administration personnel had *innovative teamwork skills*. To our mind, these team work skills can be developed in special teamwork training.

TABLE 4. CLUSTER ANALYSIS OF STATE ADMINISTRATION PERSONNEL'S TEAMWORK SKILLS IDENTIFIED BY FACTORIAL ANALYSIS

#	Factors	Clusters	
1	Creative team leader	-,20039	,85167
2	Teamwork and cooperation	,19298	-,82016
3	Self-appraisal	,24183	-1,02778

At **stage 3** we analyzed correlations between levels of state administration personnel's teamwork orientation and skills and their organizational-professional (position, overall length of work, education) and demographic factors (age, gender).

As to the respondents' teamwork orientation, the investigation found statistically significant correlations ($p < 0.05$) between the state administration personnel's orientations toward task, personnel and teamwork and a number of factors: a) the respondent's position (state administration heads were more teamwork- and personnel-oriented than other state administration personnel, whereas the latter were more task-oriented); b) gender (more females were task-, personnel- and teamwork-oriented than males); c) age (state administration personnel belonging to different age-groups were task-oriented rather than personnel-oriented; as the respondents grew older their task orientation grew and their personnel orientation reduced).

Regarding teamwork skills we found correlations ($p < 0.01$) between levels of their development and the following factors: a) the respondents' positions: generally, state administration heads had better developed basic teamwork skills (creative team leader, joint work and cooperation, self-appraisal) compared to those of the rank-and-file employees; b) the respondents' positions and overall length of employment: as the overall length of employment grew the state administration

heads' creative leadership skills worsened whereas those of the rank-and-file employees' improved; c) the respondents' position and education: state administration heads and personnel with sciences education had almost equally developed skills of joint teamwork and cooperation, while among those with humanities education there were many more state administration employees than heads; d) the respondents' positions and gender: among males self-appraisal skills were better developed in state administration heads than employees; and vice versa, more female employees had these skills better developed than female heads.

CONCLUSIONS

Generally the investigation found insufficient levels of state administration personnel's teamwork orientations and skills as well as their correlations with a number of organizational-professional factors and demographic factors. The obtained findings proved the necessity of development and application of a special state administration personnel's teamwork training to improve the situation.

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ON CHANGING ORGANIZATIONAL AND WORK LIFE

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Abstract. *The post-industrial business environment is undergoing a legal, economic, and political transformation. The majority of relevant contemporary literature, including EU documents, has reflected the fundamental changes connected with the transition from industrialism to post-industrialism. These changes are related to a growth of service sector, a radical development of information and telecommunication technologies, globalization of markets, competitiveness, and so forth. Organizations has been restructured and flattened. A mechanistic type of organization has been changing into an organic type. These organizational changes have been interconnected with downsizing, rightsizing, outsourcing, and o forth. Jobs were redesigned, with job rotation, delegation, empowerment, etc. Employees are expected to have enriched jobs, demonstrate teamwork, self-management, professional development, and so forth. Management is expected to demonstrate participative or transformational leadership styles, facilitate employees' development, etc. Traditional HRM models, including traditional career concepts or traditional psychological contract, have been losing their adequacy to contemporary competitiveness requirements and expectation. Similar trends are valid also for Czech Republic. Czech Republic, as other transition economies and the new EU member states, has undergone great political, societal, and economic changes since 1990. Differences between Western and Czech managerial practices or employees expectations are influenced not only by different socioeconomic background but also by cross – cultural differences.*

Keywords: *postindustrialism; organizational changes; organization and work design; flexibility; cultural values*

INTRODUCTION

Contemporary organizations have to react to various external and internal factors that influence their competitiveness. This statement is valid both for regions, states or larger political or economical union of states as for example EU. From 80's practitioners and scholars have been focusing on radical changes in organization and working design interconnected with a transition to a post-industrial society (Gallagher et al., 1997; Holmberg, Strannengard, 2005). Nevertheless diversity of definition of the postindustrial era (Gallagher et al., 1997) it is obvious that significant features of socioeconomic environment have been changing. Crucial transformations have been identifying almost in all aspects of the life of societies, organizations or individuals. As most fundamental changes are usually emphasized changes in economic sectors such as decline of manufacturing industry and continual growth of service sector. These economic shifts together with rapid development of information and telecommunication technologies have enforced an emergence of globalised economy, globalised markets, and so forth.

These changes were interrelated with changes of social climate, values and people expectations almost all over the world. They were reflected in big political changes that have proceeded in the Central and Eastern Europe. Former socialistic countries have undergone radical and significant transformation of their economy, legislative system, and the whole society. These countries had to meet similar challenges as other developed countries. In fact they have to realize two transitions: to the postindustrialism and to a free market economy. For all former socialistic countries transformation processes weren't very easy. The same is valid for organizations and people living in former socialistic states. Independently of acceptance or rejections of these changes, results of the transformations of societies, including changes of organizational and working life, represent today reality.

ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGES

Radical changes in organization design and work design represent consequences of a move towards the postindustrial era. Not all transformations are welcomed by everybody. Their outcomes are interconnected with new requirements to employees and organizations' management. Similar shifts have taken place in all countries all over the world, including that of transition economies. In previous socialistic countries changes of organization and work design are mostly perceived by employees as features of society and economy transformation.

What are the most significant features of changes in organizations and work design? In general – their flexibility. Burns and Stalker research results from 60's identified interrelations between external socioeconomic factors and main organizations characteristics which have an impact on efficient organizations "behavior" relevant to their competitiveness and development (Mullins, 2002; Rollinson,

2002). Burns and Stalker recognized two organizations systems – the mechanistic and the organic. Both systems represent a rational pattern of organizational functioning. The “rationality” depends on characteristics of external factors. If majority of external factors is stable as most appropriate system was identified the mechanistic type of organization. By contrast if the majority of external factors are changing and unstable as most appropriate system is supposed the organic. The organic organization differs from the mechanistic mainly by its flexibility that enhances the speed of organization’s “behavior” – answers to changing circumstances and requirements. Flexibility or rigidity of organizations is influenced not only by its organization structure but also by job design, management style, patterns of authority and control, communication flows, and so forth. In general, organization and job design influences flexibility or rigidity of organizations’ behavior.

Atkinson’s concept of a flexible firm is continuing the elaboration of the idea of flexibility. According to Atkinson organization flexibility has various forms, namely functional, numerical and financial flexibility (Mullins, 2002; Gallagher et al., 1997). Functional flexibility is related to redeployment of employees among different tasks by various methods as job rotation, job enrichment, and so forth. Employees are developing their set of skills by performing various tasks and roles within the same organization. They are becoming multiskilled employees. According Atkinson concept these flexible and multiskilled employees are forming the core of a company workforce. They are full time employed and their job security is relatively high (Gallagher et al, 1997). Numerical flexibility represents an ability of organizations to change the number of their employees, to reduce or increase their number. Organizations use different types of contracts and flexible working schedules. Numerical flexibility is mostly conditioned by outsourcing, part time or termed jobs. Atkinson called employees belonging to numerical flexible workforce peripheral workforce with relatively low job security. Financial flexibility is connected with flexible remuneration system reflecting employees’ performance and organization profits and loses. In general flexible organization combines core and peripheral employees. Organization’s flexibility is also enhanced by flexible working time or flexible working location as is represented by teleworking. Atkinson believed “...that core workers benefit from the change in terms of greater variety of skills and greater opportunity to participate in decision making whereas peripheral workers have little opportunity in these areas” (Gallagher et al., 1997, p. 123).

Typical organizations answers to changing socioeconomic environments are focused on processes of restructuralization that are featured by delaying, downsizing and rightsizing, outsourcing, offshoring, and so forth. Job re-designed processes as job rotation, job enlargement or job enrichment should accompany restructuralization processes. Stated processes are generally assessed as rational answers to changing external factors.

Different requirements to all organization processes flow from relevant concepts to organization flexibility. These processes should be introduced and managed by organization management. They are very easy identifiable (e.g. delayering or downsizing), their results and consequences are mainly objective. They are namely perceived by all employees and influence internal and external labor markets. Usually all employees do not welcome these processes because they are interconnected with job re-design, new training requirements or job loss. Managements namely expect from employees proactivity and activity, continuous professional and personal development, competences for individual and teamwork, positive attitudes to lifelong learning or individual responsibility over their career. Not all employees assess these changes as positive or as an opportunity for self-actualization or developing their skills, in general their employability.

It is important to mention that if organization processes are focused on flexibility and if they should be successful they need to be combined with relevant participative management styles, transformation leadership, organization culture and job re-design. Realization and implementation of these changes is more difficult for organizations management than downsizing. Their successful implementation is influenced and interconnected also with such issues as attitudes, work experiences, expectations or values. Incongruence in organization processes with restructuralization processes has its consequences in worse organization results relevant to organizations' productivity, lower organizations efficiency and organizations competitiveness.

CONSEQUENCES OF THE CHANGES

Various types of organizational flexibility has been emphasizing namely in connection with the transition to the postindustrial era, an emergence of globalised economy and during last year also with the economy downturn. Organizations' flexibility is assessed as one of significant factors influencing organizations ability for development and competitiveness.

Not only organizations are in transitions, but also employment relationships. On the background of major changes has emerged an importance of the concept of a psychological contract. The concept of the psychological contract was as first introduced by Argyris in 60's for a description of a set of expectations held by an employee and an organization. The psychological contract is not a written document. Sets of expectations and obligations arise from an employee – organization relationship. Robinson and Rousseau (1994, p. 246) define the psychological contract "...as beliefs in paid-for-promises or reciprocal obligations. It is comprised of a belief that some form of a promise has been made and that the terms and conditions of the contract have been accepted by both parties." Psychological contracts are subjective; their content is influenced by perception, expectations and beliefs.

As Mullins (2002) indicates the psychological contracts cover not only expectations, but also duties and obligation.

Problematic aspects of psychological contract consist in the need of the congruence of expectations and obligations of the both parties. It is a question if the both parties have accepted the same expectations, duties and obligations as the psychological contract is not a written contract. Although all aspect of the psychological contract may not be aware consciously, they have an impact on relationships between an employee and an organization and influence their behavior and activities. It is desirable to balance expectations, duties and obligations of an employee and an organization, to get a reciprocal exchange.

Although there is not a unity regarding to various characteristics of psychological contracts, mainly two significant aspects of psychological contract are identified. They are interconnected with relational and transactional context of psychological contracts. Consequently two types of psychological contracts are distinguished: relational and transactional. The relational psychological contract is predominantly formed by long-termed employment contracts and relations between an employee and an employer. It is based mostly on socio-emotional factors, not on financial aspects. An employee demonstrates loyalty and commitment and as an exchange is receiving namely implicitly a job security. The transactional contract is mainly based on financial rewards and minimal mutual relationships between an employee and an employer. Transactional contract are typical for shorter time frames.

The psychological contract is not rigid; it is revised throughout employee tenure in organizations. It is changed over time within a tenure and also within socioeconomic and organization changes.

Typical psychological contracts relevant to industrial era and the mechanistic organizations differ from contemporary psychological contracts. Traditional psychological contracts „offered“to employees' job security and predictability of their slow upwards career paths.

Today organizations can't offer job security to their employees. Job security is exchanged for employees' employability. Organizations should enhance and facilitate employees' professional and personal development. Consequences of this „offer“require employees' activity, intrinsic motivation, responsibility and other individual characteristics that differ from general requirements typical for the industrial era. Employees can perceive these radical changes in psychological contracts as their violation (Robinson and Rousseau, 1994).

Traditional HRM models and practices, including traditional psychological contracts or traditional career models have been losing their adequacy to contemporary competitiveness requirements and expectations. Traditional career models are characterized by structured, evolving and predictable sequence of individual work activities and experiences over time. Traditional career models are

interconnected with an upward slow mobility and upward development. Criteria for career development were mainly objective as upwards shifts, salary or social status. As Baruch (2004, p.60) mentions „stability of structure and clarity of career ladders implied clear career paths, which were mostly linear“. Traditional career models are based on high organizational structures that are typical for the mechanistic organization relevant to the industrial era.

Contemporary careers have been changing. They correspond to radical changes in socioeconomic environment and organization a work design. Careers have become flexible, with lower probability of upward career ladders or structured sequences. They are influenced by a larger scope of possible movements and career paths. A meaning of a career success has been altering too. More often are used subjective criteria for assessing career success as individual satisfaction, freedom, autonomy or other significant characteristics that are interconnected with intrinsic motivation. „...there is no single way for reaching success, hence the term „multi-directional“ career paths ...“(Baruch, 2004, p. 61). Contemporary psychological contracts reflect contemporary career models. Human resource management practices must answer to contemporary career challenges. As Baruch (ibid) emphasizes, career systems must be multidirectional. All human resource practices have to be in congruence to changing socioeconomic factors as they need to foster and facilitate human resource development and organizations competitiveness.

Career changes influence not only individual and organizational practices, but also an area of career counselling. As Vendel (2008) mentions, today career counselling helps people for competent planning and management of their individual life and career. Individual responsibility over one's career belongs to significant consequences of contemporary career concepts and psychological contracts. Namely career counselling represents one of significant factors that assist and facilitate people in their career development. As for contemporary careers is typical professional and personal development during the whole career track, career counselling is representing a life long process too (Vendel, 2008).

INTERCULTURAL CONTEXT OF ORGANIZATIONAL AND WORK CHANGES

Similar trends are valid also for the Czech Republic. The Czech Republic, as other transition economies and the new EU member states, has undergone fundamental political, societal, and economic changes since 1990. As Aulakh and Kotabe mention (2008, p.209) also in the Czech Republic „...were implemented policies aimed at encouraging competition in the domestic marketplace, urging domestic firms to build international levels of competitiveness, and allowing multinational enterprises to enter their erstwhile protected markets. Increasing integration in

the global economy has meant changed competitive landscapes for organizations from developing countries as well as multinationals operating in these economies, thus necessitating organizational transformation to deal with new competitive dynamics. ”

In general an acceptance of changes is interconnected with a large scope of factors, internal – individual, and external as organizational and socioeconomic factors. If changes are perceived as contradictory to individual experiences, tradition or national values there is a higher probability that these changes will be rejected or perceived as negative.

Previous era of planned economy together with socialist system enhanced population in behavior that foster an existence of the system. It is possible to summarize that for socialistic era in Czechoslovakia mechanistic organizational type was predominated. Managers applied namely autocratic management style. The majority of organizations required employees to behave in way that correspond to traditional psychological contracts. Passivity, loyalty and conformity were demanded and welcomed.

Differences between Western and Czech managerial practices or employees expectations are influenced not only by different socioeconomic background but also by intercultural differences. Individual responsibility over individual life doesn't belong to typical Czech characteristics. According to Hofstede framework (Hofstede, 1999) following indexes of cultural dimensions report about Czech cultural background: high the power distance index, high the uncertainty avoidance dimension index, high the masculinity dimension index, more individualistic features in respect to the individualism-collectivism dimension and more short-term than long-term orientation (Kolman et al., 2003). These data report about prevalent attitudes of Czech managers to their employees and also about prevalent employees' behavior. Power distance dimension reports about the degree to which more powerful members of organizations or society exercise their power, various privileges and less powerful members accept such inequalities as normal situation. Mullins (2002) mentions that power distance is interconnected with levels of inequality in organizations and with prevalent management style. High power distance indexes are interconnected with autocratic managerial style. Uncertainty avoidance refers about a tendency to cope with anxiety by minimizing uncertainty (Hofstede, 1999). Societies with high indexes of uncertainty avoidance prefer rules and structured situations. High masculinity dimension refers to exhibition of competition, ambition; the acquisition of material goods, in general high indexes of masculinity is interconnected with “macho” attitudes and culture.

Although transformation processes in organizations were realized they are not accompanied by relevant participative or transformational leadership styles. Autocratic management style still prevails. There are problems with the implementation and acceptance of contemporary organization and work design or flexible

human resource management and development practices. These new approaches and leadership styles, including new requirements to employees, are contrary to prevalent Czech national values.

Unemployment has emerged as a new phenomenon. Employees were used to job security. There are great problems with implementation of the contemporary psychological contract. The contemporary psychological contract implicitly reflects and expects individual responsibility over individual life and career. Again these requirements are in contrast to Czech national values. Contemporary career concepts are not welcome. Their implementation is problematic not only due to cultural background, but also due to a low level of diversity of work contracts.

CONCLUSIONS

Contemporary working and organizational context represent a challenge for societies, organizations, and individuals all over the world. Large number of Czech organizations has undergone processes of restructuralization, downsizing, and rightsizing. Unemployment has emerged as a new issue. Paternalistic approach of the state or of organizations management has been changing. People have to adapt to new conditions but some people feel lost. New requirements for both organizations and employees run counter to significant Czech national values and to previous experiences relevant to the socialistic system.

There is a tendency to perceive only the transition to a market economy that is interconnected with fundamental societal changes, but not the transition to the postindustrialism. Problems with implementation and acceptance of all consequences from the transition to the postindustrialism as are new requirements to labor market; organizations and individuals are perceived very often from a narrow political point of view.

Employees demonstrate preference for the traditional psychological contract. They search for job security, not for employability. Employability or other new career concepts are almost unknown not only among employees, but even among HR specialists.

Organizational and work changes have to be reflected also in other systems, namely in education and legislation. It is obvious that an existence of flexible work force must to correspond to a legislative system. Also within EU there are differences in this aspect. In the Czech Republic employers often complain to a rigid legislative system relevant to Czech labor code, on the contrary employees prefer permanent employment contracts. The flexible labor force is not typical for Czech socioeconomic environment. The situation is conditioned by different historical development from western developed countries that can be indentified not only by historical data, but also by socioeconomic data relevant to various factors, including culture background.

Cultural values and stereotypes influence the results of social transformation. There are significant interconnections between culture and such problems as corruption and the abuse of political and position power.

Contemporary globalized economy represents a challenge for the entire world, not only for transitional economies. There are many questions interconnected with the post-industrialism and globalized economy. The speed of changes and acceptance of them is influenced by various socioeconomic factors. From psychological point of view it is important to emphasize on intercultural context of the two transitions in the case of transition economies, on analyzing and understanding these interconnections and to searching proposals for relevant implementation processes within organizations.

Changing organization and working life has been stimulating an emergence of various questions. One of them is about anticipated shifts in both values and expectations in societies. Are these expectations realistic? And what about their time horizon?

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PSYCHOLOGICAL UNDERSTANDING OF SYMBOLS IN ORGANIZATIONS

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Abstract. *The scientific psychological investigation of symbols and processes of symbolization is based in the bottom of many important factors, supporting human behavior explanation. In every single moment of our everyday life – in nature of our language, gestures, dreams and others, whether we understand or not this, all the time we use symbols. Understanding the secret language of symbols, we may find the origin of our innermost desires, fears and ambitions, which are leading us to our meaning of life. Many times the contents of human unconscious and many people's behaviors are too dark and difficult to understand, and the only way to lighten it is by using symbols which are making human conscious much more clear. Understanding this, we may say that again symbols are standing in the bases of organizational life analysis, being one of its most powerful and predictable indicators. This shows how important symbolic meanings may be and what they are doing **in** and **for** organizations. Symbols as physical signs in organizations are integrating feelings, thoughts, and actions into shared codes of meaning. Symbols often are doing this by reflecting on basic and shared values and assumptions in organizational life; by influencing behaviour by finding out people's internalized values and norms, by influencing people's acting out the roles, in which they are placed; by acting as frames of reference that facilitate conversation about abstract concepts, and many others. In that matter symbols integrate emotion, cognition, and behaviour into shared codes in organizations. Actually these symbolic shared codes are making organizational culture better and stronger, and indeed **organization**. This paper aims to be the next effort, trying to explain how understanding of great meaning of psychological investigation of how people's usage of symbols and processes of symbolization can be a great benefit for every kind of levels of study and manage different organizations. So, with this paper we wish to show that an important part of psychological under-*

standing of organizations is the careful reading and analysis of organizational symbols. Such an analysis needs to examine the emotions, thoughts, and actions that symbols may engender, and the integrated systems of meaning that they show to us. This analysis continues previous assertions that when management wishes to create different and culturally rich organizations they must attend to organizational symbols. Thus, symbols and their psychological explanation are standing on the basis of a broad territory of methods, which are helping human's cognition and knowledge. Using the secret language of symbols, people often are reaching deeper levels of understanding and better knowing their-selves and the others. The processes of symbolization are a basic mechanism in the personal development, social interactions and in creating and consuming the phenomenon of culture.

Keywords: *Symbol, Symbolization, Organizations, Organizational culture, Organizational unconscious dynamics*

INTRODUCTION

Sometimes the understanding of the cultural system of an organization is to understand the reactions, interpretations, and actions of organizational members, and how those actions, thoughts, and feelings are related into a common system of an organization. Such understanding is impossible without careful attention to organizational symbols, which somehow or other are integrating the organizational life. That's why they often are explained like elements which are making members' active construction of sense, knowledge, and behavior more clear, clean and structured.

Sometimes symbols are examined as visible, physical manifestations of organizations and indicators of organizational life. Symbols take important meanings in organizations which are defined by cultural and social conventions and interactions.

Sometimes symbols may be noticed through sight, sound, touch and smell. Symbols are experienced as real, and their impact has significant organizational effects. Things such as organizational layout, organizational landscape, or organizational dress may be examples. While some research showed that symbols are easily manipulated, we will try to show that symbol is a powerful indicator of organizational dynamics that are not necessarily easily changed.

Organizational culture is construed as a network of meanings or shared experiences and interpretations that provides members with a shared and accepted reality. Some of symbols' functions are to provide a real expression of this shared reality.

Psychoanalytic understanding of Symbols in organizations

At the level of the human's psyche, Freud identified the symbols in his patients' dreams as reflections of their underlying fears and psychoses, arguing that these are important points for psychotherapy. So we may conclude that symbols reflect underlying other important values or realities. Other points of view are presented in disciplines such as anthropology to study cultures through their symbols. Such kinds of ideas are also applied to organizational culture. People, studying organizational life share the opinion for symbols as the first layer of culture, are the presenters of observable products that make up the sensory experience of organizations. They concluded that symbols "enable us to take aim directly at the heart of culture" because they represent the things which is hardly known and yet unable to be communicated by an organization's members. Thus, in the first function of symbols, members make meaning from them. Looking at obvious physical manifestations of an organization may tell us more than we might suppose.

Therefore, symbols may tell us much of what we know about organizations. As the delicate, sensory, felt experiences in organizational life, symbols are a way to understand the organizations they reflect. Through sensing of symbols we come to feel as if we know the organization. This process may suggest that symbol helps bridge the gap between feeling and thought in organizations. Symbols lighten the feelings and work to make feelings outwardly discussible and objectively real. Because of processes of deeper interpretation and sensemaking, the emotional experience sparked by symbols leads to a cognitive understanding of the organization.

Psychoanalysis lays on the understanding that behind different human behaviors, often explained like *symbolic actions*, are hidden different, difficult to realize facts. Their investigation helps the understanding of meaning of symbols and their unconscious processes and their dynamic relations with human consciousness. A big part of these unconscious facts are formed in people's earliest childhood and later in the adolescent are used like models for dealing with different tasks. Such models give to people exact expectations for behavior of people around them and often define their whole perception and experience in different situations. Due to psychoanalysis, human psyche is made to use such models which in ordinary situations are changed by the consciousness and the person's realistic estimation of the possibilities of the concrete situation. Though under the pressure of deep stress or some traumatic events, the psyche is disposed immediately to actualize these unconscious models, which are not considered with the conscious and rational processes of thinking – for example infantile models for satisfying some needs, unrealistic beliefs and convictions, denial for accepting the surrounding reality etc.

Psychodrama and group therapies' understanding of symbols

Researchers in social psychology group therapies has demonstrated that people often act some roles in which they are placed. Various types of symbols shows this behavior.

Psychodrama is coming like the first group method in psychotherapy, developed for examination of different personal problems, fantasies, fears and desires. This method is based on the suggestion that investigation of feelings, forming of new models of communication and behaviors is more effective in using of actions similar to real situations from everyday life, than using only verbal methods like in the other therapies. The intensity of experiences is growing up while using various psychodramatical methods and especially *the play with various symbols from patient's personal world*, which helps expression of feelings and emotions.

By the many techniques from theatre, the method of psychodrama helps the patient, using different *verbal and non verbal symbols*, to replay past, present or future situations from his everyday life, and to understand them better and with this to reach catharsis in relation with bothering him problems. On the scene, there are played and replayed important valuable for patient problems and situations, and by this psychodrama is aiming to help the participants to distinguish of experience again different hidden feelings but allusioned somehow or other, to success to express them fully and together with this to encourage the trying of new, more effective behavior.

So, one of the most important functions of symbol, reflecting an organizational culture, is that symbol bridges between feeling and thought. This bridge relies on the feelings and thoughts with which symbols are associated to elicit the behaviors appropriate for the situation.

Methodology from a line of study called "dramaturgy" – the study of human interaction as performance – can support an understanding of how symbols guide the acting of organizational life. Dramaturgy shows that everyday behavior is a form of self-presentation. The goal of dramaturgy is to uncover how humans accomplish meaning in their lives, with social interaction proposed as the key source of meaning. One idea largely unexplored by dramaturgy is that humans also interact with the physical environment. Just as with social interaction, interaction with symbols offers people meaning. Some illustrations of these ideas show that employees use personal decoration of workspace to manage their own emotions on the job, for instance through focusing on a poster of the ocean hanging over the desk to calm down. Other found that employees in an accounting office interacted with office records in dramaturgical fashion; they used the symbol of orderly records and tidy record keeping as guides to their work routines, even though the organizational reality did not allow such routines.

Cognitive-behavioral understanding of symbols in organizations

Other researchers documented the impact of symbols in a powerful series of studies that explored various aspects that control human behavior.

In difference with psychodynamic psychotherapies, cognitive-behavioral one works systematically with internal for patient experiences, while categorizing the processes of thought and relating them with external events through accurate observations during time of therapy on factors like thinking, emotions, work with symbols and their influence on human behavior. Cognitive-behavioral psychotherapy is invented to learning by practicing of concrete skills of own responsibility of patient in their using, which empowers the feeling that has the control in himself and possesses skills for cope.

Social learning theory Bandura suggests that people learn through associations. Behavior therefore comes to be associated with symbols that act as signs in the environment. This theory shows that when symbols are associated with internal states or feelings, their physical presence can awake the associated states and feelings. In organizational contexts, a symbol that prompts internalized feelings provides a way to understand and act upon those feelings. Thus symbol serves as a link between feeling, interpretation, and action in organizations.

Basic psychological researchs support the idea of symbol as an unconscious form of communication.

The idea that unconscious affective and cognitive processes guide our behavior is also supported in environmental psychology. Thus, the deeper experience of symbols is a form of communication withverbal or conscious intervention.

Organizational examples of this function of symbol can be seen everywhere. In the medical profession, for example, the symbol of the white coat is explicitly used to elicit appropriate and desired behavior. In general, environments that are experienced as pleasant fast spending beyond what the individual had intended, and environments that are pleasant and also arousing increase the time customers spend in the store and their willingness to interact with employees.

Behavioral understanding of Symbol in organizations

Going ahead with studying the symbols in organization, we find that there is no looking without a frame through which to see. Studies of everyday experience suggest that simply perceiving the world involves the activity of forming suggestions about what came before and expectations about what will come next. We construct what we see, largely through the expectation of what we have seen before. As observers of everyday events, we actively project our frames of reference

onto the world and expect what we find to match what we are looking for. When our frames of reference match our circumstances, the framework of our experience is largely invisible to us. When the circumstances do not match our framework, we are angry and feel that something is wrong or out of place. And we want to talk about it.

So, another function of symbol is to make these frameworks external visible and available for discussion by organizational members. Symbols help people communicate and share their frames of thought. The frameworks of a particular social group build a central element of its culture and usually require a mode of communication.

Money is a classic example of symbol functioning as frame. Presumably the most important thing taking place in the budgeting process is the allocation of money. However, the result of a budget may be less about the spending of money than it is about the expression of organizational values and the quest for legitimacy. Money functions as a symbol to allow conversation about abstract ideas such as organizational identity, values, priorities, and beliefs.

In behavioral psychology and psychotherapy using of symbols is connected with the idea of awards and punishments in the processes forming some kind of behavior, and they play a role of mediator when *connect symbolically* some behavior with some positive or negative emotion and value. On the same base it was created a scheme for practical action, called *symbolic economy*. This system is spreading the idea for open and systematic awarding of wanted reactions in behavior, aiming creation and correction of some concrete human behaviors. The chosen reactions are a reflection of these which different dominant groups (for example parents, teachers, employers etc.) understand as usual and normal behavior. At first reactions are defined in general and then if it is necessary – for example when they are more complicated, they are divided to their composite parts.

Jungian Analysis for Symbols in organizations

Symbol as a means of communication can also occur at the organizational level, wherein, for example, an organizational identity in the minds of the public is established through symbolic or deeper means. Consistency in symbolic aspects of product design and advertising considers these organizational level actions to be organizational communication with potential customers.

Organizational level communication through symbols is also important to members inside the organization. All the formal organizational communication rely on symbols to communicate to both insiders and outsiders. Instances of transition call up bright examples of the use of symbols. Although symbols such as logos may seem arbitrary, they are not. Discussions of the new name, the new logo,

and other organizational symbols provided a way for organizational members to understand the identities and values that come along with a major organizational change.

Many difficult and abstract issues in organizations are brought in discussions of dress codes, employment and product advertising, annual reports, logos, titles, or other organizational symbols. This is not limited to so called “verbal symbols,” such as myth and legend in organizations. It is the case that members’ stories themselves are symbols that can prove invaluable in organizational analysis. So very often, organizational symbol offers a language for organizational discussion.

The processes of symbol forming in the terms of analytical psychology and psychotherapy include the idea of balance and harmony, which is mainly in eastern philosophies. The main sense and meaning of symbol is visible in mythology, religions and folklore, giving people the feeling that they are experiencing one and the same problems with the other people. These feelings are making possible life in communities, giving strength, safety and protection, the feeling for blood relationship between all living organisms on earth. Understanding and accepting one of these points of view for symbols is based on the concrete cultural rules (east or west) of symbolizing people. Freudian point of view is more concrete and therefore probably more near to the western cultural understandings. Jungian understanding may be presented as a kind of bridge between people from more traditional cultures and western civilizations with conceptual, cause-and-effect and personal thinking, and perception of world – more far from sensuality. From other side, cultures like from Africa, Asia, some parts of Latin America are more based on emotions and pre-logical and mystic thinking. That is why applying of analytic psychology and psychotherapy which lays on the bases of archaic heritage of symbol is more appropriate for psychotherapy and examination of such societies.

Cognitive understanding of Symbol in organizations

To answer the question about the organizational dress code was also to answer the deeper conflicts about the purpose and identity of the organization and its members.

Another function of symbols is to provide a vehicle for conversation and communication among organizational members. A careful cultural researcher can uncover meaning through exploring the uses of symbols in everyday conversation. As a frame for organizational experiences, symbol provides a currency for discussion of otherwise abstract or ambiguous notions that are critical to the organization. Understanding an organizational culture can be facilitated by listening carefully to conversations about symbol.

Some researchers propose that symbols have a mutual function that allows people to make sense of the organization and to find their place within it. They note that managers work primarily with myth and symbol in the wide roles of management. So in this function, symbol integrates multiple, competing, and potentially even conflicting systems of meaning in an organization.

More broadly, symbols, as the physical manifestations of organizational life, may help organizational members and observers to integrate their experiences into coherent systems of meaning. The physical environment helps people encountering the organization make sense of it as a coherent idea.

The methods of semiotic analysis are useful for understanding how symbols provide an integration of an interpretive frame. Semiotics considers the world of organizations to be a system of signs. A sign is defined as the relationship between a symbol and the content conveyed by the symbol. The assumption in semiotics is that the link between expression and content is determined by the conventions of the individuals involved, which are called codes. A code consists of a set of symbols, a set of contents conveyed by the symbols, and rules for combining them. Codes thus specify meanings of a set of symbols within a culture. In using semiotic methods for studying organizational culture, the coders are the members of the organization, and the codes are the systems of meanings that are shared in the organization. Semiotic analysis suggests that in order to fully study an organization's culture, the relevant symbols, the content conveyed by the symbols, and the rthat bind them must be uncovered.

Symbols in organizations of different cultural context

Because of the fact that symbols can be physical objects, on which is given some sense conditionally, the social shared believes and values from all people can be described in some long-term forms like cultural monuments, productions of art, flags and other written documents. Such kind of symbols helps to be kept the information and social traditions for long periods of time. This makes possible gradually storing and revaluation of information for many generations. In that way the whole corps of the shared human knowledge gradually grows up and becomes more sophisticated than one person or collaborating group may hope ever to create. So the symbolic ability of people makes possible the increasing of complexity, which is not possible at anyone other social animal.

Multiple symbols in an organization can be easily coherent or well fitting. It is likely that the fluid and coordinated relationships among organizational symbols lead to deep good experience .

Thus, understanding organizational cultures involves the examination of complete systems of signification and meaning located in historical fields. Understanding organizational culture change involves tracing these meaning systems

through time. The organization as a cultural system is created through the integration of socially shared interpretations of symbols, and its study makes difficult a simple focus on a specific symbol.

We may conclude that multiple symbols may not be well integrated. This may happen when there are cultural hits within organizations and different codes are in operation. According to semiotics an analysis of these symbols would reveal the internal conflicts or the lack of cohesion of the organizational culture.

The semiotic analysis of symbols is not independent of an analysis of the other functions of symbols. Rather, it extends these functions and gives up a more comprehensive analysis. The fourth function of symbol, as integrator, unravels deeper codes of meaning that underlie organizational actions, reveals how members link symbol and content, locates the organization in specific historical fields, and brings us closer to an understanding of behavior within organizations.

CONCLUSIONS

This work shows that the psychological and psychotherapeutical understanding of main symbols in organizations form several clusters. Underlying this typology lies the classical division of the human psyche created by Freud, who is also the first psychologist created a special theory of symbols and symbolism, namely symbols in unconscious, in conscious and in social norms and morals. As a result of the analysis, the sphere of morality should be extended to the overall effect of culture. The works of other schools develop and further refine this vision of the typology in mental symbols. We offer precisely this separation because it is its natural synthetic continuation of analysis of the concept of symbol in different psychological theories, therapies and understandings.

We may say also, that an important part of understanding the organizational culture is the careful reading and analysis of organizational symbols. Such analysis needs to study the emotions, thoughts, and actions that symbols may cause, and the integrated systems of meaning that they convey. This analysis continues previous ideas that when management wishes to create colorful and culturally rich organizations they must attend to organizational symbols.

After all, we may suggest that symbols serve some functions in organizations. They reflect underlying aspects of culture, generating emotional responses from organizational members and representing organizational values and assumptions. They elicit internalized norms of behavior, linking members' emotional responses and interpretations to organizational action. They describe experience, allowing organizational members to communicate about vague, controversial, or uncomfortable organizational issues. And, they integrate the entire organization in one system of signification.

A serious examination requires both depth and breadth of attention to the multiple symbols that abound in organizations. We find that organizational symbols have the power to facilitate the smooth organizational functioning. Paying not enough attention to the multiple aspects of organizational symbol may lead to the possibility of a lack of shared interpretative codes among organizational members. This is perhaps easiest to see when a product does not match the quality of symbolized by its advertising or brand name, and therefore loses on the market.

The process of symbolization is more dynamic rather than static. Organizational symbols relate to one another and to the external environment. Organizational members, from customers to competitors to employees to managers, continuously read and respond to the organizational landscape. However, with careful attention to the physical environment and the conversations, thoughts, emotions, and actions of organization members, the study of symbols can prove a deep, rich and worthy understanding of organizational cultures.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL MODEL OF MANAGER'S CULTURAL COMPETENCE

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Abstract. *The cultural competence belongs to the set of managers' key competences in the situation of a social and economic globalization, polyculture and development of complex organizations. The cultural competence means readiness and ability of managers to use the organizational values and norms that set the organization general development vector as tools of an employee business behavior management. It helps to realize the company's goals through the integration of efforts of all employees. A relation between the meaning content of the cultural norm for an individual and the choice of the criterion behavior type was established by an empirical approach. A psychological factor of the behavior choice is the individual's readiness to use the organization culture norm as a tool for personal behavior and other people's behavior regulation. The relations were established between operational & instrumental and motivational & notional components of the readiness. The results of the research formed the basis for the elaboration and description of a three-level model of the cultural competence that establishes the requirements to a manager's business behavior and also differentiates the functions and zones of responsibility of managers on each managerial level. Managerial goals, functions and means for the organizational culture management are defined. The model allows to diagnose three types of business behavior that are characteristic of a person. On the basis of the diagnose certain conclusions can be made about the level of a manager's involvement in the organizational culture as a main condition of his/her managerial efficiency. The conditions of a manager's cultural competence are described. An example is given of a practical use of the model for the evaluation of the compatibility of the organization factors, management system and organizational culture with the organization life cycle.*

Keywords: *Organizational Values and Norms as tools of Management, Model of Cultural Competence, Organizational Changes, Control of Employee's Behavior, Types of Business Behaviors.*

INTRODUCTION

The competence allows constructing people's behavior patterns in the organization as applied in unique organizational conditions. Among the core competencies of a manager the cultural competence is the most important one. Its essence is in readiness and ability of managers to use values and norms of organizational culture as the management tool to rule business behavior of workers. Value-oriented behavioral strategy of the organization exercises significant influence on the economic magnitudes of organization functioning and appears the topmost reserve of its economic efficiency growth (Denison, D.). Management of the organizational culture provides on the one hand adherence of workers and on the other hand – adaptability of workers to the organizational changes. The development of the managers' cultural competence harmonizes the organizational activity as well as humanizes the relations between employees since allows to build these relations based on congruity and participation principle.

The regulation on the organizational culture importance factor for the competitive power growth of the organization is adopted by managers. However, in practice managers face considerable difficulties. The inquiry of the Ural enterprises' managers (Mirolyubova, G., 2006) has shown that there exists a real need to work-out recommendations determining the aims of cultural development of the organization, concretizing managerial functions and zones of responsibility for the managers of all hierarchy levels. In actual fact this was the order for working out a model of cultural competence.

In this paper we set out the results of work on modeling the cultural competence of a manager. The given model is developed on the basis of the empirical data of the psychological research conducted in 2005–2007. Our experience in the given problem field as well as teaching and consulting practice show that the interest has not disappeared but on the contrary has considerably grown. It is not only curiosity now but a structured need to receive a clear and definite answer to the questions:

- what and how a manager should do to use the cultural potential of the organization to its own benefit;
- how to teach a manager do it;
- how to estimate professional abilities level to manage people's behavior by means of values and norms of the organizational culture.

METHODOLOGY

The literature on the approaches on modeling of the professional competencies is in abundance. Key manager competencies are being developed and described (Lucia, A.D. and Lepsinger, R., 1999). But professional skills aimed at the effective management of the organizational culture are included into the overall context of managerial skills. I have placed these abilities into a separate group, presuming that global social, economic and cultural changes demand updating of the professional competencies of a manager.

The model of the cultural competence is intended to concretize the objects and functions of managers. Their meaning should be univocal, and their execution should be measured quantitatively and described in terms of actions and concrete result. At the first stage we allocated the factors defining development of the cultural competence of a manager. They are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1. FACTORS DEFINING DEVELOPMENT OF THE CULTURAL COMPETENCE

Objective	Subjective	Objective-subjective
Environment factor: instability level market specialties polyculture	personal value and norm system reflexivity locus of control (internality)	Period of service in organization management experience international communication experience
<i>Organization factors:</i> life-cycle stage size field aims and strategy organizational culture	readiness for the instrumental usage of cultural norms ability to use the norm as the tool of behavior management	Managerial level of a position

We chose key psychological factor that determines cultural competence called it a readiness to use a norm as a tool of behavior management (regulation). It means both regulation of one's own business behavior, other people's behavior, and behavior of groups within a company. In the structure of readiness for the instrumental usage we are pointing out two: motivational and behavioral. The first is presented in consciousness of the subject by contents of personal sense of norm. Objectively it can be fixed in the form of value judgment. The second component is presented in consciousness by subjective image of possible action, the purpose and a way of its realization. Objectively it is fixed in a choice of a standard behavior.

We have the following hypothesis: a subjective meaning of a norm/ or standard (the way a person interprets it) and the type of standard behavior that the person chooses are interrelated. We conducted a research among managers in companies of the Urals region of Russia (Mirolyubova G., 2006). Correlation and cluster analysis of the empirical data made it possible to allocate three levels of readiness for instrumental usage of a norm:

The first level of readiness – readiness to use a standard as a tool of one's own behavior regulation – it can be characterized by the stability of relation between a “subjective meaning” and “execution”.

The second level of readiness – readiness to use a standard as a tool of one's own and other people's behavior – it can be characterized by the stability of relation between “group meaning” and two types of behavior: “execution” and “influence”.

The third level of readiness – readiness to use a standard as a tool of one's own and other people's behavior as well as of social systems – it can be characterized by the stability of relation between “organizational meaning” and three types of behavior: “execution”, “influence”, and “change”.

Results of the conducted research have proved our concept to be true and became the base for working out the model of the cultural competence of a manager. The data of scientific research could help to solve the practical problems of organizational culture management.

While modeling the cultural competence we considered two basic aspects: activity and the person. They compose, in our opinion, the objective and subjective content of the cultural competence.

The objective (pragmatist) content of the cultural competence is defined by activity components important for process realization of workers' business behavior management: object, purpose, means.

The objects of administrative influence are 1) “I”(myself); 2) a man (alter), 3) group, 4) organization as a whole. The more difficult the object is, the more difficult is the activity. The activity purpose for managing the organizational culture has not final (self-valuable), but intermediate character. The peculiarity of standard activity is that it basically fulfills a service function and supports other organizational processes. The activity purpose corresponds to the object of management: 1) the embeddedness in the culture of the organization, absorbing of its values and norms and following them in business behavior (*internalization*); 2) creation of conditions for successful *socialization* of workers in the organization; 3) *procreation* of organizational values and norms in group activity (formation of group norms on the basis of organizational) and interaction of groups on achievement of the general organizational goals (*integration*); 4) maintenance of successful *adaptation* of the organization in the environment.

The purpose is realized in specific targets and through performance of concrete functions: 1) control of own behavior; 2) management of behavior of a sepa-

rate worker; 3) management of behavior of a group and coordination of activity of groups within the limits of the organization; 4) management of behavior of the organization as a social whole. The main tools of managing the organizational culture are: 1) personal norms of the subject; 2) professional standards of behavior; 3) group and organizational norms fixed in standards of business behavior; 4) values of the organization and ethical business practices.

The subjective (personal) content of the cultural competence is defined 1) by *knowledge*, 2) *readiness*, 3) *ability* of a manager to operate professionally. The elements can be differently combined, be of a different quality and from a different level of development. It depends on many external and internal conditions. The most important ones we already presented above in Table 1.

RESULTS

As the result of our research we worked out a level model of a manager's cultural competence. It is shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2. LEVELS OF CULTURAL COMPETENCE.

Levels of cultural competence	Manager	Object of management	Goal of management	Function of management	Means of management
III	Top	Organization as social system	Adaptation	Change (modification) of the organization	Organizational values Ethic standards
II	Middle	Group	Reproduction/ integration	Concordance (agreement, coordination) of group interests and organization as a whole/groups behavior correction	Organizational/ group standards
I	Lower	Someone else	Socialization	Control/ correction of a person's behavior	Standards of an employee's business behavior
Base	All	Myself	Internalization	Self-regulation	Personal values and standards

When the competence is being developed, it is important to guarantee a horizontal and vertical succession of levels. A real competence of a manager can be assessed by the level of knowledge, readiness and skills that he/she reveals in his/her behavior. Each level is diagnosed by certain behavioral indicators. In practice they are described as requirements to a manager's business behavior and to the way he/she executes his/her managerial function.

On the basic level of cultural competence a manager:

- ♣ Understands and accepts standards and values of an organizational culture;
- ♣ Follows the organization's standards;
- ♣ Corrects his/her own behavior when deviating from a standard.
- ♣ On the first level of cultural competence a manager:
 - ♣ Establishes constructive interpersonal relations;
 - ♣ Guarantees that an executor understands a standard;
 - ♣ Evaluates an employee's ability to execute an organizational standard;
 - ♣ Forecasts an employee's behavior;
 - ♣ Controls the correctness of a cultural standard execution;
 - ♣ Selects appropriate ways of behavior correction;
 - ♣ Takes into account an employee's individual peculiarities.
- ♣ On the second level of cultural competence a manager:
 - ♣ Creates a positive social and psychological climate in a group;
 - ♣ Sets the goals of a group activity;
 - ♣ Works out group standards;
 - ♣ Defines what each employee has to contribute to a common goal achievement;
 - ♣ Reconciles group interests with interests of other groups and of an organization as a whole;
 - ♣ Develops and manages the system of employees business behavior standards training.
- ♣ On the third level of cultural competence a manager:
 - ♣ Works out a system of standards and values for an organization (its mission, philosophy, goals, and strategy);
 - ♣ Develops a system of an organization's culture management;
 - ♣ Corrects or totally changes a standard in accordance with organization's key goals;
 - ♣ Plans new standard behavior of employees;
 - ♣ Organizes his/her own behavior taking into account other social and cultural systems;
 - ♣ Has a tendency for cooperation under the conditions of cross-cultural interaction;
 - ♣ Organizes business in accordance with ethic standards.

The cultural competence model sets requirements to a manager's business behavior, differentiates functions and responsibilities of managers of each managerial level.

DISCUSSION

Nowadays organizations are constantly changing. To a great extent the efficiency of these changes depends on the employees' support. That is why managers have a very important task to support such employees' behavior that corresponds to the organization's goals and helps to achieve them. Besides managers have to modify employees' behavior in accordance with organizational changes.

Organizational changes require changes in the organization and its culture. The organization's value and goal priorities, as well as its norms and standards undergo changes. New values and standards must be related to new competences of managers in order to support and develop them in new conditions. It is important that a new system is not destroyed when standards and norms are changed. A manager's task is to define how an employee should behave on a certain stage of the organization's development. The cultural competence model allows as well to diagnose an employee's business behavior type. On the basis of the aforementioned characteristic of cultural competence by levels, it is possible to single out 4 types of an individual's behavior:

Strict abidance by norms (*norm-conformable behavior*), to-sample behavior: when the situation changes, a person either makes the situation standard or stops to take any actions.

Flexible abidance by norms (*norm-realizing behavior*): when the situation changes a person accepts a new norm and corrects his/ her behavior in accordance with it.

Norm abidance control by other people (*norm-controlling behavior*): a person corrects other people's behavior in accordance with the norm set forth from outside.

Creation of a new norm (*norm-creating behavior*): a person transforms the norm due to the change of the situation while retaining the aim of the activity; creates conditions for a change.

CONCLUSIONS

To use organizational culture as a resource for the organization's development means to use its main elements, values and standards as tools for employees' business behavior management. A manager's cultural competence model that we worked out helps to understand what exactly has to be done with this purpose by managers of different hierarchy levels. Besides it can be as well used for profes-

sional training and evaluation of managers. The was approved in practice during professional training and evaluation of a professional development level of managers working with several companies of the Ural region. The results of the researched formed the basis for the course of lectures “Management of Organizational Culture” and training course “Cultural Competence Development” for Managers of Ural industrial enterprises and the students of the Ural State Technical University.

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CAUSES OF CONFLICTS BETWEEN EMPLOYEES AT SUPERMARKETS

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Abstract. Introduction: An important determinant of organizational development is managers' ability to timely assess chances for development and effects of organizational conflicts of any type which is covered by the term conflict management. Conflict management is important for supermarkets being one of the main trade outlets in Ukrainian towns and cities. **Objectives:** To analyze causes of interpersonal conflicts at supermarkets. **Method:** The investigation was done on 160 supermarket employees (sales persons, cashiers, consultants, managers) using M. Sheynis Climate-1 questionnaire. **Results:** 1. 30% of the respondents noted presence and increased number of work conflicts at supermarkets. 2. Among the main causes of conflicts the respondents named unsatisfactory administration's management style and methods (51.4%), co-workers' personal attributes (59.1%), drawbacks in work organization (50.5%) and poor work conditions (50.8%). 3. To the respondents mind, horizontal conflicts were more common than vertical ones (73% against 27% correspondingly). **Conclusion.** The obtained findings suggest the necessity of employees' and managers' undergoing a special psychological training course in conflict management which should be a certain way of large trading organizations' organizational development.

Keywords: organizational conflicts, existing conflicts, departments conflicts, compromise, cooperation, avoidance, competition, malleability.

INTRODUCTION

The contemporary psychology in the context of studying conflicts within organizational systems is based on developing theoretical schemes that reflect various

models of uncooperative behaviour, as well as on creating diagnostic procedures allowing for determining individuals' polarity towards different behaviour styles under conflict situations (Blake, Mouton, Thomas, Rahim, Ancupov, Sheynis, Karamushka etc.). As a result of organisation activity, conflicts might cause uncongenial climate in the team or a severe revolving door effect. Apart from that, some frictions may lead to loss of efficiency, credibility comedown of the management and deterioration of the organisation status within a system of productive relations with other economic structures.

Methodology The goal is to find out the reasons, the kinds of organizational conflicts in supermarkets, the methods of reacting by the staff on such situations using the questionnaire "Psychological traits of optimization of working processes in trading organizations and supermarkets", "Klimat-1" by M. J. Sheynis.

Participants – 160 employees of supermarket-chains "Foxtrot" and "Furshet". Research was conducted in town Kerch, Crimea.

RESULTS

Among all factors which can be the reason for conflicts and characterize satisfaction (dissatisfaction) of employers following can be pointed out as positive: relations to colleagues (68,9%) relation to work (63,2%); team-filling (61,8%), relations to chiefs (71%). Negative factors: common conditions of work (48,9%); working organization (49,2%); equity of salary (67,5%); equity of bonuses (62,1%); total payment (83%); regulations of working time (66,7%). Horizontal interpersonal conflicts are more often than vertical (73% against 27%).

The main reason for conflicts are the style and methods of the chief (51,4%); personal characteristics of colleagues (59,1%). Moreover conflicts appear as results of lacks in working organization (50,5%) and poor conditions of work (50,8%).

Results according to questionnaire "Psychological traits of optimization of working processes in trading organizations and supermarkets"

All participants say about existing conflicts in their organizations. More often (75,6% against 24,4%) there are conflicts with employees of another departments. Conflicts with customers – 67%. Interpersonal horizontal conflicts appear more often than vertical ones (73%). The existence of conflicts with direction admitted 27% of all participants. Possible reasons of conflicts with colleagues: heightened control from colleagues side (53,2%), ignorance of own tasks (62,1%), fault-finding (32,4%), competition (fighting for customer) (43,9%). The reasons for the conflicts with customers – sluggishness (45,3%), inability (unwillingness) to listen to the end (64,7%), ungrounded claims (high prices, low quality) (73,1%), fault-finding (43,6%). With direction – bureaucracy (45%), inconsistency between salary and volume of tasks (67,5%), non-objective evaluation (62,1%). The characteristics which influence appearance of conflicts: irascibility, touchiness, rigidity, incompliance, perseverance,

uneasiness, hyper- responsibility. After conflicts employers feel injury, anxiety, fear, anger, blame, bad feeling, spiritual bankruptcy, feebleness. Even so these conditions continue for a long time and one try to solve the conflicts by its own.

**TABLE 1 RESULTS ACCORDING TO QUESTIONNAIRE “KLIMAT-1”
THE REASONS OF CONFLICTS IN SHOPS “KONICA” AND “HERMES”**

Nr.	Reasons	Never	Sometimes	Often
1	Weakness of working organisation	116	44	0
2	Non-clear distribution of tasks	80	48	32
3	Poor work of colleagues	112	48	0
4	Poor planning and inequality of rights	100	12	48
5	Poor conditions of work	148	12	0
6	Breach of working discipline	148	12	0
7	Distribution of bonuses	100	60	0
8	Planning of Holydays	88	72	0
9	Non-ignorable deeds of colleagues	88	72	0
10	Imperfection of behavior, personal features and character of colleagues	88	72	0
11	Style & methods of chief	148	12	0
12	The team finds the business tasks of the chief poor	160	0	0
13	The chief finds the business tasks of the team/person poor	88	72	0

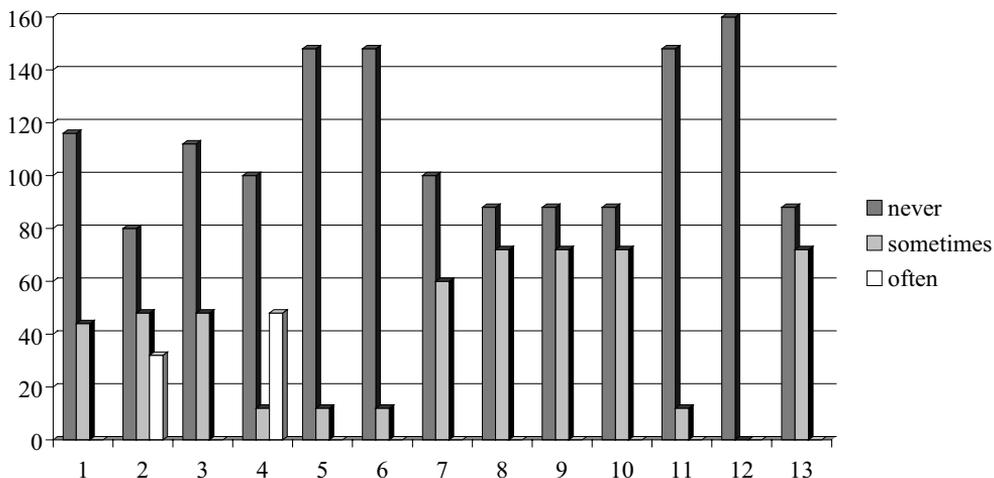


FIGURE 1. THE REASONS OF CONFLICTS IN SHOPS “KONICA” & “HERMES”

For solving of conflicts employers usually prefer: compromise and cooperation (35% and 31%), avoidance (21,7%), competition (11,8%), malleability (3,1 %).

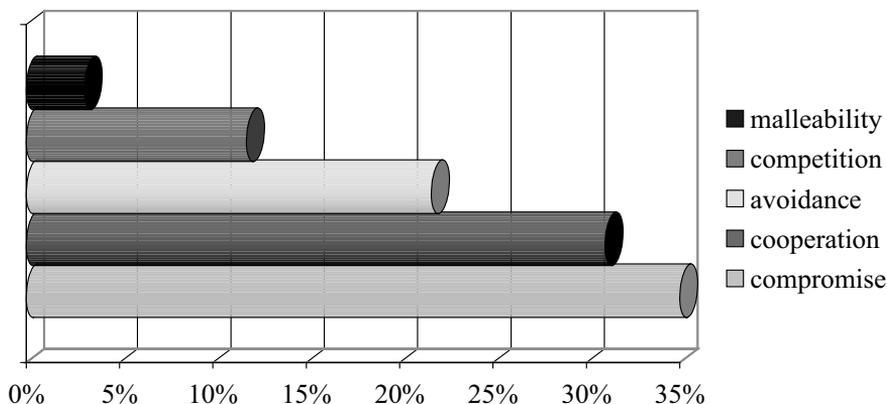


FIGURE 2. WAYS OF CONFLICT SOLVING

Research results coincide with the conclusions of M. Sheynis (Sheynis, 2005, p. 108).

Almost all participants (98,2%) think that for solving the conflict situations with small losses for each person and working process their organization needs intervention of qualified specialist. Only 4,3% of participants pointed out positive sides of conflicts: possibility for solving the existing problem, stimulus for revision of own positions.

Summary: personal characteristics of colleagues and customers cause the main conflicts between employers of trading organizations. The conflicts appear also because of purity in working organization. But there are some differences between kinds of conflicts in grocery and technical supermarkets. It can be explained by different strategies of management in these organizations.

Obtained dates are evidence of necessity (especially in times of social and economical changes) of special psychological trainings in prevention and solving of conflicts for managers and heads of big trading organizations.

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COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS BETWEEN BULGARIAN AND EUROPEAN SYSTEMS FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL SELECTION OF APPLICANTS FOR INITIAL TRAINING OF AIR TRAFFIC CONTROLLERS

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Abstract. The purpose of this report is to make comparative analysis between FEAST (First European Air traffic controller Selection Test) used to select applicants for training in ATSA Training Center with the Bulgarian system PATBA (Psychology Assessment Test Battery in Aviation) used in psychological evaluation for medical certification in the Laboratory of aviation psychology and flight safety.

INTRODUCTION

Training an Air Traffic Controller (ATCO) from the stage of an *ab initio* trainee to license-holder usually lasts 2–3 years, involves significant investments and resources.. Selecting and recruiting suitable candidates of high calibre for training via the use of appropriate and valid selection and assessment tools is an important method of increasing the success rate in training and job performance. This is in the interest of both the organisation and the selected applicants and of course contributes to safety standards in the provision of air navigation services. Several studies were launched in the 4th Framework programme of EC in the CAST – Consequences of future ATM systems for ATCO Selection and Training project. The overall objective of this project was the identification of consequences for selection and training deriving from the new working environment due to the new functions and system automation strategy (CAST, 1999, p.2.). An examination of the selection systems of 24 national systems located in the ECAC – European civil aviation conference area showed that – although the majority of the selection tools/tests included in the test battery were reported to have been designed for

ATC only 13 (54%) selection systems were able to report validity data on some of the tests. 46% of the national selection systems used computer based tests as the main testing method and another 17% in combination with paper and pencil tests (EUROCONTROL, 2000). The goal of EUROCONTROL – European Organisation for the Safety of Air Navigation is to harmonise and integrate Air Navigation Services in Europe, aiming at the creation of a *uniform* Air Traffic Management System for *civil and military* users, in order to achieve the *safe, orderly, expeditious and economic* flow of traffic throughout Europe (*Article 1 of the revised Convention*).

The development of FEAST can be traced back to 1995 following the work of two task forces under the European Air Traffic Control Harmonisation and Integration Programme (EATCHIP). One key principle was to identify task performance aspects, which are essential in the training of ab-initio air traffic control trainees.

General Job Aspects

ATC tasks are system management tasks. A system's operation is planned involving a number of objects and individuals, the success of such plans is monitored and plans are modified if necessary. Resources are allocated according to need and availability and a complex set of rules (see Eisfeld & Haintz, 2002, Brooah 2002)

Having a precise SA (Situational Awareness) is the most important characteristic of a controller. Endesly (1999) defines SA as the perception of elements in the environment within a volume of time and space, the comprehension of their meaning and the projection of their state in the near future. To have the picture is a term that is used as equivalent in ATC. SA is a concept or mental model, rather than a skill. It is also a product or achievement, not a process. Endesly (1999) distinguishes three levels of SA in aviation

- ♣ Perception of the Elements in the Environment
- ♣ Comprehension of the current elements
- ♣ Projection of Future Status

Each element is supported by attention and/or working memory, poor or incorrect mental model or inadequate goals.

To achieve a full SA, the controller is dependent on prior knowledge and actual information. Therefore the dynamic process of collecting, processing and distinguishing information can be seen as the current aspect in ATC.

The information to be processed typically stems from multiple sources (visual or acoustic, information from technical and social job environment) and often has to be processed simultaneously, performing multiple-tasks at the same time

with high demands on information storing and modifications of plans on the basis of fresh information.

Typical for ATC is a high time criticality, the complexity of the task and the high demands on collaborative decision-making. In addition, a controller must have good team work skills, as the outcome of his/her work is strongly dependent upon other actors, be they human beings or automated devices.

Integrated Model of ATC ability

The Model comprises three levels of SA, enabling decision-making and supported by personality characteristics in ATC (see Figure 1)..

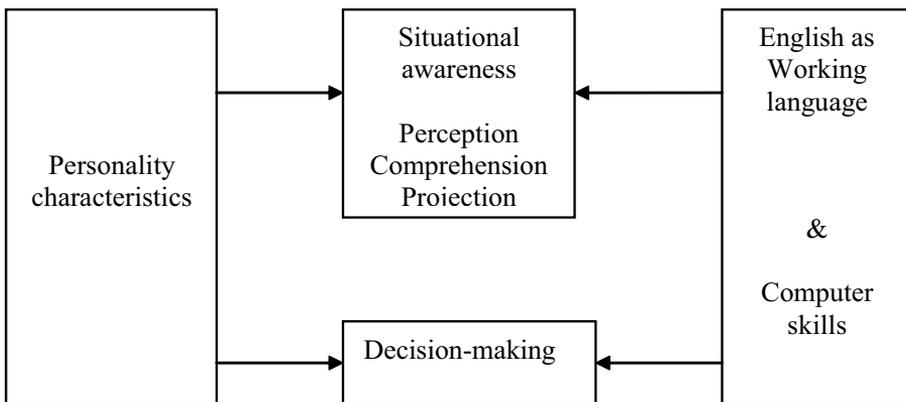


FIGURE 1. INTEGRATED MODEL OF KASO'S REQUIREMENTS FOR ATCO'S

All the characteristics required to become a proficient controller are described in the following, structure list of 26 KASO's – Knowledge, abilities, skills and other characteristics requirements, according to the levels of SA decision-making and underlying of personality.

FEAST consists of 3 parts:

1. Six Standard tests web-based and run on Personal Computers (PCs) linked to internet. Heading and Range (SAHR), English Listening and Comprehension (ENA), Planning (SAP), Attention (SORT), Multitasking (PMT) and Visualization (FOLD).
2. One complex dynamic, multiple-task test administered on a standalone PC; and the CD-Rom based -Strip Display Management test (SDM).
3. One Situation interview (Paper-and-Pencil format; no PC required in administration).

The FEAST test package was released for use in November 2003. It is important to note that FEAST does not aim to replace or make redundant other test developments. (FEAST manual and User's Guide 2003, p.13). FEAST is standard test package that needs continued research and development support. FEAST users are responsible for their own recruitment processes and selection decisions. Some ANSPs may choose to retain some or all of their previous testing systems and integrate FEAST into these processes. Others choose to build a recruitment process around FEAST. Now that FEAST has been in place for a while, a Predictive Validation Study was started in Spring 2008. This study will collect data from FEAST users again using the BOS– Behaviour Observation Scale form about the performance of ATC trainees recruited using FEAST as a selection tool.

ATCO selection in Bulgarian

The good traditions existing in Bulgaria in the field of aviation medicine and psychology, as well as requirements of European and world aviation institutions standards which we are bound to observe incited us to develop a new complete system of psychological assessment in compliance with the contemporary achievements in this field. This system is aimed at selection of applicants for initial training of main aviation jobs – pilots, ATC's, cabin crew and other positions, as well as reoccurrence of operating ones in accordance with EASA – European Aviation Safety Agency, requirements as referred to in JAR-FCL–3 – Joint

Aviation Requirements Flight Crew Licensing (Medical) and EUROCONTROL documents.

ATCO selection in Bulgarian is a multiple stage selection process.

1. In the first phase of selection, specific ATC-related cognitive abilities are tested using PATBA to identify the strongest candidates who will advance to the next stage.
2. In a second phase, a candidates would be tested to measure more complex multi-tasking skills and abilities by WOMBAT-FC test.
3. The phase 3, where attention would be paid to behavioral and personality related factors. These may be assessed by a variety of means including paper-pencil personality tests and a structured interview. Sometimes other selection tests are used in conjunction to cover the personality and behavioural aspects.
4. The final shortlisted specialist commission considers the results of each of the applicants and takes a decision on his/her suitability for initial training and decides on a final grade under a six-leveled scale.

The test battery PATBA represents a set of constructs developed on the basis of literature reviews and Integrated Model of ATC ability of key behaviours and

tasks associated with effective performance in different roles. It is a computer system for administration and assessment of main psychological qualities necessary for the different kinds of aviation jobs: pilots – Private pilots, Commercial pilots; ATC's, Cabin crew, etc.

The administrative part consists of:

- ❖ The data of the person being examined;
- ❖ Creation and selection of methods according to the examination targets.
- ❖ Language choice possibility is also available – Bulgarian, English, Russian,
- ❖ Results – presented in the form of a six grade assessment derived from the average result (AR) from all the tests and re-calculated on the base of correction table (Final result – FR). Also presented there is detailed information about results from each one of the tests
- ❖ Additional information on other tests conducted can be entered and maintained.
- ❖ Creation and maintenance of data base concerning each examined person.
- ❖ Statistic processing of results – all results from the examinations are automatically exported to EXCEL and may be easily used for a more detailed statistic analysis

Descriptions of tests:

- ❖ **Mental reasoning while switching over (MR-SO)** – examines ability to build elementary mental habits for a clear active thinking; mobility of nerve-dynamic processes; concentration and switch of attention; organization and mobilization of personality, short term operational memory.
- ❖ **Logical test (LOG)** – abstract logical thinking and operational mental activity
- ❖ **Compasses (COMP)** – spatial visual comprehension and ability to orient in space on the base of mental picture, symbols and signs.
- ❖ **Calculation in assigned speed – “mental reflex”(CAS)** – ability of mental work based on clear active thinking under the conditions of an assigned speed, mobility of nerve-dynamic processes, emotion-will stability, concentration and switch of attention, operational reliability.
- ❖ **Complex sensory-motor reaction in imposed speed (CSMR-IS)** – quickness of vision perceptions, exactness of responsive motor reactions, motor coordination under the conditions of an imposed speed of work.

- ‡ **Complex sensory-motor reaction in auto speed (CSMR-AS)** – quickness and exactness of vision perceptions, sensory-motor coordination, volitional active mobilization, operational activity.

Each test is preceded by a detailed instruction phase. The tests follow automatically one after another the sequence of their appearance is generated by the computer and does not depend on the examiner or on the wish of the person being examined. Thus the persons being examined cannot influence or be obstructive to each other. The separate items or tasks in the tests are also generated automatically by the computer and never appear in the same sequence or type, thus diminishing the chances to remember the answers and learning them. The results from Personality paper tests can be entered into the computer for processing. This reduces the time a person stays in front of the computer and releases time to examine other persons. When additional appliance examinations such as Multifactor tasks – WOMBAT or others are conducted, the results can be extrapolated automatically or both rough results and analyzed by the experimenter final assessments can be entered manually.

The **WOMBAT Situational Awareness and Stress Tolerance Test** is a psychological assessment tool for selecting **complex-system operators** such as pilots, air traffic controllers. The concept of **situational awareness** was introduced to the aviation community in the late 1970s by Dr. Stanley N. Roscoe of the University of Illinois Aviation Research Laboratory, only in those days he called it „**residual attention**.“ Research by Roscoe and his students and associates led to the development of the WOMBAT Test. It is a powerful, culture-independent PC-based system for measuring situational awareness under stress.

The PC-based WOMBAT-FC Situational Awareness and Stress Tolerance Test. The suffix FC refers to **Flow Controllers** because WOMBAT-FC is specifically designed to assess **people who monitor a dynamic flow of information**, such as Air Traffic Controllers

Once the rules are all clearly understood and the testee has reached near-asymptotic performance on every element of the various subtasks, the test phase begins and normally lasts for 90 minutes, although it can be shortened as determined by the needs of the organization. .

The individual tasks involve target tracking, pattern recognition, spatial orientation and short-term memory, and on each a testee can reach his or her asymptotic performance level after a short practice period. Each is relatively culture-free in that it has no real-world counterpart, and each can be learned quickly by the apt testee. The attention demands of the WOMBAT-FC test are expanded by the ever changing information presented by peripheral indicators. To score well the testee must monitor the **peripheral indicators** vigilantly to follow the **shifting priorities** of the various activities as indicated by their potential scoring worths

and current scoring rates and to detect indications of failure modes that may require immediate termination of one activity in favour of another.

The personality tests including:

1. Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ)
2. The Freiburger Persönlichkeitsinventar (FPI) by Jochen Fahrenberg Rainer Hampel, Herbert Selg; Hogrefe, Göttingen is a psychological **personality test** to assess **personality**. The test included 12 scales: satisfaction with oneself; social orientation; need for achievement; shyness; irritability; aggressiveness; demandedness; physical troubles; health sorrows; openness; extraversion; emotionality.
3. State Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI). by Charles Spielberger, Ph.D to measure state and trait anger. (Spielberger et al., 1983)
4. Stress stability BAS – Institute of psychology V. Rusinova and S. Zheilyova.

Selection of Candidates for training in ATSA Training Center in Bulgaria

Since 2008 selection of candidates for training in ATSA Training Center has been made by FEAST system in ATSA and psychological suitability assessment of the candidates, as a part of the medical certificate – in Laboratory of aviation psychology and flight safety of the National Transport Hospital.

For the same period there were two campaigns on selection of candidates for training.

The first one was in the beginning of 2008, an internal concourse where the applicants have medical and psychological suitability and have passed theoretical training. 15 candidates out of 36 people applying for initial training were approved. They passed the two phases of FEAST selection and the interview with a commission consisting of specialists of ATS. 12 applicants have completed successfully training with a simulator, 3 fell out on assessment by instructors. 8 people have passed out of these until now practical training at the place of work; two fell out because of poor performance.

In the second campaign the candidates were outside the ATS system. 30 people out of 120 applicants successfully passed the two phases of FEAST. 16 applicants applied for the medical certificate and 12 people successfully passed psychological assessment, i.e. 4 persons fell out. Due to the fact that they have not yet completed their practical training with a simulator we still do not have information from the instructors regarding their level of practical performance.

Therefore we only made a preliminary analysis of the results of first group. We are not able to compare with the exact results from FEAST because this organization does not submit raw data but only final decision – able and unable.

Out of the statistic analysis we established a significant correlation between the Assessment from the simulator (Simulator) and the average PATBA Tests score – .940; the final psychological assessment (FPA)– .837. The highest correlation is with the test **Compasses (COMP)** .921; **Calculation in assigned speed – “mental reflex” (CAS)** .873 and between WOMBAT-FC .700.(see Figure 2)

Pearson Correlation	PATBA	FPA	WOMBAT-FC	COMP	CAS
Simulator	.940	.837	700.	.921	.873

FIGURE 2. CORRELATION BETWEEN THE PRACTICAL TRAINING AND SELECTION SYSTEMS. CORRELATION IS SIGNIFICANT AT THE 0.05 LEVEL (2-TAILED)

Processing of information from the results of the trainers that have not finished their practical training yet, is due on completion of the training.

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WAITING FOR PRIVATISATION: EMPLOYEES' OPTIMISM AND EXPECTATIONS FROM PRIVATISATION

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Abstract. *After about 50 years of socialist economic system, economy in Serbia has been transitioning from state-controlled to market economy for more than 15 years. Privatization of state and society owned companies is the key process of transition. Indispensable restructuring of companies brings many changes to employees. The aim of the study was to examine what employees expect from privatization in relation to their optimism (generalized expectations that good things, rather than bad, will happen in the future, Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) in the context of transitional economy. A sample of 167 employees from organizations anticipating privatization completed a questionnaire assessing expectations from privatization (14-item measure, four factors: 1. less free time, more work; 2. advancement at work; 3. additional demands; 4. impulse for new job), and dispositional optimism (Life Orientation Test, LOT-R, Scheier et al., 1994). Results reveal that dispositional optimism is strongly correlated with expectations of advancement at work, negatively correlated with expectations of negative outcomes of privatisation (less free time, more demands), and there is no correlation between optimism and perception of privatisation as an impulse to start a new job. Results are discussed in the light of Carver and Scheier's general model of behavioural self-regulation.*

Keywords: *transitional economy, privatization, optimism.*

INTRODUCTION

This paper is part of a more comprehensive, longer term project about employees' reaction towards privatization. After about 50 years of socialist economic system, economy in Serbia has been transitioning from state-controlled to market

economy for more than 15 years. Privatisation of the state and society owned companies is the key process of transition. Indispensable restructuring of companies brings many changes to employees.

Accumulated body of knowledge from developed economies links optimism with well-being and suggests that optimism plays an important role in the adjustment to stressful life events (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 2001).

Dispositional optimism is generalized expectation that good things, rather than bad things, will happen in the future (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994). Situational optimism refers to the expectations of good, rather than bad outcomes of a particular situation.

The aim of the study was to examine what employees expect from the privatisation in relation to their optimism (generalized expectations that good things, rather than bad, will happen in the future, Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) in the context of transitional economy.

METHOD

The sample consisted of 167 employees from several Serbian organizations anticipating privatisation (female 59%, mean age 43 years, mean duration of work experience 19 years, married 71%, completed high-school 63%).

Questionnaire included Expectations from the privatisation scale (14-item measure, statements were rated on a four-point Likert scale from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree', Cronbach's Alpha for the current sample was 0.835), and dispositional optimism scale (Life Orientation Test, LOT-R, Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994, translated into Serbian language, six items plus four filler items, respondents assessed agreement on a five-point Likert scale from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'). A group of questions covered basic data about respondents. There were also some other scales that are not the topic of this paper.

Data were analyzed using SPSS.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

EXPECTATIONS FROM PRIVATIZATION SCALE

Principal components analysis (PCA) extracted four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The scree test confirmed the four-factor solution that accounted for 72.45% of the variance. Factor loadings obtained after the varimax rotation are shown in Table 1.

First factor represents a set of negative outcomes that we labelled Less free time, more work. It accounted for 23.89% of the variance. These expectations are formed as a contrast to the situation of majority of the employees in the period

of sanctions. As companies had no activities employees became used to having a lot of free time. Second factor is Advancement at work (accounted for 19.88% of the variance). Advancement is connected with more clear and socially more dynamic job (more contacts), as opposed to smaller income and less secure job. The third factor is Additional demands at work (accounted for 17.73% of the variance). Respondents expressed the largest agreement with the statements on this factor (Table 1). Fourth factor is the Impulse for a new job (accounted for 11.04% of variance). Employees expressed the lowest agreement with these statements.

TABLE 1. EXPECTATIONS FROM PRIVATIZATION SCALE: ITEMS, FACTOR LOADINGS, MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

Item content	Loading	M	SD
Factor 1: Less free time, more work			
Less time for friends	.885	2.70	1.14
Less time for family	.881	2.71	1.15
Less time for myself	.865	2.65	1.16
More burden from the job volume	.666	2.61	1.14
Factor 2: Advancement at work			
More clear job	.827	2.12	1.05
Faster advancement	.814	1.99	.94
More frequent contact with people	.741	2.33	1.10
Smaller income	-.539	2.29	1.13
More insecure job	-.462	2.51	1.13
Factor 3: Additional demands			
Additional work to make more money	.815	2.65	1.15
Additional training	.811	2.88	1.10
More demanding job	.769	2.76	1.10
Factor 4: Impulse for a new job			
Impulse to start some private work	.826	1.74	.95
Impulse to look for a new job	.805	1.80	1.03

OPTIMISM

Revised Life orientation test, LOT-R (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) has three items worded in a positive direction and three items in a negative direction (reverse scored for calculating the score for the entire scale). Higher scores represent greater optimism. Cronbach's Alpha of LOT-R translated into Serbian was 0.819 (compared to authors' 0.78). Principal component analysis extracted one component with eigenvalue greater than 1.00 (Table 2) that accounted for 53.65% of the variance, which closely corresponds with authors' initial structure of the LOT-R (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994).

TABLE 2. LIFE ORIENTATION TEST, LOT-R, SERBIAN VERSION: ITEMS' MEANING, FACTOR LOADINGS, MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

Item number and meaning	Loading	M	SD
1 – Positive	.681	2.95	1.47
3 – Negative	-.473	2.94	1.38
4 – Positive	.848	3.44	1.36
7 – Negative	-.808	2.88	1.38
9 – Negative	-.778	3.01	1.41
10 – Positive	.744	3.68	1.41

Scheier, Carver, & Bridges (1994) reported mixed results about the dimensionality of dispositional optimism (one vs. two-factor solution). Based on structural equation modelling Vautier, Raufaste and Cariou (2003) supported the unidimensional nature of dispositional optimism. On the other hand, Marshall, Wortman, Kusulas, Hervig, & Vickers (1992) reported two-factor solution of the original LOT scale, and other authors confirmed that dispositional optimism, as assessed by LOT-R, is bidimensional (such as Creed, Patton, & Bartrum, 2002). Based on mixed data about dimensionality of the optimism assessed by the LOT-R, besides one score as a sum of all six items (Optimism Scale in Table 3), we also calculated two separate scores, one for optimism (sum of positively worded items) and one for pessimism (sum of scores on negatively worded items), labelled Optimism score and Pessimism score in Table 3.

Dispositional optimism is strongly positively correlated with the expectations of advancement at work (Table 3), and moderately negatively correlated with expectations of the negative outcomes of privatisation (less free time, more demands). The lack of correlation between the optimism and the perception of privatisation of a company where one works as an impulse to start a new job is probably the consequence of the context of privatization. Options for developing problem focused coping strategies which are characteristic for the more optimistic persons, are very limited in privatization. Negative correlations of dispositional optimism with the expectations of less time and more demands are probably generated by the tendency of more optimistic persons to positively reframe the situation.

As for optimism and pessimism separate scores, we can see that optimism has stronger correlations, either positive or negative, with all the expectations from the privatization, with the exception of expecting privatization to be an impulse for a new job. These findings indirectly oppose Vautier, Raufaste and Cariou's (2003) suggestion that concept of optimism could be renamed as dispositional pessimism.

Global job related expectations from the privatization – getting better and worse job correlate differently both with dispositional optimism, optimism and pessimism subscales, and other dimensions of expectations from privatization.

Better job is connected with advancement at work, while more demands at work and less free time does not constitute the perception of a better job. The 'picture' of a worse job is richer: it means no advancement (less clear job, smaller income, and more insecure job), more demands and less time.

TABLE 3. INTERCORRELATIONS BETWEEN OPTIMISM, FACTORS OF EXPECTATIONS FROM PRIVATISATION SCALE AND EXPECTATIONS OF BETTER AND WORSE JOB

	Expectations Less time	Expectations Advance- ment	Expectations More demands	Expectations New job	Better job	Worse job
Optimism Scale	-.371**	.608**	-.341**	-.043	.340**	-.553**
Optimism score	-.363**	.653**	-.347**	-.092	.398**	-.583**
Pessimism score	.287**	-.426**	.245**	-.020	-.207**	.390**
Expecta- tions Less time		-.232**	.468**	.261**	.091	.359**
Expec- tations Advance- ment			-.111	.178*	.597**	-.553**
Expecta- tions More de- mands				.318**	.000	.443**
Expecta- tions New job					.039	.141
Better job						-.329**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

CONCLUSIONS

People with different levels of optimism have different coping mechanisms. Optimists tend to develop more problem focused coping strategies (Scheier et al, 1994, 2001). Specific indicators/measures of situational optimism/pessimism should be

developed for research in transitioning economy. If we take expectations of better and worse job as indicators of situational optimism and pessimism, we can see that in transitioning economy, when options are highly limited for everyone, optimists tend to develop more simple positive expectations while pessimists tend to develop more diversified negative expectations. Also, as Vautier, Raufaste and Cariou (2003) noted, these reactions could also be related to employees' response style. Future research should explore factors other than dispositional optimism that affect situational optimism/pessimism

Some authors questioned the relationship between optimism and outcome variables contending that is not possible to distinguish between optimism and trait anxiety (Smith, Pope, Rhodewalt, & Poulton, 1989). Future research should explore relationships between dispositional and situational optimism, trait-state anxiety and expectations of privatization in a transitioning economy.

At the organizational level, dispositional optimism should be taken into account when planning organisational change on the course of privatisation.

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OCCUPATIONAL STRESS IN THE CONTEXT OF CURRENT GLOBAL ECONOMIC CRISIS: RESULTS FROM THREE ROMANIAN ORGANIZATIONS

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Abstract. *The present research proposes to analyse some aspects of occupational stress in the context of current global economic crisis, specially the potential moderator effect of organizational trust in the relation stressors-strains. The participants were from three organization activating in producing mobile phone, banking and cosmetics domain. In all samples different stressors predicted various strains. The results showed that in the producing mobile phone company, trust in supervisor negatively predicted the counterproductive work behavior toward organization and persons. Instead, trust in organization positively predicted these two types of organizational deviance. In the sample of participants working in the cosmetics domain, trust in organization positively predicted positive emotions and trust in supervisor negatively predicted their intention to leave the organization. The trust in supervisor of the participants from the banking domain negatively predicted intention to leave, organizational and interpersonal counterproductive work behavior. The trust in organization positively predicted positive emotions and interpersonal counterproductive work behavior. A high level of trust in organization predicted a lower intensity of negative emotions, intention to leave and a reduced organizational counterproductive work behavior. Also, the two level of organizational trust moderated the effect of some occupational stressors on negative emotions and organizational counterproductive work behavior.*

Keywords: *occupational stressors, organizational trust, counterproductive work behaviors, emotions, intention to quit*

INTRODUCTION

Stress at work is one of the many problems facing modern society, being generated by the work life, work environment, with direct consequences on professional activity but also on the health of the workers (Pitariu, 2004). The current global economic crisis has devastating repercussions on the labor market and overall economy of a country. This situation represents a part of the context in which the organizations exist. Currently, Romania is part of the countries affected by global economic crisis. In one of the reports made by OxfordAnalytics (2009) on issues recession amendment was clarified that our country's economy recorded significant decreases due to the crisis. Negative effects are felt mainly in the property market, banking, transport and trade, spreading rapidly and in other branches of economy. McMillan (2009) revealed, among Australians that global recession is associated with an increase of 54% of occupational stress. Employees become overburden as a result of restructuring and redundancies taking place in the company where they work, several expressed concerns about the stability of their jobs. The existence of stressed employees would affect productivity and quality.

“Because of the many issues related to stress, researchers have proposed conceptual models of stress designed to integrate a diverse array of research findings” (Muchinsky, 2003, p. 346). As a consequence, in the literature can be found numerous theories and models of occupational stress, especially linear and static, such as: the demands and control model (Karasek & Theorell, 1990), the transactional theory (Lazarus, 1991), the effort-reward imbalance model (Siegrist, 1996) etc. These approaches prevailing in the study of occupational stress have both advantages and some limits but despite them, they seem to be more complementary theoretical frameworks for understanding stress in the workplace. The general assumption is that occupational stressors have adversively effects (Wallace, Edwards, Arnold, Frazier, & Finch, 2009) and that the moderating variables can potentiate, reduce or stop their influence on some individual and organizational variables.

Research on occupational stress components isolated several variables that moderate the effects of occupational stressors on the strains. Personal characteristics or situational factors such as job autonomy, control and social support are some of the most studied variables in moderating the stress at work (Hart & Cooper, 2001; Kahn & Byosiere, 1992, apud. Harvey, Kelloway, & Duncan-Leiper, 2003). Some authors have stressed the importance of studying and other variables as moderators of stress-effect relationship stresorilor (Day & Jreige, 2002), such as trust (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Trust is considered as “the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party” (Mayer, Davis,

& Schoorman, 1995, p. 712). Recent studies have highlighted the importance of organizational trust in study occupational stress as the moderating variable. Employees who had high trust in management are less affected by workload compared to employees not showing confidence in management (Harvey, Kelloway, & Duncan-Leiper, 2003).

The present study propose to identify the occupational stressors and the types of organizational trust that predict the counterproductive work behaviors, emotions and intention to leave the organization. Also, it investigates the potential moderator role of the two types of organizational trust (supervisor and organization) in the relationship occupational stressors-strains.

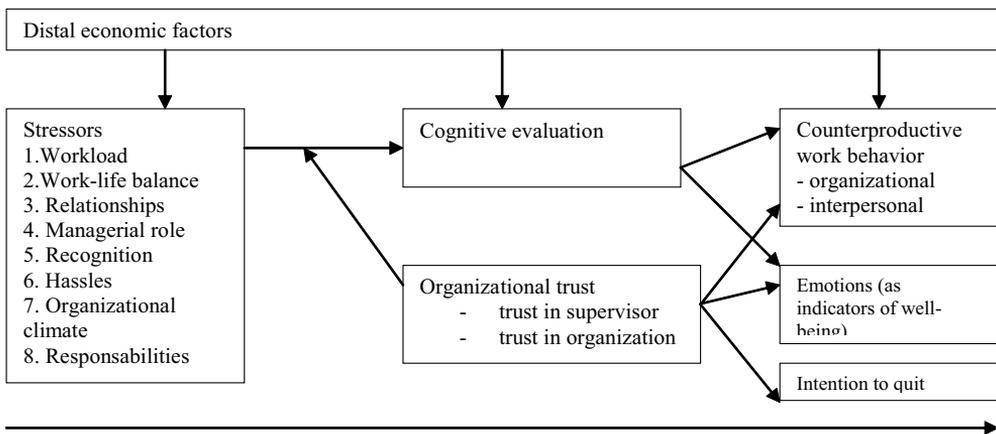


FIGURE 1. A POSSIBLE MODEL OF OCCUPATIONAL STRESS IN THE CONTEXT OF THE GLOBAL RECESSION

METHODOLOGY

At this study participated 286 employees from three large private organizations. The category of banking employees included a total of 100 persons (mean age= 29.13 years, SD= 4.97; 16% females and 84% males), the producing cell 94 employees (mean age= 41 years, SD= 8.83; 56.4% females and 43.6% males) and the producing cosmetics organization 92 participants (mean age= 40.09 years, SD= 9.59; 16.3% female and 83.7% males). Employee participation in the study was done on a voluntary basis.

The instruments used in this study were the following:

1. The stressors scale from the Occupational Stress Indicator – 2 (Cooper, Sloan, & Williams, 1988) was used to measure the workload (6 items), re-

- relationships at work (8 items), work-family balance (6 items), managerial role (4 items), personal responsibility (4 items), daily hassles (5 items), recognition of merit (4 items) and organizational climate (4 items). The task of participants was to indicate a number from 1 (definitely not a source of tension) to 6 (definitely is a source of tension) that best indicates the pressure caused by the stressors.
2. Organizational trust was evaluated with the Organizational Trust Inventory (Nyhan & Marlowe, 1997) which comprises 2 scales: trust in supervisor (7 items) and trust in organization (4 items). The participants completed the statements by a number from 1 (almost none) to 7 (almost 100%) indicating the level of confidence in their supervisor or in their organization.
 3. Counterproductive work behaviors questionnaire was measured through the Counterproductive Work Behavior Check-List developed by (Spector, Fox, Pennez, Bruusema, Goh, & Kessler, 2006). It comprises 41 items grouped in two scales: organizational counterproductive work behavior (21 items) and interpersonal counterproductive work behavior (23 items). Participants were asked to encircle a number from 1 (never) to 5 (every day) by indicating how often they performed each behavior listed in the questionnaire.
 4. Participants' intention to leave the organization was assessed using three items developed by Cohen (1998). Participants were asked on a scale from 1 (totally disagree) to 6 (totally agree) to indicate the extent of agreement with three statements listed.
 5. Emotions were evaluated with the MESTRO questionnaire developed by Levine and Xu (2005), including 5 positive emotions (joy, pride, alertness, affection, satisfaction) and 5 negative emotions (anxiety, sadness, anger, envy, guilt and shame). By summing the scores obtained in positive emotions, on one hand, and negative emotions, on the other hand, were created two scales: the scale of positive emotions and negative emotions scale. Each emotion was measured by a single item on a 10 points Likert-scale.

Procedure. The data were collected in the spring of 2009. Each employee has individually completed the questionnaire booklet. The data analyses were conducted using SPSS 17.

RESULTS

For each sample included in the study it were calculated the means, standard deviations and α Cronbach reliability coefficient of each variable measured (Table 1).

TABLE 1. MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND α CRONBACH RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTs FOR EACH SAMPLE (N1= 100, N2= 94, N3= 92)

Variable	Bank			Producing cell			Producing cosmetics		
	m	SD	α	m	SD	α	m	SD	α
Workload	23.68	6.35	.81	23.33	4.73	.67	21.58	5.24	.66
Relationships	33	7.55	.81	31.17	6.66	.78	34.20	6.15	.76
Work-life balance	22.35	5.22	.69	22.21	4.86	.67	19.93	5.47	.77
Managerial role	14.63	3.49	.50	14.91	3.95	.73	13.96	3.20	.46
Personal responsibilities	15.31	4.03	.75	15.87	3.82	.78	14.85	3.77	.71
Recognition	16.34	3.02	.45	14.81	3.53	.61	15.30	3.19	.59
Organizational climate	15.08	3.76	.66	14.38	3.12	.50	12.75	3.65	.69
Daily hassles	13.26	3.62	.62	14.97	2.93	.33	11.91	2.98	.33
Trust in supervisor	34.43	11.67	.94	32.83	3.53	.86	45.51	8.24	.95
Trust in organization	13.89	6.77	.94	10.81	3.12	.47	19.11	3.54	.81
Organizational counter-productive work behavior	31.00	9.36	.90	44.58	3.95	.97	24.97	3.57	.71
Interpersonal counter-productive work behavior	37.54	18.45	.93	49.10	3.82	.95	24.03	2.53	.73
Positive emotions	27.62	7.61	.72	24.81	4.73	.79	31.94	8.09	.81
Negative emotions	18.99	9.29	.50	25.36	6.66	.79	13.39	7.51	.76
Intention to quit	10.65	3.68	.90	7.07	4.86	.48	6.28	4.06	.90

The results show that, generally, the employees from the banks feel a higher pressure generated by occupational stressors compared to the employees from the producing cell and cosmetics companies. Specifically, employees from the banks significantly perceived more stressful some aspects of their work such as workload ($F(2,284)= 3.90, p<.05$) and work-family balance ($F(2,284)= 6.39, p<.01$). There are no differences between the three samples regarding the amount of stress experienced as a result of being responsible for managing, supervising other people ($F(2,284)= 1.71, p>.05$), and the extent to which people feel they need to have their achievements recognized ($F(2,284)= 1.57, p>.05$). In terms of organizational trust, employees from the producing cell company have the lower level of trust in their supervisor and in their organization ($F(2,284)= 300.98, p<.01, F(2,284)= 33.51, p<.05$). Also, they scored higher on the counterproductive work behavior scales compared to employees from the others two companies ($F(2,284)= 158.22, p<.01, F(2,284)= 91.85, p<.01$). Regarding the emotions experienced in the most recent day of work, the producing cell employees experience lower positive emotions ($F(2,284)= 35.14, p<.01$) and higher negative emotions, ($F(2,284)= 121.68, p<.01$). These employees have a more intensive intention to leave their organization and looking more actively for another job, compared to the bank and producing cosmetics employees ($F(2,284)= 334.49, p<.01$).

TABLE 2. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE MEANS OF THE THREE SAMPLES INCLUDED IN STUDY (N1= 100, N2= 94, N3= 92)

Variable	F	Type of organization	Mean difference	Hochberg GT2
Workload	3.90*	Bank-Cell	.34	0.43
		Bank-Cosmetics	2.09*	2.64*
		Cell-Cosmetics	1.74	2.14
Relationships	4.67*	Bank-Cell	1.82	1.85
		Bank-Cosmetics	-1.20	-1.22
		Cell-Cosmetics	-3.03**	-3.03**
Work-life balance	6.39**	Bank-Cell	.13	.17
		Bank-Cosmetics	2.41**	3.31**
		Cell-Cosmetics	2.28**	3**
Managerial role	1.71	Bank-Cell	-.28	-.54
		Bank-Cosmetics	.66	1.29
		Cell-Cosmetics	.94	1.80
Personal responsibilities	1.57	Bank-Cell	-.56	-1.01
		Bank-Cosmetics	.45	0.80
		Cell-Cosmetics	1.01	1.77
Recognition	5.55**	Bank-Cell	1.52**	3.30**
		Bank-Cosmetics	1.03	2.23
		Cell-Cosmetics	-.48	-1.02
Variable	F	Type of organization	Mean difference	Hochberg GT2
Organizational climate	10.88**	Bank-Cell	.69	1.38
		Bank-Cosmetics	2.33**	4.56**
		Cell-Cosmetics	1.63**	3.19**
Daily hassles	18.66**	Bank-Cell	-1.53**	-3.32**
		Bank-Cosmetics	1.34*	2.91*
		Cell-Cosmetics	2.86**	6.12**
Trust in supervisor	300.98**	Bank-Cell	19.61**	15.81**
		Bank-Cosmetics	-11.07**	-8.92**
		Cell-Cosmetics	-30.69**	-24.35**
Trust in organization	33.51*	Bank-Cell	-.49	-.71
		Bank-Cosmetics	-5.22**	-7.56**
		Cell-Cosmetics	-4.73**	-6.66**
Organizational counterproductive work behavior	158.22**	Bank-Cell	16.08**	17.67**
		Bank-Cosmetics	6.02**	6.61**
		Cell-Cosmetics	-10.06**	-10.93**
Interpersonal	91.85**	Bank-Cell	21.66**	13.45**

counterproductive		Bank-Cosmetics	13.50**	8.33**
work behavior		Cell-Cosmetics	-8.16**	-4.94**
Positive emotions	35.14**	Bank-Cell	4.28**	4.28**
		Bank-Cosmetics	-4.32**	-4.32**
		Cell-Cosmetics	-8.61**	-8.44**
Negative emotions	121.68**	Bank-Cell	-12.18**	-10.68**
		Bank-Cosmetics	5.59**	4.90**
		Cell-Cosmetics	17.78**	15.32**
Intention to quit	334.49**	Bank-Cell	-11.56**	-19.26**
		Bank-Cosmetics	3.82**	6.26**
		Cell-Cosmetics	15.38**	24.80**

* coefficients F, Mean difference and HGT2 are significant at $p < .05$ level

** coefficients F, Mean difference and HGT2 are significant at $p < .01$ level

The data from Table 1 indicate that there might be a potential moderator effect of organizational trust in the relation between occupational stressors and strains. This is suggested by data from the all samples. In the case of bank employees, even if the stressors are high and their organizational trust is medium, the strains are also medium compared to those of the producing cell and cosmetics employees. Employees from the producing cell company perceive a medium level of occupational stressors and a significantly lower level of organizational trust. Their reactions to strains were higher in the terms of negative reactions and lower in the terms of positive reactions. In contrast, in the case of the producing cosmetics, the stressors are lower and the scores of organizational trust are higher, but the strains are reduced compared to those of the others two samples.

In order to test the moderator role of organizational trust we conducted a hierarchical regression analysis for each reaction to stress on the three samples. In terms of counterproductive work behavior toward organization of bank employees, it was found that the pressure generated by the atmosphere, day to day irritants from the workplace and the lower level of organizational trust increase the organizational counterproductive work behaviour ($\beta = .41, p < .01, \beta = .31, p < .01$) (Table 3). The relation between some occupational stressors and counterproductive work behaviour toward organization is moderated by the two levels of organizational trust. Surprisingly, in the case of the producing cell employees, it was found that a high pressure generated by the amount or difficulty of work and the existing atmosphere from the workplace contribute to the decreasing of this deviant organizational behaviour ($\beta = -.60, p < .01, \beta = -.41, p < .01$). Also, is interesting that a high trust in organization increases the deviant behavior of the producing cell employees ($\beta = .41, p < .01$). In the case of the producing cosmetics employees, it were not identify any predictors in the terms of occupational stressors, organizational trust or their interaction.

TABLE 3. REGRESSION ANALYSIS REGARDING ORGANIZATIONAL COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR (N1= 100, N2= 94, N3= 92)

MODEL	Bank			Producing cell			Producing cosmetics		
	F ch	ΔR^2	β	F ch	ΔR^2	β	F ch	ΔR^2	β
1. Age and gender	.26	.00		1.71	.03		.10	.00	
2. Stressors	6.97**	.38		6.99**	.36		.93	.07	
Workload						-.60**			
Relationships			-.51**						
Organizational climate			.41**			-.28**			
Daily hassles			.31**						
3. Organizational trust	41.99**	.30		27.66**	.24		3.31	.07	
Trust in supervisor			-.35**			-.41**			
Trust in organization			-.36**			.44**			
4. Stressors X Trust	1.87*	.09		1.16	.07		.08	.08	
Daily hassles X Trust in supervisor			-.69**						
Recognition X Trust in organization			-.23*						
Organizational climate X Trust in organization			.46						

* coefficients F change, ΔR^2 and β are significant at $p < .05$ level

** coefficients F change, ΔR^2 and β are significant at $p < .01$ level

The results indicate that tension generated by the daily irritants from the workplace ($\beta = .30$, $p < .01$) and a low trust in supervisor contributes to the increasing of interpersonal counterproductive work behavior of the bank employees ($\beta = -.36$, $p < .01$) (Table 4). In the case of producing cell and producing cosmetics employees, the results are similar with those regarding the organizational counterproductive work behavior. There were no moderator effects of the two dimensions of organizational trust on the stressor-interpersonal counterproductive work behavior in any of the three samples.

A high amount of pressure due to feelings of isolation, being undervalued, lack of encouragement from supervisors, covert discrimination contribute is associated with the existence of poorer positive emotions of bank employees ($\beta = -.41$, $p < .01$) (Table 5). A great willingness to be vulnerable to the action of their supervisor or their organization leads to more intensive positive emotions ($\beta = .25$, $p < .01$, $\beta = .43$, $p < .01$). When the pressure generated by the workload is high, the employees from the producing cosmetics domain will feel poorer positive emotions. Their trust in supervisor will increase their positive emotions ($\beta = .30$, $p < .01$). No predictors were identified in the sample of producing cell employees.

TABLE 4. REGRESSION ANALYSIS REGARDING INTERPERSONAL COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR (N1= 100, N2= 94, N3= 92)

MODEL	Bank			Producing cell			Producing cosmetics		
	F ch	ΔR ²	β	F ch	ΔR ²	β	F ch	ΔR ²	β
1. Age and gender	.53	.01		1.04	.02		.30	.00	
2. Stressors	1.75	.13		8.02**	.39		2.44*	.17	
Workload						-.46**			
Responsibilities						-.30**			
Daily hassles			.30**						
3. Organizational trust	2.82*	.05		41.07**	.29		4.08*	.07	
Trust in supervisor			-.36**			-.44**			
Trust in organization						.49**			
4. Stressors X Trust	1.35	.18		.85	.04		1.29	.16	

* coefficients F change, ΔR² and β are significant at p<.05 level

** coefficients F change, ΔR² and β are significant at p<.01 level

TABLE 5. REGRESSION ANALYSIS REGARDING POSITIVE EMOTIONS (N1= 100, N2= 94, N3= 92)

MODEL	Bank			Producing cell			Producing cosmetics		
	F ch	ΔR ²	β	F ch	ΔR ²	β	F ch	ΔR ²	β
1. Age and gender	1.11	.02		1.57	.03		.42	.00	
2. Stressors	2.47*	.18		2.68*	.20		3.29**	.21	
Workload									-.37**
Relationships			-.41**						
3. Organizational trust	22.39**	.27		2.87*	.05		3.80*	.06	
Trust in supervisor			.25**						.30**
Trust in organization			.43**						
4. Stressors X Trust	1.06	.09		1.00	.14		1.33	.15	

* coefficients F change, ΔR² and β are significant at p<.05 level

** coefficients F change, ΔR² and β are significant at p<.01 level

The results from the regression analysis regarding the negative emotions of the employees from the bank domain indicate that a reduced willingness to be vulnerable to the action of the supervisor can increase the intensity of the negative emotions (β= -.26, p<.05) (Table 6). Also, the two levels of organizational trust interact with the pressure generated by the daily hassles and organizational climate in order to influence the intensity of negative emotions. The tension perceived regarding the workload decreases the intensity of the negative emotions experienced by the producing cosmetics employees (β= -.44, p<.01). Instead this, the daily irritants from the work place has an important role on the increasing of the negative emotions of these employees (β= .24, p<.05).

TABLE 6. REGRESSION ANALYSIS REGARDING NEGATIVE EMOTIONS (N1= 100, N2= 94, N3= 92)

MODEL	Bank			Producing cell			Producing cosmetics		
	F ch	ΔR^2	β	F ch	ΔR^2	β	F ch	ΔR^2	β
1. Age and gender	.43	.00		.04	.00		.12	.00	
2. Stressors	1.69	.13		.72	.06		3.13**	.21	
Workload									-.44**
Daily hassles									.24*
3. Organizational trust	8.19**	.13		.20	.00		1.90	.03	
Trust in organization			-.26*						
4. Stressors X Trust	1.77*	.20		1.25	.23		.75	.10	
Daily hassles X Trust in supervisor			-.72**						
Organizational climate X Trust in organization			-.35**						

* coefficients F change, ΔR^2 and β are significant at $p < .05$ level

** coefficients F change, ΔR^2 and β are significant at $p < .01$ level

TABLE 7. REGRESSION ANALYSIS REGARDING INTENTION TO QUIT (N1= 100, N2= 94, N3= 92)

MODEL	Bank sample			Producing cell			Producing cosmetics		
	F ch	ΔR^2	β	F ch	ΔR^2	β	F ch	ΔR^2	β
1. Age and gender	3.20*	.06		2.43	.05		1.18	.02	
2. Stressors	3.09**	.20		.70	.05		3.30**	.21	
Work-family balance			-.27*						
Organizational climate			.33*						.32*
3. Organizational trust	13.31**	.17		.75	.01		8.14**	.12	
Trust in supervisor			-.46**						-.28*
4. Stressors X Trust	.99	.10		1.02	.15		1.19	.12	

* coefficients F change, ΔR^2 and β are significant at $p < .05$ level

** coefficients F change, ΔR^2 and β are significant at $p < .01$ level

In terms of intention to quit the organization, is interesting that a great pressure generated by the extent in which a bank employee can switch off from the pressure of work at home and vice versa lead to a lower intent to leave from the bank ($\beta = -.27$, $p < .05$) (Table 7). But the atmosphere tensioned from the bank and also, from the producing cosmetics company contributes to a stronger intention of the employees to quit them in order to find another better job ($\beta = .33$, $p < .05$, $\beta = .32$, $p < .05$). Trust in supervisor has an important role in determining employees to

work in the future in the same organizations ($\beta = -.46, p < .01$, $\beta = -.28, p < .05$). When employees have lower trust in their supervisor they will tend to quit their jobs. As in the case of positive and negative emotions, there were identified no predictors of the intention to quit of the producing cell employees.

DISCUSSION

The results suggest that, in the actual economic conditions, occupational stress is experienced differently in the organizations from different domains. Employees banking perceive more tension created by various occupational stressors, but their organizational trust contributes to moderate the effects of stressors on strains, such as deviant work behavior toward organization and negative emotions directed. We identify some moderating effects of organizational trust on the relationship between some occupational stressors and strains. These results are in concordance with the relative recent studies on moderator role of trust in management. For example, Harvey, Kelloway and Duncan-Leiper (2003) showed that trust in management is a buffer of the relationship between overload and strains.

The results obtained in this study are influenced by some limitations. The first one concerns the voluntary participation of employees in the study. In the sample of banking employees and producing cosmetics, most participants are females. The difference in proportions between the two genres may have influence on the level of perceived occupational stress. Liu, Spector and Shin (2008) have shown that women tend to report more intense psychological reactions to stress (based on qualitative data) and a higher level of depression (based on quantitative data) compared with men.

Lack of predictive relationships of occupational stressors on the strains and of the two levels of organizational trust may be due to the low fidelity of some of the scales used. Kivimäki, Kalimo and Julkunen (1996) (apud. Day & Jreige, 2002) warns that the use of low reliable instruments can reduce the chances to highlight the prediction and moderation effects. For example, in the sample of employees from the producing of cell phones, only three of the scales assessing occupational stressors have the reliability greater than .70. In addition, the reliability of the scale that measures the trust in organization is .47. Lack of detection some predictors and moderators effects for the producing cosmetics employees' intention to leave might be due to the low reliability of intention to quit scale (.48). Low reliability of the criterion variables contribute to its low correlations with predictors, which affect both the values of regression coefficients and multiple determination coefficient, and as a consequence, the efficiency of the predictive model.

The results obtained are based on a single measurement of variables and their measurement was made at the same time. There wasn't a temporal difference in the applying of the measurements used. So, future studies should use a longitudi-

nal methodology in order to establish the causal relationships between variables and the buffer effects of organizational trust on the relationship occupational stressors-strains. In addition, longitudinal quasi-experimental studies will permit to test the influence of the economic context on the occupational stress.

All instruments used in the present study are self-report questionnaires. Futures studies could use mixed methods to measure the components of occupational stress. For example, in order to measure the deviant behavior toward the organization, it could be used questionnaires and the objective count of the truancy from the workplace. Conducting studies on occupational stress which use simultaneously qualitative and quantitative methods, can offer incremental value to the results obtained only by applying a single research methods (Liu, Spector, & Shin, 2008).

CONCLUSIONS

The present study investigated the occupational stress in three Romanian organizations in the context of the global recession. We found that the tension generated by the occupational stressors is higher among the employees from the organization which were affected strongly by the global financial crisis. The organizational climate as an occupational stressor has an influence on the employees' counterproductive work behaviors, emotions and their intention to leave the organization.

The interventions regarding the occupational stress in order to increase the employees well-being must be adapted to the specificity of the activity domain of every organization.

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APPLYING THE IDEAS OF TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING IN MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

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***Abstract.** This paper examines a new approach to management education in Bulgaria within the context of concept for modernization and reconstruction of the MA program at the School of Management at NBU. Elements of a new approach are presented that are connected with the building and applying of special new modules that aim at serving as a catalyst for a change in the mindset of managers and their building up of skills for continuous learning and professional development. The paper examines ideas, approaches and strategies to be used in the creation of a “Skills for Learning and Development” module, which will have as a goal to empower the students to become owners of their development processes and to form key abilities for reflection and self-reflection. Ways of building up the abilities for the effective management of learning processes, critical understanding of ones own mental models, as well as those of others, and tracing the development, are discussed. The paper presents basic concepts that comprise a methodological basis for the realization of the desired learning process – transformational learning and its strategies, elements and ideas for making these concrete methods of the process of study functional.*

***Keywords:** Management education, transformative learning.*

INTRODUCTION

The process of effective training of managers and leaders is expected to help the participants meet the challenges of the environment in which they are active and to cater for their actual needs.

Recently, a recurring motive has been that we live in ‘times of turbulent changes’ (Drucker, 1999). The end of the XX century marked the transition from

the industrial age to the information era, in which 'knowledge has to be seen as a major economic resource'. Globalisation, constant innovations and technological developments are creating a higher degree of complexity, unpredictability and a constant need for change.

Through the recent years, the processes of transition tangibly climaxed in a crisis which may force the world to reconsider its entire development. We keep hearing the urge that we need a new economic theory, a new economic policy, a new world order and new means of maintaining the balance. Moreover, the evolving conditions set off the need for novel ways of thinking and changing the old paradigms. Steven Covey points out that the fundamental problem of our era is that while living in the age of information, we are still constrained by models from the industrial era which suppress the development of human potential (Covey, 2004, p.15). Traditional behavioural models control not only the family, but the working environment, as well; but their impact is most perceptible in the styles of management and in organisational culture. It appears that the problem stems from the fact that leaders and managers, who take the upper hand in shaping and assessing the norms of behaviour in society and in organisations, orientate their own behaviour on the basis of an understanding of human nature which is incomplete or warped, and which underestimate key moral principles, undervalue human talent and thus stunt the development of human and societal potential. And if such observations hold true for the current state of affairs in developed western societies, even more so do they apply to the emerging democracies, such as ours. The development of technology and globalisation quickly brought the remotest cultures in the fold of a common world market. In Covey's terminology, the new reality requires the development of habits, which implies new attitudes, skills and knowledge.

THE CHALLENGES THE NEW MANAGER FACES

A brief summary of the numerous studies of the environmental changes in recent years would set off a few new tendencies, which we review below from the point of view of management. To begin with, managers are increasingly forced to direct flat, decentralised and flexible organisations with fuzzy, open frontiers. The focus, therefore, is on simplifying and streamlining working processes and an intense orientation to results. At the same time, technologies strongly dominate the scene, prompted by customer demand. Thereby, developing and implementing innovation is a key factor for success. The main challenge, however, is the human factor. In the new era the managers deal with knowledge workers, who are already the major capital and present the key competitive edge of the organisation. The productivity and effectiveness depend mostly on the leaders' and managers' skills to create a constructive environment which stimulates internal motivation for

complete realisation of the potential of the individual. This is the type of environment which breeds creativity and freedom of imagination. People need to be given more liberty, responsibility and authority, which is related to greater access to information, inclusion in the processes of decision making and respectively – a more substantial share in the proceeds. Some leading organisations have achieved this goal but the better part of businesses have had little progress and still lack in understanding or encounter unexpected obstacles in their efforts to implement change. The area where they fail is in building relationships of a new kind – relationships of partnership. Drucker's new ideas reflect the concept that one should not rule people but direct them with a view of 'deriving maximum benefit from the concrete assets and knowledge of each person' (Drucker, 1999).

The picture of the new philosophy of management for the next 100 years emerges most lucidly summarised as 'Management 2.0' by Gary Hamel. The basic component of this theory, in reaction to the frighteningly high number of 'bad apples' in the American economy, is the idea that management should serve purposes higher and nobler, of greater social significance than the proverbial goal of making profit. The necessity to return to forgotten ideals and values has been brought to life by the world crisis and is particularly relevant to the Bulgarian environment, which has been assailed by a leadership crisis and a lack of role models. Hamel outlines 25 'moon shots' of the new management and based on those priorities, new traits of the image of the leader emerge: a naturally established leader who is guided by eternal human ideals, principles and values; he builds trust, develops goals with the wide participation of a team, encourages self-management, initiative and experimentation, creates opportunity, removes restrictions, is the architect of team building, values difference, thinks systematically and welcomes innovation and changes. The new manager will encourage everything which makes us distinctive personalities; he will stimulate our vitality, creativity and sense of belonging (Hamel, 2009).

Juxtaposing the above ideals to our environment, we can see that in actual fact numerous priorities exist, some of which are contradictory and the modern manager needs to confront many changes of great complexity. The new manager needs to learn to deal with problems of great cognitive and behavioural complexity, which requires skills and behaviours considered until recently ambiguous and incompatible. For instance, on the one hand managers need to set clear-cut priorities and stick to the set course in minute detail, in order to achieve their goals, on the other hand, they need to be innovative and open to new business ideas, to build up coaching skills to develop their employees.

The harmonious co-existence of such contradictory actions can only take place within new ethical paradigms. Indeed, with a focus on issues of moral nature, quite a few of the recent best-sellers in business leadership in effect rediscover the key ideas of humanism, existentialism etc. and adapt them for the current

context. The need for a new paradigm requires a recourse to and re-consideration of universal principles, which, in effect, is a manner of *re-approaching* the pragmatic business discourse with philosophy. Indeed, developing the organisation is virtually impossible without a vision of what excellence is. Developing the individual is impossible without a vision for the human. This transpires from Steven Covey's book, where he establishes a paradigm of Man as a whole person and of his path beyond effectiveness and towards greatness. Managerial development is, in fact a philosophic journey into oneself and the universal human essence, which should lead to an improved understanding of humanity and the ability to work productively in partnership and while developing others. The whole process is, in fact, related to changes in the values, leadership styles and the methods of work. It depends on developing new habits – knowledge skills and attitudes, as Covey says, on finding one's own 'voice' and inspiring others to discover theirs (Covey, 2004).

The new manager has to overcome a great deal of evils: short-term thinking, the fixation on profit, the concept of authority built solely on formal power and sustained by fear, the monopoly on the processes of decision-making, the practice of throwing objectives from the position of power, the strong necessity to control and maintain the *status quo*, subjectivism and liability to political influences, to name but a few. All of the above call for a new approach to training which reflects a new vision for developing managers attuned to the new realities.

A NEW APPROACH TO MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

From what has been said so far, it becomes fairly obvious that a training process for grooming and development of leaders and managers should create opportunities for changing the existing paradigm and should focus on building skills for establishing new paradigms. Which is the most adequate approach to this?

Different approaches exist depending on what we expect of the transformations in the individual during the course of the training. For example, the approach *action learning* emphasises the behavioural changes in solving organisational problems. With *the cognitive approach* the emphasis is on the shifts in the ways of thinking and how problems are presented in the individual and group thinking for the purposes of decision making. The former method is perfectly suited, for instance, to the needs of the training programmes, while the latter corresponds ideally to the needs of long term academic programmes. Despite their assets, however, when harnessed to the familiar structures, syllabi and teaching methodologies of the traditional learning programmes, these approaches are limited in their potential to usher in the much needed change. Without the respective conceptual framework, both methods are dominated, with more or less ostentation, by the instrumental approach, which treats the outcomes and changes

which are to be brought about in the course of the training as a **form of adaptation**. In other words, what is to be learned on a training management programme depends on the needs and requirements of business, to which the learner needs to adapt. This tendency transpires as early as the process of setting the instructional goals, which more often than not are directed at improving the effectiveness of the adaptation. The consequences of this approach are that knowledge as a whole appears as something external to the learner. It needs to be internalised, processed and regurgitated as precisely as possible, while the thinking schemata of the learner adapt to it. In this respect, cognition more often than not reflects the past and the conclusions derived from it are used to solve problems of the present. Such an approach is teacher-, rather than learner-oriented.

One of the most influential theories, the *experiential learning theory (ELT)*, proposed by D. Kolb, is trying to integrate different approaches into a whole theory of learning where the interest shifts away from a single aspect of learning to interaction among the different aspects.

Learning under ELT is defined as a process of creating knowledge through **transforming** experience. The main assumptions are that learning is an integrative process and not a result and it leads to the creation of new knowledge. It is derived from experience and challenges the learner to tackle contradictory requirements in his interaction with the environment. Adopting the methodology of experiential learning for the purposes of training managers, however, raises the question whether the learning activities in a programme integrate the reflective, cognitive, action and experiential aspect into the learning process.

Developers of training programmes recently seem to have overcome the exclusive obsession with content – what needs to be learned. They engage more actively with building skills for abstract thinking. A significant trait of a modern programme is the focus on the learner: it is the learner who takes the central place in the processes of learning and development; it is he who undergoes a transformation into a master of his own development.

More and more opportunities are sought to develop the skills for action and active experimentation in practice, including also the modalities of the new technologies and learning platforms. Furthermore, the new challenges and necessities turn the attention to the *reflective approaches* which focus on the process of self awareness and adopting a critical stance to assumptions which can play a restricting role. Despite the increased attention to this aspect of learning, very few programmes, especially in Bulgaria address and develop the method of reflecting on experience. Very few training programmes include in their learning plans structures, activities and components aimed at the development of reflection skills, or, for that matter, at study skills.

As different from the cognitive approach, which tries to simplify things, the reflective method seeks general understanding, which leads to a new level of com-

plexity. A main representative of approaches featuring reflection can be found in the ideas of **transformative learning**. At least four strands can be distinguished in this paradigm, which have a lot in common but quite a few differences, as well.

The classic work of Freire presents as the goal of learning broadening the mind and increasing the critical awareness, which focus proceeds from the specific educational tasks the researcher faced while working with illiterate and poor people in concrete social contexts (Freire, 1970). Despite this, the general idea, picked up for further development later, is extending the freedom of the learner and their abilities for changing the world through reconsidering and reconstructing new meanings.

For Mezirow transformative learning is related to cognitive and developmental psychology and presents a process of creating meaning through reflection and self-reflection. What happens is a transformation of the assumptions and it affects the main structures for creating sense – the set of beliefs, values and hypotheses formed through experience, which make up the prism through which we see the world. The picture of reality can be true, or constructed or warped, which is why critical reflection is needed as well as dialogue to define, assess, re-formulate and deal with restrictive convictions (Mezirow, 1991).

Daloz's constructivist point of view connects transformative learning with the stages of development of the individual and the innate need to seek and construct new meanings which correspond to new experiences. Learning is a personality change which is a function not so much of rational processes of reflection but of intuitive functions and urges for completion (Daloz, 1986).

With Boyd the ideas about transformative learning in the field of deep psychology are innately connected with the process of individuation, in Jung's terms. Learning is already seen in its emotional and spiritual dimension and is connected with becoming aware of unknown aspects of oneself. The aim is to consciously take part in the natural processes of individuation, which requires establishing internal dialogue with the subconscious structures of the Ego (Boyd & Mayers, 1988).

Despite the differences in their focus and the respective methodological approaches, common ideas about transformative learning can be established. The emphasis is on 'actualization of the person and society through liberation and freedom. Actualization is constrained through the presence of coercive forces or factors within our personal and socio-cultural contexts. [...] Transformative learning aims at identifying these forces and freeing us from their coercive influence through reflection, dialogue, critique, discernment, imagination, and action. [...] Learning is a meaning-making process aimed at fostering a democratic vision of society and self-actualization of individuals.' (Dirkx, 1998, p.4)

These ideas correspond to the problems and challenges of the new realities and the need to develop managers for the new millennium.

APPLYING THE IDEAS OF TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING IN THE MASTER DEGREE PROGRAMME IN MANAGEMENT

The ideas about transformative learning have a history of nearly three decades and a well-developed learning theory. Considerably weaker development, however, exists of corresponding pedagogy, methods and learning strategies. In what follows here, we intend to review the use of some of the ideas within the framework of the programme Management for Organisational Excellence (MOE, 2009) at the SM-NBU. This is the first programme in Bulgaria based on approaches, methods and culture over-arched by the concept of organisational excellence, developed under the guidance of its chair Yuri Alkalai (Alkalai et al., 2008, 2009).

The programme sets itself the goal to train leaders capable of disseminating and implementing the concept of managing through organisational excellence.

In 2008 the programme saw complete restructuring for the purposes of introducing further innovations, which is what gives the SM-NBU its distinctive face. The innovations stem from the good practices and the experience developed in the course of our partnership with the Open University, UK and are based on the well-established methodology of supported distance learning for practising managers. Some of the programme components include integrating separate disciplines, learner-centred teaching, interactive materials which stimulate reflection etc.

On the other hand, throughout the last year an analysis has been conducted of the type of competences needed by leaders, especially in Bulgaria, which directed the attention to the necessity of creating conditions for personality transformation. The effort to meet this need led to significant changes in the programme and designing a brand new teaching process which focuses on personality development and attitude shift.

The restructured programme MOE is designed in 4 semesters and 8 problem-integrated modules. The very first semester offers an innovative approach in which the teaching process is aimed entirely at changing the attitudes, building skills for development and turning the student into a real owner of the learning process. The first semester offers three modules, 10 credits each: Systematic Thinking, Skills for Learning and Development, Personal Development. As can be seen from the titles, the educational focus is not so much on any specific content, but on the processes of learning and change. The aims are that students develop skills for effective learning and life-long professional development, abilities for systematic reflection on one's own and the experience of others, getting to know oneself, skills for teamwork and using modern means of communication such as Web 2.0, working with port-folia etc. (Alkalai et al., 2008, 2009).

A central issue in the approach of transformative learning is the **perspective transformation**, which depends on a few significant conditions and processes. Part of them have been described by Cranton (2002) and illustrated with

examples of teaching strategies in a publication of the Centre for Teaching and Learning of Stanford University (McGonigal, 2005). To achieve a change in the assumptions, the following conditions need to be created: 1) to evoke events which demonstrate the restrictions in the current stage of knowledge, 2) to create opportunities for realising the existing framework of thinking, 3) to encourage critical self-reflection, 4) to encourage critical dialogue with peers, 5) to create opportunities to experiment and implement new assumptions. In effect, almost all known instruction methods can be used to create the opportunities described above. The difference, however, is in the specific goals and objectives of transformative learning.

Below we review some of the strategies and methods planned for use in module 'Learning and Development skills' in the first semester of the Master Degree Programme MOE.

The aim of the module is to prepare the students for more effective learning process and readiness to manage him. Main elements of the module include Kolb's experiential learning cycle, competence approach through worldwide acknowledged management and leadership standards and the methodology for action learning. In parallel with the above the students are prepared for more effective learning through the technology and philosophy of the Web 2.0 applications. The aim is students to be prepared to adopt the role of owners of their own learning process, namely to be in the center of that process and to be fully responsible for its management.

The main objectives are:

- ◆ to activate the processes of self-knowledge and knowledge of others;
- ◆ to develop skills for self-diagnostics, effective learning, critical reflection and personal development planning;
- ◆ to develop understanding of self and organizational change;
- ◆ to build abilities for managing personal and professional development;
- ◆ to critically analysis different self- and career-management systems and tools in the organizations;
- ◆ to apply theories and practices for learning and development in order to improve the individual and organizational performance;
- ◆ to build an understanding about the modern communication and collaboration methods over internet;
- ◆ to develop competence for working in virtual teams;
- ◆ to learn using e-portfolio and evidences.

Mezirow defines 10 stages of transformative learning, which include: creating a disorientating dilemma, self-examination, critical assessment of assumptions, recognition of a shared discontent, exploration of new options, planning a course of action, acquisition of knowledge, trying out new roles, building on competence and confidence, and reintegration in practice from the point of view

of the new assumption (Mezirow, 2000). The learning activities in the module 'Skills for Learning and Development' were planned so that they reflect the 10 phases outlined by Mezirow and guide the learners' activities from challenging their present assumptions to creating new ones and trying out more constructive assumptions in practice.

Below we show samples of different activities grouped according to the requirements of the key conditions of transformative learning.

Activating events revealing the restrictions of existing knowledge. A major group of activities designed to serve as activators are organised as a 5-day introductory seminar. In its design and delivery participates team of different experts: Y. Alkalai, A. Pojarliev, I. Abadjieva, G. Markova, G. Jadkov. The seminar introduces the first three modules simultaneously and creates an intensive experience by outlining new ideas, initiating processes of self-assessment and self-evaluation, reflection; it employs methods and techniques for self knowledge and creating productive relationships.

TABLE 1. INDICATIVE CONTENT OF THE INTRODUCTORY SEMINAR

Day I	Day II	Day III	Day IV	Day V
	Strengths and weaknesses of the individual learning styles – self assessment and reflection	Introduction to personal development – the all round personality and systems for personal development	Eastern philosophies. The route to self knowledge. Traits and virtues for personal and professional development	Introduction to systems and systematic thinking – new information /input
Getting to know each other – interactive activities	Group simulation of problem solving and applying different learning styles	Gaining independence – practising habits for pro-active behaviour	Eastern Techniques for self-reflection, self analysis and self-control. Relaxation and concentration methods	Reflecting on experience Action plans and assignments.
The challenges of the environment – sharing experiences	Sills to work at a distance	Practising habits for vision and setting goals	Communication mechanisms. Getting rid of restraining routines	
Traditional and new management paradigms – provoking information	Team work game and analysis of behaviours	Practising time management habits and priority setting	Introduction to Web 2.0 – instruments for working from a distance	

Some activities and games are aimed at stimulating team work in a competitive environment, by creating conditions of experiencing and reflection on success or failure of a group.

In addition to the introductory seminar, the role of activators in module 'Skills for Learning and Development' is given to the following activities:

- ❖ a pre-set assignment for describing the experience and assumptions of the participants, which reflects their current state of understanding and allows tracing the development of their assumptions;
- ❖ structured self-assessment with the help of a range of instruments, such as studying the career and personal orientations, study skills according to the job requirements, constructive and destructive behaviours etc., which serve as a basis for discovering new aspects and insights into oneself;
- ❖ introduction to study materials and resources, including a provocative documentary about modern corporation which offers conflicting views and dilemmas, all of which confront current ideas with novel ones.

Creating opportunities for gaining awareness of the present set of mind/assumptions. The activities in this area include asking probing questions which help assess the accumulated experience and the consequences of a certain way of perceiving, thinking and behaviour. The presentation of new information is followed by structured questions included in the study materials. The aim is to learn to distinguish restrictive assumptions which pose obstacles to trying out new things, acting in a different way or seeing the world from a different perspective. Awareness of such assumptions is raised with the help of activities for individual work and descriptive assignments, analysis and assessment of the current state of the individual, as well as of the organisational level. Samples of such activities are:

At the individual level, the participants conduct an interview about the career of a colleague of theirs or a person who has accomplished their professional or life cycle aimed at the same career path they are aiming for. Having collected the key information, they assess the outlined positions, decisions and choices, as well as the respective consequences and compare them to their own achievements;

having studied material presenting the main means of managing the learning processes and the organisational development, the participants describe and analyse the methods implemented in their own organisation and attempt to uncover the underlying principles and values and then they compare their experience with that of their colleagues. Getting to know different practices plays the role of a *sui generis* benchmarking, which helps the participants explain a specific approach and the rationale for adopting it. The aim is to broaden the perspective and in the process of juxtaposition, to realise the pros and cons of specific ways of thinking and acting.

Stimulating critical reflection and self-reflection. The aim of reflection is to break the existing frameworks and to overcome their restrictions. These restrictions can be connected with the way the environment is perceived, awareness of one's own habits or expectations of the future.

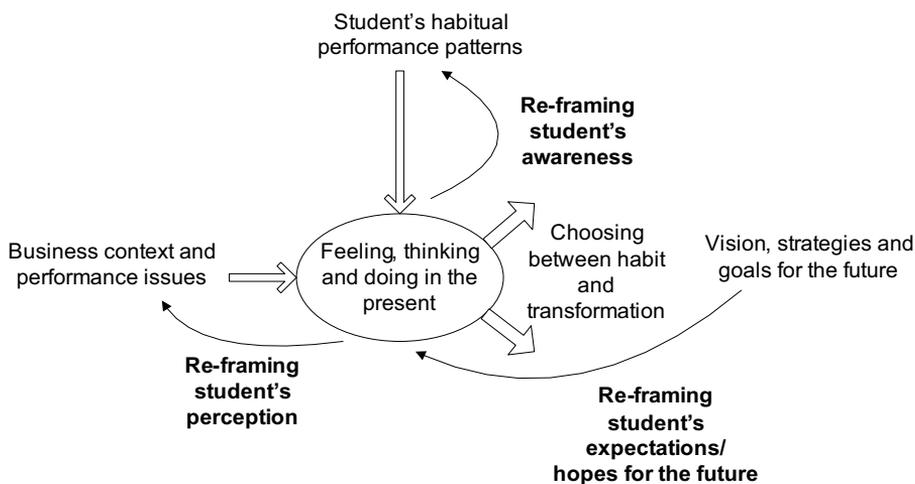


FIGURE 1. RE-FRAMING FOR TRANSFORMATION

The main activities in this group include:

- ♣ an assignment to assess one's own strengths and weaknesses and the needs for development. The participants perform their own analysis on the outcomes and conclusions of the self assessments they have made and the feedback they got from their peers. The major component of the analysis is to discover evidence for specific personal characteristics and competences. A significant tool assisting critical self reflection are the standards for managers and leaders, which contain detailed descriptions of the key components, the desired outcome, skills, behaviour, knowledge and understanding which can be used as a basis for comparison. The task of this assignment stimulates the participants to put forward as evidence descriptions of examples from managerial practice and their own experience;
- ♣ reflection on the performance of group activities. With the help of structured questionnaires, the participants describe what has happened in the course of the teamwork, their own thoughts and feelings, assessments and conclusions, ideas for alternative approaches and what they have learned from the experience;
- ♣ creating visions and aims for development as a result from the reflection on the current state;
- ♣ reflection on behavioural experiments and successful or unsuccessful changes involving restricting assumptions.

A significant component facilitating the process of reflection is documenting the process of reflection and recording evidence of developed competences. This can happen, for example, through keeping a diary which documents key moments in the learning processes, points of conflict, unresolved questions, 'a-ha moments' etc. While the diary is a desirable activity, the portfolio of the products of activities is a must in the learning process. It can be realised through the use of modern information technologies, a special attachment to the portfolio, which facilitate the collecting, organising and sharing the evidence of competence.

Encouraging critical dialogue with peers. This group of activities includes:

- ❖ group discussions and teamwork. Few of the discussions are face-to-face, although participants are encouraged to build groups for self-help. A crucial focus in the programme are the skills for working at a distance with the help of IT technology and the use of a wide range of instruments on Web 2.0. (Jadkov, 2009) The participants complete a series of tasks which involve an exchange of information and communication at a distance. It can be synchronous, requiring, for instance, holding a virtual discussion and recording it, as well as asynchronous discussion in a forum, working with Wikies etc. A sample topic for such a critical discussion can be to explore the major dilemmas which the modern manager meets and the necessity to change their assumptions.
- ❖ pair work – having a coaching dialogue with a colleague meant to help with his short-term aims for development. Each student works with two peers, once – in the role of a participant, another time – as a coach. The coaching dialogue upgrades the concrete experience in the work which can be described or demonstrated in detail by the participant. The coach and the participant have a conversation in which they reflect on the experience. They also reflect on their own conversation process (which takes place between them during the meeting). These areas of reflection are like the steps on a ladder which the coach and the participant are climbing up and down in the course of the conversation. While talking to each other, the participants develop key communicative skills from the point of view of the two parties in the dialogue.

Creating opportunities to try out and apply new perspectives.

The activities in this group include:

- ❖ Playing the role of the consultant and proposing suggestions and recommendations for development, both in individual and organisational aspect. The issues have to be approached with multiple perspectives and varying outcomes discussed;

- ♣ compiling a 2-year development plan from given elements leading to alternative ways of thinking concerning the participants' individual development;
- ♣ working out a new approach – planning and implementing a behavioural experiment, sharing it and the outcomes with the help of a colleague in the form of a simulation of a coaching dialogue.

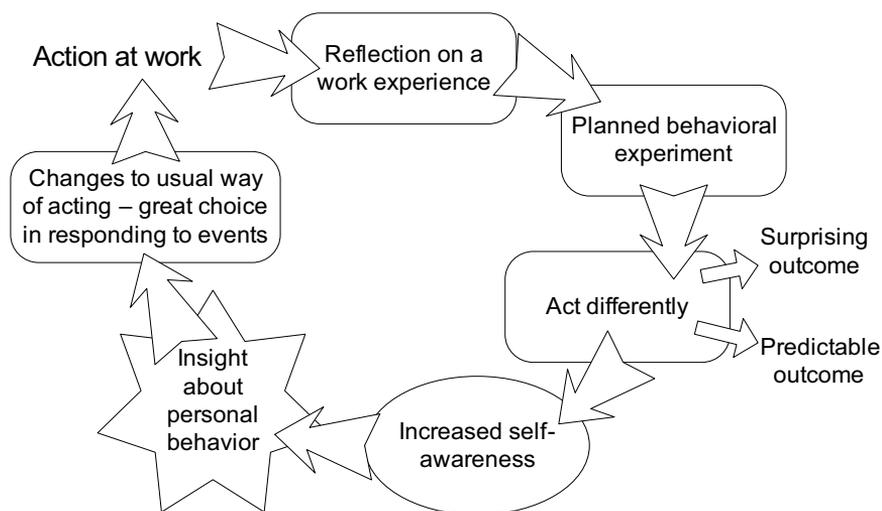


FIGURE 2. PLANNED BEHAVIORAL EXPERIMENTS

The experiments have been designed by the participants themselves, as they discover new opportunities for choice and action. Experimenting increases the self-awareness irrespective of the outcome by projecting the habitual behaviour, which leads to enhanced opportunities for choice of reactions to people and events. Also, the experiments stimulate insight, curiosity and develop courage for more creativity in effecting personality changes. With the help of peers, each participant tries to set himself clear goals, to take risk and to outgrow the comfort zone, to stage more complex changes, to seek support, to document their discoveries and to build relationships of partnership for joint work.

The beginning of the programme in 2009 is very promising. The students' feedback of the introductory seminar and the initial activities in the first semester is very enthusiastic and exceeded the expectations. The high quality learning outcomes show strong evidence of evolving attitudes, group self organization and high engagement of the students. All this encourage the teaching staff that the programme is on the right track.

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PUBLIC OPINION OF WOMEN AS CORPORATE LEADERS – THE CASE OF BULGARIA

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Abstract. *The research of public opinion of women managers examines the basic components of the concept – interpersonal perception and stereotypes. The aim of the empirical study is to analyze specificities of stereotypes and perceptions of woman and man managers prevailing in Bulgarian society and to define their mutual influence. The main research method is a questionnaire, addressed to 751 employees. Following results were obtained: stereotype of woman manager is evaluated higher than stereotype of man manager according to gender typified characteristics; there is no difference between perceptions of woman and man direct supervisors; there is a mutual influence between stereotypes of woman and man managers and corresponding perceptions of direct supervisors of both genders. Results obtained may reflect the existence of positive attitude of Bulgarians towards capabilities of women in position of responsibility. Hence, public opinion of women managers could not be a reason for their low presence in managerial sphere.*

INTRODUCTION

Before determination of characteristics of contemporary women as corporate leaders and the description of public opinion of them, the concepts “management” and “leadership” have to be analyzed.

In Bulgarian scientific literature the idea of “leader” usually refers to an informal leader, for the formal one, the concept “manager” is applied. In Anglo-Saxon literature, there is not such a difference between the two terms – “leader”

is considered to be a more general concept and it could be used for both types of leaders (*Russinova et al., 2001*). Hence, in present analysis the concepts “manager” and “corporate leader” are used as synonyms.

Women managers are less in the world than men managers (*Barberá et al., 2000*). It often happens that employees do not agree to have a woman as their direct supervisor. Culture and traditions make people see in the woman mainly the mother and in the man – the family leader who earns the maintenance. Presented facts emphasize the importance of study public opinion of women managers, by revealing peculiarities of stereotypes of women managers and exploring the specific way employees perceive their direct supervisors when they are women.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

In the theoretical background of the research, principal concepts of the topic are analyzed. Firstly, specificities of the concept “woman manager” are described, then the question for “public opinion” of women with a managerial position in the organizational hierarchy is explored, too.

1. Managerial Position – Specificities of Women Managers

1.1. Management and Leadership

The managerial position is a degree of career advancement, related to specific obligations and responsibilities. They are the main factor of influence on organizational effectiveness. The successful business leader in contemporary organizations has to combine in himself/herself professional skills of a manager who organizes, controls and directs corporate activity, but at the same time represents personal qualities of a respected informal leader who is capable to maintain a good communication with his/her colleagues and subordinates. The **image of an ideal manager** is examined in the present study. That is a supervisor who on the one hand is responsible for technical equipment, finances and work conditions in the organization and on the other hand motivates his/her subordinates and is concerned about their career development and work satisfaction.

As basic functions of the manager could be determined, as follows – **the planning, the organization and the control** (*Gotsevski, 2004*). The flexible combination of these three important functions in manager’s performance with the skill to create good relationships in work environment, guarantees the establishment of an effective team activity and a competitive organization.

Despite of the existence of empirical data about the universality of the basic characteristics for successful management (*Sanyal and Guvenli, 2004*), some

specificities in the image of the ideal manager are observed in frames of different cultures (*Brodbeck et al., 2000*).

In relation to the peculiarities of **leadership characteristics of women managers**, it has to be emphasized that it is proved that in some cases women possess particular type of values, due to a gender specific process of socialization, which provokes the emergence and practice of leadership characteristics different from the men's ones. The leadership style of women is considered as more **oriented towards people** (*Cuadrado, 2003; Cuadrado et al., 2001; Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Kabacoff and Peters, 1998; Rosener, 1990*).

1.2. Women Managers

1.2.1. Explanatory Model of Significant Factors in Professional Career of Women

The Industrial Revolution opened lots of doors for the working women whole over the world. Their participation in the working processes started growing extremely fast. The XXth century was a period of fight and gains in different life spheres for women – from the free access to education to the aspiration to equal opportunities to start a work career. In the 90's of the last century they entered into managerial sphere.

Most of the women who try to reach managerial positions in organizations usually face the so called “**glass ceiling**” – a metaphor, related to invisible, artificial obstacles, which are faced from many women, who are aspiring leadership positions (*Burn, 1996*). These barriers are a consequence of the existence of **gender role stereotypes** and the expectations they cause (*Morrison et al., 1987*). It is considered that stereotypes of women could **provoke in people's mind a perception of women as unsuitable for a managerial role** (*Burn, 1996*).

The factor, determining the emergence of “the glass ceiling” in organizations – gender role stereotypes, has to be placed and studied in frames of the larger context of the rest of the obstacles in front of women's professional career. Revised studies show that specific difficulties in career advancement of women are related to the influence of **formal, social-psychological, organizational and personal factors**. Based on the interactions between them, an explanatory **Model of significant factors in professional career of women** is proposed (*See: Figure 1*).

This is a system model and each factor is related to the others. In a particular situation some of these relations could become stronger and more remarkable, because all these factors function in the background of the historical and cultural development and the actual socio-economic situation in each country.

Hence, series of particular researches are needed, in order to be possible to determine strength and intensity of the presented relations.

The present study analyzes and puts an accent on the **substantial intermediate factor** in this model – the **stereotypic subtype of woman manager**, dominating in the society, as a basic component of **the public opinion of women managers**.

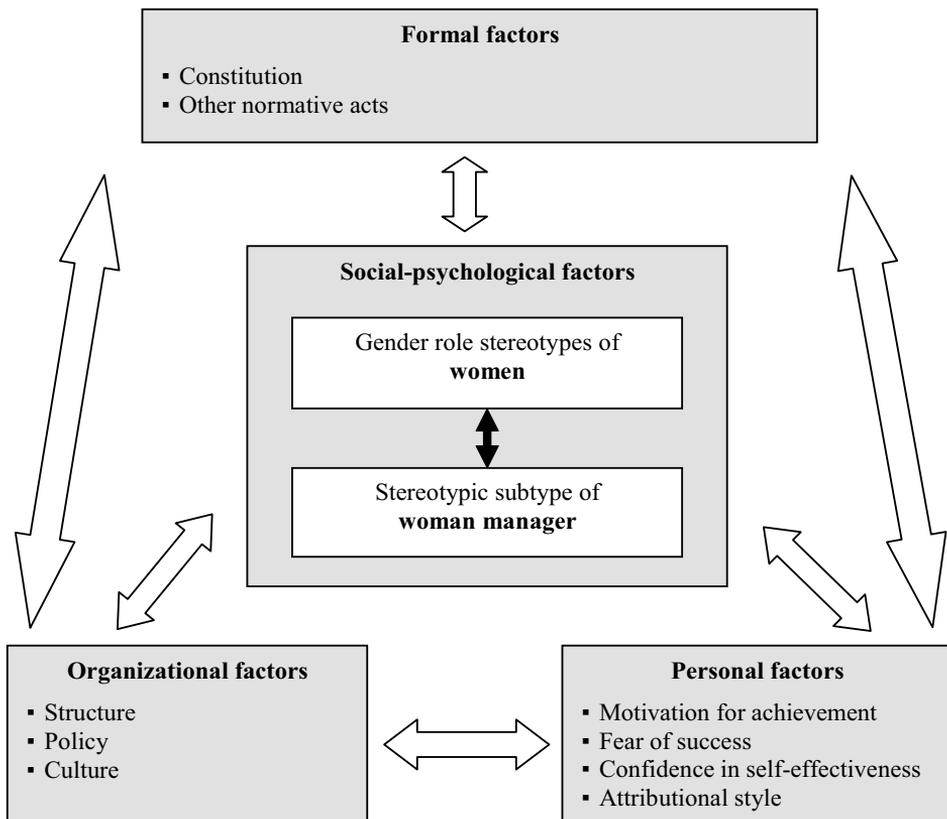


FIGURE 1. MODEL OF SIGNIFICANT FACTORS IN PROFESSIONAL CAREER OF WOMEN

1.2.2. Situation of Women in Bulgarian Labor Market

During a large period of 45 years as a **totalitarian country** (1944–1989), Bulgaria had to demonstrate a high level of economic growth, despite of the isolation of the Camp of Socialist Countries from the “Capitalist” world. How-

ever, in Bulgarian industry the technologies were not on a high level, which was an obstacle for improvements in the production. The great amount of human participation in a labor force became the most appropriate way to try to increase the production. Stimulating participation of good and talented “workers” of both genders in all the sectors and levels of industry and social sphere became an aim of the Planned Economic policy. At the same time, this type of policy “fitted” well into the propagated idea of communist government for “equality between people”. Therefore, during large decades Bulgarian women had to work in the same way as men in all type of professional sphere and hierarchical levels.

The following **period of transition** started in 1989 and Bulgaria is still passing through it. This period has an important influence on employment and professional career, especially of women’s ones. The large number of dismissals of work force and the suspension of the activity of many state organizations led suddenly to an increase of unemployment among both genders. The emerging private business offered work places principally for men, because the social policy, related to women (payment of maternity leaves, leaves for children illnesses, etc.) was not favorable for employers. Hence, this period is related to many difficulties for working women in general and especially for women, aspiring career development. They had to demonstrate professional skills much greater than those of men in order to be a preferred candidate for a work position or to run an own business as entrepreneurs.

According to the Constitution of the Republic of Bulgaria, the civil, trade and labor legislation, Bulgarian woman has the legal right to participate in the economic life in an equal way as man (*Nikolova, 1994*). In 2003 the Parliament passed the Law on Protection against Discrimination, which forbade any form of direct or indirect discrimination on the base of people’s gender, race, nationality, etc.

According to the represented analysis of historical peculiarities and actual situation in Bulgaria, it could be summarized that there **are not any formal barriers** to the professional development of the both genders. But if there are some differences in career advancement for women and men, they are a consequence of the influence of one or more from the rest of the factors, compounding the **Model of significant factors in professional career of women**:

- social-psychological factors (gender role stereotypes and subtypes);
- organizational factors;
- personal factors.

The recently concluded **membership of Bulgaria in the European Union** in 2007 intensifies even more the requirements towards the country, related to the establishment of gender equality.

1.2.3. Women Managers in Bulgaria – recent data

The growing number of women in high organizational levels should be related to an enhancement of their education level (*Kotseva, 1996*). The censuses of population carried out by the National Statistical Institute in the period from 1946 to 2001 show that the percentage of women with university education has a stable growth and since 1992 it has exceeded that of men in the towns as well as in smaller villages (*NSI, 2001*). A statistical survey for the period from 2002 to 2006 determines that the part of women with university education continues to be higher than that of men. According to the information for 2007, **women are 59.07% and men 40.93% of the university graduates in the country** (*NSI, 2008*). Presented data reveals that nowadays the intellectual potential of women in Bulgaria could satisfy requisites of the labor market, including the high specific requirements for a managerial position.

The participation of both genders in the labor force in Bulgaria is relatively balanced. Data for 2007 show that **women are 46.77% of employed and men – 53.23%** (*NSI, 2008*).

However, this approximately equal distribution in employment does not remain the same in a vertical plane. In 2007, the percentage of **men employers is 72.91% and that of women in the same position – 27.09%** (*NSI, 2008*).

The present analysis is not oriented towards the particular organizational level (middle or top level) of these managers. Hence, an accent will be put on data, revealing the percentage not just of women employers but that of women in all managerial positions in organizational hierarchy – positions, related to power, leadership, decisions making and supervising of subordinates.

In the EU27 in 2007 a third of the managers (including corporate managers and managers of small enterprises) were women. There were fewer female managers than male managers in all Member States, with the highest percentage of female managers recorded in France, Poland, Italy and Spain (*See: Table 1*).

Percentage of women managers in post-communist countries is approximately equal to that in “west democracy” EU countries. Data for Bulgaria coincide with the average for all EU27 countries, indicated on the table.

The cited data reveal that educational potential of women in Bulgaria is not completely utilized for all of them. Despite of prevailing over men with university education, women have a lower presence in the managerial sphere. This proportion depends on a large amount of factors, a great part of which are included in the represented **Model of significant factors in professional career of women**, among which are the stereotypes of women managers – the object of our study. However, it has to be stressed that the scientific exploration of these stereotypes requires the parallel study of employees’ perceptions of managers of both genders.

TABLE 1. COMPARISON BETWEEN PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE MANAGERS IN POST-COMMUNIST AND “WEST DEMOCRACY” EU COUNTRIES IN 2007 (EUROPEAN COMMISSION, 2009)

COUNTRY	Percentage of female managers in post-communist countries	COUNTRY	Percentage of female managers in other EU27 countries
Bulgaria	30.1	Belgium	30.8
Czech Republic	27.6	Denmark	26.2
Germany*	29.8	Germany*	29.8
Estonia	31.9	Ireland	21.1
Latvia	34.2	Greece	28.7
Lithuania	32.1	Spain	34.9
Hungary	28.9	France	39.2
Poland	35.0	Italy	35.0
Romania	27.1	Luxembourg	22.3
Slovenia	25.7	Netherlands	27.5
Slovakia	29.5	Austria	31.9
		Portugal	32.1
		Finland	17.4
		Sweden	24.5
		United Kingdom	33.2
Average post-communist countries	30.2	Average “west democracy” countries**	29

* Germany figures in both columns because it integrates the post-communist and the west countries heritage

** Malta and Cyprus are excluded from cited data, because their data lack reliability, due to small sample size

2. Public Opinion and Managerial Position

The study of public opinion in present research examines the two basic components of the concept – **interpersonal perception** and **stereotypes**, in the context of women managers’ issue.

2.1. Interpersonal Perception and Managerial Position

The interpersonal perception consists in impressions about an individual or a group and in processes of forming, keeping and evoking from memory of information about others in order to form an opinion about them (Arnold et al., 1995). Despite of being a base for people interactions in everyday life, interpersonal perception is extremely important in formation of relationships and attitudes towards individuals and groups in organizations, too (Ilgen and Klein, 1989). Therefore, the process of interpersonal perception has a crucial importance for organizational effectiveness (Mitchell and Larson, 1987).

R. Shiffrin & W. Schneider postulate two kinds of perception processes – **the automatic and the controlled processes** of elaboration of information (*Shiffrin and Schneider, 1977*). There are evidences that, when people face inconsistent signals, they are not disposed to pass from an automatic (based on schemes and stereotypes) processing of information to a controlled one. These kinds of situations often provoke an emergence of so called **systematic “errors” in perception, one of which is the stereotyping** (*Buchanan and Huczynski, 1997; Mitchell and Larson, 1987*).

Most of the contemporary studies of managerial sphere include a research on people impressions, perceptions and expectations towards the manager and are based on different ways of determination.

It is necessary for studies on perception of managers of both genders to note if they are conducted in an **organizational environment** (participants are real managers and subordinates) or in **laboratory conditions** (in the most cases participants are students).

The review of empirical investigations of perception in managerial sphere demonstrates that the most reliable studies are **the organizational researches, where real managers are objects of perception** (*Ragins and Sundstorm, 1990*) and **evaluators are people in closest professional relationships with them – for example, their subordinates** (*Ayman, 1993; Eagly et al., 1992*). In these kinds of investigations there are not any differences determined between managers of both genders, because personal experience reduces the impact of gender role stereotypes, which often distort the process of perception. The influence of these stereotypes on interpersonal perception, their essence and specificities are analyzed in more details in the following part of present research.

2.2. Stereotypes and Managerial Position

Stereotypes are generalized and usually based on values impressions about representatives of a particular group. Groups could be formed, according to different criteria, for example – race, gender, occupation, age, etc. (*Stangor et al., 1992*). Stereotypes are not always based on facts, so they often lead to an excessive sim-

plification of the evaluation process and to wrong conclusions. (*Williams et al., 1989*).

Despite of their stability, it is possible that in certain conditions some changes occur in stereotypes. Based on theoretical reviews, as principal ways for change of stereotypes the two cognitive models of M. Rothbart – **the bookkeeping model and the conversion model**, could be indicated. According to these models, the change of stereotypes occurs, due to the influence of information of the reality, which does not confirm the stereotypes (*Rothbart, 1981*).

Gender role stereotypes contain the experience of a large number of generations related to the desirable behavior of men and women in various situations, their peculiar character traits, moral qualities and virtues (*Азарова, 2000*). Most authors consider that principal differentiating stereotype peculiarities are placed on the imaginary bipolar axis “**instrumentality-expressiveness**”. **Male roles** and way of living are more “*instrumental*” and oriented towards activity, and **female** ones are “*expressive*” and related to communication (*Kon, 1990*).

Gender role stereotypes exist in more general categories – “women”, “men” and as more specific **subtypes** – “career woman”, “businessman”, etc. The borders between the subtypes are not so clear but they do contain different characteristics and people’s evaluation of them varies (*Deaux and Lafrance, 1998*). According to the M. Heilman’s **Lack of fit model** women are evaluated as less suitable for professions and work positions, considered as typically male (*Heilman, 1983*). It results that, if the managerial position, for example, is typified as “male”, people expect a male set of behaviors. Hence, applicants for managers or actual managers of the “expected” male gender are considered to be more effective (*Eagly et al., 1992*). Many researchers, confirm the wide spread assumption “**think manager, think male**”, that is to say, that the presence of qualities, required for a successful management is more probable in men, than in women (*Brown, 1979; Jabes, 1980; Schein, 2001; Willemsen, 2002*). Therefore, masculinity is found to be an important predictor for career success of women. It seems that women managers have to develop in themselves series of male qualities and demonstrate a kind of behavior, which is typical for men managers in order to progress in the predominating “male” working world (*Powell and Butterfield, 1979*). However, there are evidences that the most successful managers are not the masculine ones but the **androgynous** – people, characterized with a flexible combination of masculine and feminine qualities, varying in dependence of situation (*Powell, 1993*).

2.3. Factors for Reliable Study of Stereotypes and Perceptions, as Components of Public Opinion of Women Managers

The important role of stereotypes of women managers in presented explanatory **Model of significant factors in professional career of women** emphasizes the

necessity of determination of peculiarities of these stereotypes in Bulgaria, as a component of public opinion of women managers in the country. In relation to the investigation of specificities of public opinion of women managers, it is necessary to study perceptions of them, too. **The comparative analysis between the mentioned stereotypes and perceptions** is a possibility to check if mental representations of individuals are congruent to reality in contemporary organizational sphere.

In order to make specificities of stereotype and perception of woman manager more salient, they have to be compared with stereotype and perception of man manager, that is to say, **analysis of peculiarities of public opinion of woman manager requires a comparison between woman and man manager**. These stereotypes and perceptions have to be evaluated by means of a method, containing identical items in order to make possible the application of quantitative methods for statistical analysis in the following comparison between profiles of respective stereotypes and perceptions.

The reliable study of women and man managers requires the determination of **specific managerial characteristics**, according to which their behavior could be evaluated (*Sczesny, 2003*). Hence, present empirical study includes a previous investigation of peculiarities of the ideal manager, as a base for the following evaluations of stereotypes and perceptions of woman and man managers.

It has to be emphasized again the conclusion that the most reliable are studies, conducted in **real organizations**, where the object of perception are **real managers** (*Ragins and Sundstorm, 1990*) and evaluators are their **direct subordinates** (*Ayman, 1993; Eagly et al., 1992*).

Moreover, it could be better if every respondent evaluate in **one testing procedure** stereotypes and perceptions of women and men managers due to the greater accuracy of the following comparison between different scales profiles (*Fernandes and Cabral-Cardoso, 2003; Maher, 1997*).

Present empirical study is structured, according to requirements indicated above towards the specificities of the method and the participants.

EMPIRICAL STUDY

1. Aim, Tasks and Hypotheses

The aim of the empirical study is to analyze stereotype and perception, as components of the public opinion of woman manager in Bulgaria, in comparison with those of man manager and the mutual influence between them.

For the realization of the investigation purpose, the following **tasks** of the study are formulated:

First stage of the study

Task 1. To determine the basic characteristics, respondents ascribe to the “ideal manager”, not specifying his/her gender.

Second stage of the study

Task 1. To analyze stereotypes of woman and man managers and to reveal the difference between them as well as to analyze perceptions of woman and man managers, revealing the differences between them.

Task 2. To explore the mutual influence between stereotype and perception of woman manager as well as the mutual influence between stereotype and perception of man manager.

Based on studies explored, in relation to the theoretical background of the empirical investigation, the following **hypotheses** are formulated:

Hypothesis 1.

1.1. It is supposed that there is a difference between stereotypes of woman and man managers, being the evaluation of stereotype of woman manager lower.

The hypothesis is formulated on the base of results of series of reference studies (*Brown, 1979; Jabes, 1980; Schein, 2001; Willemssen, 2002*), according to which it is considered in the society that the presence of qualities, required for a successful management is more probable in men, than in women.

1.2. It is expected that there is not any difference between evaluations of perceptions of woman and man managers.

The hypothesis is based on a revision of organizational studies (*See: Aymann, 1993; Eagly et al., 1992; Ragins and Sundstorm, 1990*), which prove that in real work sphere, subordinates perceive managers of both genders in equal way.

Hypothesis 2.

It is expected that there is a mutual influence between stereotype and perception of woman manager as well as between stereotype and perception of man manager.

The hypothesis is based on the assumption that the stereotyping is one of the most important systematic “errors”, distorting perception (*Buchanan and Huczynski, 1997; Mitchell and Larson, 1987*). On the other hand, the cognitive models of change of stereotypes demonstrate that information, acquired through perception process, could influence on stereotype, too (*Rothbart, 1981*).

There are not any data from past researches in Bulgaria, concerning the evaluation of stereotypes and perceptions of woman and man managers. Therefore, some studies of foreign authors, presented in the theoretical background of the research, served as a base of formulated hypotheses. Cited foreign studies are not carried out with the same method as Bulgarian investigation, because it is culturally specific. Hence present study could not be considered as cross-cultural and formulated hypotheses just outline some expected tendencies. A comparison of interpretations of results of foreign studies is made. Results of present investigation will reflect the influence of specificities of the historical and cultural development and the actual socio-economic situation in Bulgaria, on existing stereotypes of managers of both genders in Bulgarians' mind and on employees' perceptions of their direct supervisors. It has to be considered that in the historical development of Bulgaria a significant differentiation between the role possibilities of men and women is not observed. The "totalitarian heritage" with the image of "women working in the same way as men" and the following period of transition, characterized with increased competitiveness in labor market, where women had to demonstrate fully their capabilities, could have led to a absence of negative stereotypes towards professional skills of Bulgarian women. Hence, it is possible to be determined some differences between the results of present empirical study and data, obtained in foreign investigations.

2. Method of the Empirical Study

2.1. Sample

In the first stage of the study a random sample of 32 respondents of both genders were included as experts. This number corresponds to the requirements for representativeness of a qualitative study. The criteria for selection of the experts were – a university degree in field of "Work and Organizational Psychology", work practice as "Human Resources" specialists or experience in managerial position.

The data were collected by means of interview of the research team with the experts.

In the second stage of the investigation participated randomly selected **751 employees** in companies and organizations in the capital of Bulgaria (Sofia) and in a randomly selected smaller country town (Shumen). The survey was anonymous.

In order to achieve reliability of data received, a basic requirement towards respondents was to have as a minimum 1 year of work experience with a woman or man direct supervisor.

The frequency distribution of demographic characteristics of 751 respondents, aged from 20 to 70 years (mean – 36 years), with work experience from 1 to 47 years (mean – 13 years) is presented in *Table 2*.

TABLE 2. FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF SUBGROUPS OF RESPONDENTS, BASED ON THEIR DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS (N=751)

G R O U P S	Frequency	Percent
GENDER		
Men	345	45.9
Women	406	54.1
Education degree		
Secondary education	231	30.8
University education	520	69.2
Residence		
Residence in the capital (Sofia)	697	92.8
Residence in a smaller country town (Shumen)	54	7.2

2.2. Measures

2.2.1. Method for the Investigation of Characteristics of the Ideal Manager – interview

The method was applied in the **first stage** of the empirical study and was addressed to the already mentioned **32 experts**. The **interview** contains an open question oriented towards the determination of the main qualities, which are ascribed to the **ideal manager** in Bulgaria.

After a **frequency distribution** of characteristics, indicated by the 32 experts, 81 adjectives were obtained. These adjectives were ordered in **synonym groups**, by means of expert evaluation. The method applied by the expert team was **paired comparison** of the 81 adjectives, until the forming of 20 synonym groups. Every group is labeled with the adjective, fitting at best to the meaning of all adjectives in the group. These 20 adjectives-labels of the groups were the base for the construction of the scale in the **Method for the evaluation of perceptions and stereotypes of woman and man managers** – a questionnaire, which

was applied in the **second stage** of the empirical study. The number of 20 adjectives included in the questionnaire is considered to be the optimal for people's psychological perception. The "**physical attractiveness**" was added additionally as a final item.

The 21 characteristics of the ideal manager obtained, which compounded the valuation scale of perceptions and stereotypes of woman and man managers are as follows: **competent, charismatic, enterprising, creative, sociable, purposeful, scrupulous, organized, stress-resistant, decisive, realistic, analytical, effective, convincing, flexible, just, responsible, tolerant, exigent, willing to take grounded risk and physically attractive.**

2.2.2. Method for the Evaluation of Perceptions and Stereotypes of Woman and Man Managers – questionnaire

The method was applied in the **second stage** of the empirical study and was addressed to the mentioned **751 employees**. It is a **questionnaire**, compounded of four identical scales with 21 antonymous couples of the adjectives, which in the first stage of the study were proved to describe the ideal manager. According to these characteristics, the employees evaluated perceptions and stereotypes of woman and man managers by means of 7-point bipolar scale.

There are empirical evidences of applicability and reliability of the 7-point bipolar scale of adjectives, related to managerial role, in the study and comparison between stereotypes of woman and man managers (*Frank, 2001*).

The first question of present evaluation method is "*Have you had women as your direct supervisors in your professional career? If "no", please, go to the next page and answer to the next question, if "yes", would you describe the last one you worked with, according to the presented couples of characteristics?*". Respondents had to fill in their answers in the following evaluation scale of **perception of woman manager**. The next scale of the questionnaire is oriented towards **perception of man manager** and the question is formulated by analogy with the previous. In relation to the evaluation scale of **stereotype of woman manager** in Bulgaria, respondents answered the question "*How would you describe the typical woman manager in Bulgaria?*". The question "*How would you describe the typical man manager in Bulgaria?*" is followed by the evaluation scale of **stereotype of man manager** in Bulgaria.

Every respondent filled all four evaluation scales in one testing procedure.

The 7-point scale of the Method for the evaluation of perceptions and stereotypes of woman and man managers, containing 21 couples of antonymous adjectives for description of these perceptions and stereotypes, demonstrates a high internal consistency (**coefficient alpha Cronbach = .9223**).

In order to enhance reliability of results obtained, a **Scale of "social desirability" effect** was presented and filled by 224 respondents, tested with

the Method for the evaluation of perceptions and stereotypes of woman and man managers. The scale is tested for reliability and validity (**coefficient alpha Cronbach = .6929**). A *Spearman Correlation Analysis* of general scores of Scale of “social desirability” effect, on one hand and perceptions of woman and man managers, on the other hand is done. Results obtained show that there is not statistically significant correlation between Scale of “social desirability” effect and evaluations of direct supervisors, so it could be supposed that respondents’ evaluations correspond to their realistic opinion and are objective.

2.3. Applied Methods for Statistical Analysis of Data

The **statistical elaboration** of the empirical study’s data was processed with the program *SPSS*. The following statistical methods were applied:

- *2 Related-Samples Test* – in analysis of differences between evaluations of investigated stereotypes and perceptions;
- *One-Way ANOVA* – in study of mutual influence between stereotypes and perceptions of woman and man managers.

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS OF DATA OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

In order to test the formulated hypotheses, series of comparisons between evaluations of stereotypes and perceptions of managers of both genders were realized. These comparisons were made mostly on two levels – according to the general score of the four scales and according to the 21 basic characteristics of the ideal manager, included in these scales.

Data analysis shows that the most of the evaluations of stereotypes and perceptions of woman and man managers are grouped in the “positive” area of the scale for characteristics of the ideal manager, that is to say, are higher than the “intermediate” value 4, dividing the evaluation scale into positive and negative area. This “positivism” demonstrates the favorable attitude of the sample of Bulgarian employees towards women and men managers and a rather benevolent attitude towards their direct supervisors, independently of their gender.

According to the testing of formulated hypotheses of the present study, the following results and conclusions could be indicated:

1. Bulgarian employees evaluate higher stereotype of woman manager than stereotype of man manager (according to general score and 8 characteristics) (See: *Table 3*). Therefore, the Hypothesis 1.1 for the higher evaluation of stereotype of man manager, based on foreign researches, is not confirmed.

TABLE 3. STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EVALUATIONS OF STEREOTYPES OF WOMAN AND MAN MANAGERS, BY COMPARISONS OF GENERAL SCORE AND BASIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE IDEAL MANAGER (N=751)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Stereotype of man manager/ Stereotype of woman manager (general score)	Negative Ranks	367	364.44	133750.50	-2.637	.008**
	Positive Ranks	325	326.24	106027.50		
	Ties	59				
Competent	Negative Ranks	143	164.91	23581.50	-.937	.349
	Positive Ranks	173	153.21	26504.50		
	Ties	435				
Charismatic	Negative Ranks	216	200.89	43392.00	-2.135	.033*
	Positive Ranks	177	192.25	34029.00		
	Ties	358				
Enterprising	Negative Ranks	196	166.32	32599.00	-1.662	.097
	Positive Ranks	148	180.68	26741.00		
	Ties	407				
Creative	Negative Ranks	200	181.93	36385.50	-1.733	.083
	Positive Ranks	163	182.09	29680.50		
	Ties	388				
Sociable	Negative Ranks	268	177.53	47579.00	-8.402	.000***
	Positive Ranks	89	183.42	16324.00		
	Ties	394				
Purposeful	Negative Ranks	179	170.86	30583.50	-.222	.824
	Positive Ranks	168	177.35	29794.50		
	Ties	404				
Scrupulous	Negative Ranks	195	183.96	35873.00	-.064	.949
	Positive Ranks	184	196.40	36137.00		
	Ties	372				
Organized	Negative Ranks	219	186.00	40733.50	-3.129	.002**
	Positive Ranks	152	186.00	28272.50		
	Ties	380				
Stress-resistant	Negative Ranks	160	174.73	27957.00	-3.156	.002**
	Positive Ranks	210	193.70	40678.00		
	Ties	381				
Decisive	Negative Ranks	157	172.58	27094.50	-2.358	.018*
	Positive Ranks	197	181.42	35740.50		
	Ties	397				

Realistic	Negative Ranks	145	165.83	24045.00	-3.241	.001**
	Positive Ranks	200	178.20	35640.00		
	Ties	406				
Analytical	Negative Ranks	142	190.73	27083.50	-5.531	.000***
	Positive Ranks	253	202.08	51126.50		
	Ties	356				
Effective	Negative Ranks	171	170.05	29079.00	-.618	.537
	Positive Ranks	176	177.84	31299.00		
	Ties	404				
Convincing	Negative Ranks	181	161.25	29186.50	-.922	.356
	Positive Ranks	151	172.79	26091.50		
	Ties	419				
Flexible	Negative Ranks	230	186.90	42987.50	-5.906	.000***
	Positive Ranks	127	164.69	20915.50		
	Ties	394				
Just	Negative Ranks	188	186.52	35065.00	-1.042	.298
	Positive Ranks	175	177.15	31001.00		
	Ties	388				
Responsible	Negative Ranks	202	170.42	34425.50	-4.381	.000***
	Positive Ranks	127	156.37	19859.50		
	Ties	422				
Tolerant	Negative Ranks	239	186.97	44686.50	-3.014	.003**
	Positive Ranks	151	209.00	31558.50		
	Ties	361				
Exigent	Negative Ranks	183	159.51	29190.50	-2.890	.004**
	Positive Ranks	131	154.69	20264.50		
	Ties	437				
Willing to take grounded risk	Negative Ranks	137	179.82	24635.50	-4.504	.000***
	Positive Ranks	229	185.70	42525.50		
	Ties	385				
Physically attractive	Negative Ranks	291	181.00	52671.00	-10.329	.000***
	Positive Ranks	70	181.00	12670.00		
	Ties	390				

* $p \leq .05$

** $p \leq .01$

*** $p \leq .001$

Comparisons between stereotypes of woman and man managers, according to basic characteristics of the ideal manager are presented on *Figure 2*.

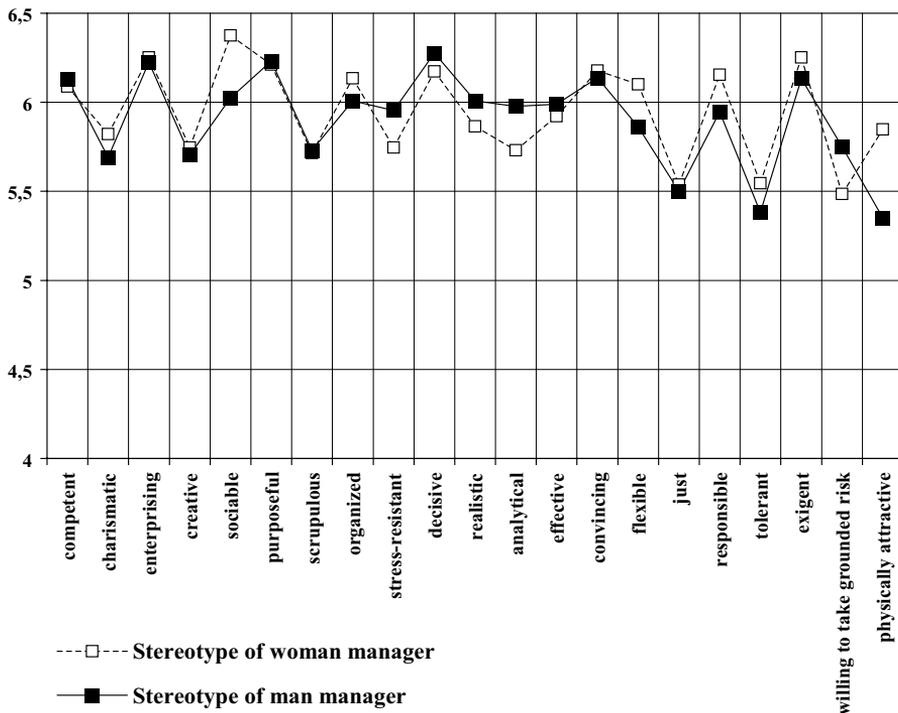


FIGURE 2. COMPARISON BETWEEN STEREOTYPES OF WOMAN AND MAN MANAGERS, ACCORDING TO BASIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE IDEAL MANAGER

Women managers are evaluated as more **charismatic, sociable, organized, flexible, responsible, tolerant, exigent and physically attractive** as men managers. The differences are statistically significant.

Man managers are considered to be more **stress-resistant, decisive, realistic, analytical and willing to take grounded risk**, in comparison with women. The differences are statistically significant again.

I could be concluded that observed differences are gender typified.

Stereotype of woman manager – the substantial intermediate factor of presented **Model of significant factors in professional career of women**, is not related to the expected underestimation of her managerial skills and capabilities, in comparison with those of man, independently that in some characteristics is evaluated lower, in most cases the evaluation is equal or higher than man's. Therefore, it is possible that differences of the level of career advancement of both genders in Bulgaria are a consequence of the impact of other factors, compounding this model – organizational (structure, policy and culture) and/or personal factors (motivation for achievement, fear of success, confidence in self-effectiveness and attributional

style). It has to be stressed that all these factors function in relation with the historical and cultural development and the actual socio-economic situation in Bulgaria.

2. The expected in Hypothesis 1.2 absence of differences between perceptions of woman and man managers (according to general score and almost all characteristics, except 4) is confirmed (See: Table 4).

TABLE 4. STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EVALUATIONS OF PERCEPTIONS OF WOMAN AND MAN MANAGERS, BY COMPARISONS OF GENERAL SCORE AND BASIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE IDEAL MANAGER (N=435)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Perception of man manager/ Perception of woman manager (general score)	Negative Ranks	212	217.16	46037.00	-.136	.891
	Positive Ranks	215	210.89	45341.00		
	Ties	8				
Competent	Negative Ranks	125	133.70	16713.00	-.957	.339
	Positive Ranks	142	134.26	19065.00		
	Ties	168				
Charismatic	Negative Ranks	141	163.18	23008.00	-1.810	.070
	Positive Ranks	181	160.19	28995.00		
	Ties	113				
Enterprising	Negative Ranks	165	145.60	24024.00	-2.086	.037*
	Positive Ranks	125	145.37	18171.00		
	Ties	145				
Creative	Negative Ranks	147	152.56	22427.00	-.942	.346
	Positive Ranks	143	138.24	19768.00		
	Ties	145				
Sociable	Negative Ranks	151	129.41	19541.00	-.877	.381
	Positive Ranks	120	144.29	17315.00		
	Ties	164				
Purposeful	Negative Ranks	150	141.41	21211.00	-1.986	.047*
	Positive Ranks	123	131.63	16190.00		
	Ties	162				
Scrupulous	Negative Ranks	162	154.56	25038.00	-.296	.767
	Positive Ranks	151	159.62	24103.00		
	Ties	122				
Organized	Negative Ranks	156	141.72	22109.00	-1.709	.087
	Positive Ranks	125	140.10	17512.00		
	Ties	154				

Stress-resistant	Negative Ranks	128	152.65	19539.50	-3.010	.003**
	Positive Ranks	183	158.34	28976.50		
	Ties	124				
Decisive	Negative Ranks	138	159.96	22074.00	-.036	.971
	Positive Ranks	159	139.49	22179.00		
	Ties	138				
Realistic	Negative Ranks	151	156.27	23596.50	-.127	.899
	Positive Ranks	157	152.80	23989.50		
	Ties	127				
Analytical	Negative Ranks	123	146.75	18050.00	-1.901	.057
	Positive Ranks	164	141.94	23278.00		
	Ties	148				
Effective	Negative Ranks	135	136.63	18444.50	-1.509	.131
	Positive Ranks	151	149.65	22596.50		
	Ties	149				
Convincing	Negative Ranks	128	145.36	18605.50	-1.005	.315
	Positive Ranks	154	138.30	21297.50		
	Ties	153				
Flexible	Negative Ranks	160	163.67	26186.50	-1.236	.216
	Positive Ranks	151	147.88	22329.50		
	Ties	124				
Just	Negative Ranks	149	149.01	22202.00	-1.404	.160
	Positive Ranks	163	163.35	26626.00		
	Ties	123				
Responsible	Negative Ranks	136	118.47	16112.00	-.964	.335
	Positive Ranks	109	128.65	14023.00		
	Ties	190				
Tolerant	Negative Ranks	152	141.11	21449.00	-.951	.342
	Positive Ranks	150	162.03	24304.00		
	Ties	133				
Exigent	Negative Ranks	166	130.14	21604.00	-4.090	.000***
	Positive Ranks	93	129.74	12066.00		
	Ties	176				
Willing to take grounded risk	Negative Ranks	145	146.96	21308.50	-.853	.394
	Positive Ranks	155	153.82	23841.50		
	Ties	135				
Physically attractive	Negative Ranks	179	141.27	25288.00	-2.730	.006**
	Positive Ranks	113	154.78	17490.00		
	Ties	143				

* p ≤ .05, ** p ≤ .01, *** p ≤ .001

Comparisons between perceptions of woman and man managers, according to basic characteristics of the ideal manager are presented on *Figure 3*.

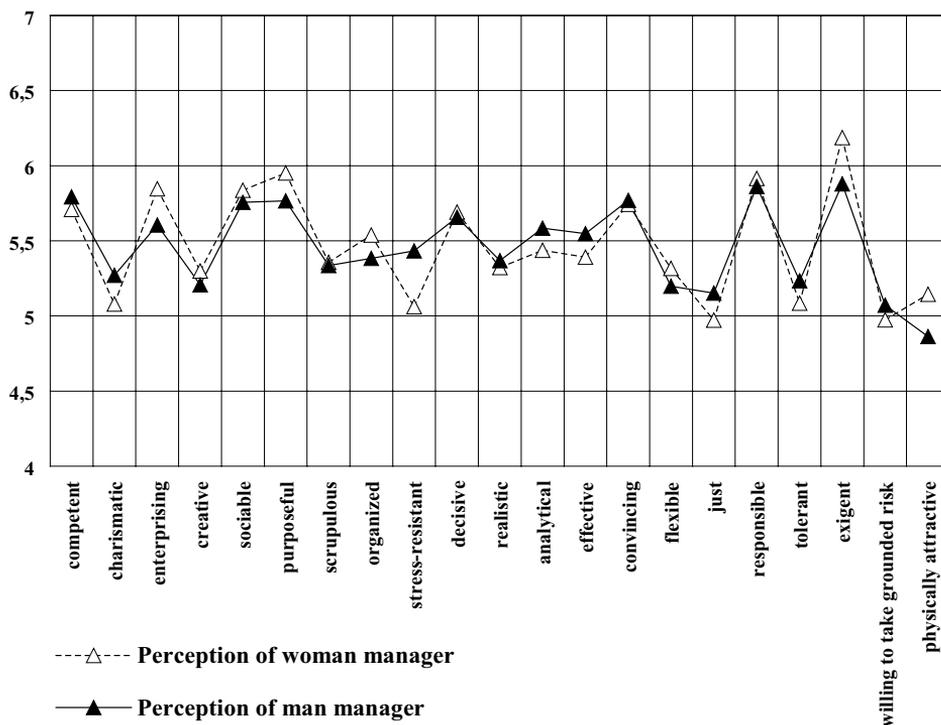


FIGURE 3. COMPARISON BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS OF WOMAN AND MAN MANAGERS, ACCORDING TO BASIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE IDEAL MANAGER

Women direct supervisors are evaluated statistically significantly as more **enterprising, purposeful, exigent and physically attractive** as men managers, which are evaluated as more **stress-resistant**.

Obviously, real supervisors are not so gender typified, as stereotypes of woman and man managers. Results obtained show, that studied employees in Bulgarian organizations think that their direct supervisors of both genders possess in equal degree most qualities and skills, necessary for successful management.

3. There is a mutual influence between stereotype and perception of woman manager as well as between stereotype and perception of man manager (See: *Table 5, Table 6*). Hence, *Hypothesis 2* is confirmed.

The mutual influence between stereotypes and perceptions of woman and man managers is determined by means of *One-Way ANOVA*. With this purpose, groups of respondents with low and high evaluations of stereotype and perception of woman and man managers are formed. In mentioned groups are included employees, which evaluations are distant at one standard deviation below or at one standard deviation over the mean of corresponding stereotype and perception.

Analysis of results about the mutual influence of stereotypes and perceptions of managers of both genders are presented on *Table 5* and *Table 6*.

TABLE 5. STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS OF WOMAN AND MAN MANAGERS BETWEEN GROUPS WITH LOW AND HIGH EVALUATIONS OF STEREOTYPES OF WOMAN AND MAN MANAGERS, BY COMPARISONS OF GENERAL SCORE

	EVALUATION OF STEREOTYPE				Significance	
	Low evaluation		High evaluation			
	M	SD	M	SD	F	p
	Low evaluation of stereotype of woman manager N = 74		High evaluation of stereotype of woman manager N = 65			
Perception of woman manager	95.74	19.90	130.32	13.79	138.015	.000
	Low evaluation of stereotype of man manager N = 107		High evaluation of stereotype of man manager N = 105			
Perception of man manager	100.19	23.22	121.45	21.95	46.890	.000

There is a statistically significant influence of stereotypes of woman and man managers on corresponding perceptions of direct supervisors. The influence of perceptions of managers of both genders on stereotypes of woman and man managers is statistically significant, too. Therefore, there is a mutual influence between corresponding stereotypes and perceptions.

Cited above results indicate that there is a constant process of exchange of information between objective reality and generalized impressions in employees' mind.

TABLE 6. STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN STEREOTYPES OF WOMAN AND MAN MANAGERS BETWEEN GROUPS WITH LOW AND HIGH EVALUATIONS OF PERCEPTIONS OF WOMAN AND MAN MANAGERS, BY COMPARISONS OF GENERAL SCORE

	EVALUATION OF PERCEPTION				Significance	
	Low evaluation		High evaluation			
	M	SD	M	SD	F	p
	Low evaluation of perception of woman manager N = 86		High evaluation of perception of woman manager N = 104			
Stereotype of woman manager	111.57	22.52	136.09	12.23	90.878	.000
	Low evaluation of perception of man manager N = 113		High evaluation of perception of man manager N = 92			
Stereotype of man manager	117.24	19.85	131.61	13.63	34.835	.000

CONCLUSIONS

Present study is realized by means of a culturally specific methodology, adapted especially for the Bulgarian sample. Methods, applied in foreign investigations, on which the hypotheses are based, are not the applied in present study. The investigation is not cross-cultural and that is why the idea of hypothesis is just to outline some expected tendencies of similarity and difference. On the base of presented analysis, it could be summarized that the results of study of stereotypes and perceptions as components of public opinion of women managers among employees in Bulgarian organizations reveal some specificities in comparison with the data from foreign researches, indicated in the theoretical review. The determined specificities probably are consequence of the influence of the historical and cul-

tural development of Bulgaria as well as of the actual socio-economic situation in the country. The present empirical study shows that there is a mutual influence between stereotypes of woman and man managers and respective perceptions of direct supervisors. Results does not reveal the indicated by foreign investigators negative prejudices towards managerial capabilities of women managers – according to some gender typified characteristics, managerial skills in stereotype of a woman manager are evaluated even higher than those of a man manager. The equal evaluation of perceptions of direct supervisors of both genders confirms that there is not any influence of such negative prejudices on perceptions of professional skills of these managers. It is possible that these results reflect the presence of a traditionally positive attitude of Bulgarians towards the capabilities of women in position of responsibility. They could also be a consequence of the processes of modernization of the organizational life, which postulate as a basic value the work competence and the gender loses its importance. It is important to emphasize, that the efforts of state institutions, associations and societies with social orientation as well as of proper organizations have to be oriented not towards the support of one preference social group but towards the ensuring of equal opportunities for manifestation of capabilities and skills of women managers, as well as of men managers.

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THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS MONEY AMONG EMPLOYEES IN MACEDONIA AND SERBIA

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Abstract. *The attitude towards money and its components are compared between employees in two neighbouring countries. The examinees were 400 male and female employees (per 200 from each country) among 19 and 63 years old with completed high school or university and of varied work experience. The attitude towards money was evaluated by MES (Money Ethic Scale, Tang, 1999) consisting of 58 items and a 5-degree scale of agreement for each item (10 items concern an affective, 14 items a behavioral and 34 items a cognitive component). The results pointed at a significant difference in the entire attitude towards money ($t=2.519$ $p<0.012$) and its affective and behavioral component ($t=3.666$ $p<0.000$; $t=3.447$ $p<0.001$, respectively). The findings were explained on the base of the following factors: money as an evil (an affective component factor); budgeting, saving and charitable giving money (behavioral component factors); and personal respect owing to disposal of money (a cognitive component factor). In addition, Macedonians reached higher values than Serbians on these factors except on the cognitive component factor (respect). The main conclusion concerns similar yet specific socio-economic and work surroundings in each country which result with somewhat different employee attitudes towards money among Macedonian and Serbian employees.*

Keywords: *attitude towards money; affective, behavioral and cognitive component.*

INTRODUCTION

This paper presents a cross-cultural study of the love of money with the application of Money Ethic Scale and its Affective, Behavioral and Cognitive Subscales.

Love of money is an attitude towards money and presents a subjective measure of their value in one's life. Allport, 1935 (according Zvonarević, 1976) has defined the attitude as "mental and neural predisposition based on one's experience and has direct and dynamic impact over individual reactions towards objects and situations with which one is coming in contact". People who highly appreciate money develop specific relation towards them. They feel happy to be rich, to possess and to have at their disposal a lot of money. They have a strong intent, desire, motive or expectation to make money and to take actions with money. They also think that money is very important for gratification of their existential needs (physiological needs for: food, air, liquid; safety needs for: physical security, emotional security, job security), affiliation (social) needs and high-order socio-psychological needs (for: status, prestige, self-esteem, esteem from others, achievement, self-realization) (according Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, 1954 in McKenna, 2000).

The authors ascribe to money as an object of one's attitude different meaning. Money is a reference frame for income comparison in and out of one's work organization at the work force labor market and according Smith, 1937 money is an instrument for commerce and a measure of value (Tang, 2006). Money determines the level of one's extrinsic and life satisfaction (Hertzberg, 1996 according Aamodt, 1999). Schuster and Zingheim, 1992 think that money is a strong motivator and stimulator if appropriate compensation system in work organizations in compliance with level of performance exists (Aamodt, 1999). In the opinion of Tang et al., 2006 money can become objective in itself that overruns money instrumental function to attain one's terminal goals.

Relevant empirical research has shown existence of positive correlation among the attitude towards money and its ABC model: affective, behavioral and cognitive component. Also, positive correlation is found among attitude towards money and all of its components with need for achievement as well as between some of ABC model components with job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Sardžoska, 2003; 2004). In the cross-cultural study that included 30 geopolitical entities across six continents around the world negative relationship between love of money and pay level satisfaction was found and economic development (GDP *per capita*) was a moderator of this relationship (Tang et al., 2008). Similar study suggested some possible culture differences in the fine nuances of the meaning of money (Tang et al., 2006).

In this study we investigated the attitudes towards money in two countries that were separated from Yugoslavia into the process of transition 15 years ago. We postulated the hypothesis: *The Money Ethic Scale (MES) and its Affective, Behavioral and Cognitive components (ABC model) will reach somewhat different values among employees in Macedonia and Serbia due to specific socio-economic, political, historical and other circumstances in each country.*

METHOD

Sample

The examinees were 400 male and female employees from private and state-owned organizations in Macedonia and Serbia (per 200 from each country) among 19 and 63 years old with completed high school or university and of varied work experience.

Instruments

The attitudes towards money was measured by Money Ethic Scale (Tang, 1995; Tang, 1999) consisting of 58 items and 5-degree Likert-type scale of agreement for each item.

- ♣ Affective component subscale (10 items) appraises positive and negative aspects of money based on love: money is good/important or hate: money is evil that beholders express towards money.
- ♣ Behavioral component subscale (14 items) measures personal ability and taking actions to make money, to budget money, to save money and charitable to give money.
- ♣ Cognitive component subscale (34 items) appraises one's judgments of money meaning. So, money is: fair and equity reward system; symbol of personal success, power and respect; way of self-express; feeling of happiness; level of extrinsic motivation; importance of being rich; motivator (stimulator).

Regarding Cronbach α , instruments in general reach satisfactory values in both samples that, in fact, justifies the application of Money Ethic Scale (MES) and its Affective, Behavioral and Cognitive subscales in this study.

INTERNAL CONSISTENCY (CRONBACH A) OF INSTRUMENTS IN TWO SAMPLES

Country	MES	Affective	Behavioral	Cognitive
Macedonia	.858	.754	.761	.840
Serbia	.863	.668	.793	.859

Data analysis

Descriptive statistics and t-test were applied in testing the research hypothesis.

Procedure

The study was conducted during 2008 year in both countries.

RESULTS

Empirical mean values of MES and ABC model for both samples are above possible average value of 3.00 with exception of four money attitude indicators: charitable giving money; money means success; money helps gaining respect; and money gives happiness (Table 1).

TABLE 1. DIFFERENCES ON ATTITUDES TOWARDS MONEY BETWEEN TWO SAMPLES

Instrum.	Macedonia	Serbia	t	p
	M SD	M SD		
MES	3.426 .374	3.332 .375	2.519	.012
AFFEC	3.719 .562	3.499 .641	3.666	.000
money are evil	3.539 .907	3.294 .936	2.653	.008
money are good	3.900 .643	3.703 .781	2.754	.006
BEHAV	3.578 .563	3.384 .563	3.447	.001
make money	3.632 .633	3.507 .784	1.752	.081
budget money	3.976 .798	3.755 .789	2.788	.006 ¹
save money	3.555 1.037	3.305 1.032	2.417	.016
charitable giving	2.990 .960	2.738 .986	2.586	.010
COGNIT	3.278 .475	3.262 .451	.344	.731
equity	3.896 .552	3.815 .588	1.420	.156
success	2.572 .967	2.734 .920	-1.748	.081
power	3.580 .739	3.572 .756	.100	.920
respect	2.315 1.066	2.585 1.448	-2.124	.034
self-express	3.032 .904	3.033 .860	-.019	.985
happiness	2.865 .761	2.821 .795	.562	.574
extrinsic motivation	3.319 .838	3.230 .757	1.114	.266
being rich	3.686 .932	3.544 .802	1.639	.102
motivator	3.381 .986	3.360 .886	.227	.821

¹ Due to Levene's test $F=5.737$ sig. 0.017, it is not recommended to interpret t test for this indicator.

The results point at a significant difference between two samples in the entire **attitude towards money** ($t=2.519$ $p<.012$) and its **affective** and **behavioral component** ($t=3.666$ $p<.000$; $t=3.447$ $p<.001$, respectively). These findings follow significant differences on five money attitude indicators among samples: money is an **evil** (an affective component indicator $t=2.653$ $p<.008$); **budgeting money**, **saving money** and **charitable giving money** (behavioral component indicators $t= 2.788$ $p<.006$; $t=2.417$ $p<.016$; $t=2.586$ $p<.010$ respectively); and personal **respect** owing to disposal of money (a cognitive component indicator $t=-2.124$ $p<.034$).

In addition, Macedonian employees reached significantly higher values than Serbians on these indicators except on the cognitive component indicator (money helps gaining **respect**).

The other money attitude indicators: **making money**; **cognitive component** – money means **equity**, **success**, **power**, **self-express**, **happiness**, **extrinsic motivation**, **being rich and motivator** are not significantly different among two samples.

DISCUSSION

The obtained significant differences in the attitude towards money indicators suggest that both samples have negative affection towards money and this is more noticeable for Macedonians than for Serbians. In fact, employees' love of money in both samples is lower in comparison with the most people's love of money. Although employees know how to handle with their money, they still think that making money is hard especially under prevailing conditions of transition in both countries. A consequence of this situation is employees' below average appraisal of money as a symbol of one's respect. The employees are, also, below average prone to charitable giving money and this is more expressed for Serbians than for Macedonians.

Somewhat different attitudes towards money among Macedonians and Serbians found in this study can be attributed to similar yet specific socio-economic and political conditions, culture, traditions, history, language and work surroundings in each country. These circumstances were emphasized as important factors of love of money in a relevant cross cultural study (Tang et al., 2006).

On the base of our study we suggest in work organizations in both countries an improvement of work conditions that will make working process easier and better as well as a reward system adequate to performance that will increase pay satisfaction. Realization of these suggestions can result in higher productivity of employees and their work organizations.

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RATIONAL AND EMOTIONAL INFLUENCES ON THE DEGREE OF SUCCESS OF MEDIATION: WORKSHOP

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***Abstract.** The research examines the degree of impact of the rationality and emotion on the success of the mediation process. The examination of the issue of mediation as a process for the resolution of conflicts is very important, since research studies that address this question from this unique aspect have yet to be conducted. The researches that were performed addressed only the part related to the negotiations and the resolution of conflicts and thus addressed only a small part of the problem, a limited aspect, or addressed other aspects. Moreover, the topic of mediation as an alternative method of conflict resolution has not been researched and certainly not through the meaning that exists for the personality and behavior of the person for the resolution of the conflict at the basis of the theories of Yuri and Fisher, Folger and Bush – transformative mediation, and pragmatic mediation of Fisher and Sander.*

INTRODUCTION

The goal of the research is to examine the different parameters of the mediation process as an instrument for the prediction of its chances of success, through the process of the analysis of mediation and those involved in it. The purpose is to propose a model to manage the mediation under different conditions and situations of conflict according to the different mediation theories; in other words, how do different variables influence the success or lack of success of the mediation process and whether factors exist that impede or hasten the mediation process.

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The **research question** is as follows: to what extent do rationality and emotion influence the degree of success of the mediation process? The need to examine the management of mediation in this case arises from the recognition that different people have a different background and that people with different styles of management of negotiations represent a constraint that apparently necessitates additional unique means and tools for the resolution of the conflict. In other words, the combination that exists between the background, the conflict management style, and the theory upon which the mediator bases in the way to the solution needs to be related to the success of the mediation and to the characterization of the perception of the concept of success of the mediator or the person in the mediation.

Different influences exist on the parties. These include the degree of relationship that exists among the disputants, the degree of relationship that exists between one disputant and the mediator and the other disputant and the mediator, and the degree of impact that exists on each one of the parties from the internal or external interaction that exists for them on the part of each one of the impacts. In other words, for example, to what extent do the emotions of one of the parties or of another outside party influence the sides? How does the verbal or nonverbal communication influence the cooperation between the parties and to what extent do the values influence the promotion of the process? To what extent should a certain method of negotiations or a combination of negotiations tactics be adopted according to the advancement of the process? How is the style of negotiations incorporated with the behavior of the party and the theory upon which the mediator bases the mediation and how does it contribute to the success of the mediation?

Different topics related to the inner and outer influences that exist on the parties include the following:

- ◆ The Research Subject
- ◆ The sides in the conflict

The Research Process

Interviews were conducted for the key people related to the process of the conflict resolution: the mayor of the Beersheba municipality, the CEO of *MetroDan*, and the Head of the Workers' Union. In addition, the implications of all those around the conflict were presented, as noted in the previous figure. The researcher expresses the influences that were exerted on her and that she exerted on them in the attempt to resolve the conflict.

The Research Model

The model presented in the previous figure examines a complex phenomenon entailing many factors. This phenomenon has not been extensively studied and

therefore, the model represents, for the purpose of the present research, many directions, all of which will not be examined here. The model that I developed is called **REUT** – **R**ational **E**motional **U**nbelievably **T**ake a Balance (In Hebrew, the words **REUT** means friendship).

To examine how the ‘rational, emotional, and impossible to do’ influence and bring about the balance and results for the parties through the use of the transformative mediation theory or pragmatic mediation, this research presents two types of theories. A questionnaire that reflects the adjustment to the specific theory is constructed. Thus, we can define whether the mediator acted according to one or both of the theories or alternatively mediated according to his choice in a way not known in the literature and what is the degree of impact of his reference from the perception of the mediated parties on the mediation process.

The Research Hypotheses

Do rational influences promote or impede resolution through mediation? The hypothesis is that rational influences impede resolution through mediation.

Do emotional influences promote or impede resolution through mediation? The hypothesis is that emotional influences impede resolution through mediation.

To what extent do the different models on mediation influence to promote or impede the resolution? The hypothesis is the transformative mediation will always be good for the success of the solution.

Is there a relationship between the change of the rational / emotional approach to the success of the resolution of the conflict?

While *mediation* is the most prevalent term, other terms that appear in the professional literature include *conciliation*, *facilitation*, and *consensus building*. The law of the courts and laws of the labor courts also call this process compromise while the Law of Labor Conflicts Resolution describe this activity as mediation¹. In any event, these terms all describe activity in which a third party, which is usually neutral, helps the parties that have differences of opinion reach an agreement, which they did not reach on their own. Generally, but not always and not necessarily, the agreement achieved between the parties concludes the negotiations or resolves the differences. However, in certain cases in the mediation the parties reach agreement on some of the topics or only succeed in resolving some of their differences but they shape through the mediator an agreed-upon method to continue the negotiations or choose and plan in agreement other means to resolve the topics that remain unresolved.

Among the many important characteristics of mediation three attributes are especially noteworthy.

¹ Sections 6–14 of the Law of Labor Conflicts Resolution, 1957.

The high level of lack of coercion throughout the entire process, when complete reciprocal agreement of the parties is required to commence the process, to continue it at every given moment and to end it successfully, or in other words, to reach an agreement.

The high level of involvement of the parties in the conflict as main players, as opposed to their representatives. This aspect differentiates the mediation process from processes in the court and in many cases from arbitration.

The possibility of the mediator to meet with each side and its members separately, without harming the legitimization of the process or the neutrality of the mediator.

In the tremendous amount of legal literature published in the past four decades in the world on the topic of mediation, very few mention that mediation was invented or developed in the arena of labor relations. The primary intent was group work relations. What is special in this model of relations is that the rules and conditions (such as salary, work conditions, and work arrangements) are shaped, managed, and not directly enforced between the worker and the employer but between the employer or the organization of employers and the workers' union. This special system of relations is created to balance the power of the workers versus the employers.

This system, which was very popular in the United States in the period 1930–1980 and which still maintains its power in some of the countries of Western Europe, creates strong pressure for the search for creative ways to assist the sides, when the negotiations between them reached a dead end. This refers to cases in which the negotiations address the creation or change of norms and conditions (economic conflict), cases in which the negotiations are related to differences regarding the implementation or interpretation of duties and rights (legal conflict), and conflicts in which both aspects play a part.

The policy of the search for creative instruments derived from the perception that it is necessary to reduce to the greatest possible extent the need for the use of strikes and lockouts, because of the fear of the damage to stability and to third parties not involved in the conflict (especially when the damage is to the essential services). Therefore, it is necessary to limit the cases in which there is a failure of negotiations, whether through help to the parties to reach an agreement or whether it is proposed to the parties of the work relations accepted alternatives of decision by the third party. It should be noted in this context that according to the prevalent approaches, the courts and the judicial decision were not perceived as able to provide an appropriate response in controversial situations in regards to group work relations, because of a number of factors. First, most of the conflicts are perceived as not being able to be judged. Therefore, the courts and the judges find it difficult to make decisions. Second, the work organizations had a tradition of resistance to the courts and the judges. The legal system was perceived

as a conservative force and as part of the social elite and the judges themselves were perceived as identified and identifying with the employers' social and value perceptions. Third, the judicial process is not suited to the framework of ongoing relations, which are constructed on a high level of reciprocal dependence, because of the fear of the damage to the relations. It should be further noted that the need for the search for alternatives both to strikes and to judgment was especially strengthened when the model of collective work relations was extended from the private sector to the public sector as well.

The rich growth of techniques of the management, treatment, and resolution of disputes and differences in the field of group work relations caught the eye of a number of groups of designers of social policy, who functioned in the end of the 1970s and searched for a 'cure' for the different problems that troubled them. There was no great similarity between the groups but they all reached the conclusion that there are lacks or failures in the method or culture of conflict resolution between individuals and groups and that it is necessary not only to improve and strengthen what there is but to develop, enrich, and diversify the means.

Mediation is a voluntary process for the resolution of conflicts through agreement. The mediator is an expert in the management of negotiations in situations of conflict. The mediator's role is to reduce the intensity of the conflict, to help the sides using different techniques that can be learned, to hold a dialogue between them, to identify the interests' of the other party for each party, to build a shared map of topics and interests, and to work out an agreed-upon solution.

The process of mediation is especially suitable for situations of conflict in which there is ongoing dependence between the parties, shared interests, and importance for the relations of the parties – and this is the situation in some of the conflicts in the organization. The manager has a number of alternatives for the resolutions of the conflict between different factors in the organization, sometimes between the factor in the organization and a supplier or client. One of these ways is mediation. The manager can enforce a solution, when this is an intra-organizational conflict or can help the sides construct an agreed-upon solution.

The President of the Israel Supreme Court sees mediation to be a culture of life as well. Mediation determines that at the basis of the attitudes and behaviors of people, whether as individuals or as a collective, there are unconscious processes that derive from needs and emotions. In addition, it is known that every society acts as a whole system, which includes therein, necessarily, both groups and opposing forces. Thus, to ensure the integrity and development of Israeli society, the processes that occur in the realm of the mediation in Israel indicate the development of the field.

The research examines the influences that exist on people involved in mediation in different cases, in other words, what guides the people involved in the mediation process in the resolution of the conflict. In addition, it examines the

different parameters of the mediation process as an instrument of the prediction of the chances of success, through the emphasis on the biases that may derive from the topic of the mediation and the measurement of its success according to the expectations of the mediated people and the results of the mediation.

The research is based on a very large mediation event that occurred in the city of Beersheba: the privatization of urban transportation. Many parties were involved in this case and each side brought into the process the logic, emotion, and ways of solution it deemed appropriate.

In addition, the research addresses the understanding of the structure of relations between the people involved in the conflict and its impact on the conflict resolution. Moreover, the research indicates the potential that exists in the management of negotiations through mediation and the change in the public policy that entails the perspectives pertaining to society. In other words, through the increase of the existing knowledge in the public regarding mediation and through the change of the cultural, legal, and judicial approach, mediation is introduced to the public awareness as a cultural and social change. Thus, it is possible to prevent groups in society from reaching the courts and perhaps in this manner it is possible to reduce the load existing in the courts.

A research that focuses on the topic of mediation has not been conducted, at least not under such a title. The topic of mediation has not received appropriate theoretical treatment until now, beyond the fact that focuses on the social aspect. In other words, is there a relationship between the different situations of the person involved in mediation and the way in which he chooses to act? In addition, are these conditions related to the cultural aspect that engages in the management of negotiations? This research presents different theories in negotiations and explains the motives that influence the sides in the management of negotiations.

In this process, we see how the sides in the conflict act out of motives tied to their interests, are fortified in their attitudes, and do not always examine their personal profit in a rational manner. However, they examine the personal benefit comprised of the different influences that do not always act in their favor. The research focuses on the points that influence the success or lack of success of the mediation as a result of the cooperation or lack of cooperation that exists between the sides. Before this research, a study on the topic of mediation that explains the phenomenon according to the pragmatic mediation theories, Fisher and Yuri, and the theory of Nash, Nash's equilibrium and Nash's solution to the bargaining problem, which can be seen as speaking and cooperation. In contrast, the theory of Folger and Bush, which originates to reflect the social role that mediation fills.

The research examines motives of the sides to act rationally and non-rationally and studies the influences that derive from the person's perception of himself and of the other person. It examines the success or lack of success of mediation according to the degree of impacts that impel the sides to the resolution.

The Research Questions

Do rational influences promote or impede resolution through mediation?

Do emotional influences promote or impede resolution through mediation?

To what extent do the different models on mediation influence to promote or impede the resolution?

How does the use of a variety of strategies cause the cooperation and agreement among the parties? (Interests, benefits, profits are only a part of the influences that exist on the parties during negotiations. There are diverse methods for the sides to achieve their goal and influence the success or non-success of the mediation.)

Methodology

To realize the research goals and answer the research questions the researcher used the following disciplines of research¹:

Interviews

Case analysis

Participative researcher

1. Personal Interviews

During the research study, the researcher interviewed three key people:

The mayor of the city of Beersheba – Mr. Yakov Turner

The CEO of *MetroDan* – Mr. Ilan Karni

The head of the Workers Committee – Mr. Shaul Zafani

2. Case Analysis

The time is Wednesday afternoon, the place is the office of Mr. Yakov Turner, the mayor of the city of Beersheba and a close friend. We are talking about this and about that, when suddenly Yakov lifts his eyes from the desk and says, “Yael, the most painful topic on the agenda is the topic of urban transportation”. “What is to be done?” “Mediation.” Turner says. “Between who?” I ask. “The drivers and the management”. I pick up the glove. Immediately there are phone calls to the parties. I present myself and ask whether they are willing to participate in mediation. They express their agreement and thus the adage is fitting – you know how this begins – but I did not describe to myself how this will end. Moreover,

¹ In the technique of case evaluation, the neutral expert gives the parties, after he has heard their arguments, his evaluation in regards to their chances in court. This integrated method, known by the name of mini-trial or structured settlement negotiation, is comprised of two or three basic tools, such as arbitration, case evaluation, and mediation.

I did not know how complicated the mediation would end of being. I talked to all the people that you can think of and that you can't think of ... I went to sleep with *MetroDan* and I woke in the morning with *MetroDan* – for four months I held meetings and conversations with government ministers and *Knesset* [Israel Parliament] members, I was invited to the Economics Committee of the *Knesset*, which discussed the topic, and I talked on the phone with influential people, and all discretely and using the information for the processes. Only one person was a full partner in all this – Mr. Yakov Turner – who was updated all the time in all the processes and who even advised me in the maneuvers. This is the opportunity to thank this dear man.

Due to the preservation of professional ethics, I do not intend to enter here into the nature of the topic of mediation. Rather, I intend to convey added value to the mediators, to the business owners, to private people in general and to every person who thinks that he has a conflict that cannot end through mediation especially, since every conflict, even the most complicated, can be mediated. It depends on our patience and the mediator's way of functioning, as long as the mediated people agree.

In the entire process of mediation, there are influences on the sides, internal and external influences. For instance, the internal influences of the parties on themselves include the personality, values, culture, and environment of each one of the sides and the external influences that derive from the involvement of factors that are near and far to the sides. Imagine to yourselves in the following list all the internal and external influences that are in effect for each one of the sides and the complexity that it has in this complicated puzzle – 2 to the 20th power. Now go build from these pieces a clear picture, a whole picture, which fits together well.

The factors that are involved in or that influence on the *MetroDan* case is as follows:

Mediation is a voluntary process for the resolution of a dispute through agreement. The mediator is an expert in the management of negotiations in situations of conflict. The mediator's role is to reduce the power of the conflict, to help the sides, using different techniques that can be learned, to hold dialogue between the sides, to help each side identify the interests of the other side, to build a shared map of topics and interests, and to work to an agreed-upon solution. The mediation process is especially suited for situations of conflict in which there is ongoing dependence between the parties, shared interests, and importance to the relations between the sides – this is the situation in some of the disputes in the organization. The manager has a number of alternatives to resolve the conflict between different factors in the organization, sometimes between a factor in the organization and a supplier or client. One of these ways is mediation. The manager can force a solu-

tion on the sides, when this is an intra-organizational dispute, or he can help the sides construct an agreed-upon solution.

The mediation begins when we understand that the possibility of communication does not exist, that the law cannot decide. In these situations of disconnection, they are the situations in which the sides can fight between them for involvement and cooperation.

The Chief Justice of the Israeli Supreme Court, Professor Aaron Barak, sees mediation to be a life culture as well. Mediation determines that at the basis of people's attitudes and behaviors, as individuals and as a collective, there are unconscious processes that derive from needs and emotions. In addition, it is known that every society acts as an entire system, which necessarily includes inside of it, both groups and opposing forces. Thus, to ensure the wholeness of the development of Israeli society, the processes that occur in the field of mediation in Israel indicate the development of the field.

Some maintain that the most important contribution of the mediator to the resolution of disputes is the facilitation of the communication for the purpose of the transfer of information, the removal of obstacles in this communication, and the addition of ways of communication that are not at the disposal of the parties when a mediator is absent. One of the important advantages of the institution of mediation is that in its framework the mediator can meet with each side separately, discuss with each one of the sides freely, listen to opinions, proposals, and complaints, achieve information, and clarify the true interests of the parties – and still retain confidentiality and not transfer information to another party without agreement.

Preservation of the system of relations between the parties so that it can be renewed in the future is one of the added values of the mediation process. People conduct negotiations to promote their interests; things seem so understood until it is almost superfluous to say them. However, is this really the case? What are the 'true interests'? As it is possible to discern the existence of non-concrete interests in the dispute, there are higher chances to reach the solution of the dispute.

I began the mediation with conversations with the sides separately so as to learn the topic from the things that were said and more from the things that were not said in these session (nonverbal communication).¹ The total of the shared sessions, with or without the Workers Union, was five and the number of personal

¹ To be precise, it should be noted that while much of the professional literature and the mediators in the world focus on the centrality of the separate meetings with the parties, there is a school of thought in mediation that believes that it is necessary to avoid them almost totally and to conduct the entire mediation process in the presence of the parties

meetings with each party separately and with factors that were not parties reached more than thirty.

The first joint session was held in *Hayaziv* house, at my initiative and in coordination with the striking drivers and the management of *MetroDan*, and later and independently the head of the Workers Union and the appointed head of the drivers joined the process. During the negotiations between the sides, it appeared that sometimes the other party does not respond to logical arguments and thus the discussion tends to develop into verbal disputes, primarily in the media. To persuade others of their position, the sides look for ways with greater weight and to gather strength they tend to fortify themselves in their inflexible positions and to begin to feel that there is a risk to their general situation. This means that they devote more attention to the question of how I am seen and perceived by the other side – as successful, strong, and skilled and not as somebody who seeks to make peace.

The topic of the argument did not focus on the question of which position has more credit points but who is more successful in promoting his attitudes and how the results of the argument influence the reputation. The accumulation of tactical advantages over the other party becomes an important topic, and when logic and relevant arguments are not sufficient to ensure the success, the parties adopt arguments that are as-if rational. When every other way does not appear possible, the parties will adopt threats or actions that will cause damage to the opposing side so as to force him to turn in the desired direction. For instance, if there isn't a group agreement, then we will not return to work¹.

DISCUSSION

The chapter of the discussion analyzes the goal of the research study, the research questions, and the research hypotheses, through the reference of the professional literature to the research topics.

The research goal was to examine the impacts that exist on the disputants in different cases. In other words, what guides the people involved in the mediation process in the resolution of the conflict? In addition, what are the different parameters of the mediation process as a tool for the prediction of the chances of success, through the emphasis placed on the biases that may derive from the topic of mediation and the measurement of its success according to the expectations of the disputants and the results of the mediation?

¹ Another area, in which there was similar development and which can be explained to some extent with the same factors, such as lack of judgment, desire to prevent acceleration and violence, difficulty in enforcement, and importance of continued relations, is international relations and public international law.

Furthermore, the research furthered the understanding in regards to the structure of the relations between those involved in the dispute and its impact on the results of the dispute. It will indicate the potential that exists in the management of negotiations and through mediation and in the change of the public policy entailing the aspects that pertain to society. In other words, through the increase of the knowledge that exist in the public in regards to mediation, through the change of the cultural, legal, and constitutional approach the research seeks to introduce mediation into the public awareness as a cultural and social change. Through all this, it is possible to allow the use of the mediation process, to reduce the legal claims, and to lessen the load that exists in the courts.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, a research that focuses on the rational and emotional influences on the mediation process has not yet been performed. The topic of mediation, in the researcher's opinion, has not been a subject of appropriate theoretical and research focus, beyond the fact that focuses on the social aspect. In other words, is there a relationship between the different influences that exist on the mediated person and the way in which he chooses to act? This research presented different theories in negotiations and explained the motives that influence the sides in the management of negotiations and in the mediation processes (that also include elements of negotiations).

The research focused the points that influence the success or non-success of the mediation as a result of the cooperation or the lack of cooperation that exists among the sides.

Do rational influences promote or impede the solution through mediation?

The starting point is that rationalism in this case addresses the achievement of the goal alone. Habermas defines the concept of rationalism when he says that this is the best way of achieving public, rational interest is if I succeed in bringing you to a shared goal and not if I succeeded in achieving something from you. According to the sociologist Dahrendorf, planning is a type of rationalism.

The concept of instrumental wisdom is parallel to the concept of formal rationalism in Weber and Manheim. This means the ability to calculate, efficiency, lack of personal relations, and reduction of rationalism to its technical aspects.

The professional literature that discusses the topic of rationalism asserts that it is not possible to implement the concept of rationalism in all that pertains to the person's scale of values, in other words, humaneness and honor. Hence, it is possible to say that the pursuit of honor from the statements of the people involved in the dispute is not rational (Leivovitz, 2003). The person's desire, according to Leivovitz, does not have a reason from reality but the person's desire is his nature and personality. Hence, it is possible that the person's desire is also influenced by the rational and by the emotion since the person is an entirety.

In the case presented in this research study, it appears that the management sought to give the workers more than is required by law but opposed signing a collective work agreement since it did not want to involve the Workers Union in the dispute in particular, regardless of the conditions of the workers' employment in the continuation. The workers, who were interested in the support of the Workers Union, demanded a collective agreement for the purposes of tenure in the work place throughout the entire process. The mayor, who was involved in the conflict before it reached mediation, required a demand for the dispute, since it harmed the residents of his city. It appeared that all the sides acted in this case according to rationalism.

Science, according to Weber, was not intended to respond to these questions. The focus on the rational method at expense of its nature, through means as opposed to final goals, led to the painstaking and stubborn upholding of the freedom of the method and the principle of objectivity and neutrality, even if the results of the scientific activity were disastrous.

The researcher maintains that if we address the concept of rationalism as the best way to achieve the goal, then we will see that the participants all behaved in a totally rational manner since they aspired to promote their goal in their way. For example, let's take the statement of the mayor on the mode of action of the CEO of *MetroDan*, who asserts "The CEO wants to see his company in a process of growth". This is not related to the issue of the goal, since it is certainly true that every CEO wants to see his company in a process of growth. However, Weber said that the focus needs to be also on the means and not only on the goals. As Karni maintained, the leaders of the struggle **repetitively argued that they would manage the company**: they would determine the schedules and define the lines, they would assign drivers to the work arrangements and to buses, they would hire and fire, etc. According to the researcher, it is possible to look at Karni's statements from two perspectives. Control and control according to the definition of rationalism is a totally emotional issue, then behavior of control makes the other into the controlled and if he is controlled and he does not like this then he will become rebellious, if he is rebellious, then there will not be an outcome. However, it is also possible to see the statement: they asserted that they will manage the company as a rational statement, as aforementioned, which promotes a goal, in that if he wants to manage the company in his way and to bring about results that will promote his goal, then he acts according to rationalism. The question that must be asked is if rationalism acts to promote the goal, then what is the promotion of the goal? The researcher maintains that the goal is subjective, since the driver's goal and the CEO's goal and the Workers Union Head's goal are not equivalent. During the research, it is possible to see that the mayor, who was not directly involved in the issue, wanted the good of the traveling public. From this place he conducted the struggle in a different way from that of the others, for whom every decision had

to be measured either in an addition or in the demand for an addition. Hence, the researcher maintains that the rationalism, which is subjective, can be a rational process only in the eyes of the person whose goal is advanced. However, if it is possible to rationally persuade the problematic objective, here the drivers, then if they see how the rationales of the sides meet, then it can be said that the rational impact promoted the resolution of the dispute.

Do emotional influences promote or impede the solution through mediation?

Emotion is the way in which the person's mental state is expressed. Since the person is a social creature, emotions are closely tied with the individual's internal, physical, and social situation. Emotions such as love, hatred, courage, fear, enjoyment, sadness, disgust can be described both in physiological terms and in psychological terms.

Like Canon and Brad, Stanley Schachter (1975) proposed a hypothesis that people interpret physiological arousal according to the stimuli that aroused them, according to the cognitive situation and according to their past experience. The research results confirmed his hypothesis. The explanation that Schachter and Zinger gave the results is that these findings contradict the theory of Canon and Brad, who argued that the cortex (in other words the cognition) is what separately activates the emotional and physical responses. They also asserted that the finding best suits the theory of James and Lang, since the physiological arousal is 'experienced' as an emotion among the subjects, who were not alerted beforehand that the material induces arousal. Therefore, it was found that the experience of the emotion is a result of the reciprocal relations between the cognition and the physiological arousal. The physiological arousal influences the intensity of the emotion but not the type of the emotion.

The researcher maintains that emotion is an expression of thought. If the starting point is that what influences the thought is the interpretation that we give to events as we perceive them, it is possible that there is a relationship between the degree to which we address our interpretation and the emotion that is experienced as a result of the thought. As James and Lang maintained, our perception of the situation awakens the emotion and the emotion induces the action that we adopt.

Therefore, when the Head of the Workers Committee argued that "**Several attempts were made to speak** with the management to solve the problems and **we were totally ignored**. We decided to **declare a work conflict**", according to the researcher, the 'ignoring' created his interpretation of this ignoring. The interpretation of the Workers Committee Head and the workers possibly was the lack of desire of the management to express willingness to resolve the conflict to the workers' satisfaction. It can further be seen that the workers

perceived the management as condescending, as the Workers Union Head said: “the management did not turn to us, **did not attempt to speak to us.**” The CEO said, “The true struggle was, as aforementioned, on the conflict between **different outlooks.** Most did not go into **depth** of the conflict and preferred to delineated a picture in which **capitalists conflict with exploited laborers.**” Karni, in the recent months, complained on the cultural gaps. “There is no doubt that the emotions in Beersheba is something different from 130 kilometers [north] on the map”, he said yesterday, “The emotional side here is different from what I know”.

The researcher hypothesizes that as in every conflict that is created, a theme prevails related to the personality of the person facing you. The moment you are immersed in topics related to the ego and honor, one of the sides must see this immediately and provide the desired attention so that the emotion will not develop into action that creates opposition. The researcher asserts that if the management had understood that what motivated the workers is their economic security, had explained to them in their way that they intend to listen, and had explained in simple terms the benefits that they think will be received in the agreement, as opposed to the benefits that they will receive without an agreement, then the workers would have seen the benefit and the cost of every option and could have moved from this point onwards. The researcher maintains that the solution of a conflict in which there are emotional influences needs in essence to be examined through a degree of neutrality of emotions in the weak side, in this case, the drivers. Hence, the question that is asked according to the model developed by the researcher is as follows. Do actions that derive from the emotion promote the goal? Or alternatively, can emotional influences that exist on the parties be a catalyst of the promotion of the goal?

Had the management addressed rationally the workers when they expressed their dissatisfaction with the process in a way that would have returned them to the goal... Come see what you can receive if you sign a collective agreement? What can you receive in an agreement that is not a collective agreement? Such a statement indicates that I am for you and not against you. If you lack security at work, then in what way do you think you can obtain this security without a collective agreement? The researcher posits that the way that people are returned to track using empathy can bring the hurt side to the goal it seeks in a faster and better manner. Or as it was said, “I think that had we sat with Ilan alone, then we would have ended the strike faster, but perhaps not under these conditions. I think that Ilan had difficulties with the Workers Union, since he felt that strong people with the sole goal of seeing to the workers’ conditions were facing him.” Hence, emotional influences influence the resolution of the dispute and if the proper way is found to balance them, then the way to solution is simpler.

To what extent do the different models of mediation influence to promote or impede the solution?

Among to the different theories of conflict resolution are found Folger and Bush, who maintain that there are two approaches: agreement-focused mediation with the goal of ending a concrete dispute with an immediate agreement and the transformative mediation approach. According to the first approach, the actions of the agreement-focused mediator are solely intended to allow the agreement to be achieved. Thus, escalating emotions that prevent the achievement of the agreement are controlled and pushed aside, topics that cannot be mediated are separated and removed from the process, and the sides are encouraged not to discuss the past and the accusations but the future and the development of a way that will allow simultaneous solution of the parties' interests. Sometimes the agreement-focused mediator proposes solutions and assumes the role of the expert and attempts to keep the sides in a situation of forwards movement and transition from stage to stage in the process at the greatest possible speed, through the setting of a deadline and milestones in the achievement of the solution. According to the second approach, the mediator focuses the sides on the areas of consensus and the solvable issues, avoids the areas of controversy, and motivates the sides to advance towards an agreement. The transformative mediation approach does not aspire to immediate conflict resolution but to the empowerment of the sides and to mutual recognition.

The researcher maintains that different factors act from different motives and propose different solutions according to their cost and benefit. Consequently, Nash's law ensures that in every game with multiple players there is the Nash equilibrium, if the use of mixed strategies is allowed. In other words, there are cooperative / non-cooperative negotiations. I hypothesize that if the game is cooperative, it is possible to quickly reach in quicker agreements, in other words, if the success is measured according to the theory of pragmatic mediation, as the end of the conflict in an immediate agreement. Then in cooperation it is possible to more quickly reach an agreement. As aforementioned, through emphasis on the nature of the perception of the cooperative concept, there is cooperation between the parties to achieve the same goal. In the case of Nash's equilibrium, when the game is not cooperative, the sides do not communicate between them, do not make joint decisions, then the point of equilibrium is not necessarily the best result. In this case, the mediator chooses the solution of transformative mediation, so as to 'air out' the emotions and reach the result.

The researcher as mediator chose the way of enabling – formative, or in other words, the way of the goal. I faced only the interests from the perspective of the sides. The researcher as mediator found that the way to achieve the conflict is found in the empowerment of the sides, in the way in which the responsibility regarding the management of the conflict lies only on them. According to the

transformative model for solution, the researcher felt that the way of the sides is for the solution. The solution is in the beginning. In essence, from the words of the parties they came to the meeting with the goal of ending the dispute, they felt that they had obtained what they wanted, and immediately are returning to work. If this were the case, then why didn't this happen? The reason is that when the impacts are on a broader level, namely, the involved factors that attempt to influence the course of action include the near and far environment, from which it is possible to receive emotional support, such as family and friends, or material support, as in the case of the Workers Union, they strengthen you but their motives are not necessarily your motives. The people on strike thus found themselves in a changing situation.

In other words, in the way in which the solution is approached, according to the model of Folger and Bush, in the conflict were involved factors that influenced the process so as to see the solution as the way of the community's approach. According to this broad approach, the mediator took into consideration, during the mediation, a very broad range of interests, which also includes the interests of the community or organization and factors that are not a party in the dispute. As the mediator, I saw that to achieve a solution in the *MetroDan* dispute, in which the main players were the drivers and the management, it was necessary to act according to the transformative mediation method. In this way, the sides would be allowed to release emotions and understand motives to continue the conflict and resolve it. The researcher maintains that the different outlooks pulled to different directions. The sides in their way saw this to be a place to increase their power, their status, and the importance of the place that they are representing. In other words, the Workers Union promoted its perception in regards to workers and the management stridently opposed becoming a victim to the Workers Union's position and saw this as necessary to avert other disputes in the future. The drivers, who thought that through this conflict at last their situation as the working class would be expressed and that the public and the government would begin to see them differently, wanted to achieve their desires. The positions and the fortification in the positions constituted key points of the conflict resolution. Therefore, in such a complicated mediation, it was not possible to pragmatically approach a solution and it is necessary to isolate people and perceptions and to work with each side separately and then together in meetings.

How did the use of a variety of strategies cause cooperation and agreement between the parties?

Interests, benefits, profits – they are only some of the impacts that exist on the sides in negotiation. There are various methods for the sides to achieve their goal and to influence the success and non-success of the mediation.

According to the model of March and Simon, at the end of the process the sides made a decision to end it in such a way as to satisfy their desire and not in a way in which they will maximize benefits. All the other alternatives, for instance, to wait until there is a collective agreement, to fight with the management and the government, to quit the role – all these were less good alternatives for the drivers. The drivers were rational and asked – what is the goal? How to achieve it in a way of minimum costs? The costs include salary, resources, conflicts between them and their families, and dependence on the Workers Union. The search ends with the achievement of a solution that crosses the minimal threshold of desired values or goals. The interpretation of the satisfying model is not that a person will not choose the best solution he faces. The process of the search for a solution is of limited complexity and through investment of a limited number of efforts or resources. The value that determines the decision reached, in the end, is the threshold value of the lowest acceptable result and not the ceiling value – of the best possible result. Rational thinking is based on conscious and relevant calculation of the most effective means to the achievement of the goals. There is a relationship between the goal and the means (a relationship that expresses rational thinking or in sociological language, instrumental rationalism – rationalism that is intended for the increase of efficiency). The question is not whether our goal is the most correct and just, the starting point is that there are goals and we attempt to achieve them. The way to achieve the goals changes from person to person, changes between a person and an organization, between a person and a government, etc. In other words, it is possible that in the case of *MetroDan*, the sides eventually had a shared goal – to return to work, when the drivers wanted better conditions for them and resources and the management wanted better conditions for it and the minimum of resource expenditure.

The researcher succeeded through the implementation of the R.E.U.T. model to understand what the goal was, how it is possible to neutralize or to use the emotions so as to achieve the goal, and what exceptional thing can be done on the part of the two parties to achieve the goal and how balance is created between emotional and rational.

When the mayor intervened, some people wanted to see this as ‘breaking the strike’, some wanted to see this as ‘aid for the public’, some wanted to see this as ‘thinking about another solution’, and others wanted to think that this was ‘manipulation’. However, there was rational behavior here. Every one of the parties thought only in the way that he sees fit, from his subjective outlook, according to his perception, his values, his style, his culture, and his personality. Sometimes through rationalism and sometimes through emotion, but conversely, to address emotion as non-rationalism is to minimize its worth, since without emotions there will be no artists, poets, love.

How must balance exist?

Our emotions are accepted by us since we always have personal reasons why we act and these justify our actions. Namely, our emotions have an undisputed logic that is accepted by reason since we are convinced of the personal reasons that are at its basis.

There is another situation in which it is easy to err in judgment or decision making and this is the situation in which there are insufficient data or the data that exist do not fit together into a whole picture and then we must guess or hypothesize according to the experience of our past but not according to considered reason. Or we change the direction of our attention since we do not want to listen to the truth since it is too alarming. The transformative mediation of Bush and Folger facilitated the solution of all the influences on the parties, through conversation, airing of emotions, and understanding according to the R.E.U.T. model described previously.

We often find ourselves using the term 'logic' and we are convinced that we acted according to logic. However, the subconscious belongs to the emotion. If this were not the case, then we would not use the term subconscious. If we know and are aware of what is found in the subconscious, the awareness cannot act in our consciousness without emotion.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the present research, it was possible to see whether there is a difference in the success of mediation in the use of different theories for conflict resolution in negotiations and whether transformative mediation is preferable to scientific, pragmatic mediation. The research showed the impact of the different models of mediation on the success of mediation in the different disputes.

The purpose of the research was to identify the broad background in which the conflict exists, in the attempt to understand the academic and personal differences created and to understand what is the conflict. The research aimed at understanding the internal and external influences that act on the sides during the mediation and at examining in which way it is possible to decide to influence these factors so as to succeed in the mediation. How is it possible to hold a joint conversation and what are the impacts of this conversation on the mediated people?

In Israel and around the world a comparative research between different theories and their impact on the conflict resolution has not been conducted. A model has not been developed. Thus, this is an innovation in the field of mediation and it may provide an opportunity for looking at different models in the mediation process that should include different processes because of the different topics related to the dispute.

This is a first research study of its kind in which it is possible to find a combination of effectiveness in the processes that involve influences in the decision making process and conflict resolution. The researcher proposes **to continue to research** whether at the end of the 20th century the door of judgment has been closed. Does any systemic change not make the court into another door and even a marginal door in the entire system of problem solving?

In this research the researcher examined the rational and emotional influences that exist on the sides in the conflict and the way in which they influence the dispute resolution in mediation. It was found that there is no gap between rationalism and emotion and that every bit of rationalism is accompanied by emotional aspects. The way in which the rationale is expressed is what determines whether the emotion controls the sides or whether the sides control the emotion.

The researcher examined how the different models influence the actions of the sides and how mediation is an option for resolution in the community. We do not learn from this research about the impact of the mediation process as a whole; it is not possible to hypothesize how the conflict would have ended without the mediation. There is no doubt that, through the mediation, it is possible to achieve a solution that constitutes relations among the sides for the long-term. The researcher concluded from the research that transformative mediation is the best way for solution; the sides must release emotions before the action of agreement and without this emotional release, the sides will have the feeling that they could have achieved more. Proof is found in this research: if the sides had agreed immediately to the solution proposed by the management at the beginning it is possible that in the future another dispute would have broken out.

It is clear to the researcher from this research that the stubbornness of the Workers Union Head and his colleagues was because they truly thought that if they were to achieve what they sought through the *MetroDan* dispute, it is possible that they would cause a social change and would shock the foundations of the State of Israel. Therefore, the Workers Union, too, did not allow the workers to end the conflict when they wanted to do so in the *Hayaziv* house. Thus, the Workers Union used the workers to obtain their personal benefit and thus caused them and it to pay a high price and not to eventually receive what they desired.

In the present research, the researcher saw fit to develop a model that would guide the way in the perceptual change so as to maximize the profits from the entire process of conflict and to reduce the rational and emotional influences so as to promote the conflict for a possible resolution for the sides.

The model that the researcher developed and upon which the researcher based the solution is the REUT model = **R**ational **E**motional **U**nbelievably **T**ake a balance, to examine how the 'rational emotional and unbelievable' influence in the dispute and to bring about the balance and result between the parties. Through the use of the transformative and pragmatic mediation theories, two types of theories

were presented in this research. A questionnaire that reflects the suitability to the specific theory was constructed. Therefore, we defined whether the mediator acted according to one of the theories or according to both of them or alternatively mediated according to his choice in a method not familiar to the literature and the degree of impact of his reference from the perception of the mediated people of the mediated process.

To implement the model each one of the sides needs to ask four questions, as follows.

- ❖ **Rational** – what is the goal? Where do I want to reach?
- ❖ **Emotion** – How does the emotion promote the goal in the direction of the objectives?
- ❖ **Illogical possibilities from my perspective** – What is the illogical thing that I will do in the program to promote the goal? What is the different thing among all the possibilities I have in front of me?
- ❖ **Balance** – How will I create balance between the rational and the emotion with the schedule for the achievement of the desired goal?

The model was constructed from the researcher's understanding that in emotion, too, there is rationalism and the reverse also holds true. As we relate more correctly to the problem, the solution will be better and more correct for the parties. For the purpose of the analysis of the model, the researcher describes the criteria that are examined in every question that belongs to a concept in the model, analyzes and clarifies through the theories and interviews performed in the field with the involved parties. In this part of the research, the researcher defines what lies behind every question and where in this stage it is necessary to address so as to achieve results using the model as a tool for more rapid identification and for the achievement of better results for the sides in the conflict.

R in rational means to address the interests, to focus on the questions that address only the interests of the parties. In the case presented in this research, what would you like to achieve? What will you receive in an agreement? What is the goal? The purpose of this part is to get the party to leave its fortified position and to understand what he would like to attain. There is a disadvantage in the focus on the declared attitudes of people, when the objective is to focus on the interests that lie at the foundation of the attitudes. The argument over attitudes and positions, when there is a desire to achieve a goal, leads to non-intelligent agreements. In the argumentation over a position, there is absolute identification between your ego and the position upon which you base the argument. Now, when you are found in a place of argumentation over a position and identification of the ego with the attitude, another factor enters into play – the preservation of your respect and dignity, which makes your chances to achieve an agreement further and further away.

The words of the CEO of *MetroDan* support this. “I will not forget that the Head of the Workers Union, Mr. Amir Peretz, castigated me: I am not interested in the conditions, if it is hard for the company economically, don't raise the salary and don't improve the conditions – what is important to me is the collective agreement. At that time, my outlook was significantly reinforced: no foreign factor will interfere between me and my workers. My commitment is to my drivers and to the other role-holders and I will not allow involvement in *MetroDan* that has the motive of interests and considerations that are completely foreign. There is contractual commitment innate in the personal contract between the worker and me and I do not intend to shred these contracts and to quickly sign the collective agreement, whose time in this world has passed”

See the version of the CEO, who asserts that, “The drivers who acted under the auspices of the powerful committees in the urban company were forced to act according to the clear work directives, high requirements for service that had not existed beforehand, maintenance on appearance and cleanliness, etc. This is the reason, in my opinion, that constituted the fertile ground for a crisis in the work relations with the encouragement of the heads of the Workers Union in the Negev. This is the place to emphasize that this is not only resistance to a group agreement only from the fear of economic demands. The leaders of the struggle argued repetitively that they will manage the company: they will determine the schedule and definition of the lines, they will assign drivers to work arrangements and to buses, they will handle the hiring and the firing, etc. Their goal was to essentially damage my managerial independence, and therefore it was clear to me that I would not let them”

The greater the focus on the attitudes, the less the interests of the parties that are behind these attitudes are addressed and thus the agreement becomes more distant. If we take the case in the research, the head of the Workers Union and the drivers stridently adhered to their position in regards to a collective agreement. The more entrenched they became regarding the collective agreement, the more insistent the CEO of *MetroDan* was that this would not happen. Thus, the researcher maintains that while the direction or goal was to achieve an agreement, in actuality the harm or fear of harm to the honor put off the agreement. The role of the mediator in this context is to lead the sides to the questions in the direction of the realization of the goal. The argument over positions becomes a struggle over desires. The result is anger and resentment; in other words, the rational – agreement and the emotion – anger. There is the essence and there is the procedure that addresses the essence. It is possible to achieve better results and in good spirits.

Piret and Shneider defined rationalism as everything that is perceived as having value in the person's own opinion, whether this is leisure time, solidarity, or prestige. The main assumption of the formal model is that the person makes

rational choices on the basis of all the available information so as to maximize what the person perceives as having value.

Hence, the researcher maintains that it is necessary to bring to the parties directions of question that cause them to leave their position, such as:

What does 'collective agreement' mean to you?

What would you like to be written in this type of agreement (means)?

An attitude blurs the true desire of the parties. What happened in the *MetroDan* case, as expressed in this research, indicates that the position completely blurs the desire of the drivers – had they not become 'stuck' in their position, then in the researcher's opinion, they would have achieved far more. Moreover, they would even have received a long-term agreement with promising conditions. Evidence of this is that immediately they were offered in the first meeting in the *Yaziv* house an agreement that they understood and even wanted to sign, but their fortification in their position prevented them from advancing. The focus is on the rational method at the expense of its essence, on the means instead of on the final goals.

E is emotion – touch people, separate the people from the problem, focus only on the people. The person's desire has no reason in reality but the person's desire is his essence and his personality.

What do you feel? How is it possible to use what you feel to advance towards the goal? According to the model of Weiner, the type of attribution has significance regarding the emotions of the observer and these can influence his behavior in the present or in the future. Emotion precedes behavior; emotion depends on the dimensions of the attribution. People are not creatures of calculation as much as they are creatures with strong emotions and frequently they have different perceptions that make it hard to create clear communication. See the opinion of the CEO of *MetroDan*: "The exposure to such a different world from the world I knew contributed to my position that I had to be resolute and not compromising in all that pertains to my outlook. I established *MetroDan* along with partners who believe in an independent management method, through the complete recognition of the rights of the workers and the respect and esteem of the workers – and this is how I will act. Most [factors] did not bother going in-depth into the dispute and preferred to delineate a picture in which capitalists conflict with exploited laborers. The true struggle is, as aforementioned, on the conflict between the different outlooks."

The emotions become complicated with the objective qualities of the problem. Adopting positions only exacerbates the situation, since the disputants identify their egos with their attitudes and positions. See the response of the Head of the drivers: "I had no experience in negotiations. Therefore, in the meetings that were held with Ilan alone I could not decide and end the strike under the conditions that he proposed without seeking the counsel of professionals – for this purpose the

people of the Workers Union who supported us. Not because I did not have self-confidence but the responsibility that I had towards the families was important and I did not want to mess up. There were situations that I used the mediator, you, to make peace between spouses, through you I also could speak with Ilan. The conversations with you helped me sometimes draw closer, which I could not have created myself personally. Like not to take off from my self and fold, since all in all, in the strike we wanted to show who displays more power.”

Before the essential problem is addressed, it is necessary to separate it from the problem of the people. The sides will attack the problem and not one another. If the leader of the professional union would have addressed the people and asked who caused this strike? The Head of the Drivers Committee would have explained the mode of action of the CEO, in his opinion, and then he would have appealed to the CEO and asked him to understand what had occurred. The CEO would have answered that this is the goal for which he has come, the good of the workers and the public, and addressed only the goal and not the means. Then the neutralization of the emotions could have yielded better results.

An example from the CEO's story is: “As the manager and director in other public transport companies, I am involved in the determination of the means of recompense of other drivers, aside from the determination of salary: annual bonuses, benefit events, paid inservice training courses, etc. The purpose is to achieve the most important goal: construction of human capital, of high quality, that will contribute to and position the company high above its competitors – and the method works. The basic error of my approach was that I did not correctly predict the crisis innate in the transition of most of the drivers from the urban company in which the salaries and conditions were unreal. Therefore it collapsed when the heads of the Workers Union and the committees cut off the branch upon which they sat with their unrealistic salary demands.”

People can be angry, depressed, scared, hostile, frustrated, and insulted. It is easy to threaten their ego. They see the world from a personal perspective and sometimes they find it difficult to differentiate between their perceptions and reality. See the words of the Head of the Drivers Committee: “They prepared **crazy** work arrangements, for the first three days we went around in the buses in our lines without stop, then the arrangements were changed due to the comment of the manager of line planning of *MetroDan*. The **drivers commented and yelled** and he **corrected** the distortion and returned the arrangements that were in effect during the time of the public transport. They did bus **checks** for the drivers and as a result they **finned the drivers** for every offense they committed.”

Under these conditions, it is impossible to study possible solutions in a rational manner. In every stage in the attempt at a solution, you must ask yourself whether I am dedicating adequate attention to the people's problems? For instance, in the research, the workers thought that the management is not interested in ap-

proaching them and is alienated from them, while the management maintained that it wants the good of the workers and of the public that uses the transport. See the drivers' response: "We sat with Ilan and explained our arguments. Ilan was closed to our arguments and delineated a totally different picture. He argued that the management had done the correct things and then when we ended this meeting, which was on the fourteenth day of the selection of the committee, I turned to Ilan and asked him to restore a worker who had been fired during the organization and I was refused. I promised him that if he rehires the worker, we would not act to worsen the conflict. But Ilan was insistent not to rehire the worker. At the end of the meeting we decided with the men of the Workers Union that we would hold a general strike. The management of *MetroDan* knew this and distributed the buses into the three parking lots in the city so as to make it difficult for us. [Researcher's comment: the management's logic vs. the workers' emotion]. After seventy days of strike I decided with the committee members that I am not engaging in persuasion of the drivers and I am preparing a letter that the driver will sign and will commit himself to continue with the strike. This was an inner agreement among us, that we are continuing until we achieve the goals."

Therefore, it was found that the experience of emotion is the result of reciprocal relations between the cognition and the physiological arousal. The physiological arousal influences the strength of the emotion, but not its type (The theory of Stanley Shachter, Caruso, Mayer, and Salovey, 2002). The use of emotions allows the leaders to understand and motivate others by making the emotions accessible, presenting many perspectives that can aid planning, and engaging in activities that are incited by emotions (for instance, individualized work when neutralism or depression is felt or creative brainstorming activities when happiness is felt). Leaders who are high in the use of emotions can encourage decision making and planning through the openness to new ideas and the creation of ideas through the use of multiple viewpoints. Leaders may create enthusiasm for the performance of a project and foster energy, motivation, and direction in the group and in themselves.

At this stage, the following questions must be asked:

In your opinion, what motivates the other person to act in such a way?

How is it possible to derive this outcome in another way that is not motivated by emotion?

U is unbelievable – address the options – which options exist, for you, for a solution so as to achieve what you intended to achieve through this agreement? Under pressure, the sides cannot achieve beneficial (optimal) solutions. The effort to decide in the presence of a rival narrows the person's field of vision. In essence, the knowledge that you can lose so much causes a person sometimes not to focus on finding the best possible solution. It is possible to restrict these limitations if we allot a specific period of time for thinking about a wide variety of possible so-

lutions to promote the shared interests and to compromise between the different interests through creativity. See what the CEO of *MetroDan* said, “Throughout the entire struggle my position was that all the drivers, including the strikers, are my drivers and my workers and I expect them to return to work. I expressed my concern for the residents of the city who were forced to suffer greatly because of the strike, which, as aforementioned, broke out and was conducted solely out of foreign and political motives on the back of the residents and of the drivers and their families.”

Hence, the sides can find options for mutual benefit. People usually tend to believe that their role is to reduce the gap between the attitudes, not to broaden the accessible options. If the best possible answer, the one and only answer, is sought from the first moment, it is reasonable to assume that it will cause a short circuit in a more intelligent process of decision making, one that allows choice from a large number of possibilities. The goal of this part of the model is to raise the outcome that the sides want to achieve and to bring as many options and ways as possible through which it is possible to achieve the goal. This stage needs to be held in separate meetings between the parties.

In the finding of options, four types of thinking are involved. The first type is thinking on a special problem, a factual situation. In the case of the research, a situation that inspires dissatisfaction such as the workers’ security or protection related to a collective agreement. The second type – descriptive analysis – the assessment of a situation through general definitions. The CEO comes from the ‘nobility’ and we come from poverty ... The third thinking type is the consideration what perhaps should be done. Perhaps we should ask for the participation of our man in the disciplinary committees so as to examine the objectiveness of employment termination. The fourth type of thinking is raising specific and operable suggestions. For instance, tomorrow we will talk with the professional association and ask to reach outcomes without a collective agreement.

The research study shows that all four of the types should be adopted one after another. One good option on the table opens the way to do it to find other options. In the case of the research, in the *Yatziv* house, a suggestion was proposed in which an agreement would be achieved without calling this a collective agreement. In this proposal, the sides saw an option of developing the desired direction, in terms of the protection in salary for the workers and in work without strikes for the managers. However, the Workers Union Head in the discussions held after the meeting in the *Yatziv* house chose not to go in this direction. (A collective agreement is power for the Workers Union).

In a complex situation, a creative invention is an absolute need. The creative option opens the way and develops a range of potential agreements. The concept of instrumental intelligence is parallel to the concept of formal rationalism in Weber and Manheim. It means thinking ability, effectiveness, lack of personal rela-

tions, and reduction of rationalism to its technical aspects. According to social psychology, the way in which the person interprets the situation determines his mode of behavior. The understanding of the situation includes an attempt to understand the emotions of the people who play a part in it, their motivations, and their traits. According to the attribution theory sometimes we conclude that the person behaved in a certain way since the situation caused him to behave thusly. Sometimes we conclude that the cause of the person's behavior is a regular trait in his character or a strong motivation he has. The attribution theory attempts to explain why people tend to perform different types of attributions, the way in which they perform them, and the use made of this information.

In this stage, the following questions are asked in regards to the examination of the possibilities.

Which possibilities do you see when you come to an agreement?

Did you think of a new agreement that you do not know that is collected and not collective and can be built from the understanding of this case and additional causes that can arise in the private market?

T in the overall balance – address the criteria, demand stridently to establish the outcomes on objective standards that create balance between rationalism and emotion and achieve the goal. It is necessary to bring the sides to a situation that will base their decisions not only on desire but on cooperation to achieve the optimal victory for all the sides. The solution needs to be based on a way that will define how the sought-after solution is ensured.

In other words, there needs to be balance between emotion and logic, based on outcomes with standards in the field. For example, security – what are the criteria for measurement of work security and how are they implemented in the field so that the worker will feel secure. As we more frequently examine the special problem according to standards of fairness, effectiveness, scientific principles, the chances of producing a fair and intelligent agreement are increased. The main question is: how to produce objective criteria and how to use them? This can only be achieved through the lack of dependence on the desire of each party. In other words, this can be achieved through the creation of balance between the desires and the goals. For instance, in the dispute presented in this research study, before the decision on the termination of worker employment, it is necessary to examine what the worker will receive if he is fired. Termination should be limited to the situation in which there is no other way. Thus, balance is created between the goal of terminating the employment of a worker who is not suitable for the job and the way in which he is fired. Sometimes this way leads to the conclusion that the worker should or should not be fired.

According to the words of the Head of the drivers: “I think that had we sat with Ilan alone, we would have ended the strike faster, but perhaps not with these conditions. I think that Ilan had difficulties with the Workers Union, since he felt

that strong people are facing him with the single goal of seeing to the workers' conditions. This is the reason that Ilan Karni, the CEO of the company, did everything so that the Workers Union will not enter the company. I am certain that we would have finished far faster due to two reasons: first, we are not sufficiently experienced and Ilan had all the resources and if the Workers Union would not be in the picture, the people would have cracked faster since it was impossible to continue to strike without salary. The Workers Union paid us."

In this type of case, there are three objective criteria to work with. First, it is necessary to define the topic at hand, for instance, a salary rise. Next, it is necessary to provide a logical explanation what are the best possible standards for the pay rise, and the third step is not to surrender to pressure-emotion and to adhere to the objective principle underpinning the topic. Hence, it is necessary to provide a good basis for the best alternative to the mediation agreement between the parties. Planning is a type of rationalism, according to the sociologist Dahrendorf. One of the goals of effective leadership is to create and increase relations with individuals and the group. The creation of relations was studied by Kahn (1993), who saw in work relations emotional relationships. These relationships tie the workers together to one another, when these relations are created in a caring and accepting environment. Kahn discussed eight dimensions of treatment that constitute anchoring relations at work, such as empathy, support, mercy, and consistency. Hence, emotions and emotional skills play an integral role in the every day life of leaders.

Here standards that provide validity and an anchor to an agreement enter into action, such as:

- ♣ Definition of how it is possible to ensure the existence of conditions of worker security.
- ♣ Precise definition of the rights and obligations of the parties.
- ♣ Precise definition of the existence of the social conditions and the way they will be expressed in the agreement.
- ♣ Once every so often the agreement will be examined and the sides can discuss it.

It is recommended that a future research examine the following question: Is the success of one or two mediation efforts enough to lead to social change and beforehand to change in the legal approach customary in the given issue. Mediation should be examined and analyzed in-depth in the context of the two issues on the agenda, mediation in family matters as a pre-trial obligation and mediation in labor matters, for which it is not a requirement. Mediation is found in a situation of non-consensus in the courts and though mediation was introduced as mandatory for the family courts. Mediation began in the United States in the labor courts.

A serious attitude on the part of the legal system, which is expressed in policy, mandates change and preparation in the work places, if only because of the finan-

cial sanction that is expressed in the present research, which may be contradictory to policy. The Workers Union spends the public funding over time without an essential examination of the possibilities and achievements that can be achieved without its authority. Even if this is not enough to effect an essential change in the work relations in private and small work places, there is no doubt that it is necessary to examine the issue in depth and to construct an appropriate strategy so as to reduce costs.

To sum up, social change is a complex issue; it is not the product of any judicial decision, no matter how symbolic and dramatic. It advances and develops in different directions and it is not possible, but from a perspective of elapsed time, a historical perspective of time and place, to evaluate it correctly. There is no direct relationship between declaration of an appropriate social order and real social change. The way in which the different sides acted can be seen in this research – how every one of the parties saw its interest and how it is his ‘proof’ that he will succeed in reaping future fruit.

Of course, it is impossible, at this point, after the researcher has described the mediation between the management and the workers, which was expressed in the way in which the dispute was concluded, to wonder about the practical value of the process and to say whether and at what pace the changes will be expressed in rulings. Will they be established and will they continue to the desired change in the legal thinking culture? It is not yet possible to answer this question, since things are only at the beginning; it will be possible to answer when time has passed but for now, we are only at the beginning of the process. It is important to say that if we assume that the overall trend in the courts is to act to promote mediation, then this is still not enough to ensure the transition to legal change, which has direct impact on the sides and far-reaching changes in the labor market in actuality. The question is what is the degree of true influence of mandated mediation on social changes; this topic has not yet been researched. The change of the face of society is a slow and complicated process, in which many variables have impact.

One theory asserts that individuals will invest effort in a collective task if they think that their efforts will be meaningful and relevant to the achievement of the results that they consider essential.

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COPING WITH STRESS AT DIFFERENT LEVELS OF WORK STRESS

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Abstract. *The report analyses the resources for coping with stress with different levels of accumulated stress. It is shown by an empirical research that the active coping strategies do not lead simply to reduction of the intensity of the stress effects. The levels of accumulated stress interact with the used strategies and with high levels (of accumulated stress) the search for substitution activity, the deactivation in the organizational environment, leads to lower levels of the stress effects. Active coping strategies are effective with low and moderate stress levels.*

Keywords: *stress, coping strategies, depression, state anxiety, accumulated stress*

INTRODUCTION

Despite its banality at first sight, the issue about stress in organizations remains an actual topic and even many authors during the last years emphasize the necessity of intensifying the investigations upon work stress and especially upon possible interventions for optimizing the stress and with that improving the well-being of the employees and improving the effectiveness and efficacy of the organization activity (Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001; Cox, Karanika, Griffiths & Houdmont, 2007). An essential part of the problem of stress in organizations is coping. Numerous elaborations and classifications of stress coping strategies exist.

The concept "coping" is considered as an activity of the personality for maintaining and saving the balance between the requirements of the environment and the resources of the personality which satisfy these requirements (Исаева, 2008).

R. Lazarus states that main functions of the coping are: first, solving of the existing problems and second – controlling the emotions, mastering the emotions. On this basis, two basic types of stress coping strategies can be defined: strategies focused on solving the problem (problem-focused strategies) and strategies focused on controlling emotions (emotion-focused strategies) (Lazarus, Folkman, 1984). R. Lazarus develops also a method (The Ways of Coping Checklist (WCCL)) for identifying the coping strategies used by the individual by defying eight stress coping strategies.

Problem-focused stress coping correlates positively with mental well-being and mental health while emotion-focused coping correlates with lower levels of mental well-being. This means that people who face directly the stressors and undertake the solving of the problems experience more well-being compared to those who avoid the solving and focus on emotions.

Of course there are researches which show that the statement above is valid when a strategy corresponding to the situation is being chosen. A survey in a hospital shows, for instance, that the nurses effectively use problem-focused coping in situations which can be highly controlled by them and these nurses show normally expressed levels of mental well-being, while in situations which are hard to control, using of problem-focused coping correlates negatively with mental well-being. (De Rijk, Le Blanc, Schaufeli, & de Jonge, 1998).

The aim of the present research is to check the influence of the used stress coping strategies with teachers over depression and state anxiety with different levels of accumulated stress, as well as the interrelation between the assessments for the social environment, the levels of accumulated stress and stress effects.

METHODOLOGY

Research Tasks:

1. To reveal the assessments for the social environment with teachers, the levels of accumulated stress and the correlation between the two factors.
2. To reveal the stress effects (in this case depression and state anxiety) with teachers and the used stress coping strategies, as well as the correlation between the two factors.
3. To reveal the correlation between the levels of accumulated stress, the stress effects and the stress coping strategies.

Research Hypotheses:

- ♣ We expect a negative correlation between the problem-focused coping strategies, the levels of accumulated stress and the stress effects – depression and state anxiety, as well as a positive correlation with emotion-focused strategies;

- ◆ We expect that there is, with certain stress coping strategies, an interaction with the levels of accumulated stress with their influence over the stress effects;
- ◆ We expect presence of a mediation model of the interrelation between the social environment assessments at school, the accumulated stress and the stress effects.

Object of the research are sixty-nine teachers, eight men and sixty-one women, from Varna city, selected from four elite high schools on the principle of simple random sample (every fourth by lottery method). The teachers are between twenty-five and fifty-eight years old.

The following instruments for psychological measurement are used:

1. Method for social environment assessment – includes characteristics which are inherent for the three differentiated dimensions.

The first dimension consists of statements related to the organizational and functional condition of the environment in the following three scales: “normative base”, “stringency of the order” and “contradiction”.

The second dimension refers to the attitude of the concrete environment to the broad social context. It is represented by the following scales: “accessibility”, “prestige”, and “isolation”.

The third dimension, the attitude of the environment towards the individuals in it, includes the following scales: “loading”, “satisfaction” and “involvement” (Величков, Радославова, 2005).

2. Perceived Stress Scale – PS-1; (Cohen, Kamarck & Mermelstein, 1983), Bulgarian version. The method consists of fourteen items. It measures the degree in which the participants assess life events as stressful during the last month. The assessment is related mainly to the perceptions for unpredictability, lack of control and overloading (Русинова-Христова, Карастоянов, 2000).

3. The coping strategies utilized by the participants were measured by COPE inventory (Carver, Scheier & Weintraub, 1989).

The method is developed over the theoretical bases of the model for coping by R. Lazarus and the model for self-regulation of behaviour by C. Carver and M. Scheier. It is adapted by Rusinova-Hristova and Karastoyanov (2000) for Bulgarian conditions. The test contains fourteen scales which define the respective coping strategies: “active coping”, “planning”, “suppression of competing activities”, “restraint coping”, “seeking social support for instrumental reasons”, “seeking social support for emotional reasons”, “positive reinterpretation and growth”, “denial”, “acceptance”, “turning to religion”, “focusing on and venting of emotions”, “behavioural disengagement”, “mental disengagement”, “alcohol-drug disengagement”.

4. Questionnaire for anxiety assessment by Ch. Spielberger (STAI – form Y), Bulgarian version (Щетински, Паспаланов, 1989).

The first scale (S-scale) is used in the present research. The S-scale assesses the emotional condition or in other words – a certain combination of reactions which occur in the individual while perceiving a certain situation as threatening regardless the objective danger.

5. Self Assessment Depression Scale by Zung, Bulgarian version (Кокшарова, 1984).

The scale serves for revealing and quantitative assessment of depressive conditions, as well as for dynamic study of their changes which occur during their treatment. The scale consists of twenty statements which present symptoms, experiences or depressive complaints. Each participant defines their frequency of occurrence during the last seven days.

RESULTS

The results from the method for measuring social support assessments, accumulated stress (perceived stress) and stress effects are subject of correlative analysis (Table 1). There are not significant correlations between social environment assessments and state anxiety. There are significant, from weak to moderate, correlations between the assessments for the normative base and stringency of the order at school, accumulated stress and depression, between isolation in school environment and depression, as well as between protectiveness and accumulated stress.

TABLE 1. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ACCUMULATED STRESS, DEPRESSION, STATE ANXIETY AND SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT ASSESSMENTS

	Accumulated stress (Perceived stress)	Depression	State anxiety
Normative base	-,410(**)	-,356(**)	-,127
Stringency of the order	-,293(*)	-,295(*)	,063
Accessibility	,085	,071	,039
Prestige	-,197	-,215	-,137
Isolation	,191	,277(*)	-,017
Loading	,218	,106	,164
Satisfaction	-,134	,024	,009
Involvement	,183	,142	,118
Contradiction	-,083	,128	,141
Protectiveness	,250(*)	-.058	-.127

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The correlations between accumulated stress (perceived stress) and stress effects are shown on table 2. There are significant, from moderate to strong, positive correlations between accumulated stress, depression and state anxiety.

TABLE 2. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ACCUMULATED STRESS AND STRESS EFFECTS

	Depression	State anxiety
Accumulated stress (Perceived stress)	,579(**)	,520(**)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlations between stress coping strategies, accumulated stress and stress effects are presented on Table 3.

TABLE 3. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN STRESS COPING STRATEGIES, ACCUMULATED STRESS AND STRESS EFFECTS (DEPRESSION AND STATE ANXIETY)

	Depression	State anxiety	Accumulated stress
Active coping	-,046	,040	-,070
Suppression of competing activities	,004	,038	-,031
Planning	-,333(**)	-,244(*)	-,212
Restraint coping	,078	,105	,109
Seeking social support for instrumental reasons	-,134	,082	-,051
Seeking social support for emotional reasons	-,135	-,121	-,026
Positive reinterpretation and growth	-,239(*)	-,034	-,029
Acceptance	,033	-,041	-,125
Turning to religion	,099	,188	,181
Focusing on and venting of emotions	,255(*)	-,014	-,025
Denial	,252(*)	,186	,166
Behavioural disengagement	,248(*)	,096	,111
Mental disengagement	,201	,124	,226
Alcohol-drug disengagement	-,151	,044	-,044

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

There are significant negative correlations between “Planning”, “Positive Re-interpretation and Growth” and depression, as well as between state anxiety and “Planning”. This confirms the expectation that the active coping strategies correlate negatively with stress effects. Focusing on emotions and behavioural disengagement correlates positively with depression in accordance to our preliminary expectations. Significant correlations between stress coping strategies and accumulated stress are not found.

The normality of the distribution of the factor “accumulated stress” is checked in order to verify the hypothesis for combined influence of the various levels of accumulated stress and the stress coping strategies over the stress effects (Table 4).

The results show that there is a very good concurrence between the distribution in our research and the normal one. This gives us grounds to use the characteristics of the normal distribution and divide teachers into groups – teachers with low, normally expressed and high level of accumulated stress and to try to find the correlations between stress coping strategies and stress effects with the different levels of accumulated stress.

TABLE 4. ACCUMULATED STRESS -VERIFICATION OF THE NORMALITY OF THE DISTRIBUTION

Participants	Valid	69
	Missing	0
Mean		36,3913
Median		36,0000
Standard deviation		7,54636
Skewness		,177
Std. Error of Skewness		,289
Kurtosis		-,086
Std. Error of Kurtosis		,570

In Table 5 are given the correlations between coping strategies and stress effects but only with the strategies that have significant correlations at least with one of the levels of accumulated stress. It is obvious from the results that with some strategies there is a full interaction between the level of accumulated stress and the coping strategy and the influence of the strategy over the stress effects: for example “Behavioural Disengagement”. With low levels of accumulated stress the correlation is significant, strong and positive, while with high stress levels the correlation is significant, strong and negative.

A full interaction between the levels of accumulated stress and the stress coping strategies over state anxiety is not noticed.

TABLE 5. VERIFICATION OF THE HYPOTHESES FOR COMBINED INFLUENCE OF THE STRESS COPING STRATEGIES AND THE VARIOUS LEVELS OF ACCUMULATED STRESS OVER DEPRESSION AND STATE ANXIETY

Coping strategies	Low level of accumulated stress (values under M -SD)		Moderate levels of accumulated stress (values between M+SD and M-SD)		High level of accumulated stress (values over M +SD)	
	Depression	State anxiety	Depression	State anxiety	Depression	State anxiety
Active coping	-.558*	-.653*			.313	-.211
Planning		-.751**	-.324*			-.011
Behavioural disengagement	.781**				-.663*	
Seeking social support for instrumental reasons	-.190	-.171			.545*	-.602*
Restraint coping		-.585*				.446
Focusing on and venting of emotions			.370*			
Positive reinterpretation and growth			-.411**			

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The mediation hypothesis for the influence of the social environment assessments over the stress effects through the accumulated stress is also subject of verification. Verification is made for the assessments which have significant correlations with accumulated stress – “normative base”, “stringency of the order” and “protectiveness” (See Table 1). A confirmation of the mediation hypothesis is obtained with two of the assessments – “normative base” and “stringency of the order” with their influence over depression (Figures 1 and 2). The mediation hypothesis is verified by a system of regression equations (MacKinnon, Fairchild., 2009). In the first equation “accumulated stress” is regressed over the “normative base” (or “stringency of the order”) – result (a), in the second equation – “depression” over “normative base” (“stringency of the order”) – result (b) and in the third equation – “depression” over “accumulated stress” and “normative base” (“stringency of the order”) – results (c) and (d). When the path “normative base” (“stringency of the order”) – “accumulated stress” – “depression” is controlled, the path of influence “normative base” (“stringency of the order”) – “depression” remains insignificant (compare results (b) and (d)). Result (d) is insignificant which means that “normative base” (“stringency of the order”) does not influence depression directly but through accumulated stress.

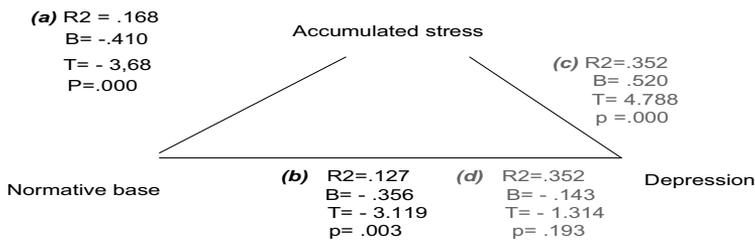


FIGURE 1. VERIFICATION OF THE MEDIATION HYPOTHESIS FOR A INTERRRELATION BETWEEN “NORMATIVE BASE”, ACCUMULATED STRESS AND DEPRESSION

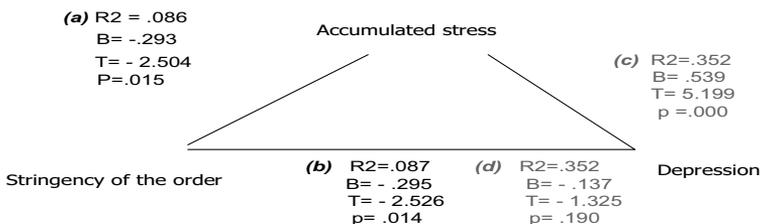


FIGURE 2. VERIFICATION OF THE MEDIATION HYPOTHESIS FOR A INTERRRELATION BETWEEN “STRINGENCY OF THE ORDER”, ACCUMULATED STRESS AND DEPRESSION

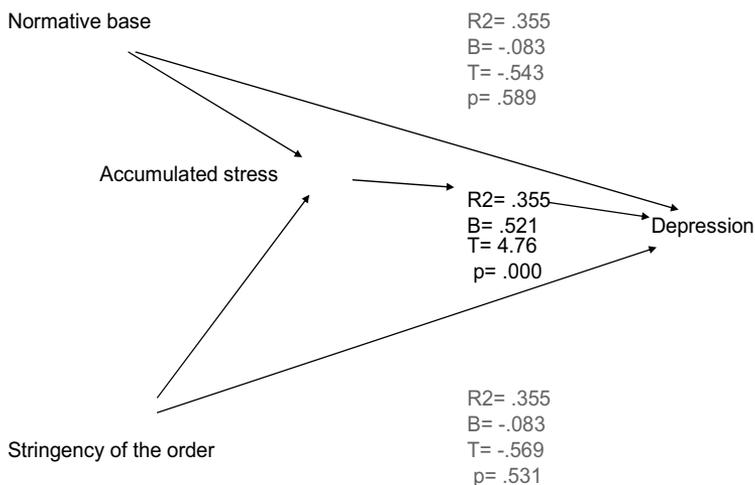


FIGURE 3. VERIFICATION OF THE MEDIATION HYPOTHESIS FOR A INTERRRELATION BETWEEN “STRINGENCY OF THE ORDER” AND “NORMATIVE BASE”, ACCUMULATED STRESS AND DEPRESSION

The verification of the influence of “normative base” and “stringency of the order” through mediator “accumulated stress” over depression can be seen on Figure 3. The results show that depression with teachers coming from the organizational environment is mainly from two factors – normative organization of the Bulgarian school and the management of the separate school (stringency of the order).

DISCUSSION

The results from Table 2 can be interpreted in two ways. On one hand, high levels of accumulated stress lead to high levels of depression and state anxiety. Equivalent to this hypothesis is the hypothesis that the presence of higher levels of depression and state anxiety leads to accumulation of higher stress levels in other words to experiencing more unpredictability and difficulty in coping with everyday problems. A most precise definition of the well-grounded hypothesis is possible by a longitudinal research with several series of measurement.

The expectation that the cognitive efforts for planning, reinterpreting of the situations and activeness in solving problems lead to lower levels of depression and state anxiety was confirmed. The expectation that the emotion-focused strategies correlate positively with depression was also confirmed.

The results about the interaction between the levels of accumulated stress and stress coping strategies show that with high levels of accumulated stress exactly disengagement and seeking substituting activity outside the problems at school lead to lower levels of depression with teachers while with low levels of accumulated stress disengagement, not solving the everyday problems lead to higher levels of depression. It is paradoxical at first sight but restraining from activities of all kinds, denial of activity with high levels of accumulated stress is correspondent to reduction of the levels of depression. Obviously this can be explained with the opinion that the efforts are useless and wasting of energy only deepens experiencing of impossibility and hopelessness.

Combined influence is observed with high and low levels of accumulated stress and with other coping strategies over depression, as well as in a less expressed form over state anxiety (See Table 5).

With moderate levels of accumulated stress depression is determined in the first place by the cognitive perception of the situation which the individual comes across. This is clear from the correlations between depression and strategies like “focusing on and venting of emotions”, “positive reinterpretation and growth” and “planning”. There are not significant correlations between the last three strategies and depression with low levels of accumulated stress, as well as with high levels of accumulated stress.

In other words, depression correlates in a different way with the various stress coping strategies. With low levels of accumulated stress, most appropriate for re-

ducing the levels of depression are the active strategies. With moderate levels of accumulated stress – cognitive representation, reinterpreting and planning and with high levels of accumulated stress – seeking social support and substitution activity, withdrawing from activity in the organization. The confirmation of the mediation hypothesis for influence of the social environment assessments over the depression through the accumulated stress shows that if we want to reduce depression, this can be achieved by manipulating the mediator and this is possible through normative and organizational measures which concern the management of the organization.

The indicated data up to now and their analysis show that there is not a synonymous influence of the stress coping strategies over the stress effects. There is an interaction between the strategies and the levels of accumulated stress with their interrelation with the stress effects. In this sense, the efforts of the employees in the organization with high levels of accumulated stress can turn out to be useless and only to make the subjective well-being and the quality of the organization life worse and without supervening positive effects on the organization itself. With high levels of accumulated stress most effective are the measures undertaken by the management of the organization for controlling the occupational stress. Keeping high intensity of the sources of stress accumulation among employees, in this case the high dynamics of normative changes and the bad management even with their training for mastering effective active stress coping strategies do not bring positive effects on the organization itself.

CONCLUSION

The confirmation of the hypothesis for combined influence of the various levels of accumulated stress and coping strategies over depression and anxiety shows, that with low and moderate levels of accumulated stress the employees have a potential for coping while with high levels of accumulated stress the potential is exclusively in the organizational environment.

The confirmation of the mediation hypothesis for influence of the assessments for the normative base and stringency of the order through accumulated stress over depression shows, that optimization of the organizational environment in this case is possible by stabilization of the normative organization at the Bulgarian school, creating simple, clear rules and the respective providing for achieving the required activities, improving the management of the concrete school.

The obtained results give grounds for continuation of the investigations with an extended sample and with other professional groups in order to be clarified in larger extent the character of influence of the stress coping strategies over stress effects.

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AFFECTIVE WELL-BEING AND SOME ASPECTS OF MENTAL HEALTH AMONG BULGARIAN EMPLOYEES

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***Abstract.** The aim of this study among Bulgarian employees (N=420) is twofold, to test the theoretically based structure of job related affective well-being scale (Warr, 1990), and to examine the associations between some work characteristics and job related affective well-being. The results from factor analysis that best describe the structure of the job related affective well-being scale from Bulgarian sample are presented. Furthermore, available associations between work characteristics included in this study (job control and supportive organizational climate) and job related affective well-being on the one hand, and the some aspects of the mental health, on the other, are discussed.*

***Keywords:** well-being, mental health, job aspiration and competence, job control, supportive organizational climate, etc.*

INTRODUCTION

General affective well-being can be considered to be the core of mental health and human experience; it is a subjective estimation of whether a person is feeling well or unwell (Mäkikangas et al., 2007). The structure of emotional experience of well-being has been a topic of investigation since the 1950s. In most of the theoretical models general affective well-being has been conceptualized as the degree of pleasantness and arousal (see Watson & Tellegen, 1985). In the occupational health psychology context the structure of affective well-being has been classified in the same manner as general affective well-being.

The present study is focused on studying Warr's (1987) affective well-being model and the scale developed on the basis of this model. In his broad conceptual framework, Warr suggest that affective well-being is more than just job satisfac-

tion, and that occupational mental health in its turn comprises more than affective well-being. Warr (1987, 1990) defines job-related affective well-being by the means of two principal dimensions – pleasure and arousal (see figure in Warr, 1990, p. 195). Using these dimensions, he described both the content and intensity of job-related feelings and depicted affective well-being along three key axes: (1) displeased-pleased, (2) anxiety-contentment, and (3) depression-enthusiasm. Later, he labeled the second axis as anxiety-comfort (Warr, 1994, 2007). Warr has also developed a 12-item scale to measure affective well-being (Warr, 1990). This scale is intended to measure both job-related and context-free well-being, depending on the phrasing of the instruction. While mental health is assessed through three principal components: competence (a construct similar to self-efficacy), aspiration (a concept related to psychological growth, or self-actualization), and negative job carry-over (the extent to which job worries carry over into non-working life). Warr (1990) argued that these elements collectively define personal occupational mental health and provide measurement support for this theoretical framework via a set of standard measuring instruments for these psychological outcomes.

Studies of the factor structure of job-related affective well-being scale utilize mainly principal component analysis, which result in either two- or three-factor solutions. Warr (1990) found, using a large sample (N=1686), a two-factor solution, whereas six of the items loaded on the factor of anxiety-comfort, and the remaining six on the factor of depression-enthusiasm. This same structure has been replicated in later exploratory factor analytic studies (Daniels & Guppy, 1994; Sevastos, Smith, & Cordery, 1992). In addition, a factor model, where four end-point constructs of the two axes (i.e., anxiety, comfort, depression, enthusiasm) load on their own factors, has also received support in the study carried out by Warr (1990). According to this factor model, the affective well-being state can be classified into four categories: high- and low-arousal displeasurable emotions and high- and low-arousal pleasurable emotions.

To date, solely Daniels et al. (1997) and Mäkikangas et al. (2007) have studied the structure of job-related affective well-being by the means of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), which is considered the best way to examine the dimensionality of the predefined structure of a scale. The study of Daniels et al. (1997) supported the following three-factor structure of the scale: positive affect, negative affect, and pleasant-unpleasantness. However, this structure was not unambiguous because of some double loadings. The study of Mäkikangas et al. (2007) tested five alternative factor analytical models of job related-affective wellbeing. CFA accomplished by them showed that the four-factor model best described the structure of the job-related affective well-being scale; that is, the scale included four interrelated factors of job-related anxiety, comfort, depression, and enthusiasm.

This study focuses on investigation of the associations between two work characteristics, i.e., job control and supportive organizational climate, and job-related affective well-being dimensions. These two work characteristics are selected on the grounds of their importance in the work and in addition, job control is one of the main components of the Demand-Control Model (Karasek, 1979) and also one of the most investigated job resources (Mäkikangas et al., 2007). Work characteristics are generally assumed to be linearly related to the individual's well-being at work; for example, the higher the job control, the better the well-being. Earlier studies concerning the non-linear relationships have concentrated on analysing the work characteristics presented in the Demand-Control-Support Model (Karasek & Theorell, 1990), with the focus on context-free well-being. Thus far the empirical evidences have been mixed (for a review, see Warr, 2007).

There are studies that have supported the non-linear associations, but these associations have generally been minor, and not all expected relations have been found. Mäkikangas et al. (2007) also included these two work characteristics (job control and supportive organizational climate) in their study and suggested some cross-sectional or longitudinal curvilinear associations between work characteristics and job-related affective well-being. In contrast of the expectations, the associations were only linear.

The main aim of this study is to test the basic structure of the Warr's model of affective well-being and mental health in Bulgarian conditions. In addition, two specific research hypotheses relate to correlates of well-being and mental health are investigated. The first hypothesis deals with the relationship between job characteristics and psychological well-being. The second hypothesis under investigation relates to biographical variables. Warr (1990) has reported a positive linear trend between age and psychological well-being, although Diener's review (1984) reports some inconclusive findings. Again, although Diener (1984) found no substantial gender differences in well-being, Warr (1990) reports that women register lower levels of perceived competence and higher levels of enthusiasm than men. In view to the inconsistent findings from these studies we would argue that changes in well-being are probable across the life-cycle of individuals, and there are gender differences in affective well-being and mental health.

METHOD

Participants and procedure

The sample for this study comprises 420 employees from different Bulgarian organizations. Out of the total sample, 16 per cent (66) are male and 84 per cent

(354) are female. Most of the employees are involved in the public sphere – almost 86 per cent, while 14 per cent are employed at private organizations. The mean length of service is 20.16 (SD 10.93) years, while the mean age is 43.38 (SD 10.43) years. A standardized questionnaire was administered between March 2008 – July 2009 at workplace during normal working hours, as in most of the cases a member of the research team presented.

Instruments

Affective well-being and other aspects of job-related mental health. Job-related affective well-being was assessed with 12 items based on Warr's (1990) scale: "Thinking of the past few weeks, how much of the time has your job made you feel each of the following": (1) relaxed, (2) worried, (3) depressed, (4) calm, (5) contented, (6) gloomy, (7) optimistic, (8) tense, (9) enthusiastic, (10) cheerful, (11) miserable, and (12) uneasy. Responses were given on a 6-point scale (1=never, 6=all of the time).

Additional mental health measures assessed the other three major behavioral components of Warr's framework, namely reported job competence, aspiration, and negative job carry-over (Warr, 1990); and although related to affective well-being, they are nevertheless conceptually distinct from it. *Competence* relates to an individual's ability to deal successfully with life's problems, while *aspiration* is the propensity to establish realistic goals, and to engage in goal-directed activity aimed at achieving challenges, which are seen as personally meaningful. The third variable, *negative job carry-over* refers to the 'spill-over' effect of work into leisure and family life, and its dysfunctional consequences. These variables are measured on a four-point scale ranging from 1 'strongly disagree' to 4 'strongly agree'. The items for the competence and aspiration were six for each variable, while for the negative job carry-over items were four.

Supportive organizational climate was assessed with four items concerning the general social climate in the organization and assistance from colleagues (for example, "Our workplace is dominated by an atmosphere of openness and solidarity") (Lehto, 1991; in Mäkikangas et al. 2007). Participants were asked to answer each item according to a 5-point scale (1=totally agree, 5=totally disagree). The scale was reverse-scored, so that a high score indicated a good organizational climate.

Job control was measured via four items (Feldt & Ruoppila, 1993; in Mäkikangas et al., 2007), i.e., to what extent the current job offered: (1) independence, (2) responsibility, (3) opportunities to use one's own skills, and (4) control over one's own work. Responses were given on a 5-point scale (1=not at all, 5=very much).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Factor analysis of well-being items

A principal component analysis with Varimax rotation, using the SPSS 16 program, was conducted of the well-being items, whereas the input matrix, after controlled for the acquiescence response set. The response set variable was computed by summing all the well-being items without reverse scoring. In all the exploratory analyses presented in this paper the number of factors was based on eigenvalues equal to or greater than 1 (Harman, 1967), and the percentage of variance accounted for by each of the factors according to the scree test (Cattell, 1966). Table 1 presents different results from our study and from Warr (1990) study. Our pattern of the factors is more close to the model of well-being with axis of positive and negative affects and differs from the model proposed by Warr (1990). Also, there are some problems in loading of the item “calm” and the item “relaxed” in direction on double and low loading.

TABLE 1. PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS OF WELL-BEING ITEMS WITH VARIMAX ROTATION ($N = 420$)

	Present study		Warr (1990)	
	NA	PA	DE	AC
Miserable	.66		.71	
Gloomy	.62		.75	
Enthusiastic		.84	.79	
Depressed	.73		.68	
Optimistic		.79	.65	
Cheerful		.82	.56	
Contented	.73		.62	.41
Calm	-.34	.44		.78
Relaxed	.11	-.34		.79
Tense	.83			.70
Worried	.82			.66
Uneasy	.85		.52	.43
% variance	30.8	27.6		

Note. NA: negative affect; PA: positive affect; DE: depression – enthusiasm; AC: anxiety-contentment

TABLE 2. OBLIMIN ROTATION OF WELL-BEING ITEMS. PATTERN MATRIX OF LOADINGS

	Factor 1 ANX	Factor 2 ENT	Factor 3 COM	Factor 4 DEP
Worried	.89			
Tense	.88			
Uneasy	.83			
Optimistic		.76		
Enthusiastic		.85		
Cheerful		.85		
Contented			.80	
Calm			.88	
Relaxed			.62	
Miserable				.90
Gloomy				.85
Depressed				.77
% of variance	43.9	14.5	10.3	5.8

Note. ANX = anxiety; ENT= enthusiasm; COM=comfort ; DE = depression.

To assist further interpretation of factors, an oblique rotation was performed in the present study (Table 2). Oblique rotation is the appropriate procedure to use when factors are highly correlated as in the present case. An interfactor correlation between $-.27$ to $.49$ were identified when an Oblimin rotation (SPSS 16) was carried out. The factors pattern that was obtained present 4 factors with good loadings and we assumed that this model is an appropriate for our data. Therefore, Warr's (1990) 12-item job-related affective well-being scale consisted of four interrelated dimensions of anxiety, comfort, depression, and enthusiasm. Also, this four factor structure was the only model, which showed an acceptable fit-goodness index in the longitudinal study of Mäkikangas et al., (2007).

The correlated four-factor structure was chosen for further analysis of the stability of affective well-being. Cronbach's alphas were estimated to test the reliabilities of the obtained factors. The alphas for anxiety were $.86$ ($M=9.79$, $SD=3.07$); for comfort $.83$ ($M=10.21$, $SD=2.21$); for depression $.84$ ($M=7.81$, $SD=2.99$); and for enthusiasm $.80$ ($M=11.27$, $SD=2.85$). According to data from Paired Simple Test, among Bulgarian employees the level of anxiety was higher than depression on the one hand ($t=12.56$; $p=.000$). On the other, comfort was lower than enthusiasm ($t=6.29$; $p=.000$). Hence, anxiety and enthusiasm appear to reflect the impact of the arousal dimensions, both deriving from high arousal but differ in the ends of dimension displeased-pleased.

In addition, one way ANOVA was conducted to test gender differences in affective well-being and other mental health aspects. No significant differences between men and women were found for most of the variables. The observed significant difference between the genders is that men register higher scores than women for job comfort ($t=2.36$; $p=.02$) and job competence ($t=2.74$; $p=.007$). Also, a positive linear trend is evident for both job comfort ($F=3.68$; $p=.027$) and anxiety ($F=3.68$; $p=.027$), which increase with the age. Generally, the results suggest that older people are more contented but also more worried concerning job, while men report higher job competence and comfort, therefore hypotheses for age and gender differences, is partially upheld.

Following our objectives, the multiple-regression analyses (MRA) were conducted to allow examination of the variance in affective well-being (anxiety, depression, comfort and enthusiasm) and other mental health characteristics (job aspiration, job competence and negative job carry-over) accounted for separately by work characteristics when controlling for age and gender. Variables were incorporated into the model by the means of the enter method.

TABLE 4. RESULTS OF THE MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

	β	T	R^2
Anxiety			
Job control	-.09	1.31	.076
Org. climate	-.23	3.07**	
Depression			
Job control	-.26	3.71***	.212
Org. climate	-.31	4.51***	
Comfort			
Job control	.06	.83	.084
Org. climate	.27	3.56***	
Enthusiasm			
Job control	.36	5.51***	.295
Org. climate	.31	4.77***	
Job aspiration			
Job control	.28	3.73***	.086
Org. climate	.31	4.77***	
Job competence			
Job control	.03	.38	.295
Org. climate	-.11	1.39	
Negative job carry-over			
Job control	.07	.98	.080

Org. climate .19 2.51*; ** $p = .025$. *** $p = .000$.

As shown in Table 4, work characteristics play role in prediction of all four dimensions of the affective well-being with some exceptions. Supportive organizational climate promote modestly job comfort and enthusiasm among Bulgarian employees and decrease weakly anxiety and depression. While, availability of the supportive organizational climate and high job control predict only job depression and enthusiasm. As we have suggested, job control and supportive organizational climate, predict job aspiration of the employees.

CONCLUSIONS

The results of exploratory factor analyses performed on the well-being items indicate that the hypothesized two-dimensional model of affective wellbeing as specified by Warr (1990) is not supported in Bulgarian conditions. Warr's (1990) scale of job-related affective well-being in our study consist of four interrelated factors: anxiety, comfort, depression, and enthusiasm. Thus, the findings are also in line with the results found previously for the structure of the job-specific affective well-being scale (JAWS; van Katwyk et al., 2000; Mäkikangas, et al., 2007).

Bulgarian employees report higher level of job anxiety and enthusiasm on the one hand, and on the other more job aspiration than job competence. As was expected, negative job carry-over shows associations almost with all the well-being and mental health variables, except for enthusiasm. Age and gender, are also found to be related to well-being and some of the mental health measures. Our findings reveal that Bulgarian men report higher levels of job comfort and competence than women. Older Bulgarian employees are more contented by job but also more worried.

Evidence for the construct validity of the well-being and mental health scales is based on the association with work characteristics. These findings are consistent with previously cited research, which suggested a causal link between mental health and certain job characteristics. Specifically, supportive organizational climate contribute to higher job comfort and enthusiasm and lower anxiety and depression. Also, higher job control is associated with job aspiration and enthusiasm. Job control and supportive organizational climate, predict job aspiration of the employees. However, the strength of these contributions and associations were rather modest.

This study has some limitations and implications, also. First, the sample is not sufficiently large and is strongly female-dominated, therefore the results of this study cannot be generalized. The second limitation is that all of the measures used are self-reports, which may have inflated the magnitude of the correlations between the variables studied. Finally, we could not fully analyse the relationships between work characteristics, job-related affective well-being and mental health dimensions and some other aspects. Recommendable is future research to con-

tain other important factors such as personality, for example. The implications of this study concern the nature of the associations between work characteristics and job-related affective well-being. From the viewpoint of intervention, this means that a high level of some work characteristics (supportive organizational climate) is a recommendable aim, to promote job well-being and mental health.

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SENSE OF COHERENCE AND SOCIAL SUPPORT AS WELL BEING RESOURCES IN CHILD CARE STAFF

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Abstract. *Well being of orphanage staff has undergone radical changes and budget and personnel cuts during the '90s influence children health and social development. The present study investigates whether the presence of personal resources (PR) and social support (SS) can help employees in social establishments (SE) to stay healthy facing the workload and how they relate to their mental health. Work setting characteristics like age of children in care were included as well being determinant. To test these relations, ratings from 6 SE (149 subjects) were obtained on work stressors intensity (JSS), sense of coherence, psychosocial resources like perceived social support, decision latitude, and well being indicators: burnout (MBI), psychosomatic complaints, life satisfaction, and turnover intention. Given the baseline payment dissatisfaction, moderate personal resources – sense of coherence and social support – significantly correlate with total stressor intensity and wellbeing indicators. Work intensity and well being differ significantly across work settings with clearly poorer health indicators and lower resources despite the higher decision latitude in toddlers' department compared to infants' one. Insights to policy makers are provided concerning staff health promotion as effective tool against social deprivation in SE.*

Keywords: *personal resources; burnout; child care establishments; social deprivation; health psychology*

INTRODUCTION

Taking care of children deprived of parental care in social establishments (SE) implies responsibility for their life, physical, psychic and social development. In Bulgaria there are 30 SE comprising about 3000 children up to 3 years. One person of the staff usually takes care of more than 20 infants and toddlers. The life in such establishments has many characteristics of social-emotional deprivation. Combined with enhanced workload due to insufficient personnel and social dimensions of the work environment such as characteristics of clients (developmental and health problems, the quality of relationships); colleagues, managers and the administration, this can provoke frustration, stress and mental health problems among the carers. On its part, poor well-being of the orphanages staff affects exclusively children health and social development and later inclusion in social and working life.

Perceived well being is determined by work and living conditions as well as by a variety of intervening variables, personal resources and traits, coping features, preventing health damaging processes. Health promoting resources include a general sense of control and the available social support. The concept of sense of coherence (SOC, Antonovsky, 1987; Tzenova, 1997) referring to an internalised sense of control has been recognized as reliable in revealing and explanation of factors building up one's well being. This dispositional orientation towards life consists of three components: comprehensibility – order seeking attitude and ability to find structure in events; manageability – trust that life challenges can be reasonably handled based on control over the environment; and meaningfulness – feeling of sense and worth to engage in challenges.

The study was aimed to reveal the effect of sense of coherence, social support and basic personal traits on various well-being aspects of child care staff in relation to work setting job stress and its effects, including burnout prevalence, in order to broaden the basis for measures to improve care quality.

METHODOLOGY

The SE personnel consist of doctors, nurses, rehabilitation therapists, pedagogues and psychologists, nannies, janitors. Studied were 149 subjects from 6 SE in 4 towns, taking care of 390 infants and toddlers with mean age 38 years and length of service 13 years. Questionnaires on: Sense of coherence (29 items scale SOC by Antonovsky, 1987); Social support (3 items with 5-point scale rating); basic personality traits (Eysenck, EPI), job stress (JSS by Spielberger, 1994); Burnout (MBI, Maslach 1981); psychosomatic complaints (22-items by Langner), all own Bulgarian adaptation, were administered and corresponding scale scores calculated. Analysis of variance, intercorrelations and work settings (infant or toddler ward) differences were tested (SPSS 13.0).

RESULTS

The study shows that psychic development of SE children is significantly delayed in comparison with this from families, particularly in relation to speech and emotional development. 1/3 of the children are with medical indications (malformations etc.). The possibility of individualization of the relationships with the children and the work satisfaction of the personnel are diminished because the larger part of the day are preoccupied with the hygiene.

JOB STRESS

Job Stress Survey evaluates the individual perception of the intensity and frequency of 30 work events and situations with negative impact on the general health of the employed. The average intensity score of the 30 stress events is 4.86 on a 9-point scale. Insufficient number of personnel, noise at work, lack of recognition for good work, on-the spot decision, increased responsibility assignment, lack of support by supervisor; insult from colleagues were reported as the most intensive stressors at work. In common, the total intensity score of the 30 stressors corresponds with own recent data on 76 military hospital nurses, and 55 university clinic staff and of USA sample of 118 women with administrative jobs (Spielberger, Reheiser, 1994). There are remarkable differences between the work settings: the intensity of job pressure (sum of 10 stressors) and of lack of social support (10 stressors) is much higher in toddlers department than in infants' one ($p < 0.01$).

SENSE OF COHERENCE

The sense of coherence was found to be a significant factor for good well being status. SOC total score appears consistent negatively related with the intensity of job pressure, perceived lack of support and total intensity of all 30 job stressors (Table 1). When the basic attitude towards life is trust in the order of things, in their predictability, controllability and meaningfulness, the predisposition for well being increases.

TABLE 1. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN WORKLOAD INTENSITY AND PERSONAL RESOURCES AND TRAITS

Job stress dimensions:	SOC	Neuroticism
intensity pressure	-,394**	,315**
intensity lack of support	-,383**	,327**
total intensity	-,389**	,314**

** Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed).

On the opposite, personal trait neuroticism corresponds with higher intensity of perceived job pressure and lack of support from managers and colleagues

at work. To answer the causality question in this case is not so simple: on the one hand, high unfavourable work demands may intensify and aggravate personality traits expression (Semmer, 1996). On the other hand, personality traits characterizing the negative affect can negatively influence perceptions of work characteristics and stressors, the so called reverse causality. This connection is well demonstrated by the significant differences in mean levels of the discussed resources and traits between the two work wards of infants and toddlers, with more adverse values in the last one with higher intensity of job stressors (Table 2).

Findings reveal close relation between the personal resources and personality traits: sense of coherence is connected with low scores and correlates weak with the social desirability of behaviour, and the social support correlates with low scores on neuroticism and psychoticism and extroversion.

TABLE 2. PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS DIFFERENCES ACCORDING TO WARD

Variables	ward	N	Mean	SD
SOC total F 10.39, p < .002	baby	93	64,45	10,03
	toddler	42	58,16	11,42
Social Support n.s.	baby	102	12,64	2,18
	toddler	44	11,56	3,59
Extraversion F 7,2, p < .008	baby	105	12,66	4,37
	toddler	44	10,63	3,77
Neuroticism F 11.06, p < .000	baby	105	10,26	4,63
	toddler	44	13,06	4,45
Lie F 4.63, p < .03	baby	104	11,65	3,50
	toddler	44	12,95	2,98

SOC total score appears consistent significantly related with the burnout dimensions, so to smaller degree does the available social support (Table 3) – the higher developed and stabilized sense of coherence and available social support, the lower emotional exhaustion and dehumanization. Burnout dimensions emotional exhaustion (EE) and dehumanization (D) are closely related to personality traits neuroticism (N) and psychoticism (P) and psychosomatic complaints (Table 3). Personal trait extraversion (E) is positively related to the feeling of personal accomplishment (PA) at work and decreased number of psychosomatic complaints. Intensity of job pressure and lack of support contribute to experience and stabilization of emotional exhaustion, dehumanisation and various psychosomatic symptoms (p < 0.001). Diminished personal accomplishment correlates significantly with higher expressed psychoticism and experienced job pressure.

TABLE 3. CORRELATIONS OF BURNOUT AND COMPLAINTS WITH PERSONALITY TRAITS (EPI) AND RESOURCES (N = 135)

Well-being Personality	Burnout dimensions			Psychosom. complaints
	EE	DP	PA	
SOC total	-,447**	-,343**	,206*	-,545**
Social support	-,216*	-,199*	-,010	-,233*
Psychoticism	,215*	,366**	-,218*	,232**
Extraversion	-,020	-,026	,225**	-,247**
Neuroticism	,453**	,341**	-,102	,644**

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 and **at 0.01 level (2-tailed).

WELL-BEING INDICATORS

17% of the subjects express 9 and more psychosomatic complaints indicative for psychic caused dysfunction and disturbance of the personality integrity. High anxiety and motor unrest, reevaluation of values, depression and physical exhaustion, depletion and shortage of breath without physical load are common for the personnel in the studied SE.

BURNOUT

The differences in the experienced stressors determine the various patterns of burnout symptoms. Scores on the burnout dimensions EE and DP are higher in department toddlers compared to infants (Table 4). The lowest Burnout Index was found in baby's department in the SE in the small town. High scorers on Depersonalisation, the sense of callous and dehumanising attitudes towards the respondents are 16% of care personnel, and on Emotional Exhaustion subscale – 27%. Compared to our previous data on burnout distribution (Tzenova, 1996, 1997) the mean burnout scores in the SE are lower.

TABLE 4. BURNOUT AND WELL BEING DIMENSIONS – VARIATION ANALYSIS ACCORDING TO WORK DEPARTMENT (ANOVA)

Department	Baby (105)		Toddler (44)		F, p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Well being:					
Emotional exhaustion	17.93	11.67	25.07	12.32	7.65, .006
Depersonalisation	3.96	5.15	5.90	5.42	3.94, .049
Personal accomplishment	37.69	7.29	34.69	8.58	2.2, n.s.
Burnout index	7.99	2.55	9.63	2.41	9.32, .003
Psychosomatic complaints	5.66	3.20	7.56	2.95	6.67, .01

In the toddlers wards with higher job stress intensity staff's health complaints, burnout and neuroticism scores, and turnover thoughts are up to 80% higher, although they report higher control over work and decision participation compared to infants departments (Table 4).

CONCLUSIONS

The differences between the SE work settings are significant: in the toddlers departments the intensity of experienced job stressors and health complaints, burnout and Neuroticism scores, as well as turnover intentions are more expressed compared to infant's one; SOC is lower despite perceived higher degree of work control and decision participation.

Findings revealed distribution of early burnout stages among the SE personnel as effect of intensity of job stressors, closely (negatively) related to SOC level, so to lower degree does the available social support. The manifestation of a moderately strong SOC in the SE personnel the expression of burnout and psychosomatic complaints and the correlations between them establish SOC as an important prerequisite for mental well being of child care staff. It is to be considered, that SOC emerges from culturally and structurally shaped patterns of experience of consistency, load balance and participation in valued decision-making. Although in the third life decade the individual's SOC level is crystallized, it is constantly attacked and adverse experience (overload, lack of support) in occupational and non-occupational spheres may damage SOC and additionally aggravate expression of personality trait neuroticism.

The significant stress causing problems are mainly organizational, that can be overcome with little additional costs. They should be considered as directions for future improvement of the working environment and individual health and staff well being.

Only simultaneous implementation of job stress prevention on individual (strengthen personal resources), group (promoting social support) and organizational level, improvement in educational practice can promote a healthy work environment with strong effect on staff wellbeing and quality of child care in the long term. Strengths, limitations, directions for future research and practical implications are offered.

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PSYCHOSOCIAL WORKING CONDITIONS AS HEALTH RISK IN CIVIL SERVANTS SAMPLE

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***Abstract.** Health research use of conceptual models of psychosocial working conditions separates the measurement of potentially stressful job characteristics from the health effects of work stress. Systematic literature review showed a considerable body of evidence, that all three models of work stress, conceptualizing it in terms of aspects of psychological and psychosocial demands, are associated with health. Measures on of psychosocial working condition and well being based on self-report questionnaires were collected by surveys in three organizations with about 400 employees, mean aged over 45 years. Self-report measures take account of the employees' perception of their work environment, which is an important determinant of health. Working conditions including high job intensity, effort-reward imbalance and relational injustice were associated with number of health complaints, anxiety, musculoskeletal disorders and frequent fatigue, sleep disorders and general feeling of high stress. The sex differences hypothesis for unfavorable changes was only partly proved. On the other hand, health status can influence perceptions of work characteristics (reverse causality). The enhancing body of evidence on psychosocial working conditions – health relation is the base for recognition of work stress as a work place hazard by policy makers calling on setting reference values similar to existing standards for workplace hazards.*

***Keywords:** occupational health psychology, work load, psychosocial strain sources, health complaints, work stress models*

INTRODUCTION

The enhancing body of evidence on psycho-social working conditions – health relation is the base for recognition of work stress as a work place hazard by policy makers. For the companies the occupational safety and health activities and arrangements require complex decision making processes for the design of work organisation which as a rule mean costly investments. The extended economic efficiency analysis for evaluation of investment options consider also non-monetary criteria or benefits like occupational stress, occupational safety and hazards, quality of work (content, responsibility, expert knowledge), work autonomy, work motivation (recognition, achievement incentives) (Boedeker et al., 1999). Whereas the monetary criteria are compiled as a financial analysis, the non-monetary should always be treated as a benefit-value analysis with weighted point system. Psychology offers the necessary help with development and implementation of task specific checklists and measures.

Health research use of conceptual models of psychosocial working conditions separates the measurement of potentially stressful job characteristics from the health effects of work stress. Systematic literature review showed a considerable body of evidence derived from prospective studies, that all three models of work stress, conceptualizing it in terms of aspects of psychological and psychosocial demands, is associated with health.

In the aspect of comprehensive changes in the current work requirements and conditions the importance of workplace psychosocial stress enhances. In compliance with *transactional stress* models the hazardous interactions between 1) work nature, organization and management, conditions of the working and organizational environment and 2) employees' professional qualification and needs affect workers' health through their perceptions and experience. A popular EU definition identifies stress as “the emotional, cognitive, behavioral and physiological reaction to aversive and noxious aspects of work, work environments and work organizations. It is a state characterized by high levels of arousal and distress and often by feelings of not coping”. Stress can be experienced as a result from exposure to a large scope of work requirements (stressors) and in turn, it contributes to a similarly broad range of health effects. Chronic job stress is the prevailing workplace stress. The relationship between psychosocial factors (acting stressors) and health impairment is commonly studied on the basis of theoretical concepts on stress.

Given the far-reaching changes of modern working life, psychosocial stress at work has received increased attention. Its influence on stress-related disease risks is analysed with the help of standardised measurements based on theoretical models. Two such models have gained special prominence in recent years, the demand-control model and the effort-reward imbalance model. The former model places its emphasis on a distinct combination of job characteristics, whereas the latter model's focus is on the imbalance between efforts spent and rewards received in turn. The emphasis of

the “demands-control-support” model is on the unfavorable profile of the work tasks from the viewpoint of high requirements and poor control on the work processing while the “efforts-reward imbalance” model is outlined by the norm of reciprocity of the employment contract. Correspondingly the efforts (including both intrinsic and extrinsic components) put in the work are exchanged for various socially defined forms of reward – promotion prospects, financial remuneration. More recent model of psychosocial working conditions, which may have health consequences, is the concept of organizational justice: the extent to which supervisors consider employees’ viewpoints and treat them truthfully and fairness of decision-making procedures. The predictive power of those models referring to cardiovascular diseases and depression has been checked by numerous prospective epidemiological studies (Niedhammer, 2004; Siegrist, 1996; de Jonge et al., 2000; Ostry et al., 2003; Stansfeld, 1999; Kivimaki et al., 2004). In summary, twofold elevated disease risks are observed.

Nowadays there is sufficient theoretical and empirical evidence (European survey, 2007) for elevated health risk in a working environment with the following characteristics: Insufficient resources – limited options for work control and participation at decision making at work, lack of possibility to implement the skills, lack of possibility to make decisions concerning the work processing; Inadequate unfavorable demands: too high or low requirements of the work to the individual; insufficient social resources: poor social support on behalf of work peers and supervisors; role conflicts, insufficient social support and integration; lack of predictability in terms of job and career insecurity, lack of feedback from the manager, lack of information; inadequate pay: discrepancy between efforts and reward.

All these features are frequently observed in the working environment of employees working environment of employees in the sphere of services, social and public sector. For this reason the sphere of services is identified as one sector of particular attention for health and safety studies in the EU (EU report 301, 2002). The assessment of the psychosocial risk for those employees in Bulgaria is still incomprehensively. The lack of evidence for health-relevant psychosocial occupational factors for these employees determined the current study.

The aim of the study is to reveal psychosocial occupational factors forming the worker’s subjective well-being as well as sources of strain in service sector employed and their interrelations based on the three most used concepts of work stress. To test is the amount of perceived stressors in different work settings and how it determines various dimensions of the subjective well-being – level of psychosomatic complaints, general stress state, family problems due to work load, turnover intention, and also subjective health – gender relation, i.e. if unfavorable changes are more expressed in women. Answering these questions requires development of a questionnaire revealing workplace psychosocial factors; relevant sources of strain and stress at the workplace, prevalence of health complaints, and interrelations of well-being indicators with workplace factors.

METHODOLOGY

Measures of psychosocial working condition and well being are based on self-report questionnaires, collected by surveys in three budget-supported organizations with about 490 employees, mean aged over 45 years (Table 1). Those workers could be characterized as analytical, administrative and technical artistic and assistance staff in the services sphere. Representation of women is greater in all 3 samples.

Questionnaire was created specially for the study comprising several chapters of questions, combination of measures: Self-report measures take account of the employees' perception of their work environment, 11 psychosocial work characteristics which are an important determinant of health (3-grade scale), degree of control over own work organization, 21 sources of stress and strain at work, prevalence of 17 psychosomatic complaints during the last six months, turnover intentions, family problems due to work load, satisfaction with the payment for the work done and demographic characteristics of the studied groups. The used questionnaire reveals the main aspects of the dimensions "demand-control", "efforts-reward" and "organizational justice" of the presented organizational models of stress. The study complies with the standard procedure for conducting of an anonymous questionnaire study. Received data should be considered representative for those organizations with response rate much higher than those in European surveys (Table 1).

Data were analyzed (SPSS package) by frequency, variation and multidimensional dispersion analysis by types of responses to the particular questions referring to psychosocial working conditions and stress sources. Calculation were performed for each sample separately and by subgroups formed according to work load intensity and gender of the investigated individuals. Correlation analysis was performed in order to reveal workplace stress sources and well-being interrelations. The subject number analyzed varies from one indicator to another due to missing responses

TABLE 1. CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDIED SAMPLES

Organization	1	2	3
Number studies persons	169	153	168
Return rate (%)	69.7	79.6	89.4
Women rate (%)	68.8	79.6	55
Mean age (\pm years)	42.3 (11.6)	50.6 (8.8)	48.3 (8.8)
Length of service (yrs.)	15.2 (10.3)	27.3	24.3

RESULTS

WORK CHARACTERISTICS AND INTENSITY

As most unsatisfying work conditions in all 3 samples was pointed out the high work temp and high work demands and intensity. More than 60% of the investigated individuals state that the work load and strain at the workplace are too high and the work temp compared to that of 5 years ago – enhanced (Fig. 1). In Organization 3 the work temp is estimated as higher by 15% more reponses, and the indicated strain sources are in average 8.4 compared to 6 in the other two (Figure 2). At this background more than 40% feel several times per month in such stress state that they would like to go out in the middle of the work, the rate of those with turnover intentions is even greater and 30% reveal that the work load causes family problems.

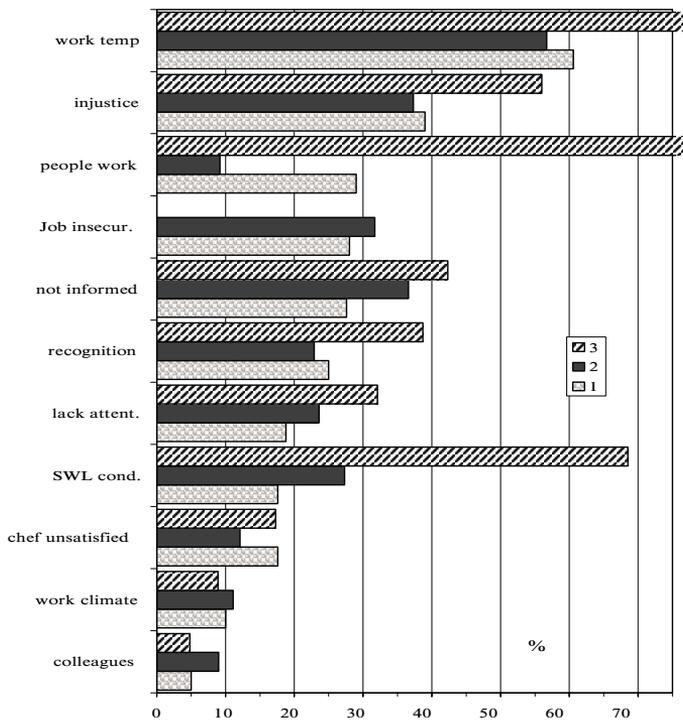


FIGURE 1. UNSATISFYING WORK CHARACTERISTICS IN THE THREE ORGANIZATIONS

Injustice at work concerning task assignment and rewards, with mean 40% with rating 3 on 3-point scale, takes the second place as causing dissatisfac-

tion factor, followed by being not informed about processes and firm politics and job security related anxiety (Fig.1). Lack of performance recognition by supervisor and management' lack attention and disrespect in regard to subordinates opinions, characterize the workplaces of more than ¼ of the employees. In this rank order are the unsatisfied with work life conditions (SWL) like hygienic, nutrition possibilities, transport to work. All mentioned characteristics as well as contact with a lot of people at work are higher expressed to 3 times in the third sample, reflecting the occupational differences. Bad work climate as a whole, fully dissatisfaction with chef or colleagues reported to 15% of the employed (Fig.1).

SOURCES OF STRAIN AND STRESS AT WORK

Payment inadequate to the efforts investment and real performance is identified as leading strain source at work in all 3 companies (60 to 84.8%) similar to almost all professional groups in Bulgaria for the last 20 years with the start of socio-economic changes. Apart from the payment, the percentage and ranks of the most common stressors in descending prevalence order in Organization 1 are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2. WORK STRESS LEADING SOURCES (IN %) AND RANKS IN ORGANIZATIONS

Organisation (sample)	1		2		3	
	%	Rank	%	Rank	%	Rank
Strain sources at work						
Time pressure	57	1.5	36,9	3	46,1	5
Computer work	57	1.5	42	1	28,6	7
Work posture tiresome	51	3	27	6	57	3
Rest insufficient	36,5	4	22	10	21	11
Recognition lack	36,1	5	39	2	56,4	4
Responsibility inadequacy	35,3	6	24	8	38,8	6
People contacts	35,3	7	28	5	66,7	2
Instructions ambiguous	30	8	18	11.5	24,4	8
No growth perspective	24	9	26	7	23	10
Air conditions and noise	22	10	31	4	70	1
Lack of cooperation	19	11	18	11.5	12	12
Lack of possibilities to express complaints	15,4	12	22,3	9	23,8	9

The work with computers and insufficient time for satisfactory work performance are leading sources of strain at work (up to 57%), followed by tiring uncomfortable work posture (mostly sitting) and lack of recognition and insufficient rest after work (21 to 36%). Work with many people and bad air conditions (temperature, pollution) and noise are ranked among the 5 leading in Organization 3 (up to 70%) and 2 (to 31%). The next rates belong to multiple responsibilities but scarce authorizations and possibilities for decision-making (more than 1/3) and the lack of explicit instructions for the work task performance (1/4). One fourth of the investigated individuals state the lack of possibilities for development and implementation of their personal abilities also a source of strain and stress at work. An average of 20% outline the lack of possibility to express their complaints as important stress source too. About 15% perceive lack of cooperation as leading to strain at their work too.

PSYCHOSOMATIC COMPLAINTS

The employed from the 3 organizations have similar profiles of the general psychosomatic complaints (Figure 3). One fourth part as an average list more than 11 of the suggested psychosomatic complaints.

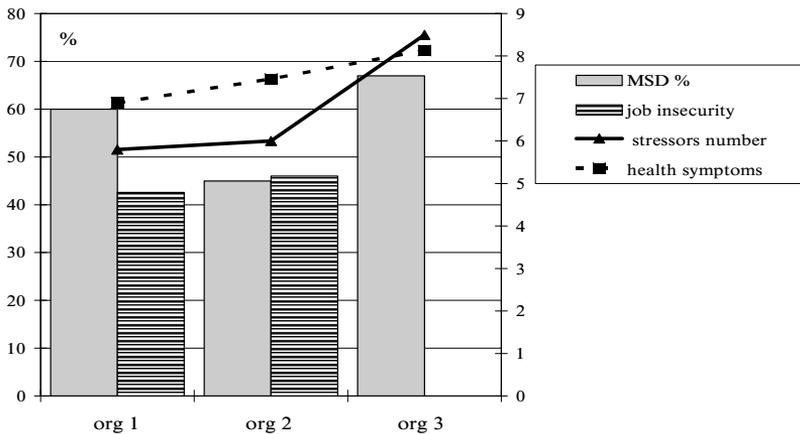


FIGURE 2. MEAN LEVEL OF STRESSORS AND COMPLAINTS BY OCCUPATION

The number of psychosomatic complaints is from 7 to 8, higher in Organization 3 and corresponds to the high level established for other professional groups in Bulgaria (7–13). Thirteen percent of the workers from Organization 1 and 31.6% from Organization 3 have asked for medical aid in relation to the expressed complaints. The prevalent psychosomatic complaints in all three organizations

are: frequent fatigue and pains in bones, joints and muscles (up to 68%), more frequently in Organization 3 and 1 (Figure 2). Those problems are associated with impaired concentration and motivation. Figure 3 presents the rate profiles of the other psychosomatic complaints during the 6 months preceding the study.

The second place, after psychic exhaustion due to work, is occupied by back pains (more than 60% of the investigated employees, particularly in Organization 3 and 1), burning eyes, constant free floating anxiety. Vertigo, bad mood and pains in the heart area (social relevant disease symptoms) are characteristic for Organization 2 and 3 – up to 45% of the sample. Law back pain, anxiety, disturbed sleep and dizziness are prevailing in Organization 3. Compared to sample 1, the rate of the latter symptoms and heaviness/swelling of the stomach is higher with 10% to 20% as an average. It should be outlined that the mean ages in sample 2 and 3 are about 50 years and the listed complaints are proven to increase with the age. The test of gender interferences shows a significantly higher number of complaints for women – 2 symptoms more than men in Organization 1 and 2.

About one third had a sick leave during the last year. The absentees are with significantly higher number of symptoms – 9.3 vs. 6.8 for the others ($p = 0.000$) without significant differences in the number of perceived stressors at work (7.6 vs. 6.5).

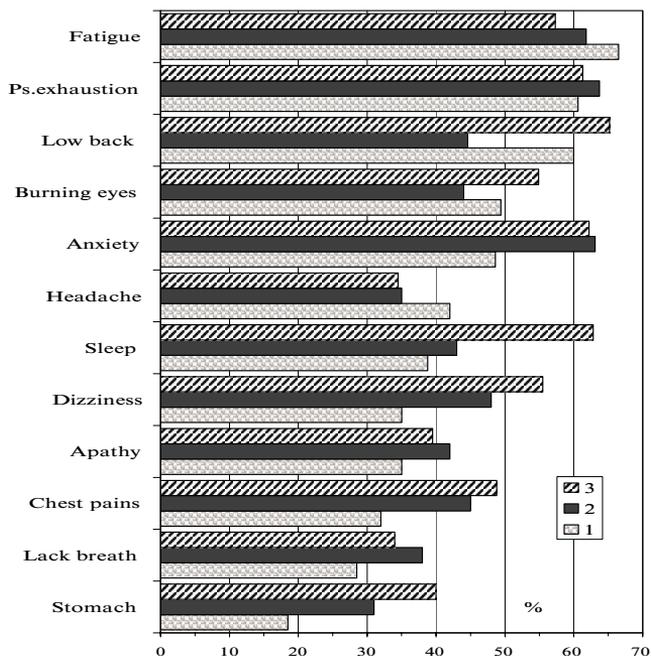


FIGURE 3. PSYCHOSOMATIC SYMPTOMS IN THE THREE ORGANIZATIONS LAST 6 MONTHS

MULTIDIMENSIONAL RELATIONSHIPS

The experience of stress, general fatigue and dissatisfaction with the payment inadequate to the efforts, with their unfavorable effects on work motivation and performance, health and family is related to: 1) perceived load and strain at work, insufficient time estimated by almost half of the employees (47 %) as too high, the obsolete equipment, work posture and workplace ergonomics, as well as with 2) the organizational climate and lack of performance recognition (Table 3). On the other hand, health status can influence perceptions of work characteristics (reverse causality). All those work features are not only closely interrelated but also correlate with the number of perceived workplace stressors (Table 3).

TABLE 3. WORK LOAD AND WELL BEING CORRELATIONS

Variables	Number stressors			Health complaints			Psychic exhaust.		
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Sample									
General stress	.28	.27	.32	.46	.36	.54	.41	.29	.32
Turnover	.18	.24	.10	.19	.19	n.s.	.28	.17	
Family problems	.35	.33	.22	.47	.32	.34	n.s.		.26
Work load	.21	.23	.57	.32	.27	.43	.14	.29	.26
Stressor payment	.52	.47		.31	.28	.29	.23	n.s.	
Unsatisfied salary	n.s.	.19	.30	n.s.	.26	.15	n.s.	.17	
Work control lack	-.20	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.		n.s.

Note. $p < 0.05$ if $0.15 < r \leq 0.2$; $p < 0.01$ if $r > 0.24$; n.s. – no trend, $p > 0.10$

Working conditions including high job intensity, effort-reward imbalance and relational injustice were associated with number of health complaints, anxiety, musculoskeletal disorders and frequent fatigue, sleep disorders and general feeling of high stress. The sex differences hypothesis for unfavorable changes was only partly proved (without Organization 3).

DISCUSSION

Before good practice information about combating stress can be applied, an assessment of the risks present in the workplace should be carried out and reference made to relevant national legislation. A risk assessment is a careful examination of what could cause harm to people, so that you can decide whether you have taken enough precautions or need to do more to prevent harm. The aim is to make sure that no one gets hurt or becomes ill. If a psychosocial risk assessment is not carried out before implementing good practice information, there is a danger not only that risks may not be controlled but also that there may be a waste of resources.

The high level of health complaints corresponds to the mean levels established by us up to this moment for various professional groups, object of own and national surveys in the transition period (Tzenova, 2006; Tzenova, Kostadinova, 2003; Russinova et al., 2007). The health complaints characteristic for both organizations have marked psychosomatic nature: musculoskeletal, general fatigue, constant anxiety and stress state at work – experienced by half of the inquired sample as causally related to the performed work. The high rate of musculoskeletal complaints is a problem in many countries and is an indicator of health impairment, often resulting from the combination: work intensification, repeating tasks, poor work organization, ergonomically inadequate working equipment, and job-related stress. Exposed to musculoskeletal disorder risk factors are 17 to 46% of workers from various sectors in the European countries (4, 5). Work intensity in EU increases with 10% during the last 15 years to 56% working at high temp and to 60% working under time pressure.

The expressed stress state by a large part of the employees on the background of general dissatisfaction with the payment for the work (up to 84%) to an extent that 45% have turnover intentions corresponds to the global evidence that one third of the Europeans and Americans live at constantly high stress levels and 48% report that their stress level has elevated during the last 5 years (5). In the 3 organizations the prevailing dissatisfaction with the payment, the most frequently stated workplace stress source, correlates with the general stress state, number of psychosomatic complaints and perceived stressors, insufficient work control and family problems due to work load. It is clear that the sense of lack of control elevates the stress levels, because it is accompanied by the feelings of hopelessness, anxiety and frustration with turnover as solution. In accordance with the “efforts-reward” model the efforts put in the work are exchanged for socially set payments including money, esteem, career perspectives and development and job security. Like in other former socialistic countries (Pikhart, et al., 2001) At the higher work load and related psychic exhaustion, the payment of the studied civil servants is unsatisfactory in its both aspects: 1) payment – inadequate and insufficient and 2) moral aspect – the broad spread of lack of recognition is often reported as causing stress and strain at work.

CONCLUSIONS

The prevailing health complaints, reported strain and stress sources at work are the foundation for planning and introduction of preventive measures to reduce employees’ psychic strain and increase the work capacity. For all 3 organizations were developed and recommended specific measures and approach how to eliminate the revealed organizational shortcomings apart from the necessary actions to manage ergonomic and sanitary-hygienic issues. A follow-up survey is recom-

mended in each organization one year later to monitor the effect of the implemented measures management's side to improve work conditions and employees' well-being.

Mental health is a weak vulnerable link in knowledge-based global economy. In the conditions of increasing work requirements and strain, increase also the demands to the managers' emotional intelligence and "wisdom" to protect the health and quality of the human capital. The employed with their capacities and creativity are the carriers of qualification and knowledge, ensuring the decisive competent advantage in unforeseen changing working world. Recognition of work stress as a work place hazard by policy makers is the start-off point for setting reference values similar to existing standards for workplace hazards.

The introduction of *preventive* culture in relation to psychosocial risks and job-related stress is a priority in EU policy on health and safety at work presupposing elaboration of simple tools for workplace risk assessment and raising the awareness on the importance of psychosocial risk management – recommended to help the companies.

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APPLICABILITY OF ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHODYNAMICS TO ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE AND DEVELOPMENT

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***Abstract.** This paper is theoretical attempt at applicability of organizational psychodynamics to organizational change and development. There are individual and organizational problems during times of stress and change at all the public and private organizations. This paper is trying to describe what happened than and the difference between organizational dynamics and rational-technical approaches to organizational change and development. What kind of interventions and basic external and diagnostic tool psychodynamically oriented organizational consultant put into practice.*

INTRODUCTION

Organizational psychodynamics is an interdisciplinary field – subdivision of human systems psychodynamics, amalgamating a traid of influences – the psychodynamic research and consulting practice, the theories and methods of the field of group dynamics and organizational systems development, and the tasks and boundary awareness of open systems perspectives.

Although human systems psychodynamics is not a new field of study, there has been a general lack of awareness of it`s roots. Human systems psychodynamics is "a term used to refer to the collective psychological behaviour" (Neumann, 1999, p.57) within and between groups, organizations, and communities in a society. "Systems psychodinamics, therefore, providees a way of thinking about energizing or motivating forces resulting from the interconnection between various groups and sub-units of a social system" (Neumann, 1999, p.57). Although Gould, Stapley, and Stein (2001) observed that "the field of systems psychodynamics had

its birth with the publication of Miller and Rice's seminal volume *Systems of Organization* (1967). Miller and Rice never explicitly used the term in their book. According to Laurence Gould, Eric G. Miller, who was then director of the Tavistock Institute's Group Relations Programme, coined the term systems psychodynamics when discussing their work informally in the late 1980s and the concept just "caught on". The first mention of the term system psychodynamics in print form was in 1993 in the Tavistock Institute's 1992/93 Review.

In fact the conceptual origins of the **systems psychodynamic perspective** stems from classic psychoanalysis (Freud, 1921), group relations theory and open systems theory (De Board, 1978; French & Vince, 1999; Hirschhorn, 1993; Miller, 1993; Obholzer & Roberts, 1994). The central tenet of the systems psychodynamic perspective is contained in the conjunction of its two terms (Miller & Rice, 1976; Neumann, Kellner & Dawson-Shepherd, 1997; Rice, 1965; Stapley, 1996). The 'systems' designation refers to the open systems concepts that provide the dominant framing perspective for understanding the structural aspects of an organisational system. The organisation as an external reality, comparatively independent of the individual, affect the individual in significant emotional and psychological ways. In terms of consulting to organisations, it is believed that learning from the personal experience is of fundamental concern to facilitate development, insight, understanding and 'deep' change (Bion, 2003). The 'psychodynamic' designation refers to psychoanalytic perspectives on individual experiences and mental processes (such as transference, resistance, object relations and fantasy) as well as on the experience of unconscious group and social processes, which are simultaneously both a source and a consequence of unresolved and unrecognised organisational difficulties. A central feature of this view posits the existence of primitive anxieties – of a prosecutory and depressive nature – and the mobilisation of social defence mechanisms against them. The operations of such defences are conceptualised as either impeding or facilitating task performance and responses to and *readiness for change* and new learning. Bion's (1961; 2003; Lipgar & Pines, 2003) three basic assumptions are seen as the cornerstones for studying relationships in organisational systems (Kets de Vries, 1991; López-Corvo, 2003; Miller, 1993; Rice, 1965; Rioch, 1970). These are dependency (the group's unconscious projection for attention and help onto an authority figure as parental object); fight/flight (as defence mechanisms in trying to cope with discomfort, again involving the authority figure for example management or leadership); and pairing (with perceived powerful others such as the manager or leader, or splitting the authority figure(s) as an individual or as a pair in order to be able to identify with one part as a saviour). Later, two additional basic assumptions were added, namely one-ness (also referred to as me-ness by Turquet, 1974) (representing the individual's escape into his/her own fantasy and inner safe, comfortable and good world, whilst denying the presence of the group, seen as the disturbing and bad part); and we-ness (Law-

rence, Bain & Gould, 1996) (the opposite of me-ness, where group members join into a powerful union with and absorption into an omnipotent force, surrendering the self for passive participation). Basic group functioning refers to 'getting stuck' in these assumption behaviours, whereas work group functioning refers to insight into and taking responsibility for own human relationships. Conflict and anxiety (primitive anxiety of the prosecutory and depressive nature) are accepted as the basic concepts in this model (Koortzen & Cilliers, 2002).

The systems psychodynamic consultancy stance (alternatively called the psychoanalytically informed consultancy stance – De Jager, 2003) is a developmentally focussed, psycho-educational process for the understanding of the deep and covert behaviour in the system. Its primary task is formulated as pushing the boundaries of awareness to better understand the deeper and covert meaning of organisational behaviour, including the challenges of management and leadership (Koortzen & Cilliers, 2002; Miller & Rice, 1976).

The systems psychodynamic consultant engages in an analysis of the inter-relationships of some or all of the following: boundaries, roles and role configurations, structure, organisational design, work culture and group process (Miller, 1993; Neumann et al., 1997). The consultant is alert to and interprets the covert and dynamic aspects of the organisation and the work group that comprise it, with the focus on relatedness and how authority is psychologically distributed, exercised and enacted, in contrast to how it is formally invested. This work includes a consideration of attitudes, beliefs, fantasies, core anxieties, social defences, patterns of relationships and collaboration, and how these in turn may influence task performance, how unwanted feelings and experiences are split off and projected onto particular parts (individuals or groups) that carry them on behalf of the system (their process roles as distinct from their formally sanctioned roles), and how work roles are taken up. Menzies (1993) emphasised the analysis of social defence aspects of structure and its relationship to task and process, thus trying to understand how unconscious anxieties are reflected in organisational structures and design (which function to defend against them).

The change process supports improvement of the organization or group as a whole. The client and consultant work together to gather data, define issues and determine a suitable course of action. The organization is assessed to create an understanding of the current situation and to identify opportunities for change that will meet business objectives. **Organization Development (OD)** is the process of improving organizations. The process is carefully planned and implemented to benefit the organization, its employees and its stakeholders. The client organization may be an entire company public agency non-profit organization, volunteer group – or a smaller part of a larger organization. OD differs from traditional consulting because client involvement is encouraged throughout the entire process.

The ways in which people communicate and work together are addressed concurrently with technical or procedural issues that need resolution. The work force has also changed. Employees expect more from a day's work than simply a day's pay. They want challenge, recognition a sense of accomplishment, worthwhile tasks and meaningful relationships with their managers and co-workers. When these needs are not met, performance declines. Today's customers demand continually improving quality, rapid product or service delivery; fast turn-around time on changes, competitive pricing and other features that are best achieved in complex environments by innovative organizational practices. The effective organization must be able to meet today's and tomorrow's challenges. Adaptability and responsiveness are essential to survive and thrive.

Organizational change is dynamic. While organizational diagnosis comprises historical and narrative data, the intervention of consultants opens up the organizational process to participant observation from the outset. In process consultation (Schein, 1999), we attend to the organizational dynamics in the here and now in ways that exhibit and confirm historical patterns and institutionalized defensive routines for organizational participants. Interventions such as process consultation are intended to raise the level of awareness in individuals, groups, and organizations about defensive routines that inhibit their capacity to learn and make effective changes. Even the most successful of consultations does not leave the organization radically transformed from dysfunctional to functional or from failing to succeeding. Rather, it enables people to intervene and interrupt repetitive and self-sealing processes before they get completely out of hand.

Organizational psychoanalysis is a powerful approach that can enhance personal and organizational performance and, at the same time, help to alleviate the psychic stress that public employees may experience in the face of radical organizational change. Yet compared to the rational-technical approaches to organizational change like those just mentioned, psychoanalysis is not well understood by scholars of organizations or practitioners of organizational change.

Marcus C. Becker reviews a book "The Systems Psychodynamics of Organizations" edited by Laurence Gould, Lionel Stapley and Mark Stein honors Eric J. Miller. According to Marcus Becer through theoretical explanation and case examples the book develops a framework for an emerging interdisciplinary field that integrates insights from psychoanalysis, groupdynamics, and systems theory—a perspective that was first synthesized in Miller and Rice's 1967 work, *Systems of Organization*. Rapid change, economic pressures, changing paradigms of leadership, and many other factors bring anxiety and stress into the lives of organizations and their employees. A variety of theorists have put forth models of organization in which rational, ordinary, conscious behaviors designed to address these factors and achieve the organization's tasks reside in view, while hidden, unobservable, often unconscious defense mechanisms and

attempts to resolve internal conflicts remain below the surface (French and Bell, 1973). These elements can lead to political maneuvering, covert tactics, and unconsciously motivated acts that damage the organization and its members. Understanding these submerged elements and how they impact on individuals, groups and organizations has been the work of the Tavistock Institute for over 55 years, with even deeper roots in the Tavistock Clinic beforehand (Obholzer and Roberts, 1994). The field of systems psychodynamics views organizations as open systems with permeable and insulating boundaries that place them in interaction with their environment. It uses the systems concepts of Miller and Rice (1967) and Lewin (1947), and the socio-technical concepts of Rice (1958) to understand patterns of organizational structure, function and design. Systems psychodynamics draws on psychoanalysis to analyze social defense systems (splitting, projection, denial, etc.) that organizational members use to defend against primitive anxieties. These perspectives are undergirded by the work of Bion (1961) on group processes and by the object relations perspective developed by Klein (1959) over three decades and extended by Fairbairn (1952), Winnicott (1971), Guntrip (1969), and others. Object relations expands Freud's concept of drives to include the drive to form relationships with people and objects as a dominant feature in human development. Systems psychodynamics recognizes that employees not only use the organization to secure economic well-being and achieve conscious goals but also as a ground for unmet emotional needs and unresolved personal conflicts. This interdisciplinary nexus is used to examine the hidden life of the organization that impacts on the everyday, observable interactions of its members and the performance of its tasks. The volume's contributors are steeped in what has come to be called the 'Tavistock approach', used to unveil hidden organizational dynamics. According to Rina Bar-Lev Elieli the Systems Psychodynamics of Organizations stresses the importance of reflection in organizations and in particular the value of reflection during times of organizational change and transition. She notes that it is at just such times that stopping to examine the dynamics of our processes is discouraged. Because our organizations are action oriented, the author theorizes that 'doing' is valued over 'being'. She uses a case study of transition in a psychological clinic to demonstrate the importance of consultants 'containing' or 'holding' the anxiety that is aroused during organizational change until the client is ready to receive it. The idea of containment of anxiety has important implications for developing environments for organizational learning (Addelson, 1996).

Ralph Stacey which views the organization as the interaction of task and individual/ group systems with each other—with a complexity perspective in which organizations and tasks emerge from the interactions of groups and individuals. This represents a shift in focus from a two-directional flow across boundaries between systems to the internal relational dynamics of the enterprise. He describes the role

of self-organizing, personal relationships in organizational change. Although he notes these 'shadow relationships' can lead to destructive politics and personal strivings, they can also, according to the author, function as learning communities and sources of creativity and innovation that lead to changes in the legitimate pattern of relationships within the organization.

James Krantz is a principal with the TRIAD Consulting Group in New York City. He discusses the difference between 'sophisticated' change efforts that are realistic, grounded, and foster Klein's depressive position, and 'primitive change efforts' that elicit Klein's paranoid-schizoid functioning and defenses of denial, splitting and projective identification. He explores how the presence of conditions that contain the anxieties generated by change impact the success of change efforts. The author describes elements of a containment environment and ways to fill the 'social defense' vacuum and support employees in times of transition. Krantz's ideas are directly applicable to change resistance and the triggering of Argyris' 'organizational defense patterns' or ODPs.

The most popular approaches to organizational change are "**rational-technical**" such as reinventing government, business process reengineering (BRP), total quality management (TQM), strategic planning, continuous quality improvement, performance management, benchmarking, privatization and even traditional organizational development (OD). Most of these technologies are rational in the sense that they objectify or measure such aspects of organizations as outcomes, outputs, goals, environmental demands and opportunities, strategies, work process, tasks, and resources. Modern organizations are being urged to radically rethink their missions, define their stakeholders and customer, redefine their missions to better serve their clients, and radically restructure old ways of doing business so to become more streamlined, more effective and more efficient. In some cases, this means being downsized in the sense of doing things better with less money and fewer employees or it may mean turning over responsibility for the delivery of some of their services to other organizations.

In the midst of all of these change activities one rarely hears about **organizational psychoanalysis** as a means of bringing about increased personal, group, and organizational performance in public organizations. This may be due to the fact that although psychoanalysis is concerned with objective measures of performance and rational-technical reforms, it goes further to consider the unconscious lives of people in public organizations. As such, it can also be used as a way to deal with the psychic disruption that public employees may experience due to rational-technical changes in an agency's mission, structure, and work activities. Unlike many rational-technical reforms, psychoanalysis reveals that psychic disruption is very often the cause of resistance to organizational change demanded by some of those reforms. **Organizational psychoanalysis** is a powerful approach that

can enhance personal and organizational performance and, at the same time, help to alleviate the psychic stress that public employees may experience in the face of radical **organizational change**. Yet compared to the **rational-technical approaches to organizational change** like those just mentioned, psychoanalysis is not well understood by scholars of organizations or practitioners of organizational change. First, it introduces organizational psychoanalysis. Although not new, the use of psychoanalysis in organizational change efforts is certainly not central to the field. Second, it compares and contrasts psychoanalysis with rational-technical approaches to organizational change. Because **organizational psychoanalysis** focuses on hidden and covert dynamics in organizations, this approach adds value to **rational-technical approaches** that tend to assess the conscious and manifest behaviors of individuals and groups. Third, it specifically addresses the applicability of psychoanalysis to organizational change efforts in the public sector. Psychoanalysis has been used to change both public and private organizations, but because of some of the unique features of public organizations, there are some possible limitations to its use. Some of those limitations, but it will also show how organizational psychoanalysis can be successfully used to improve individual and organizational performance in the public sector. This is particularly important in light of the radical changes in the way government agencies are conducting their business.

In spite of the fact that psychoanalysis has been used to understand organizational issues and improve organizational performance for over 50 years, organizational psychoanalysis is not well understood by clinicians, consultants, or academicians. Perhaps this is not a surprise. Given that psychoanalysis is grounded in assessing unconscious psychodynamic forces, many people have difficulty understanding how such an approach is applicable to organizations. This section offers a general outline of how some central concepts and themes from psychoanalysis may be applied to organizations, based on a review of the work of the following psychoanalytic organizational theorists and practitioners: Howell Baum, Howard Schwartz, Harry Levinson, Abraham Zaleznik, Larry Hirshhorn, A. Wesley Carr, Isabel Menzies Lyth, Anton Obholzer, Elliott Jaques, James Krantz, Manfred Kets de Vries, Roger Lehman, and Michael Diamond.

Organizational psychoanalysis is both similar to but also different from **individual psychoanalysis**. For example, defining the client is different in the organizational as compared to the clinical setting. Whereas the clinical psychoanalyst focuses on the patient's entire subjective experience, in an organization, the client may be defined at several levels—as a particular employee, manager, CEO, department, management group, or entire organization. However, for most organizational psychoanalysts the client tends to be defined at the group or organizational level with a focus on the pattern of relationships between and among

organizational members and departments. Individual issues tend to be addressed only insofar as they affect organizational functioning.

Additionally, in the clinical setting, it is much easier to protect personal anonymity and privacy. In contrast, in an organization, the consultant and the organizational members are more visible to one another, often with added expectations to socialize and discuss organizational issues. As a result, respecting individual privacy while working to improve relationships between individuals and organizational units requires the ability to firmly but sensitively set clear boundaries (Menzies Lyth, 1961/1988).

These differences aside, the assumptions of organizational psychoanalysis parallel those of clinical psychoanalysis. First, people are assumed to feel anxiety in response to change. Cutbacks, mergers, or restructuring, for example, often result in an activation of individual and group anxiety and psychodynamic defenses. More commonly, the lack of clarity in organizational goals, tasks, and superior/subordinate relationships may increase anxiety and activate defensive behaviors. While defenses may be useful in alerting people to the risk of possible changes, if the defense becomes ritualized or institutionalized, individuals and organizations may be unable to cope with or adapt to necessary changes, leading to organizational problems (Diamond, 1993a, 1993b; Hirschhorn, 1988; Jaques, 1957, 1976; Menzies Lyth, 1961/1988). Menzies Lyth, 1961/1988). Therefore, change approaches should consider the ways in which unconscious dynamics may be hindering organizational functioning and the potential success of the changes.

Organizational psychoanalysis seeks to expose the covert defense processes that prevent organizations from realizing their purposes and goals. A good deal of the work in organizational psychoanalysis is focused on surfacing, assessing, and interpreting defensive processes in organizations. By helping organizational members become aware of these institutionalized defenses, members are assumed to become free to consider alternative ways of behaving, communicating, and/or structuring their organizations. Some of the more common **defense mechanisms** observed in organizations include *repression*, *projective identification*, *splitting*, and *introjection*. Repression is evident in organizations in which employees deny that organizational change is occurring despite the fact that jobs are being eliminated, leadership is changing, and morale is low. *Projective identification* is a psychological interaction that is evident when an organizational member—rather than experience his own inadequacy—instead blames and scapegoats a coworker for the organization's problems and then that coworker acts as though he is indeed inadequate in addressing the organizational problems. *Splitting* is a component of projective identification and occurs when organizational members are unable to view themselves and/or their organizations as consisting of both good and bad, healthy and unhealthy, idealized and despised parts. Instead, members may view

their department as “good” and the rest of the organization as “bad” in response to personal or organizational stress and anxiety. *Introjection* occurs when one “takes in” some part of the external world, making it part of oneself. For example, internalizing a leader’s interpersonal skills to facilitate following the leader is an instance of introjection.

To interpret defensive patterns in organizations, the **organizational psychoanalyst** must cultivate many of the same skills used in the clinical setting. The primary tool used by the organizational psychoanalyst is himself or herself. The organizational psychoanalyst must have the ability and strength to hold or contain the anxieties of organizational members until they are able to bear them themselves. The assumption underlying this skill is that the containment of anxiety provides organizational members enough safety to venture change. Containment occurs when the consultant thoughtfully and reflectively listens, hears, and responds to organizational members without spilling his or her own anxieties and defenses onto them. Additionally, the organizational psychoanalyst cultivates an attitude of acceptance, nonjudgmentalism, and active involvement in listening and responding to organizational members—sometimes called the interpretive stance (Shapiro & Carr, 1991). Such an attitude enables the analyst to be involved in the process without personally accepting credit or blame for the outcome. Finally, organizational psychoanalysts must be aware of transference/ countertransference dynamics by developing self-reflection so that they are able to discriminate between their personal defensive predispositions and the organization’s unconscious dynamics. For example, a consultant who leaves a session feeling defensive or angry with a particular organizational member weighs the experience with an awareness of her personal valency—a desire to avoid conflict, for example—to interpret the meaning of the event. The consultant may realize her angry feelings reflect her own personal defenses more than they reflect the organizational psychodynamics. Becoming aware of self-other boundaries is a critical aspect of understanding transference and countertransference.

Because organizational psychoanalysis assumes that all people are at risk of manifesting defensive dynamics during times of stress and change, practitioners of organizational psychoanalysis argue that *public and private organizations are equally at risk of suffering from individual and organizational problems*. Nevertheless, they recognize general differences between public and private organizations. In particular, the nature of public organizations suggests that six issues require special attention: task, autonomy, authority, responsiveness, financial resources, and accountability. Psychoanalysis argues that even if organizations are separated by geography, all members are joined by a sense of relatedness, in other words, by their personal concept of the “institution-in-the-mind” (Diamond, 1991; Shapiro & Carr, 1991). In other words, organizational members are as much connected by

their ideas about the organization as they are by their specific work relationships. They may not be connected to one another personally, but certainly they are via their roles. Shared relatedness, therefore, is “found anywhere projections are at work,” and projections are always at work where people are found (Shapiro & Carr, 1991, p. 84). For example, as citizens, we project fantasies, fears, and wishes on public organizations, including the government, schools, hospitals, and social service agencies. Indeed, some psychoanalysts argue that organizations such as churches and governments have no clearly overt task around which people might coalesce, and therefore are more acutely sensitive and susceptible to human irrationality and dependency (Carr, 1991). Therefore, the psychoanalytic consultant must attend to these unconscious “shared notions in the minds” that citizens hold about what it means to be a part of the organization to increase members’ awareness of the symbolic meaning of the institution.

By attending to these unconscious dynamics, the psychoanalytic consultant seeks to provide a sense of containment for individual and organizational anxieties and defenses so that a determination about which pressures to consider is related to the primary task and not to unconscious defenses or fantasies. Clearly, the bias of psychoanalysis is toward responsiveness. However, efficiency is not neglected but is evident in organizational rules, regulations, and structures that provide containment and security for citizens’ anxieties.

Psychoanalysis, however, does not offer specific suggestions for the containment of the disarticulated state. Although it provides a model for promoting discussions about conflictual issues such as accountability, it does not offer clear direction for solving the problem. Therefore, consultants working with public organizations are wise to combine the psychoanalytic approach with an understanding of organizational, social, and political theory such that they are better prepared to deal with the “wicked problems” that may arise due to the need for accountability in the public sector (H. Baum, personal communication, September 29, 1999; M. Diamond, personal communication, February 15, 1999).

Public organizations face constant pressure to change in response to changes in their political, economic, sociocultural, and technological environments. If, however, they implement rational-technical reforms such as reinvention, reengineering, strategic planning, and so on, they may inadvertently increase organizational members’ **resistance to change**, which may exacerbate their problems rather than ease them. Here we demonstrate that organizational psychoanalysis adds value to technical-rational approaches to change in the following ways. First, it normalizes the feelings of anxiety and stress that increase during times of perceived or actual change. This may reduce the finger-pointing and blaming that frequently signify organizational stress during such times. Second, organizational

psychoanalysis does not enhance individual well-being over that of the organization; nor does it seek to improve organizational functioning at the expense of individual needs.

Instead, the goal is to surface conflicts, defenses, and regressive tendencies endemic to individual and collective behavior within the context of a contained relationship so that solutions may emerge through dialectic thinking and reflective discourse. Third, if change is indeed recommended as a result of this discourse, psychoanalysis recognizes that it will not last without increasing one's understanding of personal and collective predispositions and defenses. Therefore, psychoanalysis provides a valued approach for emphasizing reflection, self-awareness, and responsiveness. Moreover, psychoanalysis contributes to an understanding of public organizations in the following ways. It accepts that tasks are multiple and unclear and provides a way to understand and clarify the primary task(s). Second, it supports the public administration literature regarding the importance of autonomy and provides an approach for examining the permeability of boundaries to cultivate autonomy. Third, it recognizes the relational aspects of authority and contributes to public administration by assessing the interaction between an individual's personal valency and the external manifestations of authority in the organization. Fourth, it transcends the responsiveness versus efficiency issue by attending to the unconscious dynamics that influence which needs are considered while also supporting the use of rules of regulations to contain anxiety and increase efficiency.

Finally, although psychoanalysis is not the appropriate approach for advice on marketing or budgeting advice, it is useful for examining the ways in which task confusion and blurred boundaries may contribute to financial problems. Additionally, whereas psychoanalysis does not provide clear direction for solving the problem of the disarticulated state, by emphasizing clarity in task definition, boundary maintenance, and authority relationships, it may enhance accountability in public organizations.

In sum, organizational psychoanalysis is helpful in illuminating the conscious and unconscious dynamics that influence a public organization's management of tasks, boundaries, authority, autonomy, finances, and accountability. Therefore, by combining organizational psychoanalysis with rational-technical approaches, public organizations may be more successful in risking, tolerating, and sustaining change.

What kind of interventions and basic external and diagnostic tool **psychodynamically oriented organizational consultant** put into practice. Psychoanalytically oriented organization theorists assume that contemplation of such unconscious dynamics among individuals, groups, and organizations is critical to insightful and useful organizational diagnoses. A primary goal of the approach to organizational change presented here is in the clarity and articulation of the or-

ganizational story: a narrative constructed, perpetuated, and owned by organizational members through their thoughts and actions, conscious and unconscious. This approach to change requires that consultants and participants attend to the psychological dynamics and underlying assumptions, experiences, and perceptions shaped by the clients' collective history of organizational culture and leadership. In other words, it demands the consultant's use of self as an instrument of observation and reflection.

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THE SYSTEMIC APPROACH IN SOCIAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY, WHY WE NEED IT? APPLICATIONS IN DIAGNOSE AND INTERVENTION ACTIVITIES

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***Abstract.** When we, as social and organizational psychologists think about conducting diagnostic activities to develop and implement an intervention plan to help client/user's change (e.g. improve performance or environment), we usually follow some specific model according to our knowledge or experience and sometimes based on the client/user needs. This is mostly practiced indeed; however, most of the different models focus only in one determined area (e.g. Socio-Technical or Reengineering). Thus, we can't help to create a sustainable change in some way because "there exist principles and laws that apply to systems [...] irrespective of their particular kind, the nature of their elements, and the relationships or "forces" between them (Von Bertalanffy, 1968)" that some models doesn't consider. For that reason, we really need to reflect on client/user as a whole system and then identify the different subsystems in which we are going to conduct diagnose and intervention activities for having a successfully change. Consequently, a 3 subsystems' model divided in Administrative, Social and Technological as well as its components is presented (Achilles de Faria Mello adaptation). As it will be shown, this model has been used to diagnose and improve the performance in both public and private sector organizations' as well as in social groups, achieving the expected results.*

Keywords: *Diagnosis, Intervention, Organizational Psychology, Systemic Model*

INTRODUCTION

In a professional consultancy everything starts with a demand from our client/user. As soon as our client expresses its needs, an idea of what he would like to change or to improve, we, as Professional Psychologists start to think how we could help our client to achieve its goals.

Of course, we immediately start to search in our background and recover information about theories and models that could be used to support the diagnosis and the intervention program. This is normal and necessary. However, we have to realize sometimes we are using only those models that we know, or models we feel comfortable with, and not precisely the most adequate models to help our client. Somehow we must recognize that several of the models we know just focus in some aspects of the whole organization; then we should point out that there are a few models that could fit better with our clients demands.

Between all those different and most common models we can find reengineering and its famous “Organizational Diamond” model, quality systems models or balance score-card amongst a lot of others. However, those models are process oriented and sometimes does not emphasize the importance of understanding the organization as a whole system, integrated by subsystems, where every element plays a very important role. Even more, those models do not stress the importance of the social-human aspects at organizations.

Certainly, by emphasizing the importance of viewing organizations as systems, we are showing a systemic approach preference when perform consultancy. Undoubtedly, our frame takes into account Von Bertalanffy (1968) systems’ theory. According to this Systems Theory, “there exist principles and laws that apply to systems [...] irrespective of their particular kind, the nature of their elements, and the relationships or forces between them”. In consequence, when we have to decide over the diverse models, we hold those that consider the different interactions between the system elements’ to accomplish an adequate diagnostic and propose an effective intervention program, always willing to walk with our client and reach its goals. Thus, in this view of the importance of each organizational element, with every consultancy activity we try to comprehend our client/user as a whole system, then identify the different subsystems in which we are going to conduct diagnose and later the intervention activities for having a successful change.

Unquestionably, there are a lot of different models derived from the systemic theory. We have for example, French, W., and Bell, C. (1999) Systemic Model, Weisbord six-box model (1976), Mayor Conceptual Elements proposed by Kotter, J. (1978), and so on. However, we considered that all this models match the systemic frame and complement each other. Sometimes we also used those models. However, we took De Faria Mello’s (1995) Model and introduced some small changes in order to generate our own model. Thus, in the next lines we will show how we used that model to perform the diagnosis and the intervention activities as well.

SYSTEMIC MODEL

According to our modified version of De Faria Mello's model (Figure 1), the organization as a system could be divided into three different subsystems: Administrative; Technological; and, Social-Human. The Administrative Subsystem is integrated by all the formal and defined aspects. We can find in this subsystem: Strategy, Organizational Philosophy (Mission, Vision), Goals, Structure, Organizational Processes (Human Resources, Logistics, Production, Distribution, and Marketing among others), job position and tasks definitions, salary and rewards, evaluation, and formal authority to point out some aspects. The Technological Subsystem is integrated by all the IT, data bases, software, infrastructure, buildings, tools, facilities, and the way the organization create and share the know-how they have acquired. Finally, the Social-Human Subsystem includes the entire group and individual aspects like: leadership, informal communication, human relations, negotiation, problem solving and decision making, conflict, team work, personality, psychological climate, values, stress, learning, among others.

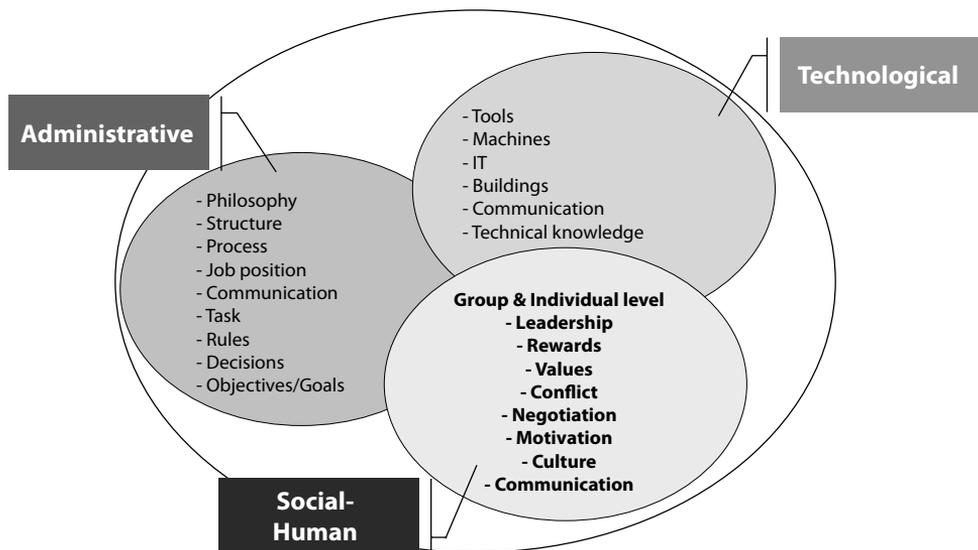


FIGURE 1. MODIFIED VERSION OF DE FARIA MELLO, SYSTEMIC MODEL. SUBSYSTEMS AND SOME ELEMENTS.

Once we clearly identify the manner in which all those elements interact as part of each subsystem and the entire system as well, we can start to hypothesize the way the interactions are creating consequences. Considering that, the design of the diagnostic activities and the path to develop and implement the intervention program can also take place. It is important to notice that every move or

every change we decide to do in one of the elements will impact the whole system. Bearing this in mind, we must carefully choose the diagnoses as well as the intervention tools and activities.

Thus, we will move on to the application of the model. In the next lines three different cases will be presented in order to illustrate how the systemic model was used for the diagnosis and the intervention activities to achieve the expected results.

APPLICATIONS IN DIAGNOSE AND INTERVENTION ACTIVITIES.

CASE A

A local organization determined the following goals as the expected results derived from the consultancy process:

- Improve efficiency and efficacy through administrative modernization & process reengineering (this was considered as organizational development process).
- Increase internal clients' satisfaction.
- Accomplish an adequate Organizational Climate and manage it like a subsystem.
- Implement a Quality System. Then achieve ISO 9001 Certification.

Considering those objectives, we started to identify the possible change-related elements to measure and act on. Then we could determine how to manage the organizational change. According to our systemic model, some of the identified elements are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1. IDENTIFIED ELEMENTS DURING DIAGNOSIS.

Social-Human subsystem	Technological subsystem	Administrative subsystem
Change acceptance	Organizational goals and objectives	Leadership
Equity	Processes	Performance evaluation
Organizational identity	Schedule and workload	Formal communication
Human relations	Salary and rewards	Environment
Cohesion	IT	Job analysis and Job description
	Help desk	Training and development
		Recruitment and selection

Considering the identified elements, the intervention program was designed. Thus, some of the activities took place as part of the intervention per each subsystem, were:

Social-Human subsystem

- ❖ Training and development: we modified the training programs and implement 3 of the 4 levels of evaluation according Kirkpatrick Model (2006). Also, a specific training program to improve the leadership and facilitate the organizational change was created. Some of the positioned workshops were: Leadership, Communicational abilities' development, Emotional intelligence and Team work.
- ❖ Human relations: acting upon work teams, improving communication and consciousness about the interdependence of each activity.
- ❖ Informal communication analysis: to improve the impact and presence of formal communication and create efficient mechanisms in order to share the information with opportunity.

Administrative subsystem

- ❖ Leadership analysis: to improve leadership style depending of each organizational area, congruently with the general leadership model. Participative leadership model where possible.
- ❖ Problem solving and decision making analysis and adjustment where necessary.
- ❖ Process analysis and reengineering, including the implementation of processes indicators.
- ❖ Job analysis and job descriptions: to improve the knowledge of each position and re-assign activities or delimitate employees' performance.
- ❖ Performance evaluation survey: according to the new organizational philosophy
- ❖ Salary and rewards.
- ❖ External users' surveys and internal clients' surveys: as indicators of improvement
- ❖ Organizational climate survey: to monitoring the organizational change, as well as for create a co-responsibility climate and change.

Technology subsystem

- ❖ PCs diagnoses.
- ❖ Help Desk: by improving the process we reduced the time help-desk attended the requests.
- ❖ Infrastructure and facilities updated.
- ❖ Main buildings were remodeled.

Through the process a continuous evaluation was also conducted to assure that the intervention program was addressing the right direction. Finally, to determine if the objectives were accomplished, we used:

External users surveys

- ♣ Internal client surveys
- ♣ Organizational climate survey
- ♣ Internal audit
- ♣ External audit (ISO 9001)

It could be said that the client achieved the goals. Also, as result of this intervention, a process certification (ISO 9001) per each one of its different process was also accomplished. It can be said that this is quite uncommon and more difficult to achieve, generally the organizations obtain the ISO certification per some process in the productive chain and not one certificate per each process (administration, production, logistics and distribution, etc.). Thus, the certification implied an extra effort and more resources, but also a mayor commitment with the organizational change.

CASE B

As well as in the first case, we made some diagnosis and intervention this time with a specific Ministry of the Mexican Government, according the next goals:

- Improve organizational results by improving processes
- To implement a Total Quality System, congruent with the Mexican National Quality Prize, that could led to obtain the ISO 9001 Certification and fulfill the requirements of the Mexican Government Total Quality Prize

According to this, we use the Organizational Development methodology which totally takes into account the systemic theory. Thus, some of the activities (diagnoses and/or intervention) we conducted, per each subsystem, are those shown at Table 2.

TABLE 2. IDENTIFIED ELEMENTS AND ACTIVITIES FOR ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE.

Social-Human subsystem	Technological subsystem	Administrative subsystem
Training Programs Training Evaluation (Kirkpatrick Model) Organizational Climate Employee Profile Organizational culture Work-Life Quality and Equity	Digital Organization Web page redesign ERP implementation New equipment (PC, Laptop, Electronic Boards) Net & communication between regional offices Wireless building New process definition	Organizational strategy Process Reengineering Organizational Handbook (functions and process) Organizational structure (functions and tasks included) Total Quality System Management Competencies-based job descriptions Training and Development Recruitment & Selection Process HHRR Inventory Employee Profile Organizational communication: HHRR Bulletin Equity program

By conducting those different activities, the expected results were reached. It is important to notice that different intervention activities like t-group, quality circles, active participation, among others, were also required.

CASE C

Finally, we used the same model to design the intervention program in one suburb belonging to 1 of the 16 Mexico City District's. The established objectives for this intervention were:

- ❖ Obtain (from local government) public services (light, water, trash collection; deep drainage, paved streets...)
- ❖ Achieve and keep a clean landscape (remove trash and avoid throwing it again)
- ❖ Contribute to reduce intra-familiar violence
- ❖ Contribute to reduce "gangs"

As a result of a long-time intervention, we finally achieved the expected results:

- ❖ Water, Light, Trash, Gas, and deep drainage established.
- ❖ Clean landscape.
- ❖ Culture house (old factory): conferences and different activities for educational, recreational and leisure purposes were conducted there.
- ❖ Non-Violence program (workshops and group-based support).
- ❖ Foundation of a Local Association to monitoring and continuing the activities in order to keep the achieved goals.
- ❖ District's bulletin.

CONSIDERATIONS

It is very important to stress that the systemic approach congruently with our own philosophy of consultancy activities, address to a more collaborative style with active and participant interventions and activities jointly with our client. We believe that this philosophy also helps to increase the client sense of responsibility about the change he wants to reach.

Thus, in general terms, what we consider about the systemic approach could be synthesized as continues:

- ❖ Explains and help to understand the elements' interdependence. Even a small change has repercussions in the whole system. Considering this it is important to calculate the impact of every intervention (including the diagnostic activities). In addition, we should continuously ask which other elements haven't been considered.

- ♣ In order to have a successful intervention and reduce the change resistance, we also have to find the way in which some changes could be effectively done by indirect actions.
- ♣ As it could be figure out, this is a very flexible approach, thus it is open to other theories, techniques and methods that could contribute to create a broader and a more specific picture for diagnose and intervention.
- ♣ It strengths collaboration (we are far from been experts in everything, so we need to work with really experts from different areas like engineering, administrative, economy, architecture, sociology, among others.).
- ♣ Finally, and the most important for us is that successfully contributes to accomplish our client/user requirements.

About the systemic model

- ♣ Is one of the best representations of any organization (system and its elements in interaction).
- ♣ Is broad and flexible.
- ♣ By using this model we could get a really precise picture for diagnose and designing the intervention plan. However, the map is not the territory.

Some other general aspects to consider

Even when we need good tools, techniques and methods, “total” availability of resources is necessary. As we may know, we need also to plan the intervention matching the available resources. However, the lack of resources could impede the change program and could be a source of frustration, and opposition for a deep change. In addition, the full commitment at higher levels is always necessary.

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PEER SUPERVISION WORKSHOP

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***Abstract.** In January 2008 a group of skills training professionals started an “intervention” group. So far the group had 20 regular monthly meetings and one additional two-and-a-half-day event. From the very beginning the purpose and the rules of the group were defined. There were a couple of variations of the way each session is conducted but the purpose and the rules stayed the same. This workshop will demonstrated to you how do we conduct the sessions and also we would be ready to answer your questions.*

Keywords: *Supervision, peer, skills, training, group.*

HISTORY

The author of the workshop tried a couple of times during '90-ies to form a group of peers, working as professional skills trainers¹. The idea was that we need some professional feedback and support in order to be real professionals, working the area of human development. Since there was no organized structure to provide such a service, we decided to do it ourselves. The first two attempts failed after only a couple of meetings. Obviously the participants did not find it important enough – just working on your professional performance, without receiving any direct benefits – qualification insignia, better access to markets or public approval.

¹ Skills training – an interactive training for adults during which different skills, mostly social and managerial, are developed through simulations, role-plays, games, individual and group exercises.

At the 2007 Annual meeting of the Bulgarian Psychological Society, during one the discussions the author of the workshop and the other first two members decided to try again. To establish an “intervision group” that should help professionals maintain their performance standards and prevent “burn-outs.”

“PEER CONSULTATION’ DEFINED

Arrangements in which peers work together for mutual benefit are referred to as peer supervision or peer consultation. Peer consultation, however, may be the more appropriate term to describe a process in which critical and supportive feedback is emphasized while evaluation is deemphasized. Consultation, in contrast to supervision, is characterized by the counselor’s “right to accept or reject the suggestions [of others]” (Bernard & Goodyear, 1992, p. 103). Yet, the terms “peer supervision” and “peer consultation” both can be used to describe similar nonhierarchical relationships in which participants have neither the power nor the purpose to evaluate one another’s performance.”¹

The procedure

Since the very beginning the purpose of the group was defined: “to provide interactive training professionals to exchange experience and receive structured feedback on specific cases from their practice as wells as feedback on their overall professional performance.” (See the original invitation for the fist session of the group – Appendix I.)

The procedure of the sessions was pre-designed, established at the first session and later maintained during almost all sessions. In a couple of cases the procedure was slightly changed, in order to better serve the current needs of the group. Still, the general style of discussion was kept at each and every session. There were no pre-defined solutions. There was no pressure to make “decisions” or “conclusions” about the presented cases. Participants shared their experiences, similar to the case presented, but refrained from judging and advice giving.

At the end of each session participants are invited to evaluate the session. Then a decision on the next session is taken. The facilitator is responsible for preparing a protocol, which is usually distributed to all members (even the ones not present at the session) before the next session.

The management

The group has no clear leadership. The roles are rotated. There is no one single member, who was present at all sessions. The decisions – who should be the next

¹ **Peer Consultation as a Form of Supervision**, Benshoff, James M., 1994-04-00, Source: ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Student Services Greensboro NC.

facilitator, who should be the host of the meeting, and who should present a case – are taken by consensus. In most of the cases somebody is volunteering to do one of the roles the next time.

A couple of times the purpose, the routine and the membership of the group were discussed. Still, no clear reasons for major changes were found. The group came up with a further development of the rules six-seven sessions after its beginning. The new rules concerned the membership in the group and stated once again the confidentiality of the information shared during sessions. (See Appendix II)

RESULTS – WHY DO WE DO IT?

At the end of each session participants are invited to evaluate the session. Very often the participants share that they learned something new, had an insight or refreshed some “well-forgotten” ideas. Almost in all cases, participants shared their satisfaction with the atmosphere and the opportunity to discuss issues in a professional, non-competitive, non-judgmental environment.

We believe that this type of work provides a number of benefits to its members:

- a safe environment to share concerns and problems;
- a professional feedback on performance, moral/ professional dilemmas or just personal concerns (related to training);
- a place to exchange ideas, information and practical help – tools, materials, etc.;
- an environment encouraging continuous learning;
- a place for emotional support.

So far we do not have any data beyond evaluation of the sessions concerning the impact of the group on our professional daily life and performance.

Relations with other groups/ institutions

From the very beginning the group members stated that they do not need to belong to a formal organization (e.g. Bulgarian Association of Applied Psychology, Bulgarian Psychological Society or Bulgarian Association for Human Resource Management and Development, although many of the members of the group are members of one or another of the mentioned organizations). Another peer supervision group was formed by the spring of 2008 but it had only 5–6 sessions and stopped meeting. Currently the members of the first group discuss if we need to establish formal relations with other groups or institutions but there are no conclusive opinions.

CONCLUSION

The “intervision” group already has more than year and a half existence and is valued by its members. It is voluntary and self-managed group that brings value to each and every individual member. That would allow us to conclude that for the time being this is an appropriate form of supervision for professionals in the area of interactive skills training for adults.

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Appendix I

INTERVISION GROUP

Dear colleagues,

We have the pleasure to invite you at the first meeting of an intervision group, which will take place on 29.01.2008, from 18.30 at the office of the Bulgarian Association for Applied Psychology, 47 Ekzarh Josif street.

The purpose of the meeting is to provide interactive training professionals to exchange experience and receive structured feedback on specific cases from their practice as well as feedback on their overall professional performance.

We invite colleagues, who have at least 100 hours personal group experience and at least 800 hours practice as trainers. This group could have up to 12 members. In case a greater number of professionals are interested, we could organize additional groups. Currently members of the group are Milena Mihajlova, Elena Altimirska and Nikola Yordanov.

The group will meet at regular monthly sessions of 90 minutes each. In a rotation each member will take the role of a facilitator, case presenter or a participant. Facilitator of the first session will be Nikola Yordanov. Elena Altimirska will present a case. The facilitator takes the responsibility to take notes and later provide all the participants with the proceedings from the meeting.

Agenda of the first meeting

18.30 – 18.40 Formal introduction – goal, philosophy and way of work, introduction of participants

18.40 – 18.50 Ice-breaker

18.50 – 19.20 Case presentation – Elena

19.20 – 19.50 Structured discussion for providing feedback and sharing similar experiences

19.50 – 20.00 Selection of the next facilitator and case presenter

In case you are interested, please, contact us at ...

Appendix II

NEW VERSION OF THE RULES

03.10.2008

(Samples, part of the information is identical to the first document)

...

The case presented does not include introduction of new techniques, simulations or articles, although sometimes we need to clarify some concepts. As a rule we do not discuss market issues or regulation of the market/ profession.

The role of the facilitator is to follow the procedure and manage the group process. It is the obligation of the facilitator to prepare a short report of the session (usually one to three pages) including the case, the participants, main statements/ conclusions and information for the next session. Still, the facilitator is mostly managing the process, not just note-taking. Reports are sent to all participants.

During the discussions we do not mention names of companies and individuals discusses. We guarantee professional confidentiality on sensitive information shared in the group.

Due to the specifics of our work, we stop sending protocols to members, who were not present for three consecutive sessions, unless there were extraordinary circumstances. Members who inform us on time for their absence and state further interest in the group could be absent more than three times and still receive the protocols.

...

Our methodology includes:

- A) Sharing the case;
- B) Clarifying the case;
- C) Providing feedback, based on personal experience;
- D) We try to generalize or make conclusions but that is not obligatory, the group does not enforce decisions or opinions to individuals members;
- E) Leadership/ facilitation of the group is rotational;
- F) In case some changes in the next session arrangements have to be done (date, place or case) it is the responsibility of the facilitator to make the arrangement and inform everybody else.

**PAPERS OF SYMPOSIUM 7:
DISASTER MANAGEMENT**

PECULIARITIES IN REPORTING THE BESLAN HOSTAGE CRISIS IN THE RUSSIAN NEWSPAPER IZVESTIYA

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Abstract: *The present article deals with the comparative analysis of the materials reporting events in Beslan in the Izvestiia newspaper during the period 02.09.2004 – 02.10.2004. It establishes the number and pattern of distribution of the articles reporting on terrorism throughout the period. The major events of terrorist nature are analysed. The article studies the characteristic features of media language. It also outlines the scope of media topics. The metaphors used in naming various terrorist events are specified, as well as the synonyms signifying the terrorists. The article analyses the parallels with historical events from the past year.*

Keywords: *Terrorism, Beslan, content analysis, newspapers, violence*

INTRODUCTION

Media coverage of terrorism makes it a part of people's lives. Such messages, threats and acts of violence have a strong psychological impact on the audience because they appear suddenly, can affect everyone and people feel insecure about their present and future. According to Stoitsova and other researchers the lack of clarity regarding the concept of terrorism in the philosophical, political and intercultural plan leads to the use of different metaphors in the coverage of terrorist events. Thus, it facilitates the public in its efforts to reflect unusual events that occur in reality (Stoitsova *et al.*, 2004; 2005; 2005).

The press occupies an important place in the coverage of terrorist threats. When it is of a high professional level, it plays the important role of a mediator, which reduces the stress caused by the news, reflecting the terrorist events.

METHODOLOGY

The main method that is used in the study is the content analysis. The articles are selected by the keyword *terrorism* and they are subjected to expert evaluation.

This analysis includes a study of the peculiarities of the media language and establishes the distribution pattern of the articles during the month (during October, 2004).

The next step in the analysis consists in determining the metaphors used to name the terrorists and terrorism events and activities. The synonyms labelling the perpetrators of terrorist acts are also studied.

Another step in the analysis is associated with determining the leading topics in the articles describing terrorist acts and the references to historical events – from the present and the past.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

What do the results show? The events in Beslan are covered in the *Izvestiia* newspaper since the very beginning of the crisis situation. And the interest in the subject remains until and even after the end of the crisis. Reflective articles (describing the events) and descriptive articles (informing about the protection measures undertaken by the authorities) follow alternate according to the development of the situation.

Fig. 1 shows the distribution pattern of the articles concerning the event. In comparison with Bulgarian newspapers the peaks in the distribution are much higher and more clearly expressed.

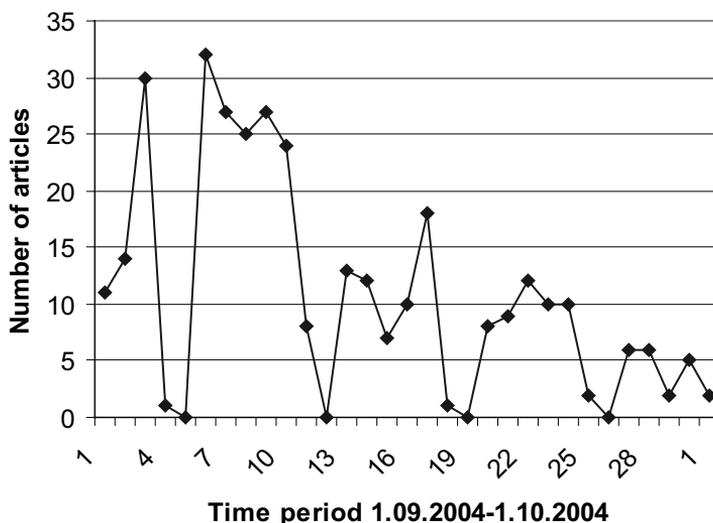


FIGURE 1. DISTRIBUTION PATTERN OF ARTICLES IN THE IZVESTIYA NEWSPAPER, REFLECTING THE EVENTS IN BESLAN DURING 01.09.2004 – 01.10.2004

Specificity of the media language and style

The style of the *Izvestiia* newspaper is formal and moderate. The tone is controlled, although very grim. The focus of the articles is on the protection measures undertaken by the Russian authorities against the terrorists in Beslan. A great variety of metaphors in the description of the terrorist act is observed. The tragedy is presented in black and white, no colour photos are published. The number of photographs is limited.

Many publications of the team led by Stoitsova establish the extensive use of metaphors in the coverage of terrorist events (Stoitsova *et al.*, 2004; 2005; 2005).

Dan and colleagues record the fact that the press is used for different media language and metaphors in a description of terrorist acts and counter-terrorism. Our study confirmed those results.

The *Izvestiia* newspaper are used a wider variety of metaphors in comparison with Bulgarian newspapers. They are focused on the types of terrorist events such as *seizure, attack, terrorist act*, etc. Others describe the events in Beslan with words such as *reaction, situation*, etc. There is a gradation in the use of such metaphors. For example, from *a situation* to *a complex situation* and to the culmination of *an emergency*. Or *a terrorist act, a heinous terrorist act* to *inhuman terrorist act*. The Russian newspaper lacks expressive metaphors typical for Bulgarian newspapers such as *a bloodbath, bloody attack, slaughter*, etc (Table1).

While the events are considered such as *war* between the Orthodox Russia and the Chechen terrorists.

TABLE 1. METAPHORS USED IN THE IZVESTIYA NEWSPAPER

metaphors	seizure, attack, assault, response, crisis situations, complex situations, emergency, tragedy, terrible tragedy, tragic events, terrible events, accident, terrorist act, inhumane act of terrorism, heinous act of terrorism, the tragic events, war, total, cruel, full-scale war
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Daniel Pipes in his article *They are Terrorists, not Soldiers and Rebels* analyses the use of ambiguous synonyms defining the terrorists as soldiers, rebels, etc.

The *Izvestiia* newspaper uses a wider variety of synonyms in comparison with Bulgarian newspapers. They are characterized by national, ethnic and gender identity. There are synonyms that coincide with those used in Bulgarian newspapers: terrorist attackers, kidnappers, Chechen terrorists and etc. It is interesting to note the complex synonyms that appear in *Izvestiia*, such as *warriors-thugs, gangsters-Arabs, women-shahidki*. It is also interesting that the perpetrators of the attack are identified as part of a terrorist organization: *armed groups, gangster troops* etc. (Table 2). In the same time, the events in Beslan are considered such as war between Orthodox Russia and Chechen terrorists.

The thematic analysis of the *Izvestiia* newspaper shows a common theme with the one indicated by the research of Stoitsova *et al.* – namely, “*Time and*

History” (Stoitsova *et al.* 2004, 2005a, 2005b). It includes “Violence and Victims in Beslan”, “Russian Antiterrorist Measures”, “Putin, Power and Terrorism”, “U.S. and European Position against the Violence in Beslan”, “Chechen Terrorism and the Fight against it”, “ The International Solidarity”.

TABLE 2. FREQUENTLY USED SYNONYMS SIGNIFYING THE TERRORISTS

synonyms	terrorists, ttackers, kidnappers, suicide terrorist, shahidi, shahidki, armed group, hijackers, Chechen terrorists, Chechen, chechenki, fighters, women-shahidki, warriors-thugs, gangsters-Arabs, armed groups, gang, tough group, killers, monsters
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It is observed that in comparison with the Bulgarian newspapers here some of the topics are focused mainly on the domestic policy of Russia and the fight against the Chechen terrorism. The presented themes include the Russian geo-strategic objectives in the Caucasus, relations between Russia and United States and between Russia and China. It is also mentioned relations between Russia and Chechnya, the conflicts in the North Ossetia – Ingushetia, Chechnya, Georgia – South Ossetia etc.

The frequent mention of name of Putin and the specificity of his government is also interesting. It is paid special attention to the consolidation of Putin’s policy against terrorism and the introduction of new anti-crisis management system in the country.

Historical references are made to the events of the near and more distant past. Some of them are related to the contemporary events. These include various terrorist acts on the Russian border. For example, the terrorist attacks in the city of Budyonovsk, the attack in the stadium of Grozny, the terrorist act in the Moscow theatre “*Dubrovka*”, the attacks at the subway station *Rizhskaya*, two terrorist acts against two Russian planes that took-off from the Moscow airport “*Domodedovo*”, the sinking of the *Kursk* submarine, the events in Chernobyl, the war between North Ossetia and Ingushetia in 1992, the conflict in Nagorni-Karabakh, the political relations between Russia and Georgia, the pacification of Chechnya, the situation in North Caucasus, the attack in Dagestan in 2000, the global war on terrorism, etc.

The events of the world history from the recent past (11th September, the war in Iraq) and the distant past (World War II(Hitler’s regime, Stalin’s regime, Molotov – the Ribentrop Pact), the Cold War, the War in Vietnam, the French history (Napoleon Bonaparte) are also mentioned.

Special attention is paid to the history of the Byzantium Empire (the reign of emperor Nikephoros Phocas and his war with the Arabs, the relations between Byzantium and the Arab world, a portrait of the Byzantine Patriarch Polievkt).

Special attention is paid to the Christian history (the image of Christ as the Messiah, the Christianity of Russia, the history of the Russian Orthodox Church, the first Russian saints Theodore and John, the personality of the Russian Princess Olga).

The history of Islam is also largely present (the personality of Mohammed and his study of the Koran, jihad or the holy war of Muslims)

References also include literature references, mainly referring to the Bible (the Apocalypse) and the Koran (references to some major Suri), Russian classical literature ("*War and Peace*"), mythology (the image of the god Janus), etc.

Parallels are drawn between fascism and terrorism, between drug barons in Latin America and Islamic terrorists.

On the other hand there are parallels between Russia and Israel, Russia and America in their fight against terrorism.

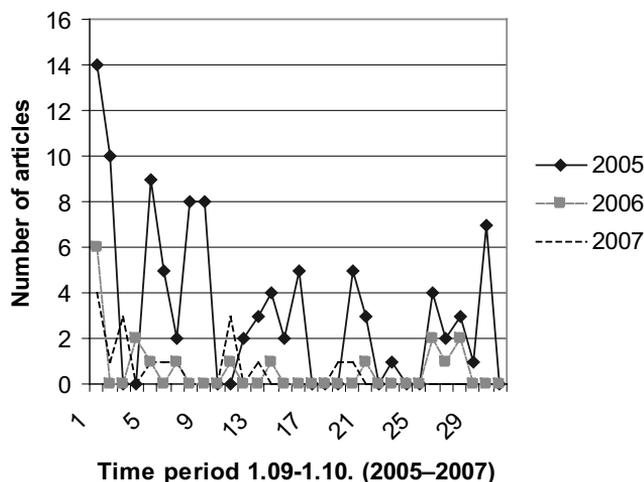


FIGURE 2. DISTRIBUTION PATTERN OF ARTICLES IN THE IZVESTIYA NEWSPAPER, REFLECTING THE EVENTS IN BESLAN IN THE PERIOD 01.09.2004-01.10.2005/2007

In the period between 2005 and 2007 the interest in the events of Beslan start to wane. This attenuation occurs much more slowly than in Bulgarian newspapers. This is explained by the great national trauma of Russia, which takes much more time to heal. And in the three years the first of September was associated with the brutal violence in Beslan. On this date in 2005, the event was recalled in 14 articles. In 2006 – in 6 articles, and in 2007 – in 4 articles.

In 2005 the interest in the events of Beslan remained. A few peaks in the coverage are noticed again, and the last peak was observed at the end of the pe-

riod. The emphasis is shifted from the main themes of the tragedy to its consequences.

In 2006 a decrease in the interest in the events of Beslan is observed. Nevertheless, the period begins with a strong start and recollection of the tragedy. The main topics are related to the victims in Beslan and the actions of the mothers of Beslan.

In 2007 the interest in the event is strongly reduced. The main topics are related to preserving the memory of the tragedy in Beslan and remembering the lessons learned from it.

CONCLUSION

We may conclude that the survey results of the survey show an extensive use of metaphors in the description of terrorism in the press which aims to assist the audience in comprehending this complex concept which is difficult to define. It is also found that the emphasis of the articles in the *Izvestiia* newspaper is placed on the measures against terrorism. This is probably related to the necessity to balance and calm public opinion in a situation of terrorist act.

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INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE IN FIRST PSYCHOLOGICAL AID AFTER MAJOR DISASTER EVENTS AND BUILDING A NATIONAL STRATEGY

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***Abstract.** FPA/first psychological aid/ is more than 100 years history. Present days is marked by the frequency occurrence of numerous disasters. There is a sharp increase in the number of big crisis events, not only worldwide, but also in Bulgaria. Natural, industrial, and disasters provoked by the human being, such as wars, terrorist attacks, industrial accidents, transportation accidents and etc. produce a disruption of social functions, acute stress reactions and causes of psychological disorders. Although the evaluation and care of physical trauma is a priority, experience has clearly shown a need to provide psycho-social care to the victims, their family and close friends, care workers and citizens in general. A crisis situation provokes a psychological exhaustion in those involved that leaves them unable to answer to face up to the new situation, breaking the feeling of safety, control and trust in others, also contribute to the appearance of post-traumatic stress reaction and disorder. Based on an analysis of the European and international experience in this field the present paper proposes a variant to organize a Bulgarian system for psychological assistance in the major crisis events.*

INTRODUCTION

EU

An European policy paper concerning different aspects of psycho-social support for people involved in major accidents and disasters. "Psycho-Social Support in Situations of Mass Emergency" Ministry of Public Health, Brussels, Belgium, 2001.

EFPA Standing Committee on Disaster

Since the General Assembly meeting in Dublin, July 1997, EFPA has had a Task Force or working group on Disaster and Crisis Psychology. After the General assembly in Granada, July 2005 a Standing Committee on Disaster, Crisis and Trauma Psychology was established.

France

CUMP means “Medico-Psychological Emergency Team” associated and released by SAMU, regional medical organisation. This organisation is allowing the hospital emergency team to move to the scene of catastrophic event and put in emergency medical station Structure. The different CUMP units are made up by specialists in providing psychical care such as psychiatrists, psychologists and nurses who are trained to deal with emergency situations and coordinated by a psychiatrist appointed by the Prefect, in every department. The coordinator has to make sure that a certain number of voluntary psychiatrists, nurses and psychologists will be available at all times, handling the requests of the SAMU, in cooperation with them. There are permanent CUMP units made up by a psychiatrist, a psychologist and a secretary working part-time, which allow the hospital emergency team to move to the scene of the catastrophic event and to set up an emergency medical station. Two members of the CUMP units are on call every day, a psychiatrist and a psychologist or a nurse, ready for an emergency intervention. Other members would be called in if the number of victims was high and progressive operation plans are based on the number of psychologically injured people. If necessary, some members of others cump around Paris are able to help.

Various operations of clinical activities are possible: Immediate intervention on site,

Post-immediate intervention on site or at hospital, Round about intervention: rescuers supporting, Referral to others medical services, No intervention, Immediate intervention at hospital. Operational activities during 2008: 37 interventions.

Spain

Association of Psychologist in Madrid /COP-M/ representing more than 9 500 registered psychologists. It is one of the largest national psychologist association in the world.

Through 1999 within COP-M was created Work Team fro Psychological Intervention in Emergencies and Catastrophes. This team organized specialized training program from 1999 onward divided into two levels:

Basic training consisting “Postgraduate Course in Psychology in Emergencies”

Advanced training, consisting “Specialist Course and Catastrophes” which included more than 200 hours of theory and practice.

This training structure made possible for more than 200 psychologists to be trained in this area. Over the year this practice established good professional interaction between Madrid Regional Government, COP-M and Madrid –112 Coordination Center.

After the Madrid train station terrorist attack on March 11, 2004 – 948 volunteer psychologist coordinated by the COP-M together more than 100 psychologist employed by the local and regional governments of Madrid as well as by the Ministry of the Interior and by the Red Cross attended to the wounded families of victims and emergency workers/police, firefighter, medical staff/ more than 5 000 intervention of direct attention, 18 500 telephone calls and 188 home visits were carried out to attended to psychological emergencies.

Nearly after Madrid-Barajas plane crash on August 20, 2008 183 psychologists and 19 group coordinators collaborated in the event, providing uninterrupted support during 1.650 hours. The support mechanism worked for 10 days in 4 different locations

The Madrid Psychologists Association provided support to relatives through a mechanism of psychological care focused on keeping the relatives. Cooperation between different organizations and collectives involved such as Samur, Civil Defence, the Red Cross, private organizations and various Psychologists Associations was very good in most cases apart from the Official Coordinator of the General Council of Psychologists Associations, due to the excessive protagonism of the Madrid Psychologists Association.

Germany

Stiftung Mayday was founded in 1994 to support pilots and their dependents in distress. The actual occasion for the founding of the charity was a fatal accident at Berlin-Schönefeld airport in 1994 involving the Russian test pilot Alexander S. Vyatkin who died without leaving any provision for his family. Mayday is working independently of aviation organizations and airlines and follows the standards of ICISF. It is an official CISM-Organization for the aviation-community in Germany and therefore accredited by the United Nations (UNO) and the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC). The purpose of this charitable organization was to support aviators and their families through times of crisis. This support is both material and spiritual in nature and is forthcoming regardless of cause, blame or judicial outcome. Stiftung Mayday in cooperation with the “Vereinigung Cockpit” (VC, German ALPA) introduced it to German aviation in 1998, by training pilots to become peers. These efforts were strongly supported by Deutsche Lufthansa (DLH), and with this support Stiftung Mayday was able to establish a CISM-organization for German aviation. Mayday also

organizing several trainings for voluntary candidates bases of CISM support measures. The Mayday Foundation maintains a network of qualified psychologists and colleagues who have themselves suffered similar experiences to give support after critical or highly stressful incidents and/or accidents. Today this CISM-organization has 300 members, organized in CISM-Teams. The CISM-Teams are not only supporting all holders of a pilot license, but furthermore all flight-crews, as in most cases only the complete crew can help to work out the critical incidents. To be able to react fast, the members of the CISM-Teams can be reached via an emergency hotline. Stiftung Mayday working in close cooperation with most of the German airlines and aviation organizations is agreed upon (LH, VC, LTU, dba, TUIfly, LCAG, LFT, AOPA, DAeC, et.al.). Personal exchange of experiences with US-American CISM-Teams takes place regularly. Stiftung Mayday statistics 2008: 167 events/2007: 150 – resulting 503 CISM measures.

USA

The International Critical Incident Stress Foundation, Inc. (ICISF) is a non-profit, open membership foundation dedicated to the prevention and mitigation of disabling stress through the provision of: Education, training and support services for all Emergency Services professions; Continuing education and training in Emergency Mental Health Services for Psychologists, Psychiatrists, Social Workers and Licensed Professional Counselors; and Consultation in the establishment of Crisis and Disaster Response Programs for varied organizations and communities worldwide. Any emergency service organization or individual connected with an emergency service may use the 24-hour Hotline to call for assistance or information: location and contact numbers for a CISM team during an emergency and distresses emergency workers and they need guidance in working through the stress.

Current teams as of May 11, 2009: There are 719 teams in the *HOTLINE* database. ICISF had over 500 approved instructors, offers 30 different one or two-day courses to over 30,000 people a year around the globe. The organizations that used CISM in Aviation are: Delta Airlines, Lufthansa Airlines, and German Air Traffic controllers, American Airlines, US Airways, United Airlines, EUROCONTROL, Federal Aviation Administration, German Air Force, Navy and Army.

Turkey

Turkish Psychology Association /TPA/ has approximately 1600 members from all over the country. The membership includes psychologists working in different applied settings and in various universities. TPA were setting professional training program for PFA /psychological first aid/, like: Training on PFA following disas-

ters, Training and Supervision on Psychological Debriefing, Trauma Psychology and settled Psychological Support Project for the Children and Families Affected by the 1999 Marmara Earthquake in collaboration with the Prime Ministry Crisis Management Headquarters and UNICEF.

Bulgaria

Bulgaria isn't isolated from major disaster event. The last was on 05.09.2009 were 15 Bulgarian tourist drowned in the Ohrid lake. Therefore it is necessary to implement an intervention plan for crisis situations from the very first moment, starting from the initial contact with the accompaniment, providing resources, emotional support and minimising the psychological impact suffered. Restoring control through the organisation of work groups co-ordinated for action and information will reduce the number of traumatic experiences. Some other proposed measures like the evaluation of psychological wellbeing, level of knowledge about situation, resources available and control of acute stress can make up for some of the victims needs. The development of good social practices has two preconditions: National scientific research in the examined area; and sufficient number of qualified specialists.

The research in the field of crisis psychological intervention in Bulgaria has begun in the 70s and 80s years of the past century after a strong earthquake and several production damages and accidents had happened. Immediately after the critical events, experts from the Central psychological laboratory of the Bulgarian academy of science and the Department of Psychology of the Sofia University "St. Kliment Ohridsky" under the guidance of Professor Georgi Yollov have conducted a number of investigations and field work. The results achieved complement and expand the knowledge of Bulgarian psychologists on the reactions and behavior of various groups of people in critical situations – different in age, social, ethnical and religious origin. This provides for the institutions and the specialists who work in the field of crisis intervention to take into consideration the national peculiarities and to gain a better effect in their work. Academic courses on crisis intervention are carried out in the universities of Sofia and Plovdiv.

There is sufficient number of qualified and trained specialists in this field in our country. They are working in some of the major national institutions – the Military Medical Academy, the Institute of Psychology under the Ministry of Interior, the National Transport Hospital and the State Agency for Child Protection under the Council of Ministers. Since 2001 within the Institute for Social Integration has been established the Service for Psychological Help and Support. Well-trained and qualified specialists are working in the non-governmental organizations as well. That's how the idea of establishing a special section under the Bulgarian Psychological Society has emerged. Its goal is to

elaborate a National Strategy for psychological help and support in critical situations.

The Project has to focus on the need of legislative changes, namely the Disaster Protection Law, in order to regulate the crisis psychological intervention as part of the Single Rescue System and the integration of these activities in the National program for disaster protection. The financing of this activity should be consistent with the regulations of the Disaster protection Law on municipal, regional and national level.

We suggest, the Bulgarian Psychological Society, in particular the “Crisis intervention” section to be responsible for the planning, organization and guidance of the activities and to monitor the training and debriefings of the teams.

One of the main Project goals is to assesses disaster and analyze victim’s reaction and appropriate psychological interventions. The Project will also prioritize the groups and decide which groups will have psychosocial care and when:

Individual psychosocial counseling with high risk rescue workers or health professionals.

Group counseling for the groups at less risk for post-traumatic problems.

Consulting-hour (via telephone) for groups with less risk. When they have a problem or a question they have an easy way to have access to mental health professionals.

Registration of affected and involved professionals is important to offer care in the first phases of a disaster, but also to have a register of which place they worked during the disaster (exposure to possible toxic chemicals). Stress management and psycho-social support for emergency responders and other staff who respond to mass emergencies is very important.

The coordination of Crisis team should be carried out by trained specialists through the European harmonized number for emergency calls 112. The activities of the different teams should be coordinated by a senior coordinator specialist in psychological help and support in critical situations. At this stage, it should be enough to establish local crisis teams in the big towns – regional and administrative centers. The teams should consist of 5 experts, each of them available for 2 weeks a month with one expert as a reserve.

Transportation and financial means /daily allowance and sleeping accommodation/ should be provided. In cases of events with large dimensions, the teams situated in other regional towns could provide support, as the territory of Bulgaria is not so large.

An important element of the Strategy is the excellent collaboration and coordination between the teams for crisis intervention and other professionals – from the civil protection service, the police, the fire-brigade, and the medical services.

Our suggestion for the Crisis response plan consists following 4 parts:

A. Pre-Incident – Preparation and planning

- ♣ Selection criteria for workers and leaders
- ♣ Management training
- ♣ Peer support group training
- ♣ Establish network with other organization and experts
- ♣ Action plan – when, who, how, what

B. Acute phase

- ♣ Assessment of incident and level of stress
- ♣ Victims identification
- ♣ Practical support
- ♣ Support group deployment
- ♣ Press and media contact
- ♣ Information within and outside department

C. After incident: short term goals

- ♣ Practical support – transport, food, safety
- ♣ Information
- ♣ Defusing
- ♣ Debriefing
- ♣ Relatives and spouse support
- ♣ Give recognition
- ♣ Press management and protection
- ♣ Follow-up mental health consultation

D. After incident: long term

- ♣ Evaluation
- ♣ Update or change plans
- ♣ Follow-up for individuals and groups
- ♣ Support research
- ♣ Staff debriefing

The first psychological aid is very well accepted by the human population and decreases the development of psychosomatic illnesses. But Crisis intervention has to be performed on high professional level, and most important by preliminarily selected and good trained specialists. Development and equalization of the standards for FPA should be results of sharing experience and active cooperation between specialists, and must be based on the European Policy .This kind of help has to be a priority on The State.

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CAPACITY BUILDING FOR DISASTER PSYCHOSOCIAL SERVICES THROUGH INTERNATIONAL COLLABORATIONS: EXAMPLES FROM TURKEY

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***Abstract.** Traumatic events are generally recognized by their dangerous and overwhelming nature and by their sudden force that is beyond the usual limits and threat the functioning of an individual, a group or the entire community. In large-scale disasters, the range, urgency and intensity of human needs and the level of disorganization go beyond the capacity of regular community psychosocial service resources so that they become unable to cope. The situation requires the implementation of a comprehensive psychosocial service response system to meet the multidimensional needs of the affected community. The south east of the world has many times been an arena for such coming natural and human-made disasters. Throughout the years of dealing with various traumatic incidents, mental health professionals from the countries in this part of the world gained considerable experience in terms of disaster psychological services. All of these imply a strong base for the creation of networks and exchange of experience among these countries to establish culturally-tailored psychosocial models. In the current paper, two examples of such international networking and collaboration – one between Turkey and Bulgaria and the other between Turkey and Pakistan – will be introduced.*

***Keywords:** disaster, psychosocial services, capacity building, international collaboration*

INTRODUCTION

In the case of complex emergencies, communities, as well as individuals and families, can continue to feel the effects of such events for many years after they have occurred as they can bring about various losses. The common feature of these events is that they challenge communities by disrupting or depleting their resources (Psychosocial Working Group, 2003).

The high level of traumatic stress after a disaster is a product of the multiplicity of “disaster related traumatic experiences” rather than magnitude of the disaster, itself. Traumatic stress, in such situations, is usually an outcome of the cumulative impact of multiple disaster stressors and their subsequent secondary effects (Azarian and Gregorian, 1998).

Psychosocial well-being can be affected by disasters in a number of different ways. Three key domains have been identified through which these effects can be understood:

- (a) Reduction of the human capacity due to depression, withdrawal from social life or physical disabilities;
- (b) Disruption of the social ecology of a community, social relations and the functioning of social institutions and organizations;
- (c) Disruption of the culture and values of communities when common values are challenged (Psychosocial Working Group, 2003).

Considering the effects of disasters on individuals and their communities, the need for developing and implementing culturally-relevant disaster psychosocial services becomes clear. Psychosocial services contribute to the psychosocial well-being of individuals and their communities by promoting human capacity and the social ecology or contributing to people’s efforts to re-construct their lives (Psychosocial Working Group, 2003).

A consensus report was published by the International Society for Traumatic Stress Studies outlining the guidelines for developing trauma services. The report underlines the idea that a service which is based on the values that provide security and safeguard of the customs and traditions of the community is going to be effective (Weine et al., 2002).

Baron (2006) suggests a comprehensive framework for the development of psychosocial and mental health programs in developing countries during or after disasters. In this framework there is a strong emphasis on (a) the assessment of the needs, problems, resources and capacities at individual, family and community levels; (b) addressing those needs and problems at all levels through the empowerment of the community by building upon its inner resources and capacities; and (c) consideration of the context, culture and capacities of the community.

IMPORTANCE OF INTERNATIONAL COLLABORATIONS FOR CAPACITY BUILDING IN TIMES OF DISASTERS

In large-scale disasters, the range, urgency and intensity of human needs and the level of disorganization go beyond the capacity of regular community psychosocial service resources so that they become unable to cope. The situation requires the implementation of a comprehensive psychosocial service system to meet the multidimensional needs of the affected community (Minister of Supply and Services Canada, 1990). Psychosocial capacity building efforts become very important at this point.

Capacity, which may also be described as capability, is defined as the combination of all the strengths, resources (physical, institutional, social or economic) and personal or collective attributes (e.g. leadership, management etc.) available within a community that can reduce the level of risk, or the effects of a disaster. Thus, capacity building is defined as the efforts aimed to develop human skills or societal infrastructure within a community needed to reduce the level of disaster-related risk and includes the development of resources at different levels and sectors of the society” (UN/ISDR, 2007; 2009).

According to the Urban Capacity Building Network capacity building incorporates actions in three important domains (Global Development Research Center, 2009).

Human resource development: providing the individuals with the knowledge and skills that enables them to perform effectively.

Organization development: improving the management structures, processes and procedures both within and between organizations and sectors.

Development of an enabling environment: structuring institutional and legal frameworks adopting a policy that enables the effective functioning of the organizations and agencies at all levels.

Through capacity building, the disaster-affected communities become capable of enduring the psychosocial services and effectively handling the coming disasters after the external support providers leave (Dodge, 2002)

The south east of the world has many times been an arena for natural and human-caused disasters. The experience-based knowledge, accumulated throughout the years of dealing with various traumatic incidents in this part of the world, constitutes a strong base for the creation of networks and exchange of experience among these countries to establish culturally-tailored disaster psychosocial models.

The accumulation of knowledge and experience resulting from the work in the field of disasters and psychological trauma in Turkey (for a detailed overview see Yilmaz & Gökler-Danisman, 2009) have equipped the national mental health professionals to participate in international collaborations in the aftermath of disasters taking place in various countries.

In the current paper, two examples of such international networking and capacity building collaboration – one between Turkey and Bulgaria and the other between Turkey and Pakistan – will be introduced.

INTERNATIONAL COLLABORATION BETWEEN TURKEY AND BULGARIA

Both Bulgaria and Turkey had faced natural and human-caused disasters throughout their histories. The two parties also border upon other regions that are potential source of terrorist threats for the citizens of the two. The Bulgarian and Turkish experiences points out the negative psychological effects of such traumatic events.

There has been a need for crisis intervention and psychosocial services provided in an orderly, structured, humanistic and culturally-sensitive manner. Mental health professionals have the central position to act in the crises intervention; and within the last decade, mental health professionals from the two countries have gained considerable experience in giving psychological help and support to the survivors of traumatic events. Now there are a good number of well trained specialists with rich experience in trauma-related emergency work in case of natural and human-caused disasters. However, the training of mental-health professionals has mostly been western-oriented. Therefore, it was of great value to facilitate an exchange of experience between the two countries, that serves modification of western models and incorporation of eastern cultural perspective into disaster psychosocial practices.

In the year 2002, Turkish Psychological Association, Institute for Integration Support/Bulgaria, Open Society Institute and Open Society Institute Assistance Foundation /Turkey (OSIAF) came together to start a project, named as “The Bulgarian – Turkish Forum for Psychological Help and Support in Case of Natural Disasters, Production Damages and Accidents”.

The main aim of the project was to share experiences from different Balkan countries related to various traumatic events (natural disasters, war, terrorist acts, etc.) through joint meetings and to conduct a training program on crises intervention, emergency psychological help and support which integrates an eastern cultural orientation with the universally-accepted principles. The exchange of experience was expected to deepen participants’ understanding of the cultural context of trauma and disaster psychosocial services. Another aim was to establish a network to link the key organizations and professionals within the psychosocial disaster response community in Balkan countries. Through this network, it was anticipated that the local communities would be able to share their experiences of trauma work, as a learning tool for the international community. In addition, the international community would have a forum to disseminate information on culturally-sensitive approaches to trauma and disaster work.

INTERNATIONAL COLLABORATION BETWEEN TURKEY AND PAKISTAN

In the year 2005, Pakistan was hit by an earthquake with a magnitude of 7.6. Right after the disaster, Pakistan Armed Forces Psychiatric Services, who was in charge of the disaster psychosocial services at the time, contacted Turkish Psychological Association Trauma Task Force, and the international collaboration between the two countries had started at that very early point.

An initial capacity and needs assessment was needed for accurate decision making in terms of psychosocial support and service planning. Therefore, Turkish Psychological Association, as a member of the Union of Disaster Psychosocial Services (UDPS) of Turkey (for more information on UDPS see Yilmaz & Gökler-Danisman, 2009), sent an assessment team to the earthquake-affected area. The aims of the assessment team were as follows:

- ♣ Assessing the post-disaster situation in general and in terms of psychosocial services.
- ♣ Making observations in the field and direct contacts with key persons/organizations to understand the needs.
- ♣ Collecting information that would help the planning of psychosocial support services.
- ♣ Establishing a basis for collaboration with related institutes and organizations.

During the assessment phase, the team tried to get information on general situation in Pakistan after the earthquake; the situation regarding the mental health services in general and in the primarily effected regions; professional experience and theoretical background of mental health professionals on the field of disasters and psychological trauma, attitudes towards the mental health services within the community; possible settings to provide these services and national plan of Pakistan for post-disaster psychosocial services.

Following the assessment process, the mental health professionals representing the Turkish organizations tried to find out the plausible ways of effective contribution. Depending on the contacts with various local and international organizations, observations and feedback from national service providers, it was concluded that the best contribution would be helping to strengthen the local resources through (a) implementing self-care programs for psychosocial relief workers; (b) providing training programs for the mental health professionals; (c) giving supervision on community based psychosocial approaches; and (d) helping the development of national and international psychosocial networks to facilitate the continuity of support, exchange of information and collaboration (Gökler, 2006). These objectives guided the planning and implementation of the psychosocial support services provided by the Turkish mental health

professionals. The field work provided the Turkish team with the opportunity to observe the cultural context, and the culturally inherited risk and protective factors.

Within the context of these psychosocial services, mental health professionals from Turkey and Pakistan have come together to exchange knowledge and to share experience. Following the experience of working together for the psychosocial relief efforts after Pakistan earthquake, also considering the socio-cultural similarities in between, mental health professionals from Turkey and Pakistan agreed upon a collaboration to develop a disaster psychosocial program applicable in both countries.

Thus, in the year 2008 a long-term project, named as the "Collaborative Project between Turkey and Pakistan on Capacity Building for Disaster Psychosocial Services" was signed between the two countries, in which Turkey is represented by The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey and Pakistan is represented by the Ministry of Science and Technology.

The collaborative project aims at developing a systematic and comprehensive model that incorporates psychosocial efforts starting from preventive pre-disaster planning and preparedness to post-disaster relief work and long-term interventions, congruent with the socio-cultural structure of both Turkey and Pakistan. By the collaborative project, it has been expected to contribute to the field by (a) giving rise to the increase in number of qualified mental health professionals, with a common perspective, prepared to work collaboratively in the field of disasters and trauma; (b) standardized training of mental health professionals in the field of psychological trauma; (c) adaptation / development of culturally appropriate psychometric tools; and (d) conduct of common-focus research and multisided cross-cultural studies to provide scientific base for the model to be developed. Thus, the ultimate goal of the project is the development of a culturally-relevant psychosocial model for disasters.

Through these means, this long-term collaborative project is believed to provide an important possibility for capacity building in terms of disaster psychosocial planning.

Despite the variety of approaches to the study of disaster related traumatic stress, there is an agreed upon need for increased standardization of the field by enhanced communication among mental health professionals and researchers (Baum et al., 1993). This project is thought to have the potential to serve this purpose, since it incorporates the development of common-focus research and multisided studies.

While, on one hand, working on developing a model applicable in both countries, on the other hand, it is also of significant importance to make necessary adaptations according to the differentiating aspects of the two cultures relying on the findings from the cross-cultural studies.

The project, through the use of culturally relevant approaches, is expected to contribute to a better scientific understanding of the responses generated within the socio-cultural context of the two countries in the face of disasters. This contribution would in turn, provide a wider perspective for the mental health professionals working in this field and help developing a better social awareness. It is believed that the project provides an opportunity of a mutual capacity building and development of effective disaster psychosocial services in both countries.

CONCLUSION

There has been a growing interest in international collaborations in terms of capacity building for disaster psychosocial services all around the world (e.g. Corbin and Miller, 2009; Krishnakumar, Sivayokan and Somasundaram, 2008; Gilbert, 2009; Ng et al., 2009)

Recently, mental health professionals start asking the question of whether the psychosocial models derived from western cultures and training are sufficient for the other parts of the world in meeting trauma and disaster mental health needs (Dodge, 2002; von Peter, 2009), and the answer is worth an elaborate consideration.

With the current paper, it was aimed to bring two examples of initiatives for eastern collaboration on capacity building into the attention of international scientific community, since they are, in a way, setting the ground to come up with culturally-acceptable and effective disaster psychosocial service models for eastern communities.

These examples of eastern international collaborations are expected to have a stimulating function for the other eastern countries open to disasters.

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PSYCHOLOGY OF TERRORISTS: 4 TYPES – WORKSHOP

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***Abstract.** Terror is violence or threat of violence perpetrated by private individuals or small groups from the hegemonic strata against members of negative reference groups and that enjoys the tacit approval if not active participation of members of the security forces. A terrorist is an individual who carries out or threatens to carryout acts of terror, for hire or not for hire. The act of harming or killing others, who are direct enemies or innocent victims, may be for monetary gain, gain of group principle, gain of personal principle, or any combination. The literature on the specific types of terrorists featured in this presentation is sparse. Much of the information herewithin is based on this author's research and consultations while a Visiting Fellow (1986) at the Center for International Development and Conflict Management, University of Maryland – College Park; and since. Clinical and forensic interventions were managed through the Human Relations Institute And Clinics, a Washington, D.C. psychology practice. Since 1990, international practice was co-based in the United Arab Emirates for general psychology practice in clinical, educational, and organizational along with forensic and political psychology consulting.*

INTRODUCTION: CONCEPTS AND PERCEPTIONS OF TERRORISTS

Commonly, terrorists are seen as psychopathic or having a religious or political cause. Yet, if we look at the individual players, we may see personal motives verses motives of principle. A common assumption is that terrorists use force or threat of force instrumentally in a conscious and premeditated fashion because they misguidedly think that it will enhance their probability of achieving a certain political or religious goal or set of goals.

Psychologists may tend to see political or religious goals as an arena in which emotions originating elsewhere are stimulated and played out. So, the psychologist may ask – What nonpolitical frustrations or drives are at the base of the behavior? Berkowitz (1969) points out two basic variations on this theme. First is the situation in which an individual is suffering from the effects of very unpleasant present or past conditions (e.g. painful events or frustrations). This will give rise to a “fairly specific internal inclination to be aggressive,” which can be triggered by some political situation or event.

Berkowitz’s second variation (1975) is that a person may merely be excited or aroused. This general, initially nonaggressive arousal can – under appropriate conditions – be channeled into political violence. The classic example is that of a large group of people that suddenly turns into an angry, violent mob.

Jeanne Knutson’s research (1981) resulted in her belief that victimization is the motive force behind much political violence in the contemporary world. Victimization is a personally experienced injustice which the victim knows to be unnecessary and which creates a basic fear of annihilation. Discrete victimization events that have the strength to change the victim’s perception of the world can cause the victim to act in defense of him or herself and his or her group in order to reduce the chances for further aggression against the self, family, community, or all three.

Political psychologists are inclined to look at instances of the use of force or the threat of force in terms of both of these perspectives instrumental and expressive. Each act is usually based on some mixture of instrumental motivation and underlying psychological dynamics. Therefore, try to ascertain the particular mixture of the underlining acts of political violence.

The use of force or the threat to use force usually implies the use of some form of violence. The question of the origins and triggers of human violence has intrigued students of human behavior at least since the earliest days of written history. During the twentieth century, scholars have advanced a wide variety of theories of human aggressiveness. These can be roughly divided into three categories: (1) biological theories (psychophysiological, sociobiological, and ethological); (2) there are the psychological and social-psychological theories (from Freudian theories to theories of situational conformity), and (3) the discipline of political psychology (generating many theories to better understand terrorism and international violence).

Knutson and Etheredge have emerged in direct response to events in the political world of psychological understanding. Dollard (1939) and others have formed the basis for more politically oriented work. Ted Robert Gurr (1970) has developed a theory of revolutionary behavior based on frustration-aggression theory.

Freud, as well as Dollard and his associates, and Etheredge (1979), focuses on what happens inside the individual. Situational conformity theory concentrates on what is happening in the microenvironment. Social learning theory, as well as Knutson's victimization theory, concentrates on the impact of both the microenvironment and the macroenvironment on individual behavior. Ethnocentrism focuses on the dynamics of the microenvironmental interactions within groups, as well as the macroenvironmental issues involved in the relationships between groups, which may consist of entire cultural or national collectivities.

All, to some extent, stress the importance of the personality-situation interaction. They can also be seen as making a potential contribution to analyze specific events involving the use or threat of force. See the whole issue of human aggressive behavior as involving a much more complex dynamic – microenvironment, macroenvironment, along with the individual dynamics.

However, this chapter will only address the individual dynamics. The “hired-guns” are the individuals who seek satisfaction in the pathologically narcissistic need to control – the Psychopathic Terrorist. The “group-cause” terrorists can manifest through two systems: religious, political, or both – the Ethnogeographic Terrorist. The person who had no history of pathology and was not inclined to membership in any particular group, yet suffered a deliberately planned major atrocity against self, family, community, or all, is – *The Retributional Terrorist*.

The terrorist incidents (see on-line CHS/ACFEI Timeline of Terrorism) were not qualified by terrorist types. Direct or indirect information on each person involved in these events would highlight the type of motivation and may enhance the negotiation process.

The psychology of the terrorist or terrorism-at-large is best understood when the holistic model is implemented. Although terrorism, torture, or any form of violence is inexcusable, there are explanations for acts of atrocity that need to be considered to foster an end to such unforgettable events.

Clinical and Forensic Psychology Investigation

To learn and understand the terrorist, we shall examine the personality profile of the individual – diagnosis, psychological defense mechanisms, and how this can benefit the negotiations process.

The clinical information is critical in the negotiations process. Thinking as the perpetrator can be essential in developing a resolution to the conflict at hand. It is important to know the defense mechanisms highlighted with such individuals.

Psychological *Defense Mechanisms* are patterns of feelings, thoughts, or behaviors that are relatively involuntary and arise in response to perceptions of psy-

chic danger. They are designed to hide or to alleviate the conflicts or stressors that give rise to anxiety (Vaillant, 1992).

Defense Mechanisms can be divided into categories by different theorists—Narcissistic, Immature, Neurotic, and Mature (Meissner’s Glossary of Defenses, 1980); “Psychotic”, “Immature”, “Neurotic”, “Mature” (Vaillant’s Glossary of Defenses, 1992); and, Action, Major Image Distortion, Disavowal, Narcissistic or Minor Image Distortion, Other Neurotic, Obsessional, High Adaptive-Level, (Perry’s Defense Mechanism Rating Scale, 1987).

The protocol of clinical and forensic intervention that leads to diagnosis and identifying defense mechanisms is the *psychology interview* and *mental status examination*.

PSYCHOLOGY INTERVIEW and MENTAL STATUS EXAMINATION

Psychological History

- ❖ **IDENTIFICATION:** This is basically done by the examining professional who requires the name, address of origin, affiliations. This was usually provided by the referring government agency or legal practice seeking expert representation for a client.
- ❖ **CHIEF COMPLAINT:** This is where the professional inquires about what is troubling the Terrorist and the reason they need professional intervention.
- ❖ **HISTORY OF PRESENT CONCERN:** This concerns the chronological background of the development of the person’s behavior, cognition, emotions, and environment. The professional however should listen carefully to the symptoms and circumstances that led to the onset of such and to ascertain any premorbid personality characteristic or traits.
- ❖ **FAMILY HISTORY:** This is a very important source of information, to find out the environment the person grew up in as well as to elicit any evidence of psychological disorders.
- ❖ **PAST PERSONAL HISTORY:** This examines the individual’s life from infancy to the present. It is divided into three stages (1) early middle and late childhood, (2) adolescence, and (3) adulthood.
- ❖ **SEXUAL HISTORY:** This is to determine whether the person has had any sexual disorders, or sexual misconduct, at any period or in different periods of life.
- ❖ **MEDICAL HISTORY:** This examines if the individual has suffered or is suffering from any of illness, disability, or disorder.

- ‡ SOCIAL HISTORY: Here one records any reported or investigated evidence of military duty, legal problems involving imprisonment or arrests, membership in organizations.
- ‡ PSYCHOLOGICAL HISTORY: This examines the knowledge of all psychological conditions and this knowledge gives ability to sift material and know what data are missing and still need to be obtained.

Mental Status Examination

This focuses on the individual's condition while being examined.

- ‡ GENERAL DESCRIPTION: This is done by observing the person's appearance which gives a general idea about attitude and over all behavior; except if the person is jailed, then inmate attire would be expected.
- ‡ SPEECH AND STREAM OF TALK: It enables the examiner to whether the tone of the individual is normal, rapid, or slow.
- ‡ EMOTIONAL REACTION AND MOOD: This is to determine person's reaction on different aspects.
- ‡ PERCEPTION: This is to examine the person's ability to perceive himself or herself, the world, and the appropriate relations between the two.
- ‡ THOUGHT CONTENT: This examines the rate of verbalized thoughts to assess whether there is a paucity of ideas or seeming abundance. *Abstract thinking* is included to examine the ability to deal with different concepts.
- ‡ COGNITION: This examines the area of sensorium – capabilities, including consciousness, orientation, memory and intellectual tasks. *Consciousness* is evaluated by the one's ability of concentration. *Orientation* is usually assessed with respect to time, place, and person. *Memory* is evaluated from the point of view of recent memory and remote memory. *Intellectual tasks* are to examine the general fund knowledge and intellectual functioning, reading and writing, judgment, and insight.

Furthermore, the professional must make a statement about *reliability* – that is the tendency to minimize or exaggerate symptoms and also about the capacity to report situations truthfully by the interviewee.

DIAGNOSIS

Diagnostic And Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, fourth edition, text revision (DSM-IV-TR) uses a multi-axial classification scheme consisting of five axes, each of which covered in the diagnosis. Axis-1 includes all the disorders and conditions listed in DSM-IV-TR except the personality disorders and specific developmental disorders which are listed in Axis-2. Axis-3 includes physical disorders and conditions. Axis-4 relates to severity of psychological stressors and Axis-5 rates the level of adaptive functioning during the past year.

The Psychopathic Terrorist

In the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, fourth edition, text revised (APA, 2000), the diagnosis of Antisocial Personality Disorder highlights the following.

The essential feature of Antisocial Personality Disorder is a pervasive pattern of disregard for, and violation of, the rights of others that begins in childhood or early adolescence and continues into adulthood. This pattern has also been referred to as **psychopathy**, sociopathy or dissocial personality disorder. Because deceit and manipulation are central features of Antisocial Personality Disorder, it may be especially helpful to integrate information acquired from systematic clinical assessment with information collected from collateral sources.

The pattern of antisocial behavior continues into adulthood. Individuals with Antisocial Personality Disorder fail to conform to social norms with respect to lawful behavior. They may repeatedly perform acts that are grounds for arrest (whether they are arrested or not), such as destroying property, harassing others, stealing, or pursuing illegal occupations. Persons with this disorder disregard the wishes, rights, or feelings of others. They are frequently deceitful and manipulative in order to gain personal profit or pleasure. A pattern of impulsivity may be manifested by failure to plan ahead.

Individuals with Antisocial Personality Disorder also tend to be consistently and extremely irresponsible...They may be indifferent to, or provide a superficial rationalization for, having hurt, mistreated, or stolen from someone. These individuals may blame the victims for being foolish, helpless, or deserving their fate; they may minimize the harmful consequences of their actions; or they may simply indicate complete indifference. They generally fail to compensate or make amends for their behavior.

Child abuse or neglect, unstable or erratic parenting, or inconsistent parental discipline may increase the likelihood that Conduct Disorder will evolve into Antisocial Personality Disorder.

Case Example

This young man 21 years of age does not look at all like a criminal type or shifty delinquent. Tom looks and is in robust physical health. His manner and appearance are pleasing...His immediate problem was serious but not monumental. His family and legal authorities were in hope that if some psychiatric disorder could be discovered in him, He might escape a jail sentence for stealing...

Evidence of his maladjustment became distinct in childhood. He appeared to be a reliable and manly fellow but could never be counted upon to keep at any task or to give a straight account of any situation. He was frequently truant n school

... Though he was generously provided for, He stole some of his father's chickens from time to time, selling them at stores downtown. Pieces of table silver would be missed. These were sometimes recovered from those to whom he had sold them for a pittance or swapped them for odds and ends which seemed to hold no particular interest or value for him.

He lied so plausibly and with such equanimity, devised such ingenious alibis or simply denied all responsibility with such convincing appearances of candor that for many years his real career was poorly estimated...

Though he often fell in with groups or small gangs, he never for long identified himself with others in common cause. Reliable information indicates that he has been arrested and imprisoned approximately fifty or sixty times. It is estimated that he would have been put in jail or police barracks for short or long periods of detention on approximately 150 other occasions if his family had not made good his small thefts and damages and paid fines for him...

Defense Mechanisms of Psychopathic Personalities

- ♣ *Denial*: Psychotic denial of external reality. Unlike repression, it affects the perception of external reality. Seeing but refusing to acknowledge what one sees and hearing but negating what is actually heard are examples of denial and exemplify the close relationship of denial to sensory experience. However, not all denial is necessarily psychotic. Like projection, denial may function in the service of neurotic or even adaptive objectives.
- ♣ *Distortion*: Grossly reshaping external reality to suit inner needs including unrealistic megalomania beliefs, hallucinations, wish-fulfilling delusions, and using sustained feelings of delusional superiority or entitlement.
- ♣ *Projection* (Narcissistic): Frank delusions about external reality, usually persecutory, it includes both perceptions of one's own feelings in another and subsequent acting on the perception (paranoid disorder).
- ♣ *Acting out*: Direct expressions of an unconscious wish or impulse to avoid being aware of the accompanying affect. The unconscious fantasy, involving objects, is lived out impulsively in behavior, thus gratifying the impulse more than the prohibition against it.

On a chronic level, acting out involves giving in to impulses to avoid the tension that would result from postponement of expression.

- ♣ *Rationalization*: A mechanism in which the person devises reassuring or self-serving, but in-correct, explanations for his or her own or others' behavior.

Negotiations with Psychopathic Types

These individuals are narcissistic and unconcerned with the welfare of others. They are interested in their own personal benefits only. They can be hired to do “the job” with little or no interest in the cause; and they can kill with no remorse. To kill a hostage is of little concern, unless it directly affects him or her, the psychopathic terrorist.

The Ethnogeographic Terrorist: religious or political

These two types run the same or very similar dynamics but for different causes. In explaining others’ actions, professionals frequently commit the fundamental attribution error. We attribute their behaviors so much to the inner dispositions that we discount important situation forces. The error occurs partly because our attention focuses on the persons, not on the situation. A person’s race or gender is vivid and attention-getting; the situational forces working upon that person are usually less visible.

Fundamentalism is defined as a strict maintenance of traditional orthodox religious beliefs; a religious movement which developed among various bodies ... based on strict adherence to certain tenets. (Oxford Reference Dictionary 1986)

This definition can be applied to political as well as religious fundamentalism. To understand the fundamental mind-set, let us look at ourselves in terms of attribution theories. Thomas Pettigrew (1979) argues that attribution errors can bias people’s explanations of group members’ behaviors.

We grant members of our own group members’ behaviors. We grant members our own group benefit of the doubt: “She donated because she has a good heart; he refused because he had to under the circumstances.” When explaining acts by members of other groups, we more often assume the worst: “He donated to gain favor; she refused because she’s selfish.”

Defense Mechanisms of Fundamentalist Types

- ♣ *Introjection*: With a loved object, introjection involves the internalization of characteristics of the object with the goal of establishing closeness to and constant presence of the object. Anxiety consequent to separation or tension arising out of ambivalence toward the object is thus diminished. Introjection of a feared object serves to avoid anxiety by internationalizing the aggressive characteristics of the object, there by putting the aggression under one’s control. The aggression is no longer felt as coming from outside but is taken with in and used defensively, turning the person’s weak, passive

position into an active, strong one. Introjection can also rise out of a sense of guilt, in which the self – punishing introject is attributable to the hostile destructive component of an ambivalent tie to an object. The self-punitive qualities of the object are taken over and established within one's self as a symptom or character trait, which effectively represents destruction.

- ♣ *Passive–Aggressive Behavior*: Aggression toward an object expressed indirectly and ineffectively through passivity, masochism, and turning against the self.
- ♣ *Projection (Immature)*: Attributing one's own unacknowledged feelings to others; it includes severe prejudice, rejection of intimacy through suspiciousness, hypervigilance to external danger, and injustice collecting. Projection operates correlatively to introjections; the material of the projection is derived from the internalized configuration of the introjects.
- ♣ *Schizoid fantasy*: Tendency to use fantasy and to indulge in autistic retreat for the purpose of conflict resolution and gratification.
- ♣ *Reaction Formation*: A mechanism in which the person substitutes behavior, thoughts, or feelings that are diametrically opposed to his or her unacceptable ones.
- ♣ *Intellectualization*: The individual deals with emotional conflicts, or internal or external stressors, by the excessive use of abstract thinking or generalizing to avoid experiencing disturbing feelings.

Negotiations with Fundamentalists Types

To better negotiate with the Ethnogeographic types, know your own biases first. Learn to block them out, to maintain a clear and more objective role in negotiating. Issues of transference and counter-transference are manifested here.

The ethnogeographic players work as part of a group. The group in itself enhances the goals to destroy “the common enemy”. Their motto is “to die for the cause is an honor”. Those who die with them, voluntarily or not, will also be rewarded in the after-life, youthful martyrdom, or both. So, to negotiation to kill or harm them is their means to their end; and therefore, of no benefit to the negotiator.

Clinical experience with such persons and individual members of groups suggested passive–aggressive characteristics. The symptoms of passive–aggressive personality disorder all revolve around the central theme that the person with such a disorder is sabotaging efforts directed at getting him or her to work or socialize at an expected level.

Usually, such people think they are doing better work than they really are and get very angry when others make useful suggestions about how their performance might be improved. They tend to be critical of those in authority.

This person, or individual within-the-group, asks for help but then does not comply with the advice or evidence of cooperation.

The Retributional Terrorist – type 4

These are individuals who had no medical or psychological history of psychopathology. They may not have belonged to or favor any particular religious or political group or groups. Furthermore, they may not have desired any notion of joining such. Yet, their home, community, family members, or all were destroyed by deliberately planned war, crisis, or terror on innocent and civilian locations.

The individual who survives an atrocity will seek revenge (punishment or injury inflicted in return for what one has suffered), through retaliation (to repay in kind or to make a counter-attack) and revolt (to rise in rebellion; to be in a mood of protest or defiance). Retribution (“deserved punishment, requital, usually for evil done” The Oxford Reference Dictionary, 1986) becomes the focus for this person.

The Retributional Terrorist finds he or she have nothing to loss. They have loss everything of meaning in their life. And they will be find justice by their definition. However, the realization of isolation is clear when they are frustrated by not being able to reach their target – the individual or group that caused them the grief.

These individual are found to suffer from the diagnosis of Post Traumatic Stress Disorder. Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) can strike anyone who survives a severe physical or mental trauma. The disorder has gained notoriety form the frequency with which it afflicts war veterans, but a much wider population, including children, are at risk. This population includes people who have been beaten, raped, tortured, or witness to gruesome accidents, catastrophes or natural disasters.

Symptoms of PTSD can appear soon after the trauma or be delayed months or years. But, eventually, people with the disorder begin to re-experience the traumatic event or the anxiety associated with it. The most dramatic symptoms are the distressing recollections, nightmares or daytime flash backs in which the trauma is “replayed”.

Nightmares can be also severe that Retributional Terrorists wake from sleep screaming. Flashbacks can include a dissociative state in which victims actually lose touch with reality.

Other symptoms include a kind of emotional anesthesia called psychic numbing, which leaves Retributional Terrorists disinterested in the world around them. They may withdraw from family and friends, leaving themselves increasingly isolated.

Retributional Terrorists often try particularly hard to avoid situations that remind them of their traumas. Even minor similarities can trigger symptoms. Someone who had been severely assaulted by a policeman for e.g. may avoid watching television, lest a similar situation be depicted. Someone who watched a friend drown may attempt to avoid seeing any body of water. This avoidance behavior can become so consuming that Retributional Terrorists are nearly house bound.

Some victims of PTSD report being extremely “touchy”, easily startled or easily moved to anger and violence. They can experience all the symptoms of panic disorder. PTSD also leaves people at risk for depression. Low mood, insomnia, difficulty concentrating, feelings of guilt and bodily aches and pains are all common complaints.

In Post Traumatic Stress Disorder the traumatic event is quite prominent in the Retributional Terrorist’s memory, not locked away in the unconscious. The disturbing memories are so easily triggered, in fact, that the mind initially seems to cushion itself against possible reminders. It accomplishes this through symptoms such as inattention to one’s surroundings, emotional numbness, social withdrawal and narrowing of one’s range of thought. Retributional Terrorists are also at great risk of turning to alcohol or illicit drugs in order to blunt their emotions.

Defense Mechanisms of Retributional Type (with or without PTSD)

Controlling: Excessive attempt to manage or regulate events or objects in the environment in the interest of minimizing anxiety and solving internal conflicts.

Rationalization: Justification of attitudes, beliefs, or behavior that may otherwise be unacceptable by an incorrect application of justifying reasons or the invention of a convincing fallacy.

Anticipation: Realistic anticipation of or planning for future inner discomfort.

Intellectualization: The individual deals with emotional conflicts, or internal or external stressors, by the excessive use of abstract thinking or generalizing to avoid experiencing disturbing feelings.

Negotiations with the Retributional Terrorist

Negotiations with the Retributional Terrorist can best be served by reminding him or her that innocent people will be harmed, as his or her own innocent family or community were harmed. This fourth type uses hostages as instrumental victims for negotiations only and does not prefer to harm them. He or she, however, cares little for their own life since they have little for which to live.

SUMMARY

Are there similarities in these four types of violators? Could one make a different excuse or explanation between terrorists and “freedom fighters”? Certainly, not the psychopathic type; but it is easier, or possibly acceptable, to look at the two Ethnogeographic type and the Retributional Type as “freedom fighters”.

Frustrations, insults, and aggressive behavior heighten the aggressive tendencies of victimized people. Therefore, they may join a group – religious or political that targets the same offenders, as the person who seeks a specific target and limits vengeance to the person, group, or nation that caused their atrocity. The groups can amplify aggressive reactions partly by diffusing responsibility (Gaebelein and Mander 1978, Mikolic 1997).

Terrorist groups are not restricted to one ethnic or socioeconomic group. They cross national boundaries, and exist in all areas of the country, region, and globally. Both male and female get involved in terrorist groups. Potential terrorist group recruits may suffer from a poor self-image or low self-esteem, and may feel isolated from their peers. While some may be actively recruited, some join the terrorist group by default, they were never discouraged from getting involved in the sacrificial lifestyle. Many terrorist group members have frequent contact with positively rewarding aspects of society but the terrorist group begins to replace their community which has been targeted by another group (race, creed, culture) for political or religious differences.

People *join terrorist groups as the soldiers* for many reasons, and the circumstances differ with each individual member. Common reasons for an adolescent to join a terrorist group include:

- ♣ Low self-esteem and Little Chance of Future Growth
- ♣ Family Issues (usually economic oppression)
- ♣ Peer Pressure
- ♣ Respect and Promised Recognition
- ♣ Excitement
- ♣ Protection from Fear of Threat
- ♣ Family Involvement
- ♣ Little or No Resistance or Discouragement to Join
- ♣ Revenge of a Common Enemy

There is no one thing that will push a person to join a terrorist group, and he or she will not become a hard-core terrorist group member overnight. Many times, a person joins a terrorist group because they have a great need to feel important (socially, economically) and are welcomed in a group. If that need is not met in a positive fashion, the person may try looking for reinforcement from any group. But this would be very dangerous – perceived as treason.

Why Do Persons Join Terrorist Groups

There are many reasons why persons join terrorist groups, but like most youth activities, whether criminal or otherwise, most persons join Ethno-geographic terrorist groups for companionship, fame, and promised Eternal Life.

The desire to belong to a terrorist group may stem from a variety of motives, but the one thing all terrorist groups have in common is a claim on territory or religious rights and acceptance. A terrorist group's territory may be a community, a region, or the entire world. Members wear the terrorist group colors, or a particular style of clothes and symbols, which usually indicates struggle and power in certain communities. Terrorist groups have leaders, and sometimes officers.

Drugs may be a means of economics for a terrorist group and therefore are different from other kinds of terrorist groups that do not depend on drugs for financial strength. They can be more organized, and much more dangerous. They are responsible for the distribution of illegal drugs from marijuana to cocaine, and heroin. Terrorist group members may sell drugs, carry drugs and covertly protect dealers and other terrorist group members from authorities or rival terrorist groups.

One attraction to terrorist groups is the loyalty members seem to have for each other. Terrorist groups seem to provide an instance group of "best friends."

The arms sales are another economic stronghold quite common via the terrorist groups. Some terrorist group shootings involve other terrorist group members. But recently more and more innocent bystanders have been killed by terrorist shootings. A terrorist group's main duty is usually to protect its mission – nation or religion, or both. Simply wearing another terrorist group's colors on a terrorist group's turf is reason enough to be killed. The killing of a terrorist group member usually provokes a revenge killing, which in turn provokes a revenge killing, and on and on.

There are several reasons people will join terrorist groups.

Peer pressure is probably the most common reason a person will join a terrorist group. Persons want to belong and don't want to be considered "outsiders." Sometimes terrorist group membership is a family tradition. Persons may follow an older brother or sister or a parent into joining a terrorist group.

The third and least understood reason is for protection. Persons who are targets of terrorist group recruitment may find themselves in a lose/lose situation. They may not want to join the terrorist group, but if they refuse to do so, they may be victimized by the terrorist group that was attempting to recruit them. Or they may be fearful of other terrorist groups in the area and may join a rival terrorist group in an effort to have "back-up" in the event another terrorist group attempts to victimize a person.

Someone who makes the choice to join a terrorist group usually sets his life up to end in one of two ways – martyr's death or fugitive.

Terrorist groups can make one feel important, can make one believe that they belong, and can even make you behavior rich in the unending spirit of re-

ward for “the cause”. But is the choice to join a terrorist group worth the destruction caused in the terrorist group members’ lives and in the community?

Levels of Membership in the Terrorist Groups

It takes a while for a person to be accepted by a terrorist group. They must prove their loyalty to the group through certain actions.

Fantasy/At-risk Member

This is a person who is fascinated and obsessed with the terrorist group lifestyle. They are aware of media images of terrorist groups, and may imitate the behavior seen on the TV screen. The terrorist group attracts his/her attention, but is not a major part of his/her life.

Associate Member

This is a young person who has gained knowledge about a particular terrorist group, and is attempting to prove him/herself to that terrorist group. He/she will wear the terrorist group’s colors, hang out with members on a regular basis, and may begin to draw the terrorist group’s graffiti on his/her personal materials, photos of the group’s leaders and martyrs. This young person will begin to have difficulties at home and in school, and will be seeking regular association with terrorist group members. At this stage, this vulnerable minded individual is willing to do anything to get into the terrorist group. This person may be most dangerous – naïve, dependant upon approval, and inexperienced to know indispensability and vulnerability.

Hardcore Member

When a person has proven his/her loyalty to the terrorist group, he or she is initiated into the terrorist group. The hardcore member may readily admit, and be proud of his/her membership. They will take an oath to the terrorist group name or symbolic ritual, signs, and pledges. When persons get to this level, they are usually not involved with school and may little or no contact with their biological family and community. Hardcore members call the shots in the terrorist group – they are “in charge.”

In the laboratory, researchers can test and revise theories under controlled conditions. Real-world events inspire ideas and provide the venue for applying our theories. Today, the terrorist has no gender, age, or national limits.

As professionals seeking knowledge of such individuals, we must look at each holistically – cognitively, emotionally, behaviorally, physically – and the affects of the environment on the total person. By effectively testing theories and learning real-world facts with open minds, professionals can reach justice in improving human understanding and fostering cooperation.

Further research and case studies are needed to elaborate on the types of terrorists and the negotiations strategies required for a fuller and effective process.

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AGGRESSIVE DRIVING OF A CAR: PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECT

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Abstract. *The report concerns the study of social representation of aggressive drivers. Aggressive driving – a problem which excites inhabitants of Latvia, and also inhabitants of many countries of the world. As a result of aggressive driving not only drivers and passengers of a car, but also pedestrians and bicyclists perish. The notion of aggressive driving in Latvia was introduced on July 1st, 2004. The terminology is not a single meaning notion and could have different meanings not only within one country Latvia but also internationally. It is especially important to understand what personal characteristics exist at aggressive drivers in representations of respondents. Revealing of social representations of population regarding this issue is an important stage on the way to decrease of intensity and distribution of the present phenomenon by means of directed formation of public thought, training, informing the population, improvement of regulating and executive function of different state institutions and, probably, through the changes in the legislative basis.*

Keywords: *Social Representations, drivers, Aggressive Driving of a car.*

INTRODUCTION

The problem of aggressive driving is topical for different countries of the world. The issues of this problem are being discussed on the levels of the WHO (World Health Organization) and the UNO (WHO, UNO, 2002, 2004).

The author conducts research, in which the social representations about aggressive driving of inhabitants of Latvia are examined. In this article a comparative analysis is shown regarding personal character traits of aggressive drivers in the social representations of professional and non-professional drivers. The representatives of different social groups put various contents into this meaning.

Conception of social representations has been worked out by the French social psychologist S. Moscovici in 1961. Moscovici defines the social representation as the form of collective knowledge developed by specific means, which is acquired by the members of the society and is distinguished by them (Dontsov, Emelyanova, 1987; Moscovici, 1995).

To give the meaning of the real environment in everyday life, in group interactions, we use social representations in the mass media (Moscovici, 1984). There are three dimensions in the structure of social representations (structural components): information, field of presentation, set. (Andreeva, 2000). Special attention in the conception of social representations is paid to the selection of social functions. (S. Moscovici, 1996, Dontsov, Emelyanova, 1987, Andreeva, 2000). Creation of new representations, their change, development, – this all covers the dynamic processes of social representations (Purkhardt, 1991).

In given article are considered – what personal features of aggressive drivers exist in representations of respondents that they think of them at personal level. The knowledge of this part of the phenomenon allows to understand the existing relation of respondents to aggressive behaviour of drivers. As the person operates according to the representations, there is a possibility to assume about possible behaviour of respondents on roads.

METHOD

PARTICIPANTS

Number of participants of the research was 90 people. 43 from them are men and 47 are women. Average age – 38 years. Minimum age of the respondent – 20 years. All respondents have a driver's license. n=30 of them have professional driver's license, n=60 have that of category B. Presence of cases of traffic accidents in the personal experience of the respondents: were participants of the traffic accident n= 34, were not participants of the traffic accident n=56. Groups of professional and non-professional drivers: professional drivers n= 27 (truck drivers, drivers of trucks with trailers, drivers of buses); non-professional drivers n= 63.

INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES

The social representations of aggressive driving are analyzed during the research. For primary comparative analysis of social representations two groups of respondents were taken, which were divided by the criterion: professional and non-professional drivers. The choice of groups of professional and non-professional drivers is determined by several factors. Firstly, it is the universality of the subject of research, namely, of the social representations about the aggressive car driving. Verbal use of the idea is typical for all represented groups of respondents. Second-

ly, the social specificity of groups is also of important value. The representatives of the group of professional drivers cover a specific subculture existing in a modern society. The present subculture is characterized by a specific set of values, language, traditions and communicative practices, allowing relating these people to a specific local social group. Professional specific character (of professional drivers) leaves traces on that, what and in what way is perceived from the existing social phenomena by the present group, what relation to the phenomenon exists in the group of professionals, which semantic elements they include in the analysis of social representations. The professional drivers themselves are permanently interacting in the transport environment, and this determines their personal “scientific” interest. Exactly the group of professional drivers is constantly in the circumstances, where the present phenomenon manifests itself, in this connection particular interest causes the exposure of differences in social representations of professional drivers and drivers – amateurs.

In this research the following methods are used as the methodological instruments: analysis of verbal associations, polling method, structured and non-structured interview.

Method of questionnaire survey was used in the research. The author’s questionnaire consisting of 59 blocks of questions was used. The data were gathered individually from each respondent. Participation in the research was voluntary. The respondents had guaranteed confidentiality. Participation in the research was anonymous.

The logics of research of the social representations determined the sequence of tasks solution of the empirical part of the work. This sequence is depicted in the stages of research. Primarily, using the method of interview, the initial orientation in the problem has been performed – 10 free and 20 structured interviews were executed. In the result the semantic aspect relating the topic of the research was revealed; the relation of the interviewed persons to the present topic was revealed; possible questions and reactions to them were settled; orientating by the results of the present stage of research the structure of the questionnaire under development was outlined, according to the results of the research the questionnaire was executed. The method of associations, ranging, method of semantic differentiation; method of scaling (Likert 5 and 10 point scale) have been used in the questionnaire. At the next stage the pilotage research was done, after that the correction of questionnaire was performed.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The groups of professional drivers and drivers-amateurs were compared by evaluation of different factors in relation to their social representations about aggressive car driving, to find out statistically important differences in these groups.

The significance of statistics in the evaluation of the factors has been evaluated by Mann-Whitney U – criteria.

Table 1 shows the significant statistics indices of the evaluation difference in the representations of the professional drivers and amateurs of the evaluation of personal character traits of aggressive car drivers.

TABLE 1. THE EVALUATION DIFFERENCE IN THE REPRESENTATIONS OF THE PROFESSIONAL DRIVERS AND AMATEURS OF THE EVALUATION OF PERSONAL CHARACTER TRAITS OF AGGRESSIVE CAR DRIVERS

Personal character traits	Z	p
1. Charming \Unattractive	-0.486	0.627
2. Weak \Strong	-1.932	0.053
3. Talkative\ Taciturn	-2.211	0.027*
4. Irresponsible\ Conscientious	-0.159	0.874
5. Stubborn \Tractable	-1.525	0.127
6. Reserved\Open	-0.306	0.759
7. Kind \Egoistic	-2.014	0.044*
8. Dependent \Independent	-0.508	0.611
9. Active \Passive	-0.313	0.755
10. Hard-hearted\ Sympathetic	-2.135	0.033*
11. Determined \Hesitant	-0.927	0.354
12. Inert\ Energetic	-0.442	0.658
13. Fair \Unfair	-2.834	0.005**
14. Relaxed \Tensed	-3.714	0.000**
15. Fussy\ Calm	-2.886	0.004**
16. Hostile \Friendly	-1.375	0.169
17. Confident \Irresolute	-1.005	0.315
18. Unsociable \ Sociable	-3.570	0.000**
19. Honest\ Insincere	-4.101	0.000**
20. Characterless \Self-reliant	-0.379	0.705
21. Irritable\ Imperturbable	-3.143	0.002**
22. Controlling temper \Spontaneous	-2.729	0.006**
23. Emotional\ Not emotional	-2.743	0.006**

* differences are significant on the level of $p < 0.05$

** differences are significant on the level of $p < 0.01$

The Figure 1 shows the central tendency indices of evaluation in the valuation of personal character traits of aggressive car drivers in the groups of professional drivers and amateurs.

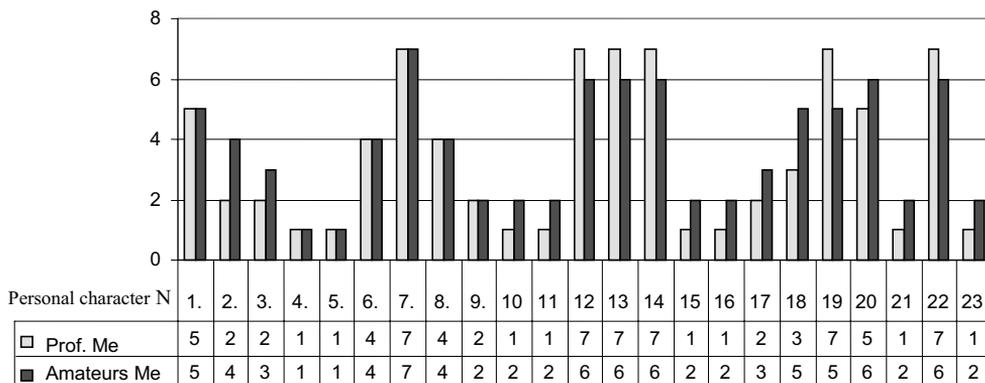


FIGURE 1. THE CENTRAL TENDENCY INDICES IN THE EVALUATION OF PERSONAL CHARACTER TRAITS OF AGGRESSIVE CAR DRIVERS IN THE GROUPS OF PROFESSIONAL DRIVERS AND AMATEURS

Personal character traits:

1. Charming – Unattractive
2. Weak – Strong
3. Talkative – Taciturn
4. Irresponsible – Conscientious
5. Stubborn – Tractable
6. Reserved – Open
7. Kind – Egoistic
8. Dependent – Independent
9. Active – Passive
10. Hard-hearted – Sympathetic
11. Determined – Hesitant
12. Inert – Energetic
13. Fair – Unfair
14. Relaxed – Tensed
15. Fussy – Calm
16. Hostile – Friendly
17. Confident – Irresolute
18. Unsociable – Sociable
19. Honest – Insincere
20. Characterless – Self-reliant
21. Irritable – Imperturbable
22. Controlling temper – Spontaneous
23. Emotional – Not emotional

The analysis of clarified differences in personal characterizing indices shows that the professional drivers have tendency to give more precise description of the aggressive drivers, when the non-professional drivers have tendency of not giving expressive evaluation, but with less intensity; closer to neutral evaluation. Such situation is seen regarding all characterizing indices, in which substantial differences are observed.

In general one may note that in many cases both groups had tendency to give neutral evaluation: Charming-Unattractive; Reserved-Open; Dependent-Independent. The respondent groups under consideration have conceptual differences in such descriptions like Unsociable-Sociable, Weak-Strong, which differ by their polarity. Thus, the professionals have tendency to describe the car driver-loner, simultaneously the non-professionals have tendency to describe the car driver as sociable, although both groups have given descriptions with low intensity. Probably, it may be explained by one of the expressions of professionals: "The one will never stop to help in case of damage, will not ask in what way to help..." Thus, the professionals have tendency to describe the driver as weak, simultaneously the non-professionals have tendency to give neutral description. Probably, it may be explained that, in the conception of professional car drivers, aggressive driver is a weak driver, or he behaves himself in such way due to his weakness.

One shall note that the evaluation of all other characterizing indices complies, by its meaning, with the (couple chosen for the pole), but in many cases it differs in sense of power, expressed evaluation. So, the respondents of both groups have noted such characterizing indices: "Stubborn", "Egoistic", "Irresponsible", "Active", "Decisive", "Energetic", "Hostile", "Self-confident", and "Independent".

The respondents have chosen, with different level of intensity, the following indices characterizing aggressive drivers – "Talkative", "Unfair", "Tensed", "Inconstant", "Untrue", "Irritable" and "Emotional".

CONCLUSIONS

Apparently, one may speak about the fact that the respondents of both groups have in the field of sense similar ideas. The most differences belong to the choice of evaluation power, intensity. The professionals have more precise ideas regarding the characterizing personal indices. It can be connected with the great drivers' experience thanks to which they can observe and communicate with these drivers, as well as it may be connected with concrete precise attitude to this group of car drivers. The amateurs avoided from giving the final answers, which, probably, shows the level, on which they know about this phenomenon, or they show sometimes similar behavior that is why they were not so categorical in their evaluation.

The driver performing aggressive car driving is described by the respondents of both groups as a negative bearer of socially undesirable characterizing traits. One may speak about the respondents' dissatisfaction with the phenomenon, about existence of critical attitude to this situation, about its rejection, unattractive form and its non-acceptance. Especially it is typical for the professionals.

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FACES OF TERRORISM: A REGIONAL ANALYSIS

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***Abstract.** This paper deals briefly with the way terrorism has developed in South-east Asia and the institutions that have grown to support it, drawing upon the Indonesian experience as a principal example. It then examines the process by which a person becomes a terrorist and the factors which are conducive to the making of a terrorist. Lastly, the paper discusses strategies for managing convicted terrorists, especially those methods in which the emphasis is upon rehabilitation rather than incarceration.*

INTRODUCTION

Since most of the literature in the field of terrorism is Western and is based upon the Middle East, this paper examines terrorism essentially from a South-east Asian perspective. While there are different types of terrorism in South-east Asia this paper discusses that which occurs in situations where the majority of the population is Islamic so that the terrorist operates in a supportive and conducive environment. This sort of terrorism therefore is similar to those found in other parts of the world such as Palestine, Iraq, Afghanistan and Chechnya but is different to the type encountered for example in England, Ireland, France, Spain, Sri Lanka, Thailand and the Philippines.

One of the distinguishing characteristics of Indonesia is that Islam came to it in a peaceful way through trading and not war and thus Indonesian Islam basically is neither radical nor violent. It is essentially a peaceful faith which blended harmoniously with existing beliefs including animism, Buddhism and Hinduism.

The Terrorist Movement in Indonesia

Although the seeds of terrorism go back a long way, a convenient starting point in considering its contemporary development may be taken as the time when Indonesia gained independence from Dutch colonisation in 1945. Sukarno, a civilian politician, proclaimed the independence of Indonesia, crowned by *Dokuritsu Junbi Iinkai* (Preparation Committee for the Indonesian Independence set up by the Japanese occupation government) crowned himself as President of the Republic of Indonesia, appointed himself as the Highest Commander of the Indonesian Armed Forces, always wore a military uniform thereafter, and set about creating a dictatorship.

Indonesian independence led to the revival of the latent radical Islamic movement and the establishment of Negara Islam Indonesia (NII) under the leadership of Karto Suwiryo with the aims of creating an Islamic State (*Darul Islam*) and implementing Islamic Law (*syariah*) in Indonesia. The attitude of NII was that the Indonesian Republic was an infidel State and an enemy of NII, as were the military, the police, all government employees, and the President himself. The latter's reaction was to ruthlessly suppress NII and order the death of Kartosuwiryo who was subsequently shot in an ambush by the military in a forest in West Java.

In 1985 a group of the most radical elements of the terrorist movements in Indonesia and neighbouring countries went to Afghanistan for specialist training under the Mujahiddin, and other groups followed in subsequent years. Back in Indonesia its cadres waited patiently for the command to initiate military action against the government. During this period when the movement was under the leadership of Ustadz Abu Bakar Baasyir, NII was racked by internal conflict. This culminated in the formation of the breakaway group Jamaah Islamiyah (JI) whose members took a ritual oath (*bai'at*) to help, love and protect other Muslims (Al-Wala), and to defend and protect all JI members including its Amir.

The *bai'at* was the key factor in NII and JI because it made a member committed to the organization and made the organization exclusive, which is also typical of many religious and non-religious sects. The ritual oath built in-group versus out-group feelings and radicalism, and other people including Muslims who did not belong to NII or JI were regarded as infidels. Most importantly, JI's purpose was much broader than that of NII and was to create Islamic States anywhere. In other words the intention was to unite all Muslims around the world and thus create an Islamic internationalism in which the aim was to replace secularism with *syariah* law.

Another major turning point in the growth and development of JI was the issuing of an invitation extended to Hambali by Khakid Shaikh Mohammed to meet Osama bin Laden in Afghanistan in 1996 where it was agreed that Al-Qu'ida and

Hambali would work together on targets of mutual interest. Although bin Laden supports the Taliban he is not a Taliban and neither is he a religious leader (*ulama*) and thus able to issue a *fatwa*. Never the less the pronouncement issued by Osama bin Laden at this time was regarded as *fatwa* by his followers, and as a result extreme ideas gathered pace within JI so that, whereas previously military skill was used to support oppressed Moslem people, now it could be used to maim and kill ordinary citizens. These developments were not universally supported within JI, however, and tensions developed between its moderate and radical wings with the latter eventually gaining the upper hand. Consequently Hambali replaced Mukhlas as the leader of JI which by now was transformed into a fully-blown terrorist group.

As an organization JI may be examined from several perspectives. In terms of ideology it promulgated an extreme form of doctrine in which those teachings of the *Qur'an* that were written for the battlefield were taken out of context and were not only applied to normal society but also used to legitimise violence. Many scholars consider it to be an incorrect interpretation of Islam. In terms of practice this ideology was used to position the movement at the vanguard of the radical Moslem community, exhort exclusivity and extremism, proclaim the Islamic State, and evoke Jihad. In addition it was used to glorify death for those frustrated in their present life in the expectation of reward in heaven through martyrdom (*Syuhadah*) and suicide bombing (*Istimata*).

From an organizational perspective JI used an internal military command system involving leaders, cadres and recruits, and this was supplemented by an external social system of collaborators, supporters and sympathisers. They use internet extensively to communicate and to do their propaganda. Its capability was demonstrated by the Bali bombing in 2002 in which over 200 people were killed.

The Making of a Terrorist

Research into the personality profile of terrorists undertaken by the Institute of Psychological Research in the Faculty of Psychology at the University of Indonesia, as well as other research, indicates that terrorists can be young or old, come from either rich or poor families, and their education can range from little to university degrees. So far in Indonesia the convicted terrorists have all been male although female terrorists are found in non-Moslem contexts such as India and Sri Lanka/Tamil. Many terrorists have psychologically normal dispositions, except for their leaders who show symptoms of antisocial or psychopathic behaviour.

Another finding is that no one wakes up in the morning and decides to become a terrorist. This is achieved by a number of steps. These include a search

for meaning, cultivation by those from within the movement, the presentation of the ideology, control exerted by the movement through social influence and the taking of the oath of allegiance, assignment and task performance, a show of loyalty, moral disengagement through shared responsibility, and de-individualisation through the power of the group.

In addition there is a number of social factors which are influential in the making of a terrorist. These include acts of violence against a family member such as the rape of a mother, sister or daughter; the bashing and humiliation of a father, brother or son; and torture and murder. There has been no such experience of this in relatively peaceful Java but it has occurred in conflict areas such as Ambon, North Maluku and Poso, and of course in conflict-ridden areas in other parts of the world. Other factors include the degree of radicalisation of the Moslem community and its Moslem youth, and the role of religious scholars.

Another important factor is that Indonesian terrorism does not represent the interests of the whole nation. It concerns a very limited number of people in a restricted circle numbering only in the hundreds and thousands. In most cases the families and neighbours in an area do not know what the terrorists are doing yet alone are active in supporting them. This is a critical distinction between terrorism in Indonesia/Asia and its counterpart in the Middle East.

Strategies for Managing Terrorism

Given the scale and scope of attacks such as the Bali bombing, society needs to develop comprehensive systems in order to deal with terrorism in all three of the short, medium and long terms. The short term concerns the immediate consequences of such disasters as Bali and what is required is an organisational capability including the administration of First Aid in the field; the mobilisation of doctors and nurses for the hospitals; the mobilisation of Disaster Aid Units to provide blankets, food and water; and the provision of trauma counselling.

The medium term concerns combating the strength of the terrorist organisation and its modus operandi and at this level what is required is an operational capability including both the military and the police. It also involves establishing strong, stable and reliable government. As may be noted, it is in Asian countries with unstable governments that the terrorist movement poses the greatest threat.

The long term concerns the management of terrorists once they are caught and convicted. Two ways of handling convicted terrorists are open to society. The first is incarceration which has the advantage of containing the problem whilst the terrorist is imprisoned. The disadvantages include the costs involved in such incarceration as well as several unintended consequenc-

es. These include the capacity of prisons to act like universities in facilitating networking and increasing knowledge and skill, and the risk that highly coercive forms of interrogation may actually harden attitudes and increase negative motivation.

An alternative approach is being studied at the International Centre for Political Violence and Terrorist Research which is located in Singapore. In the program developed at this Centre the aim is to change the behaviour and way of thinking of the terrorist, to convince them that their acts are unacceptable, and to break the cycle of violence. The method employed seeks to negate the terrorists' ideological misunderstandings and re-educate them with a rightful Islamic ideology. The purpose is to prevent a repetition of the terrorist's behaviour and to re-integrate the terrorist into the community.

The program involves the formation of a Religious Rehabilitation Group comprising 25 men and women Islamic Scholars. Each detainee in the program is interviewed over a period of a year and the content of the interviews are assessed by two of the Islamic scholars whose aim is to identify erroneous concepts. Counsellors are then briefed on the profile of the detainee and in subsequent meetings with the detainee the counsellor seeks to point out those personal beliefs which are at variance with the *Qur'an* and accepted Islamic beliefs. The ultimate goal is the re-education of the terrorists and their resumption of a normal life within their communities.

The program also addresses the welfare needs of the terrorist's family, another major factor in breaking the cycle of violence. This method is practiced particularly by the Indonesian police. Financial support is provided until the terrorist regains employment, psychological support and counselling are available. The active involvement of religious leaders is also sought. In this regard it is important that the support of the local *ulama* is obtained because only they can really understand the terrorists' language, their way of thinking, and their belief systems. This will normally require some psychological training in active listening so that the terrorists' beliefs are not openly challenged which will only make matters worse.

CONCLUSIONS

Terrorism is here to stay. A good deal of research, especially of a psychological nature, has been conducted on the terrorist as an individual, and this has been augmented by social and organizational studies into the contexts in which they operate. However much more is needed on how to deal with convicted terrorists. Current methods of managing convicted terrorists seem to be counter-productive. In this regard there are programs of rehabilitation which offer hope of being a promising alternative.

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ANALYZING TURKISH PEDESTRIANS AND DRIVERS IN TERMS OF ANGER AND PERSONALITY TRAITS

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***Abstract.** The aim of this study is to compare drivers and pedestrians in terms of anger and personality traits. In addition, the study aims to investigate drivers' and pedestrians' evaluation of each other in imagined scenarios presenting problematic traffic situations. In these scenarios drivers and pedestrians were alternately depicted as responsible for the problematic situation. The sample consisted of 336 participants (188 pedestrians, 72 drivers, and 76 both drivers and pedestrians). Participants were asked to complete a survey. The first part of the survey consisted of demographic characteristics while the second part inquired about their evaluations of the imagined scenarios presenting traffic problems. In order to evaluate the level of participants' anger the sample completed the State-Trait Anger and Expression Scale. Participants' personality traits were obtained by using Five Factor Personality Inventory.*

INTRODUCTION

Anger in traffic has become a major problem of our daily lives recently. Even typically calm, reasonable people can sometimes turn into monsters behind the wheel; when provoked, they yell, wildly gesture, honk and swerve in and out of traffic and may endanger their lives and others. Such angry drivers have the potential for risky driving and fatal injuries. The AAA Foundation for Traffic Safety found that between 1990 and 1996 road rage contributed to 218 deaths and 12,610 injuries (Dittman, 2005). In Turkey they have been rightly called "traffic monsters" which is used to indicate hostile, aggressive and angry drivers who tend to violate the rules or engage in risky behavior more often.

In a study which aimed to find out the reasons that triggered anger in traffic environments, it was shown that anger might stem from different provocations and impediments on the road, such as being ignored, being treated unfairly, and when criticized. In order to enhance safe driving it seems necessary to implement cognitive restructuring or cognitive-behavioral interventions that might lower anger in the programs and campaigns about safe driving (Yasak et al., 2005).

Deffenbacher and friends (1994) found out that male drivers tended to be angrier and drive more slowly in the presence of the police while women tended to be more enraged by illegal behavior and when impeded in traffic. Another study conducted by Underwood, Chapman, Wright & Crundall in 1999, investigated anger and its accompanying factors while driving and the results of angry driving. Participants were asked to keep driving diaries for 2 weeks where they had noted every detail around, including their anger and near crashes. At the same time participants were asked to complete a questionnaire about disrespect in traffic. The results revealed that drivers got angrier in traffic jams. However, they did not indicate that they got angrier in cases where the level of congestion in traffic was higher. More precisely, the study demonstrated the reasons that triggered road rage rather than its levels. The study supported the strong relationship between near crashes and triggers of anger.

Another research that investigated individual reasons for angry driving demonstrated that there was a positive relationship between anger and the incidents frequently happening while driving, driving every day and risky and aggressive driving (Deffenbacher, Lynch, Oetting, & Yingling, 2001).

Deffenbacher and friends (2003) also studied the behavior and traits of high-anger drivers. Their study indicated that high-anger drivers engaged in risky and aggressive driving behavior and were enraged more often than low-anger drivers. High-anger drivers demonstrated the same behaviors in violations and fatal accidents. They also tended to be more aggressive and anxious in character and express anger in more outward and less controlled ways. The results implied that trait-anger theory could be an invaluable assessing source for driving-anger relationship.

This study tries to demonstrate what instigates anger and rage in traffic environments. Until relatively recently the pedestrian has received low levels of priority compared with other modes, particularly compared with motorized vehicles. Therefore, we aimed to compare both drivers and pedestrians in terms of anger and personality traits. In view of the above studies, we tried to investigate the ways drivers and pedestrians express their anger in traffic, if there is a relationship between traffic accidents and fines and anger and personal traits. Accordingly, we hypothesized the following: In a traffic accident resulting from a driver's fault, drivers tend to put the blame on the pedestrians. Similarly, pe-

pedestrians tend to blame the drivers when the accident results from a pedestrian's fault. Our next hypothesis was that there were differences in personality traits between those who were ticketed or fined and those who were not. In a similar manner, personality traits of those who were involved in crashes were different compared with those who were not. And finally, drivers' anger levels (anger-out, anger-in, anger control) affected the rate of being fined or involvement in crashes.

METHODS

Samples

335 participants took part in this study. 188 of the participants were pedestrians, 72 were drivers, and 75 of them were driver-pedestrians. 189 of the participants were women and 146 men, between the ages of 17–77 years, with the average age 32,28. Participants' level of educational background varied from primary school degree (21%), to high school (50%), and university degree or postgraduate (29%). 211 of the participants had a driving license (63%) while 124 of them did not (37%). 64 (that is 30%) of the participants with a driving license defined themselves as pedestrians, 72 (34%) of them defined themselves as drivers, while 75 (36%) of the same group defined themselves as driver-pedestrians. 64 of the pedestrians, that is 34 %, had a driving license while 124 of them (66%) did not.

Drivers with a driving license varied in terms of their active driving experience: 59 of the drivers (28%) with a driving license stated that they have less than one year active driving experience, while 59 of them (28%) had 1–5 years experience, 33 (15,6%) had 6–10 years experience, and 60 of them (28,4%) had more than 10 years of experience. 71 of the drivers (34%) and 25 of the pedestrians (8%) stated that they had had traffic accidents.

Materials

Participants completed a survey. They were asked to evaluate imagined scenarios presenting traffic problems between drivers and pedestrians.

In order to assess the anger components, participants were asked to complete the State-Trait Anger and Expression Scale developed by Spielberger, Jacobs, Russel and Crane in 1983. The scale consists of 34 items, with the sub-scales of State (10 items) and Trait (24 items). The Trait sub-scale is further divided into 3 sub-scales: Anger Control (anger-control, 8 items), Anger Expression-Out (anger-out, 8 items), Anger Expression-In (anger-in, 8 items).

The scale uses a Lickert type measurement where each item has values between 1 and 4 points. Cronbach Alpha Coefficients for State Anger Scale range

from 0.68 to 0.84. Cronbach Alpha Coefficients for anger-out, anger-in, and anger-control sub-scales were found to be 0.78, 0.62, and 0.84 respectively (Özer, 1994; Savaşır and Şahin, 1997). Finally, participants' personality traits were obtained by using Five Factor Personality Inventory.

Five Factor Personality Inventory (FFPI) developed by Somer, Korkmaz and Tatar (2002) is a 220 items personality inventory designed to assess the main five personality traits namely Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness and their 17 sub-dimensions. Item responses are made using a five point-format. The inventory's Manual provides evidence for reliability and validity of the measurement device.

RESULTS

The difference in the anger levels of the drivers and pedestrians in various traffic scenarios was evaluated by using Mann Whitney U Test. The results obtained from these evaluations were as follows: "Unnecessary honking, blinking the headlights" $z = -2.01$; $p < .05$, "Pedestrians' disobedience to traffic lights" $z = -4.61$; $p < .01$. In case of "pedestrians' neglect of pavements, overpass and underpass," drivers stated that they got angrier than the pedestrians. On the other hand, pedestrians stated that they got angrier than the drivers in the following cases: "Drivers' not allowing the pedestrians to cross when there is no pedestrian crossing" $z = -3.34$; $p < .01$, "Drivers' disobedience to traffic lights" $z = -2.15$; $p < .01$, "Drivers' carelessness and misbehavior towards the pedestrians" $z = -4.15$; $p < .01$, and "Parking the cars on the pavement" $z = -2.03$; $p < .05$. (Table 1)

TABLE 1. RESULTS OF PEDESTRIAN, DRIVER AND SEX VARIABLES

	df	F	ETA	p
Pedestrian – Driver	2	0,34	,002	,71
Sex	1	2,18	,007	,14
Pedestrian – Driver X Sex	2	3,50	,021	,03
error	328	(26,94)		

Participants' state, anger-in, anger-out, and anger-control scores were tested according to their sex and being a driver or a pedestrian. Only the state anger sub-scales were significant. While being a driver or sex variables alone were not significant, the interaction between those two variables was seen to be significant. According to this, female pedestrians' state anger levels were found to be higher compared to the male pedestrians' state anger levels. On the other hand, female drivers' state anger levels were comparatively lower than male drivers' levels. $F(2,334) = 3,50$, $p < ,03$, $\eta^2 = ,021$) (Table 2).

TABLE 2. DIFFERENCE IN THE ANGER LEVELS OF THE DRIVERS AND PEDESTRIANS IN VARIOUS TRAFFIC SCENARIOS

	Pedestrian (n=178) Mean rank	Driver (n=72) Mean rank	Z
Unnecessary honking, blinking the headlights	131,23	111,34	-2.01*
Pedestrians' disobedience to traffic lights	137,46	95,94	-4. 61**
Drivers' not allowing the pedestrians to cross when there is no pedestrian crossing	115,40	148,59	-3.34**
Drivers' carelessness and misbehavior towards the pedestrians	113,09	154,28	-4.15**
Pedestrians' neglect of pavements, overpass and underpass	134,08	102,69	-3.15**
Drivers' disobedience to traffic lights	116,89	144,94	-2.84**
Parking the cars on the pavement	120,15	140,53	-2.03*

Various scenarios were included into the study. An example for a such a scenario would be like “A man is late to take his daughter from school. In order to get to school faster he unconsciously violates the speed limit. He notices the red light at the last minute. Although he puts on brakes, he bumps slightly into the young man that has been crossing the street. The young man is slightly injured.” After this, the participant was asked to decide the degree of the driver’s and the young man’s responsibility for the accident. Finally, the participant had to decide whether he was angrier with the driver or the pedestrian.

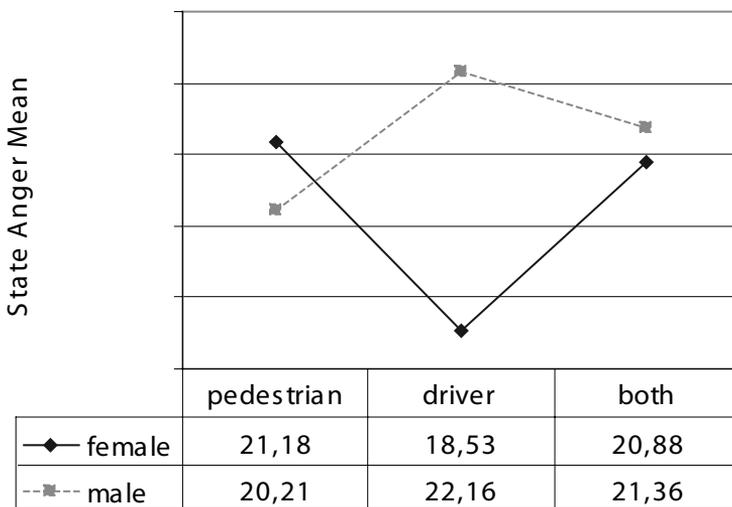


FIGURE 1. SEX AND STATE ANGER INTERACTION

In scenarios where drivers and pedestrians were right, both groups indicated similar views. Therefore, no significance was observed in such cases.

The scores of the drivers, pedestrians and driver-pedestrians obtained from the sub-scales of the Five Factor Personality Inventory were analyzed by ANOVA (Welch procedure was conducted because of the violation of the homogeneity of variance). Results demonstrated that drivers and pedestrians were significantly different in terms of their means obtained from the following sub-scales: emotional stability $F(2,331) = 7,00$, $p < .01$, neuroticism $F(2,331) = 3,25$, $p < .05$, self-confidence $F(2,331) = 3,51$, $p < .05$, analytical thinking $F(2,141) = 4,11$, $p < .05$, sensitivity $F(2,135) = 3,93$, $p < .05$ and openness to experience $F(2,331) = 4,97$, $p < .$ It is seen that, compared to the drivers pedestrians were more likely to demonstrate such personality traits as emotional stability, sensitivity, openness to experience and analytical thinking. Similarly, pedestrians were more likely to express neuroticism, emotional stability and lack of self-consciousness compared to the driver-pedestrians.

DISCUSSION

The results of the study demonstrated that drivers got angrier when pedestrians violate traffic rules and pedestrians were enraged more when it is the drivers that violate the rules. This difference, however, was not observed in the various scenarios presented to both pedestrians and drivers. They indicated similar views in the scenarios. This result could be attributed to the detailed presentation of the scenarios where either drivers or pedestrians were made to understand the reason of the violation of the other party, after which they become more tolerant towards each other.

Male drivers' state anger scores were found to be significantly higher compared to female drivers' scores. This is in accordance with the previous findings that demonstrated that male drivers tended to be angrier in traffic environments.

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DISASTER PSYCHOSOCIAL RELIEF WORK: EXPERIENCES FROM TURKEY

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Abstract. *In the case of disasters, communities, as well as individuals, can continue to feel the effects of the event for many years after they have occurred as they can bring about physical, material and economic losses. The high level of traumatic stress after a disaster is a product of the multiplicity of “disaster related traumatic experiences” rather than magnitude of the disaster itself. Traumatic stress, in such situations, is usually an outcome of the cumulative impact of multiple disaster stressors and their subsequent secondary effects. Considering the effects of disasters on individuals and their communities, the need for implementing appropriate disaster psychosocial relief programs become clear. Turkey has gone through lots of traumatic experiences due to disasters through out its history. Especially after the 1999 Marmara Earthquake, the vitality of working with systematic and comprehensive psychosocial relief programs became even more obvious than ever. After the Marmara earthquake, psychosocial relief work done during the acute phase and scientific studies conducted to derive culture-specific knowledge and to plan disaster mental health services during the long term have clearly indicated the necessity of developing a psychosocial plan for large-scale disasters. Based on the knowledge derived from these experiences, similar programs have been implemented in other natural disasters, and man-made traumatic incidents such as terrorist attacks and accidents. In this presentation, the disaster psychosocial relief efforts starting from preventive pre-disaster planning and preparedness to post-disaster relief work and long-term interventions will be reviewed and experiences from Turkey will be discussed.*

Keywords: *disaster, psychosocial, relief work, Turkey.*

INTRODUCTION

Disasters, which are considered as traumatic experiences, have been one of the most significant events affecting human life throughout the history. Major calamities, taking place all over the world, one following another, have increased the sensitivity of both communities and professionals from diverse disciplines; thus triggered the scientific work in the field. The involvement of numerous disciplines in the management and the study of different types of disasters have led to various definitions of the concept of disaster. One of the most comprehensive definitions comes from the World Health Organisation (1998):

“A disaster is an occurrence that causes damage, ecological disruption, loss of human life, deterioration of health and health services on a scale sufficient to warrant an extraordinary response from outside the affected community area.”

In the case of disasters, communities, as well as individuals, may continue to feel the effects of the event for many years after they have occurred as they can bring about physical, economic, and social losses. Therefore, both the effects of disaster and responses to this event are conceptualized not as purely psychological or social, but as “psychosocial” (Ehrenreich, 2001).

Considering the effects of disasters on individuals and communities, the need for implementing appropriate disaster psychosocial relief programs becomes clear. The term “psychosocial relief program” refers to the programs aiming to improve the psychosocial well-being of people. Psychosocial interventions used in these programs promote human capacity or the social ecology of a community and contribute to efforts to re-establish culture and values thereby contributing to the psychosocial well-being of individuals and their communities (Psychosocial Working Group, 2003).

Disaster psychosocial relief programs are suggested to include the following tasks (Baron, 2006):

1. Assessment of the population’s need, problems, resources and capacities at individual, family and societal levels.
2. Development of a strategy with interventions directed to fulfill the goals of the program within the capacities of the people.
3. Training a team to implement the psychosocial interventions.
4. Empowerment of the individuals, families and communities for self-help.
5. Providing ongoing supervision and training for the team by experienced senior team members.
6. Providing individual and organizational ‘care for each caretaker’.
7. Evaluation of the effectiveness of the intervention strategies.

The psychosocial programs have been considered a major component of the overall disaster management by the professionals and the authorities, in recent decades. This recognition has accelerated the planning of psychosocial activities both in the pre-disaster period as a part of the preparedness efforts and in the post-disaster period as part of the relief program.

Since disasters come in many forms, there is no single type of activity or intervention in these psychosocial programs. The variety of the services is in part influenced by the characteristics of the disaster, such as the type, magnitude, and expansion, and by the pre- and post-disaster variables such as the culture of the affected population, preparedness, and availability of economic and human resources.

DISASTERS AND DISASTER PSYCHOSOCIAL PROGRAMS IN TURKEY

Turkey has gone through lots of traumatic experiences due to disasters through out its history. Although research on psychological trauma has started in the beginning of 1980s (eg., Karanci, 1997; Karanci & Rustemli, 1995; Rustemli & Karanci, 1996), systematic and organized work began to arise only after 1999 Marmara earthquakes. In 1999, two massive earthquakes within less than three months struck Turkey's most densely populated region. The physical, economic, and psychological outcomes of these disasters affected the whole country as well as the direct victims of the event, for years. The psychosocial effects of these disasters were tried to be handled by means of three major psychosocial programmes:

Psychosocial Support Project for the Families and Children Affected by Marmara Earthquake (see Box 1)

- ♣ The aim of this project was to raise consciousness of the target groups including general population, teachers, health professionals, and rescue workers as well as the survivors, regarding the possible psychosocial impacts of major disasters, and the coping strategies, by different means such as outreach activities, distribution of leaflets, and media coverage (Sahin, 1999).
- ♣ Within the framework of the outreach activities, beginning from the impact phase, teams of volunteer psychologists were available in temporary housings, and tent cities. The essential responsibilities of these professionals were facilitating the communication of the survivors and the local authorities and the service providers; normalizing the posttraumatic stress reactions; helping the survivors to return to their pre-disaster life as much as possible within the limits of the post-disaster conditions; and supporting the other relief workers.

- ◆ As another means of reaching large groups, Turkish Psychological Association prepared various leaflets on different topics related with the psychosocial effects. Print and mass media was the other tool to reach large number of people for information dissemination.

BOX 1. PSYCHOSOCIAL SUPPORT PROJECT FOR THE FAMILIES AND CHILDREN AFFECTED BY MARMARA EARTHQUAKE

Aim: <i>To raise consciousness of the target groups including general population, teachers, health professionals, and rescue workers as well as the survivors, regarding the possible psychosocial impacts of major disasters, and the coping strategies.</i>
Collaborating Organizations: <i>Turkish Psychological Association and UNICEF</i>
Project team: <i>Coordinators (organization of the relief work both in the centre –TPA Ankara office– and in earthquake affected region) Field workers (volunteer psychologists and other mental health professionals)</i>
Project type: <i>Psychological First Aid, education, health, and rehabilitation</i>
Outcome: <i>12,000 earthquake survivors were reached</i>
Duration: <i>7 months (September 1999-April 2000)</i>

Strengthening the Coping Capacity of the Affected Community after the Marmara Earthquake (see Box 2)

Through this project, it was aimed to disseminate knowledge on coping strategies for post-disaster reactions, and to establish a model for disaster preparedness. Within the framework of this project, 21,479 earthquake survivors were reached by 250 local trainers who were trained by 15 master trainers.

BOX 2. STRENGTHENING THE COPING CAPACITY OF THE AFFECTED COMMUNITY AFTER THE MARMARA EARTHQUAKE

Aim: <i>To disseminate knowledge on coping strategies for post-disaster reactions, and establish a model for disaster preparedness</i>
Collaborating Organizations: <i>Turkish Psychological Association and UNDP</i>
Project team: <i>Coordinators (Academicians from Middle East Technical University) Master Trainers: 15 psychologists Local Trainers: 250</i>
Project type: <i>Education, health, and rehabilitation</i>
Outcome: <i>21,479 earthquake survivors were reached</i>
Duration: <i>6 months (June 2000-December 2000)</i>

Psychosocial School Project

The objective of this program was to re-establish a sense of control and to reduce the psychological impact of the disaster on children as well as on adults. For this purpose, the first set of activities was directed towards the teachers to help them cope better and thereby assist in re-establishing support activities for the children; and the second set of activities were directed towards the children to help them and their families cope with the effects of the disaster.

A psychoeducational component was developed to complement these activities to be able to reach out to children, teachers, and parents who could not be involved in the more specialized activities (Sahin, Batigun, and Yilmaz, 2001).

BOX 3. PSYCHOSOCIAL SCHOOL PROJECT

Aim: <i>To re-establish a sense of control and reduce the psychological impact of the disaster on children as well as adults</i>
Collaborating Institutions: <i>MoNE and UNICEF</i>
Project team: <i>Coordinators (Experts at UNICEF and MoNE) Field workers (Psychologists and psychological counselors)</i>
Project type: <i>Education, health, and rehabilitation</i>
Outcome: <i>Improvement in the professional skills of the counselors Acceleration of the recovery process of the children Improvement in academic performance of the children Increase in problem solving skills and self-esteem of the children Increase in the sense of competence, and self-esteem of the parents Accumulation of knowledge on psychotrauma in professionals</i>
Duration: <i>10 months (September 1999-June 2000)</i>

Based on the knowledge derived through these experiences, similar programs have been implemented in other natural disasters, and man-made traumatic incidents such as accidents and terrorist attacks in Turkey (see Box 4).

After the Marmara earthquake and other experiences, psychosocial programmes implemented during the acute phase and the long term, and also scientific studies conducted to derive culture-specific knowledge (eg., Aker, 2006; Gökler, 2001; Karanci, 2005; Sahin, Batigun, and Yilmaz, 2001; Yilmaz and Sahin, 2007) have clearly indicated the necessity of developing a comprehensive psychosocial plan for large-scale disasters.

BOX 4. A SAMPLE OF MAJOR DISASTERS OF TURKEY IN THE LAST DECADE

Natural Disasters	Accidents	Mass Violence
<i>Antakya Flood Disaster</i> (2001)	<i>Air crash (Diyarbakir)</i> (2003)	<i>Attacks because of the on-going conflict for years in Southeast region</i>
<i>Afyon Earthquake</i> (2002)	<i>Air crash (Isparta)</i> (2007)	<i>Terrorist attacks in Istanbul</i> (British Consulate & Synagogues) (2003)
<i>Bingöl Earthquake</i> (2003)	<i>Air crash (Netherlands)</i> (2009)	<i>Terrorist attack in Ankara</i> (Anafartalar Mall) (2007)

IMPROVEMENTS IN DISASTER PSYCHOSOCIAL RELIEF WORK IN TURKEY

The last decade has witnessed a major improvement in the field of disaster management, especially psychosocial dimension of disasters, in Turkey. In this context, one of the most significant developments has been the establishment of *Kocaeli University Psychological Trauma Centre* in 2002. The primary goals of the centre are the improvement of disaster mental health services, providing support for the professionals working in this field and enhancing the collaborative work in national and international levels.

The *accumulation of scientific knowledge* has been a core component of these improvements. Two recent reviews (Yilmaz, 2009; Gokler-Danisman, 2009) have revealed that almost 100 scientific studies on disaster mental health were published within the last decade both in national and international journals. In addition to these publications, there are a great number of unpublished master and doctoral theses on psychosocial dimension of disasters. The findings of all these research have significant implications for planning disaster psychosocial interventions.

Organization of scientific meetings is another group of scientific activity. One of these meetings was the Symposium called "*Research on Psychological Effects of the Earthquake: towards an Original Book*" which was held by Turkish Psychological Association in 2001. The aim of this Symposium was to overview the studies conducted after the Marmara earthquake to be able to see the picture 2 years after the disaster. Another scientific meeting is the "*International*

Psychological Trauma Symposium” which is held biannually since 1999. The purpose of this symposium is to share knowledge and experiences to gain insight into psychological trauma and associated psychological and social problems.

Another improvement has been made in terms of *preparedness*. Since capacity building is an indispensable component of preparedness, it has been aimed to increase the number of volunteers and professionals who can implement psychosocial interventions in acute phase and in long term. Thus, several trainings on disaster psychology have been conducted. The next step in these activities is to develop standardized training modules in different levels of training (such as primary, intermediate, advanced) for different target groups of trainees (such as non-professionals, emergency service workers, professionals etc.). The last stage of all these efforts is the foundation of *Union of Disaster Psychosocial Services (UDPS)*. Based on the fact that disaster relief work necessitated a multidimensional collaboration, 6 NGOs working in the field of mental health (Turkish Psychological Association, Turkish Red Crescent, Psychiatric Association of Turkey, Child and Adolescent Mental Health Association, Social Workers Association, Turkish Psychological Counseling and Guidance Association) have come together in order to work in collaboration in case of disasters. Since its foundation, all the disaster relief efforts have been made under the framework of this Union.

CONCLUSIONS

Throughout these years, all these efforts, experiences, and accumulation of knowledge have led to a more standardized psychosocial model of Turkey. Today, it is more parallel with international perspective which is guided by some widely accepted principles (European Policy Paper, 2001). With some limitations, we try to structure our psychosocial model on these principles on which any disaster plan should be based:

- ♣ Psychosocial relief work must be integrated with the overall relief programmes
- ♣ A continuous appraisal of the global situation is needed for the long term
- ♣ Physical safety and material security underlie emotional stability
- ♣ Post-disaster psychosocial reactions should be considered to be “normal”, in the context of “abnormal” circumstances
- ♣ Interventions should be matched to the phase of disaster
- ♣ Interventions must take people’s culture into account
- ♣ Children, elderly, and rescue workers have special needs

The nature, extent, and evolution of the needs of individuals and communities affected by disasters can vary in different phases of the same event, or in various types of mass emergencies. Therefore, continuous assessment of the needs and systematic evaluation of the effectiveness of psychosocial programs are indispensable in disaster psychosocial relief work.

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**PAPERS OF SYMPOSIUM 8:
PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT**

EFFECTS OF INDUSTRY ON 360-DEGREE RATINGS

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Abstract. *The current study examined the effects of industry on 360-degree feedback by comparing self-ratings of target managers' managerial competence with competence ratings from peers, subordinates, and supervisors employed in the retail and manufacturing industries. Archival field data were used in this study to test possible differences in performance ratings based on industry. The data set contained ratings of 300 real leaders by actual subordinates, peers, and supervisors employed in 19 companies in two industries (manufacturing and retail). This study hypothesized that managers employed in manufacturing will rate themselves lower but will receive higher ratings compared to managers in retail. In terms of self-awareness, more managers from the field of retail will be categorized as in-agreement compared to managers from the manufacturing field and more managers from the field of manufacturing will be categorized as under-estimators compared to managers in the field of retail. Results showed that the industry target managers work in has a significant effect on others' ratings and rating congruence. Findings point that target managers working in manufacturing tend to receive higher ratings from others. In addition, they also tend to be in-agreement and thus demonstrated a higher self-awareness in comparison with target managers employed in retail.*

Keywords: *industry, 360-degree ratings, rating agreement, self-awareness*

INTRODUCTION

The increased frequency of formal leadership development programs, the tendency for organizations to utilize flat structures and cross-functional teams, and the growing desire to survey employees and gather information on a wide variety of issues are some of the main reasons pointed out as triggers of the rapid expansion in the interest in 360-degree feedback (Toegel & Conger, 2003). It is estimated that between 10 and 15 percent of organizations, including most Fortune 500 companies, utilized a multi-source rating process in the 1990s (Antonioni, 1996;

Cheung, 1999; Yammarino & Atwater, 1997) – a number that rose to 65 percent by 2000 (Pfau & Kay, 2002).

OVERVIEW OF 360-DEGREE PROGRAMS

360-degree systems involve the process of gathering ratings from numerous sources, including supervisors, peers, subordinates, and clients, and comparing those evaluations to the target manager's self-ratings. Even though 360-degree feedback is not a completely new concept and is based on a combination of survey feedback and performance appraisal, its value stems from the belief that the complexity and the multidimensional nature of the job of a manager has increased to the point that it requires evaluation from multiple viewpoints to gather a complete picture of one's performance and competence (Brutus, Fleenor, & London, 1998; Diefendorff, Silverman, & Greguras, 2005; London & Smither, 1995). 360-degree feedback is generally designed to help managers improve their performance and leadership abilities while aligning their personal perceptions of themselves with those of their colleagues in order to better meet the strategic goals of the organization, and can be used for various purposes, including developmental, administrative, and/or system maintenance (Greguras, Robie, Schleicher, & Goff, 2003).

The ability to see how a wide variety of people perceive the target manager's behavior and to compare it to his/her own views has resulted in various benefits, including increased self-awareness which improves managerial and organizational performance through improved communication and work relationships, increased involvement opportunities, more resolved conflicts, communicated respect for employee opinion, and established participative organizational culture (London & Beatty, 1993; Waldman, Atwater, & Antonioni, 1998). Thus, the process of multi-source feedback is a great way to both help accomplish personal and organizational development and effectiveness (Tornow & Tornow, 2001) and increase managerial self-awareness (Church & Bracken, 1997).

SELF-AWARENESS AND SELF-OTHER AGREEMENT

The extent to which self-ratings are similar to the ratings provided by others (e.g., supervisors, superiors, peers) has been accepted as a measure of self-awareness – the degree to which people understand their strengths and weaknesses (Fletcher & Baldry, 2000; London & Smither, 1995). Self-awareness is associated with leadership effectiveness and ability to improve behavior based on received feedback (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1998; Atwater & Yammarino, 1992). It has also been linked to higher performance ratings (Atwater et al., 1998; Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Bass & Yammarino, 1991; Furnham & Stringfield, 1994), greater accomplishments, higher effectiveness and promotability (Yammarino & Atwater, 2001).

There are multiple ways to measure self-other agreement, including an index of self-other similarity, or self-awareness “score”, “gap analysis”, or “congruence-*d*”, and “relative self-awareness”, or “congruence-*r*” (Bailey & Fletcher, 2002). All of these are based on difference scores and difference scores have been found to have multiple issues (i.e., potential for unreliability, systematic correlation with components, questionable construct validity, etc.; Edwards, 2001) which has led to the development of other measurement approaches, including polynomial regression analysis (Edwards, 2001) and Within and Between Analysis (WABA; Atwater & Yammarino, 1997).

An additional option is a four-group model of self-other agreement based on both the degree and the type of agreement between self- and other ratings proposed by Atwater and Yammarino (1997). The authors classified individuals as over-estimators, under-estimators, in-agreement/good estimators, and in-agreement/poor estimators. Over-estimators were expected to demonstrate poorer and less effective performance, have negative attitudes, and frequent conflicts with co-workers; under-estimators were predicted to have mixed performance due to the combination of their desire to improve with low self-esteem, tendency to set low goals, and not realize their full potential; in-agreement/good would be those who perform well and are recognized for it, have positive attitudes, and tend to improve behavior based on the feedback received; and in-agreement/poor – those who not only see themselves as poor performers but are also identified as such, have inadequate knowledge, skills, and abilities, low self-esteem, and low commitment and desire to change even though they can identify the need (Yammarino & Atwater, 1997; 2001). The four-group model presented by Atwater and Yammarino (1992; 1997) uses the magnitude of self-other differences to classify individuals into agreement categories and provides a basis for understanding and expecting different individual and organizational outcomes based on the category in which the target manager falls. Adding a focus on outcomes makes the model very valuable and makes it the measurement tool of choice in the current research.

INDUSTRY DIFFERENCES IN 360-DEGREE RATINGS

Industry refers to the type of product or service an organization provides. Examples of industries include manufacturing, healthcare, education, financial services, retail, and utilities. Industries can also be categorized as male-dominated, in which the percentage of men working is much higher than women (e.g., production, transportation, engineering, etc.), or female-dominated, when there is a higher percentage of female workers compared to that of male workers (e.g., administration, healthcare, apparel sales, etc.). According to studies of gender differences in occupational employment (Gabriel & Schmitz, 2007; Wootton 1997), men and women tend to be concentrated in different occupations. Traditional

blue-collar professions, such as manufacturing, craft, and labor, are considered male-dominated, while clerical and services jobs are female-dominated. Wootton (1997) stated that the most pronounced differences have consistently occurred in production and repair occupations, where in 1995 only 1 percent of employees were women, as well as in apparel sales, where 83 percent of employees were women. According to Gabriel and Schmitz (2007), gender differences in occupational attainment in the U.S. labor market are persistent and have not changed since the late 1970s and 1980s. For that reason, the current study will compare organizations in the field of retail as representative of female-dominated industries and organizations in the manufacturing field as representative of male-dominated industries. In the 360-degree system used in this research, ratings were made by the target manager himself/herself as well as by his/her supervisor, subordinates, and peers and these raters would be examined across industries.

In an effort to explore whether 360-degree feedback systems work in different industries, Brutus, Fleenor, and London (1998) looked at self, subordinate, peer, and supervisor ratings made in different organizations in the education, military, government, manufacturing, finance, and health care industries. The authors concluded that target managers in educational organizations received highest ratings from self, subordinates, and peers and target managers in manufacturing organizations, received the lowest. The existence of leniency bias was highest in the public sector (including education, military, and government organizations), especially in peer ratings, which led to the conclusion that there is higher objectivity in ratings provided in companies in the private sector (Brutus, et al., 1998).

In terms of self-other agreement in organizations in different industries, Brutus and his colleagues (1998) found that the lowest interrater agreement occurred in government agencies and highest – in education and manufacturing, while within-rater agreement was not affected by organizational type. The authors also examined self-peer agreement and concluded that in the public sector (including education, government, and military organizations) poor performers tend to be over-estimators, which suggests that public organizations may not provide enough constructive criticism to low performing employees. In the private sector (consisting of manufacturing, finance, and health-care organizations), good performers were found likely to be under-estimators – a finding that may point to an inclination of target managers to rate colleagues more leniently than themselves.

Examining discrepancies in self-subordinate perceptions of leadership behavior, Becker, Ayman, and Korabik (2002) found that the lowest self-awareness was demonstrated by women working in the fields of manufacturing, banking, and accounting, compared to men in those settings and women in education. According to the results from their study, greatest perceptual differences can be observed for women working in non-traditional organizations than for women

in traditional settings and men in both. Those differences are explained with the fact that women are perceived as most out-of-role when they are in a leadership position and especially when that position is in a non-traditional setting, such as in the fields of manufacturing, banking, and accounting. The direction of the differences was not determined however due to the way discrepancy scores were calculated, so results did not point out whether the variations were due to higher self- and lower other ratings, or vice versa (Becker et al., 2002). Becker and his colleagues (2002) also found gender differences in perceptions of manager's initiating structure and consideration behavior. The authors compared self-subordinate discrepancies of employees working in industrial and educational settings and concluded that perceptions of women in industrial settings (e.g., bank, accounting, and manufacturing) were more discrepant compared to women in education and men in both settings (Becker et al., 2002).

In sum, differences in self-other perceptions and subsequent ratings undoubtedly exist in different industries. Although findings in past research are not necessarily consistent and the type of industries explored tends to be somewhat limited, the following hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1: The industry in which target manager works will affect self-ratings, such that managers employed in manufacturing will rate themselves lower compared to managers employed in retail.

Hypothesis 2: The industry in which target manager works will affect ratings they receive from others (boss, subordinates, and peers), such that managers in manufacturing will receive higher ratings compared to managers in retail.

Hypothesis 3a: The industry in which target manager work will affect the relationship between self-ratings and the ratings provided by others (boss, subordinates, and peers), such that target managers in retail will demonstrate higher self-awareness by having more congruent self-other ratings compared to managers working in manufacturing. In other words, more managers from the field of retail will be categorized as in-agreement compared to managers from the manufacturing field.

Hypothesis 3b: The industry in which target manager work will affect the relationship between self-ratings and the ratings provided by others (boss, subordinates, and peers), such that more managers from the field of manufacturing will be categorized as under-estimators compared to managers in the field of retail.

METHODOLOGY

DESIGN AND PARTICIPANTS

The hypotheses presented were tested using archival data collected by Psychological Associates – a mid-size Midwestern U.S. consulting company. The data set is comprised of 300 managers (51% male and 49% female managers) randomly

selected from a database of middle- and executive-level managers from a variety of companies in the manufacturing and retail industries (150 from each industry) who underwent a 360-degree appraisal between 2003 and 2008. For the purpose of this study, only managers with self, peer, supervisor, and subordinate ratings were utilized. No demographic information was available since, besides gender of the target manager, no other demographic data were recorded or used in the 360-degree process.

The companies selected from each industry (manufacturing and retail) ranged widely in terms of size, number of employees, locations, and annual revenue. The retail industry sample was comprised of 10 companies selling an extensive variety of items, including electronics, motorcycles, toys, clothes, accessories, shoes, and groceries. The number of stores each company operates varies from 65 in 14 states to 1,500 located throughout the U. S. The above mentioned retail companies employ anywhere between 1,000 and 155,000 workers and generate annual sales from \$2 million to \$232 million. The manufacturing industry sample was comprised of nine companies producing food, packaging materials, refrigeration and air conditioning systems, construction, energy and electrical products, and utilities. They operate anywhere between 10 and 60 processing plants and facilities located from primarily in the Midwest to anywhere in the U. S. and employ between 3,000 to 138,000 workers. Annual sales range from \$2 million to \$26 million.

360-DEGREE FEEDBACK TOOL

The tool used by Psychological Associates in the 360-degree process is called the Proficient Executive™ and was developed and validated by the consulting company for the purpose of improving the effectiveness of managers. Ratings are obtained from the target managers themselves and their peers, subordinates, and supervisor on twelve core competency areas including Analyzes Issues, Knows the Business, Inspires People, Empowers Others, Coaches and Provides Feedback, Models Professionalism, Gets Results, Shows Vision, Communicates Effectively, Values People, Handles Challenges, and Promotes Teamwork (Psychological Associates, 2001; 2006). Each area is evaluated through ratings on five to seven questions provided on a six-point Likert scale from 1 = never to 6 = always. A NA = not applicable rating also is available for the cases when the rater has not had the opportunity to observe the target manager exhibiting the skill in question. The raters usually include self, one supervisor and an average of four or more subordinates and peers, so the report includes the actual rating provided by the supervisor and an average and a range of ratings for each of the other two groups of raters (subordinates and peers). The Proficient Executive™ demonstrated strong reliability and internal consistency in each core competency area with Cronbach's alphas ranging from $r = .84$ to $.91$ in a study of 523 managers who received ratings from 6029 raters (Psychological Associates, 2001).

RESULTS

GENERAL DESCRIPTIVES

Means and standard deviations of target managers' self-ratings and others' ratings are presented in Table 1. Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the overall 360-degree feedback measure was .98 for all raters.

Two analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted with industry (manufacturing and retail) as the independent variable and target managers' mean self-ratings as the dependent variable for the first ANOVA and target managers' mean others' ratings as the dependent variable for the second ANOVA. For the purpose of statistical analyses, average self-ratings were computed by averaging all self-ratings across dimensions. Average others' ratings were computed by averaging all others' ratings (subordinates, peers, and boss) across dimensions. One 2 x 4 chi-square tests of independence also were conducted. It compared the number of target managers employed in manufacturing and retail across the above mentioned four categories. Categories were created as a result of a comparison between target managers' self-ratings of managerial competence and the mean ratings of the other raters (subordinates, peers, and supervisor).

TABLE 1. MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TARGET MANAGERS' SELF- AND OTHERS' RATINGS

Industry	Self-Ratings		Others' Ratings	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Manufacturing	4.93	0.39	4.95	0.30
Retail	4.86	0.37	4.79	0.37

Note: $N = 300$. Self-Ratings designates the target managers' self-ratings of performance on a six-point scale. Others' Ratings designates the average performance ratings for peers, subordinates, and supervisor on a six-point scale.

Four cutoff scores were created by taking half a standard deviation above and below the self-ratings mean ($M = 4.89$, $SD = .37$) and half a standard deviation above and below the others' ratings mean ($M = 4.87$, $SD = .35$) in order to define the four categories. There were 201 participants who were excluded from the chi-square analysis due to the fact that their average self-ratings fell between 4.70 and 5.08 and/or their others' ratings fell between 4.69 and 5.05. That left 99 target managers that were classified in one of the four categories of self-awareness (under-estimator, in-agreement/good, in-agreement/bad, and over-estimator). When separated by industry, there were 14 target managers working in manufacturing and 7 working in retail in the category of under-estimator, 8 working in manufac-

turing and 15 working in retail – in the in-agreement/bad category, 30 employed in manufacturing and 6 in retail – in the in-agreement/good category, and 8 employed in manufacturing and 11 in retail – in the over-estimator category.

Results for each hypothesis are investigated next.

HYPOTHESIS TESTING

Hypothesis 1 stated that industry in which target manager works would affect *self*-ratings, such that managers employed in manufacturing will rate themselves lower compared to managers employed in retail. This hypothesis was tested using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) with target managers' mean self-ratings as the dependent variable and industry (manufacturing and retail) as the independent variables. Results show that the main effect of industry was not significant, $F(1, 296) = 2.50$, $p = .12$, partial $\eta^2 = .12$, indicating that the industry target managers work in does not affect the ratings managers give themselves. Therefore, hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Hypothesis 2 stated that the industry in which target manager works would affect ratings they receive from *others* (boss, subordinates, and peers), such that managers in manufacturing will receive higher ratings compared to managers in retail. This hypothesis was tested using another analysis of variance (ANOVA) with target managers' other ratings (mean ratings made by boss, subordinates, and peers) as the dependent variable and industry (manufacturing and retail) as the independent variables. Results showed that the main effect of industry was significant, $F(1, 296) = 17.84$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .06$, indicating that when averaging across gender, the industry target managers work in (manufacturing $M = 4.95$, $SD = .30$, retail $M = 4.79$, $SD = .37$) does affect the way they are rated by others (boss, subordinates, and peers). Therefore, hypothesis 2 was supported. Effect size was moderate (Cohen, 1988).

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the industry in which target manager work will affect the relationship between self-ratings and the ratings provided by others (boss, subordinates, and peers), such that target managers in retail will demonstrate higher *self-awareness* by having more congruent self-other ratings compared to managers working in manufacturing (3a). More managers from the field of manufacturing will be categorized as under-estimators compared to managers in the field of retail (3b). This hypothesis was tested using a 2×4 chi-square test of independence that compared the number of target managers employed in the retail and manufacturing industries across the four categories of self-awareness (under-estimator, in-agreement/good, in-agreement/bad, and over-estimator). Results from this analysis also were significant but in the opposite of predicted in the hypothesis direction, $\chi^2(3, N = 99) = 17.26$, $p = .001$, with 54% of target managers working in retail falling in the category of in-agreement compared to

63% of target managers working in manufacturing (3a). Twenty-eight percent of target managers employed in retail fell in the category of over-estimators and 18% were under-estimators. In manufacturing, 13% of target managers were over-estimators whereas 23% were under-estimators (3b). Results from chi-square analysis are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2. PERCENTAGE OF TARGET MANAGERS IN THE FOUR SELF-AWARENESS CATEGORIES, ACCORDING TO INDUSTRY

Industry	Self-Awareness Categories			
	Under-Estimator	In-Agreement/ Bad	In-Agreement/ Good	Over-Estimator
Retail	18%	39%	15%	28%
Manufacturing	23%	13%	50%	13%

Note: $N = 99$.

DISCUSSION

The current study examined the effects of industry on multi-source, also known as multi-rater or 360-degree feedback by comparing self-ratings of target managers' managerial competence with competence ratings from peers, subordinates, and supervisors employed in the retail and manufacturing industries. Archival field data were used in this study to test possible differences in performance ratings based on industry. The data set contained ratings of 300 real leaders by actual subordinates, peers, and supervisors employed in 19 companies in two industries (manufacturing and retail).

The industry in which target manager works was not found to affect self-ratings and, therefore, hypothesis one was not supported. Results were contrary to the findings of Brutus, Fleenor, and London (1998) who concluded that target managers in manufacturing organizations, received the lowest self-ratings compared to target managers in the education, military, government, finance, and health care industries.

A significant univariate difference was found in the way target managers were rated by others (subordinates, peers, and supervisor) depending on the industry in which they were employed. Results showed that target managers working in manufacturing received significantly higher ratings compared to target managers working in retail and therefore hypothesis two was supported. In terms of manufacturing, the study's findings completely contradict the results of Brutus and his colleagues (1998) stating that managers working in the field of manufacturing received the lowest ratings from others compared to managers employed in education, military, government organizations, finance, and

healthcare. Unfortunately, the authors did not study managerial ratings in the field of retail. It is possible that the current findings are due to higher leniency of raters working in manufacturing. Research shows that, when people work together longer, they tend to be more lenient in evaluating each other's performance (Duarte et al., 1994).

According to data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2009), at the end of 2007 the turnover rates were 24 percent in the field of manufacturing and 44 percent in the field of retail. The lower turnover rates in manufacturing may indicate a tendency for employees in manufacturing to work with each other longer which could be contributing to the higher rating leniency in the field. Another possible explanation for the results is the fact that people working in manufacturing have considerably less physical contact among themselves compared to people employed in the retail sector. Because of that, it is possible that raters in retail organizations are somewhat more critical and tend to give lower ratings to their peers, subordinates, and supervisors. It is also possible that more competition exists in the field of retail and because of that peer ratings are lower compared to similar ratings received in manufacturing which negatively affects others' ratings in general.

In addition to these findings, there also was a significant difference between the different self-awareness categories (under-estimator, in-agreement/bad, in-agreement/good, and over-estimator) for industry, indicating that the industry in which target managers are employed has a significant effect on their self-awareness (hypothesis 3). More target managers in the field of retail were expected to demonstrate higher self-awareness by having more congruent self-other ratings compared to managers working in manufacturing (3a). Unfortunately, results were in the opposite direction with more target managers working in manufacturing (63 percent) falling in the category of in-agreement compared to target managers working in retail (54 percent). Results were in the proposed direction in terms on hypothesis 3b which expected that more managers from the field of manufacturing (23 percent) will be categorized as under-estimators compared to managers in the field of retail (18 percent).

Overall, in manufacturing more target managers fell in the categories of under-estimator and in-agreement/good, whereas in retail more target managers fell in the categories of over-estimator and in-agreement/bad. Both the under-estimator and in-agreement/good categories are characterized by high others' ratings and both the over-estimator and in-agreement/bad categories are characterized by low others' ratings. Therefore, it is possible that the significant effect of industry on others' ratings may be playing into the results of the self-awareness differences between target managers employed in different industries. These findings are similar to the results of Brutus and his colleagues (1998) which showed that in manufacturing performers were likely to be under-estimators. The authors ex-

plain the results with a possible inclination of target managers to rate colleagues more leniently than themselves (Brutus, et al., 1998). In the current research more target managers in the field of manufacturing were in-agreement and fell mainly in the category of in-agreement/good, which may point to the fact that there are more good performers in the manufacturing sector compared to the retail sector (where a lot more target managers fell in the category in-agreement/bad). It is also possible that such findings are due to the fact that there are more objective criteria in managerial performance in the field of manufacturing, compared to retail, and therefore target managers employed in manufacturing are able to easily and more objectively evaluate their own performance and the performance of their peers, supervisors, and subordinates which leads to higher employee self-awareness in the field as a whole. Another viable explanation is that in manufacturing target managers receive more feedback on a regular basis and, therefore, are able to achieve greater self-awareness.

IMPLICATIONS

Results showed that the industry target managers work in has a significant effect on others' ratings and rating congruence. Findings point that target managers working in manufacturing tend to receive higher ratings from others. In addition, they also tend to be in-agreement and thus demonstrated a higher self-awareness in comparison with target managers employed in retail. In light of those findings, it is important for practitioners to be aware that differences in 360-degree ratings actually exist in the various industries and keep them in mind when interpreting results from multi-rater feedback instruments. Additional research is needed to confirm and explain the above mentioned tendencies.

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EFFECTS OF GENDER ON 360-DEGREE RATINGS

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***Abstract.** Study results consistently showed that males tend to rate themselves higher than females. Unfortunately, they are not entirely consistent in regards to the ratings managers receive. Some studies show that female managers are rated more negatively; others demonstrate that female managers actually receive higher ratings. In terms of rating agreement, research results consistently demonstrate that women receive more congruent ratings than men, while men are generally found to be over-raters. This study hypothesized that female managers will rate themselves lower and will receive higher ratings compared to male managers. Also, in terms of self-awareness, more female managers will be categorized as in-agreement and more male managers will be categorized as over-estimators. Archival field data which contained ratings of 300 real leaders employed in 19 companies were used in this study. No significant differences were uncovered between the way male and female target managers rated themselves and were rated by others (subordinates, peers, and supervisor). In addition, the number of target managers that fell in the above mentioned self-awareness categories also was not significant for gender. Those findings tend to indicate that gender of the target manager does not significantly affect 360-degree ratings and self-awareness as indicated by self-other rating agreement.*

Keywords: *gender, 360-degree ratings, rating agreement, self-awareness.*

INTRODUCTION

The need for organizations to remain competitive and flexible in a constantly changing environment has become undeniable in today's world. It is not surprising that increasing numbers of organizations are using various methods to evaluate and develop their employees' performance and managerial potential. One such method is 360-degree feedback (also known as multi-source or multi-rater)

which helps organizations solicit evaluation from a wide variety of perspectives. 360-degree feedback is identified as “one of the most popular management development tools in use today” (Toegel & Conger, 2003, p. 297) and “one of the most rapidly advancing areas in human resource development, organizational development, and industrial-organizational psychology practice and research” (Church & Waclawski, 2001, p.82).

OVERVIEW OF 360-DEGREE PROGRAMS

360-degree systems involve the process of gathering ratings from numerous sources, including supervisors, peers, subordinates, and clients, and comparing those evaluations to the target manager’s self-ratings. The purpose of the procedure is, through feedback, to assist the manager in becoming more aware of his/her assets and areas of development in regards to leadership behaviors and skills (Ostroff, Atwater, & Feinberg, 2004). Because different employees observe different behaviors, by soliciting feedback from multiple sources, organizations can acquire more complete information about employee performance (Murphy, Cleveland, & Mohler, 2001). 360-degree feedback is generally designed to help managers improve their performance and leadership abilities while aligning their personal perceptions of themselves with those of their colleagues in order to better meet the strategic goals of the organization, and can be used for various purposes, including developmental, administrative, and/or system maintenance (Greguras, Robie, Schleicher, & Goff, 2003).

One of the main issues with 360-degree ratings deals with the need to make meaningful comparisons between ratings from the different sources (subordinate, peer, supervisor, client, etc.). Recent results from empirical research demonstrated that items from multi-rater instruments display the same factor structure and equivalent relations between latent constructs. They also function comparably across the sources (Craig & Hannum, 2006; Diefendorff et al., 2005; Fecteau & Craig, 2001; Scullen, Mount, & Judge, 2003; Woehr, Sheehan, & Bennett, 2005). Such results suggest that meaningful comparisons between the different rater groups can be made and that differences between those groups are most probably not due to different rater sources conceptualizing performance differently. Therefore, ratings from various sources can help target managers see their own performance from various viewpoints and adjust professional behavior and goals accordingly.

SELF-AWARENESS AND SELF-OTHER AGREEMENT

The extent to which self-ratings are similar to the ratings provided by others (e.g., supervisors, superiors, peers) has been accepted as a measure of self-awareness -

the degree to which people understand their strengths and weaknesses (Fletcher & Baldry, 2000; London & Smither, 1995). Self-awareness is associated with leadership effectiveness and ability to improve behavior based on received feedback (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1998; Atwater & Yammarino, 1992). It has been linked also to higher performance ratings (Atwater et al., 1998; Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Bass & Yammarino, 1991; Furnham & Stringfield, 1994), greater accomplishments, higher effectiveness and promotability (Yammarino & Atwater, 2001). Congruence of self- and subordinate ratings is linked to performance of the target manager, such as when both self- and subordinate ratings are high, performance is highest and when they are both low, performance is lowest (Ostroff, Atwater, & Feinberg, 2004).

One of the ways to measure self-other agreement is the use of an index of self-other similarity, or self-awareness "score" which would identify congruence at the individual level. Another measurement approach looks at the amount of difference between self- and other ratings. It is usually called "gap analysis", or "congruence-*d*", and is obtained by subtracting the averaged rating score received from others from self-ratings on each item of the 360-degree feedback and the subsequent division by the pooled standard deviation of those scores. An additional alternative is "relative self-awareness", or "congruence-*r*", which helps look at the degree to which the target manager and the members of the other rating groups agree on the individual's most and least effective behaviors, rather than his/her level of competence. The measurement is obtained through correlating self- and other ratings across all items on the multi-source feedback system (Fletcher & Bailey, 2003). Difference scores have been found to have multiple issues (i.e., potential for unreliability, systematic correlation with components, questionable construct validity, etc.; Edwards, 2001) which has led to the development of other measurement approaches, including polynomial regression analysis (Edwards, 2001) and Within and Between Analysis (WABA; Atwater & Yammarino, 1997).

An additional option is a four-group model of self-other agreement based on both the degree and the type of agreement between self- and other ratings proposed by Atwater and Yammarino (1997). The authors classified individuals as over-estimators, under-estimators, in-agreement/good estimators, and in-agreement/poor estimators. Both in-agreement groups of estimators had self- and other ratings within half a standard deviation of each other whereas in-agreement/good estimators rated themselves high and received high ratings from others and in-agreement/poor estimators had low self-ratings which were similar to low ratings provided by others. Over-estimators were expected to demonstrate poorer and less effective performance, have negative attitudes, and frequent conflicts with co-workers; under-estimators were predicted to have mixed performance due to the combination of their desire to improve with low self-esteem, tendency to set

low goals, and not realize their full potential; in-agreement/good would be those who perform well and are recognized for it, have positive attitudes, and tend to improve behavior based on the feedback received; and in-agreement/poor - those who not only see themselves as poor performers but are also identified as such, have inadequate knowledge, skills, and abilities, low self-esteem, and low commitment and desire to change even though they can identify the need (Yammarino & Atwater, 1997; 2001).

According to Fletcher and Bailey (2003), measuring self-awareness is not a simple and agreed upon issue. Various ways to measure self-awareness exist and research shows that they are not equivalent and may have differential relationships with performance (Fletcher & Bailey, 2003). Polynomial regression analysis, WABA procedures, and the four-group model are not inherently incompatible. The four-group model presented by Atwater and Yammarino (1992; 1997) uses the magnitude of self-other differences to classify individuals into agreement categories and provides a basis for understanding and expecting different individual and organizational outcomes based on the category in which the target manager falls. Adding a focus on outcomes makes the model very valuable and makes it the measurement tool of choice in the current research.

EFFECTS OF GENDER ON 360-DEGREE RATINGS

Gender is a variable that affects not only the way men and women see themselves but also the way they are seen by others. It is “one of the initial and dominant classifications of individuals” (Falkenberg, 1990, p.112) and one of the major characteristics used to categorize and stereotype people. Gender stereotypes are considered detrimental to women since they have been said to affect the quality of the performance evaluations and development opportunities of female managers and significantly contribute to women’s ability to advance to leadership positions in organizations (Becker, Ayman, & Korabik, 2002; Heilman, 1995; Lyness & Heilman, 2006).

Studies on the influence of gender on self-ratings have consistently shown that males tend to rate themselves higher than females (Bakken, Sheridan, & Carnes, 2003; Basow, Smither, Rupert, & Collins, 1989; Daubman, Heatherington, & Ahn, 1992; Wohlers & London, 1989). Unfortunately, results from the research on the effects of gender on self-other agreement are not nearly as consistent. Early studies demonstrate that gender of superior and target manager do not have a significant influence on self-supervisor agreement (McFarlane Shore & Thornton, 1986; Wohlers, Hall, & London, 1993). Those findings are contradicted by the results from a meta-analysis by Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky (1992) showing that female leaders receive slightly more negative evaluations than equivalent male leaders, especially on more general evaluative measures (such as perception

of competence and satisfaction with leadership). Men were likely to rate female leaders lower, but women showed no gender bias in their preferences for leaders. Therefore, gender of the target manager was found to influence the way men and women in leadership positions are rated.

Gender was found to have an effect on self-other agreement in other studies as well. Wohlers and London (1989) found that female managers tended to receive higher ratings from supervisors than male managers. In addition, their self-ratings were lower than self-ratings by men and lower than ratings given by their supervisors. As a result, women tended to demonstrate lower self-awareness and higher underestimating of their abilities, compared to men (Wohlers & London, 1989). Similar results emerged from a field study of managers participating in leadership development programs which revealed greater congruence in 360-degree ratings of female managers, whereas self-ratings of female managers tended to be less discrepant from ratings provided from subordinates and peers (Brutus, Fleenor, & McCauley, 1999). Male managers tended to rate their performance higher in comparison with the ratings they received from subordinates and peers, and can therefore be considered over-estimators (Brutus et al., 1999). Furthermore, Lindeman and her colleagues (1995) found that two-thirds of the male employee participants rated themselves more positively than women and were classified as over-estimators, whereas there were an equal number of women under-estimators, accurate estimators, and over-estimators. The above findings were additionally supported in a recent study by Ostroff, Atwater, and Feinberg (2004) which also revealed that, even though men and women rate themselves similarly, women receive higher ratings by others.

In light of that information, the following hypotheses are formulated:

- ◆ **Hypothesis 1:** The gender of the target manager will affect self-ratings, such that female managers will rate themselves lower compared to male managers.
- ◆ **Hypothesis 2:** The gender of the target manager will affect ratings they receive from others (boss, subordinates, and peers), such that female managers will receive higher ratings compared to male managers.
- ◆ **Hypothesis 3a:** Target manager's gender will affect the relationship between self-ratings and the ratings provided by others (boss, subordinates, and peers), such that women will demonstrate higher self-awareness by having more congruent self-other ratings compared to men. In other words, more female managers will be categorized as in-agreement compared to male managers.
- ◆ **Hypothesis 3b:** Target manager's gender will affect the relationship between self-ratings and the ratings provided by others (boss, subordinates, and peers), such that more male managers will be categorized as over-estimators compared to female managers.

METHODOLOGY

DESIGN AND PARTICIPANTS

The hypotheses presented were tested using archival data collected by Psychological Associates - a mid-size Midwestern U.S. consulting company. The data set is comprised of 300 managers (152 male and 148 female managers) randomly selected from a database of middle- and executive-level managers from 19 different companies who underwent a 360-degree appraisal between 2003 and 2008. For the purpose of this study, only managers with self, peer, supervisor, and subordinate ratings were utilized. No demographic information was available since, besides gender of the target manager, no other demographic data were recorded or used in the 360-degree process.

360-DEGREE FEEDBACK TOOL

The tool used by Psychological Associates in the 360-degree process is called the Proficient Executive™ and was developed and validated by the consulting company for the purpose of improving the effectiveness of managers. Ratings are obtained from the target managers themselves and their peers, subordinates, and supervisor on twelve core competency areas including Analyzes Issues, Knows the Business, Inspires People, Empowers Others, Coaches and Provides Feedback, Models Professionalism, Gets Results, Shows Vision, Communicates Effectively, Values People, Handles Challenges, and Promotes Teamwork (Psychological Associates, 2001; 2006). Each area is evaluated through ratings on five to seven questions provided on a six-point Likert scale from 1 = never to 6 = always. A NA = not applicable rating also is available for the cases when the rater has not had the opportunity to observe the target manager exhibiting the skill in question. The raters usually include self, one supervisor and an average of four or more subordinates and peers, so the report includes the actual rating provided by the supervisor and an average and a range of ratings for each of the other two groups of raters (subordinates and peers). The Proficient Executive™ demonstrated strong reliability and internal consistency in each core competency area with Cronbach's alphas ranging from $r = .84$ to $.91$ in a study of 523 managers who received ratings from 6029 raters (Psychological Associates, 2001).

RESULTS

GENERAL DESCRIPTIVES

Means and standard deviations of target managers' self-ratings and others' ratings are presented in Table 1. Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the overall 360-degree feedback measure was $.98$ for all raters.

Two analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted with gender of the target manager (male and female) as the independent variable and target managers' mean self-ratings as the dependent variable for the first ANOVA and target managers' mean others' ratings as the dependent variable for the second ANOVA. For the purpose of statistical analyses, average self-ratings were computed by averaging all self-ratings across dimensions. Average others' ratings were computed by averaging all others' ratings (subordinates, peers, and boss) across dimensions. One 2 x 4 chi-square test of independence also was conducted. It compared the number of male and female target managers across the four categories of self-awareness (under-estimator, in-agreement/good, in-agreement/bad, and over-estimator). Categories were created as a result of a comparison between target managers' self-ratings of managerial competence and the mean ratings of the other raters (subordinates, peers, and supervisor). Four cutoff scores were created by taking half a standard deviation above and below the self-ratings mean ($M = 4.89$, $SD = .37$) and half a standard deviation above and below the others' ratings mean ($M = 4.87$, $SD = .35$) in order to define the four categories. There were 201 participants who were excluded from the chi-square analysis due to the fact that their average self-ratings fell between 4.70 and 5.08 and/or their others' ratings fell between 4.69 and 5.05. That left 99 target managers that were classified in one of the four categories of self-awareness (under-estimator, in-agreement/good, in-agreement/bad, and over-estimator). Eight men and 13 women were categorized as under-estimators, 12 men and 11 women – as in-agreement/bad, 20 men and 16 women – as in-vagreement/good, and 8 men and 11 women – as over-estimators.

Results for each hypothesis are investigated next.

TABLE 1. MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TARGET MANAGERS' SELF- AND OTHERS' RATINGS

Gender	Self-Ratings		Others' Ratings	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Male	4.89	0.36	4.88	0.37
Female	4.90	0.39	4.85	0.33

Note: $N = 300$. Self-Ratings designates the target managers' self-ratings of performance on a six-point scale. Others' Ratings designates the average performance ratings for peers, subordinates, and supervisor on a six-point scale.

HYPOTHESIS TESTING

Hypothesis 1 stated that the gender of the target manager would affect *self*-ratings, such as female managers will rate themselves lower compared to male man-

agers. This hypothesis was tested using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) with target managers' mean self-ratings as the dependent variable and gender of the target manager (male and female) as the independent variable. Results show that the effect of gender was not significant, $F(1, 296) = .26, p = .61$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$, indicating that when averaging across groups, the gender of the target manager does not affect the ratings managers give themselves. Therefore, hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Hypothesis 2 stated that the gender of the target manager would affect ratings they receive from *others* (boss, subordinates, and peers), such as female managers will receive higher ratings compared to male managers. This hypothesis was tested using another analysis of variance (ANOVA) with target managers' other ratings (mean ratings made by boss, subordinates, and peers) as the dependent variable and gender of the target manager (male and female) as the independent variable. The effect of gender was not significant, $F(1, 296) = .11, p = .74$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$, indicating that gender of the target managers does not affect the ratings they receive from others (boss, subordinates, and peers). Therefore, hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the target manager's gender would affect the relationship between self-ratings and the ratings provided by others (boss, subordinates, and peers), such that women will demonstrate higher self-awareness by having more congruent self-other ratings compared to men (3a). More male managers are expected to receive incongruent ratings than female managers and will be categorized as over-estimators (3b). This hypothesis was tested using a 2 x 4 chi-square test of independence that compared the number of male and female target managers across the four categories of self-awareness (under-estimator, in-agreement/good, in-agreement/bad, and over-estimator). Results from this analysis were not significant, $\chi^2(3, N = 99) = 2.06, p = .56$, with 53% of female target managers falling in the category of in-agreement compared to 67% of male target managers (hypothesis 3a) and 26% of female target managers falling in the category of over-estimators compared to 17% of male target managers (hypothesis 3b). Therefore, hypothesis 3 was not supported.

DISCUSSION

The current study examined the effects of gender on multi-source, also known as multi-rater or 360-degree feedback by comparing self-ratings of male and female target managers' managerial competence with competence ratings from peers, subordinates, and supervisors. Prior research (Becker, et al., 2002; Falkenberg, 1990) has demonstrated that gender affects the way people see themselves and the way they are seen by others and can lead to discrepancies between the target managers' self-perceptions and subordinates' perceptions of them. Archival field data were used in this study to test possible differences in performance ratings based on

gender and industry. The data set contained ratings of 300 real leaders by actual subordinates, peers, and supervisors employed in 19 companies. However, despite the use of a field sample, no significant results were found.

No significant differences were uncovered between the way male and female target managers rated themselves and were rated by others (subordinates, peers, and supervisor). In addition, the number of target managers that fell in the above mentioned self-awareness categories also was not significant for gender. Those findings tend to indicate that gender of the target manager does not significantly affect 360-degree ratings and self-awareness as indicated by self-other rating agreement.

Gender was not found to affect self-ratings and, therefore, hypothesis one was not supported. The means of self-ratings were almost equal indicating that male and female target managers tend to evaluate their performance in a similar way. Females showed greater variance in the way they rated themselves but the difference was not significant. Results were contrary to the findings of multiple previous studies that have consistently shown that males tend to rate themselves higher than females (Bakken, Sheridan, & Carnes, 2003; Basow, Smither, Rupert, & Collins, 1989; Daubman, Heatherington, & Ahn, 1992; Wohlers & London, 1989). The current findings are exciting due to the fact that they indicate that women assess their abilities just as high as men do. Therefore, their perceived self-efficacy maybe just as high as that of their male colleagues. The construct of self-efficacy refers to a person's belief in their capacity to perform at a designated level (Bandura, 1993). People with high self-efficacy set challenging goals, maintain strong commitment to accomplishing them, and sustain efforts when setbacks occur. A high level of self-efficacy is shown to lead to more accomplishments, more successful career development (Bandura, 1993), and even a stronger belief in one's abilities to overcome barriers to career development (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2000). Therefore, the improved perceived self-efficacy of women is important to note due to the fact that it will probably lead to improved performance and more advancement opportunities.

Hypothesis two, which stated that gender will affect the way target managers are rated by others (subordinates, peers, and supervisor), also was not supported. Even though there was a gender difference between the ratings managers received, that difference was not significant. Since previous findings regarding the effect of gender on others' ratings were not consistent, the above results were in agreement with Eagly and her colleagues (1992) while contradicting the findings of Wohlers and London (1989) and Ostroff and colleagues (2004).

The effect of gender on self-awareness, as proposed in hypothesis three, also was not significant. Results show about an equal number of male and female target managers in the category in-agreement/bad. In addition, there were more women in the categories of under-estimator and over-estimator compared to men

and more men in the category in-agreement/good compared to women. Overall, more men fell in the two in-agreement categories (in-agreement/good and in-agreement/bad) than women. Those findings are contradictory to previous research which has consistently demonstrated that women receive more congruent ratings than men (Brutus et al., 1999; Patiar & Mia, 2008), while men are generally found to be over-raters (Brutus et al., 1999; Lindeman et al., 1995; Ostroff et al., 2004; Patiar & Mia, 2008). It is possible that the current results are due to the fact that female target managers get less feedback from others and have harder time evaluating their own performance. Therefore, the ratings they give themselves are less in-agreement with the ratings they receive from others..

DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Although this study did not support the effects of gender on self- and others' ratings in 360-degree feedback, this does not necessarily mean that gender does not affect the way target managers rate themselves and are rated by others. Future studies are needed to demonstrate whether the influence of gender on 360-degree ratings has really become relatively weak and insignificant or whether the current results are only specific to this sample. Self-awareness is another variable that should be studied further. In follow-up studies researchers may choose to replicate the research using a different statistical approach to examine rating congruency, such as polynomial regression analysis or Within and Between Analysis (WABA) to see if the same results are received. Research also should be replicated using a different 360-degree tool. Despite the proven reliability and validity of the Proficient Executive TM, it is important to show that results are not dependent on the use of a specific tool and are significant across instruments.

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COGNITIVE STYLES IN CHILDREN'S LANDSCAPE DRAWINGS

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Abstract. *Cognitive styles in drawings are investigated through the "Landscape montage technique" (Nakai, 1970, 1991). Two hundred and twenty children, aged 3 to 8, were tested. All of them attended public kindergarten or school. The characteristics for content – analysis of the drawings are grouped in three categories: the organization of items and their specificity and dimensional characteristics; the additional characteristics related to singular/plural number of figures, location, details and colors; the height of house, tree and person. Factor analysis of 65 characteristics of figures and their composition was done. A five-factorial structure was estimated to describe different cognitive styles and the possible transitions between them. The stable configurations of components differentiate symbolic, intellectual realism and visual realism styles as well as the ways of children's drawing development. The tendency to decrease the height of the house, the tree and the person is interpreted as an indicator for the progress in drawing.*

Keywords: *Cognitive styles in children' drawings; symbolic, intellectual realism, visual realism styles; Landscape montage technique.*

THEORETICAL BASE

The children's drawing becomes a very popular instrument for measuring children's level of cognitive development (Silver, 1987, 2002; Aach–Feldman & Kunkle-Miller, 1987; DiLeo, 1983; ter Laak, de Goede, Aleva, Rijswijk, 2005). This approach can be recognized in the pioneering work of Corrado Ricci, "L'Arte dei Bambini" in 1887 (in DiLeo, 1983, 31). Analyzing the "man in a boat" theme, the famous art critic saw distinct phases (stages) of cognitive development. The same stages in drawings by children, until our days, from different cultures can be recognized (DiLeo, 1983; Christova-Slavcheva, 1996;

Trend, Everett & Dove, 2000). The relationship between intellectual maturity and styles of drawings is based mostly on Piaget's theory of the stages of cognitive development (Пиаже, 2003, 132–170). The main changes in children's drawing are related to the second half of the sensorimotor stage (2–4 aged), to the preoperational stages (4–7 aged) and to the concrete operations stage (7–12 aged). Piaget and Inhelder (1956) analyzed the progression in the ability of children to present the objects and space relation between them (horizontal and vertical axes). The development of the idea of cognitive styles in drawings could be traced down in the studies of Luquet(1991) and DiLeo (1983). For Luquet (1991) the style (mode) is the representation, that a certain child proposes for a given object or motive in the consequence of his drawings. The development of this representation can be observed in the addition of new details, associations of ideas and analogical transfer. The change of style could be named a development, because the common representation of the object is expanding, the details are developing gradually; the child presents them more entirely and in depth. The style represents a psychic reality which exists in the child's mind. Luquet calls it an "internal model" (1991, 64). It takes part not only in the creation of the drawing, but also in the meaning that the child is giving to the drawing. The child interprets other's drawings as well as its own according to this model. In all cases the basic role of the child's drawing is to present a part of the reality. DiLeo (1983, 28) verifies the cognitive style in the drawings "as a manner of expression that is proper to a person or period." The first graphic symbols appear around 3–4 of age. The scribbles, which can symbolize something, the circles and the tadpole form as a representation of human figure are typical for this period. The spontaneous drawings include houses, trees, sun or other elements of nature (DiLeo, 1983, 38). A small number of details are given and also some elements which are not drawn at all are named. The children are unable to distinguish between the planes when they are drawing different objects. These cognitive characteristics of the drawing could be summarized as a symbolic style. It includes the styles "fortuitous realism" and "failed realism" in the terminology of Luquet (1991).

A qualitative change occurs in cognitive style of drawing during the preoperational stage. This style is labeled "intellectual realism" (Luquet, 1991; DiLeo, 1983). The child draws what it knows. The drawing contains all elements which the object possesses in reality, even those that are invisible from the specific point of view. A lot of details appear. Houses cars and human figures are often transparent. The objects and their elements are drawn with mutual perpendicularity, but some of the figures are vertically or horizontally oriented (Trend, Everett & Dove, 2000). The cognitive peculiarities, which are characteristic for the concrete operations stage (7–12 of age) make the gradual acquisition of the style "visual realism" possible. (DiLeo, 1983). The child draws what it sees, the colors are used conventionally,

and some of the features of line perspective and three dimensional depictions of objects and space are introduced.

Some features of the cognitive style are used in the analysis of spontaneous drawings (Luquet, 1991; DiLeo, 1983), as well as those which are acquired through specially designed tests (Silver, 1987, 2002; Trend, Everett & Dove, 2000). Space organization of the figures or the peculiarities of the depicted details are evaluated according to the methods used. An option for combining two types of characteristics gives “Landscape montage Technique” (Nakai, 1970). It was invented by H. Nakai (1970) as a complementary method for schizophrenic patients. In our days the LMT is widely used in Japan in therapeutic practices with different patients, as well as the diagnostic of levels of cognitive development (Ijuin, 1993; Murayama, 2005). The main task of the patients is to compose a landscape. The list of items is presented and each of them is drawn consecutively, one by one. Nakai (1972) defines the LMT as a constructive method and shows its possibilities for diagnostic of the degree to which patients revive constructive psychological space. The main items of analysis are the space characteristics (various levels of spaces, perspective consistency, linear perspective, view of landscape from distance), the singular/plural number of items, the size of house, tree, person and the vista and proportion of rivers, mountains, roads and fields. Yamanaca and Hiramatu (in Matsui, Takamiya, Takahashi, Jian-Hua, Nakai, 1994) extend the use of “landscape montage” to investigate the developmental process of children from kindergarten to junior high school. The differences in drawing patterns are interpreted as developmental differences.

The aim of this work is to find dimensions of the cognitive styles in the drawings of landscape in children aged 3 to 8 years that are specific to this method. Each of the mentioned drawing styles is an indicator of a certain level of control that allows children to regulate their drawings and to create a special product.

The following hypothesis could be formulated:

- ♣ Using the LMT, the stable configurations of components which differentiate symbolic, intellectual realism and visual realism styles in children’s drawings could be identified. These configurations will include features of space organization and features of the depicted objects as well.
- ♣ The transition of one style to another will be presented by groups of characteristics which are introducing the vista and the proportion of the objects, their details and multiple representations.
- ♣ The tendency for the decrease of the height of the house, the tree and the person could be interpreted as an indicator for the progress in cognitive style in drawing of children of age 3–8.

EMPIRICAL STUDY

Subjects

Two hundred and twenty children (109 boys and 111 girls, aged 3 – 8) from public kindergarten and primary schools from tree towns (Sofia, Varna and Novi Iskar) in Bulgaria were selected at random. Six groups of age were formed on the base of kindergarten and school grades (see Table 1).

TABLE 1. DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS BY LEVELS OF EDUCATION, GENDER AND AGE

Gender	Levels of education					Total
	I and II group in Kindergarten (aged 3 –4)	III group in Kindergarten (aged 5)	IV group in Kindergarten (aged 6)	I grade at school (aged 7)	II grade at school (8 age)	
Boys number	12	20	16	23	38	109
%	40,0%	45,5%	64,0%	42,6%	56,7%	49,5%
Girls number	18	24	9	31	29	111
%	60,0%	54,5%	36,0%	57,4%	43,3%	50,5%
Total number	30	44	25	54	67	220
%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Drawing test

On a sheet of paper size A4 with black pencil participants drew one by one (consecutively) ten items: river/s; mountain/s; field/s; road/s and or path/s; house/s; tree/s; person/s; flower/s and grass; animal/s; rock/s and /or sand and some additional objects if they wanted. Then, they were asked to use 12 color pencils to paint their drawings.

The characteristics for the analysis of children's drawings were chosen on the basis of different scoring systems for house, tree and person (Buck, 1970; Jolles, 2004; Koppitz, 1968; Groves, Fried, 1991). The items introduced by DeLeo for synoptic description of cognitive drawing styles (DeLeo,) and the main characteristics of the elements of LMT (Matsui, Takamiya, Takahashi, Jian-Hua, Nakai, 1994) were taken in consideration. The total number of the characteristics is 68. They can be grouped in three categories:

- I. The type of organization of items and their specificity and dimensional characteristics:
 1. Symbolical style:
 - a. Associative order of the elements
 - b. Kinetic scribbles
 - c. Figures without background
 - d. Circular figures
 - e. Pieces of kinetic scribble to be recognized as objects
 2. Intellectual realism style
 - a. ⊥-shaped space (mutual perpendicularity of objects or elements)
 - b. Baseline
 - c. Multiple perspectives
 - d. Transparency
 - e. Two-dimensional objects
 3. Visual realism style
 - a. Vertical organization of space (upper – far, below – near)
 - b. Linear perspective
 - c. Closure of a part of a distant object by adjacent one
 - d. Relative size
 - e. Three-dimensional objects
- II. The additional characteristics related to singular/plural number of items, location of items, details, colors.
- III. The height of tree items (house, tree and person).

Procedure

The study was done in groups in the frame of the standard educational program of the children in kindergarten and at school by a team of students from the master program “Child and adolescent and school psychology” at Sofia University “St. Kliment Ohridski”. The students were given a preliminary training for the acquisition of the empirical materials as a part of the course “Art techniques in childhood and adolescence”. The test for the kindergarten’s groups includes also a story for a trip in the mountain in which the basic components of the landscape were introduced. 220 drawings were acquired throughout the period from 2006 to 2009.

RESULTS

The collection of 220 drawings was analyzed on the base of the frequency of the appearance of 65 characteristics (from the first and the second category), in each of the drawings. The data was processed by Principal Component Analysis. Scree-test of Cattell with Varimax rotation shows five factorial structure with explained variance 41, 79% (Table 3).

TABLE 3. THE RESULT OF SCREE –TEST OF CATTELL WITH VARIMAX ROTATION

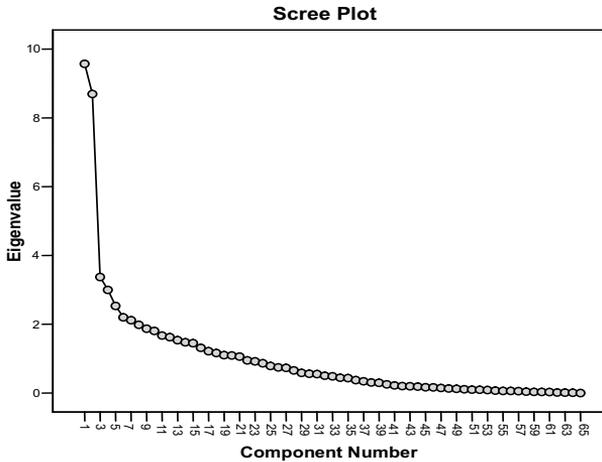


TABLE 4. THE VARIABLES AND THEIR FACTOR LOADINGS OF THE FIRST FACTOR “SYMBOLIC STYLE/ INTELLECTUAL REALISM STYLE”

Variables	Factor loadings
Conventional use of colors	,843
Kinetic scribble	-,807
Circular figures	-,801
Multiple perspective	,789
Pieces of kinetic scribble to be recognized as objects	-,771
Two-dimensional house with details	,712
⊥ -shaped space (mutual perpendicularity)	,692
Two-dimensional tree	,673
Two-dimensional objects	,637
Chromatic painting	,565
Achromatic or monochromatic drawing	-,565
Baseline	,532
Not drawn test's items	-,526
Single field	,523
Two-dimensional human figure	,474
Multiple mountains	,464
Single road	,399
Unconventional use of colors	-,286
Tadpole	-,275
House – scheme (wall and roof)	-,262
Transparency	,133

The first factor has 13, 58% explained variance. It is bipolar one and combines 21 characteristics (Cronbach's Alpha = 0, 88). The features of the style intellectual realism are forming one pole and the symbolic style features – the other (Table 4).

The second factor has 9, 47% explained variance. It is also a bipolar one and includes 12 characteristics (Cronbach's Alpha = 0, 87). Seven of them could be specified as a view of landscape from a distance and are presented by the proportions of tree, person, house and mountains. The foreground plan of landscape is depicted by the other 5 characteristics. The combination of the two plans gives an opportunity for the child to introduce the vista and the proportion of the objects (Table 5).

TABLE 5. THE VARIABLES AND THEIR FACTOR

loadings of the second factor
„View from distance/ foreground”

Variables	Factor loadings
Tree/s in remote plan	,830
Person /s in remote plan	,825
Person /s in foreground	-,770
Tree/s s in foreground	-,769
House/s in remote plan	,728
House/s s in foreground	-,721
Mountain/s in remote plan	,706
Mountain/s s in foreground	-,703
Person – scheme (stick person)	,411
River at the bottom of the list (with one bank)	-,332
Sinuosity river (in diagonal sheet)	,301
Tree – scheme	,250

The third bipolar factor includes 12 characteristics (Cronbach's Alpha = 0, 78) and it has 6, 46% explained variance (Table 6). Six items represent a tendency toward singular drawing of objects and organization which are characteristic for the symbolic stile. The other six items represent multiple objects which give information for the relative size (house, person) and the scale of the landscape (rivers and roads).

TABLE 6. THE VARIABLES AND THEIR FACTOR LOADINGS OF THE THIRD FACTOR „SINGULAR OBJECTS AND SYMBOLIC ORGANIZATION/MULTIPLE OBJECTS AND TWO- DIMENSIONAL ORGANIZATION

Variables	Factor loadings
Two or more persons	,640
Single house	-,618
Single person	-,609
Two or more rivers	,595
Two or more houses	,579
Single river	-,514
Figures without background	-,411
Associative order of the elements	-,399
Two or more additional objects	,367
Two or more fields	,351
Two or more roads	,348
Single additional object	-,271

The fourth bipolar factor has 6, 24% explained variance. It could be labeled as single/plural presentation of objects of the landscape (Cronbach's Alpha = 0, 75). Five characteristics define a tendency of objects plural presentation and a horizontally located river with two banks. The tendency of objects single presentation is connected with river, running from top to bottom. It is depicted by six characteristics (Table 7).

TABLE 7. THE VARIABLES AND THEIR FACTOR

loadings of the fourth factor „Single objects and vertically oriented river/Multiple objects and horizontally oriented river”

Variables	Factor loadings
Single flower	-,693
Two or more flowers	,683
Two or more stones	,589
Single stone	-,584
Two or more animals	,498
Single animal	-,476
Two or more trees	,473
Single tree	-,435
Single Mountain	-,386
River, running from top to bottom	-,230
River with two banks (horizontal location)	,154

The fifth factor has 6, 03% explained variance and could be labeled “Visual realism style” (Cronbach’s Alpha = 0, 74). It is composed by nine characteristics which represent the three-dimensional organization of the figures and the three-dimensional presentation of the figures themselves.

TABLE 8. THE VARIABLES AND THEIR FACTOR LOADINGS OF THE FIFTH FACTOR “VISUAL REALISM STYLE”

Variables	Factor loadings
Three-dimensional objects	,799
Three-dimensional house	,788
Linear perspective	,787
Three-dimensional tree	,674
Vertical organization of space (upper – far, below – near)	,512
Three-dimensional human figure	,447
Relative size	,322
Kinetic drawing of a person	,301
Closure of part of the distant object of adjacent one	,301

The next step of the data analysis was the estimation of the influence of age and gender upon the changes of heights of the house, the tree and the person. The height of the three items was measured as a vertical distance from the lowest to the highest extremity of the figures. Table 10 displays the means of the groups.

TABLE 10. MEAN SCORES OF THE HEIGHTS OF HOUSE, TREE AND PERSON FOR THE GROUPS FROM DIFFERENT LEVELS OF EDUCATION

Items	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
House	I and II groups in Kindergarten	18	5,83	3,35
	III group in Kindergarten	44	5,99	2,66
	IV group in Kindergarten	24	4,58	2,33
	I grade at school	54	4,62	2,27
	II grade at school	67	5,63	3,02
Tree	I and II groups in Kindergarten	17	7,06	3,68
	III group in Kindergarten	42	6,62	3,63
	IV group in Kindergarten	25	6,72	2,55
	I grade at school	54	5,15	2,82
	II grade at school	67	5,63	3,04
Person	I and II groups in Kindergarten	17	5,50	2,39
	III group in Kindergarten	42	4,61	2,15
	IV group in Kindergarten	25	4,67	1,62
	I grade at school	52	3,23	1,56
	II grade at school	66	3,04	1,75

Height measurements from the three figures were submitted to a 5 (groups) X 3 (figures) one – way ANOVA. A main effect was found for the house ($F = 2,374$, $p = 0,053$), the tree ($F = 2,462$, $p = 0,047$) and the person ($F = 11,067$, $p = 0,0001$). The paired t-test revealed that significant level of differences was reached between:

- ♣ I–II groups in Kindergarten and I grade at school (for tree – $t = 2,253$, $p = 0,027$; for person – $t = 4,504$, $p = 0,0000$);
- ♣ I–II groups in Kindergarten and II grade at school (for person – $t = 4,774$, $p = 0,0000$);
- ♣ III group and IV group in Kindergarten (for house – $t = 2,171$, $p = 0,034$);
- ♣ III group in Kindergarten and I grade at school (for house – $t = 2,745$, $p = 0,007$; for tree $t = 2,225$, $p = 0,028$; for person – $t = 3,587$, $p = 0,001$);
- ♣ III group in Kindergarten and II grade at school (for person – $t = 4,165$, $p = 0,0000$);
- ♣ IV group in Kindergarten and I grade at school (for tree – $t = 2,371$, $p = 0,02$; for person – $t = 3,707$, $p = 0,0001$);
- ♣ IV group in Kindergarten and II grade at school (for person – $t = 4,036$, $p = 0,0001$);
- ♣ I and II grade at school (for house – $t = 2,041$, $p = 0,043$).

A one – way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine the possible relationship of gender to the height of the three figures. The effect proved to be limited. The girls draw higher houses, trees and persons, but the differences reach significant level only for the height of the tree ($F = 8,27$; $p = 0,004$).

These results serve as a basis for our interpretation of the height of the figures as a characteristic of the child's development. In different ages the children have a different degree of ability to introduce the relative size of the objects in the landscape composition. Being able to distinguish distance and foreground, the children decrease the size of the figures. This tendency is most evident in the depiction of the tree and the person. The transition from symbolic style to intellectual realism style and the use of the characteristics of visual realism can be observed most clearly in the height of the figures. The decrease of the figures' height is also a measure of the development of the child's idea of absolute size of the objects.

CONCLUSIONS

The present work follows a tradition which interprets the development of child's drawing as a gradual acquiring of different styles. (Luquet, 1991; DiLeo (1983). The cognitive style in the drawings, as a manner of expression, that is proper to the different stages of child's development was investigated by LMT (Nakai,

1972). The proposed 65 characteristics give a possibility for description of the type of organization of objects and their specificity and dimensional characteristics, singular/plural number, location, details and colors. The factor analysis of the frequency with which these characteristics appear in drawings was done. Five-factorial structure was estimated which describes different cognitive styles and the types of transitions between them. The items in the first and the fifth factors could be evaluated as stabile configurations which differentiate symbolic, intellectual realism and visual realism styles in children's drawings. They include features of spatial organization as well as characteristics of the depicted objects. The combining of the first two styles in a common factor shows their mutual interrelations. This fact could be explained with the peculiarities of the group studied, as well as with the parameters of the analyzed collection of drawings. Even the group of children at age 3–4 is included in a systematic education in the kindergarten which stimulates the usage of features typical for the intellectual realism. The drawing test has a strict limitation in the consequence as well as in the choice of the drawn objects. Spontaneous drawings were not included in the analyzed collection.

The transition from one style to another is presented in the second, third and fourth factors which group features of singularity/plurality of the objects and their meaning for the spatial composition in the drawing. By the usage of mountain, river and path, the child discovers the vista and scale of the landscape. Using the house, tree and person it introduces the relative size of the objects and discriminates most often foreground and remote plans in its drawing. The tendency for reducing the size of the house, the tree and the person is connected also with the introduction of various levels of spaces. The perspective consistency, view of landscape from distance, linear perspective from one side and the size of the figures from the other are connected with the transition from intellectual realism to visual realism. The technique of landscape composition may be used not only as a tool for assessing the cognitive styles of drawings but also as a way to stimulate children to use the power of symbolic (for age 3–4), intellectual (for age 5–6) or visual (for age 7–9) modes for the representation of their cognitive maturity.

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FAIRNESS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT: FROM THE EXPERIENCE OF NEW BULGARIAN UNIVERSITY

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Abstract. *For the exam board fairness is a system of rules which concern all aspects of the examination process. The first step for each action concerning assessment is to give clear answers to some questions which may be asked by test takers, the kind of decisions to be made, the nature of language ability and the measurement process. The second step is to establish evidence that supports these answers. For test takers, fairness is a matter of personal satisfaction and positive feelings about the exam. Do they trust the exam results? Do they feel like treated equally in the examination? For the test user fairness is to respect the rules of the exam and not to change the interpretation of the exam results. Do they use the exam results in the appropriate way? These three groups of stakeholders share common responsibility regarding fairness. But common responsibility does not give us a clear idea what each stakeholder has to do to achieve this fairness. Is it possible to understand fairness in the same way?*

Keywords: *language assessment, fairness, examination, exam, language ability, measurement, examination process, exam results, IRT model, Rasch model.*

INTRODUCTION

There are different approaches to understand fairness in foreign language assessment. The concept of fairness in the early days of language testing involves only test quality. From the history of the Cambridge ESOL¹ examination we can find some evidence for this approach (Weir, 2003). In modern language testing the concept

¹ English for Speakers of Other Languages

of fairness exists in the codes of good practices. For example, in the ALTE¹ Code of practice (1994) fairness is defined as “active involvement of the participants in the full range of examination processes” and a “fundamental principle in the approach to achieving fairness” (ALTE Code of practice, 1995). There is a description of clear responsibility for the examination boards and for the examination users.

“Examination boards: undertake to make their examinations as far as possible for candidates of different backgrounds (race, gender, ethnic origin, handicapping conditions, ect.); review and revise examination tasks and related materials to avoid potentially insensitive content or language; enact procedures that help to ensure that differences in performance are related primarily to the skills under assessment rather than to irrelevant factors such as race, gender and ethnic origin.

‘Examination users: should select examinations that have been developed in ways that attempt to make them as fair as possible for candidates of different backgrounds.’

The first problem with these explanations of fairness is that they seem to ignore the fact that fairness is not only a test quality, and that it consists of terms in responsibility. The second problem is the question of what kind of evidences you need to establish responsibility in the examination process. To whom are these evidences important?

The fact is that the understanding of fairness has become much wider nowadays. But it is not clear if fairness is a quality, a fundamental principle or a tool for discussing examination results. That is why we need a point of view which gives us a basis to describe the examination process, to review the test qualities and to establish evidences for test fairness. The evidences for test fairness not only come from test qualities and the test development process, but they also consist in assessment uses which are related to all examination users.

Here we aim to evaluate test practices at NBU using the two frameworks for fairness in foreign language assessment suggested by Antony Kunnan (Kunnan, 2008). They have been introduced but not discussed yet. We apply the frameworks as a tool for test evaluation in order to describe the examination process, to discuss test qualities and to establish evidences for “*justifiable use of language assessment*” (Bachman, 2009, 1), which, in our view, is the most important evidence for fairness in language assessment.

METHODOLOGY

Kunnan’s approach explains fairness in terms of the whole system of a testing practice and not just the test itself. He introduces two frameworks: The Test Fairness Framework and The Test Context Framework.

¹ Association of Language Testers in Europe

The first one consists of multiple steps in the examination process, multiple uses of language assessment and multiple test qualities.

The second one discusses the concept of test in its political, economic, educational, social, cultural, technological, infrastructural, legal, and ethical context.

TABLE 1. TEST FAIRNESS FRAMEWORK

Steps in the examination process	Development	Test production process	Live exam	Analysis and review
Uses of language assessment (Bachman, 2009)	Decision	Information	Assessment	Beneficial consequences
Qualities	1. Validity 2. Absence of bias	1. Validity 2. Absence of bias	1. Validity 2. Access 3. Administration	1. Validity 2. Absence of bias 3. Social consequences

TABLE 2. THE TEST CONTEXT FRAMEWORK

Political & Economic	Educational, Social & Cultural	Technology & Infrastructure	Legal & Ethical
Political and economic interests	Standardized tests and accountability	Using high technology in testing	The need of remedial procedure

We apply the frameworks as a tool to describe test practices at NBU; to establish evidences for test validity; to discuss test qualities and their improvement.

As the tables show, *validity* is a main quality which is important for each step of the examination process.

For the concept of validity we apply the socio-cognitive framework for test validation (Weir, 2005). This framework involves all kind of validity evidences which are important for test evaluation: context validity in terms of test setting and task demands, theory-based validity in terms of four modes (reading, listening, speaking and writing), scoring validity in term of measurement procedures and criterion-referenced validity in terms of analysis to be made. Test validation is a 'form of evaluation where a variety of quantitative and qualitative methodologies are used to generate evidence to support inferences from test score.' (Weir, 2005, 15)

Absence of bias is a quality which we could apply in two ways: for content or language that is offensive or biased to test takers from different backgrounds and

for standard settings; that is test scores should be examined in terms of criterion measurement and selection decisions. ‘Test developers and score users need to be confident that the appropriate measure and statistically sound and unbiased selection models are in use.’ (Kunnan, 2006, 12)

Access is a quality which refers to easy educational, financial, geographical, and personal conditions or equipment access. A test should be accessible to test takers in terms of opportunity to learn the content and to become familiar with the types of tasks and cognitive demands (educational access). A test should be financially affordable to test takers (financial access) and test site should be accessible in terms of distance to test takers (geographical access). The extent to which test takers with physical and learning disabilities have appropriate test accommodations is a matter of personal access. Easy conditions or equipment access refers to whether test takers are familiar with test taking equipment, procedures, and conditions.

Administration is a quality referring to appropriate physical conditions (optimum light, temperature and facilities), uniformity (test length, materials and any other conditions) and test security.

Social consequences refers to washback (the effect of a test on instructional practices) and remedies (as re-scoring and re-evaluation of test responses).

To establish evidences of fairness we organize all the kinds of qualities and uses of assessment, following the line of the examination process.

TABLE 3. ESTABLISH EVIDENCES OF FAIRNESS

Steps	Uses	Qualities
Development	Decisions	1. <i>Validity</i> : Context validity (task setting, task demand) Theory-based validity (four modes) 2. <i>Absence of bias</i> : Language Topics
Test production process	Information	1. <i>Validity</i> : Context validity (commissioning, pre-editing) Theory-based validity (commissioning, pre-editing) 2. <i>Absence of bias</i> : Language (pre-editing, editing) Topics (pre-editing, editing)
Live exam	Assessment	1. <i>Validity</i> : Scoring validity 2. <i>Access</i> : educational, financial, geographical, personal, equipment 3. <i>Administration</i> : physical conditions, uniformity, test security
Analysis and review	Beneficial consequences	1. <i>Validity</i> : Criterion-related validity 2. <i>Absence of bias</i> : standart setting 3. <i>Social consequences</i> : washback, remedies

For the test context we are going to discuss the constraints coming from the political and economic context (is language testing an apolitical discipline?); the educational, social and cultural context (test bias, washback, the need of standardized language tests); the technological and infrastructural context (access to and knowledge of the technology necessary for success on a test), and the legal and ethical context (remedial procedure).

RESULTS ACCORDING TO THE TEST FAIRNESS FRAMEWORK

Test practices at New Bulgarian University started many years ago with the development of the university entrance exam. But our main focus here is to discuss the exam in English for students of NBU.

Using the test fairness framework and the socio-cognitive framework for test validation, we will establish four kinds of evidences.

Test takers and test users in the context of New Bulgarian University. Knowing the test takers is very important for test developers. Usually the information about test takers includes their age, academic specialty and cultural background. In our case we have a homogeneous group of young people, between 18–21, mostly Bulgarian, but from all kinds of specialties.

The test user is the University Board, who use the examination results to assign credits for foreign language.

The evidences for the stage of test development. The main use of this stage is decisions to be made. The test developers have to describe decisions using two main features: the importance of decision and the frame of reference for score interpretation. The main use for our test at this stage is the statement that we aim to measure students' language ability for certification. The exam is high-stake and the decision is criterion-referenced. The test purpose is to measure language ability oriented towards the B2 level from the Common European Language Framework. Do we have any arguments to support these claims? We have to look at the context validity and theory-based validity.

Tasks settings and task demands. Task setting and task demands are very important because they determinate performance conditions and operations. The conditions under which tasks are normally performed in real life should be approximated as much as possible in a test of particular language abilities. Our target situation is the use of language as it is used by students who can read, write and speak appropriately in the situation of academic life specific to NBU.

Rubrics are in the target language and they clearly explain what students have to do and are familiar to the students; when the task requires different types of response, there are separate specific instructions.

The effect of a different response format on processing needs to be investigated. In our test we use different types of response formats: multiple-choice questions, open-ended questions, short answer questions, bank-closed questions.

Published information about how the tasks are scored, including criteria for correctness, steps used for scoring and how the item scores are combined into the test score, are available.

There is a different weighting for writing. The raw score is transformed in task points, using the coefficient 0.75. The maximum raw score is 20, the maximum task point is 15.

The order of items in each section reflects the way such skills and strategies are deployed in normal processing. Four modes are included in the test.

Types of reading which are tested. There is one task for careful reading on a global level, whose main focus is to measure accurately comprehension of explicitly stated main ideas and supporting details. It consists of 7 items with two different types of response format: multiple choice and open-ended questions.

There are three tasks for careful reading on a local level. The main focus is on identifying lexis and understanding syntax and grammar. They consist of 30 multiple choice items.

One task tests expeditious reading for skimming to establish discourse topic and main ideas. It consists of 6 items for matching.

One task tests expeditious reading for searching to locate and understand information relevant to predetermined needs. It consists of 5 items with a short answer.

Types of writing which are tested. There is one task for writing which tests the ability to produce an argumentative essay. Two topics are supplied for the student to choose from.

Types of listening which are tested. The focus is on more global processing skills which enable students to extract meaning from a spoken text. The questions reflect the sequence in which information occurs in a text and there is sufficient time between them in order not to make undue demands on a candidate's processing capacity. There are 2 tasks with 15 multiple choice items all together.

Types of speaking which are tested. There are two tasks. One task is for planned speech (oral presentations) and the other is for spontaneous speech (interview with the interlocutor). The main focus is to test informational and interactional routine skills.

Text materials. The text material consists of three shorter texts of about 250 words each and two longer texts of 1200 words altogether; the information contained within both the short and the long texts is of general interest and requires no content knowledge.

For Input and Output three main features are important. Each text material is scrutinized for lexical, structural and functional appropriateness for the target

level of test takers' language ability. What we do for absence of bias is to use British English for text material but accept American English in test takers' outputs. Topics are of general interest.

Time constraints. The time of speaking test is about 12–15 minutes. The listening test is about 30 minutes. The time for reading and writing is 3 hours.

The lack of evidences. The first problem is that the construct of language ability, which underlines the test, is not clear. During the exam students can use dictionary. We don't know to what extent the test score come from language knowledge or from strategic competence. The variety of topics for the essay also could be a factor for difference in the measurable construct of writing.

The second problem is a lack of evidence to support claim that we measure B2 Level. To establish such kind of evidence we need a procedures for linking exam to the CEFR.

Another problem is achieving task's authenticity, which is very important for context and theory-based validity. To what extent we need to make our task as realistic as possible? What kind of language task is valid for the student of NBU? We need to investigate task qualities in terms of their construct validity, interactivity and authenticity.

The evidences for the stage of test production process. The main use on this stage is information to be gathered for the language abilities of the student. That's why the maintenance of context and theory-based validity is very important.

Here the main role plays well-expired teachers, who are our item writer.

Training for item writers. Our program for item writers includes three modules. First part includes topics from theoretical background of language testing. Next we introduce statistical analysis which we run for our test. The third part consists of procedures for expert's judgment.

Some of our item writers and experts are involved in trainings, organized by professional organization, such as ALTE.

Test production process. Our item writers are teachers from the university. It typically takes 8 weeks from commission to submission of the questions. Four parallel version of the test are prepared for the live exam.

Pre-editing takes place when the commissioned materials are received by Assessment Centre for the first time. Next other expert, scrutinize the material submitted to assess its suitability for use as test items, and to reject unsuitable, problematic or weak material.

Item writers check or recheck the quality of material and make any changes necessary to submitted material so that they are of an acceptable standard.

The lack of evidences. For each session we run 4 parallel versions of the tests. Are they the same in term of reliability and context validity? We have to start procedure for pre-testing in order to establish evidences about comparability of parallel versions.

The evidences for the stage of live exams. This kind of evidences refers to scoring validity, access, administration. Scoring validity consist in the procedures of marking. There are two kinds of marking: using answer key and range students performance, using scales.

For the listening and reading parts of our test, we provide full answer key. There is one clear answer to each item. But the mark scheme allows for possible alternative answer.

To range students written production, we use analytic scale. Five criteria are used in describing four bands of performance.

TABLE 4. ANALYTIC SCALE FOR WRITTEN PRODUCTION

Criteria	Performance
Relevance and Adequacy of Content	0 no 1 bad 2 weak 3 understandable 4 very good
Compositional Organization and Cohe- sion	0 no 1 bad 2 weak 3 understandable 4 very good
Adequacy of Vocabulary for Purpose	0 no 1 bad 2 weak 3 understandable 4 very good
Grammar	0 no 1 bad 2 weak 3 understandable 4 very good
Impact	0 no 1 bad 2 weak 3 understandable 4 very good

The written production is marked independently by two different markers and their marks being averaged.

To range student's oral performance we apply two scales. Two examiners range student's performance: assessor and interlocutor. The first one only listen test taker's performance, the second "play" as interlocutor for spoken interaction. During the exam they exchange the roles (for each sixth student).

TABLE 5. HOLISTIC SCALE FOR ORAL PRODUCTION (INTERLOCUTOR)

Criteria	Performance
No effective communication	1 bad
Communication generally not effective	2 weak
Communication somewhat effective	3 understandable
Communication generally effective	4 very good
Communication almost always effective	5 excellent

TABLE 6. ANALYTIC SCALE FOR ORAL PRODUCTION (ASSESSOR)

Criteria	Performance
Grammatical accuracy	0 no 1 bad 2 weak 3 understandable 4 very good 5 excellent
Vocabulary	0 no 1 bad 2 weak 3 understandable 4 very good 5 excellent
Fluency and pronunciation	0 no 1 bad 2 weak 3 understandable 4 very good 5 excellent
Content and compositional organization	0 no 1 bad 2 weak 3 understandable 4 very good 5 excellent

The oral production is marked independently by assessor and interlocutor and their marks being add with equal weights. Examiners are requested to attend a standardization meeting before proper. Here the marking criteria have been discussed to ensure the examiners fully understand the criteria that are applied.

Public information, test site and special accommodation for students with dyslexia, make all kind of access easy.

Test administration gives good physical condition, uniformity and security by instructions and monitoring.

All candidates are made aware of instruction in Bulgarian language specifying the things they must and must not to do during the examination. All proctors are aware of instruction specifying the things they must and must not to do during the examination. Only few people are aware with test version

Educational access is easy, because of the special courses for test preparation. Test takers become familiar with the types of tasks and cognitive demands. A test is financially affordable to test takers in the cases they should pass again. A test site is accessible in terms of distance to test takers. There is special accommodation for students with dyslexia. But the test is offered without compromising the construct being measured.

Washback for teaching and learning refers to special studying hours for test preparation. For language course with 150 hours, 30 of them are for test practice.

New teachers become familiar with the test on a special seminar. We have started to investigate the student opinion about the exam by developing a questionnaire.

TABLE 7. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS “AM I FAIRLY GRADED ON THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE EXAM?”

My grade for speaking is..., but I think my grade should be.....	
What do you think for test accommodation?	
♣ There is a noise.	Yes/No
♣ There is space enough.	Yes/No
♣ The time is enough.	Yes/No
♣ The attitude of assessor and interlocutor during the exam is positive.	Yes/No
Before the exam I was familiar with:	
♣ Task settings	Yes/No
♣ Task types	Yes/No
♣ Assessment criteria	Yes/No
My grade for listening, reading and writing is..., but I think my grade should be.....	
What do you think for test accommodation:	
♣ There is a noise.	Yes/No
♣ There is space enough.	Yes/No
♣ The time is enough.	Yes/No
Before the exam I was familiar with:	
♣ Task settings	Yes/No
♣ Task types	Yes/No
♣ Assessment criteria	Yes/No

The lack of evidences. In order to establish evidences about positive wash-back, we should investigate test takers view about value of the exam. If the exam results are really useful for them as criterion measurement of their language abilities, they will believe much more in the value of the exam. Their motivation is not to pass the exam for their own satisfactory, but to pass the exam only for credits. If we aim to increase assessment uses for users outside of the university, we could expect higher motivation and more real interest to the exam as criterion-oriented measurement of language ability.

The evidences for the stage of analysis and review. The analysis of the items with closed type response is based on the IRT (Item Response Theory) model. An introduction of this model can be found for example in Crocker & Algina (1986). One of the main advantages of this model is that the parameters of the items are placed on the same scale as the abilities of the students. The model uses up to 3 parameters to describe the performance of an given item (difficulty, discrimination and guess). Because of the small sample size in our practice only the difficulty of the item are estimated. The estimation is based on the EM-algorithm (Hanson, 1998) integrated in custom developed statistical software package, available at <http://evaluation.nbu.bg>.

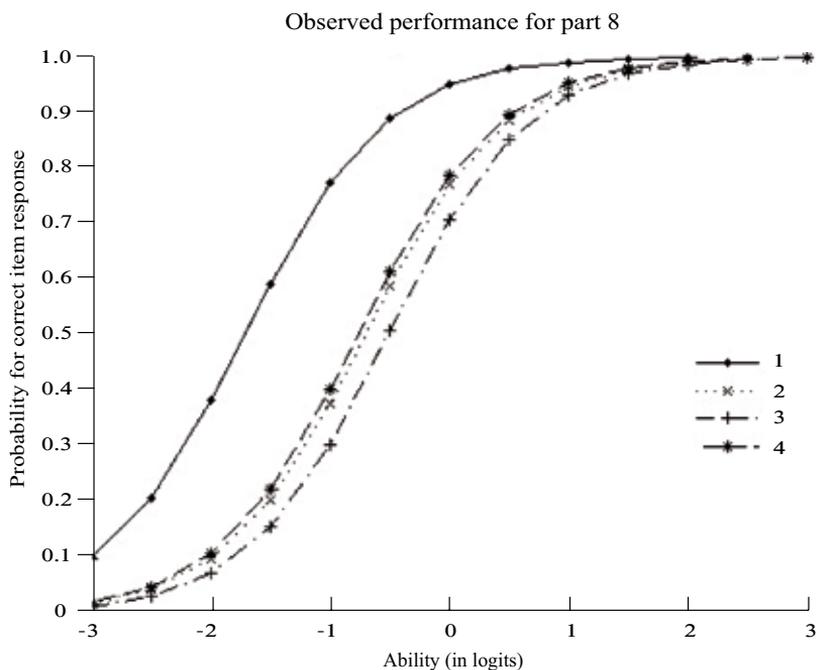


FIGURE 1. ITEM CHARACTERISTIC CURVES

On figure 1 an example of a set of ICC (Item Characteristics Curves) is presented. These curves represent the estimated probability for correct item performance from person with a given ability. Having such plots one can manage the expected performance on the test in order to keep certain level of difficulty (for example).

This type of validation is used for Listening, Reading and Use of English parts of the test.

The parts of the test, where the students are evaluated from raters the Many-Facet Rasch model is used to study the properties and interaction between the different aspects of the assessment process, such as topic, chosen by the student, or particular properties of the rater behavior, or difficulty of the different criteria of the assessment and so on.

The item difficulties are discussed with item writers. They took a decision about items, if the items need some correction or if the item has to be rejected.

The validity of rating scales is improved, applying the results from Rasch analysis.

In addition to Rasch-based analysis, descriptive statistics and classical item analysis was carried out for the reports to the University Board.

The lack of evidences. The future work on this stage is to develop an item bank.

RESULTS ACCORDING TO TEST CONTEXT FRAMEWORK

The Test fairness framework is very important to discuss test qualities itself. The Test context framework is a tool for describing and discussing the situation, in which the test takes place. It involves the mixture of traditions, histories and customs in academic and professional practices of a community. The context features are organized in four main notions: Political and Economic context, Educational, Social and Cultural context, The Technology and Infrastructure context, and Legal and Ethical context.

Political and Economic context of Bulgarian Higher Education. The language assessment in Bulgarian universities is not investigated yet. Not of this, all universities recognized the needs of foreign language competence for each student. The questions for level of language ability and the kind of language (general or specialized) is a matter of autonomy decision. But the common responsibility is to apply the Common European Framework for languages as a tool for teaching, learning and assessment.

Educational, Social and Cultural context of New Bulgarian University. New Bulgarian University is a private university. University board takes a decision for the aimed language level of each student, who graduated from university. Test developers have to establish evidences for test as a measurement of B2 level from

CEFR. The language framework is flexible, the description of levels depends on test takers and test context. Tests developers in NBU are teachers from university, who know well the test takers language ability. The exam is obligatory, but the language course is not obligatory. There is a suit of on-line placement tests, which aim to distribute student in an appropriate course. If the student could reach B2 level from placement test, he/she could take the university exam at level B2 immediately. If the level of language ability is less, the student could take language course. There is not extra fee for the language courses. They are free for first and second years at university. For students, whose language ability is above B2 level, there is a choice to study another language or to learn same language on the next level. Special procedure is assign for students who need of more language studying.

The Technology and Infrastructure context There is no special equipment for the test. The test is supplied only in paper and pencil variant.

Legal and Ethical context There are special remedial procedures, which consist of keeping the test paper two years after the exam. There is also possibility for re-scoring the test paper.

CONCLUSIONS

Fairness in test practices could be understand and evaluate in both of details and context, following the frameworks, suggested by Kunnan. They are useful tool for describing test practice. It is possible to find problem: identify the stage of test process and identify the quality you don't have in your test practice. But still the question of how much evidence is enough and who is responsible are opened for further discussions.

The future work for establish evidences of fairness concerning the English language exam in NBU must involve investigation of the construct of language ability and the cognitive demands of the test task, procedures for linking the test to the CEFR and making the test results value for test users outside the university.

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TESTING AND INCREMENTAL VALIDITY OF THE TRAIT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE QUESTIONNAIRE (TEIQUE) IN A BULGARIAN – SPEAKING POPULATION

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Abstract. *In this article, we focus on the perspective of the model and investigate the psychometrical properties of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQUE, Petrides & Furnham, 2003) in a Bulgarian-speaking population. TEIQUE was tested and validated using a sample of 546 Bulgarian participants. In summary, a detailed psychometric analysis provided evidence in support of the reliability of the TEIQUE (at the facet, factor and global levels) and the robustness of its proposed four-factor structure (well-being, self-control, emotionality, sociability). We found that (a) the Bulgarian TEIQUE scores were globally normally distributed and reliable (b) the psychometrical properties of the Bulgarian translation of the TEIQUE were similar to those tested in the United Kingdom, in French and German-speaking samples; (c) the Bulgarian TEIQUE scores were dependent on some demographic variables (gender, professional sector, religion status, birth order, the number of children in the family e.g.) but relatively independent of age; (d) there was preliminary evidence of convergent validity, with TEIQUE scores being positively related to the instance of left/right hand writing. In the second part of the study, we performed some two-step hierarchical regressions to investigate the incremental validity of trait EI in predicting, over and above the Giant Three personality dimensions, three distinct criteria (optimism, negative expectations, goal orientation). Trait EI incrementally predicted all the criteria over the Giant Three. The results support our conceptualisation of the validity of the TEIQUE as a stable construct of general emotionality measurement.*

INTRODUCTION

Emotional intelligence (EI) has received much attention in psychological literature since 1920, when the general concept of emotional intelligence (EI) is partly rooted in Thorndike's idea of 'social intelligence'. A term "Emotional intelligence" also appeared in the literature (Leuner, 1966). After some years the general concept of EI was partly developed in Gardner's (1983) theory of multiple intelligences (especially 'intrapersonal' and 'interpersonal' intelligence). In the current context, Payne (1986) in an unpublished dissertation discussed some aspects of EI. Afterwards Salovey and Mayer (1990) put forward a theoretical model that viewed the construct as a subset of social intelligence. The authors were the first that propose systematical theoretical account of the construct EI. Goleman (1995) provided a broad and highly influential account of the concept that extended over a wider domain that encompassed many personality variables such as impulsiveness, assertiveness, and optimism. Salovey and Mayer (1997) proposed a revised model that redefines EI in cognitive-emotional terms. This model consisted of some abilities – to perceive, to appraise, and to express emotions. Petrides and Furnham (2000a) made a conceptual distinction between the **ability** based model and a **trait** based model of Emotional Intelligence. It aims to provide a scientific framework for the idea that individuals differ in the extent to which they attend to, process and utilize affect-laden information of an intrapersonal (e.g., managing one's own emotions) or interpersonal (e.g., managing others' emotions) nature.

The field of EI still has often been discussed in scientific literature and few psychological constructs of EI have grabbed more scientific, experimental and popular attention in order to prove the differences between two conceptions of EI: ability EI and trait EI.

Trait EI versus ability EI

The distinction between trait EI (or "trait emotional self-efficacy") and ability EI (or "cognitive-emotional ability"; Petrides & Furnham, 2000, 2001) is unrelated to Mayer et al.'s (2000) distinction between "ability" and "mixed" models of EI. Petrides and Furnham (2001) content-analysed salient models of EI and cognate construct in the literature and derived the first sampling domain of trait EI or "trait emotional self-efficacy". It refers to „a constellation of behavioural dispositions and self-perceptions concerning one's ability to recognize, process, and utilize emotion-laden information“. This definition of EI encompasses behavioural dispositions and self perceived abilities and is measured by self report, as opposed to the ability based model which refers to actual abilities as they express themselves in performance based measures. Measurement of the Trait EI model is accomplished by a construct with stable psychometrical properties – the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue), (Petrides & Furnham, 2003) which

provides an operationalization of model that conceptualizes EI in terms of personality as it is shown in Table 1. As can be seen in the table, the domain comprises personality facets that are specifically related to affect.

TABLE 1. THE ADULT SAMPLING DOMAIN OF TRAIT EI

Subscale/Factor	High scores perceive themselves as.....
Adaptability	...flexible and willing to adapt to new conditions
Assertiveness	...forthright, frank and willing to stand up for their rights
Emotion expression	...capable of communicating their feelings to others
Emotion management	...capable of influencing other people's feelings
Emotion perception (self and others)	...clear about their own and other people's feelings
Emotion regulation	...capable of controlling their emotions
Impulsiveness (low)	...reflective and less likely to give in to their urges
Relationships	...capable of having fulfilling personal relationships
Self-esteem	...successful and self-confident
Self-motivation	...driven and unlikely to give up in the face of adversity
Social awareness	...accomplished networkers with excellent social skills
Stress management	...capable of withstanding pressure and regulating stress
Trait empathy	...capable of taking someone else's perspective
Trait happiness	...cheerful and satisfied with their lives
Trait optimism	...confident and likely to 'look on the bright side' of life
Factors	
Well-being	Self-esteem, Trait happiness, Trait optimism
Self-control	Emotion regulation, Stress management, Impulsiveness
Emotionality	Emotion perception, Emotion expression, Trait empathy, Relationships
Sociability	Social awareness, Emotion management, Assertiveness
Global trait EI	All 15 facets

It is important to understand that this construct is not related to intelligence as traditionally defined (i.e. cognitive ability). The conceptual differences between the two constructs are directly reflected in empirical findings, which reveal very low correlations between measures of trait and ability EI (e.g. O'Connor & Little, 2003; Warwick & Nettelbeck, 2004). Many researchers (e.g. Austin, 2004; Austin, Saklofske, & Egan, 2005; Petrides & Furnham, 2000, 2003; Spence, Oades, & Caputi, 2004; Tett, Fox & Wang 2005) distinguish between two EI constructs, depending on whether the operationalization process is based on self-report (as in personality questionnaires) or on maximum performance (as in IQ tests). The operationalization of ability EI is problematic because the subjectivity of emotional experience undermines the development

of maximum-performance (IQ-like) tests (Brody, 2004; Matthews, Roberts, & Zeidner, 2004; Robinson & Clore, 2002). In contrast, the operationalization of trait EI is straightforward because the construct encompasses self-perceptions and dispositions, which accord with the subjective nature of emotions. The trait EI framework aims to provide comprehensive coverage of personality facets relating to affect

Since trait EI is a personality trait, as opposed to a cognitive ability, an important question is: Where is trait EI located in Eysenckian and Big Five factor space, where does it belong within established personality hierarchies? Locating trait EI in personality space is important. There is an expanding body of evidence in recent studies showing that trait EI has incremental validity vis-à-vis a wide range of criteria both over the Big Five and the Giant Three personality framework (Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2005; Furnham & Petrides, 2003; Palmer, Donaldson, & Stough, 2002; Saklofke et al., 2003; Van der Zee & Wabeke, 2004) (Petrides, 2004; Petrides, Pe´rez-Gonza´lez, & Furnham, 2007; Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007; Mikolajczak, Menil, & Luminet, 2007; Freudenthaler et al., 2008). The studies demonstrated location of trait EI within existing taxonomies. Many authors provided empirical support for the construct's discriminant validity of the trait EI vis-a-vis the higher-order traits – Giant Three and Big Five and established that a distinct trait EI factor can be isolated in personality space. It means that a sufficient number of trait EI facets share enough common variance to define a separate factor in joint analyses with the Big Five, which constitutes clear evidence of discriminant validity (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007).

As Mavroveli (2007, p.264) has written, a growing body of evidence supports the predictive validity of trait EI in different areas, including educational (Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004; Mavroveli et al., 2007), experimental (Austin, 2005) and organizational (Wong & Law, 2002; Petrides & Furnham, 2006) psychology. The discriminant and incremental validity of the construct have also been demonstrated in many different studies (Mikolajczak, Luminet, & Menil, 2006; Kluemper, 2008; Mikolajczak et al., 2006; Mikolajczak et al., 2007c; Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007; Van der Zee & Wabeke, 2004; Petrides, Pe´rez-Gonza´lez, & Furnham, 2007, Freudenthaler et al., 2008).

The main conclusion of the latest studies is that trait EI is a distinct (because it can be isolated in personality space), compound (because it is partially determined by several personality dimensions) construct that lies at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (because the trait EI factor in joint factor analyses is oblique, rather than orthogonal to the Giant Three and the Big Five), (Vernon et al., 2008). A major advantage of this conclusion is that it connects the trait emotional self-efficacy conceptualization of EI to the differential psychology literature

Theoretical motivation for the present study

Many translations of the TEIQue have been done and factor analyses (i.e., TEIQue/Big Five, TEIQue/Giant Three) that have been conducted separately on British, Spanish, New-Zealand, French and German-speaking population, and Greek samples have consistently shown that trait EI formed a unique and composite construct that lies at lower levels of personality hierarchies. The present study has the main idea to verify the construct validity of the TEIQue for Bulgarian population. **First** we expect that the Bulgarian TEIQue scores are globally normally distributed and reliable, **second** the psychometrical properties of the Bulgarian translation of the TEIQue are similar to those tested in the United Kingdom, in French and German-speaking samples. In the literature there are different analyses on the dependence/independence of TEIQue on demographic variables. The variance of the correlations has shown that trait EI is especially relevant to the professions having an affective component such as service workers who have to perform emotional labor (e.g., Mikolajczak, Menil, & Luminet, 2006, Mikolajczak et. al., 2007) and managers (e.g., Slaski & Cartwright, 2002). Conducted on this, our **third** task is to test if the Bulgarian TEIQue scores are dependent/independent on some demographic variables (gender, profession, religion status, birth order, the number of children in the family, age e.g.) We didn't find research showing the preliminary evidence of convergent validity, with TEIQue scores being positively related to the instance of left/right hand writing. So we try to prove it as a **fourth** task.

One of established trait hierarchies is the Eysenckian model (Barrett, Petrides, Eysenck, & Eysenck, 1998; Eysenck, 1990), which posits three basic personality dimensions (Psychoticism, Extraversion, and Neuroticism; Giant Three). Because trait EI is explicitly conceptualized as a lower-order personality construct, it is expected to show strong correlations of Bulgarian data with the higher-order dimensions that define its factor space (Petrides, 2001; Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007;). In the second part of the study, by using some two-step hierarchical regressions we expect to investigate the incremental validity of trait EI in predicting, over and above the Giant Three personality dimensions, three distinct criteria (optimism, negative expectations, goal orientation). It will be relevant to the facts from the trait EI theory that the construct will exhibit incremental predictive validity over the basic personality dimensions only in relation to criteria that are sufficiently affect laden. Reliable relationships have been established with many criteria: happiness (Chamorro-Premuzic et al., 2007), goal orientation (Spence et al., 2004), including affective decision-making (Sevdalis et al., 2007), occupational stress (Mikolajczak et al., 2007b), social network size (Austin et al., 2005), peer-popularity (Mavroveli et al., 2007) managerial level (Van der Zee & Wabeke, 2004), and emotion regulation (Mikolajczak et al., 2007). Other correlates include goal orientation and reduced depressive symptomatology (Martinez-Pons, 1997), life satisfaction and loneliness (Palmer, Donaldson, & Stough, 2002; Saklofske et al., 2003), and depression and affect intensity (Dawda & Hart, 2000).

Proving our expectations the results will support our conceptualisation of the validity of the TEIQue in Bulgarian-speaking population as a stable construct of general emotionality measurement. The relevant analyses will help evaluate the criticism that the construct does not predict anything over and above the basic personality dimensions.

Translation and test adaptation

In line with the International Test Commission guidelines for test adaptation (Hambleton, 2001), items were first translated into Bulgarian and then back translated into English. The translators were three academic lecturers in English, having high qualifications in English language. The author A. Kardasheva with the cooperation of K.V. Petrides supervised the whole translation and back-translation process. Items with problematic back translations were thoroughly discussed and appropriately amended. Most discrepancies were minor, involving the choice between two synonyms or linguistic differences in Bulgarian and English languages. As a result we found some cultural differences, which influenced the translation process. Evaluating and confirming the linguistic differences of Bulgarian and English versions we implemented these modifications, as they did not change the meaning or readability of the items for Bulgarians.

To complete our experiment we break down our preliminary research plan in to key steps:

First and foremost, we look at the distributional properties, the internal consistency, and factor structure of the TEIQue. Next, we examine the relationship between the TEIQue and demographic variables. Afterward, we focus on the correlations of TEIQue and the variables – optimism, negative expectations, goal orientation and the three-factor model of personality. We also examine the liability of TEIQue responses to social desirability. Finally, we investigate the incremental validity of the TEIQue in predicting, over and above the Giant Three personality dimensions, three distinct criteria – optimism, negative expectations, and goal orientation.

METHOD

Participants and Procedures

Five hundred and forty six employed adults in professional occupations (N 260 males and N 286 females) participated in the study. The mean age for the sample was 36,79 years ($SD = 6,35$ years). Education levels ranged from 5 (0,9%) with basic school, 92 (16,8%) secondary and technical schools, 130 (23,8%) with bachelor's degrees, 311 (57,0%) of the participants obtained master's degrees and 8 (1,8%) of them have PhD degrees. All participants completed the questionnaire on a paper-

and-pencil form. Data was collected over a period of about 4 months. We sent a brief description and the purpose of the study to some institutions and volunteers. Responses were anonymous, except in those cases in which participants requested feedback. For those who required feedback we gave them the personal results.

Measures

Predictors

Trait EI measures

The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue v 1.50) consists of 153 items rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) and encompasses 15 subscales organized under four factors: Well-Being, Self-Control, Emotionality, and Sociability and global trait EI. It is predicted on trait theory and covers the sampling domain of trait comprehensively. The psychometric development of the instrument is described in Petrides (2001), (Petrides & Furnham, 2003) and a detailed psychometric analysis of the inventory is presented in Mikolajczak et al., (2007a). The means, standard deviations, and internal consistencies of the Bulgarian measures are presented in Table 2.

We appraised trait EI through the TEIQue described earlier.

We measured professional sector via a single “multiple choice” item. We invited participants to indicate the occupational categories they belonged to: private sector 36 (6,6%), service 141 (25,8%), army forces 162 (29,6%), healthcare 33 (6,0%), administration 46 (8,4%), charity sector 3 (0,5%), academic sector 14 (2,6%), self employed 101 (18,5%) and unemployed 10 (1,8%).

We measured the distribution of birthplace of the participants: 351 (64,3%) were born in a city, 148 (27,1%) were born in a town and 47 (8,6%) were born in a village. According to measured birth order 280 (51,3%) were the first-born child in the family, 256 (46,9%) were the second and 10 (1,8%) were the third born child. From all 546 participants, 245 (44,9) have one child in their families, 299 (54,8%) have two and 3 (0,4%) have three children.

The marital status of the participants was distributed 32 (5,9%) – not married, 70 (12,8%) living together without marriage, 62 (11,4%) married with infants, 324 (59,3%), married with students, 32 (5,9%) divorced, other status 26 (4,8%).

The religion orientation of the participants was measured in different levels – low religious were 66 (12,8%), at average level were 442 (81%) and high religious were 38 (7,0%). 301 (55,1%) from whole participants were Christians, 85 (15,6%) – Christians Protestants, 44 (8,1%) – Christians Catholics, 10 (1,8%) Muslims and 1 (0,2%) was Hindu. The left political orientation was reported from 19 (3,5%) respondents, right political oriented were 79 (14,5%) and the major part of the participants 448 (82,1%) were not political oriented.

Eysenck Personality Questionnaire EPQ

We used the 86-item Bulgarian adaptation of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) made from Paspalanov, I., Shtetinsky, D., Eysenck, S., (1984) to measure the three Eysenckian dimensions (Neuroticism, N; Extraversion, E; Psychoticism, P) and social desirability (L). The EPQ is usually based on a dichotomous ('yes/no') scale. On our sample, the internal reliabilities of the four dimensions were: for Neuroticism – .75, Extraversion – .70, Psychoticism – .72, Social desirability – .73.

Criteria

Optimism and negative expectations

For measuring optimism and negative expectations we used the Bulgarian questionnaire (Radoslavova, M, Velichkov, A., 1993). The method was created as a result of measurement of the construct – optimism, which is defined as a generalized tendency to believe that one will generally experience good instead of bad outcomes in life described through Scheier & Carver (1985), and two constructs – optimism and pessimism, presented in the literature by Dember et al. (1989) and (Norem, Cantor, 1986). The Bulgarian version of the method consists of 17 items rated on a 5-point Lickert scale ranging from 1 (completely disagree) to 5 (completely agree) and encompasses 2 scales: optimism and negative expectations. Construct validity for our sample showed Cronbach's α for optimism (10 items) .79 and .78 for the latter scale – negative expectations (7 items).

Goal orientation

The Bulgarian method (Velichkov, A., 1996) for measuring the personal goal orientation is created to assess the effects of long lasting goals over the subjective experience of life coherence and rationalization. The method is rooted in the conceptualisation of Wegner et al., (1984) for goal perspective of personal long lasting existence, subjective well-being and personal striving. The author was influenced by the concept of goal orientation described by Emmons, R.A. (1986) and developed by Diener, Fujita, (1995). The Bulgarian method consists of 10 items rated on a 7-point Lickert scale, ranging from 1 to 7. Construct validity for our sample showed Cronbach's α .77.

RESULTS

Distributional Properties

Exploratory data analyses were performed, focusing on minima, maxima, means, standard deviations, Skewness and Kurtoses of the 15 subscales, four factors, and global trait. EI scores are given in Table 2.

TABLE 2. THE MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND INTERNAL CONSISTENCIES OF THE TEIQUE SUBSCALES, FACTORS, AND GLOBAL SCORE AND MALE/FEMALE UNIVARIATE STATISTICS

Subscale/Factor	Nº of items	M	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Skewness	Kurtoses	Male M SD	Female M SD
Adaptability	9	4,87	,92	2,86	7,00	,081	-,529	4,95,95	4,79,90
Assertiveness	9	5,04	,92	2,43	7,00	-,062	,185	5,19,97	4,91,86
Emotion expression	10	5,43	1,02	2,70	7,00	-,634	-,183	5,45,99	5,41 1,04
Emotion management	9	4,44	1,03	2,00	6,63	-,173	-,603	4,47 1,07	4,42,98
Emotion perception	10	5,46	,82	2,50	7,00	-,674	,324	5,51,81	5,42,83
Emotion regulation	12	4,56	,95	1,50	6,92	,016	,142	4,72 1,03	4,41,84
Impulsiveness (low)	9	4,75	1,09	1,75	6,88	-,223	-,454	4,93 1,12	4,59 1,04
Relationships	9	5,72	,77	3,63	7,00	-,402	-,385	5,78,83	5,66,72
Self-esteem	11	5,40	,76	3,30	6,70	-,370	-,281	5,50,77	5,32,74
Self-motivation	10	5,27	,73	3,11	6,78	-,159	-,139	5,30,71	5,22,75
Social awareness	11	5,38	,85	3,36	7,00	-,324	-,799	5,44,84	5,33,83
Stress management	10	4,91	1,06	1,89	7,00	-,408	-,233	5,06 1,09	4,76 1,02
Trait empathy	9	5,09	,80	3,25	7,00	,107	-,526	5,05,83	5,13,77
Trait happiness	8	5,86	,85	3,50	7,00	-,672	-,062	5,91,89	5,80,81
Trait optimism	8	5,60	,92	2,38	7,00	-,634	,424	5,65,94	5,55,90
Factors									
Well-being	27	5,62	,68	3,62	6,90	-,601	,278	5,69,72	5,56,64
Self-control	31	4,74	,83	2,71	6,71	,143	-,123	4,91,90	4,59,73
Emotionality	38	5,43	,61	4,15	6,88	,142	-,424	5,45,62	5,40,61
Sociability	29	4,95	,69	2,90	6,33	-,157	-,142	5,03,70	4,89,67
Global trait EI		5,18	,55	3,81	6,52	-,102	,009	5,27,58	5,11,51

Note. TEIQue = Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, EI= Emotional Intelligence N=546, 260 males and 286 females. Standard error of Skewness estimation is .105 Standard error of Kurtoses is .209.

Relationships With Demographic Variables

We tested the **gender differences** in Bulgarian data through an independent samples *t*-test. The *t*-test revealed significant mean differences in gender for facet levels – ($t(546) = 2.801, p > .05$) for **self-esteem**, where men ($M=5,50$ $SD=,77$) giving higher estimates than women ($M=5,32$ $SD=,74$); for **emotional regulation** ($t(546) = 3.808, p > .01$), where men ($M=4,72$ $SD=1,03$) giving higher estimates

than women ($M=4,41$ $SD=.84$); for **impulsiveness (low)**, ($t(546) = 3.739$, $p > .01$) where men ($M=4,93$ $SD=1,12$) giving higher estimates than women ($M=4,59$ $SD=1,04$); for **stress management** ($t(546) = 3.286$, $p > .01$), where men ($M=5,06$ $SD=1,09$) giving higher estimates than women ($M=4,76$ $SD=1,02$) and for **assertiveness** ($t(546) = 3.515$, $p > .01$) where men ($M=5,19$ $SD=.97$) giving higher estimates than women ($M=4,91$ $SD=.86$). The t -test revealed significant mean differences in gender for factor levels. For factor **well-being** ($t(546) = 3.215$, $p > .01$), again men ($M=5,69$ $SD=.72$) giving higher estimates than women ($M=5,56$ $SD=.64$); for factor **self control** the significant mean differences ($t(546) = 4.518$, $p > .01$), where men ($M=4,91$ $SD=.90$) giving higher estimates than women ($M=4,59$ $SD=.73$); and for factor **sociability** ($t(546) = 3.446$, $p > .01$) where men ($M=5,03$ $SD=.70$) giving higher estimates than women ($M=4,89$ $SD=.67$). The t -test revealed significant mean differences in gender for **Global trait EI** ($t(546) = 3.389$, $p > .01$) where men ($M=5,27$ $SD=.58$) giving higher estimates than women ($M=5,11$ $SD=.51$). As it shown in the table women ($M=5,13$ $SD=.77$) giving higher estimates than men ($M=5,05$ $SD=.83$) for **empathy** at the facet level but t -test did not revealed significant mean difference. The results show some discrepancy with the conclusions for gender differences in the literature (Petrides & Furnham, 2003). Our finding replicate other studies with adults (Petrides, Furnham, & Martin, 2004), where a male favouring difference on assertiveness counterbalances a female favouring difference on empathy. Men scored significantly higher on Self-Control and Sociability and as a result, men were found to score higher on global trait EI than women (Mikolajczak et al., 2007).

We tested the gender differences through Spearman and Pearson correlations as well as Kendall. The results revealed similarly the same results. The significant negative correlations between gender and TEIQue variables are like self-esteem ($r = -.119$, $p < .01$), emotional regulation ($r = -.161$, $p < .01$), low impulsiveness ($r = -.158$, $p < .01$), stress management ($r = -.139$, $p < .01$), assertiveness ($r = -.149$, $p < .01$), self control ($r = -.190$, $p < .01$), global EI ($r = -.144$, $p < .01$).

The results from **age differences** did not reveal significant mean differences neither in facet level nor in factor level.

Internal Consistency and Comparison of the Internal Consistency in the Bulgarian, French, German and English samples

The internal consistencies of the 15 TEIQue subscales and 4 factors (Cronbach's alphas) of Bulgarian sample are given in Table 3. Among the 15 subscales, 9 had acceptable to excellent reliability (varying between .71 and .91) Six subscales, namely, Adaptability, Assertiveness, Emotion perception, Self-Motivation, Relationships and Empathy have Cronbach's alphas below .70 but were moderate.

Internal consistencies at the factor level were excellent for Well-being and Self-control and so is this the case for the global score. Two factors Emotionality and Sociability have Cronbach's alphas below .70. As can be seen in the table the

Bulgarian scores for some scales at the facet level and factor level have lower Cronbach's alphas but all of them are reliable. There are similarities between Cronbach's alphas for scales: Adaptability – (Bulgarian sample – $\alpha = .64$) and (French-speaking sample – $\alpha = .69$ males / $\alpha = .67$ females); for Emotion management (Bulgarian sample – $\alpha = .73$) and (French-speaking sample – $\alpha = .72$ males / $\alpha = .75$ females); for Emotion regulation (Bulgarian sample – $\alpha = .78$) and (French-speaking sample – $\alpha = .77$ males / $\alpha = .79$ females); for Stress management (Bulgarian sample – $\alpha = .79$) and (French-speaking sample $\alpha = .77$ males/ $\alpha = .81$ females). The reliability of the scale Impulsiveness (low) of Bulgarian sample ($\alpha = .74$) is higher than Cronbach's alphas of French-speaking sample ($\alpha = .66$ males / $\alpha = .64$ females) and German sample ($\alpha = .68$).

TABLE 3. INTERNAL CONSISTENCY RESULTS

Subscale/Factor	Cronbach's α Bulgarian sample N 546	Cronbach's α French- speaking sample N 740 Males Females	Cronbach's α German sample N 352	Cronbach's α English sample N 2254
Adaptability	.64	.69 .67	.81	.77
Assertiveness	.60	.75 .74	.72	.79
Emotion expression	.80	.86 .89	.92	.88
Emotion manage- ment	.73	.72 .75	.71	.71
Emotion perception	.68	.74 .80	.77	.74
Emotion regulation	.78	.77 .79	.81	.83
Impulsiveness (low)	.74	.66 .64	.68	.77
Relationships	.57	.68 .59	.60	.68
Self-esteem	.72	.79 .71	.84	.82
Self-motivation	.54	.66 .74	.63	.70
Social awareness	.78	.75 .75	.79	.83
Stress management	.79	.77 .81	.73	.82
Trait empathy	.50	.59 .73	.72	.71
Trait happiness	.77	.91 .91	.92	.86
Trait optimism	.76	.83 .81	.86	.79
Factors				
Well-being	.73	.91 .91	.94	.83
Self-control	.73	.85 .87	.86	.81
Emotionality	.68	.86 .90	.90	.80
Sociability	.59	.86 .87	.88	.83
Global trait EI	.86	.94 .95	.96	.98

The same is the result for the scale Stress management, the Bulgarian sample has higher reliability ($\alpha = .79$) than the German sample ($\alpha = .73$); for the scale Social awareness the Bulgarian sample has higher reliability ($\alpha = .78$) than the French-speaking sample ($\alpha = .75$ males / $\alpha = .75$ females) and has the similarity to the German sample ($\alpha = .79$). The result for the scale Emotional management of the Bulgarian sample has higher reliability ($\alpha = .73$) than the German sample ($\alpha = .71$) and the English sample ($\alpha = .71$).

Factor Structure of the TEIQue in the Bulgarian Data Set

We subjected the 15 TEIQue scales to a principal axis factor analysis. The scree plot and Kaiser eigenvalue extraction criteria suggested the presence of five factors. We applied parallel analysis to our data set, a method that is currently considered the most reliable procedure to determine the correct number of factors (see Zwick & Velicer, 1986, for a comparison of factor retention decision methods, and Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, 2004, for methodological issues in parallel analysis). We obtained the eigenvalues and standard deviations generated from completely random data using the following parameters: 15 variables, 546 participants, and 872 replications. We then compared our observed eigenvalues to the 95th percentile of the eigenvalues generated from these random data to reject factors that were most certainly artificial (at $p = .05$).

TABLE 4. FACTOR PATTERN MATRIX FOR TEIQUE SUBSCALES (PROMAX PRINCIPAL AXIS FACTORING FOUR-FACTOR SOLUTION)

Subscale	Well-being	Self-control	Emotionality	Sociability
Adaptability	.48	.28	.21	.37
Assertiveness	.51	.52	.32	.73
Emotion expression	.37	.22	.75	.34
Emotion management	.10	-.01	.16	.68
Emotion perception	.33	.43	.76	.33
Emotion regulation	.50	.85	.36	.37
Impulsiveness (low)	.20	.71	.32	.21
Relationships	.62	.53	.68	.37
Self-esteem	.70	.45	.44	.50
Self-motivation	.46	.40	.38	.37
Social awareness	.54	.46	.50	.80
Stress management	.59	.85	.34	.42
Trait empathy	.26	.05	.65	.20
Trait happiness	.87	.32	.47	.36
Trait optimism	.82	.51	.41	.36

Note. N = 546 TEIQue = Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, EI= Emotional Intelligence; Factor pattern matrix: Coefficients that should theoretically define each factor are in boldface; ** Correlations are significant at the 0.1 (2-tailed)

Results supported our theoretical expectations in that four factors were retained. We thus rotated a four-factor solution via the Promax algorithm ($\kappa = 4$). The factor pattern matrix and factor intercorrelations are presented in Table 4. Despite some cross-loadings, the four factors were substantively identical to the original British structure (Petrides, 2001, at the origin of the scoring key) and were thus labeled accordingly: Well-Being, Sociability, Self-Control, and Emotionality. This solution accounted for 61.95% of the total variance, and the strength of the intercorrelations was fully in line with the conceptualization as a multifactorial construct.

The zero-order correlations shown in Table 5 between the factors were .981 for Well-Being, .962 for Sociability, .989 for Self Control, and .967 for Emotionality. The high compatibility among the scoring results on factor solution demonstrates that the factor structure in Bulgarian is highly similar to French, German and English data sets (Mikolajczak et al., 2007; Freudenthaler et al., 2008). Such analysis was imperative, as there were small discrepancies between our factor structure and the French, German and British theoretical structure. These values suggest a high level of Bulgarian factor solutions.

TABLE 5. FACTOR CORRELATION MATRIX OF THE BULGARIAN FACTOR ANALYSIS

Factors	Well-being	Self-control	Emotionality	Sociability	Total EI
Well-being	.981				.821
Self-control	.537	.989			.792
Emotionality	.546	.434	.967		.742
Sociability	.501	.414	.432	.962	.751

** Correlations are significant at the 0.1 (2-tailed)

Relation of the TEIQue to the Eysenckian factor space

An explanatory factor analysis was performed to verify the nature of the trait EI factors in Bulgarian data and their locations in Eysenckian factor space. It can be seen in **Table 6** that the correlations between trait EI factors and the three Eysenckian factors: Neurotism, Extaversion, Psychotism were -0.24 , 0.28 and -0.15 . In line with the conceptualization of trait EI as a constellation of affect-related personality dispositions, global TEIQue scores showed a negative correlation with neuroticism and a positive correlation with extraversion. As regards the personality dimensions, trait EI correlated highest with neuroticism and extraversion, which are its strongest trait determinants (Petrides, 2001). We can see that the correlation between factors Extaversion and Self-control is highest 0.39 and there is no significant correlation between Psychotism and Self-control. The other correlations are not high but they are all significant as in the case described in Petrides and Furnham research (2001). The weak but significant relationship be-

tween trait EI and Eysenckian factors concluded the fact that the isolation of trait EI factors in Eysenckian factor space constitutes evidence of discriminant validity in Bulgarian data. In the Eysenckian personality structure, trait EI is a lower-order composite construct that occupies space largely delimited by Neurotism and Extaversion. The association between trait EI and Psychotism was lower than might have been expected, given that individuals with high scores on this dimension are likely to be unfriendly, unemotional, antisocial and “lacking in feeling” (Petrides and Furnham, 2001). Negative correlations between Psychotism and trait EI factors confirmed the above written.

In view of the emotional core of these two dimensions, it should be clear that the position of trait EI factor in Eysenckian model of personality is theoretically meaningful. The results show that the construct is very likely to exhibit incremental validity vis-a-via the Eysenckian dimensions with respect to external criteria.

Criterion and Incremental Validity

We mentioned that for testing the criterion validity we chose three criteria: Negative expectations, Optimism and Goal orientation. In order to predict some criterion on future behaviour on the three criteria we did first some correlations and multiple regression analyses. As expected, trait EI factors were negatively correlated with criteria Negative expectations (see Table 6). As shown in Table 6, trait EI factors were more positive and significant associated with criteria Optimism and Goal orientation.

TABLE 6. ZERO-ORDER CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE TEIQue (FACTOR AND GLOBAL SCORES) AND THE OTHER VARIABLES IN THE STUDY (N=546)

Variables	Well-being	Self-control	Emotionality	Sociability	Total EI
Neurotism (N)	-.247**	-.091*	-.197**	-.264**	-.248**
Extaversion (E)	.123**	.392**	.206**	.131**	.285**
Psychotism (P)	-.213**	.037	-.139**	-.198**	-.153**
Social desirability (SD)	.018	.387**	-.120**	.083	.216**
Optimism	.056	.412**	.138**	.105**	.254**
Negative expectations	-.208**	.074	-.172**	-.193**	-.130**
Goal orientation	.017	.387**	.137**	.081	.215**

** Correlations are significant at the 0.1 (2-tailed)

* Correlations are significant at the 0.5 (1-tailed)

The global TEIQue scores showed moderate positive correlations with Optimism and Goal orientation and negative correlation with criterion Negative ex-

pectations. The factor Self-control is highly associated with two criteria: Optimism and Goal orientation. The criterion Negative expectations are significantly negative associated with Well-being.

To establish the incremental validity of the TEIQue and the other personality dimensions and criteria, we conducted a series of separate hierarchical regression analyses entering the subscales/factors of the trait EI measures as a block in the first step, and the three personality Eysenckian dimensions in the second step. Results are summarised in Table 7 showing R2 change attributable to the factors of the trait EI measures (step 1) and the contribution of Eysenckian dimensions (step 2) This procedure allowed us to examine both criterion and incremental validity within the same set of regressions.

In the presence of Eysenckian dimensions, trait EI was a reliable predictor in three equations involving “**optimism**” ($R^2 = .412$, $F = 78,536$, $p < .01$; $\beta = .430$, $t = 5.11$, $p < .01$), “**goal orientation**” ($R^2 = .387$, $F = 35,228$, $p < .01$, $\beta = .572$, $t = 4.41$, $p < .01$), “**negative expectations**” ($R^2 = .303$, $F = 29,009$, $p < .01$, $\beta = -.341$, $t = 3.81$, $p < .01$). TEIQue factors: Well-being, Self control and Emotionality in the combination with EPQ variables – Extraversion and Social Desirability had the best predictive capability, incrementally explained between **43%** optimism. TEIQue factors: Well-being and Self control had the best predictive capability in the presence of EPQ variables, incrementally explained between **38%** goal orientation. TEIQue factors: Well-being, Self control and Sociability had the best predictive capability over and above the effects of EPQ variables – Psychotism, Neurotism and Social Desirability, incrementally explained between **35%** negative expectations.

TABLE 7. TWO STEP HIERCHICAL REGRESSIONS AND VALUES FOR THE FIRST STEP (TEIQUE FACTORS) AND SECOND STEP (EPQ DIMENSIONS) AS PREDICTORS (N=546)

CRITERIA	Optimism		Negative expectation		Goal orientation	
	F = 78,536** R2 = .412		F= 29,009** R2 = .303		F=35,228** R2 = .387	
	β	t	β	t	β	t
E	0.43	5.11**	- 0.10	1.47	- 0.38	3.81**
N	- 0.03	0.63	0.42	4.82**	- 0.57	4.41**
P	- 0.04	0.69	0.35	3.63**	- 0.05	1.72
SD	0.35	4.36**	0.31	3.41**	- 0.07	1.34
TEIQue	0.43	5.00**	- 0.44	4.92**	0.37	4.16**

Note. N = 546 TEIQue = Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, EPQ – Eysenckian Personality Questionnaire,

E-extraversion, SD-social desirability, P-psychotism, N-neurotism

** p < 0.1

Apart from the TEIQue, Psychotism, Neurotism and Social desirability were reliable predictors of negative expectations. Trait EI incrementally predicted all the criteria over and above the Giant Three.

There was preliminary evidence of convergent validity, with TEIQue scores being positively related to the instance of left/right hand writing. Using some dispersion analyses we found that: The variable left/right hand writing has significant relation to TEIQue facet "Sociability" and it is conformed by Fisher quotient $F = 7,852$, Sig. $F = 0.005 < \alpha = 0.05$; The variable left/right hand writing has significant relation to TEIQue facet "Emotional expression" $F = 4,475$, Sig. $F = 0.035 < \alpha = 0.05$, Phi =, 125, Aprrox.sig.= 0,015, Cramer's V =,125, Aprrox.sig.=0,015; The variable left/right hand writing has significant relation to TEIQue facet "Emotional regulation" $F = 3,992$, Sig. $F = 0.046 < \alpha = 0.05$, Phi =, 182, Aprrox.sig.= 0,000. The variable left/right hand writing has significant relation to TEIQue facet "Impulsivity low" $F = 12,233$, Sig. $F = 0.001 < \alpha = 0.05$, Phi =, 178, Aprrox.sig.= 0,000. The variable left/right hand writing has significant relation to TEIQue facet "Optimism" $F = 14,243$, Sig. $F = 0.000 < \alpha = 0.05$, Phi =, 122, Aprrox.sig.= 0,017. The variable left/right hand writing has significant relation to TEIQue facet "Relationship" $F = 4,174$, Sig. $F = 0.042 < \alpha = 0.05$, Phi =, 152, Aprrox.sig.= 0,002. The variable left/right hand writing has significant relation to TEIQue facet "Adaptability" $F = 8,156$, Sig. $F = 0.004 < \alpha = 0.05$, Phi =, 113, Aprrox.sig.= 0,031. The variable left/right hand writing has significant relation to TEIQue facet "Assertiveness" $F = 16,793$, Sig. $F = 0.000 < \alpha = 0.05$, Phi =, 121, Aprrox.sig.= 0,019.

DISCUSSION

This study represents psychometric measurement of a test/questionnaire within the EI research field. It also constitutes the psychometric properties of the Bulgarian TEIQue data results Thus, beyond their interest for French and English speaking researchers and practitioners, these findings may be of interest to any researcher/practitioner using the TEIQue: They provide both a point of comparison as well as an indication of what psychometric properties of other versions may look like. Results lend preliminary support to the validity of the TEIQue. Internal consistencies were generally good. Then, the Bulgarian test structure was similar to the British four factor structure, confirming previous findings according to which the factor structure has been relatively stable across languages. It shows that a very similar structure of affect-related personality traits can be found in French and English as well as in German, and Greek. Although there may be cultural differences between these countries with respect to the way a trait is expressed, such cultural differences do not seem to affect the structure of traits in the individual.

The weak but significant relationship between trait EI and Eysenckian factors concluded the fact that the isolation of trait EI factors in Eysenckian factor space constitutes evidence of discriminant validity in Bulgarian data.

Regarding demographic data, TEIQue scores were found to be independent of age but were influenced by gender, which suggests that separated norms for men and women would be useful. The various TEIQue factors correlated in meaningful and theoretically congruent ways with goal orientation, negative expectations, optimism, and the Giant Three dispositions of personality. It is noteworthy that trait EI can, however, not be reduced to these constructs because (a) it has demonstrated incremental validity over them in the prediction of a number of variables. It is vital here to understand that “to predict” does not equal “to cause.” All criteria we examined in this study were self-reported and pertained to subjective emotional adjustment. By showing that the TEIQue predicts optimism, goal orientation, negative expectations over and above the Giant Three model of personality, this article adds to the growing body of literature that has shown the TEIQue does indeed predict variance over and above the Giant Three, and other cognate constructs for examples in other languages.

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CONTENT AND CONCURRENT VALIDITY OF DRAW-A-PERSON TEST (DAPT) IN CONSTRUCTIVE IMPAIRMENTS OF PATIENTS WITH DEMENTIA

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Abstract: *The aim of this study is to investigate the content and concurrent validity of a quantitative scoring system for DAPT, as a neuropsychological task, measuring visuoconstructive ability in dementia. Three approved visuoconstructive tests – BVRT, drawing of a house and drawing of a cube, together with DAPT and MMSE, was administered to patients with dementia in Alzheimer's disease and vascular dementia, subjects with mild cognitive impairment (MCI) and healthy elderly (mean age 68.17, SD= 8.56). 311 subjects from the three diagnostic groups completed BVRT and DAPT; 110 of them – the house and cube drawing. ANOVA showed significant differences in the diagnostic groups for the performance on DAPT – $F=75,08, p<.001$; on BVRT (correct reproductions) $F=93.457, p<.001$; on BVRT (errors) $F=106.852, p<.001$; on house drawing $F=29.70, p<0.001$ and on cube drawing $F=23.53, p<0.001$. The Spearman correlation analysis showed moderate significant correlations between DAPT total score and: 1/ BVRT number of correct reproductions ($r=-0.519, p<.001$); 2/ BVRT total number of errors ($r=0.565, p<.001$); 3/ house drawing total score ($r=-0.581, p<.001$); and 4/ cube drawing total scores ($r=-0.528, p<.001$). Our results demonstrated sensitivity and validity of DAPT in constructive impairments in dementia.*

Keywords: *validity, Draw-A-Person Test, quantitative scoring system, visuoconstructive impairments, dementia, mild cognitive impairment.*

INTRODUCTION

F. Goodenough constructed her Draw-A-Man /DAM/ test in the 1920s as a test of intellectual development in young children (Goodenough, 1975). Until the 1950s – 1960s this test was in the list of the most frequently used clinical instruments (Pihl & Nimrod, 1976; Scott, 1981), but its use with adults was usually related to projective drawing, based on Machover's theory that Draw-A-Person-Test /DAPT/ relates to the impulses, anxieties and conflicts of the individual (Handler, 1985; Urban, 1963).

As far as the 1990s there were a few studies of human figure drawing /HFD/ in adults (Scott, 1981; Clement, Marchan, Boyon, Monti, Leger, & Derausne, 1996; Buck, 1995) and it was used as a test for general cognitive functioning. During the past years there has been an increasing interest in HFD task as a marker of general cognitive impairment in the elderly. (Ericsson, 1990; Ericsson, Forssell, Amberla, Holmen, Viitanen, & Winblad, 1991; Ericsson, Hilleras, Holmen, Jorm, Forssell, Almkvist, Ronnberg, & Winblad, 1994; Ericsson, Hilleras, Holmen, & Winblad, 1996; Gustafson & Waehler, 1992; Kirk & Kertesz, 1991). Different scoring systems have been statistically analyzed, most of them based on the empirically determined items in the DAM scoring criteria. We share the Gifford (2002) view that when validity is concerned before the statistical analyses, theoretical analyses for the extent a given test corresponds to a specific capacity are necessary.

This work is guided by the hypothesis that DAPT is a neuropsychological visuocognitive task. The aim of the present investigation is to analyze and to assess the content and concurrent validity of a quantitative scoring system for DAPT as a tool measuring visual constructive ability in elderly and dementia.

CONCEPTUAL ISSUES OF DAPT CONTENT VALIDITY

In psychometrics content validity (also known as logical validity) refers to the extent to which a test represents all facets of a given construct (Pennington, 2003, p.37).

Goodenough proved that DAM and standardized intelligence tests were closely related but she defined the conceptual thinking as area of assessment for her test. Assessing the validity of DAM, Goodenough (1975) compared the results from her test with standardized intelligence tests, with tests used for prognosis of school success and with teacher's judgments. She made the conclusion that her drawing test measures an aspect of mentality to some degree distinct from that, measured by the other tools. D. Harris (1963, p.247) described the revised Goodenough-Harris Drawing Test (GHDT) as a measure of intellectual maturity, with "content, so different from the usual intelligence test". Although data exist for significant correlations between IQ scores from DAM and GHDT on the one hand, and teachers' ratings of general academic achievement on the other (Pihl & Nimrod, 1976), the results of the studies of DAPT as an intelligence test showed that it is not a tool measuring global intelligence (Aikman, Belter & Finch, 1992; Reisman & Yamokoski, 1973; Scott, 1981).

It seems necessary to ask what “measure of intelligence” or “test for general cognitive functioning” really means in the drawing of human figure and to relate its scoring systems to the nature of the cognitive capacity measured. We describe the nature of the task in DAPT as the processing of visuospatial information in organizing a unity (human figure) from its parts and in representing this unity graphically, on a clearly determined space.

The constructive ability is described as a capacity to draw or construct two- or three- dimensional figures or shapes from one- and two-dimensional units (Strub & Black, 1985, cited in Lezak, 1995). Free drawing is used together with copying models, block-building, construction of mosaic patterns, etc. as a constructional task (Benton, 1969). Guerin et al. (1999) hypothesized at least three systems that underlie the processing of drawing abilities – perception, imagery and graphic production, which include planning and action programming. The anticipation, goal selection, planning and organization processes are elements of the executive functions (Goldstein & Green, 1995). Discussing van Sommers’ model of drawing abilities Guerin et al. (1999) stressed the semantic processing (the influence of the meaning of the figure), that is part of the hierarchical segmentation of this figure, in contrast to the line-by-line drawing. In her description of the drawing task Goodenough (1975) also analyzed the processes of planning, together with association by similarity; analysis, evaluation and selection of the essential parts; analysis of spatial relationships; judgments of quantitative relationships (proportions); abstraction and simplification of the parts into graphic outlines.

Constructive impairments can be observed early in the course of dementia (Costa et al., 1996; Henderson et al., 1989, cited in Lezak, 1995; Moore & Wyke, 1984; Morris et al., 1989, cited in Forsti et al., 1993) but they are better studied in focal brain lesions than in dementia. The analysis of the descriptions of the human figure drawing task, give us the arguments to consider the nature of the task in DAPT relevant to mirror the basic features of the constructive ability and suitable for use in dementia constructive impairments.

METHOD

Subjects: The sample included 311 subjects, residents of South Bulgarian towns and villages, with mean age 68.17 /standard deviation SD= 8.56/; 128 men (41.2%) and 183 women (58.8%) (Table 1). The sample included 3 groups of subjects: 104 (33.4%) patients with dementia in Alzheimer’s disease and vascular dementia, mild to moderate level; 104 (33.4%) subjects with mild cognitive impairment / MCI/ – multiple domains slightly impaired (Bischkopf, Busse & Angermeyer, 2002, p.407); and 103 (33.1%) healthy control subjects over 60 years of age without history of psychiatric disorder or other major health problems, that could cause significant impairment of their daily functioning.

Patients with dementia and subjects with MCI were examined during consultation or hospitalization in the University Hospital in Plovdiv, where the diagnosis of probable dementia in Alzheimer's disease and probable vascular form of dementia, or MCI, was based on the criteria of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV), NINCDS/ADRDA (McKhann, Drachman, Folstein, Katzman, Price, & Stadlan, 1984) and NINDS/AIREN criteria (Roman et al., 1993), after computed tomography (CT). The healthy controls were individuals living in the community.

TABLE 1. PATIENT DEMOGRAPHICS

	Age (years)		Gender n %		Education n %		
	Mean	SD	Male	Female	PSS*	HS**	College/ University
Dementia	68,28	9,19	51 49%	53 51%	55 52,9%	28 26,9%	21 20,2%
MCI	68,13	9,45	43 41,3%	61 58,7%	34 32,7%	45 43,3%	25 24,0%
Healthy controls	68,11	6,89	34 33%	69 67%	20 19,4%	48 46,6%	35 34,0%

*Primary and secondary school; ** High school

Instruments: 1/ Mini-Mental State Examination /MMSE/ (Folstein, Folstein, & McHugh, 1975), Bulgarian translation (1996), a commonly used brief mental status scale. 2/ Benton Visual Retention Test (BVRT), form C, administration "A" – a well-known test of short-term visual memory, visual perception and constructive ability (Benton, 1972). 3/ Draw – a – Person Test (DAPT) – assigned using the procedure, described by Urban (1963). 4/ Free drawing of a house and a cube, assessed following a modification of the scoring system of Moore and Wyke (1984). 5/ Semi-structured interview based on the criteria of the Social and Occupational Functioning Assessment Scale (SOFAS) – (DSM-IV) and Cornell Scale for Depression in Dementia (Alexopoulos, Abrams, Young, & Shamoian, 1988).

DAPT SCORING SYSTEM

The quantitative scoring system, developed for this study, included items that assess the visuoconstructive ability and permit minimal ambiguity during the assessment, which diminishes subjectivity. The items were as follows: 1. Elements (parts) of the figure, which omission was considered an error; 2. Items, indicating errors in the formal and structural aspects of the figure execution; 3. Items, indicating repetitive graphic trials to improve the figure; 4. Items, indicating wrong orientation of the figure; 5. Items, indicating misplacement of the figure elements

and/or whole figure; errors in the two-dimensionality; 6. Items, indicating size errors. The scoring gave 1 point for every error in the performance of the figure, i.e. the bigger the score, the worse the performance.

RESULTS

Patients with dementia, had a MMSE total score between 12 and 23 inclusive; subjects with MCI – between 24 and 27 inclusive; the healthy controls – more than or equal to 28. The mean scores are shown on Table 2.

1. Performance on DAPT:

The patients with dementia showed worse performance on DAPT compared with the subjects with MCI and healthy controls (Table 3; Fig.1). One-way ANOVA was used to compare the performance in the three groups (Table 4). It differs significantly ($p < .001$). Post hoc multiple comparison (Tukey test) showed significant difference between all groups, $p < .001$.

TABLE 2. MMSE MEAN SCORES IN THE DIAGNOSTIC GROUPS

Diagnosis	MMSE	
	mean	SD
Patient with dementia	18,54	3,51
Subject with MCI	25,45	1,11
Healthy controls	28,70	0,77

TABLE 3. MEAN TOTAL DAPT SCORE

Diagnostic	Group N	Mean	SD
Healthy	103	7,19	4,406
MCI	104	13,11	5,626
Dementia	104	16,15	5,882
Total	311	12,17	6,499

TABLE 4. ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR TOTAL DAPT SCORE

Between Groups	4291,814	2	2145,907	75,077	,000
Within Groups	8803,492	308	28,583		
Total	13095,305	310			

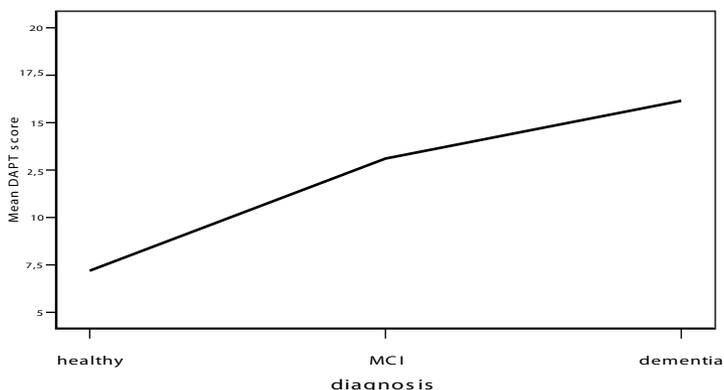


FIGURE 1. MEAN DAPT SCORE IN THE DIAGNOSTIC GROUPS

2. Performance on BVRT:

The mean results of the execution of BVRT are presented on Table 5. There is a clear tendency for an increase of the errors and a decrease of the correct reproductions for the subjects with MCI and dementia (Fig. 2). The comparison between the three groups (One-way ANOVA) showed significant differences, $p < .001$; $F=93.457$ for the number of correct reproductions and $F= 106.852$ for the number of errors. Post hoc multiple comparison (Tukey test) showed significant difference between all groups, $p < .001$.

3. Results from the drawings of house and cube:

110 subjects completed the drawing of house and cube. The mean age in this sub-sample is 67.27 (SD=8.124).

TABLE 5. MEAN BVRT SCORES

Criteria	Diagnosis	Mean	SD
number	Dementia	1.78	1.28
Correct	MCI	3.13	1.35
	Healthy	4.62	1.81
number	Dementia	16.86	4.55
errors	MCI	12.26	3.44
	Healthy	8.91	3.70

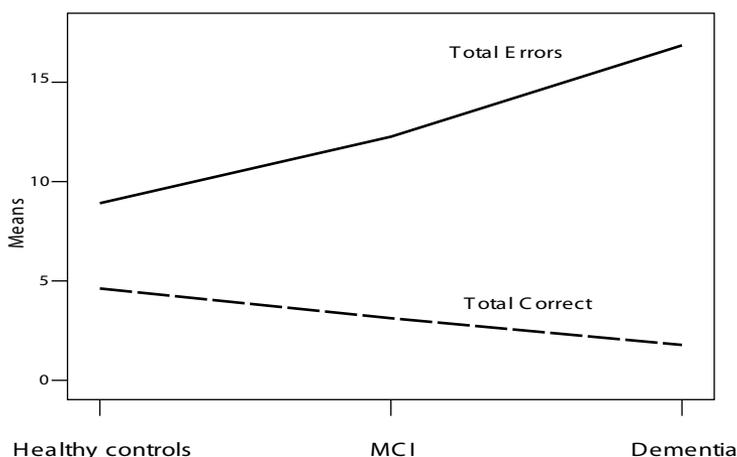


FIGURE 2. MEAN BVRT SCORES

The mean scores (mean number of correct execution of elements and features assessed) for house and cube drawings (Table 6) show worsening of the drawing capacity in MCI and dementia. One-way ANOVA for total house and cube scores in the three diagnostic groups showed: 1/ For house drawings $F=29.70$, $p<0.001$; 2/ For cube drawings $F=23.53$, $p<0.001$. Post hoc multiple comparisons Tukey tests showed significant difference between all groups, $p<.01$.

TABLE 6. MEAN TOTAL SCORE – DRAWINGS OF HOUSE AND CUBE

Drawing task	Diagnosis	Mean score	SD
House	Dementia	7.92	2.32
	MCI	9.55	1.39
	Healthy	10.85	1.05
Cube	Dementia	5.77	2.48
	MCI	7.90	2.86
	Healthy	10.08	3.02

4. Results from the correlation analysis

The correlation analysis /Spearman correlation/ showed moderate significant correlation between total DAPT score /number of errors/ and BVRT scores: for DAPT/BVRT number of correct reproductions $r= - 0.519$, $p<.001$; for DAPT/ BVRT total number of errors $r= 0.565$, $p<.001$.

The results from the correlation analysis between DAPT and the house and cube drawings are shown on Table 7.

TABLE 7. SPEARMAN CORRELATION BETWEEN DAPT AND HOUSE AND CUBE DRAWINGS

Drawing task	Cube drawing	House drawing
DAPT	-0.528	-0.581
	p<.001	p<.001
Cube	0.589	-
	p<.001	

DISCUSSION

The constructive ability is a complex aptitude and the basic mechanisms of its impairment integrate the role of different abilities – perceptual analysis, motor functions, planning and intellectual efficiency (Carlesimo, 1993). The impaired performance of visuoconstructive tasks can be a neuropsychological marker of dementia in AD and in vascular dementia. We supposed differences in the execution of DAPT, BVRT and house and cube drawings by the patients with dementia, MCI and the healthy elderly controls. Our results proved the statistically significant difference between the groups analyzed. Our scoring system for DAPT is sensitive to discriminate patients with dementia from MCI and healthy elderly subjects.

Concurrent validity of a test is frequently investigated by: 1/ comparison between groups who are known to differ on the capacity being measured; and 2/ by correlating the test scores with the scores from another established test for the analyzed characteristics.

In our study DAPT total score correlated significantly with the BVRT number of correct reproductions and total number of errors. BVRT performance requires reproductive drawing of simpler designs. The DAPT is free drawing on verbal instruction of a more complex figure. As Benton (1962) noted, more complex tasks can reveal constructional deficit, not apparent in the performance on simpler ones. Both BVRT and DAPT are tasks that differ in their extent of including executive functions and in the type of memory, necessary for their performance. In the design of our study BVRT was used as a test, measuring visual perception, immediate memory and constructional praxis. Benton (1962) compared his VRT as a purely constructive task (with copying) and as an immediate memory task and found a positive relationship of moderate degree between the two types of perfor-

mance. He concluded that the constructional praxis element is the common factor in the two performances, pointing out that the two versions of the test did not measure identical abilities. DAPT and BVRT do not measure identical abilities, either. Executive functions take greater part in HFD on verbal instruction (from memory), being a more complex task than reproducing simpler figures from the short-term memory. But DAPT and BVRT performance involve constructional abilities, together with other cognitive abilities. Benton (1969) studied the differences between the various visuoconstructive tasks and the part, which attention, motor skills, spatial judgment and intellectual ability play in them.

The human figure, the house and the cube are for the subjects well-known models from the long term memory. Our results showed moderate significant correlation between DAPT score and the drawings of house and cube scores; and moderate significant correlation between the scores from the house drawings and the scores from cube drawings. House and cube drawings are well established neuropsychological measures of visuoconstructive impairments. We found similar correlation quotients between the scores from the three drawings tasks. This confirms that DAPT task is a valid assessment tool for visual constructive abilities in elderly and dementia.

CONCLUSIONS

Our results are promising for the future work in standardizing the human figure drawing task as a test for visual constructive abilities in the elderly. In this work we proved the sensitivity and the validity of our quantitative scoring system. DAPT can be useful in assessing constructive praxis impairment in AD and vascular dementia.

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ADAPTATION OF THE LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT SURVEY IN BULGARIAN AS A PART OF CHILD BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST FOR AGES 1.5–5 YEARS

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Abstract. *The present study is a part of the standardization for Bulgaria of Child Behavior Checklist for Ages 1½–5 years/ Language Development Survey (CBCL/LDS) and Caregiver-Teacher Report Form for Ages 1½–5 (C-TRF), developed by Thomas M. Achenbach and Leslie A. Rescorla. It examines the size and content of early language production in Bulgarian and the validity of parental reports of language production of children aged 18–35 months. A series of picture-naming experiments was used to determine the language production development in this age period, by directly examining children's vocabulary. Language Development Survey (LDS), comprising questions about early language development and a list of 556 words organized into 14 semantic categories (a translated and extended version of the English list), was used as a parental report instrument for vocabulary size and content. Analyses revealed that a picture naming task and a parental report yield similar patterns of language production, indicating that LDS could be used as a valid measure of early language development. Results for word frequency from the experiments and the reports were used to generate a list of the first produced words by Bulgarian children aged 18–35 months, allowing the adaptation of the LDS into Bulgarian.*

INTRODUCTION

The linguistic stage of language development begins with the appearance of the first words. These first words are defined as units of speech which refer to particular objects or events from the environment. This usually takes place at age of 8–14

months, depending on the differences in the individual development (Stoyanova Y., 2006). The child first uses single-word utterances in combination with gestures to indicate whole situations rather than distinct objects. In the age period 18 – 35 months there is a rapid growth of vocabulary. The first grammatical constructions appear as the child starts to combine two or more separate words in a statement.

The beginning of language acquisition is characterized by vocabulary learning. Once the words have been learned they are stored in the semantic memory and form the lexicon or the mental dictionary. It is thought that by 18 months most children are able to produce more than 50 words and understand about five times as many. By the end of the second year spontaneous speech includes more than 200 different words (Crystal D., 1997).

Young children speak of what is in their immediate environment. The early lexicon can be grouped in several semantic categories despite the native language of the child. In a study of semantic development, presented in „The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language“ (1979) H. Benedict classifies the early lexicon into thirteen semantic categories (Crystal D., 1997). For Indo-European languages the classification is given as follows: 1) people – mainly relatives and house visitors; 2) actions – the way things move and routines in the child’s daily life; 3) foods – the products and food occasions; 4) body parts – usually facial words first followed by other areas and bodily functions; 5) clothing of all kinds; 6) animals – real, on pictures, or on TV, and the noises they make; 7) vehicles – the objects and the noises they make; 8) toys and games; 9) household – objects related to daily routines; 10) locations – names of particular places and location adverbs; 11) social words and response noises; 12) describing words and early adjectives; 13) situational words and several pointing words (Crystal D., 1997). The semantic categories in the Child Behavior Checklist for Ages 1½ – 5/ Language Development Survey are organized in a similar manner, but are some of the names differ and a 14th category is added. The LDS semantic organization is given as follows: 1) Foods; 2) Toys; 3) Outdoors; 4) Animals; 5) Body Parts; 6) Vehicles; 7) Actions; 8) Household; 9) Personal; 10) Places; 11) Modifiers; 12) Clothes; 13) Other; 14) People (Achenbach T., Rescorla L., 2000).

The construction of early vocabulary is related to the semantic memory. In 1972 Rumelhart, Lindsey and Norman develop a model of the semantic memory, which comprises concept nodes and connections between the nodes. (Gerganov E. 1987). One concept consists of different nodes, related to the object, which present the characteristics of that object. In order to extract the meaning of a word the semantic net of the concept should be activated. Each word is connected to the object it indicates and to other words or objects, to which it has been often associated. Language production could be instigated when the access to the concept is available, i.e. when the semantic net is activated. Some of the most common experiments examining language production are based on this model of the seman-

tic memory. These are association experiments (Popova V., 2004), object naming (Samilo J., Goodman J., Bates E., Sweet M., 2000) and picture naming (Snodgrass J. G., & Vanderwart M., 1980; Cychowicz Y., Friedman D., Snodgrass J., Rothstein M., 1994; Szekeley et al., 2003; Vigliocco C., Vinson D., Damian M., Levelt W., 2002; Cannard C., Blay A., Scheuner N., Bonthoux F., 2005).

Other methods for examination of language production include observation, natural experiment and parent reports. First psycholinguistic studies use the methods of systematic observation and the natural experiment to collect data for the formation and development of children's speech (Stoyanova Y., 1992). New technologies allow for easy and complete record of vast amounts of children's speech, as well as for quick transformation of the verbal record into a text file. In such manner databases (corpora) of children's speech are obtained. They provide a rich source of information about early language acquisition and production.

When parents are sensitive and accurate observers they are a valuable source of information about the development of their child as they participate actively in the process. However, many authors doubt the validity of parental reports because of the natural biases caused by the parent-child relationship. For reasons like pride or modesty parents may over- or underestimate the abilities of their child. Parents are usually not trained to conduct experiments. The results they obtain may not be an objective and valid measure of the child's language development (Feldman et al., 1999; Tomasello & Mervis, 1994).

METHOD

Subjects

14 children (6 boys and 8 girls) aged between 18 and 35 months from a nursery in the city of Varna and their parents. The children have no established language, cognitive, emotional or behavioral deficiencies. The children and their parents use Bulgarian as a native language.

Materials

Verbal material: A list of 556 words in Bulgarian was composed. Words are divided into 14 semantic categories following the structure of LDS. The list is composed of words, translated from the English version of LDS, and expanded with words from the semantic categories, typical for Bulgarian culture and children's literature. Adaptation of the original list was necessary because of language asymmetry between English and Bulgarian. For example "toe/finger" is indicated by only one word in Bulgarian – "пръст" [prast]. Some of the interjections were also replaced with the Bulgarian equivalents: "bow-wow" as „бай-бай" [bow-bow] for the sounds a dog makes, "yummy" as "ням-ням" [niam-niam] for something

tasty. In spite of the extension of the list the proportion of words in the semantic categories was kept. In the Bulgarian version of the list nouns are given in singular¹; verbs are in infinitive; adjectives – in third person, singular. Situational words, interrogative and negative pronouns were added because at the chosen age period children learn these language elements. The list was then included in the Bulgarian version of LDS.

Visual material: For the purposes of the picture naming experiment a set of 468² pictures depicting the verbal material was prepared. The visual material was composed of 1) pictures used in the International Picture – Naming Project (IPNP – International Picture Naming Project, 2000) held at the Center for Research of Language at the University of California, San Diego; 2) pictures used in the clinical practice of Margarita Stankova, PhD, New Bulgarian University, Sofia. All pictures were outlined black-and-white images. Given the small age of the children the pictures were colored in order to facilitate identification of the concepts. Arguments for the coloring were found in a picture-naming experiment conducted by Barrow and colleagues. They studied children aged 4, 6, and 8 years and concluded that coloring can only facilitate identification, without contaminating the results of the experiment. (Barrow and col., 2000).

Procedure

Picture-naming experiment and audio records of the spontaneous speech during the picture-naming experiment:

The first part of the study is a picture-naming experiment. Each child is studied individually. Pictures are administered one after the other according to the word organization in the semantic categories of LDS. All children were examined with the whole set of pictures in several experimental sessions. For children aged 18–24 months mean number of sessions was nine and each session lasted approximately 20 minutes. For ages 24–35 months six 30-minute sessions were conducted. During the sessions the experimenter allowed regular breaks because the attention span at the examined age is limited. Pictures were presented in the form of a game. As the experimenter presented a picture he would tell the child that this picture wants to go “home” (a box). The child could help the picture. He/she should only say the name of the picture and it would be free to go home. Every verbal production instigated by the picture was considered an answer, and the child was allowed to put the picture in the box. In case of no verbal production the picture is left on the table, face down. In this position it awaits an answer if

¹ Exception was made for paired organs and objects – “eyes”, “ears”, “gloves”, “shoes”, since they are mainly used in plural.

² Some pictures are used for more than one word. Not every word could be demonstrated on a picture.

or when the child desires to go back to it. If the child does not show interest, and all pictures from the semantic category are exhausted the experimenter turns the picture face up and asks again what its name is. If no answer follows the second picture display, the experimenter marks “no production”. Into this category fall “does not know the word”, “does not know the object/action/quality”, “cannot recognize the image”. For the purposes of the present study these answers were not examined. Reactions of the children and the conversation with the experimenter during the sessions were recorded and analyzed. Results for the language production are obtained by the picture-naming experiment and by the free spontaneous conversations. On the list of 556 words the experimenter entered the words which each child had uttered. The words, produced but not included in the preliminary list comprise an additional list. The purpose of the study is to examine the volume of spontaneous speech, not recognition, proper pronunciation or grammar use. For this reason all verbal utterances referring to the picture are considered language production.

Parent report form:

The second part of the study is examining parental perceptions of the language production of their child. The list of 556 words is used in the LDS form together with several questions aiming to examine risk factors for language delay. Parents are asked to mark each word which their child uses spontaneously (not just imitates or understands). According to the instruction even words which are not clearly pronounced and baby-talk should be included, as long as the child refers to their common usage. Parents are left space to add words, from their child's lexicon, which are not included in the list.

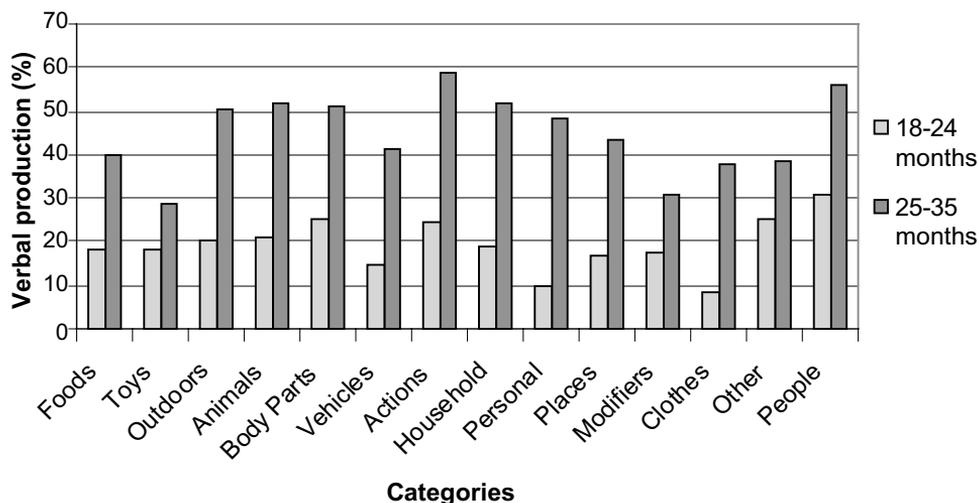
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results from the picture-naming experiment revealed how the different semantic categories are represented in the children's lexicon. In order to investigate the organization and development of semantic categories we divided children into two age groups: 18–24 months and 25–35 months. Student's 2-tailed T-Test was used to determine whether there is a significant difference between the numbers of words from a semantic category in the two age groups. A summary of the results is presented in Table 1; significant differences are given in bold. In all categories except for Toys, Modifiers and Others a significant difference between the two age groups is observed. Younger children produce fewer words in these 11 categories than older children. The 3 categories with no significant difference between age groups are also characterized by small language production. This may be a result of poor semantic organization until the end of the second year, since qualities and functional words are formed later in lan-

guage development. The lexicon is initially formed by words indicating objects and actions. The comparative distribution (percentage) of verbal production in the semantic categories is presented in Graph 1. The greatest difference between the two age groups is observed in the categories Foods, Actions, Personal and Places. It is assumed that during Bulgarian language acquisition nouns and verbs are learned almost simultaneously, as opposed to English where verbs are learned following nouns (Stoyanova Y., 2006). The results of the present study show that acquisition of verbs follows similar patterns as the acquisition of nouns and the categories extend with similar speed (Graph1).

TABLE 1. RESULTS FROM A TWO-TAILED T-TEST: REPRESENTATION OF SEMANTIC CATEGORIES IN AGES 18–24 MONTHS AND 25–35 MONTHS

Semantic category:	T-TEST						
	T	df	p (2-tailed)	Mean difference	SD difference	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower limit	Upper limit
Foods	-4.43	12	0.001	-0.24	0.05	-0.36	-0.12
Toys	-1.36	12	0.201	-0.11	0.08	-0.28	0.06
Outdoors	-2.97	12	0.012	-0.32	0.11	-0.55	-0.09
Animals	-3.38	12	0.005	-0.34	0.10	-0.56	-0.12
Body Parts	-2.31	12	0.039	-0.27	0.12	-0.52	-0.02
Vehicles	-3.16	12	0.008	-0.28	0.09	-0.47	-0.09
Actions	-4.40	12	0.001	-0.34	0.08	-0.51	-0.17
Household	-3.35	12	0.006	-0.36	0.11	-0.60	-0.13
Personal	-6.86	12	0.000	-0.37	0.05	-0.49	-0.25
Places	-4.19	12	0.001	-0.28	0.07	-0.42	-0.13
Modifiers	-2.12	12	0.055	-0.14	0.06	-0.28	0.00
Clothes	-2.86	12	0.014	-0.28	0.10	-0.49	-0.07
Other	-1.92	12	0.079	-0.12	0.06	-0.26	0.02
People	-2.83	12	0.015	-0.24	0.08	-0.42	-0.05



GRAPH 1. VERBAL PRODUCTION IN DIFFERENT SEMANTIC CATEGORIES

The semantic organization of early language production indicates how semantic memory is developed. The lexicon expands significantly after the second year. It can be concluded that the categories of adjectives, adverbs and functional words (Modifiers and Other) are not well formed until 3 years of age in the studied children. The small language production in the category Toys is surprising. A possible reason for the small language production can be a weakness in the procedure or in the picture material.

To investigate parental reports validity Pearson correlation coefficients were estimated between the results from the picture naming experiment and the parental report forms for the 14 semantic categories. A summary of the results from the analysis are presented in Tables 2 and 3. For each semantic category a correlation coefficient is estimated between data from the picture-naming experiment and from the parent report form. Previous studies have also investigated the validity of parent report forms. They compared the pattern of language production established in an object-naming experiment with the pattern of language production reported by the parents (Samilo J., Goodman J., Bates E., Sweet M., 2000). In the cited experiment the number of items in the experiment with children was not equal to the number of words in the parent report form. The present study uses identical concepts (in the form of different stimuli) both in the children's testing part and in the parents' testing part.

Analysis revealed strong positive correlations for the semantic categories – Toys, Outdoors, Animals, Body parts, Actions, Household, Places, and Modifiers. Parents are a valid source of information about the early language production of their children in the examined age period. For the semantic categories Foods, Others and Clothes the correlation is moderate positive. For the semantic categories Personal and People the correlation is weak positive. In addition all parents report for a larger language production in comparison with words their child generated in the picture-naming experiment. This trend is not necessarily due to high subjectivity of the parental reports or to inaccurate measurement. A variety of factors may prevent the child from demonstrating his/her language abilities during the picture-naming experiment – shyness, inattention, fatigue, a temporary physical indisposition, etc. Nevertheless there is strong and moderate positive correlation for 12 out of 14 semantic categories. This is an evidence for the parental competence to accurately account for their child's language production.

TABLE 2. CORRELATION BETWEEN SPEECH PRODUCTION OF CHILDREN IN A PICTURE-NAMING EXPERIMENT AND PARENTAL REPORT FORMS FOR SPONTANEOUS LANGUAGE PRODUCTION

Semantic categories	Foods	Toys	Outdoors	Animals	Body parts	Vehicles	Actions
Correlation coefficient(r)	0.527	0.811**	0.845**	0.699**	0.857**	0.694**	0.707**

** p < 0.01

TABLE 3. CORRELATION BETWEEN SPEECH PRODUCTION OF CHILDREN IN A PICTURE-NAMING EXPERIMENT AND PARENTAL REPORT FORMS FOR SPONTANEOUS LANGUAGE PRODUCTION

Semantic categories	Household	Personal	Places	Modifiers	Clothes	Other	People
Correlation coefficient(r)	0.723**	0.182	0.784**	0.794**	0.362	0.47	0.137

** p < 0.01

For the purposes of adaptation of LDS to Bulgarian language the results from the picture naming experiment and from the audio records were used to create a frequency list of the included words. The frequency of each word was derived and the final list in Bulgarian was created. In order to keep the original proportions of the semantic categories the corresponding number of high frequency words in Bulgarian in each category was examined. Having established

the validity of parent reports we conducted a follow up study in order to collect additional data for early language production using the 556-Bulgarian-words list (Pacholova Y., 2009). Parents of 50 children from Sofia, Plovdiv, towns and villages around Plovdiv, filled in the LDS form. The results were used to complement the frequency list and to form a final version of LDS in Bulgarian. After discussion with the authors of CBCL/LDS – L. Rescorla and T. Achenbach, the final version of the 310 Bulgarian word list was completed. As a result 38 words from the English word list were replaced by semantically non-equal words in Bulgarian.

CONCLUSION

In the present study the methods of picture-naming experiment, children's speech record analysis and parental reports were used to collect data for the spontaneous speech in early childhood from the perspective of semantic organization of concepts. A list of 310 words in Bulgarian was prepared and entered the Bulgarian version of Child Behavior Checklist for Ages 1½–5 years/ Language Development Survey (CBCL/LDS). The form is ready to be administered to larger populations so that sufficient data for the standardization process could be acquired. Correlation analysis in the present study showed that the Language Development Study as a parental report form can be used as a valid source of information for the language production of their children at the age period 18–35 months.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL TECHNOLOGIES AND THEIR ROLE IN THE PSYCHOLOGICAL SCIENCE DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract. *In this paper the modern challenges for psychological science and practice are discussed. The main changes of understanding of social activity, social norms and identification objects is analyzed and it is also taken into account the role of education system and psychological practice in human development. Three models of relationship between psychological science and practice are defined, among them the model of direct relation between science and practice (psychotechnical model), the model of indirect relation between science and practice (psychotechnological model), the model of direct relation between science and wide social practice (socioeconomic model). The new conceptual model of psychological technology and its typology is proposed. It is shown, that monitoring of results of psychological technologies functioning can stimulate new research agendas in psychological science.*

Keywords: *social life and job changes, models of relation between psychological science and practice, conceptual model of psychological technology, structural and functional characteristics of psychological technology.*

INTRODUCTION

The current state of a psychological science on the Post-Soviet space is defined by necessity of active adaptation of psychology to new socio-historical realities. The most important among them are: multivectoral changes of life conditions, occurrence of new forms of life activities, dramatic changes of meaning of social activity and social norms, change of identification objects. Besides, the development of psychology faces with global competition, hi-tech innovations, corporate culture change due to mergers and acquisitions, increase of complexity of work,

reduce of supervision, change of jobs and career concepts, increase of cultural diversity, etc. (Frese, 2000; Riggio, 2003).

The growth of interest to technological problems in many sciences (especially biology, medicine, sociology etc) is caused by increase of applied researches and decrease of the role of theoretical science (Prujinim, 2008). From small academic university discipline in previous century nowadays psychology turned into huge practical discipline and has dominating place in culture (Sirotkin And. E, Smith P, 2006).

Besides, the increase of number of psychological societies in many countries in the beginning of the 21st century is associated with developing of system of psychological education. Since the 60s there is a strong increase of number of psychological faculties and therefore people with bachelors, masters and doctor's degrees in psychology (Donaldson & Berger, 2006). Moreover in the industrial countries there is a stable "plateau" in dynamics of number of the academic psychologists and exponent increase of number of practitioner psychologists (Rosenzweig, 1992). Subsequently there are two main tendencies in development of psychology, namely institutionalisation and professionalisation. The last one determines the delimitation of scientific and practical psychology and the division of professional specialization within psychological society.

SOME SPECIFICS OF WORLDVIEW OF SCIENTIST AND PRACTITIONER

There are some specifics in work of scientist and practitioner psychologist. First of all, the main purpose of the scientist is to acquire the new knowledge, as for the practitioner to have practical benefit. There are also differences in work estimation, payment, career perspectives, degree of dependence on the employer and the market. For example, the information received by practitioner is the property of the customer, who can forbid the publication, introduce in practice or place in archive etc., though the scientist has achieved results as own intellectual property.

The scholar and practitioner psychologist embody the different social roles, which determine specificity of professional skills in research or practice and deep originality of their worldviews (Podshyvalkina, 1997, 2005).

First, the standard requirement of a classical science is an invariance system of spatial coordinates. The scientist works with the ideal, static space, which is not adhered to concrete space dimensions with a certain reference point. The practitioner works in real, concrete, independent space which has a reference points – the problems of the real customer. This space has the set of concrete metric characteristics: distance, parallelism, straightforwardness, similarity, affinity. The worldview of the scientist is built on decentralized space, where there are no fixed points of references.

Secondly, the science struggles with time, it operates with the cinematographic description in which development is represented as sequence of static shots and time loses the continuous, dynamic character. Contrary, the practical activities exist in time, in the conditions of rigid irreversibility.

Thirdly, for the practitioner the more effective cognitive strategy is that, which attributes the key problems to subjective variables, in order to exert influence on them. The scholar within the classical canons of research directs his efforts to study the general laws and objective reasons or factors.

Fourthly, for the scholar, who stands on classical methodology, all individual varieties are beyond of the research field, i.e. the researcher designs the subject as mass sample. For the practitioner individual and mass are both important.

Fifthly, for the scholar the single fact does not represent unique event, but the whole class of the phenomena at certain level of abstraction. For practitioner psychologists the single fact is connected to the individual or group history.

Sixthly the scholar according to requirement of a natural-science paradigm and orientation to elementarism and reductionism, expects that practitioner psychologist will also ground on separate fragments of scientific knowledge.

In the seventh, for the practitioner psychologists the method of understanding is preferable to explanation on which the whole classical science is based. The purpose of the scholar, according to natural-scientific classical paradigm, is to explain the phenomena. The methods of understanding and explanation represent the different research strategies connected with opposition of natural-science and humanitarian traditions in a science.

Russian psychologists, thereupon, point out the break between psychological practice and research and difficult relationships between their representatives (Vasiljuk, 1996, Jurevich, 1998). According to A.V. Jurevich rupture between the theory and practice which existed in the 20s (Vygotsky, 1927) nowadays turned into a deep precipice, because of increase of psychological practice (Jurevich A.V., 2008).

The analysis shows that it is more pertinent to mark out different models of psychological science and practice interconnections.

MODELS OF THE PSYCHOLOGICAL SCIENCE AND PRACTICE INTERCONNECTION

There are three models of interconnection of a psychological science and practice (Podshyvalkina, 2008).

Direct interconnection of psychological science and practice – “psychotechnical interconnection”. This model is based on relations, when scientists “produce” the knowledge which is then “consumed” by practitioners (Fernández-Ballesteros, 2002, p. 221). It is the direct use of empirical generalizations in practice and direct inclusion of practical components in structure of the scientific psychol-

ogy, though, a certain scientific psychological interpretations can change the real world of practitioner.

Indirect interconnection (from psychological science through psychological technology to practice). This model is based on unity of research and practice. The practical component is used in scientific methods and in design of psychological systems. This level is associated with activity which provides transformation of fundamental knowledge into projects, technology and a technique of practical work.

Inverse interconnection from psychological practice through psychological technology to psychological science. This model of interconnection becomes possible in process of development of psychological practice, and then practice promotes development of the psychological theory.

The inclusion of technological component in relations between a science and practice requires the explanation. First of all, it is necessary to notice the widespread of constructivist, engineering and technological orientations not only in technician sciences, but in biology, psychology, pedagogy, sociology, psychology etc.

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL TECHNOLOGY

Technical and technological knowledge is directed on revealing of new consequences and mechanisms of the general laws, which are most useful in practice; on theoretical research of its applications possibilities, on estimation of simplicity and efficiency of each of them; on revealing of the most perspective ways of innovation application and on working out of new technologies.

In real life the technology is realized in two forms: as a certain way of activity, its system, algorithm, the mechanism and as technical management, that is purposeful activity on reproduction of these algorithms, mechanisms.

The psychological technology is understood as artificial system, which is aimed to find the solutions and besides consists of elements or subsystems. Each of technological elements can be used “separately” in each concrete situation, but only uniting of all elements allows to obtain results in different areas, such as personal selection, personal adaptation, top manager career, staff recruitment, optimization of management, formation of personnel reserve etc. (Podshyvalkina, 1997, 2006).

It is necessary to note that application of psychological technologies is appropriated in certain circumstances. It is worthwhile in cases where special value have the actions order, time limitation; necessity of maintenance of same conditions of activity; it is necessary to product effective algorithm of actions and of reproducible results. Thus, the technology is a tool for effective problems solving in certain profession. It is important to mention that different professions accumulate the effective modes, techniques, ways of the professional problems solving, which are property of this professional group and which development in specialized technological systems as “know how”. Thereby, it is important to underline that forma-

tion of technological approach take a place both in the practicing circle of experts and in the academic circles of the same profession.

It is possible to offer the model of technology, which includes some primary characteristics:

- ❖ *Space-time characteristics.* Space characteristics are immanently inherent to psychological technology as activity process. Space is reflected in such concepts as sequence, duration, simultaneity. Thus space represents three-dimensional varieties and time – one-dimensional variety.
- ❖ *Modality of technology* represents qualitative specificity of every psychological technology in comparison with others. Its specificity defined by features of the phenomena on which the technology is directed.
- ❖ *Intensity* of influences is the universal characteristic of psychological technologies and is connected with spatial and time characteristics of objects of psychological influence. Besides, the intensity of psychological pressure is related with artificiality of psychotechnological reality.
- ❖ *Integrity* concerns the number of the important properties of psychological technology. Integrity of technology can be understood as connectivity of technology structure, as mutual independence of its components and as possibility of its functioning in case of reduction or replacement of some components of technology.
- ❖ *Generality* defines, first of all, the degree of repeatability and adaptability in different situations. Technologies intent to solve a class of problems and in similar conditions, thought not absolutely identical.
- ❖ *Constancy* of psychological technology assumes keeping congruent primary model of technology with its subsequent samples.
- ❖ *Featuring.* The various professional actions in technology are closely bound both in time and in space. However it is very important to use identical symbols or labels, allowing distinguishing technological processes from another form of professional activity.

It is necessary to note some base external characteristics of psychological technologies, such as universality (the technology can be applied on different and specific objects for solving particular and similar problems); constructivity (the purposefulness of the technology to solve the concrete administrative problems in proved ways); productivity (orientation to final, checkable result); efficiency (an opportunity to maintain the realization of technologies in optimal time); relative simplicity (availability of use by an practitioner with certain qualifications); reliability (presence of some safety factors, duplicating mechanisms); flexibility (ability to adapt to various situations); economic profitability and feasibility (Podshyvalkina, 1997).

All technologies pass through three stages of psychological evolution: innovation stage, cultural adaptation, routing stage. On each of these stages of introduction of psychological technologies there are certain difficulties. For example,

on the innovation stage of technology application there can be the resistances to application of psychological technologies, fear of consequences etc. These difficulties demand specific actions that consist in explaining of safety and advantages of psychological technology. On the stage of cultural adaptation of psychological technology the main problem is the organization and coordination of activity of different specialists, who are affiliated with the psychological technology. These difficulties demand from psychologists specific manager activity and decision-making abilities. On the routing stage of technology's application the most important task is to save its forecasting capability. These difficulties demand permanent development of technology and time legitimacy.

Thereupon, common directions of changes in psychological practice in the last decade can be stressed, such as change of social sense and social goals in functional, communicational and cognition spheres; change of internal characteristics of psychological activity (new theories, new methods, new approaches, new standards of functions, communication and cognition); change of external characteristics of psychological activity (change in clients demands for psychological activity); change of personal sense and goals in functional, communicational and cognition spheres. One of the most important psychological problems in application of psychological technologies in organization is the efficiency and suitability of traditional research methods for analyzing the work life changes and controlling the reliability and validity of personnel selection technologies

The changing nature of work also had an impact on the workforce depending on the certain demands placed on the organization and employees. For example, the study of the changes over time is an important new direction in selection research that is likely to benefit from, as well as contribute to the modeling of longitudinal processes in other areas of psychology, in terms of both conceptual and methodological advances in change assessment (Chan, 2005). Longitudinal designs and data-analytic techniques can be applied in a research to examine important issues relating to changes in job performance over time.

New areas in personnel selection are unfolded such as: (a) greater conceptual and relevant criteria might change over time. Given the present and future state of rapid change in the world of work, this line of research is critically important for improving personnel selection and overall organizational effectiveness. (b) Personality theory and measurement within a personnel selection context have burgeoned. New personality constructs and compound constructs of well-known traits are being brought into the fold. (c) Applicant reactions to personnel selection procedures have been actively studied. (Hough & Oswald, 2000)

Psychological publications on personnel selection problem often characterize selection as the process of choosing which employee to hire on the basis of predicted job performance. It means that personal selection is directed to estimate personality professionalism.

One of the most important characteristics of the selection is that it is a science-based professional practice and some authors consider that it is a distinguishing feature of our discipline (Anderson, Lievens, van Dam, Ryan, 2004). Science gives some theoretical explanations to the phenomena which can help to develop practice. According to the classical scientific principles experiment is the most reliable method for academic science. However, in our opinion, some modern psychological technologies can help to select data more useful for the development of psychological theory and it is necessary to develop new psychological methods and strategies.

The new paradigm transforms the status of psychological practice. Psychological practice becomes an issue of new theoretical knowledge and new psychological technologies. Growing interest to monitoring strategy and monitoring procedures in psychology is an indicator of this tendency though this strategy is not methodologically and methodically analyzed. The researchers want to underline that monitoring procedures can be used with experimental, comparative and longitudinal procedures. In our opinion, monitoring is both a research and a practical procedure essential for psychological practice.

THE MONITORING STRATEGY IN PSYCHOLOGICAL SCIENCE AND PRACTICE

Monitoring can be used in psychological science and practice for data collection. In various psychological publications the monitoring is often characterized as a process of observing the state of an object with periodical data collection on the basis of key psychological dimensions (Zeer, 2002). Meanwhile this approach does not show the differences between monitoring and longitudinal and comparative researches. In our opinion, psychological monitoring is a periodically repeated measurement of parameters for the indication of activity strategies and reaction of a system to the changes of large environment. The purpose of monitoring procedure is not to explain, but to understand the effects of some psychological programs or technologies and to define external reactions. In other words, the psychological monitoring is a strategy, directed to study the positive and negative consequences of practical activity. It is necessary to mention that every monitoring procedure includes both the estimation of a situation and efficiency.

There are some specifics of longitudinal, comparative, experimental and monitoring researches.

Comparative research is directed to indicate the features of an object or process in certain circumstances at different periods of time. *Longitudinal research* is directed to study features of a phenomenon in development. *Experimental research* is characterized by artificial and formal research conditions and by the control of research parameters using dependent and independent variables. *Monitor-*

ing research is directed not only to find out an object's state, but to find its positive and negative consequences and influences on natural conditions.

The importance of monitoring procedure for the development of psychological science is obvious. The researchers reveal factors, which determine the development of monitoring strategy. The necessity of monitoring procedure grows in various periods of dynamic changes in social groups or society at whole, when human life and activity are changed. The monitoring is useful in different spheres (educational, professional etc.) with different requirements and influences on psychological reality. The monitoring is very useful in the situation when there are many different approaches and different scales, which are determined by different paradigms and scientific schools. The present time is characterized by the rationalization of the process of estimate scales choosing and these scales become a subject of scientific discussing (K. Manheim). The necessity of monitoring procedures appears in the circumstances when there are social reality changes and certain generation differences are revealed. There are some principles of monitoring research strategy: poly-subjectivity of changes; the existence of many vectors of changing results and of psychological reality development; coherency and interdependency of negative and positive tendencies in the process of development; object dissimilarity in time.

MONITORING OF PERSONNEL SELECTION TECHNOLOGY

Now it is possible to analyze some tendencies of personnel selection technology development using monitoring strategy. This technology was constructed by the psychologists of Moldavian energy branch in the end of 70s, then as pilot project it was put into operation. In 1982 it was introduced into practice and well function until present days. The developed selection technology was based on next tests: Wechsler Adults Intelligence Scale (WAIS), 16 PF R. Cattell Questionnaire, Mira-Lopez Miokinesthetic Psychodiagnosis, Barrage Test, Rosenzweig Picture Frustration Study, Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, Lusher Color Test etc (V. Podshyvalkina & N. Zolotova, 2008).

The mathematical comparison of results obtained in 70s and in 90s showed that the main indicators of professional suitability are the level of IQ, attention and emotional stability (Podshyvalkina, 1997). The first monitoring of this personal selection technology was made in the beginning of 90s; the results were used for technology development, then in 2005 the new monitoring system was organized. It was directed to analyze the changes of professional treats during the last 20 years. There are two main problems of modern psychological technologies functioning (e.g. personnel selection technologies), which are the adult's ontogenesis development and generational changes or phylogenies development. In respect to practitioner psychologist this can be transformed to the question of validity of psychological technologies during several decades.

Thus, practitioner psychologists, who introduce psychological technologies, need the results of scientific researches, which help them to answer two questions: in which way human potential changes during life and how social and technological changes determine the human potential's development? The intergeneration differences of attention characteristics were analyzed in two ways: (1) between three age adults groups and (2) between generations of employees of the beginning of 80s and the present days. The hypothesis of study implied that under the influence of different factors there is a strong tendency to change some personal parameters as it is in the sample of applicants, who passed procedures of personal selection. The author analyzed the individual results of testing of the personnel in 1981–1983 and 2000–2003. In total – 105 individual results, 55 and 50 have been taken accordingly. It is necessary to note, that in this sample we have two groups, in which the practitioners with the high and special education were equally represented. The sample of 2000–2003 is presented by the senior century subgroup: during the last years the youth seldom selects this kind of activity.

The mathematical-statistical procedures allow carrying out the comparative procedures, despite of some differences of these samples (Table 1).

TABLE 1. THE CHARACTERISTIC OF SAMPLE SURVEYED ON AGE AND FORMATION

Samples	Education		Age groups		
	High	Special	21–29	30–39	40–61
1982–1983	29	26	22	18	15
	52,7%	47,3%	40,0%	32,7%	27,3%
2000–2003	27	23	15	15	20
	54,0%	46,0%	30,0%	30,0%	40,0%

The analysis of the results of testing is given in two samples (Table 1). On the basis of the dispersion analysis (ANOVA) it was revealed the improvement of some parameters of personnel selection. In our case the monitoring strategy was used because we analyzed two selective groups of applicants who took part in the selection technology (testing results in 1982–1983 and 2000–2003) and the choice of the estimates lay in the personal selection technology.

GENERATIONAL DIFFERENCES IN ATTENTION PROPERTIES

It was found the significant growth of some parameters of attention: the stability of attention in normal conditions ($F=14,461$ $p < 0,01$) and in conditions of handi-

caps ($F=12,846$, $p<0,01$), the distribution of attention in conditions of handicaps ($F=6,498$ $pr <0,05$) and the concentration of attention in the subtest 'Digit Symbols' of the Wechsler adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS) ($F=4,3456$ $p <0,05$). During the last years these parameters in three age groups have improved (Table 2).

TABLE 2. THE PARAMETERS OF ATTENTION IN TWO SAMPLES

Age groups	Sample	Attention stability (Test de Bar- rage)	Attention stability in conditions of handicaps (Test de Bar- rage)	Attention distribution in conditions of handicaps (Test de Bar- rage)	Concentra- tion of atten- tion (Digit Sym- bols scale of WAIS)
21–29	1982–1983	0,9487	0,9561	440,071	54,45
	2000–2003	0,9724	0,9733	507,874	60,27
30–39	1982–1983	0,9512	0,9504	472,438	55,72
	2000–2003	0,9782	0,9796	523,414	60,53
40–61	1982–1983	0,9307	0,9249	391,821	45,79
	2000–2003	0,9691	0,9669	454,249	51,85
Total	1982–1983	0,9446	0,9458	437,505	52,63
	2000–2003	0,9728	0,9727	491,086	56,98

The highest average indices of attention characteristics (the stability of attention in normal conditions and in conditions of handicaps; the distribution of attention in conditions of handicaps; the concentration of attention) have recruits after 30, the lowest have recruits after 40. Average indices of attention characteristics (the stability of attention in normal conditions and in conditions of handicaps, the distribution of attention in conditions of handicaps) recruits aged 40 to 60 from second sample (2000–2003) after 20 years exceed the same parameters of recruits aged 21 to 29 from first sample (1982–1983)

Thus, the first conclusion – the main attention characteristics change during human life. Second conclusion – this tendency preserves since 80s. Third conclusion – significant divergences between samples on main attention characteristics reveal generational differences. Fourth conclusion – the significant growth of modern aging people's attention indexes testify the tendency of adult's phylogenesis development (Podshyvalkina, 2007). Fifth conclusion – the parameters changes of psychological tests reflect the population changes.

The improvement of the parameters of attention can be explained by the improvement of work of personnel selection departments that began to cooperate with the psychologists who tries to carry out the controlling work. More significant divergences between samples focus not only on the intellectual and emotional characteristics, but on the attention, so the hypothesis as to the presence of

the changes between generations at the level of attention of those who is professionally defined to this work is corroborated. The special value has the increase of the role of information and computer technologies in human life which gives the possibility to speak about the formation of a so-called information society .

CONCLUSION

How does the change of the technologies influence the development of a person and is there any necessity to study generation changes in the parameters of the psychological development of a person? This question is difficult for traditional experimental strategy, that is why it is necessary to develop a new research strategy, including monitoring.

When the psychology was guided by classical scientific principles the most adequate results of a research experiment created in a scientific laboratory were extended to practice. But in the end of 20th century the modern methodology supply full of artificial and natural conditions became the part of psychological reality. It means that the psychological practice appeared to be a new source for the collection and the analysis of the information for productive development of psychological science (Drenth, 2008). It defines the necessity of the creation of new forms of cooperation of science and practice and the necessity of the formation of cultural reflections, readiness for the accumulation and analysis of practical results. The technologies which are developed and introduced into practice during the last decades can provide us the results which are useful for the development of modern psychology. Thus, monitoring procedures which are connected with the control of introduction of psychological technologies can influence the development of science. Moreover, these results are checked up by practice and they can increase the trust of the society to psychology.

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AN APPROACH FOR COMPUTERIZED DATA PROCESSING OF ROSENZWEIG PICTURE FRUSTRATION TEST

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Abstract. *The computer program describes 24 situations. The reaction and attitude are characterized with 6 categories and 9 factors. Each of the factors has a set of explanations for possible attitudes towards a frustrated event. One by one the situations are described with short explanation, text, type of the situation and event of frustration. Each situation has a set of possible answers for each factor. The tested subject's answer selects appropriate factors. According the selected factors calculations are done as follows: frequencies of the factors and categories; codes (standards); complex of adaptation; the correspondence between subject's reactions and typical way of reaction; trends. There are no differences between men and women.*

Keywords: *computer program, picture test, data processing.*

INTRODUCTION

The Rosenzweig Picture Frustration (P_F) Study (Rosenzweig S., 1945) grew out of research that begun in the 1930s. The following years the clinical application of the technique advanced far beyond originally expected (Rosenzweig S., 1976).

More than 20 years continues the discussion on the use of computers in assessment (Lichtenberger, 2006, Matarazzo, 1983, Shectman, 1979, Tallent, 1987). The role of computers in psychological assessment has increased in the past years. An approach for computerized assistance in psychological assessment with Rosenzweig Picture Test is proposed. The aim of using the computer program is to perform a quick and errorless data processing of responses on Rosenzweig Picture

test. A computer program for entering type of each response on each test picture and for calculation of different factors, categories, tendencies and models is presented. Its development includes user friendly graphical interface, object-oriented programming language JAVA and model driven development (model driven architecture – MDA) (MDA, 2003).

Graphical User Interface

The user interface allows people to interact with computer programs in more ways than typing. It uses combination of technologies such as visual language and devices for gathering and presenting data. Some elements of the visual language are windows, menus, buttons, check boxes, icons. The aim of the user-centered design is to enhance the efficiency and ease of use for the program.

To reach efficient and easy working with the program two approaches for entering the information for responses on test pictures are developed. The main purpose is making the program easy for entering the data.

Тест

Ситуация 1

E_Непримилване с фрустриращото събитие при ситуации без укор
 I_Интроемотивизирано себеоправдание
 F_Непримилване с фрустриращото събитие при ситуации с укор
 M_Оправдание / приемилване с фрустриращото лице
 M_Примилване с фрустриращото събитие при ситуации без укор
 a_Изискване активност от фрустриращото или друго лице
 E_Появо или косвено изразено отрицателно отношение към фрустратор.
 F_Лична активност на фрустрирания - явно или като намерение
 E_Екстрамотивизирано себеоправдание
 m_Пасивност на фрустрирания
 I_Себеоправдание
 H_Непречени отговори

Следваща ситуация Резултати Изход

FIGURE 1.A. FORM FOR REGISTRATION THE RESPONSES – WITH CHOICE-BOX

Тест

Ситуация 0

Отношение към фрустриращото събитие
Е' Непримиляване с фрустриращото събитие при ситуации без укор

- 1. Неадресирано недоволство или друго неприятно чувство в момента.**
- 2. Неадресирано недоволство от последствията.**
- 3. Просто потвърждение или наблягане върху фрустриращото събитие.**
- 4. Просто или конкретизирано съжаление, огорчение.**

FIGURE 1.B. FORM FOR REGISTRATION THE RESPONSES WITH HELP

For each picture situation on the window are shown 12 signatures for different kinds of attitude towards the situation (Fig1.a). The psychologist has to choose two of these signatures for each picture according the subject's response. A mouse click over the choice-box will show short help for the signature.

For each picture situation on the windows are shown consecutively one by one 12 signatures for different kinds of attitude towards the situation (Fig1.b). Each signature includes short explanation. The psychologist has to choose whether or not the signature corresponds to subject's response.

Data Processing

The entered information for subjects' responses is processed and the results are printed in the report. The codes for different factors, their combinations and categories are shown graphically.

The program prints to which of the 11 possible factors corresponds each subject's response. For 6 possible categories are calculated absolute values, corresponding codes and percentages. For 9 factors are calculated absolute values and codes. Different combinations of factors of adaptation complex are printed with their absolute values and codes. Five possible tendencies for factors and categories are calculated. Five models for categories and factors are presented with signs of the corresponding significant factors or categories and their codes.

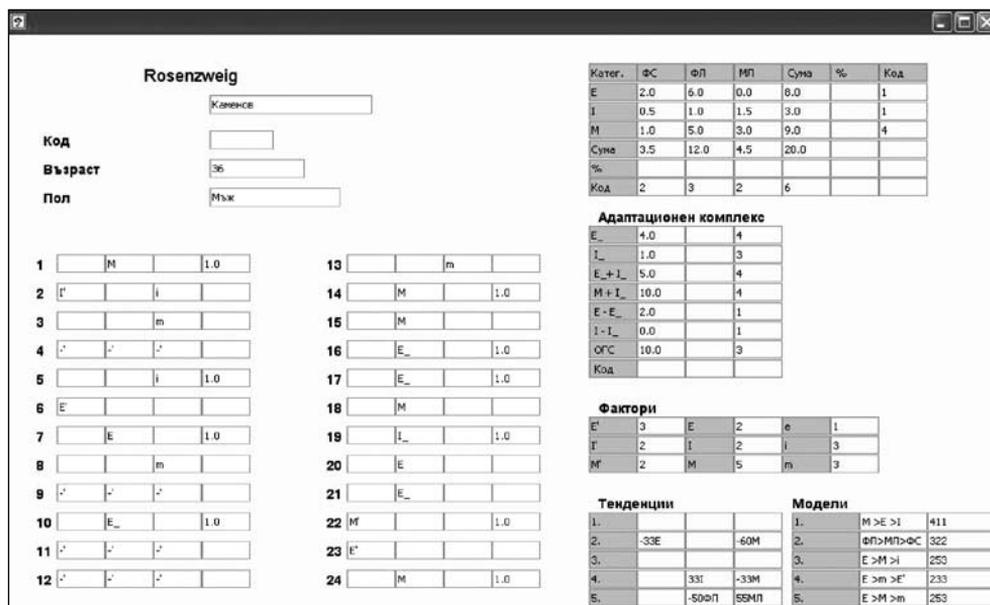


FIGURE 2. CALCULATED RESULTS FOR THE TEST

Design of the computer program

The model driven approach is applied for design of a computer program for Rosenzweig Picture Test data processing.

The requirements of the program are described graphically using UML diagrams. Three different types of models are created in the software development process: one for the functional specifications (CIM), one for high level details of the platform (PIM), one for the target platform (PSM). This way any change of the target technology or platform does not break the CIM and PIM models. The Platform Specific Model (PSM) presents an implementation on any platform. The model of implementation has maximum correspondence between model elements and implementation software code.

The PSM for developed program is shown on Fig. 4. The model corresponds to the developed Java application. The Java language uses interfaces for multiple inheritances. The application has few windows (frames) which are shown in the order as follows: frame for input of person's data (InputPersonsDataFrame), frame for input of data for situations (InputSituationFrame), execution functions for data processing, showing frame with results (ResultsFrame) and finally showing frame with graphics (GraphicsFrame). Some of the windows send or receive data from TestRosenzweig. The InputSituationFrame saves data in TestRosenzweig. The

ResultsFrame and dataProcessing uses data and functions from testRosenzweig. In the TestRosenzweig are defined different functions for calculation of abstract values and codes for factors and categories, as well as functions for calculation transformations and models.

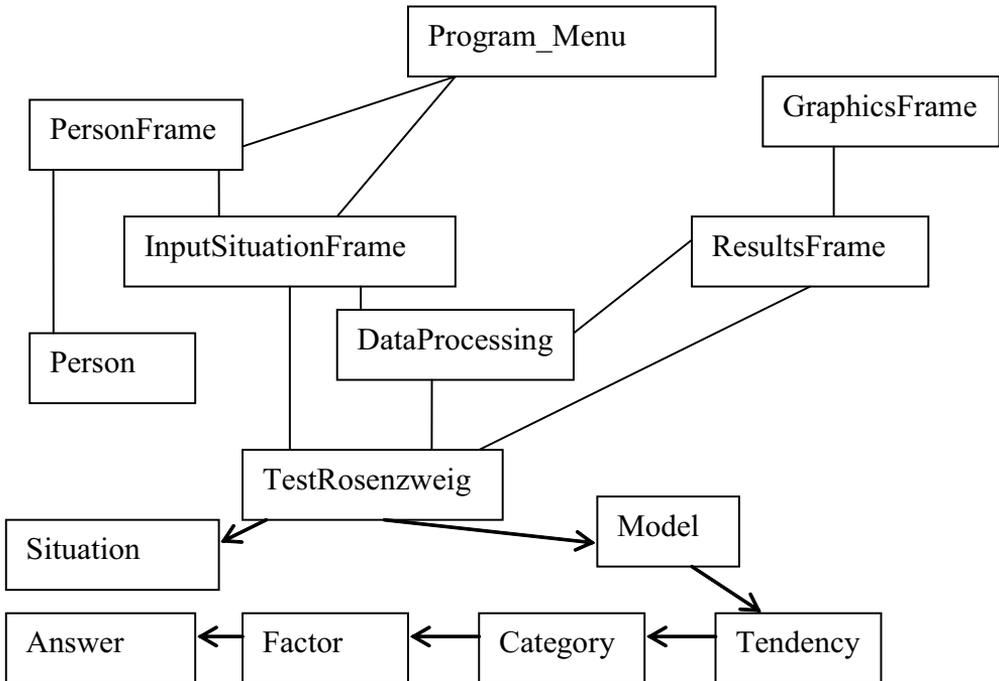


FIGURE 3. PSM FOR JAVA PLATFORM

CONCLUSION

An approach for computerised data processing of responses on Rosenzweig test is proposed. User friendly graphical interface provides two different ways of entering information for subjects' responses. Results are shown as report with values and codes for factors, categories, transformations and models. Model driven approach is applied for development of the software. The separation of the technical and domain aspects of modeling improves the clarity and reuse opportunities of the design procedure. The future work will be connected with optimisation of the process of registering subject's responses and connection with database. More examples for assisting the response classification will be included.

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VALIDATION OF A TEST MEASURING THE EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

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***Abstract.** The paper presents the correlations between the results on Schutte et al.'s test measuring EQ and the results on several tests measuring emotional intelligence, empathy, need for achievements, optimism, aggression, professional interests in Bulgaria. The respondents were mainly students.*

***Keywords:** emotional intelligence, validity*

INTRODUCTION

History of the concept “emotional intelligence”

Thorndike (1920) proposed the concept of social intelligence as the ability to understand and manage people and to act wisely in human relations (cf Cichy, Cha & Kim, 2007). Albreht (2006) defined social intelligence as the ability to get along well with others, sensitivity towards the others' needs and interests, respect to the others.

Gardner (1983, 1999) introduced the concept of multiple intelligence including intrapersonal intelligence and interpersonal intelligence.

The term emotional intelligence was suggested in 1966 by B. Leuner (cf Maree, Elias & Bar-On, 2007) or by Salovey and Mayer in 1990 (cf Goleman, 1995). Bar-On (1997) defines EI as addressing the emotional, personal, social, and survival dimensions of intelligence. Emotional intelligence is concerned with understanding oneself and others, relating to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003).

The intelligence could be primarily expressed by social-emotional competence and cognitive competence (Grigorenko et al, 2001).

Components of the emotional intelligence

- ♣ *emotional self-awareness or knowing one's emotions*, according to Bar-On (1997) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003), Goleman (1996) (cf. Hughes, 2005), Sherlock (2002), Maree & Eiselen (2004), George (2000);
- ♣ *perception of emotions*, according to Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso (2002) (cf Lopes et al, 2004; cf Emmerling and Cherniss, 2003), Petrides and Furnham (2000) (cf Schutte et al, 2002);
- ♣ *understanding one's and others' emotions*, according to Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso (2002) (cf Lopes et al, 2004; cf Emmerling and Cherniss, 2003; cf Goleman, 1995; cf Schutte et al, 1998), Maree & Eiselen (2004), Maree, Elias & Bar-On (2007), Barchard & Hakstian (2004), Schutte et al. (2002);
- ♣ *empathy*, according to Bar-On (1997) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003), Goleman (1995), Maree & Eiselen (2004), Salovey and Mayer's (1990) (cf Goleman, 1995; cf Schutte et al, 1998; cf Tett, Fox & Wang, 2005). Indeed, the empathy and the social skills for co-habitation are a component of the human morality (Ganeva, 2009);
- ♣ *recognizing emotions in others*, according to Goleman (1995), Hughes (2005);
- ♣ *appraisal of emotions*, according to Petrides and Furnham (2000) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003), George (2000);
- ♣ *using emotions to facilitate divergent thinking and decision making*, according to Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso (2002) (cf Lopes et al, 2004; cf Emmerling and Cherniss, 2003), Petrides and Furnham (2000) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003; cf Schutte et al, 2002), George (2000), Salovey and Mayer's (1990) (cf Tett, Fox & Wang, 2005);
- ♣ *problem solving*, according to Bar-On (1997) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003; cf Maree, Elias & Bar-On, 2007);
- ♣ *expressing feelings and emotions*, according to Maree, Elias & Bar-On (2007), George (2000);
- ♣ *emotional congruence – the similarity between the perceived affective quality of a stimulus for the subject and the perceived affective quality of the stimulus for most other people*, according to Barchard & Hakstian (2004);
- ♣ *managing emotions in the self and managing others' emotions (social skills), regulating emotions, control of emotions, self-regulation in order to enhance personal growth*, according to Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso (2002) (cf Lopes et al, 2004; cf Emmerling and Cherniss, 2003), George (2000), Goleman (1995), Maree, Elias & Bar-On (2007), Barchard & Hakstian (2004), Petrides and Furnham (2000) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003), Young (1996)

- (cf Maree & Eiselen, 2004), Salovey and Mayer's (1990) (cf Goleman, 1995; cf Schutte et al, 1998; cf Tett, Fox & Wang, 2005), Sherlock (2002), Schutte et al. (2002);
- ♣ *relationship skills or handling relationships*, according to Bar-On (1997) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003), Goleman (1995), Hughes (2005), Maree & Eiselen (2004), Salovey and Mayer's (1990) (cf Goleman, 1995; cf Schutte et al, 1998);
 - ♣ *social responsibility*, according to Bar-On (1997) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003);
 - ♣ *interpersonal*, according to Bar-On (1997, 2005) and Salovey and Mayer (1990) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003; cf Maree & Eiselen, 2004; cf Cichy, Cha & Kim, 2007), Goleman (1995) or *social perceptiveness – understanding of interpersonal relations and the relationship between emotions and behaviors in various situations*, according to Barchard & Hakstian (2004);
 - ♣ *intrapersonal*, according to Bar-On (1997, 2005) and Salovey and Mayer (1990) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003; cf Maree & Eiselen, 2004; cf Cichy, Cha & Kim, 2007), Goleman (1995) or *self-understanding*, according to Sherlock (2002);
 - ♣ *social competence*, according to Barchard & Hakstian, 2004, differing from the cognitive competence (Ganeva, 2009);
 - ♣ *adaptability*, according to Bar-On (1997, 2005) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003; cf Cichy, Cha & Kim, 2007);
 - ♣ *reality testing*, according to Bar-On (1997) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003);
 - ♣ *assertiveness*, according to Bar-On (1997) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003);
 - ♣ *independence*, according to Bar-On (1997) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003), Barchard & Hakstian (2004);
 - ♣ *self-regard*, according to Bar-On (1997) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003);
 - ♣ *self-actualization*, according to Bar-On (1997) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003);
 - ♣ *self-efficacy*, according to Young (1996) (cf Maree & Eiselen, 2004);
 - ♣ *self-confidence*, according to Goleman (1995), Barchard & Hakstian (2004);
 - ♣ *high self-esteem*, according to Schutte et al. (2002);
 - ♣ *general mood happiness, emotional well-being, positive mood*, according to Bar-On (1997) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003; cf Maree, Elias & Bar-On, 2007), Cichy, Cha & Kim (2007), Schutte et al. (2002);
 - ♣ *mood regulation*, according to Petrides and Furnham (2000) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003), Goleman (1995);
 - ♣ *mood redirected attention – interpreting negative emotions in a positive light*, according to Salovey and Mayer's (1990) (cf Tett, Fox & Wang, 2005);

- ♣ *stress management*, according to Bar-On (1997, 2005) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003; cf Cichy, Cha & Kim, 2007);
- ♣ *stress tolerance*, according to Bar-On (1997) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003)
- ♣ *frustration tolerance*, according to Goleman (1995);
- ♣ *persistence in the face of frustrations or perseverance*, according to Goleman (1995), Salovey and Mayer's (1990) (cf Tett, Fox & Wang, 2005);
- ♣ *self-motivation*, according to Goleman (1995), Young (1996) (cf Maree & Eiselen, 2004), Salovey and Mayer's (1990) (cf Goleman, 1995; cf Schutte et al, 1998; cf Tett, Fox & Wang, 2005), Maree, Elias & Bar-On (2007);
- ♣ *flexibility or flexible planning – using emotions in the pursuit of life goals*, according to Bar-On (1997) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003), Salovey and Mayer's (1990) (cf Tett, Fox & Wang, 2005);
- ♣ *impulse control*, according to Bar-On (1997) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003), *and delay gratification*, according to Goleman (1995);
- ♣ *optimism*, according to Bar-On (1997), Petrides and Furnham (2000) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003), Salovey and Mayer's (1990) (cf Tett, Fox & Wang, 2005), Goleman (1995);
- ♣ *hope*, according to Goleman (1995);
- ♣ *enthousiasme*, according to Goleman (1995).

Mental ability model of Emotional intelligence

The EI is seen as comprising aspects of personality and abilities to perceive, to understand and manage emotions (Clarke, 2006, Brackett & Mayer, 2003). The “ability-model” is associated with Salovey and Mayer (cf Weinberger, 2002; cf Maree & Eiselen, 2004; cf Lopes et al, 2004, cf Cichy, Cha & Kim, 2007, cf Clarke, 2006), Schutte et al. (2002), Schutte et al. (1998), George (2000), Bar-On (1997) (cf Cichy, Cha & Kim, 2007), Maree, Elias & Bar-On (2007), Barchard & Hakstian (2004), Goleman (1995).

Personal trait model of emotional intelligence

The trait-EI is multidimensional. The trait-EI can be summarized in terms of three relatively broad dimensions—Self Orientation, Other Orientation, and Emotional Sharing—each composed of more facets (Tett, Fox & Wang, 2005). The personality traits as a part of the EI are for example assertiveness, motivation, optimism, self-esteem, empathy, etc. (Barchard & Hakstian, 2004; Goleman, 1998 (cf Clarke, 2006).

Mixed model of emotional intelligence

The Bar-On model of emotional intelligence defines the EI in terms of personal and interpersonal behavior (cf Maree, Elias & Bar-On, 2007). The mixed model of EI suggest that EI combines diverse traits and interpersonal behavior – for example common sense, wellbeing, persistence, motivation, optimism, self-esteem,

good interpersonal skills (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). The mixed model is commonly associated with Goleman (cf Weinberger, 2002), with Bar-On (1997) (cf Clarke, 2006), Dulewicz & Higgs (2000) (cf Clarke, 2006).

METHODOLOGY

Tests for measuring the emotional intelligence

There are a variety of tests to assess the emotional intelligence – the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002), the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) (Bar-On, 1997), and Schutte et al.'s (1998) self-report EI test (SREIT) (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003). There are a variety of tests to assess the components of the emotional intelligence – empathy, optimism, etc. (Gituni, 2003; Goleman, 2000; Orme, 2003; Bernet, 1996; Schutte et al., 1998).

The SREIT is a brief self-report measure of EI that was developed by Schutte et al. (1998) for people graduated at least five class in the schools. These authors wrote a pool of 62 self-report items that were primarily based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) early model of EI. Factor analysis of the initial 62 items resulted in the single-factor, 33-item SREIT. Petrides and Furnham (2000) claim that the scale is not unidimensional. Their exploratory factor analysis divided the 33 items of SREIT into four factors (optimism and mood regulation or managing emotions in the self, appraisal of emotions or perception of emotions; social skills or managing others' emotions; and utilization of emotions). Petrides and Furnham have not provided data on the reliability or validity of these subscales (cf Brackett & Mayer, 2003; cf Schutte et al., 2002).

Based on a factor analysis which suggested a strong first factor encompassing all branches of the Salovey and Mayer (1990) emotional intelligence model (13 items for appraisal and expression of emotions, 10 items for regulation of emotions, 10 items for using of emotions), Schutte et al. (1998) recommended using total scores on the 33-item scale and not using subscale scores.

The participants respond to 33 self-report items using a 5-point scale, on which 1 represents strongly disagree and 5 represents strongly agree. Scale scores can range from 33 to 165 (Schutte et al., 2002).

The reliability of the scale in Brackett's & Mayer study (2003) was high ($\alpha = .93$) (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). Schutte et al. (1998) reported internal consistency of .90 and two week test-retest reliability of .78.

Validation studies showed that scores on the 33-item measure (a) correlated with eight of nine theoretically related constructs, including alexithymia, attention to feelings, clarity of feelings, mood repair, optimism and impulse control; (b) predicted first-year college grades; (c) were significantly higher for therapists than for therapy clients or for prisoners; (d) were significantly higher for females than

males, consistent with prior findings in studies of emotional skills; (e) were not related to cognitive ability and (f) were associated with the openness to experience trait of the big five personality dimensions (Schutte et al, 1998).

This test was translated into Bulgarian in 2006 from a group of psychologists and a philologist.

Sample and approbation of the test in 2006/2007

The study was carried out from 2006 to 2009. An approbation of the method was carried out in 2006/2007 with a sample of 381 students from 18 to 28 years old (Stoyanova, 2008b). The factor analysis extracted three factors whose reliability was high enough (Cronbach' alpha above 0.6) in order to be interpreted – the factors were named “Motivation for the overcoming of the difficulties” (items 3, 1, 2, 31 and 23), “Sharing of the positive emotions and optimism” (items 11, 30, 24, 14 and 10), “Identification of emotions and empathy” (items 32, 18, 4 and 29). The total score also deserved to be measured, because the Cronbach' alpha of the whole test was 0.8499. The test-retest reliability computed on the basis of the results of 11 respondents was above 0.7 for the whole test, the first and the second factor.

Sample and testing in 2007/2009

From 2007 to 2009, more respondents answered to the questions of the test. The total number of respondents was 724. Most of them were students from Bachelor and Master degree of education and a small part of them were secondary school students (N=30). The males were 193 (26.7%), the females were 520 (71.8%) and 11 respondents (1.5%) did not indicate their gender. 465 out of the respondents (64.2%) were from 16 to 40 years old (172 respondents were from 16 to 20 years old; 274 respondents were from 21 to 25 years old; 19 respondents were from 26 to 40 years old). 259 out of the respondents (35.8%) did not indicate their age.

Several parts of this sample also filled in several other tests in order to be computed the correlations between the emotional intelligence and its similar constructs. The tests used for proving the validity of Shutte's and al. SREIT were: Paspalanov and Shtetinski's (1985) scale for need of achievements with subscales persistency, time organization, over-situative orientation, emotional manifestation of the attitude towards the task, business/pragmatic orientation, and orientation towards a high standard in the execution; Boyle's test based on the Holland's occupational inventory – brief form, adapted in Bulgaria by Vasilev and Merdzhanova (2003); French psychiatrist Andre's test measuring the emotional intelligence, adapted in Bulgaria by Algafari (2006); Buss and Durkee's test measuring aggression with subscales, adapted in Bulgaria by Karagiozov (1996); Radoslavova and Velichkov's (2005) test measuring optimism and negative expectancies; Mehrabian's and Epstein questionnaire measuring empathy, adapted in Bulgaria by Stoyanova (2008a).

RESULTS

Item analysis

The skewness and the kurtosis indexes of all items were in the range from -2 to $+2$. All items had a good discriminative power, indicated by means of Mann-Whitney U.

Factor Analysis and reliability

The increased number of the sample during the period 2006–2009 resulted in the extraction of more important factors and the re-distribution of the items in the factors. The Principal components method with Varimax rotation was used. $KMO=0.911$ and $Sig_{\text{Bartlett's Test of Sphericity}}=0.000$ indicated the adequacy of the factor model. 8 factors were extracted and each of them explained less than 10% out of the variance of the variables in the test. All extracted factors explained totally 50.693% out of the variance of the variables in the test.

The first extracted factor included the items 24 (I compliment others when they have done something well), 11 (I like to share my emotions with others), 30 (I help other people feel better when they are down), 8 (Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living), 14 (I seek out activities that make me happy) and 26 (When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself). Cronbach $\alpha=0.7551$. This factor could be named “Sharing of emotions and empathy”. It explained 9.349% out of the variance of the variables.

The second extracted factor included the items 3 (I expect that I will do well on most things I try), 2 (When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them), 1 (I know when to speak about my personal problems to others), 23 (I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on), 31 (I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles), 10 (I expect good things to happen), 17 (When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me), 6 (Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important). Cronbach $\alpha=0.7509$. This factor could be named “Motivation for the overcoming of difficulties and optimism”. It explained 9.227% out of the variance of the variables.

The third extracted factor included the items 25 (I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send), 15 (I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others), 5*(reversed score; I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people), 33*(reversed score; It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do*), 18 (By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing). Cronbach $\alpha=0.7444$. This factor could be named “Recognizing of other people’s non-verbal expression of emotions”. It explained 6.275% out of the variance of the variables.

The fourth extracted factor included the items 19 (I know why my emotions change), 22 (I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them), 9 (I am aware of my emotions as I experience them), 21 (I have control over my emotions). Cronbach $\alpha=0.6055$. This factor could be named “Recognition of own emotions and self-control”. It explained 6.213% out of the variance of the variables.

The reliability of the score on the whole test is Cronbach $\alpha=0.7263$.

TABLE 1 FACTOR WEIGHTS OF THE VARIABLES AFTER THE ROTATION OF THE FACTOR AXES

items	Factors							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
V24	.611	.219	2.638E-02	.109	.120	3.758E-02	3.820E-02	-.190
V11	.604	8.186E-02	5.620E-02	-3.526E-02	-5.813E-03	.239	.198	.219
V30	.568	.287	7.121E-02	.192	3.576E-02	.292	-1.252E-02	-.179
V8	.568	.102	5.708E-02	.247	.115	-1.099E-02	2.384E-02	7.584E-02
V14	.556	.321	.172	8.385E-02	4.334E-02	-.197	.184	-1.505E-02
V26	.487	-1.673E-02	2.208E-03	-.207	.372	.331	.111	.105
V3	.189	.632	1.343E-02	8.276E-02	4.941E-02	.119	.126	1.565E-02
V2	4.707E-02	.610	-1.109E-02	5.587E-02	.224	.160	-3.526E-02	3.458E-02
V1	4.694E-02	.591	.125	.140	-.109	.306	.118	7.738E-02
V23	.304	.513	.123	.223	1.880E-03	-3.014E-02	.109	-2.921E-02
V31	.412	.499	-1.879E-02	.169	.259	1.127E-02	5.713E-02	-6.201E-02
V10	.206	.482	.150	1.773E-02	-7.818E-02	-2.786E-02	.397	-3.777E-02
V17	.334	.419	.123	5.581E-02	.305	-7.871E-02	-.124	.271
V6	.388	.397	.105	.171	.226	.132	-.209	-.134
V25	4.056E-02	.105	.703	8.010E-02	.150	.114	.123	3.987E-02
V15	7.994E-02	.142	.667	.105	.109	-1.343E-02	9.471E-02	.152
V5	-6.056E-02	4.625E-02	-.614	-6.197E-02	9.674E-02	-4.995E-02	-1.602E-02	.197

V33	-4.486E-02	-3.670E-02	-.422	1.865E-02	-1.476E-02	-.259	-1.966E-02	.400
V18	.241	.190	.387	.254	.290	.306	-.174	5.416E-02
V19	.114	.115	.176	.659	.198	-1.951E-02	-1.355E-02	-7.734E-02
V22	.186	.154	.130	.656	6.479E-02	.190	.131	-1.796E-02
V9	.380	1.922E-02	8.052E-02	.514	4.012E-02	8.930E-02	.112	.199
V21	-8.690E-02	.226	-9.218E-02	.502	8.487E-02	3.817E-02	.374	-4.311E-02
V27	.238	5.652E-03	.148	8.756E-02	.666	-7.461E-02	.192	8.796E-02
V7	3.746E-02	7.490E-02	-4.577E-02	.139	.656	.102	6.205E-02	6.432E-02
V20	.331	.330	.136	.234	.431	-.160	1.166E-02	-.171
V4	.146	.201	.110	.118	-5.008E-02	.621	.208	-5.162E-02
V32	-3.900E-02	.124	.222	8.283E-02	.445	.460	4.618E-02	-9.760E-02
V29	.239	.223	.274	.280	.277	.412	-.166	-1.240E-02
V13	.102	2.105E-02	.129	2.122E-02	.167	9.905E-02	.666	-9.999E-03
V12	.123	.174	4.706E-02	.308	6.460E-02	6.552E-02	.608	1.427E-02
V16	2.044E-02	.133	5.508E-02	-3.825E-02	4.949E-02	-6.816E-02	5.781E-02	.716
V28	-4.846E-02	-.411	-.201	6.568E-02	7.129E-02	.209	-.187	.553

NORMS

TABLE 2. MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE TOTAL SCORE OF THE TEST SREIT AND ITS SCALES

	Total score	Sharing of emotions and empathy	Motivation for the overcoming of difficulties and optimism	Recognizing of other people's non-verbal expression of emotions	Recognition of own emotions and self-control
Mean	124,5152	24,7141	32,8785	17,9171	14,8881
Std. Deviation	15,5583	4,1676	5,5688	3,5347	3,2711

Validity

There were some significant correlations between the emotional intelligence and its components Sharing of emotions and empathy ($r=0.784$; $p=0.000$; $N=724$), Motivation for the overcoming of difficulties and optimism ($r=0.828$; $p=0.000$; $N=724$), Recognizing of other people's non-verbal expression of emotions ($r=0.439$; $p=0.000$; $N=724$), and Recognition of own emotions and self-control ($r=0.69$; $p=0.000$; $N=724$). There were some significant correlations between the Recognizing of other people's non-verbal expression of emotions and Recognition of own emotions and self-control ($r=0.327$; $p=0.000$; $N=724$). There were some significant correlations between the Sharing of emotions and empathy and the other components of the EI – Motivation for the overcoming of difficulties and optimism ($r=0.616$; $p=0.000$; $N=724$), Recognizing of other people's non-verbal expression of emotions ($r=0.33$; $p=0.000$; $N=724$), and Recognition of own emotions and self-control ($r=0.413$; $p=0.000$; $N=724$). There were some significant correlations between the Motivation for the overcoming of difficulties and optimism and the other components of the EI – Recognizing of other people's non-verbal expression of emotions ($r=0.358$; $p=0.000$; $N=724$), and Recognition of own emotions and self-control ($r=0.476$; $p=0.000$; $N=724$).

There were some significant correlations between the emotional intelligence measured by means of the Shutte's and al. test and optimism ($r=0.585$; $p=0.000$; $N=41$), empathy ($r=0.452$; $p=0.003$; $N=41$), and the emotional intelligence measured by means of the Andre's test (cf Alqafari, 2006) ($r=0.364$; $p=0.000$; $N=258$).

There were some significant correlations between the Sharing of emotions and empathy measured by means of the Shutte's and optimism ($r=0.508$; $p=0.001$; $N=41$), empathy ($r=0.641$; $p=0.000$; $N=41$), persistency as a component of the need for achievements ($r= -0.384$; $p=0.036$; $N=30$), and the emotional intelligence measured by means of Andre's test ($r=0.197$; $p=0.001$; $N=258$).

There were some significant correlations between the Motivation for the overcoming of difficulties and optimism measured by means of the Shutte's and al. test and optimism ($r=0.703$; $p=0.000$; $N=41$), empathy ($r=0.468$; $p=0.002$; $N=41$), and the emotional intelligence measured by means of Andre's test ($r=0.431$; $p=0.000$; $N=258$).

There were some significant correlations between the Recognizing of other people's non-verbal expression of emotions measured by means of the Shutte's and al. test and optimism ($r=0.421$; $p=0.006$; $N=41$), empathy ($r=0.475$; $p=0.002$; $N=41$), and the emotional intelligence measured by means of Andre's test ($r=0.152$; $p=0.014$; $N=258$).

There were some significant correlations between the Recognition of own emotions and self-control measured by means of the Shutte's and al. test and optimism ($r=0.315$; $p=0.045$; $N=41$), and the emotional intelligence measured by means of Andre's test ($r=0.294$; $p=0.000$; $N=258$).

The highest emotional intelligence was related more to the conventional (M=141; SD=8; N=30), artistic (M=138; SD=9; N=35) and enterprising (M=137; SD=6; N=33) professional interests than to the social (M=130; SD=8; N=38) and realistic (M=100; SD=4; N=31) professional interests ($F_{[4, 166]}=5.558$; $p=0.008$).

The highest Recognizing of other people's non-verbal expression of emotions was related more to the conventional (M=25; SD=3; N=30), enterprising (M=22.3; SD=2; N=33) and artistic (M=21.8; SD=4; N=35) professional interests than to the social (M=18.9; SD=2; N=38) and realistic (M=12; SD=3; N=31) professional interests ($F_{[4, 166]}=3.653$; $p=0.033$).

Any significant correlations were not found between the emotional intelligence and its four components on the one hand, and the different kinds of aggression (verbal, physical, indirect aggression, oppositional behaviour, aggressive irritability, aggressive mistrust, jealousy and hate, and guilt after aggression; N=30) in Bulgaria.

DISCUSSION

The adaptation of the SREIT in Bulgaria resulted in the possibility the total score on SPREIT to be used, as well as the scores on its four components – Sharing of emotions and empathy, Motivation for the overcoming of difficulties and optimism, Recognizing of other people's non-verbal expression of emotions, and Recognition of own emotions and self-control.

The validity of the test was proven (except for the predictive validity that was not studied), because there were found several positive significant correlations between *the emotional intelligence measured by means of Shutte's and al. test SREIT* and *optimism*, and *the emotional intelligence measured by means of Andre's test* (due also to the significant positive correlations between all four scales of SREIT and the scores on optimism, and the emotional intelligence measured by means of Andre's test). There were found also some positive significant correlations between *the emotional intelligence measured by means of Shutte's and al. test SREIT* and *empathy* (due also to the significant positive correlations between the scales "Sharing of emotions and empathy", "Motivation for the overcoming of difficulties and optimism", "Recognizing of other people's non-verbal expression of emotions" on the one hand and the scores on empathy on the other hand).

The highest emotional intelligence measured by means of Shutte's and al. test SREIT was related to the conventional, artistic and enterprising professional interests (due also to the relation between the Recognizing of other people's non-verbal expression of emotions and the conventional, enterprising and artistic professional interests).

There were found also some significant correlations between some components of the emotional intelligence and some constructs that did not correlate

significantly with the total score on the emotional intelligence. The persistency as a component of the need of achievements expresses the consistency and insistence in the activity, tenacity in pursuing goals and a tendency to complete the started activities (Paspalanov and Shtetinski, 1985). That is why, it seems surprisingly that the persistency did not correlate significantly with the “Motivation for the overcoming of difficulties and optimism”, but it correlated negatively with the scale “Sharing of emotions and empathy”. There were some positive correlations between the scales “Motivation for the overcoming of difficulties and optimism”, “Recognizing of other people’s non-verbal expression of emotions” on the one hand and the optimism on the other hand.

Further studies could examine the relationship between the emotional intelligence measured by means of SREIT and the work efficacy, adaptability and life success, namely – the predictive validity of SREIT. The relations between the emotional intelligence and stress, attitudes, learning styles are also important to be measured.

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INITIAL DATA FOR THE STANDARDIZATION OF CHILD BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST FOR AGES 1½–5 YEARS AND CAREGIVER-TEACHER REPORT FORM FOR AGES 1½–5 (ACHENBACH & RESCORLA)

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Abstract. *The present study is a part of the standardization for Bulgaria of Child Behavior Checklist for Ages 1½–5 years/ Language Development Survey (CBCL/ LDS) and Caregiver-Teacher Report Form for Ages 1½–5 (C-TRF), developed by Thomas M. Achenbach and Leslie A. Rescorla. The two forms comprise 99 questions each, divided into 7 (CBCL)/ 6 (C-TRF) empirically derived and 5 DSM IV-oriented scales, concerning the emotional, behavioral and mental health of a child. The forms are designated for parents and for caregivers, in order to examine the child behavior in a home and in a kindergarten setting and acquire a comprehensive impression of his/her development. The main purpose of the present study is to collect primary data about the reliability and cross-informant agreement of the scales based on the results of a normative sample from three major cities and four towns and villages in Bulgaria. Analyses revealed that the majority of the CBCL and C-TRF scales are with good internal consistency (Cronbach's α over 0.60). Analyses of the cross-informant agreement show no significant positive correlation for 9 scales and low positive correlation for the remaining 6 scales between the CBCL and C-TRF results, indicating that children exhibit different behaviors in different settings. Gender differences are observed which are consistent with the normative development in the examined age period.*

INTRODUCTION

Within the age period 1 ½ – 5 years the child undergoes dramatic development changes in the areas of mental, emotional and behavioral functioning. Senses develop as the child acquires knowledge about the world around him/herself. Human interactions complicate and the child becomes more independent in his/her natural surroundings. This is the age, when the child separates from the mother and obtains autonomy. He/she starts attending kindergarten; communication with adults and peers complicates, as social competence develops; knowledge about the world expands, and new abilities are acquired. Speech, memory, and imagination develop and the child's personality takes shape.

These qualitative changes happen harshly over short periods of time and are accompanied by behavior changes. The transformations in the child often present the question whether a particular behavior is typical for the age period, whether it is a short-term reaction of stress caused by the developmental change or whether it is symptomatic of a more serious problem. The first two possibilities point on transitional conditions and with an adequate intervention from parents and caregivers could pass quickly; the third one requires a clinical intervention (Susan Campbell, 1995).

Detection of emotional and behavioral disorders in early childhood is critical for minimizing the negative impact on development. Nevertheless the diagnostic process is highly impeded by the nature of the changes in this age period. Even the classification of mental disorders in early childhood is difficult and ambiguous. Some of the critical DSM-IV's criteria are connected with verbal skills or behavior in a structured setting, typical for education institutions. Duration criteria of the symptoms are also not applicable for early childhood. At this age development is rapid and dynamic and occurs in shorter terms. Moreover different periods of development and their characteristics, lead to different manifestations of disorders, and therefore different symptoms (Ammerman, 2006). If symptoms for a given disorder are defined for children at school age they are often inappropriate for preschool aged children. Lavigne et al. (1996) show that 21% of children in preschool age comply with the diagnosis of at least one disorder as defined in DSM-IV; and 9% can be classified as having a serious mental disorder. These circumstances do not present only a technical problem, but show also the individual differences and variations in the child development over the very short period of 1 ½ – 5 years of age. Behavioral and emotional problems could occur because of the rapid development, which leads to their transitivity. Gender differences in development should also be considered when examining certain behavior problems (Matanova, 2003).

There are several methods of cognitive, emotional and behavioral development examination, namely: 1) observation of the child and his interactions with adults and peers, as well as manipulations with the environment; 2) clinical inter-

view; 3) questionnaires and report for parents, and caregivers; 4) direct examination of the child.

Often the clinician-child interaction and the interview are short and in a confined setting and context, therefore may be insufficient for a thorough examination. Other constrictions are based on the fact that behavior of young children can vary widely upon time, situation, and partners. The effort and desire to cooperate is not always helpful in identifying symptoms. These characteristics demand cooperation between parents, clinicians and caregivers. Valuable information could be extracted from reports of children behavior in the social environment where they grow up and socialize. Questionnaires and parent report forms could give preliminary information to the clinician. It is appropriate to use these forms as a screening rather than as a diagnostic tool, since no diagnosis can rely solely on the results of one test. Still, parent and caregiver reports can be helpful in the identification of particular behavioral, emotional, and/or mental problems and disorders.

The present study presents preliminary results for the standardization of CBCL/ C-TRF (Child Behavior Checklist for Ages 1½–5 years and **Caregiver-Teacher Report Form for Ages 1½–5**), and aims to determine if they are descriptive for the Bulgarian population. Gender differences and cross-informant agreement of CBCL – CTRF results will also be discussed.

METHOD

Subjects:

Parents and care-givers of 203 children (104 girls and 99 boys) participated in the present study.

For CBCL only: 130 children (60 girls and 70 boys); for C-TRF only: 167 children (79 girls, 88 boys); for both tests: 100 children (47 girls and 53 boys). Mean age of girls is 42 months, and of boys – 43 months; for CBCL only – 41 months for girls, and 42 months for boys; for C-TRF only – 45 months for girls and 45 months for boys. Data is collected in kindergartens from the region of Plovdiv, Sofia, and Varna. Both tests were presented to each parent and caregiver with instructions how to fill it in. Subjects were asked about any difficulties they had understanding the questions. Tests with more than 10 unmarked items were not taken into consideration

Material:

In the present study both forms of the screening test are used – one for parents (CBCL form), and one for caregivers and teachers (C-TRF form).

The translation of both forms followed a standard procedure and the final version was approved by the authors – Thomas M. Achenbach and Leslie A. Rescorla.

Both tests have 99 questions divided into several scales in two main categories – empirically derived, and DSM-IV oriented. 82 of the items are identical in both tests, and 17 are aimed to identify specific behaviors, which can only be manifested at home or at the kindergarten respectfully. Both forms require description of behavior, and problems related to the child. A place for additional remarks is left.

Items are divided in 2 types of scales – empirically derived (7 for CBCL, and 6 for C-TRF, where the “Sleep Problems” scale is not included; and an additional scale for items not added to other scales), and DSM-IV oriented scales (5 for both forms).

Empirically derived scales are divided as follows: Internalizing problems: Emotionally Reactive, Anxious/Depressed, Somatic Complaints, Withdrawn; Externalizing problems: Attention, Aggressive behavior; Sleep problems; and Other Problems. These syndrome scales are derived through a factor analysis.

DSM-IV oriented scales are derived using the expert opinion of 16 clinicians who have evaluated each question of the forms in regard to its compliance with the symptoms in the classification system. 63% agreement was needed to form a scale and only 5 of the original scales remained, covering 46 items for CBCL and 47 for C-TRF. Scales are as follows: Affective Problems, Anxiety, Pervasive Development Problems, Attention Deficit/ Hyperactivity Problems, Oppositional Defiant Problems.

The evaluation of every question is done according a scale where 0 – not true, 1 – sometimes true and 2 – often true. Results are transformed in T-scores, and are given for each scale and for the whole test form. T-scores below 65 indicate development within the normal range; T-scores between 65 and 70 – borderline range; T-scores above 70 refer to the clinical range.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results were calculated with STATISTICA software, and Excel.

On Tables 1 and 2 descriptive statistics for both forms of the test are given. The Cronbach's alpha measure for internal consistency shows a good reliability for all scales in the CBCL form except for the Somatic Complaints and Attention Problems scales, where values are below the accepted 0,6 lowest level. In the C-TRF form all scales except for Somatic Complaints, are within the accepted level. Although the scales: Internalized, Externalized and Total Problems, are with a high level or reliability, this is considered acceptable, being a result of the overlapping effect of some of the items in the syndromes.

A more detailed examination of the Somatic Complaints shows that the items included in the syndrome scale can be divided in two different categories – one oriented towards the behavior of the child, and the other oriented towards physiological complaints. This should be taken into consideration when interpretation of the internal consistency of the scale is made.

TABLE 1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR CBCL

	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR CBCL						
	N	MEAN	MIN	MAX	SD	SEM	Cr α
EMOT_REAC	100	2,8705	0	13	2,4816	0,24816	0,711
ANXIOUS	100	3,61808	0	11	2,35497	0,235497	0,662
SOMATIC	100	2,24411	0	10	2,01128	0,201128	0,527
WITHDRAW	100	1,4245	0	6	1,41072	0,141072	0,629
SLEEP	100	2,98	0	10	2,48624	0,248624	0,703
ATTENTION	100	2,69306	0	8	1,63612	0,163612	0,541
AGGRESSIVE	100	8,30394	0	23	5,09086	0,509086	0,839
OTHER	100	8,85128	1	27,44	5,24475	0,524475	
DSM_AFFECTIVE	100	2,08273	0	7	1,79615	0,179615	
DSM_ANXIETY	100	4,13432	0	16	2,88833	0,288833	
DSM_PERVASIVE	100	3,1996	0	9	2,54914	0,254914	
DSM_ADHD	100	5,64714	0	12	2,69058	0,269058	
DSM_OPPOSITE	100	2,15217	0	7	1,85277	0,185277	
INTERNAL	100	10,1572	1	30	6,629	0,6629	0,843
EXTERNAL	100	10,997	2	28	6,09181	0,609181	0,851
TOTAL	100	32,96548	8	86	17,68086	1,768086	0,931

TABLE 2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR C-TRF

	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR C-TRF						
	N	MEAN	MIN	MAX	SD	SEM	Cr α
EMOT_REAC	100	2,1	0	8	2,04248	0,204248	0,677
ANXIOUS	100	3,2	0	17	2,74138	0,274138	0,619
SOMATIC	100	1,11383	0	4	1,11003	0,111003	0,301
WITHDRAW	100	2,44485	0	12	2,59893	0,259893	0,724
ATTENTION	100	4,47	0	15	3,51176	0,351176	0,827
AGGRESSIVE	100	7,09397	0	27	6,61073	0,661073	
OTHER	100	7,62809	0	33	5,96967	0,596967	
DSM_AFFECTIVE	100	0,93	0	6	1,40888	0,140888	
DSM_ANXIETY	100	2,38394	0	16	2,39647	0,239647	
DSM_PERVASIVE	100	3,73788	0	13	3,11468	0,311468	
DSM_ADHD	100	7,12687	0	22	5,17543	0,517543	
DSM_OPPOSITE	100	1,51094	0	8	1,96561	0,196561	
INTERNAL	100	8,85868	0	35,06	6,92992	0,692992	0,851
EXTERNAL	100	11,56397	0	40	9,15224	0,915224	0,885
TOTAL	100	28,05074	2	95,82	19,30406	1,930406	0,94

In Table 3 are given the results from the correlation analysis between both forms. Significant results are colored in red. Low to moderate correlation coefficients in 6 of the scales is not a surprising result, given the fact that only parents and caregivers of non-referred children participated in the study. Higher values of the Pierson coefficient would mean that the problem behavior occurs in more than one setting, which is an indication for a disorder. Results obtained in the present study are consistent with the results that the authors observed during the initial standardization in the USA. These results also support the necessity of two separate forms – one for parents, and the other for caregivers, in order to investigate the behavior of the child in different contexts and to receive a thorough impression of his/her development status.

TABLE 3. CORRELATION BETWEEN CBCL AND C-TRF

CORRELATION BETWEEN CBCL / C-TRF ($\alpha < 0.05$)		
BG = 100 subjects, USA = 226 subjects		
scales	r BG	r USA
EMOT REAC	0,29	0,28
ANXIOUS	0,24	0,28
SOMATIC	-0,11	0,3
WITHDRAW	0,15	0,29
ATTENTION	0,21	0,51
AGGRESSIVE	0,14	0,55
OTHER	0,12	N.A.
DSM AFFECTIVE	-0,02	0,21
DSM ANXIETY	0,34	0,26
DSM PERVASIVE	0,21	0,42
DSM ADHD	0,24	0,52
DSM OPPOSITE	0,13	0,42
INTERNAL	0,16	0,3
EXTERNAL	0,19	0,58
TOTAL	0,17	0,5

In Tables 4 and 5 are given the results from the 2-tailed t-test used to study the difference between boys and girls. For a better understanding and interpretation, additional measure of Effect Size is given. It shows the difference between both groups as a standard deviation and should be seen as a measure of the magnitude or the extent at which they differ (0– no effect; 0.2 – slight effect; 0.5 – moderate; and above 0.7 high effect; note: the minus “-“sign is not to be considered). Higher values of the effect size measure indicate larger difference between genders. The results are consistent with theories about gender specificity of externalizing problems – boys are more prone to exhibit destructive behaviors and inattention. No

significant difference was observed for internalizing problems. The obtained results do not confirm the hypothesis that girls have higher indications on anxiety and affective disorders scales.

TABLE 4. 2-TAILED T-TEST FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GENDERS FOR CBCL

2-TAILED T-TEST FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GENDER FOR CBCL ($\alpha < 0.05$) [0=boys; 1=girls]										
	Mean 0	Mean 1	t-value	df	p	0 Ne	1 Ne	SD 0	SD 1	ES
EMOT_REAC	3,090	2,510	1,363	128	0,1754	70	60	2,592	2,203	0,241
ANXIOUS	3,849	3,374	1,213	128	0,2275	70	60	2,128	2,331	0,213
SOMATIC	2,392	1,815	1,749	128	0,0826	70	60	1,825	1,931	0,307
WITHDRAW	1,520	1,469	0,193	128	0,8473	70	60	1,480	1,551	0,034
SLEEP	3,219	3,000	0,517	128	0,6061	70	60	2,492	2,307	0,091
ATTENTION	3,045	2,520	1,784	128	0,0769	70	60	1,730	1,609	0,315
AGGRESSIVE	9,288	7,234	2,175	128	0,0315	70	60	5,219	5,535	0,382
OTHER	9,474	8,204	1,371	128	0,1729	70	60	5,456	5,036	0,242
DSM_AFFECTIVE	2,204	2,190	0,044	128	0,9647	70	60	1,766	1,822	0,008
DSM_ANXIETY	4,436	3,772	1,393	128	0,166	70	60	2,811	2,586	0,246
DSM_PERVASIVE	3,395	2,754	1,446	128	0,1506	70	60	2,665	2,333	0,256
DSM_ADHD	6,257	5,065	2,456	128	0,0154	70	60	2,658	2,873	0,431
DSM_OPPOSITE	2,469	1,842	1,850	128	0,0666	70	60	2,004	1,826	0,327
INTERNAL	10,851	9,168	1,523	128	0,1303	70	60	6,203	6,377	0,268
EXTERNAL	12,333	9,753	2,290	128	0,0237	70	60	6,129	6,712	0,401
TOTAL	35,877	30,125	1,859	128	0,0654	70	60	17,622	17,555	0,327

Results from the C-TRF form differ from the CBCL findings, as 8 of the scales are found to have different norms for boys and girls. Effect size measures are used to clarify the findings. Although gender differences are observed more intensively in the C-TRF, they also refer to destructive behavior and inattention. It is possible that teachers and caregivers report for gender differences more readily because they have the opportunity to observe and compare the behavior of a variety of children. They are able to distinguish between boys' and girls' behavior by directly observing them in a social setting. Aggression and inattention at that age often occur together and are associated with male behavior (Ammerman, 2006). Another reason for the different results in the two forms may be found in the different requirements in a kindergarten setting. The criteria for problem behavior at home and in the kindergarten are different, leading to different assessment of the behavior. Still another interpretation of the results may be found in the social roles attributed to boys and girls respectively. Boys are expected to be unruly and inattentive in peer interactions.

An interesting fact is the elevation of results for boys in all scales except for the Somatic Complaints in C-TRF. It may be interpreted as being a consequence of different criteria for male and female behavior. These findings are an argument for different gender norms.

TABLE 5. 2-TAILED T-TEST FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GENDERS FOR C-TRF

2-TAILED T-TEST FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GENDER FOR C-TRF ($\alpha < 0.05$) [0-boys; 1-girls]										
	Mean 0	Mean 1	t-value	df	p	0 №	1 №	SD 0	SD 1	ES
EMOT_REAC	2,341	1,899	1,292	165	0,1983	88	79	2,324	2,073	0,201
ANXIOUS	3,284	3,157	0,302	165	0,7628	88	79	2,595	2,834	0,047
SOMATIC	0,865	1,282	-2,143	165	0,0336	88	79	1,019	1,476	-0,329
WITHDRAW	3,207	2,359	1,902	165	0,0589	88	79	3,108	2,597	0,296
ATTENTION	5,598	3,593	3,687	165	0,0003	88	79	3,835	3,104	0,575
AGGRESSIVE	9,394	5,257	3,526	165	0,0005	88	79	8,309	6,648	0,550
OTHER	9,350	6,343	3,113	165	0,0022	88	79	6,538	5,877	0,484
DSM_AFFECTIVE	1,432	0,937	1,917	165	0,057	88	79	1,886	1,381	0,300
DSM_ANXIETY	2,356	2,138	0,608	165	0,5439	88	79	2,094	2,541	0,094
DSM_PERVASIVE	4,442	3,430	1,911	165	0,0578	88	79	3,548	3,261	0,297
DSM_ADHD	8,666	5,606	3,841	165	0,0002	88	79	5,508	4,695	0,598
DSM_OPPOSITE	2,240	1,094	3,215	165	0,0016	88	79	2,595	1,918	0,502
INTERNAL	9,697	8,697	0,882	165	0,3788	88	79	7,284	7,345	0,137
EXTERNAL	14,992	8,850	3,936	165	0,0001	88	79	10,857	9,111	0,613
TOTAL	34,039	23,890	3,199	165	0,0017	88	79	20,617	20,301	0,496

Dispersion of the teacher/caregiver's reports is larger than the one of parent reports. In a setting with a variety of social interactions, games and organized lessons, children have an opportunity to demonstrate a great set of behaviors. Individual differences can be observed by direct comparison between children. This opportunity for a variable behavior may be the reason why gender differences are reported in a larger number of scales of C-TRF as compared to CBCL.

Results show that some differences in the evaluation of child behavior on the basis of gender for this age are possible although not for all areas of behavior. Changes in the studied age period have different peaks and duration. Differences are observed between genders and in the limits of one gender. It is important to examine the child's behavior in longer periods because of the risk of misdiagnosing healthy children or of misinterpreting individual differences in development (as intensity or a moment of the process).

Based on the collected data two separate standards for boys and girls should be prepared in order to make an individual profile of a child. When considering pathological cases the clinical literature gives indications for a gender difference which should be taken into account.

Next steps in the project of standardization of CBCL/C-TRF should include collecting more data from a representative population of Bulgarian children for 1½ – 5 ages, a factor analysis to confirm the original scales and a validation procedure with examination of diagnosed children.

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PSYCHOMETRIC EVALUATION OF THE GREEK VERSION OF THE PERCEIVED STRESS SCALE (PSS)

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Abstract. *The purpose of the study was to investigate the applicability of the Greek version of the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS). PSS (Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein, 1983) is a general appraisal instrument that measures the degree to which situations in one's life are appraised as stressful. Two hundred and twenty – eight teachers (all volunteers: 181 females, 47 males, mean age=39,58) in Northern Greece, filled in the Greek translation of the PSS. The alpha coefficient for the Greek version of PSS was found as "a= 0,83" while one hundred and one subjects (88fem., 13males, mean age= 39,91) were retested within three to four weeks time to provide stability / reliability over time (Correlation between forms (tests) = 0,66). Last but not least, factor analysis of the PSS showed that the scale consisted of two factors: Perceived Helplessness factor and Perceived Self-efficacy as the original En version of the scale. In general, the data indicated that the PSS provides a reliable and valid measure of perceived stress for a Greek sample. The findings provide the Greek mental health specialists with a new validated tool on the field of stress research and practice.*

Keywords: *Perceived Stress Scale; Greek version, reliability; validity; factor analysis.*

INTRODUCTION

Stress, as the father of the very notion Hans Selye (1955), noted down, is a situation which underlines almost any disease, or other difficult life situation.

Perceived Stress Scale (hereafter PSS) is a Likert – type, self-administered scale, developed by Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein (1983), used to evaluate

stress levels. "The PSS measures the degree to which situations in one's life are appraised as stressful" (Cohen, et al., 1983; p. 385).

Permission for use of the scale is not necessary when use is for academic research or educational purposes (Conser E., n.d.).

A number of studies had proven PSS a valid tool for Stress evaluation in various cultural settings / environments provided a proper translation (language adaptation) will take place in prior (as in our case). The scale has been translated and validated in Canada (Hewitt, Flett & Mosher, 1992), China (Lee & Crockett, 1994), Sweden (Eskin & Parr, 1996), Spain (Remor & Carrobles, 2001), Mexico (González & Landero, 2007), Japan (Mimura & Griffiths, 2008) and Turkey (Müge & Ayhan, 2008). Also, specific cross cultural study has shown the intercultural usefulness of PSS (O'Connor & Shimizu 2002).

PSS-10 consists of 10 items/declarations. The responders assess their frequency in a scale from 0 to 4 (never to very often).

METHOD

Sample

Our research population was all the teachers (kindergarten, primary, secondary) of a rather wide semi-rural education district in northern Greece – in a volunteer basis. Sample considered stratified but also random as none was excluded, all invited and only other parameter was availability. Personal data of the responders is protected.

228 valid test papers collected. Also 101 out the 228 original responders were tested with PSS10/GR twice within 3–4 weeks, to check time-stability of the scale.

PSS 10 (GR) – translation

Two methods -simultaneously– were used to translate PSS10 for use in Greek: a) the double blind and b) the reverse translation (Behling & Law, 2000).

Psychometric Results on PSS-10(GR)

One sample Kolmogorov –Smirnov test declared that PSS-10/GR scores data follows normal distribution (sig.=0,062) and hence parametrical stat. tests are applicable.

Goodness-of-fit test: Chi-square/degrees of freedom ratio found 2,31 which considered adequate (Bentler, 1990; Bollen, 1990; Col,1987).

According to the original construction of PSS items 4,5,7&8 form the group called "self efficacy" while 1,2,3,6,9&10 are forming the group called "helplessness".

The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for the PSS10-GR is 0,83 (whole scale) while for helplessness is 0,82 and for self efficacy 0,72.

PSS–10/GR presents a highly significant Barlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0,0001$) and KMO 0,85 which considered great (Field, 2005). So PSS–10/GR is prone for Factor Analysis (FA).

Maximum Likelihood was the FA method we used. We also used a Varimax rotation. The initial solution yielded two components with Eigenvalues exceeding 1, accounting for a total of 55,27 per cent of the variance. Varimax rotation conducted with these two factors with a cut-off point at 0,4 (Field 2005). First factor included items 1, 2, 3, 6, 9 and 10 which could be labeled as 'Perceived Helplessness', and second factor composed of items 4, 5, 7, 8 labeled as 'Perceived Self-efficacy'. So, in line with earlier validations (Hewitt, Flett, & Mosher, 1992; Mimura C. & Griffiths P., 2008; Müge & Ayhan, 2008), the first factor consisted of all items of negative experience and the second factor consisted of all items of positive experience. However, on scrutinizing the factor loading, item 5 (*"In the last month, how often have you felt that things were going your way?"*) cross-loaded onto both factors.

TABLE 1. ROTATED FACTOR ANALYSIS OF PSS–10 (GR)

Rotated Factor Matrix			a
	Factor		
	1	2	
it2	,791		
it10	,725		
it9	,628		
item1	,618		
it3	,565		
it6	,415		
it7		,660	
it4		,643	
it8		,560	
it5	,439	,533	

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

The matrix shown refers to PSS-GR. Communalities are rather satisfactory. The range was from 0,25 to 0,53 with an average of 0,44.

Although the male sample in PSS-GR can be conceived mostly as indicative, independent sample *t*-test was used to estimate whether there was a difference for gender in the perception of stress. A significant difference was found between male and female (also Levene's Test for Equality of Variances Sig. = 0,038<0,10). T-test didn't show any age differences.

Split – half reliability for 228 cases (PSS GR) returned a sufficient Spearman Brown Coefficient of 0,83 (Nunnally, 1967; statistics.com, 2008), which validates it and the correlation between halves: 0,71.

We applied also test/retest reliability assessment for PSS –10/GR using 101 cases within 3–4 weeks interval (88 fem., 13 males, mean age 39,91). Correlation between forms (tests) = 0,66 Alpha for part PSS1 = 0,86 Alpha for part PSS2 = 0,83. Spearman Brown Coefficient at 0,78. Thus PSS-GR can successfully claim *stability over time*.

DISCUSSION

A problem arose with item five (5) which appears as a multi loading variable although by theoretical context “belongs” to Self-efficacy. The problem appears also in PSS –10 Turkish validation (Müge & Ayhan, 2008) and in other PSS validations like the PSS – Japan (Mimura C. & Griffiths P, 2008) which referring to PSS–14 (14 items) with even more strength (3 variables appear to multi load). We believe that the problem (not a major one, in any case) is partly (at least) due to the fact that we need to take into account the notion that in social sciences factors are rarely totally independent.

Still the determinant of the R-matrix is set at 0,0368 high above than the cut-point of 0,00001 (Field, 2005). Thus, even if a specific item appears to “double-load” statistically there is not an issue either of multicollinearity or singularity in our data.

PSS–10 Turkish (Müge & Ayhan, 2008) also supports our finding that females usually are more stressed than males as they tend to process stressful events more actively (Matud 2004).

We also validated PSS's stability in the time dimension and gave it the opportunity to prove itself as a rather reliable tool for research as well as counselling purposes.

Thus we believe that with the use of PSS–10, both researchers and counsellors working with native Greek speaking clients/subjects will obtain valuable data, which will guide their further research and/or interventions.

Finally we can safely conclude that PSS is efficient enough to be used in Anglo-Saxon, Northern Europe, Western Mediterranean, Latin, Middle East and Far East countries / cultures. This is also sturdy evidence that what Hans Selye first observed early last century (stress) is a cross-culture notion.

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GRIEF & STRESS, CONNECTED: A CASE STUDY

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Abstract. *By its very own nature, stress is closely connected with grief. W.H.O. (1993) connects stress & grief (ICD 10 / F.42) [as numerous literature entries also do]. The main working hypothesis for the present study was “we can anticipate and confront Grief as it would be Stress.” We believe that if we are not dealing with Complicated Disorder (GCD), we can. In an incident of a child death (fatal illness) in a Greek family we addressed grief mainly with Stress Reduction Techniques (SRT) in an effort to support family. Also we monitored grief levels indirectly using Stress assessment. We also tried to support the same way the child’s teacher. Indications both from observation and the assessments were encouraging. During this study we also developed the PSS-GR using double blind & reverse translation to create a Greek language version out of the original PSS 10 – En. Finally we found out that: Stress management approach seems to work, but of course that is only an indication since: A) Complicated grief usually shows up (if ever) after the sixth month (some time after a year), when the subject finds it unbearable to return to “normal” life and B) thus we do not know if the specific subjects (teacher and parents) could manage their own grief issues even with no intervention at all from our behalf, since most griever tend not to develop Complicated Grief Disorder. In any case we have (at least) a strong indication that Stress Reduction Techniques (STR) are most helpful in cases of stress that comes out of grief. Of course, further research is needed.*

Keywords: *stress, eustress, distress, grief, loss, teacher, parents, pupils.*

INTRODUCTION

Apart from the very own nature of stress, as we commonly understand it, numerous studies are connecting stress and grief and underline that stress deriving out of loss can be detrimental (Horowitz, 1976; Schneider J., 1984; Rynearson, 1986; Raphael & Martinek, 1997). Also anxiety scales like DASS (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995) or the Mehrabian (1995) link stress and aspects of grief like depression or denial and thus even indirectly link stress and grief.

Stress is an everyday part of life. It would be impossible for us to avoid it, however, find comfort in knowing that all stress is not bad. A balanced diet of positive stress can even work to motivate us. An overdose of negative stress however, can take a deadly toll on our minds and bodies. We experience stress from three areas: our body, our mind, and our environment (Selye, 1955). Stress is the price we pay for living.

Grief is the aspect of losses in our life – loss is an inescapable part of life and Grief is the emotional response to the loss. Recognizing and understanding the grief process can be of paramount importance to us and to our beloved ones (Ross & Kessler 2001). *Grief is the price we pay for loving.*

“Stressed” means being frustrated and disoriented (Selye 1955), something that grievers also report (Ross 1973).

Stress can be motivating (Eustress) or exhausting (Distress) (Selye 1955).

In Thanatology we meet two sides / aspects of Grief (Ross & Kessler, 2001):

- ♣ Grief that unites, makes us more humane and ultimately stronger (“good grief”) and
- ♣ Grief that tears us apart (“bad grief”), isolates us and dehumanize us.

We decided to verify this relationship in a case study of a child death and thus have a close look at the connection of stress & grief for research and counseling purposes. Our working hypotheses were:

- ♣ We can anticipate and confront Grief as Stress.
- ♣ We can inhibit grievers into rising to excess levels of grief, by providing stress reduction support.

METHODOLOGY

We chose the method of case study. Case study is a research strategy and not a qualitative research method per se. But all so often it uses qualitative research methods (direct observation, participation etc.). The advantage of the case study is that it can “close in” on real-life situations and test views directly in relation to phenomena as they unfold in practice (Hancock & Algozine, 2006).

We also used a Likert (1932) – type stress scale, the PSS (Perceived Stress Scale) developed by Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein (1983), to help us evaluate stress levels.

The PSS was designed for use with community samples with at least a junior high school education. Permission for use of the scale is not necessary when use is for academic research or educational purposes. (Conser, n.d.)

A number of studies had proven PSS a valid tool for Stress evaluation in various cultural settings / environments provided a proper translation (language adaptation) will take place in prior (as in our case). The scale has been translated and validated in Spain (Remor & Carrobbles, 2001), Sweden (Eskin & Parr, 1996), China (Lee & Crockett, 1994), Mexico (González & Landero, 2007), Japan (Mimura & Griffiths' 2008) and Turkey (Müge & Ayhan, 2008). Also, specific cross cultural study had shown the intercultural usefulness of PSS (O'Connor & Shimizu 2002).

Two methods were used simultaneously to translate PSS10 for use in Greek: a) the double blind and b) the reverse translation (Behling & Law, 2000).

The case

- ❖ At early Dec. 2006, a 3rd Grade girl went to a local hospital, somewhere in Northern Greece for examinations after the suggestion of her pediatrician. During last month the child was all too often ill and “out of mood”.
- ❖ Only a month later the child died at a central Hospital because of acute brain cancer.
- ❖ Using PSS (Perceived Stress Scale) we monitored the stress levels of parents and the teacher (and intervene accordingly).

Both stress and grief may affect a person by causing irritability; sleep/eat disturbances, head and muscle aches etc. Both needs to re-organize our lives, to sleep and eat in a health way, to exercise (not excess), to focus on good things, to analyze – if need it – the current situation, to rest and relax etc. So we used stress reduction techniques to support grievers (as in any case it was too early for any grief therapy / counseling specific intervention) (Kirsta 1987, Worden 2001).

Target group / contact

- ❖ Mother and father of the diseased child.
- ❖ Teacher (female) of the 3rd grade.
- ❖ We met in counseling setting with the parents and the teacher a few days after the incident. We also used PSS.
- ❖ The sessions were repeated regularly as well as a monthly PSS assessment (see Pic. 1).

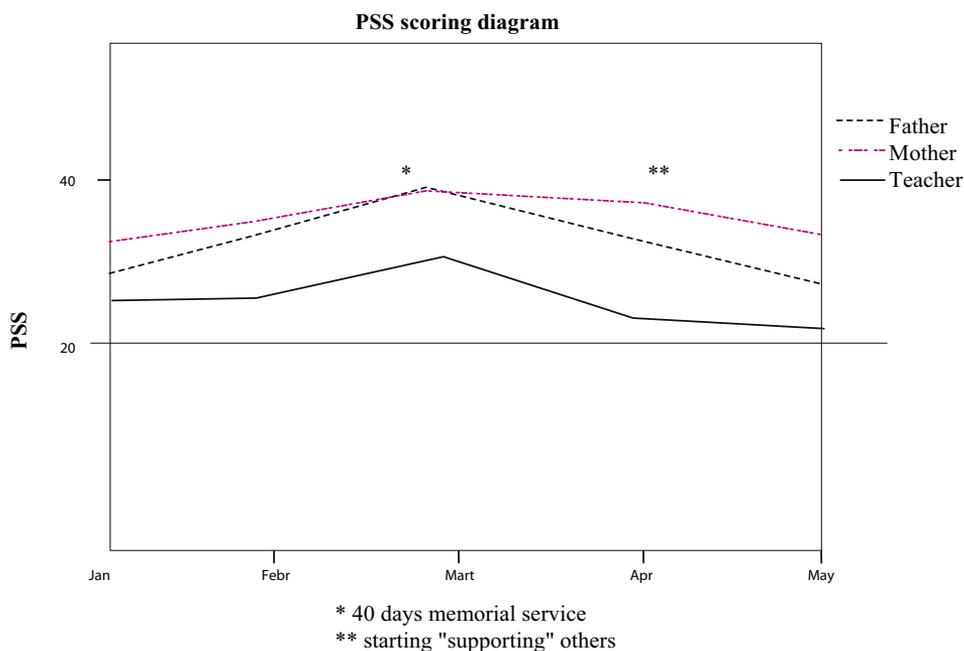
Use of weapons

- ⌘ We provided support and employed SRT to all.
- ⌘ We always try to employ the flexible management of the unexpected;
- ⌘ The unexpected element here was a group of other parents with children having the same problem and treated at the same hospital as the diseased child...

Love... the ultimate armor

- ⌘ These parents traveled all the way from the big city (or other far away locations) to the small rural township to meet as “brothers in pain”.
- ⌘ That happened rather often and we encouraged it.
- ⌘ After those meetings PSS (almost always in peek) shows some signs of decline (mainly in “helplessness” sector).

PICTURE 1: TOTAL PSS SCORE IN TIMELINE (FATHER, MOTHER AND TEACHER).



Legend: The depiction above records Perceived Stress of the parents and the teacher during the study. Please note that the “40 days memorial service” is a milestone in Greek Orthodox culture for grievors as a major religious mourning event. After that period SRT starts to become a benefit for the grievors in the same way that early April’s involvement of the parents in the “support group” did. By beginning supporting others being in the position that they were only a few months earlier helped them a lot.

CONCLUSION

A valid stress scale, the PSS can be used to monitor also grief (even indirectly).

Also stress management approach seems to work. In any case further research is applicable.

Positive implementations of the study are rather obvious:

1. Not every psychologist is also a grief counsellor but almost any psychologist possesses at least some stress reduction skills &
2. We could employ STR immediately, far before any signs of CGD are observable and the arousal of the need for Grief Therapy.

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BULGARIAN ADAPTATION OF SENSE OF COHERENCE SCALE (ANTONOVSKY, 1987)

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Abstract. *The aim of the study was to adapt Sense of Coherence Scale (Antonovsky, 1987) – both SOC–29 and SOC–13 versions, – to the Bulgarian language. A total of 272 subjects aged 18–75 (124 males and 148 females) completed Sense of Coherence Scale, translated into Bulgarian. Psychometric characteristics of the Bulgarian versions of Sense of Coherence Scale are presented. The length of the Bulgarian version of SOC–29 scale had to be reduced to 26 items due to the unacceptably low loadings of three items – 3, 10 and 17, – on the first factor. Bulgarian versions of SHS (SOC–26 and SOC–13) are reliable and valid informative psychometric instruments within Bulgarian context. We recommend them for studies in the fields of positive psychology, health psychology, psychology of stress etc. It is advisable to use 13-item variant for better comparability of data and 26-item variant if the theoretical model of the study suggests differentiated effects of the components of SOC.*

Keywords: *sense of coherence, scale, psychometric characteristics, Bulgarian adaptation, health.*

INTRODUCTION

The concept of sense of coherence (SOC) was put forward by Aaron Antonovsky in 1979 to explain why some people become ill under stress while others stay healthy. It arose from the salutogenic approach, that is, the search for the origins of health rather than the causes of disease.

SENSE OF COHERENCE (SOC; Antonovsky, 1979, 1987) is a health-engendering personality trait that functions as a psychologically based stress-resistance resource. According to Antonovsky, SOC is a “global orientation, a pervasive feeling of confidence that the life events one faces are comprehensible, that one has the resources to cope with the demands of these events, and that these demands are meaningful and worthy of engagement” (Antonovsky, 1987, p. 19). “Coherence” means consistency, congruence and harmony. The more pronounced a person’s sense of coherence, the healthier he or she should be and the more quickly will that person regain health and remain healthy.

The sense of coherence has three components – **comprehensibility, manageability, and meaningfulness**.

Comprehensibility is the extent to which events are perceived as making logical sense, that they are ordered, consistent, and structured; the sense that one can understand events in one’s life and reasonably predict what will happen in the future. This component describes the expectation or the ability of the person to process both familiar and unfamiliar stimuli as ordered, consistent, structured information and not to be confronted with stimuli that are chaotic, random, accidental and inexplicable. The term “comprehensibility” is used in the sense of a *cognitive processing pattern*.

Manageability is the extent to which a person feels they can cope. This component describes a person’s conviction that difficulties are soluble. Antonovsky also called this “instrumental confidence” and defined it as “...*the extent to which one perceives that resources are at one’s disposal which are adequate to meet the demands posed by the stimuli that bombard one*” (Antonovsky, 1987, p. 17). The extent of one’s sense of manageability does not necessarily depend on one’s own resources and competencies. It also subsumes the belief that other people or a higher power will help one to overcome difficulties. Antonovsky considered the sense of manageability as a *cognitive-emotional processing pattern*.

Meaningfulness is how much one feels that life makes sense, and challenges are worthy of commitment – the belief that things in life are interesting and a source of satisfaction, that things are really worth it and that there is good reason or purpose to care about what happens. Meaningfulness is “...*the extent to which one feels that life makes sense emotionally, that at least some of the problems and demands posed by living are worth investing energy in, are worthy of commitment and engagement, are challenges that are ‘welcome’ rather than burdens that one would much rather do without*” (Antonovsky, 1987, p. 18). Antonovsky considered this *motivational component* to be the most important. Without the experience of meaningfulness and without positive expectations towards life, there will not be a high SOC value despite the pronouncement of the other two components. A person who does not experience meaningfulness will perceive life as a burden and consider each new task as additional agony.

Antonovsky emphasizes that the SOC concept is a dispositional orientation rather than a personality trait/type or a coping strategy. The SOC construct reflects a person's capacity to respond to stressful situation. Antonovsky believed that, in general, a person with a strong SOC is more likely to feel less stress and tension, and to believe that he or she can meet demands.

According to the author's conception, the sense of coherence is a crucial factor determining first of all health related behavior. Depending on the formation and intensity of the components this factor may have direct or indirect influence on health.

The SOC construct is operationalized by means of the Orientation to Life Questionnaire (Antonovsky, 1987), which is commonly referred to as the Sense of Coherence scale.

Higher SOC scores are associated with better physical health, fewer physical symptoms of stress, lower levels of perceived stress, less negative affect, greater positive affect, greater life satisfaction, higher self-esteem and greater optimism (Antonovsky, 1993).

METHOD

Our aim was to adapt *Orientation to Life Questionnaire* (Antonovsky, 1987), also known as *The Sense of Coherence Scale* (29- and 13-item versions) to the Bulgarian language.

A total of 272 subjects, aged 18–75 (124 males – 46%, and 148 females – 54%), distributed in 3 age groups: 18–30 yrs (n=113, 41.5%), 31–50 yrs (n=106, 39%), 51–75 yrs (n=53, 19.5%) completed the 29-item Orientation to Life Questionnaire, translated into Bulgarian.

DESCRIPTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE:

Orientation to life questionnaire (The sense of coherence scale – soc)

Author: Aaron Antonovsky

The questionnaire is based on the data from 51 qualitative interviews in which the people questioned talked about their lives. The interviewees were people who had been subjected to severe trauma yet seemed to come to terms with their lives remarkably well. The statements identified as representing a general attitude toward life or life experiences were analyzed using Guttman's facet technique. 29 items were identified, which each had a corresponding seven-point assessment scale. There is also an abbreviated version, which contains 13 of the original 29 items.

Examples:

Until now your life has had:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
No clear goals and purpose at all					Very clear goals or purpose	

Do you anticipate that your personal life in the future will be:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
totally without meaning or purpose					full of meaning and purpose	

When you face a difficult problem, the choice of a solution is:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
always confusing and hard to find				always completely clear		

The original scale consists of 29 items that measure the three SOC components of comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness. On the basis of empirical data Antonovsky proved that there are strong correlations between them. Thirteen of the items are formulated ‘negatively’ and have to be reversed in scoring, so that a high score always expresses a strong SOC.

The questionnaire has been used in more than 30 countries. Cronbach’s alfa describing the internal consistency of the questionnaire ranged in 124 studies from 0.70 to 0.95 (0.74 to 0.91 for 13-item version). The mean score ranged from 100.5 to 164.5 (35.39 – 77.60 for 13-item version). The relatively few test-retest correlations show considerable stability, e.g. 0.54 over a 2-year period among retirees; 0.42 over 4 years for the working population aged 18 to 30 years; 0.45 over 4 years for the working population aged 30 to 64 years; 0.67 over 5 years for both age groups – under and over 30 (Antonovsky, 1993).

Sense of coherence is a factor promoting resilience, quality of life and a positive health outcome (Antonovsky, 1993; Eriksson and Lindström, 2006; Drageset et al., 2008).

SOC has a strong relation with factors measuring mental health, such as optimism, hardiness, learned resourcefulness, locus of control, mastery, self esteem and self efficacy, acceptance of disability, and social skills (Antonovsky, 1993; Bengel, Strittmatter and Willmann, 1999; Eriksson and Lindström, 2006). SOC is strongly and positively associated with quality of life (Drageset et al., 2008). SOC is strongly and negatively associated with anxiety, anger, burnout, demoralization, hostility, hopelessness, depression, perceived stressors, and post-traumatic stress

disorder (Antonovsky, 1993; Eriksson and Lindström, 2006; Konttinen, Haukkala and Uutela, 2008).

In stressful situations SOC seems to have a moderating effect on health (Bengel, Strittmatter and Willmann, 1999; Eriksson and Lindström, 2006; Richardson and Ratner, 2005). People with high SOC seem to be more resilient under stress than people with a low SOC (Bengel, Strittmatter and Willmann, 1999; Eriksson and Lindström, 2006).

People with a strong SOC have lower number of circulatory health problems, lower diastolic blood pressure, serum triglycerides, heart rate at rest, and higher oxygen uptake capacity (Antonovsky, 1993; Eriksson and Lindström, 2006). A low SOC is related to higher medicine use (Koushede and Holstein, 2009). A low SOC is associated with poor self-rated physical health and a high prevalence of symptoms among all age groups, with high prevalence of long-term illness among respondents older than 50 years of age (Flensburg-Madsen, Ventegodt and Merrick, 2005). SOC is a predictor of increased natural killer cells and is strongly related to immunoglobulin measures (Flensburg-Madsen, Ventegodt and Merrick, 2005). A low SOC is associated with daily drinking, alcohol problems, and with suicidal ideation and attempted suicide (Flensburg-Madsen, Ventegodt and Merrick, 2005).

The SOC questionnaire shows a relatively high predictability, both in a short term (some months) and a long term (some years) perspective. SOC-scores predict physical and mental health, disability, injuries, quality of life, stress, burnout, coping, and better outcome after surgery (Antonovsky, 1993; Eriksson and Lindström, 2005, 2006). A strong sense of coherence was associated with 30% reductions in mortality from all causes, from cardiovascular disease, and from cancer independent of age, sex and prevalent chronic disease (Surtees et al., 2003).

RESULTS

1. FACTORIAL STRUCTURE OF SOC-29

Principal component analysis produced 7 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 (the Kaiser criterion), accounted for 54.67 % of the total variance. At the same time, the application of the scree test (Fig. 1) suggests one-dimensional structure accounted for 24.04 % of the total variance. The eigenvalue of this factor is 6.97.

Factor loadings are presented in Table 1. All the SOC items except three (item 3, item 10 and item 17 – all of Comprehensibility subscale) are loading high on first factor – at 0.30 or above. On the grounds of these results we made a decision to reduce the length of the Bulgarian version of SOC scale to 26 items, excluding items 3, 10 and 17.

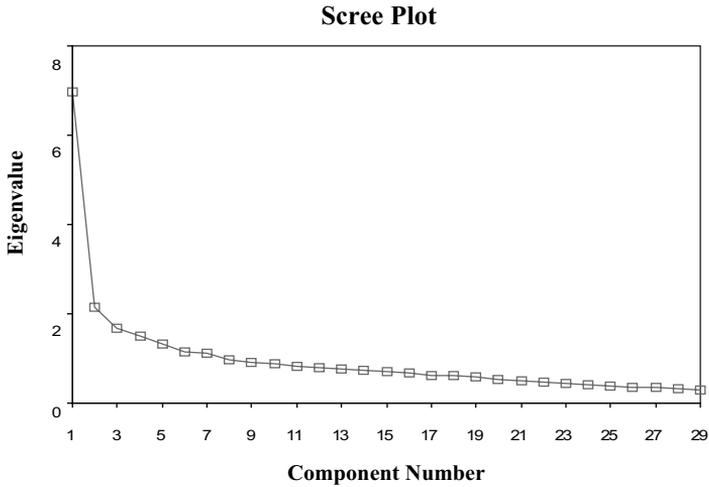


FIGURE 1. SCREE-PLOT OF EIGENVALUES (SOC-29)

2. FACTORIAL STRUCTURE OF SOC-13

Principal component analysis produced 3 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 (the Kaiser criterion), accounted for 49.30 % of the total variance. At the same time, the application of the scree test (Fig. 2) suggests one-dimensional structure accounted for 29.84 % of the total variance. The eigenvalue of this factor is 3.88.

Factor loadings are presented in Table 1. All the SOC items are loading high on first factor – at 0.40 or above.

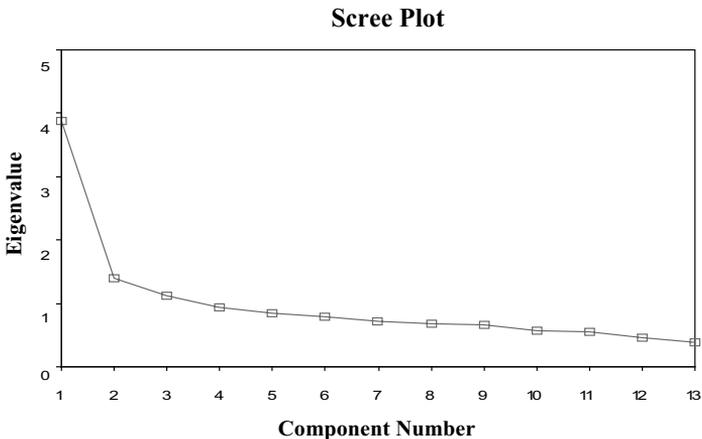


FIGURE 2. SCREE-PLOT OF EIGENVALUES (SOC-13)

3. INTERNAL CONSISTENCY

SOC-26 showed high internal consistency – Kronbach's $\alpha = 0.88$, that is within the range 0.83 – 0.95, cited by Antonovsky (1993). Internal consistency of SOC-13 is somewhat lower, as expected with fewer items, but still high – Kronbach's $\alpha = 0.80$, that is within the range 0.74 – 0.93, cited by the author of the test (Antonovsky, 1993).

The author emphasizes that there is no basis for deriving distinguishable subscores for comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness (Antonovsky, 1993). But many other authors are interested in making more differentiated analysis, which is why we present the Kronbach's alphas of these subscales in Table 2. They range from 0.71 to 0.78 (SOC-29), from 0.73 to 0.78 (SOC-26) and from 0.60 to 0.65 (SOC-13). The inner consistency of subscales of SOC-13 is unacceptable; this is why we recommend using only SOC-26 for differentiated analyses and making profiles.

4. NORMALITY OF DISTRIBUTION

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test shows that the distribution of the test scores on SOC is normal: $Z = 0.895$, n.s. (SOC-26); $Z = 0.962$, n.s. (SOC-13).

The histogram of SOC-26 scores is presented on Fig. 3. The histogram of SOC-13 scores is presented on Fig. 4.

5. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The descriptive statistics of SOC-26 is presented in Table 2, and Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics of SOC-13.

The Sense of Coherence Questionnaire does not have any norms. The analysis of the results is based on comparing the average results of a study with results presented by other authors.

6. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TWO FORMS AND BETWEEN SUBSCALES

Correlation between SOC-26 and SOC-13 is very high: $r = 0.928$. Similar correlations between longer and shorter SOC-scales are registered in other studies (Antonovsky, 1993; Eriksson and Lindström, 2005; Olsson, Gassne, and Hansson, 2009).

Correlations between subscales are shown on Table 4. The **bold** numbers represent correlations between SOC-26 subscales; the *italic* numbers in every cell represent correlations between SOC-13 subscales. Correlations range from 0.434 to 0.650, thus showing that the subscales are not independent. This result supports Antonovsky's statement that researchers are to use the SOC questionnaire as a measurement of the whole, not examining the three subscales separately.

7. AGE AND SEX DIFFERENCES

The application of one-way ANOVA shows that factors “sex” and “age” do not influence significantly the distribution of scores on any of the subscales or the total scores on both SOC–26 and SOC–13. Recent empirical findings suggest inconsistency regarding influence of age. Some researchers have reported no significant differences in SOC between men and women, whereas others reported that men had higher SOC than women (Drageset et al., 2008).

DISCUSSION

Antonovsky expressed his wish for the SOC scale to be empirically examined before creating new modified scales: “I would strongly urge researchers to use the scale as it stands to allow comparability, rather than for individuals to make this or that change to ‘improve’ the questionnaire.” (Antonovsky, 1993, p. 732).

Until 1993 there were only a few attempts to modify the SOC questionnaire. The situation has completely changed today. Besides the original SOC questionnaire consisting of 29 items and the shorter version of 13 items there is an array of alternative instruments. At least 15 different versions exist with different scoring alternatives (including the two versions of the family sense of coherence scale, a questionnaire especially adjusted for children and the sense of school coherence instrument.) The alternative instruments are: 3 items, 6 items, 7 items, 9 items, 10 items, 11 items, 12 items, 13 items (modified scoring alternatives), 16 items, 28 items, and 29 items (modified scoring alternatives). In addition, 17 items and 19 items instrument were used before 1992 (Lindström and Eriksson, 2005; Olsson, Gassne, and Hansson, 2009).

Thus the necessity to shorten the SOC–29 to 26-item variant should be accepted as a lesser of two evils. Antonovsky (1993) himself mentioned that some other authors had troubles on theoretical ground to accept two items that are problematic in our study too: item 10 and item 17, both of which refer to changes in life. Further he cited the study of Pottie on Flemish sample: “All SOC-items – except two (item 10 and 17) are loading high on the first factor” (Antonovsky, 1993).

At the same time it is not impossible that the results of the factor analysis reflect the prolonged socioeconomic transition of Bulgarians and after about 10 or 20 years the factorial structure of SOC–29 could be closer or identical to the original one.

CONCLUSIONS

Both SOC–26 and SOC–13 are reliable, valid and informative psychometric instruments within Bulgarian context. We recommend them for studies in the fields

of positive psychology, health psychology, psychology of stress etc. It is advisable to use the 13-item variant for better comparability of data and the 26-item variant if the theoretical model of the study suggests differentiated effects of the components of SOC.

TABLE 1. FACTORIAL STRUCTURE OF SOC

Item	Factor loadings (29 items)	Factor loadings (26 items)	Factor loadings (13 items)
1	.380	.381	
2	.389	.388	
3	.123		
4	.423	.426	.410
5	.333	.325	.459
6	.391	.387	.483
7	.536	.543	
8	.482	.476	.462
9	.583	.585	.592
10	.192		
11	.562	.572	
12	.602	.599	.632
13	.620	.538	
14	.599	.646	
15	.245	.615	
16	.599	.607	.571
17	.245		
18	.461	.466	
19	.502	.499	.592
20	.502	.506	
21	.477	.482	.590
22	.630	.635	
23	.375	.380	
24	.512	.495	
25	.506	.505	.602
26	.402	.405	.412
27	.579	.578	
28	.459	.459	.532
29	.656	.655	.680

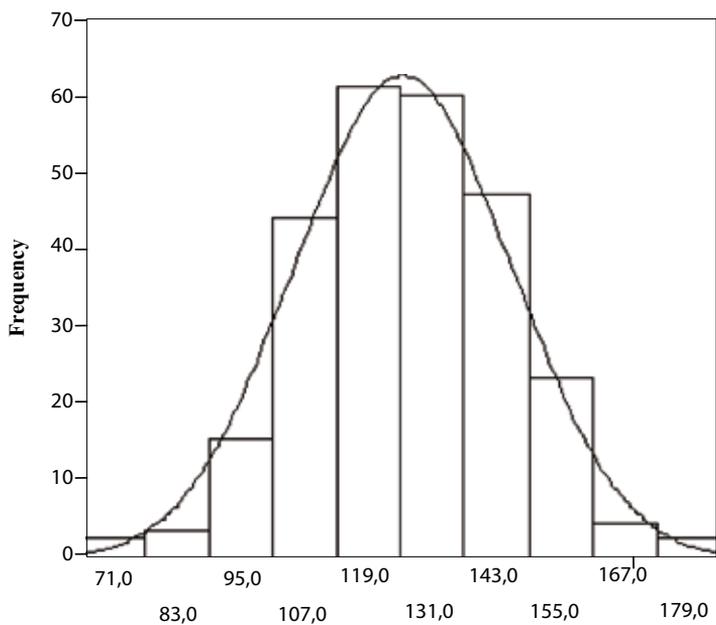


FIGURE 3. HISTOGRAM OF SCORES ON SOC-26

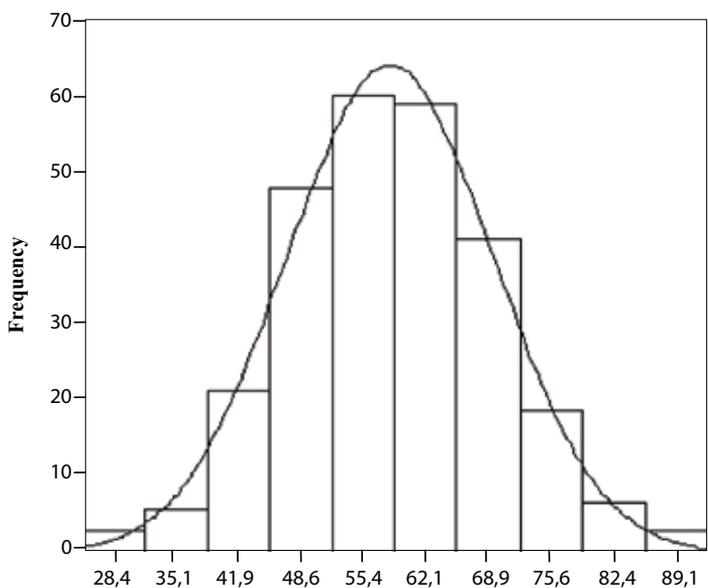


FIGURE 4. HISTOGRAM OF SCORES ON SOC-13

TABLE 2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND INTERNAL CONSISTENCY OF SOC-26

	Mean	SD	Min	Max	R	α
Sense of coherence (total score)	125.39	20.44	52	182	130	0.88
Sense of coherence (average score)	4.82	0.79	2	7	5	0.88
Comprehensibility (total score)	33.86	7.65	13	56	43	0.73
Comprehensibility (average score)	4.23	0.96	1.63	7	5.38	0.73
Manageability (total score)	49.19	8.58	23	70	47	0.75
Manageability (average score)	4.92	0.86	2.30	7	4.70	0.75
Meaningfulness (total score)	42.33	7.62	9	56	47	0.78
Meaningfulness (average score)	5.29	0.95	1.13	7	5.88	0.78

TABLE 3. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND INTERNAL CONSISTENCY OF SOC-13

	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Range	α
Sense of coherence (total score)	58.94	11.22	25	91	66	0.80
Sense of coherence (average score)	4.48	0.86	1.92	7	5.08	0.80
Comprehensibility (total score)	21.07	5.18	7	35	28	0.62
Comprehensibility (average score)	4.21	1.04	1.40	7	5.60	0.62
Manageability (total score)	17.32	4.35	4	28	24	0.65
Manageability (average score)	4.33	1.09	1	7	6	0.65
Meaningfulness (total score)	19.86	4.22	5	28	23	0.60
Meaningfulness (average score)	4.96	1.06	1.25	7	5.75	0.60

TABLE 4. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SUBSCALES OF SOC–26 AND SOC–13

	Comprehensibility	Manageability	Meaningfulness
Sense of coherence	.832 <i>.854</i>	.903 <i>.832</i>	.830 <i>.754</i>
Comprehensibility		.650 <i>.591</i>	.497 <i>.434</i>
Manageability			.645 <i>.457</i>

Note. The **bold** numbers represent correlations between SOC–26 subscales; the *italic* numbers in every cell represent correlations between SOC–13 subscales.

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APPENDIX

The Bulgarian version of SOC is available upon request.

BULGARIAN ADAPTATION OF SUBJECTIVE HAPPINESS SCALE (LYUBOMIRSKY & LEPPER, 1999)

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Abstract. *The aim of the study was to adapt Subjective Happiness Scale (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999) to Bulgarian language. A total of 172 subjects aged 18–28 (33 men and 139 women) completed the 4-item Subjective Happiness Scale. Psychometric characteristics of the Bulgarian version of Subjective Happiness Scale are presented. Bulgarian version of Subjective Happiness Scale demonstrates high internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.81$). The one-factor solution explained 64.54% of the total variance. The Bulgarian version of SHS is a reliable and valid informative psychometric instrument within Bulgarian context. We recommend it for studies in the fields of positive psychology, health psychology, psychology of emotions etc.*

Keywords: *happiness, scale, psychometric characteristics, Bulgarian adaptation, test.*

INTRODUCTION

The capacity of some people to be happy, even in the face of adverse circumstances or hard times, is striking. We all can identify individuals who appear to have a talent for happiness and finding joy in the little things in daily life. Similarly, we are all familiar with people who, even in the best of times, seem chronically unhappy and generally deriving little pleasure from life. Thus, our everyday experience suggest that one of the most significant dimensions of human experience is happiness. The question of why some people are happier than others is important

for both theoretical and practical reasons, and the pursuit of its answer is a central goal of positive psychology.

The current measures of subjective well-being either assess one of its two components (affective or cognitive) or are single-item global evaluations, which are not conducive to testing psychometric properties. Thus, respondents typically are asked to rate their levels of positive and negative affect over a particular period of time or to make a judgment of their overall life quality. What was missing in the literature is an instrument measuring overall “subjective happiness” – that is, a global, subjective assessment of whether one is a happy or an unhappy person. Such an instrument is proposed by Sonya Lyubomirsky and Heidi Lepper (1999) – Subjective happiness scale (SHS).

METHOD

Our aim was to adapt *Subjective Happiness Scale* (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999) to Bulgarian language. The adaptation of the scale was possible thanks to the permission and help of the first author – Professor Sonja Lyubomirsky.

A total of 172 subjects, students in Sofia University, aged 18–28 (33 males – 19.2 %, and 139 females – 80.8 %) completed the 4-item Subjective Happiness Scale, translated into Bulgarian.

DESCRIPTION OF THE TEST:

Subjective HAPPINESS SCALE (SHS)

Authors: Sonja Lyubomirsky and Heidi Lepper

The scale consists of 4 items; subjects answer them on a 7-points Likert scales. Two items ask respondents to characterize themselves using both absolute rating and ratings relative to peers, while the other two items offer brief descriptions of happy and unhappy individuals and ask respondents the extent to which each characterization describes them.

For example:

Some people are generally not very happy. Although they are not depressed, they never seem as happy as they might be. To what extent does this characterization describe you?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all						A great deal

SHS has been derived from an original pool of 13 self-report items; of these, 6 have been discarded based on semantic analysis and three – because of lower factor loadings (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999).

SHS has excellent psychometric characteristics: high internal consistency (Cronbach's alphas ranged from 0.79 to 0.94 in different samples); high test-retest reliability (coefficients of correlation ranged from 0.55 to 0.90 for time lags between testing sessions from 3 weeks to 1 year). The lowest stability coefficient ($r=0.55$) has been observed in U.S. adult community sample, tested 1 year apart. Principal component analysis performed separately for each sample has shown that the four items of SHS load onto a single factor. SHS correlates highly with other happiness measures and moderately with constructs theoretically and empirically related to happiness and well-being. These correlations do not exceed 0.70, suggesting that the scale is not equivalent to these other measures. SHS has very low correlations with theoretically unrelated constructs such as academic success and stressful events (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999).

RESULTS

1. Factorial structure of SHS

Principal component analysis produced one factor with eigenvalue greater than 1 (the Kaiser criterion), accounted for 64.54 % of the total variance. The eigenvalue of this factor is 2.58.

The factor loadings are presented in Table 1. All the SHS items have high loadings on that factor.

TABLE 1. FACTORIAL STRUCTURE OF SHS

Item	Factor loading
1	.869
2	.838
3	.811
4	.682

2. Internal consistency of SHS

The Bulgarian version of SHS showed high internal consistency – $\alpha = 0.81$, which is within the range $0.79 - 0.94$ ($M = 0.86$), cited by the authors (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999).

3. Test-retest reliability

Coefficients of correlation that have been registered between scores on SHS ($n = 137$) ranged from 0.84 to 0.92 for time lags between testing sessions from 1 month to 3 months: $r = 0.92$ (1 month); $r = 0.90$ (2 months); $r = 0.84$ (3 months).

4. Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics of SHS is presented on Table 2.

TABLE 2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF SHS

	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Range	Med
Total score	19.09	4.55	6	28	22	19
Average score	4.77	1.14	1.5	7	5.5	5

The authors of the test present average scores in different college samples, ranging from 4.63 to 5.07 (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999). The result in our sample (4.77) is within that range.

5. Normality of distribution

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test shows that the distribution of the test scores on SHS is normal: $Z = 1.208$, n.s.

The histogram of SHS scores is presented on Fig. 1.

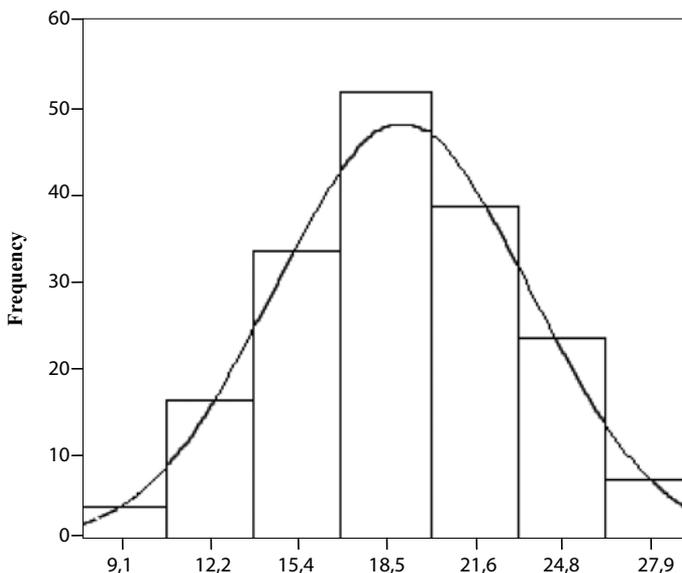


FIGURE 1. HISTOGRAM OF SCORES ON SHS

6. Age and sex differences

No significant sex or age differences were observed for the Bulgarian version of SHS. The same result is presented by the authors of SHS (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999).

CONCLUSIONS

The Bulgarian version of SHS is a reliable and valid psychometric instrument within Bulgarian context. We recommend it for studies in the fields of positive psychology, health psychology, psychology of emotions etc.

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APPENDIX

The Bulgarian version of SHS scale is available upon request.

**PAPERS OF SYMPOSIUM 9:
APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY
AS A PROFESSION**

SELF – DEVELOPMENTAL GROUPS AS AN INTEGRAL PART OF PSYCHOLOGY STUDY CURRICULUM: RATIONALE AND CHALLENGES

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Abstract. *The postmodern society introduces new forms of lifestyle and new educational and upbringing approaches, thus changing the face of psychological distress and challenges. Detachment, fragmentation of identity, primacy of mediated communication in interpersonal relations and learning about others has outlined the reality of contemporary post-adolescent, in this case a student of psychology. Having all that in mind, the inertia and steadiness in academic corpus of psychology knowledge in most Eastern European Universities leads to transformation of students into instruments, and clients into objects, distancing the educational ideal from a humanistic principal: „relation“ before technique. Curriculum model presented here is developed in cooperation with the Vienna Sigmund Freud University. Namely, in former Yugoslavia countries, qualified psychologists provide their clients with counseling services regardless of their specialization and work context. Personal development training is equally important for certified psychotherapist's ethical practice, as it is important for the practices of school psychologists or researchers. Focus of self-developmental groups “open syllabi“ is shifting among various questions, aiming to provide students with the context for direct interpersonal contact, un-mediated learning about others, relational meaning construction of their experience, but also development of de-centering capacity through empathy, cognitive flexibility and collaboration.*

Keywords: *inovative psychology curriculum, self– development, students group experience, group techniques*

INTRODUCTION

The inertia and steadiness of academic corpus of knowledge in most Eastern European Universities leads toward transformation of students into instruments and clients into objects, symbolically speaking, distancing the educational ideal from a humanistic principal: „relation“ before techniques. On the other hand, direct experience and personal inquiring are one of the most important generative forces in the social science, especially behavioral sciences. While participating in the environment created for such learning practice, students build on their confidence in reflective position and questioning attitude toward hypothetical constructs. In other words they regain trust in their own intuition, curiosity and critical thinking.

Through immediate interpersonal experience, psychology study program should invites exploration of possible answers to the question “How to apply knowledge, instead of only broadening the quantity of knowledge?”

Detachment, fragmentation of identity, primacy of mediated communication in interpersonal relations has outlined the reality of contemporary post-adolescent, in this case a psychology student. As Keneth Gergen emphasized, today`s postmodern condition generates new forms of lifestyle, values, educational and upbringing approaches and sets new forms of social realities, in the same time changing the face of psychological distress and challenges (Gergen, 1991, p.73).

The university classes with an intense self exploration and exchange of thoughts and feedbacks, could represents an alternative to a dominant culture of social interacting. The established alliances between group members and between members and the trainer are very important for group process. Fuhrman and Burlingame proposed four putative sources of learning unique to group treatment: (1) participation in a developing social microcosm, (2) consensually validating, (3) giving and receiving feedback in the group, (4) reciprocal functioning of the members in the group (Fuhrman and Burlingame, 1990, p.47). Carroll and Wiggins identified general goals for helping members in the group and some of the goals are: become a better listener, develop sensitivity and acceptance of others, increase self-awareness and develop a sense of identity, learn to trust others as well as self, etc. (Carroll and Wiggins, 1990, p.25)

METHODOLOGY

Focus of self-developmental groups “open syllabi“ is shifting among various questions, aiming to provide students with the context for direct interpersonal contact, un-mediated learning about others, relational meaning construction of their experience, but also development of de-centering capacity through empathy, cognitive flexibility and collaboration. Each semester is dedicated to one

particular group theme in the following order: self-awareness, complexity of group dynamics, communication skills and competencies. The idea of the course is to provide students with the opportunity to explore self in the group context and to enhance their communications skills, all from the “participant position”. The groups meet on the weekly basis for an hour and a half with maximum of 15 participants. Supervision group for the trainers are hold once per week. Personal development groups employ a variety of techniques (Corey, 2004, p.6) such as: group exercises and games, role plays, discussions, mini lectures, simulations etc.

For example, one of the applied group technique for exploration of various facets of a group’s personality is the exercise called “The Group Tell a Story” (Brown, 2004, p.120). Group members create a story, one word at a time. The group sits in a circle and one person is chosen to start the story by offering one word. The person sitting next to that person then offers the second word, and so on around the circle, with each person adding one more word to the story. After the creation of the story is finished group facilitator encourage members to think about how the story might reflect underlying group dynamics.

RESULTS

Multiple roles of the academic staff, as teachers and group facilitators, represented the main challenge. Number of required qualified staff varies depending on the number of students. According to Brown, basic qualifications includes: body of knowledge about groups, psychotherapy and counseling skills, supervised clinical or counseling work experience, cultural sensitivity and ability for constructive use of countertransference (Brown, 2004, p. 3). Since this is after all kind of psycho-educational groups and not group therapy, multiple roles are not perceived as an obstacle in realization of the group aims.

Although groups consist of the same students throughout the academic year, some students may participate in the different groups to compensate for the absence in their own. This situation could bring new dynamic in the group process and became a challenge for the participants and facilitator. Also, breaking of the agreed rules such as late arrival at groups or some other sort of “provocative behavior” may become a challenge to the group norms and require renegotiation on the group rules and boundaries.

Resistance and anxiety arises occasionally during group activities among certain number of students (1 to 2 students per group), partly because student participants are also in the multiple roles with each other (colleagues, friends). In some cases that sort of reaction is informative for detection of students that require special attention or individual approach. Content analysis of students self-reports provided insights into their idiosyncratic world of meaning and their per-

sonal investments into this course. Learning through direct experience has helped students gain personalized thus useful and significant lessons. Open question evaluation form, that they filled each year at the end of the course, becomes open channel for students feedback and major developmental tool for further improvement of the course program.

In regard to this, it is interesting to present here the final result of the above mentioned exercise “The Group Tell a Story”. Exercise has been applied six months after beginning of the group, as the closing activity. Here is the story, or better to say a poem, from one of the groups: *“Our thoughts were different from yours. Write it all down fast, otherwise it will either be bad or it won` t happen at all. I agree with my heart feelings and yearn to...but I won` t tell on facts that are present around us. Today, I am feeling slow as a snail, although I have a plenty of time for every possible different day. I feel tension while meeting with certain people. My wish is to light up a joy in the group. More, I wish love, passion, triangle... Eucalyptus smell reminds us on an each, from time to time, vulnerable, girl or a man.”*

Members of this particular group were cohesive, although some of the participants used to confront with each other and was prone to start a conflict. The story content puts a light on some of the underlying issues and resulting feelings.

DISCUSSION

Psychology study curriculum model presented here was developed in cooperation with the Sigmund Freud University from Vienna. Module called Self-Developmental Groups sets on example in demonstrating that university`s responsibilities are not limited to teaching theory, sometimes paired with action-oriented know-how, but also to involve giving students a wide range of options for personal development.

Training for personal development is equally important for certified psychotherapist`s ethical practice, as it is important for the everyday practice of school psychologists or researchers. Set goals and anticipated outcomes of the self developmental courses among the population of graduated psychology students are enhanced level of empathy, tolerance, professionalism and sense of responsibility joint with superior communication skills. In other words, the undervalued creative and intuitive potential, as well as respectable critical questioning stance of psychology students could be cultivated and supported with this educational approach, compared to traditional emphasize on recycling the established practice and knowledge. Through continuous interaction academic staff guides students toward exploration of their personal resources and underdeveloped skills, thus assisting them to adequately position themselves professionally, and making informed choices on direction in future specialization.

CONCLUSIONS

As it is widely accepted, personal identity and integrity of psychologist are of utmost importance in their future work, given that personality is their “work apparatus”.

After one academic year of students participation in the groups it became evident that they had made a significant progress in a self understanding and adequate perception of their roles in the context of group dynamic. These observations were validated by external criteria: active and lively student involvement in other courses, practical as well as theoretical.

Building the bridge between matters of common everyday life problems with newly acquired theoretical perspectives leads to a pragmatic contextualization of knowledge. More important, in order to develop communication style that express respect for clients position and perspective, students must learn and be encouraged to develop their own observations, impressions, as well as confidence in their capacities and skills, sometimes even more that in psychometric instruments and standard procedures.

We think that missing link between academic and applied science could be attained with this sort of integration of personal growth and learning process.

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SOCIAL-PSYCHOLOGICAL TRAINING – A METHOD OF IMPROVING THE COMMUNICATIONAL SKILLS OF FUTURE TEACHERS: SOCIAL-PSYCHOLOGICAL TRAINING FOR COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

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***Abstract.** The evaluation of social-psychological training as a form of teaching is based on several aspects. What are the advantages and disadvantages of SPT as a method for learning communicational skills? What are the results which the students achieve when they use this method? These are serious questions which should be answered by both theorists and practitioners in university and college education. The aim of this article is to give answers to some of these questions and to reveal the applicability of SPT in university programs for communicational skills, based on a survey with more than 750 students of University of Sofia, University of Shumen and The Islamic University. The analyze of SPT efficiency is also based on the experience of students and their self-evaluation during the process. The results and opinions before the training process and after already are compared and the change in the level of students communicational ability is measured. This reveals the positive and negative sides of SPT and the organization factors which have influence on it. All traditional methods for research in social and pedagogical psychology are used for diagnostics of the psychic features and communicational skills of the participants in SPT (observation of real situations of communication between students during SPT, discussion with students on problems connected with the subject of the research, direct anonymous survey, analyzing of individual cases).*

INTRODUCTION

The basic forms of teaching that are approved in Bulgarian universities are **lectures** and **seminar classes**. They undoubtedly have many advantages, but it is a well-known fact that they also have many negative sides.

The academic lecture (originates from the Latin **lectio** – a reading) plays an important role in the process of teaching in universities, because through it teachers may give students complete and comprehensive knowledge on the main theoretical points of a given theme. Every good lecture has the following features: actuality, practical significance, novelty of information, clearness of the material that is being taught and emotional presenting of the material. It is distinguished by its comparatively long duration and its being based on a monologue. Through lectures in students are formed the theoretical basis of every science, its main methodological grounds are made clear, the main different ideas are analyzed as well as its subject and history. Lectures make students interested in the studied problems. According to students the main advantage of teaching based on lectures is the systematically, consequently, structured and easy to understand presenting of the material. Students, however, point out some disadvantages in the system of Bulgarian higher education as well: boring and monotonous presentation of the studied material, most often by reading of previously written text without the active, artistic, and entertaining elements. Because of the lecture being based on monologue and its being time constricted, discussions and expression of opinion from the side of the students are rarely incited. Sometimes the taught material has been already published in a specialized magazines and during the teaching process it is just reread without any change or additional clearing, missing direct connection between the presented knowledge and the demands of the future professional activity.

The seminar lesson (from the Latin –**seminarium**– arboretum) is the other main teaching form, which dominates in the modern higher education institutions in Bulgaria. Papers are being read, scholarly essays are being commented, students broaden their knowledge and acquire certain practical skills through the analysis of specific and typical cases. By their participation in exercises students broaden, deepen and specify what they have learned from the lectures or from printed– or electronic magazines. In this way they are specifically prepared in certain themes and acquire specialized skills. The problems that are studied during a seminar lesson are constricted in the field of a certain academic subject or are connected with the studied material from other related sciences. This makes the possibilities to place the accent on students' adopting and mastering certain knowledge and skills rather limited. Social-psychological training (SPT), which has been recently initiated in Bulgarian higher education, gives much bigger opportunities in this direction. It is an indication that new techniques and methods should be invented for the needs of contemporary higher education.

SPT is a preparation for real life, an instrument to stimulate the optimal psycho-social adaptation of the personality. SPT contributes to self-awareness and

complete development and mastering of social knowledge and skills by emotionally experiencing the situation during the exercise. SPT helps to build habits and skills for analyzing the human psyche, for improvement in the relationships between the participants of the group and correction of their value orientations, for diminishing the effect of certain life problems. SPT is a form of teaching, whose organization contains various methods and techniques that are applied by stages in a certain time consequence and in accordance to the goal of its conducting. This is specific group work, dependent on principles, that contributes to building of certain communicational skills and the overcoming of different problems. In SPT is used the interaction in the group to help each of its members to fulfill himself, and if needed to change his behavioral reactions and thinking patterns. SPT gives its members the opportunity to receive responses for their personal characteristics based on the opinion of other participants in the group or by watching video tape of the exercise and to improve the members' ways of sending and receiving back connection. In short thanks to SPT the communicative competence of its participants is improved.

In the contemporary specialized literature the term communicative competence means the person's ability to make connection with other people easily, to communicate with them effectively and entertainingly, to speak publicly without having stress, to use appropriate appeal, to be able to lead a casual conversation, to be able to change its topic, to be able to interrupt his interlocutor without offending him to raise questions and answer others.

By analyzing its essence it is revealed that the forming and development of social competence depends on psycho-physiological, social-psychological (status, motivation, orientation of values, etc.) and pedagogical (acquired knowledge, cultivation, stage and orientation of education) factors. Practice shows that SPT is one of the forms for perfection of communicative competence.

The goal of this publication is to reveal the advantages and disadvantages of SPT for students, thus presenting a basis of comparison with the still dominating system in Bulgarian higher educational institutions based on lectures and seminars. The idea is not to oppose this method to the traditional forms of education but to fulfill and develop them further using SPT.

The subject of the research is to determine the effectivity of SPT's application as a form of teaching of students based on analysis of their self-evaluation and individual experience. Comparison of the incoming and outgoing level of communicative competence, comparison of certain communicative qualities and skills of the participants in the experimental control group.

The methods of the research are the analysis of specialized literature including observation of real situations of personal interaction of students during SPT, a discussion with the students and experts on the problems of the research, anonymous survey, analysis of individual cases, questionnaires and tests.

CONTINGENT, DURATION AND CRITERIA FOR ACCOUNTING THE RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH

In the present publication are made conclusions based on more than ten years of work in the application of SPT as a form of teaching students in five different high educational institutions– Sofia University ‘Saint Kliment Ohridski’, National Sport Academy ‘Vasil Levski’ High Islamic Institute Sofia, RU ‘A. Kunchev’ Shumen University ‘Constantine Preslavsky’. Conclusions of the research of more than 500 students of over 30 groups with whom the author has conducted exercises of training type.

ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

It is best when the improvement of the communicative competence of the future teachers begins at the time of their university studies. The author has experience in this field which is described in publications in some specialized Bulgarian editions. Their main idea is that the well organized and conducted SPT contributes to improvement of the communicative competence of its participants and lays the ground for further effective professional communication. SPT as a form of organized teaching of students helps in solving the following problems. 1. The communicative problems of the members of the group are being diagnosed. 2. Psychic mechanisms and skills for effective personal communication are being adopted and improved. 3. Skills for knowing oneself and one’s partners in the communicative process. 4. Positive ‘Self-concepts’ are being formed and the idea of their own value and significance is being enhanced.

The effectivity of SPT depends on a number of main principles and rules which have to be followed during the process: benignity, activity, equity, participation by one’s own will, specificity of demands, domination of emotionality, confidentiality, not to miss exercises, not being late.

The results of the conducted empirical work concerning the improvement of the communicative competence of students shows that they acquire information about their behavior in the process of personal communication and adoption of knowledge, skills, attitude and experience for self diagnosis. More specifically this information is expressed in the way the participants look according to the opinion of their colleagues, what feelings they have towards them in the process of communication what are their expectations. Thanks to their participation in SPT students improve their skills in wider diagnostic nature: self-expressing, self-analysis, differentiation of one’s emotions, awareness that the discovering of oneself is possible only in the process of contacting other people.

On second place are pointed the diagnostic effects of SPT and the opportunities it provides in making its participants familiar with one another. These opportunities are expressed in: an increase in the concrete information about the other

participants in the group, the comparison of the students' attitudes towards their colleagues, improvement of the diagnostic orientation and predisposition for analysis of the psychic characteristics of the others in the group. More precisely: intensified aspiration for better understanding of the partner's position, stronger will to see the problems from another point of view, more attention paid to the problems of the other members of the group, the sensibility to other people's experience is increased in the process of personal communication as their non-verbal expression shows, an affinity to perceive and evaluate the other participants in the training is being created, the skill of listening to the others are being developed.

Except for the outlined effects the participants in SPT acquire and develop experience in diagnosis of personal interaction in the group (their overcoming, group unity and team work). One of the most frequently pointed effects as a result of SPT is the optimizing of the relations between them in their every day communication outside the classroom. Students say that the emotional climate between them has improved, their contacts have become more sincere, more friendly, more tolerant and humane. Their self-evaluation reveals that the effect of display of humanism in interaction with the members of the group extrapolates to all people they contact. Thanks to the exercises they have understood that all people are interesting, unique and possess many positive qualities and skills. In a number of self-evaluation papers it is revealed that students' participation in SPT has led to overcoming of the discomfort, the tension, alienation and isolation in the process of personal communication.

One significant result from SPT conduction is that situation for certain communicative changes are being created. Students clearly realize this as their self-evaluation papers confirm. 'Thanks to my participating in SPT I became more open in the contacts with people. Now I am not so shy and numb. I started showing myself calmly and confidently in larger groups of people.' – Writes in her self-evaluation paper a 3rd year student in 'Speech and hearing rehabilitation' from Sofia University 'St. Kliment Ohridsky'.

Sometimes, according to students, the changes that appear in the field of communication give an impulse to various personal changes connected with their system of values. The strong emotionally affecting information about themselves and their colleagues incite the students to change different sides of their ego, of their real and ideal ego, of their measure for other people etc.

During SPT to students is not submitted direct information for their displaying of weakness. On the contrary, a situation in which they alone can realize what communicational offsets they have and when do they appear. This gives them the opportunity to experiment with new models of communicative behavior, which leads to adoption of new knowledge and improvement of the skills for diagnosis of the perceptive formations about oneself, the partners in the process of personal communication and the situations in which it is conducted.

The practice of SPT conducting shows that its effects appear most strongly on the communicative expression of two main types of students – the first super-communicative, the second timid and shy. Gradually in the process of teaching super active communicators find that sometimes it is better to consider more thoroughly the things they want to say, and that they can also hear some interesting and important things from their colleagues. On the other side there are many examples on the contrary. They are expressed in the fact that the students who in the beginning of SPT avoid public expression very soon join the group and start giving their opinion on different topics. All these changes however are not always incorporated in real life due to different reasons. Why, for example, the impetus for personal and communicative change is temporary and insufficient. The people with whom the students have every day contact might not support this impetus. It is also possible that this change has not yet been thoroughly understood by the students themselves.

Therefore, the nature of SPT is such one that does not give any guarantee that the effects on the participants during its conducting will be permanent and that every member of the group will have learned he was taught. This, of course is caused by the complex and dynamic nature of the human psyche. The results, self-evaluation papers and observation show that some participants have learned almost everything that is being taught and develop themselves even further, others have learned and apply in practice only a small amount of the information, while a third group remains only with the memories of the emotional work. However, the lack of guaranteed success in SPT does not mean that it is useless or irrelevant as a form of teaching. The strongest argument in its favor is its fast spreading as a regular or optional subject. It is also a fact that it is one of the most effective instruments of practical psychology. Experts on the subject believe that most of the participants in every group, in which SPT is properly conducted, show most of the stated above positive effects.

The analysis of the results of the research, reveal that the main determining factors that influence SPT effectivity are the number of people in the group, the frequency of attendance, the working conditions, the number of lessons, the time of the sessions. Most unfavorable impact on the SPT's effectivity is the irregular attendance of exercises. The amount of people, who are not orientated in the working environment, slows the process. These students usually do not have a real notion about the principles of interaction in a group and thus break them. They have probably heard positive evaluation of the effects of the group work based on SPT and despite their own mistrust come to the sessions with curiosity. They usually sit in the part of the circle that is in front of the facilitator, but not exactly opposite him. In the process of the group work they take part in the discussions, they are even volunteers for some exercises. They look like striving to excerpt the maximum quantity of energy in the working atmosphere, meanwhile

some of their gestures reveal their uncertainty in the situation. This is why their contrasting passiveness and activity in the same exercise should not be surprising. If they manage to incorporate themselves in the group they may become permanent members. In the other case they cease participating.

The conclusions based on the students' responses to the survey are the following.

The active participants in the group work are satisfied of their own appearance and learn to choose appropriate behavior models for concrete situations.

The passive members are not satisfied of their participation in the training, but on the basis of the received back connection have the possibility to reconsider their communicative competence.

The mediators were able to test different behavior patterns and roles in the closed group, thus gaining enriching personal and working experience.

All surveyed students evaluate the significance of the role and work of the mediator and therefore most of them demand that they are highly educated in the field of psychology and pedagogic. According to students even the most detailed methodic cannot foresee every complex and sometimes even stressful situation, in which the mediator works. This is why in order to be successful every mediator must be a member of a training group and feel what is to be 'on the other side of the barricade'. The mediator's practical and professional experience should come from being a member of SPT, observer of SPT, another mediator's assistant, the sole mediator of a group. Thanks to these stages of their development the mediators should be able to mix the preplanned with the improvised, basing their work on the example of the eminent experts and their own nonstandard decisions. The analysis of the practice shows that there are university teachers who possess the will and the good theoretical preparation and determination to start their work as unassisted mediators. Unfortunately the other extremity is also observed – teachers without sufficient knowledge, preparation and educational degree boldly start working as mediators. The conducted by them exercises become senseless entertainment for students. Sometimes as a result of incompetence of the mediator participants develop psychic traumas. These teachers only compromise the form of SPT as a teaching method for students.

During the first, orientation stage of SPT the mediators should cease the existing group norms, thus assuring the active participation of all students in the group. They should also assist them in realizing their own experience during the personal processes in the tuition based on emotional feeling. When mediators participate in the exercises with their students, they play the role of a teacher, consulting-psychologist and an example to copy. During the second confrontation stage, the mediators should apply their own sense of measure in the conflicts, to go deep into the silence during the long pauses, to control the degree of intensity by staying calm even when clearly provoked by the students. They should never attempt to

dominate directly over their students by using their teacher position. Their role is to initiate the change in the relations between the members of the group, but students must find the way themselves. Thanks to their professionalism mediators give them the opportunity to overcome difficulties alone. The expression of the confrontational side of the members is a valuable quality of SPT because it allows them to be authentic and helps them to realize many real problems. This is why the mediators should be familiar with SPT's smallest details and use them properly. They should not provide prepared solutions to the problems or what is even worse give patterns for solving the problems. They should assist their students in realizing that every person in the group has his own point of view that should be tolerantly accepted. In the third integration stage of work the activity of the mediators should be minimal. His aim is to make clear that every member is equally responsible for the work of the group. He should stimulate the students by giving them the initiative to participate in the exercise. The role of the mediator is one of 'first among equal'. In the fourth and final stage the relations in the group are not so dependent on the work of the mediator. His role now is one of observer, who at the end of the exercise makes conclusions. The most important thing at the end of the work is students' having belief in their own skills, stronger self-consciousness and ability to sustain positive communication with other people. The mediator should stimulate the members of the group to use the acquired knowledge and skills in real life situations. The different stages are not so clearly defined – they may flow into each other or some of them may not even exist in a certain group.

The following conclusions about the work of SPT can be outlined:

1. SPT is very practical and effective form of work for teaching students communicative skills. It provides the connection between the theoretical and practical work. The studied material is presented in a clear easy to understand way on the basis
2. The main determining factors that influence the SPT's effectiveness are: the number of people in the groups, the frequent attendance of the sessions, the working conditions, the number of hours, the time between the sessions.
3. SPT broadens, systemizes and affirms the studied material. Thanks to SPT students enrich their communicative habits and skills. The acquired experience can be used in many real life situations.
4. In the process of SPT many premises for valuable back connection are created. The most important of them are:

The information flow is direct, public, spontaneous, not hampered by time or any other medium, between the communicator and the recipient. This assures its objectivity.

The knowledge that passes between the recipient and the communicator is in a form that preserves the dignity of both sides.

The submitted information does not serve as a mark, is benign, is based on argument and is complied with the needs of the recipient.

The back connection is not abstract, but active and is pointed to things that can be changed.

5. SPT provides opportunity for students to become familiar with one another. The sincerely confessed problems increase the level of trust between them and lay the ground of psychic safety.
6. SPT creates opportunities for students' creative expression by letting the experiment with models of behavior they consider proper or improper. They develop skills such as assertiveness, creativity, and watchfulness.
7. Teachers receive objective information about the interests, skills and needs of students, the quality and quantity of the material they have learned.

Having all these in mind it is clear that SPT is a specific way of work which requires much professionalism from the mediators. This is why there are some important points to consider :

Some students have specific individual experience that does not make the proper for such kind of work. They can have negative effect on their colleagues, the work or their own personal development.

Sometimes the participants in SPT are concentrated only on the communicative competence of some particular members of the group.

Some students have difficulties in trusting their colleagues in the group, do not clearly express their experience, which hampers the conduct of SPT.

SPT as a form of teaching of students is suitable to become part of the learning plans in every higher education institution, especially in subjects preparing for work of the type 'person to person'. After they finish their studies, students may rise their qualifications by tuition of training type. Thus they will receive an opportunity for permanent professional preparation and optimization of their communicational competence.

THE SOCIAL OBJECTIVES OF THE TEACHING OF PSYCHOLOGY

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***Abstract.** The teaching of psychology provides opportunities for forming social skills and for personal development. It is desirable to implement fully the modern scientific development on this field, as well as the practical trainings, which contribute to the profound assimilation of knowledge and to rationalizing its application in real life. The skillful involvement of the basic objective laws of human development, combined with the opportunities for personal development and social realization have the power to motivate the students and create in them an interest not only in the questions of science, but also in their own selves, in seeking their place in society. The secondary school students are in a stage of seeking and building up their own identity, and are sensitive to social interrelations, arrangements and behavior. One can easily reach them through the specific needs and values for their age and subculture, no matter how different and strange they may seem to more mature people. The transition from adolescence to maturity is a responsibility of the whole society, and most of all of the specialists and teachers, who mark the path to social skills. The answers to the questions what, to whom, why and how to teach provide the key to the successful educational activity, consistent with the interests of the students.*

INTRODUCTION

The Bulgarian education system should be duly praised for its far-sightedness to place the science of psychology among the obligatory subjects in all general education schools in the country. It is chronologically the first subject from the philosophy cycle, which consists of six consecutively taught subjects with general humanitarian purpose, studied in the 4 years of secondary school. Psychology gives students the possibility to get to know themselves, the world of the people around, and to psychologically substantiate the relations between the different

personalities. The ethical, legal, philosophical and labor aspects are a subject of learning in the other philosophical subjects, which build on and develop the basis laid by the psychological knowledge of the world and man's place in it.

In most European countries the school subjects with similar problematic is organized in the form of civil education and fulfills the dutiful purpose to prepare socially knowledgeable and mature citizens, who will know, respect and keep the social norms and laws. The tasks of teaching civil education are related to the formation of social competencies in the students, necessary for the adequate and successful start in social life as personally and socially responsible people, who are able to find their proper place in the community, and who are able to achieve development and fulfillment.

According to the Bulgarian educational system, the school program in civil education is distributed in several subjects /homeland, man and society, history, geography, philosophy cycle / in the whole course of education. The studies are disarranged and are rarely coordinated as purpose of the education, and even less as methods of teaching and training. The way of structuring of the school program and the organization of the school process are not coordinated with the European standards and objectives, despite the centralized form of organization of the education system in the country. The Ministry of Science and Education, as well as the Inspectorate of Education (a structure subordinate to the Ministry), submit the mandatory for all educational institutions school program, requirements, main concepts, inter-subject relations. This peculiarity creates excellent opportunities to coordinate the objectives and to properly structure the taught contents, but these opportunities are not adequately used. There are isolated attempts to coordinate some of the components, but more often within the framework of a single subject, or of several, such as the philosophical subjects, but rather episodically and partially, and not fully.

The education objectives in Bulgaria are targeted mostly towards providing and reproducing theoretical knowledge, while the understanding, practicing and implementation in real life is missing to a great extent in almost all studied subjects in the schools, and even in the universities. For Bulgarian education the priority is still in acquiring, memorizing and reproducing the theoretical foundations of the taught sciences, as well as going in-depth in some specific details of theirs. In exceptional cases, and only thanks to thinking and creative teachers, who deserve respect and admiration for their striving to reveal the practical-application character of science, the students do receive a clearer and fuller idea of science, of its importance and meaning. By using contents, which is not in the normative documents, as well as modern approach and methodology, these teachers succeed in getting the students interested and motivated. They diversify the traditional teaching, which requires a more passive attitude of the students, and provide space for students to express themselves and feel researchers and discoverers.

The introduction of new and interesting school content through the typical of the age of the students specific interests, and the use of innovative teaching methods meets the resistance of most of the teachers with long teaching and pedagogic experience, who keep the traditions of a respect-deserving education system, but also stand in the way of modernization and development of the teaching activities. Social development has gone a long way in a short time, and this has reflected on science, instruments, art, taste, fashion and life as a whole. New idols and models are appearing, new authors and trends, which be prevented from having a place in the life of the young generation. If we do not respect and appreciate this, we will stay out of the life of the young people, while we know that progress and future belong to them.

In order to solve this stalemate of helplessness, which more and more sharply escalates in the schools in the form of lack of motivation both in students and in teachers, in aggression and lack of proper atmosphere for conducting the classes not only in Bulgaria, but also in the more-developed European countries, we shall have to redefine the existing and seek for new approaches for inspiration and regulation of inter-personal relations in the educational institutions. How can we provoke the interest and the activeness toward acquiring knowledge and teaching as a whole?

Firstly there are the school programs, which are presented in this paper in the succession of their order in the national normative document: objectives of education, expected results, main concepts, context of the activity and inter-subject relations.

The objectives of education are to acquire certain knowledge, which is grouped in several main topics. In the presentation of the subject of Psychology, the pointed-out objectives are: to orientate the student in his/her attitude toward himself, toward the others and toward the world, and to contribute to his/her self-determination as an autonomous personality and a free citizen. The students are to study and understand, to develop skills for self-knowledge, to learn how to communicate.

Noticeable is the lack of fixed objectives to form practical skills, which is a shortcoming on a program level. Learning and understanding does not presume automatic acquisition, confirmation and application of the acquired knowledge, and these are three of the main and completing mandatory components of the teaching process, which have been known for years in didactics as mandatory completing stage in education.

Objectives like knowledge, discerning, accepting and understanding do not correspond to the meaning and sense, and even less form social competence. The word “social” means “of society”, it is shared with someone and supposes the existence and realization of contacts and communication between people. The whole educational institution is not by chance conceived as collective teaching, exchange

of knowledge and traditions, formation of skills and competencies in a suitable social environment exactly because of the possibility to apply, correct and confirm the knowledge with the help of the professional support of a specialist in a safe and sparing the personality environment.

I will use an example with animals, which live in groups, and their way of social organization and education. The herds seek food together, they help one-another taking care of the little ones, organize kindergartens, and all these facts prove the social nature in-born in the very core of some, and maybe in most primates. The heavy consequences of the social deprivation with humans undoubtedly proves our belonging to a social way of life, to which we owe one of the most precious, and at the same time most dangerous instruments that we have constructed and use daily – language. Knowledge has a social character both as way of acquiring and as setting objectives, it is meaningless if nothing is achieved by it, both on a personal and inter-personal level. Some scientists set apart the two lines of development, but according to the theory of Vygotsky of cultural and historic development the two lines intertwine and determine one-another.

It has been accepted for years to stress that teaching is a learning-education process, but one part of teachers and specialists do not understand these two parts as one synthetic and inextricably bound whole process, composed of two bound and inseparable parts. The very act of teaching includes the participation of the teacher in it with the full impression that he/she creates and inspires with his/her behavior and activity – with his/her demeanor, personality, professional skills, look, attitude towards the students, the teaching process, with his/her approach to the presentation of the subject content, the way he/she react to students' questions, with his appearance – all this is education activity, which we cannot avoid, whether we want it or not. These components influence the students even before the knowledge, the requirements and criteria are presented.

The attempts to play down the role of the teacher as an authority are not justified, although there are a number of examples of rejection of teachers' authority, which is not an indicator to deny the leading role if the teachers, predetermined not only formally, but as an expert and bearer of the knowledge and methodology for its achievement. The denial of the authority of some teachers is rather a proof of the critical attitude of students towards certain models of teaching and behavior, it is rarely an attitude towards the teacher himself. Students in early adolescence seek their mentor, the theory has explicitly proved that more suitable is the more mature and experienced person, who will help them find their own identity and direction in life. The growing-ups are insecure in themselves, despite the demonstration of independence and competence, which is rather an expression of their fear not to show their vulnerability, and not that they are indeed independent and competent. That is why they evaluate the grown-ups not so much by appearances, but in intellectual aspect, by how they can reveal to them the world of adults and

overcome the contradiction between the typical of their age sincere search for truth, straightforwardness and ideals, and the vanity, compromise, indifference and moderate cynicism of maturity. The parents of the adolescent are temporarily dethroned, which is normal for their age, and the place is free. It depends on the teachers whether this place will be occupied by a pop-star, the local drug dealer, hooligan, Internet, religious sect, top-model, or the student will seek his/her own way with the intellectual support and conviction that the rational choice does not stand in the way of emotions and spontaneity.

Many colleagues-teachers protest against the necessity for them to “lose” precious time for teaching in the non-mandatory (not in their direct obligations and not paid) educational functions similar to “parent cares”, despite that such functions are inseparable from the teaching-education process. It is a traditional excuse to state that there is a lot of material to teach, and have a very serious work to do. It turns out that the serious work is to present, or in school slang “to sing out the lesson”, but not to teach the students how to behave or communicate. In the classes of some subjects such education is more difficult, when there is no direct connection with the social science and the object is not a social phenomenon (e.g. in mathematics, chemistry, etc.), although if there is a will, one can find a way to include a social element. In fact, with the exact sciences this could be quite successful because of the element of surprise and unexpectedness. Especially favorable for teaching of social competences are the classes in humanitarian subjects, because the knowledge basically has a social character. It is recommended for the classes of all studied subjects, if a case or problem arises, to solve or at least discuss it on the spot with the participants in it and the attending students; if not – the possibility for its permanent solving will be lost, as well as the authority of the teacher. The teachers are managers of the class and of the education activity, this is their big and important responsibility as mature and capable specialists, from which they should not be scared or run away.

Another important factor with direct connection to achieving the social objectives through teaching is the school program content, which is regulated by normative acts. It is based on the criteria of scientific character, which are undisputed, without marking in any kind of documents whether the scientific style is accessible and understandable by the students, to what degree it is achievable to deepen the knowledge, which scientific terms should be introduced and mastered at the respective age, and the phase of psychological and physiological development of the students. There is no comprehension of the need of a specialized competent institution, which should determine to what extent the taught school content corresponds to the average age cognitive development and the demands to comply with them. The criteria are worked out by undoubted experts in the respective field of science, who however have insufficient knowledge as regards the

psychic peculiarities of development of the young people at the different phases, and the potential boundaries of successful teaching.

The contradiction between two of the main principle of the methodology of education, namely scientific character and accessibility (simplicity), has always been a weak spot in the theory of teaching both for teachers and theoreticians, which select the school content as bulk, systematization and way of presentation. If the stress is on the scientific character, it almost never be assessable to all students, if, on the opposite, the scientific level of the school content is low, in order to be easily accessible, then it may lose the connection with the science. It is a fact that teachers themselves admit the difficulty of the studied material, but not in their own field. Undoubtedly they are professionals used to their terminology that is why it is difficult for them to understand the efforts of the students, however, in their position as parents they are surprised by the requirements to their children on the rest of the subjects. It is a funny situation, probably because we are not able to put ourselves in the place of others and have a perception of the world through their eyes and knowledge, which is a sign of lack of some basic social competences. The solution to this interesting case requires at the same time an expert in a scientific field, as well as a pedagogue, capable of mastering the methodology of teaching, an expert psychologist with deep knowledge of psychology of development, and desirably a philosopher with a view on the philosophy of science.

Education is not among the priorities of the philosophic science as a subject of discussion and research, but in its essence as philosophy of life in reality, philosophy is like an endless search, passing-on and sharing of knowledge and concepts, in fact it is mutual education. Some of the well-known and leading philosophers have shared their views on education. I will point out two of them, for whom the practical preparation is a leading activity in the teaching and education process. Immanuel Kant, a representative of the classical German philosophy, has shared his experience in the not so well-known but very valuable work „The Contest of Faculties”. In his opinion, it is more important to teach the students to think than present to them the ready knowledge, giving as an example the Socrates dialog. Kant underlines that undoubtedly this method of teaching is a very slow process, but it is worth the effort, and even more worth the result.

The other philosopher that I can't miss is the American pragmatist John Dewey, who dedicated his whole work „Experience as Basis of Teaching” to the necessity and benefit to every piece of knowledge to be directly connected with experience and practical skills, which should be mastered even in the very process of teaching.

Extending the teaching activity with cases, discussions, exercises at the expense of too much theoretical details, which are specific and more-suitable for a higher degree of education, has the chances to provoke interest in the students. Together with the changes in the school content, the methods of teaching should

also be adapted, including observation, research and analysis of the facts. The quoted approaches are part also of the scientific methods, which can possibly interest the students, as they require their participation as researchers, and not as passive listeners.

The strict academic style of teaching and education, which prevails in the Bulgarian schools, does not offer conditions for provoking interest and motivation for achievement in the life of students. For the majority of pupils the motivation is external – whether for the score, or because of pressure from the parents. More and more often we see uninterested students, who go to school only to have fun and in this way create a fashion of irresponsibility with a nihilistic twang. This is not a problem only for Bulgaria, which is not to calm us down, but to give a signal that we need change and new approach to the educational process.

Psychology can and should find a way to solve the stalemate, which endangers all participants in the teaching and education process. In the upper grades the growing-ups are creative and seeking personalities, who react spontaneously and sincerely, to them the traditional pedagogical methods are limited and unsuitable, the students in the adolescence period are able to think rationally, to take decisions independently, they need to be respected and to express themselves. It is high time that we, their teachers and educators, ask ourselves whether we realize their needs, the objectives and tasks of their age, and whether and how we can respond to them, helping them in the search of their unique identity, and at the same time making them literate and educated.

There are attempts to discredit the young generation, referring to the change of values because of the political and social changes in the country. Yes, there certainly is a difference, but it has more positive aspects for the young people because it gives them the freedom to express their necessities and ask for their satisfaction, to give their feedback to every attempt to educate them. Here is a chance for psychology to decode and explain these messages, to generalize them and scientifically provide a reply as to where and how to coordinate in an optimal way the interests of all participants in the education process.

A survey conducted with 600 students from Sofia secondary schools with extended teaching of foreign languages has established the preferences to the subject of psychology, which probably reflects the interest to the inner world; psychology touches the personal quests of students, considers their relations to the surrounding people and to the parents, and in this way touches on critical and exciting topics for the respective age period.

Beside the concepts of famous scientists, it is good to provide space for personal opinion and examples, which present the concept or idea in real life and in the attitude of people; to convince the students that experience and science are a systematic description and explanation of real human behavior and its grounds.

The students should discover for themselves the science in the surrounding world thanks to the competences by which knowledge makes them stronger and abler.

The social objectives regarding the development and obtaining skills and competences by the growing-ups in the process of psychology teaching can be: distinguishing personal peculiarities, their own and those of the people around, recognition, balancing and coordination of emotions and moods, positive and objective acceptance of one's own personality and respect for the personalities of the people around, acknowledgement of the strong and weak sides in one's character, building strategies for studying, work, fun, for development and perfection, recognition and decoding of non-verbal signals, setting targets and purposefulness of the efforts for reaching the targets, formation of communication skills, development of language culture, justification and reference to authorities, skills for listening and hearing the signals of others, for adequate response and acceptance of another person's viewpoint, for achieving empathy, for showing tolerance and understanding of differences, for successful self-government, capability of taking responsibility and defending one's own position, for making choices on rational grounds, and not only on emotions.

In the primary school the main tasks are to create habits to learn and work, reaching the main objective – making the children literate. In the first grades of secondary school the main tasks are more in number and related to accumulation of knowledge about nature, science and human creations. In the upper grades of secondary school, the objectives and tasks acquire a broader context and include, beside the accumulation of knowledge, the building-up of social and civil competences.

For most students the secondary school is the last stage of education, and it is very important what they have built and achieved as persons and as members of society during that period, what their opinion on the world is and how they perceive the world and the people around, if they able to build successful relations with other people, how they fit in and feel inside the world of grown-ups. The teaching shapes up growing and achieving maturity, the responsibility and challenges are enormous and worth the effort.

CAREER COUNSELING OF PHD STUDENTS – SPECIFICITIES, CURRENT STATE AND PERSPECTIVES

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Abstract. *Career counseling is a substantial part of contemporary education. It contributes to establishment and development of the link between science and business practice. This kind of support to students' choice of career path is different, in dependence on the target group it is orientated towards. Career counseling of PhD students is an issue, characterized by series of specificities, which differentiate it from counseling of University students. PhD students are highly qualified young experts, which have made once a specialized career choice and need a particular attention, in order to continue their career and make an effective transfer of their knowledge to practice and society. The current state of this issue in Bulgaria is described. Some perspectives for future development of career counseling of PhD students are outlined.*

Keywords: *career counseling; career center; knowledge-based society; lifelong learning; PhD students; networking.*

INTRODUCTION

Career counseling is a practice, which importance is recognized worldwide. In the last years, due to series of initiatives, it became a substantial part of contemporary education in Bulgaria, too. Almost all universities have career centers, where professional counselors develop variety of activities and initiatives, oriented to support the students in planning their career, making the right career choice, finding a practice or a first job, etc. The career counseling is popularized

in schools, too, by means of the focused activity of the school psychologists. The Regional Information and Cultural Centers for Youths also offer the possibility of career counseling to interested young people.

There are a lot of possibilities for career counseling for adult people, too. Career counseling for workers is present in many of the large contemporary organizations, as a part of the activities of Human Resources department. The Regional Employment Service Directorates and private HR Counseling Companies offer career counseling services to registered unemployed and clients.

Obviously a large part of the studying, working and unemployed population can benefit from career counseling services. There is however a specific target group, which was not mentioned and which needs a special attention. Possibilities for specialized career counseling for people, who are oriented to a PhD career, are still not popularized. This group is not very numerous, but is formed by highly educated, motivated and mostly young people – the basic agents of knowledge transfer to business practice and hence, the main builders of the knowledge-based society in Bulgaria. Moreover, it has to be emphasized, that nowadays, in the actual conditions of economic crisis in Bulgaria, the choice of PhD career is considered a reasonable long-term investment in education and lifelong learning.

Stages of career counseling of PhD students

The career counseling of PhD students should be carried out in a Career Centers specialized, according the needs of this specific target groups. This counseling could be differentiated into the following three main stages, in dependence of particularities of the target subgroups.

Career counseling of people, who would like to apply for a PhD position

In this stage the main questions of potential or vacillating applicants are related to an important decision:

- ❖ *“Am I a suitable person for a PhD career?”*
- ❖ *“What are the essence and perspectives of PhD career”*
- ❖ *“What kind of personal and professional qualities are required for a successful PhD career?”*

The basic steps of the career counselor should be centered on:

- **general information collection** – discussion of demographic data, education, practice and work background of the applicant;
- **problem formulation** – clear definition of the main problem, the personal attitude towards it, the available support (social, information and financial resources) and coping strategies of the applicant;

- **assessment making** – study of the basic transferable skills, interests, value system, personal qualities and necessities of the applicant, in order to help him/her to see in the next step more clearly the “match points” of this profile and requirements for a satisfactory and successful development of PhD career;
- **information seeking** – assessment of the level of information of the applicant; offer of general information on the PhD career; help the applicant to generate ideas how to obtain a more specific and detailed information on the issue, he/she is interested in, that is to say – a stimulation of development of networking skills;
- **action plan creation** – definition of the aim, the basic steps to its achievement and the terms for accomplishment of these sub aims.

As additional sources of support of potential applicants could be organized **Regular Information Days** for presentation and discussion of general and more specific information on actual PhD positions. The on-line presentation, by means of a **specialized website**, of this information could be very useful, too.

The final result of the consultations and events should be a **definite decision making of the applicant to apply or not to apply for a PhD position**.

Career counseling of people, who have successfully obtained a PhD position and ARE working on their thesis

The main questions PhD students are interested in this stage are more varying and could be formulated as follows:

- ‡ *“How to develop the creativity and analytical thinking (inclusively – the effective processing of databases of literature), required for the successful completion of a PhD thesis?”*
- ‡ *“How to improve my communication and presentation skills?”*
- ‡ *“How to be more effective in educational and professional networking on local and international level?”*
- ‡ *“How to cope with the challenges of PhD career – keep the high level of motivation and fight the routine?”*
- ‡ *“What are the possibilities for additional studies, courses and practices for PhD students?”*

The sequence of individual consultation process in all three stages is similar. The specificity of this stage is that an accent could be put on organization of **small group trainings** for stimulation of development of the above cited skills and qualities.

The lifelong learning opportunities for PhD students could be popularized by means of **Regular Information Days** and a constant update of a specific section of the Career Center **website**.

The result obtained after the consultation and training processes and organized events should be **highly motivated, well informed and skilled young experts, successfully coping with PhD career and ready to cope with future challenges of the labour market.**

Career counseling of people, who have obtained or are going to obtain in the immediate future a PhD degree

This third and last stage of career counseling of PhD students is the most crucial in relation to the process of development of a knowledge-based society. The role of the counselors is to support the transfer of knowledge to business practice and to participate actively in the prevention of the brain-drain process.

The main questions, which PhD would like to know the answer, are oriented to an important new future stage in their lives:

- ❖ *“What should I do – to continue the scientific career, to choose the business practice or to seek some kind of intermediate variant?”*
- ❖ *“How to apply for a job, by means of a successful self-marketing of my specific education and skills?”*
- ❖ *“How to cope with the stress and frustration, during the period of job-seeking?”*

The development of successful self-marketing, improvement of networking skills and stress coping strategies could be realized in **small group trainings**. The role of the career counselor is centered also in offering a large variety of actual information to PhD students, by means of **Regular Information Days** for a successful preparation of a portfolio and presentation at a work interview. Other substantial part of the activity of this counselor is the organization of **Official Career Days** for presentations, discussions and meetings with employers. The information for portfolio writing and actual vacant practice and work positions should be published on the Career Center **website**.

The final result of the consultations and events organized should be a **definite career choice and successful application for a practice or work position of the PhD student or graduated.**

CAREER COUNSELING OF PHD STUDENTS AND NETWORKING

The description of the specialized career counseling of PhD students demonstrates, that the **networking skills** are an important issue in all three stages of the counseling. Of course, the networking is a skill, which development is highly valued and recommendable for all target groups of career counseling (studying, working and unemployed people). The particular importance of networking for PhD students,

in spite of being useful for career choice, is close related to their constant need to exchange recent and reliable scientific or related to business practice information, in order to produce sustainable scientific products (See Table 1).

TABLE 1. Dimensions of networking in PhD students career

Stage of career counseling of PhD students	Main task of the PhD students	Activities, that require networking skills	Useful networks
Career counseling of people, who would like to apply for a PhD position	To decide to apply or not to apply for a PhD position	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – To collect and compare information, in order to make the optimal career choice – To make a successful self-marketing, in order to achieve a good first impression to the potential tutor of thesis and colleagues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – scientific staff – PhD applicants – PhD students – PhD graduated
Career counseling of people, who have successfully obtained a PhD position and are working on their thesis	To be highly motivated, well informed and skilled young experts, successfully coping with PhD career and ready to cope with future challenges of the labour market	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – To find useful information about lifelong learning opportunities in scientific and personal sphere – To make a successful self-marketing, in order to build stable contacts with other scientists and experts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – scientific staff (in the country and abroad) – PhD students (in the country and abroad) – PhD graduated (in the country and abroad) – scientific organizations and associations – expert authorities for additional studies, courses and practices for PhD students (in the country and abroad) – organizers of trainings, seminars and forums in the area of scientific and personal interest (in the country and abroad)

<p style="writing-mode: vertical-rl; transform: rotate(180deg);">Career counseling of people, who have obtained or are going to obtain in the immediate future a PhD degree</p>	<p>To make s definite career choice and successfully apply for a practice or work position</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To seek and weigh up information, in order to make again the optimal career choice - To make a successful self-marketing, in order to provoke the interest of potential employers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - scientific staff (in the country and abroad) - PhD graduated (in the country and abroad) - scientific organizations and associations (in the country and abroad) - organizers of career forums in the area of scientific interest (in the country and abroad) - HR experts in recruitment agencies (in the country and abroad) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - informal networks – friends, excolleagues, etc. (in the country and abroad)
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The importance of networking for PhD career is obvious. Hence a special attention to the essence and training of networking skills will be dedicated.

NETWORKING – ESSENCE AND PRINCIPLES FOR SUCCESS

In the era of boundaryless careers and work environment, with individuals making frequent career moves within and across organizations and the fact that the responsibility for one’s career has shifted from the organization to the individual, networking is seen as a critical competency for career and personal success (Janasz & Forret, 2008).

The networking could be defined as “building up contacts and maintaining them on the internal and external job market, aimed at career development” (Cit. Kuijpers & Scheerens, 2006, p. 313).

According to Forret & Dougherty “networking represents proactive attempts by individuals to develop and maintain personal and professional relationships with others for the purpose of mutual benefit in their work or career” (See Janasz & Forret, 2008, p. 630).

In a survey of Dutch employees the networking is proved to be one of the 6 career factors and competencies of career self-management, relevant for career development, together with career development ability, reflection on capacities, reflection on motives, work exploration and career control (Kuijpers & Scheerens, 2006).

T. Clark stresses that effective networking involves a full use of people, print and electronic tools. The author formulates six basic principles of successful networking, as follows (Clark, 2009):

1. Do face-to-face networking at every opportunity

- be proactive and ready with a distinctive business card, because opportunities can appear anytime, anywhere, inclusively in the more unexpected informal setting;
- consider face-to-face networking at conferences, forums, courses and meetings of professional associations.

2. Get your name into print so you can be found with search engines

- write articles for specialized journals or business newspapers;
- maintain a website, that offers valuable scientific and practical information to interested readers.

3. Be a perceptive reader and listener

- seek first to understand and then to be understood;
- develop a questioning strategy to receive a maximum amount of information.

4. Convince others of your value

- obtain and present recommendations (credentials), highlighting the most positive qualities, related to a specific opportunity;
- be able to give a specific example that shows how your professional and personal skills have been put into practice.

5. Be the person others would like to work with

- pursue interpersonal objectives at the same time as business objectives, because people like optimistic, friendly, reliable, honest and hardworking persons, hence it is recommendable to smile, use a positive vocabulary, take notes, dress neatly and be polite;
- follow strictly all promises, send “thank you notes” and return phone calls promptly.

6. Keep good records

- keep contact information (telephones, e-mails, etc.) in well arranged database, including both business and personal details (birthdays, interests and hobbies);

- join a professional organizations and networking websites (LinkedIn, Business Networking International, Facebook groups, specialized on-line forums, etc.), in order to make personal talents known to present and future contacts. In relation to this advice of Clark, an opposite opinion exists, too. According to Burt’s structural hole theory, if members of a someone’s network do not know one another, they are more likely to provide him/her access to diverse information (See Janasz & Forret, 2008).

HOW TO TRAIN NETWORKING SKILLS

Many people find the idea of networking uncomfortable, avoid situations, related to making useful social contacts and prefer to stay invisible to others. Usually these people are more introverted and have a low self-esteem, due to lack of confidence in their personal skills. The networking skills could be compared with the athletic ability, for example, where some individuals have more “natural talent” than others, but these “talent” can be developed through education, practice and feedback.

Janasz & Forret present a brief group training (the group should not be larger than 25 persons), compounded by the following serie of exercises for building awareness of the importance of networking and for develop networking skills (Janasz & Forret, 2008):

Introduction: Demystifying the notion of networking

- clarify to participants the goals and value of networking;
- build, by means of examples, participants’ confidence in these skills, they unknowingly have actually practiced in everyday life;
- explain to participants potential benefits of networking;
- ask participants to share personal examples or successes resulting from networking;

After this introduction, participants are ready and motivated to the following process of learning.

Exercise 1: The handshake exercise

- reintroduce participants to the importance and implications of the simple gesture of handshake;
- ask participants to “greet” and shake hands with all individuals in the group;
- discuss with participants the verbal and nonverbal behavior of others, their proper feelings and emotions, differences of experiences with each partners, conclusions for the personality of these partners, according to the way of handshake;

- inform participants about the typical kinds of greeting in different groups, according to culture, gender, etc.;
- explain to participants, that the handshake is important, because it helps to form first impressions, establishes a physical contact and is the accepted business greeting in most countries in the world.

Exercise 2: The career fair/“30-second commercial“

- stress, that an important skill for effective networking is the ability to articulate who you are, what you offer and what you are looking for – a specific information about individual needs, desires and marketable skills;
- give participants helpful advices how to make successful self-presentations;
- ask participants to imagine they were attending a career fair and noticed a representative of a firm at which they would like to work someday. In response of his greeting, they have to make a brief (30-second), but notable introduction of themselves, their particular skills, experience and interests. Their goal would be to provoke the representative to ask additional questions, in order to learn more about the participant. The “employer” can give feedback to the “applicant” during the “commercial” and he/she could revise it;
- discuss the exercise process with participants and stress, that most of the “commercials” may be used when using non-face-to-face networking methods, too;
- explain to participants the goals of this exercise – to reduce the fear of networking by practice in a nonthreatening environment, to indicate the strength and weak sides of the individual “commercial”, by means of the feedback from the partners, to provide an opportunity for partnered learning and exchange of ideas.

Exercise 3: Networking simulation–utilizing networking skills to make connections

- stimulate participants to build on their previously practiced skills (a firm handshake and eye contact, articulating a 30-second commercial) in a simulated event that requires “speed” networking;
- ask participants to imagine, that they are attending an event of the alumni club and distribute to each of them previously a handout with a particular role (and aim), he/she has to perform there. Then, give them approximately 15–20 minutes to network at this event, to make a positive impression, even if the people with whom they connect are of no immediate “use” to them. Instruct them to ask politely the “unuseful” participants to direct them to others who may be able to provide what is being requested;

- inform participants, that it could be differentiated two kinds of networkers – self-oriented and focused on others. In the short-term, both types of networkers may get what they want, but in the long-term, those who are focused on others are more successful;
- discuss with participants the outcome of the realized networking, the process, the new lessons learned and general affect.

Exercise 4: Networking quiz

- give participants to fill in a quiz (with checkmarks) to examine how much they are networking and where they are currently focusing their networking efforts (on organization, profession and community level). Hence, based on their career goals, they can examine whether their networking efforts are targeted appropriately;
- ask participants who have the most checkmarks how they became involved in networking, how maintain it and how their networking has benefited them;
- ask participants who have few checkmarks what prevents them from engaging in networking and give them more advices and examples of the efficiency of networking;
- discuss a variety of possibilities of groups, organizations or clubs, where participants could join, according to their needs and interests.

Networking is considered “a key human capital skill that is unique in its ability to increase an individual’s social capital” (Cit. Janasz & Forret, 2008, p. 630). In contemporary competitive and global environment, those who do not learn how to network will fall behind. Presented training demonstrates, that these skills can be learned and then applied in a variety of contexts. For shy people, networking can be achieved through means other than face-to-face, such as an e-mail or letter. After confidence and competence increase, these approaches can be combined with more direct methods, such as meetings and conferences. Networking takes conscious and constant effort, because networking relationships are built on trust which takes time to develop. Moreover, these relationships not only need to be built, but also need to be maintained properly to be effective.

CONCLUSIONS

Career counseling services in Bulgaria develop in a fast and successful way and try to satisfy necessities of the target groups it is oriented to. Nevertheless, there is a not numerous, but very important target group, which has remained aside of these processes – the group of PhD students, the youngest builders of the implementation of scientific progress into business practice. These experts are the

holders of modern scientific achievements and have a crucial role in development of the knowledge-based society in the country. Hence, there is an increased necessity to be provided a specialized career counseling of PhD students, accentuating on the development of useful professional and personal qualities (including the popular and valued networking skills), that facilitate the future transfer and application of their knowledge.

The development of a specific career counseling practice, oriented to support of career paths of PhD students, is the aim of the Career Center of the Training and Development Center of the Bulgarian Academy of Sciences. Currently, the Career Center is in process of implementation of a specialized programme for counseling of PhD students.

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PSYCHOLOGY STUDENTS AND THE BOLOGNA PROCESS: STUDENTS' OPINIONS ABOUT CAREER RELATED ISSUES

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Abstract. *In accordance with Bologna process and European Diploma in Psychology, Department of Psychology (Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade), has been changing programs of studies over the last few years. The aim of the study was to assess whether new, more practice oriented curriculum better answered students' career related needs. A sample of 156 undergraduate psychology students, in the third year (enrolled in the first cycle of restructured four-year Bologna programs) and fourth year of studies (enrolled in integrated pre-Bologna studies) responded to the questionnaire about career related information, expectations, and needs. Results showed that students did not have enough employment related information, nor information about education and professional trainings, and education abroad. Majority expressed strong need to hear more about possible jobs after graduation (95%), find profession related student job (90%), get in the contact with practicing psychologists (85%), get information about professional trainings (79%), and studies abroad (72%). There were no differences between those who studied older pre-Bologna and newer 'Bologna/EuroPsy' programs. The results suggest that programs of undergraduate studies should include capstone courses that will integrate students' academic and practical/internship experience and focus on career related issues and, thus, make them better prepared for further studies/profession.*

Keywords: *psychology students; need for career services; Bologna process; transitional economy.*

INTRODUCTION

This paper is part of a more comprehensive, longer term action research project which we designed aiming to initiate development of the career guidance and counselling at Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade, Serbia. Faculty of Philosophy, the first and the oldest faculty in Serbia, was established in 1838 (Mihaljic, 1998). It is a state owned faculty and it encompasses ten academic departments – Philosophy, Pedagogy, Classical Studies, History, Psychology, History of Art, Archaeology, Sociology, Andragogy, Ethnology and Anthropology, thus with majority of the liberal arts students.

The context of the higher education in Serbia is marked by the Bologna process that goes along the transition from the socialist, state planned to the market economy. Serbia joined other European countries in Trans-European process aiming at the creation of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) in September 2003 at the Berlin Conference of the European Ministers of Education (Berlin Communiqué, 2003). Thus, it made commitment, together with all other European countries, to make concrete progress in establishing the student centred methodology of teaching, develop quality assurance systems and advance the issue of the recognition of diplomas. Consequently, the new Law on Higher Education was enacted in 2005 (*Zakon o visokom obrazovanju*, 2005). In 2005/06 academic year all study programs at the Faculty of Philosophy were restructured in accordance with the Bologna Process and the new Law. Today, there are 30 new programs at all levels of studies (i.e. three-tier structure of studies – undergraduate, master and PhD studies), which were fully accredited in 2009 by the Agency for Accreditation in Higher Education. Additionally, Department of Psychology (Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade), has been changing programs of studies in accordance with the European Diploma in Psychology (Lunt et al., 2001; Bartram et al., 2003).

The role of career services in the higher education institutions, in the context of Bologna Process, should be to equip students with the competence they will need in the workplace and that the workplace will require.

The aim of the study was to explore students' opinions about preparations for the career and to assess whether new, more practice oriented curriculum better answered their career related needs.

METHOD

The sample consisted of 156 undergraduate psychology students. Majority of the students, 79.2% of the sample enrolled at the Faculty in the period 2003–2006, and they were enrolled in the first cycle of restructured four-year Bologna programs, in the third year, and in the fourth year of studies (enrolled in integrated pre-Bologna studies). There were 85.3% female students. About one fifth, 22.1%

had Career management course. Students completed a self-administered questionnaire during their class time or while they were reading in the library (participation in the study was completely voluntary, i.e. not for a credit).

We developed a questionnaire to assess students' career related needs empirically, based on homework assignments and in-class discussions with psychology students who took Career management course. Besides required reading for the course, as the preparation for the class discussions and homeworks students presented a number of university career centres and some relevant research papers (such as Chartrand, Robbins, Morrill & Boggs, 1990). In the questionnaire we also asked about the background data: gender, department (i.e. study programme), year of studies, enrolment year, and average mark. Besides two one-item measures (need for advising about the choice of programme module, need for 'one stop' information about studies and career), and some items about emotional reactions that are not reported in this paper, we developed two scales: 16-item Career information and job expectations scale (Cronbach's Alpha coefficient 0.880), and eight-item Need for career services scale (Alpha coefficient 0.829). Data were analyzed using SPSS.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

CAREER INFORMATION AND JOB EXPECTATIONS SCALE

Principal components analysis (PCA) extracted four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The scree test confirmed the four-factor solution that accounted for 62.02% of variance. Factor loadings obtained after oblimin rotation are shown in Table 1.

First factor represents Education related information. It accounted for 18.83% of variance. Second factor is Clarity of job expectations (accounted for 17.84% of variance). Third factor is Education abroad related information (accounted for 13.57% of variance). Fourth factor is employment related information and expectations (accounted for 11.74% of variance).

Results showed that students did not have enough employment related information, nor information about education and professional trainings, and education abroad. Their job expectations are less clear.

Among students of the third year, there is a difference on one factor – education related information. Those who study the new programme ($M = 3.23$, $SD = 0.73$) are better informed about the education needed for further studies and professional work than students of the older integrated programme ($M = 2.74$, $SD = 0.99$), $t(50) = 2.01$, $p = .05$ (two-tailed).

There were no differences between those who studied the older pre-Bologna and the newer 'Bologna/EuroPsy' programs.

TABLE 1. CAREER INFORMATION AND JOB EXPECTATIONS SCALE: ITEMS, FACTOR LOADINGS, AND PERCENTAGE REPORTING AGREEMENT

Item	Loading	'Agree' and 'Strongly agree' %
Factor 1: Education related information		
I have all the information I need to make a choice of master studies.	.831	21.4
I have information about postgraduate studies.	.700	41.6
I have all the information I need to choose elective courses and/or modules on undergraduate studies.	.696	23.0
I am informed about the knowledge and abilities that are necessary for my future profession.	.561	54.2
I know what I have to do (additional training, practice work and alike) to get the job I would like to do.	.350	48.7
Factor 2: Clarity of job expectations		
After graduating I think I will work on a job in my field.	.786	79.7
I am absolutely confident in my decision about studies and future profession.	.786	53.6
I know precisely what I want to do after graduating.	.688	38.3
Factor 3: Education abroad related information		
I am informed about the options for continuing my studies abroad.	.825	9.7
I am informed about harmonization of our studies with the studies in Europe.	.819	9.7
I am informed about possible earnings after graduating (and working in my profession).	.517	24.2
Factor 4: Employment related information and expectations		
I have enough information about the jobs which I could get with undergraduate diploma.	.849	46.8
I am informed about the content of various jobs that I could do after graduating.	.780	41.6
I am informed about employment possibilities after completing studies.	.740	52.6
I have a clear idea about jobs I can do after graduating.	.607	45.5
I believe there will be no problem to get the job that I want.	.512	27.3

NEED FOR CAREER SERVICES

Vast majority, 95.7% of students said they would like to find all education and career related information at one place. Also, two thirds (67.5%) expressed need for advising about the choice of the programme module (new programme offers four modules: clinical, educational, work and organizational, and research).

Third year 'Bologna' students expressed greater need for help in preparing the CV and for the job interview than 'Pre-Bologna' students (t -tests two-tailed $p = 0.00$), probably as a result of Career management course.

TABLE 2. NEED FOR CAREER SERVICES: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS THAT NEED HELP

Service	'Need' and 'Need a great deal' %
Getting in contact with the experts from the practice	85.7
Getting information about professional training, lectures and seminars	78.6
Getting information about domestic and foreign scholarships	76.6
Preparing for the job interview	67.5
Getting information about the volunteering options	66.7
Getting information about the student exchange	61.4
Getting information about the dates and locations of job fairs	53.2
Preparing the CV	53.2

CONCLUSION

Barring in mind that our psychology students are in the (epi)centre of their education transition in transitioning society, it is no surprise that they are in a great need of information both about the studies and future jobs. There is a confusion among students of older, integrated 'Pre-Bologna' programme, as they don't know whether the 'new rules' are valid for them as well. The confusion is most prominent in the area of professional education for older students that were less efficient (i.e. repeated one or more years) and thus, are going to enter the job market at the same time as the students of the new program.

The results suggest that programs of undergraduate studies should include capstone courses that will integrate students' academic and practical/internship experience and focus on the career related issues and, thus, make them better prepared for further studies/profession.

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PERFECTIONISM, SELF-ESTEEM AND SYMPTOMS OF DEPRESSION IN SERBIAN AND MACEDONIAN STUDENTS

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Abstract. *Perfectionism attracted the attention of researchers because of its role in making someone's potential into performance which is especially important in nowadays competitive society. Perfectionism is defined as high standards of performance with the accompanying predisposition to be self-critical, according to Frost, Marten, Lahart and Rosenblate (1990). This research is aimed at comparing the level of perfectionism, global self-esteem and symptoms of depression in Serbian and Macedonian students. The other question we posed was: what is the relationship between self-esteem and depression, on the one hand, and positive aspects (PS-personal standards, O-organization) and negative aspects of perfectionism (CM-concern over mistakes, PE-parental expectations, PC-parental criticism, D-doubts about actions), on the other hand? The Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (FMPS), State Self-Esteem scale and Beck' Depression Inventory were used to measure these constructs. The research sample consisted of 100 students, aged 19–22, studying Psychology at The Faculty of Philosophy in Nis (Serbia) and Skopje (Macedonia). The correlation analysis proved that maladaptive aspects of perfectionism (CM, PE, PC, D) were negatively related to global self-esteem and they were also positively related to depression in students' sample. The research findings are discussed in the light of cultural differences.*

Keywords: *perfectionism; self-esteem; depression; students; cross-cultural research.*

INTRODUCTION

There is no universally accepted definition of “perfectionism”. Perfectionism is usually considered a relatively stable personality characteristics. This construct attracted the attention of researchers especially throughout last three decades because of its role in making someone’s potential into performance. “Striving for excellence” is a well-known school moto. Educators try to instal such an aspiration in their students and motivate them to work to their best abilities. Striving for excellence, however, is often misconstrued as striving for perfection.

Historically, perfectionism was viewed as unidimensional, characterised by its negative features. For instance, early researchers such as Ellis (1962) and Burns (1980) emphasize the association between perfectionism and dysfunctional thoughts, feelings and psychopathology. Pacht (1984) views perfectionism as an inherently destructive pursuit of the unattainable which maintains people in turmoil and is related to psychological maladjustment. Burns (1980) shares this view, seeing perfectionism as a compulsive pursuit of impossible goals. That is why perfectionism was often connected to depression, suicide tendencies, eating disorders and some other psychopathological phenomenon.

Hamachek (1978) describes *two types of perfectionism* – the normal and the neurotic. *Normal perfectionists* are those who derive pleasure from doing well something that is difficult (and important for them). *Neurotic perfectionists* are those unable to experience pleasure as a result of their efforts, because they never feel their accomplishments are good enough. According to Hamachek’s view, normal perfectionism is not only nonpathological but is also desirable, for it is a component of achievement needs and self-actualizing tendencies.

More recently, increasing evidence has emerged to support a multidimensional view of perfectionism, in which both positive and negative aspects are incorporated. The model developed by Hewitt and Flett (1991) encompasses the source and direction of perfectionism. They argue that we should distinguish three dimensions of perfectionism, namely: “Self-oriented perfectionism” (refers to setting high personal standards for one to achieve), “Socially-prescribed perfectionism” (refers to perceived high expectations from significant others) and “Other-oriented perfectionism” (refers to setting high expectations for significant others to achieve). Despite the diverse conceptualization of the construct, it has been generally agreed that perfectionism is a personality construct characterised by the striving for flawlessness and setting high standards (Flett & Hewitt, 2002).

Frost, Martin, Lahart and Rosenblate (1990) also believe that perfectionism is a multidimensional construct but they considered that there are six dimensions of perfectionism, based on an extensive review of the literature. These dimensions are: “Concern over mistakes”, “Doubts about actions”, “Parental expectations”, “Parental criticism”, “Personal standards” and “Organization”. Frost et al. (1993) compared the perfectionism dimensions identified by their FMPS and Hewitt and

Flett's MPS and yielded two higher factors: "Maladaptive evaluation concern" and "Positive achievement striving".

In Serbia has been done little empirical research to perfectionism. So far, a comparative study of the structure of perfectionism of the Serbian and American children was made (Stojiljkovic, Maksic & Ristic, 1998). Also, the relationships between personality traits and perfectionism were investigated (Stojiljkovic, Duskovic & Todorovic, 2007).

METHOD

PROBLEM AND AIMS

There are three main aims of our research:

To compare the level of perfectionism and self-esteem and the incidence of symptoms of depression in Serbian and Macedonian students,

To determine what is the connection between positive as well as negative aspects of perfectionism, on the one hand, and self-esteem and depressive symptoms in students, on the other hand,

To investigate what is the structure of students' perfectionism, whether in form is more like a healthy or like dysfunctional perfectionism.

PARTICIPANTS

The sample consisted of 100 students, aged 19–22, mostly females, studying Psychology at The Faculty of Philosophy in Nis, Serbia and Institute for Psychology in Skopje, Macedonia.

INSTRUMENTS

Perfectionism, defined as high standards of performance with the accompanying predisposition to be self-critical, was measured by FMPS (Frost, Marten, Lahart & Rosenblate, 1990). Serbian version of this instrument was adapted in The Institute for Educational Research in Belgrade, by Stojiljkovic, Maksic and Ristic (1998).

FMPS (Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale) consisted of 35 items, five-point Likerts' type, and produces an overall perfectionism score as well as six subscores: CM ("I should be upset if I have a mistake"), PS ("I set higher goals than most people"), PE ("My parents expect excellence from me"), PC ("My parents never try to understand my mistakes"), D ("It takes me a long time to do something 'right'"), O ("I try to be an organized person").

SSES – State Self-esteem scale (Heatherton and Polivy, 1991) – consisted of 20 items, intended to measure self-esteem and its three aspects: Performance

Self-esteem, Social Self-esteem, and Appearance Self-esteem. It is possible to use an overall score also.

Beck' Depression Inventory, consisted of 21 items, is widely used instrument for the measurement of the frequency of depressive symptoms.

RESULTS

TABLE 1. PERFECTIONISM: MEAN SCORES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SERBIAN AND MACEDONIAN STUDENTS

Aspects of Perfectionism	Depart. of Psychology, Nis, Serbia		Inst. of Psychology, Skopje, Macedonia		Differences' Significance level
	M	SD	M	SD	
CM	15.86	5.29	20.65	4.80	.000
PS	21.88	4.745	24.56	3.71	.002
PE	9.34	4.05	12.70	4.66	.000
PC	5.70	2.15	8.50	3.87	.000
D	7.68	2.71	10.70	3.38	.000
O	23.90	6.095	24.86	4.62	.377
FMPS-Total	60.46	13.33	77.10	12.68	.000
N	50		50		

Table 1 shows the structure of perfectionism in Serbian and Macedonian students' sample. Serbian students scored lower than Macedonian ones on following aspects of perfectionism: CM, PS, PE, PC, D. They did not differ significantly only on Organization. Consequently, Macedonian sample shows higher level of overall perfectionism. Moreover the differences among them were the result of greater prominence of the negative aspects (such as CM, PE, PC, D) of the perfectionism in Macedonian students.

Table 2 shows that Serbian students were characterised by higher scores on State Self-esteem Scale, overall and in its aspects. On the contrary, the incidence of symptoms of depression in Macedonian students were higher than in Serbian students' sample. All of differences were statistically significant.

Reliability tests showed that used instruments and subscales have satisfactory reliability, which range from 0.67 to 0.91 (Cronbach's Alfa was .88, .89 and .91 for FMPS, SSES and BDI respectively). Similar results were obtained by other researchers (Parker & Adkins, 1995).

TABLE 2. SELF-ESTEEM AND DEPRESSION: MEAN SCORES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SERBIAN AND MACEDONIAN STUDENTS

Self-esteem and Depression	Dept. of Psychology, Nis, Serbia		Inst. of Psychology, Skopje, Macedonia		Differences' Significance level
	M	SD	M	SD	
Performance Self-esteem	31.22	3.47	26.50	4.07	.000
Social Self-esteem	31.14	3.60	25.18	3.685	.000
Appearance Self-esteem	24.68	4.08	22.86	3.64	.021
State Self-esteem (SSES)	87.04	9.26	74.54	8.71	.000
Depression (BDI)	8.62	7.56	16.66	8.59	.000
N	50		50		

TABLE 3. PERFECTIONISM, SELF-ESTEEM AND DEPRESSION CORRELATIONS

Aspects of perfectionism		State Self-esteem scale	Beck' Depression Inventory
CM-Concern over Mistakes	r	-.638	.546
	Sig.	.000	.000
PS-Personal Standards	r	-.152	.060
	Sig.	.130	.552
PE-Parental Expectations	r	-.390	.316
	Sig.	.000	.001
PC-Parental Criticism	r	-.531	.502
	Sig.	.000	.000
D-Doubts about actions	r	-.590	.559
	Sig.	.000	.000
O-Organization	r	-.025	-.031
	Sig.	.804	.756
FMPS Total	r	-.640	.545
	Sig.	.000	.000

Table 3 shows that statistically significant negative correlation between perfectionism and self-esteem was found (**-.640****), as well as positive correlation was found between depression and perfectionism (**.545****). Precisely, State Self-esteem is negatively correlated to following aspects of Perfectionism: CM (**-.638****), PE (**-.390****), PC (**-.531****), D (**-.590****).

The incidence of symptoms of depression in Serbian and Macedonian students were positively correlated to the following aspects of Perfectionism: CM (.546**), PE (.316**), PC (.502**), D (.559**).

CONCLUSIONS

Comparative investigation of the prominence of perfectionism, self-esteem and depression showed that the sample of students from Serbia statistically significantly differ from the sample of Macedonian students.

Serbian students have significantly higher self-esteem, less frequent depressive symptoms, and lower overall perfectionism than the Macedonians. It is very important to emphasize that high perfectionism obtained from the Macedonian sample primarily was the result of greater frequency of those aspects that are usually considered in the literature as unhealthy or maladaptive.

The results showed that Serbian students' perfectionism is based mostly on high Personal standards and high Organization but Concern over mistakes, Parental criticism and Doubts are lower than in Macedonian sample. If we taking into account that the Serbian sample has a higher self-esteem and lower depression, it is possible to make the following conclusion: the results suggest that Serbian students characterized the presence of healthy aspects of perfectionism. They are persons that set high standards for themselves, they have capability to planning activities, and they have sense of dutifulness, which could be considered as socially and personally desirable characteristics of young people.

Not enough data that may explain the differences obtained. Is it a matter of cultural differences or is a matter of growing up in a different social context? This should be checked by carrying out more comprehensive research of both cultures in the future.

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PROFESSION OF PSYCHOLOGY IN CYPRUS: PAST AND CURRENT TRENDS

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***Abstract.** In 1995 the Cyprus House of Parliament passed the first legislation for recognizing Psychology as an independent profession. The first appointed Board of Registration for Professional Psychologists raised several objections regarding the applicability and usefulness of the legislation leading to the dissolving of the Body keeping the legislation inactive for almost a decade. In the year 2004, the original Act, in order to comply with EFPA's recommendations for EuroPsy, was modified again. However, the shortage of professional psychology training programmes in Cyprus, the fact that most Psychologists in Cyprus were trained in different countries with different philosophy, standards and years of training made it impossible for the new legislation and its grand parenting clauses to satisfy the needs of Psychologists in Cyprus. This led to the development of a new movement for further modification of the current legislation. The modified legislation was recently voted by Members of the Parliament . The main aim of the present paper is to look historically the development of Professional Psychology in Cyprus, the difficulties experienced in formulating a legal framework for Professional Psychologists and how the latest provisions of the amended law open new prospective to the profession.*

***Keywords:** Cyprus psychology; professional psychology; law of psychologists.*

INTRODUCTION

The professional psychology in Cyprus is relatively new as it is just exceeding half a century since the day it developed in our small island. On the other hand, the institutionalization of the profession as well as the education of the profession at the Cyprus universities are in the second decade of life. As years went by, the number of psychologists in Cyprus have been steadily increasing. However, dur-

ing the last decade a dramatic increase of the number of psychologists has been observed. Moreover, nowadays even more psychologists are hired in the public sector as clinical and educational psychologists. There is also an increase in the number of psychologists who become private practitioners. At the same time, the institutionalization of psychology as a profession is facing many difficulties as the legislation was changing successively for up to fifteen years.

Up to this point there are no journals or any other kind of published text book that fully reviews the history of psychology in Cyprus. In the book "History of Insanity in Cyprus During the Times of Ottoman Control and British Rule" by Andreas Georgiades – the first psychologist who was hired in the public sector in Cyprus – there are some attempts to review the history of Psychology in Cyprus. The reports are mostly about the work of psychologists in the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Education and Culture (Georgiades, 1995). Recently, a second attempt took place in a journal by Adonis et al (2007) where they mostly discuss the issue of institutionalization regarding the profession of psychology. It is important to note that a lot of the reports they make are incorrect and not well documented.

The above study gathers data regarding the history of psychology in Cyprus and classifies it into three categories: a) the professional employment of psychologists in Cyprus, b) the institutionalization of the psychology profession in Cyprus, c) the evolution of organized psychology organizations in Cyprus.

THE PROFESSIONAL EMPLOYMENT OF PSYCHOLOGISTS IN CYPRUS

The most noteworthy attempts that took place in order to establish the professional employment of psychologists in Cyprus seems to be about the psychologists who work in the public sector (see Table 1). According to our research, psychology as a professional occupation in Cyprus dates back to 1960, which is the year that the British colonialism dissolved from the island and the Republic of Cyprus established instead. Andreas Georgiades was the first to be employed as an educational psychologist in the Ministry of Education. The main duties that have been assigned to Mr. Georgiades were aiming towards a better educational system where the psychological knowledge was more important than the implementation of practices to meet the psychological needs that emerged in the school population. In 1966, the Medical Services included a psychologist in their services for the first time. Again, Andreas Georgiades was the first psychologist who was employed by the Medical Services after working for the Ministry of Education and Culture. From the new professional position Mr. Georgiades practiced clinical psychological duties which at a later stage were used as the foundation for the constitution of the Mental Health Services of the department of Clinical Psychology (Georgiades 1995).

TABLE 1. MILESTONES OF THE PROFESSIONAL EMPLOYMENT OF PSYCHOLOGISTS IN CYPRUS

1960	Educational Psychologists in the Ministry of Education and Culture
1966	First employment of a psychologist in the Medical Services of the Ministry of Health
17/7/2009	Endorsement of permanent positions in other than clinical specializations of an applied psychology in the Mental Health Services
2009 January	Hierarchy structure of the Educational Psychology Services of the Ministry of Education and Culture
2009 October	Hierarchy structure of the Clinical Psychology Services of the Ministry of Health

According to the records of the Social Insurance Services the official beginning of the psychology profession in the private sector started in the 1980's (Social Insurance Services, 2009). However, according to the information gathered during our research the profession of psychology in the private sector in Cyprus started at least a decade ago. As regards the public sector, the employment of psychologists is stable with the new vacancies of educational psychologists in the Ministry of Education and Culture to show a slight lead over the vacancies of the clinical psychologists in the Ministry of Health. Specifically, in the mid 1990's nine and eight permanent positions were held by the Service of Educational Psychology and the Clinical Psychology Department respectively. During the next years the aim is to enhance the psychological services in the public sector and their extension across the unoccupied Cyprus and the reconstruction of its hierarchical organisation. Therefore, by the end of January 2009, the employees of the Educational Office of Psychology raises up to 34 people, of which 19 of them are permanently assigned and the rest are temporarily assigned. At the same time the sorting of the positions of the educational psychologists is ensured in four groups (1X1, 2X2, 3X4, 4X27) and as a result a good hierarchical structure of the Educational Psychology Office is formed. The potentials of the existing structure and organization that the Services of the Educational Psychology offer are spread in all the district of the unoccupied Cyprus (Educational Psychology Service, 2009). During the October of 2009, the department of Clinical Psychology consists of three hierarchical levels (1X1, 2X5, 3X41), where 21 people work permanently and 27 people work temporarily. As we can see from our data, during the 2009 the Department of Clinical Psychology excels the Educational Psychology Service regarding the workforce, although it lags in hierarchical levels (Mental Health Services, 2009).

Nevertheless, both Clinical and Educational Departments ensure the provision of services throughout the territory controlled by the Cyprus Republic. Finally, an important milestone in the evolution of the employment of Psychologists

in Cyprus is the approval of the announcement on the 17/07/2009 which declares for the first time, positions in other specialisations of the applied psychology, such as Counselling and Forensic Psychology. In addition the Department of Clinical Psychology has renamed in Department of Special Psychology (Cyprus Republic 2009a, p. 913–914).

It is hard to know the exact number of the psychologists in Cyprus since not all psychologists are registered. The outcome of the recorded and analysed data we managed to gather from various sources (Council for the Registration of Professional Psychologists, 2007; Pancyprian Society of Psychologists, 2009) shows that the ratio of psychologists per 1000 Cypriot inhabitants is ranging from 0.49 in the capital and up to 0.19 psychologists in Famagusta which a part of it is occupied by the Turkish troops (see Figure 1).

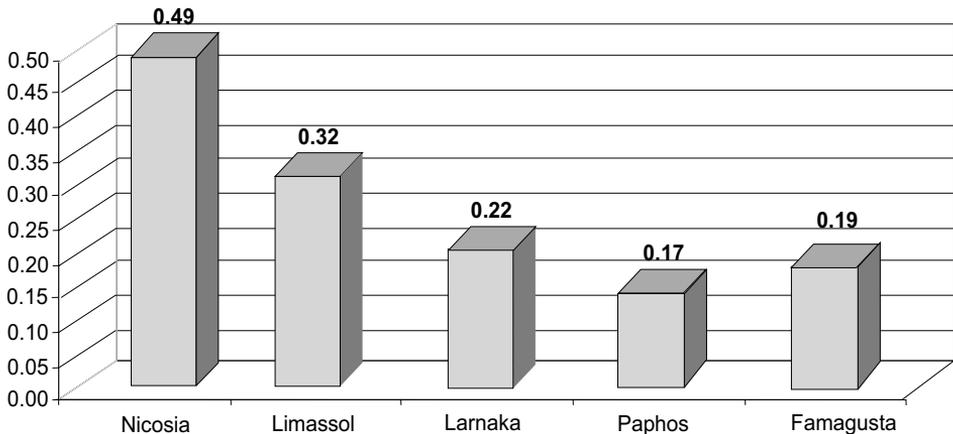


FIGURE 1. RATE OF PSYCHOLOGISTS IN CYPRUS PER 1000 INHABITANTS BY DISTRICT

ORGANIZED PSYCHOLOGY BODIES IN CYPRUS

We used the term ‘organised bodies’ to refer to the organisations and institutions which aim in negotiating the scientific, educational, professional or trade union issues in psychology and we also recoded the key milestones (see Table 2). The establishment of the Cyprus Psychologists’ Association in 25th of March 1980 consists the beginning of the creation of an organised psychology body in Cyprus (Tziogkourous, 2009). The first Cypriot psychologists as well as other professionals who were working as psychologists, due to their postgraduate psychology-related education, were registered in this Society (Cyprus Psychologists’ Association, 1980). The first effort to organise psychologists into a labour union was recorded in 1983 when the educational psychologists who were working at the Ministry of

Education and Culture merged with the Pancyprian Public Servants' Trade Union (PASYDY), branch of Culture and Services. In January 25, 2005 the clinical psychologists of the Ministry of Health successfully achieved the establishment of a separate professional branch of psychologists in PASYDY (Pasydy, 2009). Mostly, due to the transformation of the institutionalisation of the psychology profession in Cyprus a new psychological society is established in 2007– the Pancyprian Psychological Society. According to the Constitution, only those who are authorised to work as psychologists and only when the psychology qualifications they possess are exclusively obtained by a psychology degree can register in the Pancyprian Psychological Society (Pancyprian Society of Psychologists, 2007). The main aim of the Pancyprian Psychological Society is to modify the institutional framework in order to a) ensure a high quality of psychological services that is offered to the public, b) fortify the duties of the applied psychology specialities and the graduate psychologists and c) to effectively combat the misuse of the profession by others (Platrites & Yiasemi, 2008).

TABLE 2. MILESTONES OF ORGANIZED PSYCHOLOGY BODIES IN CYPRUS

1980	Establishment of the Cyprus Psychologists' Association
1983	Educational Psychologists join the branch of Culture and Other Services of the Pancyprian Public Servants' Trade Union.
2000	Foundation of Department of Psychology of State University of Cyprus
2005	Establishment of Clinical Psychologists' professional branch within the Pancyprian Public Servants' Trade Union.
2007	Establishment of the Pancyprian Psychological Society.
2008	Foundation of Departments of Psychology in Private Universities in Cyprus

The Psychology Department of the State University of Cyprus is the first recognised educational entity in psychology founded in Cyprus. It opened for the first time in the academic year of 2000 and is part of the Social Sciences and Education School. Apart from the undergraduate psychology degree, the Psychology Department of the State University of Cyprus operates four graduate programmes– two on a Masters level and two on a Doctoral level– in applied fields such as educational and clinical psychology as well as in theoretical fields such as evolutionary and cognitive psychology (University of Cyprus, 2009). In 2008 two more psychology departments were established in the private sector – the University of Nicosia and the European University of Cyprus. Although the options to study psychology in Cyprus are increasing, Greece still remains the most preferred destination that Cypriots choose to do their psychology degree (see Figure 2).

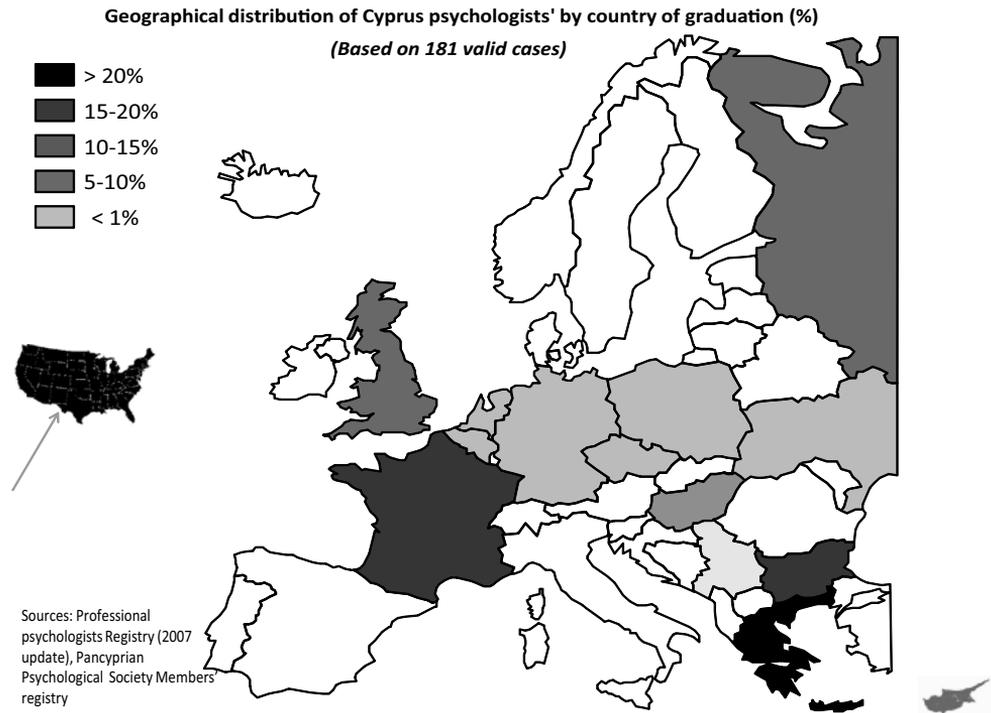


FIGURE 2. GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF CYPRUS PSYCHOLOGISTS BY COUNTRY OF GRADUATION

THE INSTITUTIONALISATION OF THE PROFESSION OF PSYCHOLOGY IN CYPRUS

Certainly the adoption of the 'Professional Psychologists Registration Act' in 1995 (Cyprus Republic, 1995) should be recognised as the most important step towards the institutionalisation of the psychology profession (see Table 3). Yet, statutes of the previous decades regarding the plans of the duties of the psychologists in the public sector paved the way for the institutionalisation of the psychology profession and undoubtedly they played a fundamental role in the formulation of important aspects of the original Act. For the record, the first service plan for psychologists adopted in 1960 and referred to the specificity of the Educational Psychologists (Georgiades 1995), whereas in 1966 the first service plan for Clinical Psychologists was adopted (Council of Ministers 1966).

The key issues established by the original Act were

- a) the definition of the professional psychology,
- b) the formulation of a general framework of the duties of the professional psychologists,
- c) the formation of a register of the professional psychologists,
- d) the establishment of the Provisions Record including the transitional arrangements
- e) the foundation and operation of the Council for the Registration of Professional Psychologists (C.R.P.P).

Even though the C.R.P.P. was founded, the original Act remained inactive. Nevertheless two amendments of the original Act took place in 1996 (Cyprus Republic, 1996) and in 1999 (Cyprus Republic, 1999) which at the end proved insignificant.

TABLE 3 MILESTONES OF THE INSTITUTIONAL ENTRENCHMENT OF THE PROFESSION OF PSYCHOLOGY IN CYPRUS.

1960	Passage of the educational psychologist service scheme
1966	Passage of the clinical psychologist service scheme
1995	Passage of the Registration of Psychologists' Law by the House of Representatives
2004	Passage of the third amendment of the Registration of Psychologists' Law
2009	2009 Registration of Professional Psychologists' Amended Law.

In 2004 was the third amendment of the Act (Cyprus Republic, 2004), due to the requirements of the EuroPsy –“the EuroPsy is a European standard of education and training which enables individual psychologists to be recognised as having a European-level qualification in psychology”, (EFPA 2009)– and the main outcome was the modification of the basic registration provisions. The C.R.P.P. began to give the first licenses to professional psychologists and published the first Professional Psychologists Registry (Cyprus Republic, 2006, 141–142). However, its function was postponed due to serious objections from the psychological community, which reached the climax in 2007, regarding the appropriateness of the Act to meet the modern educational requirements and practice of the psychology profession. On the 26th of June 2009, after recurrent consultations between the professional organisations of psychologists and disputes with a part of the local academic community, the Fourth Amendment is adopted, and it renames the Act to “Psychological Registration Act” (Cyprus Republic, 2009b) and that leads to a radical restructuring and modernisation (see Table 4).

TABLE 4 MAJOR FUNCTIONAL AMENDMENTS OF THE 2009 REGISTRATION OF PROFESSIONAL PSYCHOLOGISTS' AMENDMENTS LAW

<p>Registration of Psychologists <u>Required qualifications for the registration</u></p>	<p>Registered psychologists: Bachelor in Psychology + 2 academic years of studies in one of the following five specializations of applied psychology: clinical psychology educational/school psychology counseling psychology forensic psychology organizational/occupational/industrial psychology + 1000 hours of supervised practical training All qualifications required should be accredited</p>
<p>Definitions Institutionalization and legislative entrenchment of definitions related to the science and profession of psychology</p>	<p>Applied psychology: science dealing with the study, diagnosis and treatment of human behavior, personality and mental processes; practiced exclusively and autonomously by registered psychologists, with the aim of improving individual, group and system life quality.</p>
<p>Professional practice <u>Framework of duties</u></p>	<p>Registered psychologists= they exercise duties in accordance to the specialization of applied psychology approved by the Council for the Registration of Psychologists (C.R.P.) Framework of duties for each of the applied psychology specialization will be formulated within 12 months after the next formation of the C.R.P. Graduated Psychologists= they solely exercise duties such as teaching of psychology, first treatment demand management and any other duties which are not attributed to registered psychologists</p>
<p>Supervised placement</p>	<p>Organizations approved to provide supervised clinical placement by the Ministry Council, following the recommendations of the Registration of Psychologists' Board. Organizations should meet high scientific requirements.</p>

The Fourth Amendment of the Law has the most structural and functional changes that occurred chronologically in this legislation as 17 of the 21 articles had been modified, with a rate equivalent to 86% of all the articles (see Figure 3).

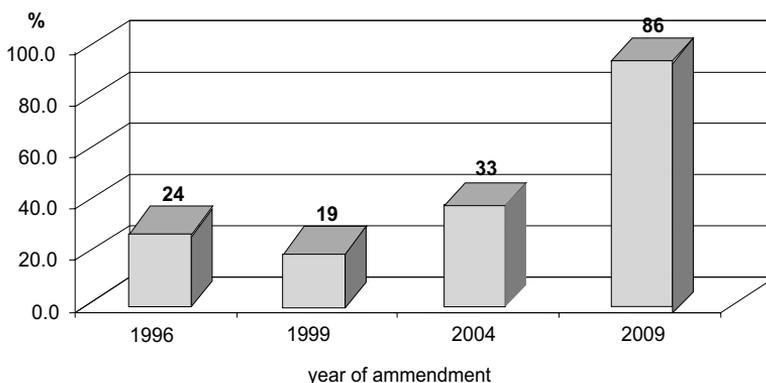


FIGURE 3. REGISTRATION OF PSYCHOLOGISTS LAW 1996–2009 AMMENDED PARAGRAPHS

In the analysis made, the term ‘functional modifications’ stands for the changes in the legislation which have an institutional value, while the structural modifications are those made to harmonise the negative alterations that resulted from modifications in the legislation in order to ensure consistency and understanding of the Act. It is obvious from the analysis that in all four amendments of the legislation the functional modifications were predominant (see Figure 4).

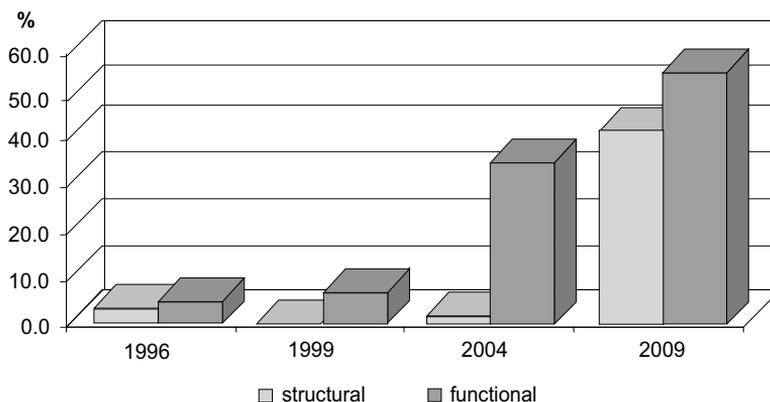


FIGURE 4. AMENDMENTS BY CATEGORIZATION TYPE

CONCLUSIONS

Psychology in Cyprus is going through all levels (employment, education, trade unionism, and institutionalisation) as a transitional stage. The quality of the existing legislation is both a challenge and a motivation in order to further develop psychology in Cyprus. The new educational opportunities which are offered in Cyprus make the psychology studies more popular. Nevertheless, the establishment of the applied psychology will be an obstacle for those who seek a quick job placement through short studies. The more psychological services are expanded in Cyprus and enriched in the public sector with new psychology specialties, the more positive perceptions will be adopted by the public regarding the social value of the psychology as a profession. Moreover, it is an advantage that the provisions of the last amended Act allow to psychologists to teach the subject of psychology in schools as it will directly enhance the new generation's perceptions regarding what the profession of psychology is really about.

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