

**ЮГОЗАПАДЕН УНИВЕРСИТЕТ „НЕОФИТ РИЛСКИ“
БЛАГОЕВГРАД
ФИЛОСОФСКИ ФАКУЛТЕТ
КАТЕДРА „ПСИХОЛОГИЯ“**

ГОДИШНИК ПО ПСИХОЛОГИЯ

Благоевград
2018

ГОДИШНИК ПО ПСИХОЛОГИЯ
ГОДИНА 9, НОМЕР 9, ТОМ 1/ТОМ 2 2018

YEARBOOK OF PSYCHOLOGY
VOL 9, NUMBER 9, ISSUE 1/ISSUE 2 2018

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ISSN 1314-1074

Година 9, Номер 9, Том 1/Том 2

Vol. 9, Number 9, Issue 1/Issue 2

**ЗАЩИТЕНИТЕ ПОЗИЦИИ В ПУБЛИКАЦИИТЕ СИ ОСТАВАТ
ОТГОВОРНОСТ НА АВТОРИТЕ.**

**THE VIEWS EXPRESSED IN THE PAPERS ARE THEIR AUTHORS`
RESPONSIBILITY**

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У В О Д INTRODUCTION

Уважаеми Колеги,

С удовлетворение представям статии на преподаватели и докторанти от Катедра Психология на Философски Факултет на Югозападен Университет „Неофит Рилски“ гр. Благоевград.

Психологичната теория и психологичните изследвания са представени коректно. Прави впечатление както тематичното, така и концептуалното им разнообразие. Използвани са съвременни психологични и психометрични софтуерни продукти.

Надявам се ресурсът на Годишника по психология да се използва успешно за нуждите на практиката.

Гл. редактор:
Доц. д-р Мария Мутаfoва

Dear Colleagues,

With pleasure I want to introduce you papers from lecturers and PhD students from Department of Psychology of Faculty of Philosophy of the South-West University “Neofit Rilski”, Blagoevgrad.

The psychological theory and psychological researches are presented correctly. Both the tematical and the conceptual diversity makes an impression. Modern psychological and psychometric software has been used.

I hope that the resource of the Yearbook of Psychology will be successfully used for the practical needs.

Editor-in-chief:
Assoc. Prof. Maria Mutafova PhD

**TOM 1
ISSUE 1**

**ГЛАВА 1: ЕКСПЕРИМЕНТИ И ИЗСЛЕДВАНИЯ В
ПСИХОЛОГИЯТА**

**CHAPTER 1: EXPERIMENTS AND MEASUREMENTS IN THE
PSYCHOLOGY**

**ADDRESSING CHILDREN'S EMOTIONAL AND BEHAVIOURAL
PROBLEMS IN THE SCHOOL CONTEXT**

**Christos Douvlos PhD Student, Department of Psychology South-West
University "Neofit Rilski"**

Abstract

The education of children with emotional and behavioural problems is a challenge for teachers, as their behaviour interferes with learning. With respect to the significance of teachers' impact on their students and the influence of school life on children's psychosocial development, school-based interventions and pedagogical strategies are highlighted in literature. Systematic and structured interventions which aim at the development of social skills, self-regulation, emotional literacy and socio-emotional ability appear to have positive outcomes. In addition, holistic approaches that take all parameters into account, and individualized and personalized techniques which consider each child's characteristics and needs are suggested. Finally, the collaboration between experts, teachers and parents is considered to be essential for the successful implementation of interventions and prevention programmes.

Keywords: *emotional and behavioural problems, intervention, school context*

Introduction

Educating students with emotional and behavioural difficulties is challenging for teachers (Oliver & Reschly, 2010), provided that the quality of these students' integration into the school context contributes to their psychosocial development.

Children with emotional and behavioural problems exhibit behaviours that interfere with learning. Externalizing behaviours, such as classroom disruptions, aggression, antisocial behavior, defiance, impulsivity or hyperactivity, and internalizing behaviours, such as anxiety, depression, low self-esteem and social withdrawal, make teachers' daily practice difficult (Mooij & Smeets, 2009; Oliver & Reschly, 2010). Moreover, research reveals that difficulties associated with classroom management and teaching students with limited motivation and disruptive behaviours contribute to teachers' stress (Kourkoutas, 2007).

It has been evidenced that 2%-16% of the student population exhibit problematic behaviours, and mainly antisocial behaviours (Mihalas, Morse, Allsopp, & Alvarez McHatton, 2008). Research has evidenced that children display such behaviours due to their inability to meet their emotional and interpersonal needs, while it is also clear that aggressiveness is related to psychological problems, which can be traced as early as preschool age (Kourkoutas, 2007).

Due to the heterogeneity of the symptoms, emotional and behavioural disorders must be carefully assessed, so that appropriate interventions are designed (Kourkoutas, 2007). In order to address difficult or disruptive behaviours, carefully organized and structured pedagogic techniques are required (Kourkoutas, 2011, 2015; Mooij & Smeets, 2009). The interventions must be individualized, so that they are based on each child's special characteristics and needs, and personalized, so that they are based on trust relations (Kourkoutas, 2011, 2015).

It is suggested in literature that the interventions must include teachers, due to their influence on the students' behaviour and because of the significance of their relationship (Mihalas et al., 2008; Sutherland, Lewis-Palmer, Stichter, & Morgan, 2008). Teachers should, therefore, follow a holistic approach to addressing emotional and behavioural problems, so that all parameters, risk factors, protective mechanisms, intrapersonal dynamics and environmental factors are considered (Kourkoutas, 2007; Kourkoutas & Chartier, 2008; Mooij & Smeets, 2009; Sutherland et al., 2008).

Emotional and behavioural problems

The 5th edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-V) of the American Psychiatric Association (2013) defines a conduct disorder as the manifestation of repetitive and intense behaviours, which violate other people's basic rights or major societal rules and impair

social, academic or occupational functioning of the individuals with the disorder.

Emotional difficulties are also described in literature as internalizing disorders, as opposed to behavioural problems, which are also referred to as externalizing disorders. The connection of these two disorders exists in literature because of the overlap between depressive and behavioural disorders (Kourkoutas, 2011).

The behaviour of a child with a behavioural disorder does not correspond to the child's age and is associated with provocative, antisocial and aggressive behaviour (Kourkoutas, 2007). Therefore, the child has difficulty in integrating into the school or other environments and is at risk for developing antisocial attitudes or mental and interpersonal difficulties, unless a psychopedagogic or psychotherapeutic intervention is implemented (Kourkoutas, 2007).

Children may be at higher risk for having emotional and behavioural problems due to biological factors, difficult temperament, family disadvantage or stressful life factors (Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2004). The heterogeneity of the etiology forms a wide range of reactions. The behavioural problems range from mild aggression, like verbal aggression and provocative attitude, to extremely violent behaviours (Kourkoutas, 2007), while emotional dysfunction ranges from mild emotional or anxiety disorders to intense emotional and depressive symptoms (Kourkoutas, 2011).

Children with behavioural disorders have low or extremely high self-esteem, they express themselves in a hostile manner, they have poor academic performance, immature thought, delay in the cognitive function and deficient ability to solve problems or resolve conflicts. Anger and irritability are dominant emotions experienced by children with behavioural problems. Negative emotions are usually the outcome of the interpretation of other people's behaviours which are misconceived as hostile. Latent depressive emotions or internal conflicts and anxieties may also trigger disruptive behaviours (Kourkoutas, 2007). Children with emotional problems and depressive tendencies have difficulties in interpersonal and social relationships, a negative self-image, tendency to isolation, difficulties in problem-solving and managing their emotions (Kourkoutas, 2011).

The students with emotional and behavioural problems also have psychosocial and learning problems (Mihalas et al., 2008). Research indicates that behavioural problems are associated with cognitive, social and behavioural deficits (Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2004), self-regulation deficits

(Erik, Lynne, Allison, & Wendy, 2011) and severe deficits in social competence (Cook et al., 2008). Moreover, academic deficits across subjects and settings (Oliver & Reschly, 2010), learning problems and behavioural deficits (Sutherland et al., 2008) have been observed.

Whether academic difficulties emerge due to behavioural problems or are their outcome has not been clarified, but most researchers hold that there is a reciprocal influence of both (Oliver & Reschly, 2010). On the one hand, children with poor academic performance are at risk of behavioural problems, while, on the other, children with behavioural problems have fewer opportunities to receive adequate instruction (Oliver & Reschly, 2010). In addition, some children are not identified early enough, so they do not receive timely support (Mihalas et al., 2008).

It is clear that the children with emotional and behavioural disorders have problems both in behaviour and in learning, which results in teachers' inability to provide effective instruction. This inability to deliver effective teaching leads to poor academic results and additional behavioural problems, thus, creating a vicious circle (Sutherland et al., 2008).

Effective interventions for children with emotional and behavioural problems

In order for disruptive behaviours to be addressed, early identification and intervention is of crucial importance for reducing risk factors (Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2004), considering that more serious maladaptive behaviours should be prevented (Mihalas et al., 2008; Oliver & Reschly, 2010).

According to literature, the traditional behavioural interventions have short-term outcomes, which cannot be transferred to other contexts (Kourkoutas, 2015). In addition, the interventions may have limited benefits for children when the factors that preserve or aggravate the problem are not considered (Kourkoutas & Chartier, 2008).

In contrast, the programmes which include teaching social skills, academic support, classroom management and parent education are effective, as they have long-term results and manifestations of antisocial behaviour are reduced. Parent education programmes and teacher training, social skills and problem-solving training are also suggested in literature (Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2004).

Interventions aiming at teaching social skills develop positive relations between children with emotional and behavioural problems and their peers or

adults, including their teachers. Teachers should focus on providing support to these students, learning more about their lives and devoting more time for each of these students, listening to them and cooperating with them to set and achieve common goals (Mihalas et al., 2008).

Social skills training improves children's social competence and reduces behavioural problems. The acquisition, performance, generalization and maintenance of positive behaviours help students be more successful in their social contexts (Cook et al., 2008). Cook et al's (2008) mega-analysis, in which five meta-analyses were studied, revealed that social skills training has positive outcomes in adolescents.

In addition, social and emotional learning has a positive impact because it reduces risk factors and fosters protective mechanisms (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011). Durlak et al's (2011) meta-analysis in which school-based universal social and emotional learning programmes from preschool to high school were studied, indicated that social and emotional skills, attitudes, behaviour and academic performance were significantly improved in children with emotional and behavioural problems.

Programmes that aim at improving children's socio-emotional ability lead to improvement of classroom behaviour, while interventions which combine cognitive strategies and children education that aim at the development of emotional and social skills enhance school readiness and reduce aggressiveness (Webster-Stratton, Reid, & Stoolmiller, 2008).

School-based interventions that enhance self-determination are also effective for students with emotional and behavioural disorders and students at risk (Erik et al., 2011). In Erik et al.'s (2011) meta-analysis, self-determination elements, such as self-management and self-regulation were the most prevalent components in the interventions addressing emotional and behavioural disorders. The same meta-analysis showed that strategies such as teaching self-management skills, self-monitoring and self-assessment were effective in developing skills which were transferable to other contexts, as well.

Intervention programmes in the school context that focus on enhancing positive behaviours are highlighted in literature. Providing opportunities for learning support, attractive educational techniques and rewarding enhance academic success, improve children's relation to school and, consequently, reduce maladaptive behaviours (Heward, 2009; Kourkoutas, 2015). In addition, clear limits and careful guidance contribute to the improvement of

children's behaviour (Heward, 2009; Kourkoutas, 2011, 2015; Mihalas et al., 2008).

As success constitutes a strong incentive for students, teachers must use every opportunity to recognize children's success, so that children develop a sense of belonging to the school environment and strive for their integration into it (Mihalas et al., 2008). Organizing attractive activities with attainable goals, positive feedback and rewarding are some of the numerous techniques that enhance children's motivation and improve their behaviour (Heward, 2009; Kourkoutas, 2015; Mihalas et al., 2008). The risk of social exclusion or isolation is reduced through techniques of developing motivation and social skills which contribute to the cooperation of children with emotional and behavioural difficulties and their peers (Skaloumpakas, 2016).

It is suggested that interventions in the classroom should include teaching academic skills through assigning easier tasks and smooth transitions from one activity to the other, systematic teaching of new behaviours, teaching social skills through groupwork, managing provocative behaviours and enhancing constructive judgement (Heward, 2009). In addition, students' participation in the process of setting classroom rules, rewarding desired behaviours, ignoring non-desirable behaviours and losing prerogatives in cases undesirable behaviours are manifested, flexibility, humour and enhancing interpersonal relationships (Kourkoutas, 2007; Skaloumpakas, 2016) and positive reinforcement (Skaloumpakas, 2016) are suggested in literature.

It has been evidenced that, in classrooms where the teachers use strategies for classroom management, the students showed greater social competence and emotional self-regulation. These strategies promote positive behaviours and emotional literacy, while they also engage parents into educating and designing their children's behaviour (Webster-Stratton et al., 2008).

Teachers should avoid fragmented and insufficient practices which lead to undesired or adverse results. Teachers should focus on their relationship with children with emotional and behavioural problems, so that they are able to provide a supportive and secure environment. Caring and positive relations motivate children to try for their integration into the school context and the improvement of their academic performance (Mihalas et al., 2008). Therefore, substituting ineffective practices and methods with new ones is a prerequisite for achieving the goals of interventional programmes.

Clear explanations, procedures, expectations and rules create a positive climate in class, reduce undesired behaviours and enhance children's engagement in the learning process (Sutherland et al., 2008).

Teachers and students' relationship is significant, especially in the case of students with emotional and behavioural disorders. Teachers take their students' needs and developmental stage into account and guide and support them in order to meet their social, emotional, psychological and academic needs (Mihalas et al., 2008). Therefore, for the effectiveness of the interventions, it is essential that teacher consultation and education provide teachers with skills and knowledge that are required for addressing students' needs, managing students' emotional and behavioural problems and facilitating their work. Teachers must become familiarized with techniques that modify children's behaviours and help them in conflict resolution, while they should also learn ways of developing supportive relations between themselves and their students (Skaloumpakas, 2016; Sutherland et al., 2008).

Ecosystemic interventions are also highlighted in literature (Kourkoutas, 2007; Kourkoutas & Chartier, 2008). These include the use of various techniques deriving from different theoretical backgrounds, while, within the framework of a holistic approach and combined with psychopedagogic interventions, they prove to be even more effective. Based on an ecosystemic approach, the teacher can organize the classroom or change its dynamics, so that both the function of children with emotional and behavioural problems is improved and their peers' attitudes towards them is changed (Kourkoutas & Chartier, 2008), as developing the ability to manage emotions and behaviours and making meaningful friendships are prerequisites for school readiness and academic success (Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2004). Ecosystemic approaches stress the importance of the impact of children's school life on their psychosocial development. Children's inability to integrate into the school context or complete education is a risk factor for future social integration (Kourkoutas & Chartier, 2008).

Within the framework of a holistic approach, class management, enhancement of positive behaviours and rewarding, recognition and drawing attention to children's positive characteristics can also be effective in everyday school reality. Holistic models, which engage teachers, peers and parents are suggested in literature (Heward, 2009; Kourkoutas, 2011, 2015; Mihalas et al., 2008), while the multilayered interventions, which combine various techniques must be individualized and personalized (Kourkoutas, 2011, 2015). Individualized and personalized approaches take the age and

characteristics of the children into account, but also considers the dynamics of their families (Kourkoutas, 2007).

In this framework, the school must develop a policy of inclusion, so that children with emotional and behavioural disorders do not experience rejection or isolation (Kourkoutas, 2011, 2015). Schools should support both students and teachers and be flexible enough to provide the ground for systematic and structured interventions that engage parents and enhance the collaboration of teachers and experts (Mooij & Smeets, 2009).

Conclusions

According to literature, structured programmes (Kourkoutas, 2011, 2015; Mooij & Smeets, 2009) that aim at teaching social skills (Cook et al., 2008; Heward, 2009; Mihalas et al., 2008; Skaloumpakas, 2016; Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2004; Webster-Stratton et al., 2008) and developing socio-emotional ability (Webster-Stratton et al., 2008), self-control, self-determination and emotional self-regulation (Erik et al., 2011; Webster-Stratton et al., 2008), combined with academic support (Durlak et al., 2011; Heward, 2009; Kourkoutas, 2015; Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2004), appear to have positive outcomes. It is also suggested that parent education is included, so that they participate in their children's education and modification of their behaviour (Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2004; Webster-Stratton et al., 2008), while it is highlighted that systematic psychosocial interventions that engage both parents and teachers are most effective (Heward, 2009; Kourkoutas, 2011, 2015; Mihalas et al., 2008; Mooij & Smeets, 2009).

Therefore, it has been clear that successful integration of children and adolescents with emotional and behavioural problems in the school context can be achieved through interventions that are based on the cooperation between teachers, experts and parents and the implementation of individualized strategies in the classroom.

For this reason, it is essential that teachers are trained, so that they can address their students' needs and contribute to their integration into the school and wider social context. Along with their professional development, teachers should cooperate with experts and parents, not only during the implementation of interventions, but also towards the prevention of problems.

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FACTORS DIFFERENTIATING BULGARIAN ATTITUDES TOWARDS MIGRANTS

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Abstract

Nowadays the number of migrants in Bulgaria and other European countries has increased and the attitudes towards them may have been changed. Bulgaria considered among the countries sending more migrants than accepting (Van der Veer, Ommundsen, Larsen, Le, Krumov, Pernice & Romans, 2006) has been visited by a lot of migrants with different cultures and background. This fact could lead to an ambivalent attitude towards migration in Bulgaria. 120 Bulgarians from 18 to 65 years old participated in the study. The results revealed a clearly expressed unwillingness to accept new migration by 80% of the studied Bulgarians. The conservative radical belief related to the approval of death penalty strengthened the negative Bulgarian attitudes towards new migrants, in correspondence with the finding that radicalism and conservatism predicted the attitudes towards the migrants in different cultures (in Van der Veer et al., 2006). The social and demographic factors did not differentiate Bulgarian attitudes towards new migrants. Some positive beliefs related to oneself, as well as to the actual long-term mate could diminish the negative attitudes towards migrants. Bulgarians who described their actual long-term mate as intelligent and healthy had a more favourable attitude towards new migrants to their country. Bulgarians who considered themselves as healthy and non-susceptible to infectious diseases had a more favourable attitude towards new migrants to their country. They seemed more satisfied with their life and may not perceive the new migrant as a threat or even could not be interested in them.

Keywords: *beliefs, conservatism, attitude, migrations, social and demographic factors.*

Introduction

Immigrants account for more than 15 percent of the population in more than 50 countries and migration will significantly increase in the next decade because of political instability, non-satisfied needs, personal insecurity, poverty, family relations, criminality, etc. (in Van der Veer, Ommundsen, Larsen, Le, Krumov, Pernice & Romans, 2006, pp. 112, 119-120). Nowadays migration has become one of the crucial problems in European countries, especially these ones at the boundaries of European Union such as Bulgaria. The open boundaries and free flow are related to the attitudes towards migrants (Van der Veer, Ommundsen, Larsen, Le, Krumov, Pernice & Romans, 2006, p.114). The number of migrants has increased and the attitudes of the hosting society towards them may have been changed under the new circumstances of more and more immigrants. The countries that traditionally send more migrants than accept have been turned into accepting countries for migrants with different cultures and background. This fact could lead to an ambivalent attitude towards migration.

Literature Review

Typical attitudes to migrants in different countries (such as USA and Australia) are negative, hostile, because migrants (including asylum seekers) are considered as dependent on social financial support, demanding costs from society, and being a threat for national security and identity (in Van der Veer et al., 2006, p. 112).

The attitudes towards migrants could differ cross-culturally, because some countries mainly accept immigrants, whilst the other countries – such as Bulgaria, mainly send emigrants (Van der Veer et al., 2006, p.113, p.117). It is naturally to expect that people who are inclined to migrate would have a positive attitude to migrants. People having experience as migrants – being born outside the country where they live in or worked abroad for at least 6 months during the last 10 years have more tolerant attitudes towards immigrants (Paas & Halapuu, 2012). Bulgaria is among the countries with strong pro-immigration attitudes (Huber & Oberdabernig, 2015, p.12).

Several studies have been focused on revealing the categories of population who are more disposed to ideas of migration. The findings from such a study in Bulgaria reveal that the adolescents with the statuses of national identity moratorium and diffusion had higher motivation for

emigration (related to material values and relatives' support) than the adolescents with the statuses of national identity foreclosure and achieved (Baychinska & Savova, 2005, p.22). The results from a study indicate that 72.2% of Bulgarians encouraged their children to study abroad, 74.7% - to work abroad, and 36.3% - to migrate permanently in another country (Zhekova, 2007, p.163). The category of youth may be more vulnerable to migration, so young people could express more positive attitudes to migrants. The results from a study indicate that young Bulgarians perceive the other ethnic groups as less warm and less cordial than Bulgarian ethnic group (Andreeva & Karabeliova, 2005), so their attitude towards migrants is more negative than their attitude towards the in-group, in correspondence with the theory of social identity (Tajfel, 1974). The history of intergroup relationships is important for the attitudes towards the out-groups. People who live in neighbouring regions/countries often hate their neighbours from the other nationality because of historical conflicts (Klincharski, 2007, pp.220-221) that is why the attitudes towards citizens of and migrants from neighbouring countries could be unfavourable. Some studies (Stoyanova, 2007) have revealed a more negative Bulgarian attitude towards the ethnic groups from neighbouring countries than towards the ethnic groups from Western and Central European countries. This finding cannot be explained only as a more positive attitude towards inhabitants of rich countries. As a country traditionally sending a lot of migrants, Bulgarian attitudes towards immigrants coming from poorer countries were relatively positive in the period 2006-2008, but Bulgarians in 2006 more often than Bulgarians in 2008 allowed many immigrants from poorer countries out of Europe (Zografova, 2010, p.266). When native people are more skilled than immigrants, higher individual income is related with anti-immigration attitudes. When native people are less skilled than immigrants, higher individual income is related with pro-immigration attitudes (Facchini & Mayda, 2006).

The representatives of some occupations are more disposed to migrate. A study has revealed that only 18.1% of the surveyed doctors in Bulgaria would not leave the country (Bekyarova, 2007, p.204), because of their willingness to receive higher incomes abroad. The medical staff's attitudes towards migrants could be ambivalent, because they themselves are inclined to migrate, but on the other hand, the attitudes of local population towards working migrants are often negative because of economic reasons and perceiving migrants as competitors for resources

(Lever & Milbourne, 2015). The estimated costs and benefits are related to the attitudes towards migrants (Van der Veer et al., 2006, p.114). 11.2% of Bulgarians in 1991 considered the migrants as seeking profit (Zhekova, 2007, p.162) and higher estimated immigrants' benefits than natives' benefits lead to less favourable attitudes of natives towards immigration (Huber & Oberdabernig, 2015).

Such findings suggest that the attitudes of different social categories towards migration could differ significantly. The research findings also reveal that male citizens, especially authoritarian men, had more negative attitudes towards illegal migrants (in Van der Veer et al., 2006, p.113). People living in smaller towns and rural areas have more anti-immigrant attitudes in comparison to the people living in urban areas (Paas & Halapuu, 2012). Race is more important than economic factors concerning attitudes towards migration, especially the attitudes shared by less educated and lower skilled native people (Dustmann & Preston, 2004). Social-demographic factors moderating the attitudes towards migration will be among the focuses of this study, but attitudes towards migration are also influenced by some other factors. It has been established that radicalism – conservatism is a predictor of Danish, Norwegian and American students' attitudes towards migrants (in Van der Veer et al., 2006, p.113). The attitude towards migration may be related to perceived migrants' attitude towards the citizens of the country of residence, because some findings (Stoyanova, 2015, p.59) have revealed that self-assessment of tolerance to other people correlates positively with self-assessment of perceived tolerance of other people to oneself.

Human rights are related to attitudes towards migrants (Van der Veer et al., 2006, p.114). 30% of Bulgarians in 1991 considered as a human right the willingness to emigrate (Zhekova, 2007, p.162). 10% of Bulgarians in 1991 compassionated the migrants, 18.5% considered that migrants escaped from the difficulties in their country of origin, and 13% considered that migrants had chosen to solve their personal problems by migration (Zhekova, 2007, pp.162-163). People who have ever belonged to a group discriminated against in the country they live in, and people who trust the political and juridical institutions of the country where they live have more tolerant attitudes towards immigrants (Paas & Halapuu, 2012). Distrust in political institutions characterizes Bulgarians (Nankova, 2012) that could lead to negative attitudes towards migrants. Cross-cultural studies in 9 countries, including Bulgaria, revealed the prevalence of ambiguous

attitude towards migrants – the respondents considered almost equally often both that “Taking care of people from other nations is not the responsibility of the country” and that “The country should accept all political refugees”; followed in frequency by “Illegal aliens are a nuisance to society”, as well as by “Our taxes should be used to help those residing illegally in the country”, etc. (Van der Veer et al., 2006, pp.114-115). Most studies that have been conducted in Bulgaria regarding the attitudes towards migrants (Van der Veer et al., 2006; Zografova, 2010) reveal ambivalent Bulgarian attitudes.

The aim of this study was to reveal the factors that differentiate Bulgarian attitudes to migrants. The studied factors were the social demographic factors, the cluster of conservatism/radicalism and some beliefs related mainly to oneself and the actual long-term mate’s health status. It has been studied how attitudes towards migrants influence migrants’ health status (Rechel et al., 2011), but not how one’s health status and mates’ health status influence on the attitudes towards migrants. This study aims to overcome this gap in the scientific knowledge. One hypothesis of the study was that conservative beliefs would strengthen the negative Bulgarian attitudes towards new migrants. It has been already established that radicalism and conservatism predict the attitudes towards migrants among Danish, Norwegian and American students, as well as anti illegal immigrant attitudes are related to being authoritarian, and displaying prejudice toward other minorities (in Van der Veer et al., 2006).

Another hypothesis of the study was that the social and demographic factors would differentiate Bulgarian attitudes towards new migrants – for example bad financial conditions would be related to negative attitude towards the migrants who could be accepted as economic competitors or utilising the taxes paid by the local population for their social support. It has been already established that anti-illegal immigrant attitudes are more typical for male subjects (in Van der Veer et al., 2006). Some research findings revealed that gender, education, occupation, age and family status differentiated Bulgarian attitudes towards some nationalities and ethnic groups in 2001-2005, but not towards some other nationalities and ethnic groups (Stoyanova, 2007), although these former studies were not focused on Bulgarian attitudes towards migrants.

A third hypothesis of the study was that the positive beliefs related to oneself and to the actual long-term mate would diminish the negative attitudes towards migrants because of higher life satisfaction. People who

feel that they have not got what they deserve in life oppose immigration for spiteful reasons (Poutvaara & Steinhardt, 2015).

Methodology

The study was conducted in the first half of 2016 in the universities of two Bulgarian cities – Sofia and Blagoevgrad, among the staff and the students who came from different parts of Bulgaria. Participation was voluntarily.

Instrument

In Bulgaria, the results from a previous study (Van der Veer et al., 2006, p.119) have indicated that one cumulative scale with high enough reliability for measuring the attitudes towards illegal migrants could not be achieved, probably because of diversity of Bulgarian culture and Bulgaria being among countries traditionally sending migrants (Van der Veer et al., 2006, p.120). That is why the survey method was applied and any questionnaire was not used for measuring attitudes towards migrants.

The participants in the survey indicated if they agreed to accept new immigrants in their country. This measure was considered as an indicator of behavioural component of the attitude – disposition to approach or to move away from the object of the attitude in the direction determined by the affective component of the attitude and by the beliefs regarding the target of the attitude (Judd & Johnson, 1984; McGuire, 1969).

Some measures of conservative attitudes were applied as the participants answered if they approved multiculturalism, stiffer jail terms, voluntary euthanasia, homosexual rights, premarital virginity, church power, legalised abortion, and legalised prostitution. 9 items from the scale of social conservatism by Henningham (1996, pp.518-519) were used.

Descriptions of one's health status (susceptibility to infectious diseases) and actual long-term mate's health status (unhealthy-healthy) and intelligence (unintelligent-intelligent) were also collected on a 7-point scale. They are among the most frequent beliefs of oneself and real intimate partner in Bulgaria (Ivantchev, 2017) that is why their influence on the attitudes towards immigrants was studied.

Social and demographic data were collected.

Sample

The samples in the cross-cultural studies of the attitudes towards migrants often consisted of about 100 participants (for example, the studies

conducted in 9 countries, including Bulgaria, by Van der Veer et al., 2006, pp.113-114).

The participants in this study were 120 Bulgarians from 18 to 65 years old (mean age 24.4 years old, standard deviation 8.6 years). Men were 44 (36.6%), and women were 74 (61.7%). Two participants (1.7%) did not report data regarding their gender.

The participants' family status was diverse. The majority of them (90%) had an intimate partner – 76 cohabitated, 17 were married, and 15 met regularly with their intimate partner. A smaller part of the participants (10%) did not have an intimate partner - 10 were single, 1 was divorced, 1 was widowed. The average period of maintaining an intimate relationship for the participants in this study was 4.3 years. Only 14.2% (N=18) of the participants in the study had children.

The participants' financial circumstances are described in Table 1.

Table 1. *Frequency distribution of the participants' financial circumstances*

Financial circumstances	N	Percent
A lot worse than the average in Bulgaria	2	1.7
worse than the average in Bulgaria	11	9.1
as the average in Bulgaria	65	54.2
better than the average in Bulgaria	28	23.3
A lot better than the average in Bulgaria	9	7.5
Missing answers	5	4.2

Source: Authors' own data

More participants declared good (N=37; 30.8%) and satisfactory (N=65; 54.2%) financial conditions, than bad material conditions (N=13; 10.8%). The participants reported on a 7-point scale (from 1 – not difficult at all to 7 – extremely difficult) how difficult it is for them to pay their monthly expenses. Their average difficulty of paying their monthly expenses was 4.04 (SD=1.4).

The majority of the participants in the study graduated from secondary education (N=84). 6 graduated from college and 27 graduated from universities. 1 participant was a schoolboy in his 11th school year at the moment of conducting the study. Two participants did not indicate their educational degree.

25 participants were athletes. 84 participants practiced sport at least once a week. 36 participants did not practice any sport.

61 participants (50.8%) were Orthodox Christians. 9 participants were Muslims (7.5%). 20 participants (16.7%) declared being religious, but they did not indicate their religious affiliation. 24 participants (20%) were atheists. 6 participants (5%) did not answer the question regarding their religious affiliation.

Results

The majority of the participants in the study (N=96; 80%) would not accept any new immigrants in their country. 19 participants (15.8%) agreed to accept some new immigrants in their country. 5 participants (4.2%) did not answer this question regarding acceptance of new migrants.

There were not any significant gender differences in acceptance of new immigrants in Bulgaria ($\chi^2(1, n=114)=1.451$; $p=.228$), neither differences depending on the family status ($\chi^2(5, n=115)=3.938$; $p=.558$), neither differences depending on the participants' number of children ($\chi^2(3, n=114)=2.049$; $p=.562$), neither educational differences ($\chi^2(3, n=113)=0.991$; $p=.803$), neither differences depending on the financial status ($\chi^2(4, n=111)=6.525$; $p=.163$) and on the difficulty in paying one's monthly expenses ($\chi^2(6, n=110)=7.05$; $p=.316$), neither differences between religious respondents and non-religious respondents ($\chi^2(1, n=110)=3.4$; $p=.065$), neither differences between Christian and Muslim respondents ($\chi^2(1, n=67)=0.131$; $p=.717$), neither differences depending on the sports practice ($\chi^2(2, n=115)=1.433$; $p=.488$). Social and demographic factors did not differentiate the studied Bulgarians' attitudes towards the new migrants.

There were not any significant differences in acceptance of new immigrants in Bulgaria depending on (non)support of multiculturalism ($\chi^2(1, n=106)=0.608$; $p=.435$), neither depending on (non)support of stiffer jail terms ($\chi^2(1, n=113)=3.324$; $p=.068$), neither depending on (non)support of voluntary euthanasia ($\chi^2(1, n=111)=1.538$; $p=.215$), neither depending on (non)support of homosexual rights ($\chi^2(1, n=115)=0.968$; $p=.325$), neither depending on (non)support of premarital virginity ($\chi^2(1, n=113)=1.178$; $p=.278$), neither depending on (non)support of church power ($\chi^2(1, n=112)=0.133$; $p=.715$), neither depending on (non)support of legalised abortion ($\chi^2(1, n=111)=2.26$; $p=.133$), neither depending on (non)support of legalised prostitution ($\chi^2(1, n=111)=0.69$; $p=.406$).

Table 2. Cross-table of the frequency of accepting death penalty and new immigrants to Bulgaria

			New immigration to my country	
			No	Yes
Death penalty	No	<i>N</i>	33	12
		% within non-support	73.3%	26.7%
	Yes	<i>N</i>	61	7
		% within support	89.7%	10.3%

Source: Authors' own data

There was a trend (see Table 2) Bulgarians who approved death penalty not to accept any new migrants to their country and Bulgarians who did not approve death penalty to accept new immigration to their country ($\chi^2(1, n=113)=5.19; p=.023; \Phi=-0.214$ that means small effect size).

Table 3. Cross-table of the frequency of accepting new immigrants to Bulgaria and describing actual mate's intelligence

			New immigration to my country	
			No	Yes
Actual long-term mate	very unintelligent -1	<i>N</i>	1	1
	2	<i>N</i>	0	3
	3	<i>N</i>	2	1
	4	<i>N</i>	14	0
	5	<i>N</i>	12	1
	6	<i>N</i>	18	4
	very intelligent -7	<i>N</i>	33	6

Source: Authors' own data

There was a trend (see Table 3) Bulgarians who described their actual long-term mate as intelligent to accept more new migrants to their country ($N=11; 68.8\%$ of these ones accepting the new migrants) than Bulgarians who did not consider their actual long-term mate as intelligent ($\chi^2(6, n=96)=20.836; p=.002; \Phi=0.466$ that means medium effect size).

Table 4. *Cross-table of the frequency of accepting new immigrants to Bulgaria and describing actual mate's health status*

			New immigration to my country	
			No	Yes
Actual long-term mate	very unhealthy-1	<i>N</i>	3	0
	2	<i>N</i>	3	1
	3	<i>N</i>	2	3
	4	<i>N</i>	7	0
	5	<i>N</i>	11	1
	6	<i>N</i>	16	7
	very healthy-7	<i>N</i>	40	4

Source: Authors' own data

There was a trend (see Table 4) Bulgarians who described their actual long-term mate as healthy to accept more new migrants to their country ($N=12$; 75% of these ones accepting the new migrants) than Bulgarians who did not consider their actual long-term mate as healthy ($\chi^2(6, n=98)=14.751$; $p=.022$; $\Phi=0.388$ that means medium effect size).

Table 5. *Cross-table of the frequency of accepting new immigrants to Bulgaria and the strength of belief in one's susceptibility to infectious diseases*

			New immigration to my country	
			No	Yes
In general, I am very susceptible to colds, flu and other infectious diseases	1 - strongly disagree	<i>N</i>	24	4
	2	<i>N</i>	20	2
	3	<i>N</i>	16	5
	4	<i>N</i>	21	1
	5	<i>N</i>	3	0
	6	<i>N</i>	2	3
	7 - strongly agree	<i>N</i>	8	3

Source: Authors' own data

There was a trend (see Table 5) Bulgarians who considered themselves as healthy and non-susceptible to infectious diseases to accept more new migrants to their country (N=12; 66.7% of these ones accepting the new migrants) than Bulgarians who considered themselves as susceptible to infectious diseases ($\chi^2(6, n=112)=12.711$; $p=.048$; $\Phi=0.337$ that means medium effect size).

Discussion

The hypothesis of the study that conservative beliefs would strengthen the negative Bulgarian attitudes towards new migrants was supported partially. One of the studied conservative radical beliefs related to the approval of death penalty strengthened the negative Bulgarian attitudes towards new migrants, in correspondence with the finding that radicalism and conservatism predict the attitudes towards the migrants in different cultures (in Van der Veer et al., 2006).

The hypothesis of the study that the social and demographic factors would differentiate Bulgarian attitudes towards new migrants was not supported. A previous study (Stoyanova, 2007) revealed that some social and demographic factors contributed to more favourable Bulgarian attitudes towards some ethnic groups, but the same social and demographic factors contributed to less favourable Bulgarian attitudes towards other ethnic groups. New immigrants have different ethnic and cultural background that is why the attitudes towards them could be influenced by social and demographic factors in a controversial way. It has been already found that race is more important than such social and demographic factors as economic factors concerning attitudes towards migration (Dustmann & Preston, 2004). Another explanation of the findings from this study could be related to the fact that some social and demographic categories had few representatives in the sample to be definitely concluded that such factors did not contribute to Bulgarian attitudes towards new migrants. Besides, there is a possibility the stream of new migrants to be perceived in a similar way of the whole Bulgarian society.

The hypothesis that the positive beliefs related to oneself and the actual long-term mate would diminish the negative attitudes towards migrants was supported by the evidence from the study. Bulgarians who described their actual long-term mate as intelligent and healthy had a more favourable attitude towards new migrants to their country. Bulgarians who considered themselves as healthy and non-susceptible to infectious diseases had a more favourable attitude towards new migrants to their country.

Higher life satisfaction is related to the beliefs of oneself and intimate partner as being healthy. Immigrants are not perceived as a threat if oneself and close relatives are considered as non-susceptible to diseases. People who feel that they have achieved what they deserve would not oppose immigration for spiteful reasons (Poutvaara & Steinhardt, 2015). In such a way, people who are satisfied with their intimate partner's intelligence and health status tend to have more positive attitudes towards immigrants.

Conclusion

The factors that contribute to Bulgarian attitudes towards immigrants have been revealed and their importance has been underlined. Bulgarian attitudes towards migrants seem monolithic, because they prevail among 4/5 of the participants in the study. Literature review and this research findings demonstrate a trend of development of Bulgarian attitudes towards migrants from positive (Huber & Oberdabernig, 2015; Zografova, 2010) or ambivalent (Van der Veer, Ommundsen, Larsen, Le, Krumov, Pernice & Romans, 2006) into negative ones in the contemporary society. Research findings indicate that improving quality of life, health status and satisfaction from the relationships with the partner could contribute to more favourable attitudes towards new immigrants, especially among less conservative Bulgarians.

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ГЛАВА 2: ПЕДАГОГИЧЕСКА И ВЪЗРАСТОВА ПСИХОЛОГИЯ CHAPTER 2: EDUCATIONAL AND DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY

ЛИЧНОСТНИ РЕФЛЕКСИВНИ КОМПОНЕНТИ ЗА ВЪТРЕШНАТА И ВЪНШНАТА МОТИВАЦИЯ НА УЧИТЕЛЯ

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**PERSONAL REFLECTIVE COMPONENTS FOR THE INTERNAL
AND EXTERNAL MOTIVATION OF THE TEACHER**

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Резюме

В статията са представени личностни рефлексивни компоненти на вътрешната и външна мотивация на учителя и нормирана скала за изследване на мотивацията на учителя.

Ключови думи: *личностни рефлексивни компоненти, вътрешна мотивация, външна мотивация.*

Abstract

This article presents Personal reflexive components of the teacher's Internal and External motivation and a normalized scale for the research of the teacher's motivation.

Key Words: *Personal reflexive components, Internal motivation, External motivation.*

В психологичната наука са създадени теории и изследвания за вътрешната и външната мотивация на личността (Yankulova, 2016; Velichkov, 1989).

Несъпадението между постъпваща стимулация и вътрешни стандарти на личността може да има силно развиващ ефект за вътрешна мотивация (Yankulova, 2016, p.248; Velichkov, 1989). С увеличаването на равнището на личната компетентност нараства и равнището на вътрешната мотивация (Yankulova, 2016, p.248; Velichkov, 1989).

В изследването се представят личностни рефлексивни компоненти на вътрешната мотивация и на външната мотивация на учителите с развиващ ефект.

Самооценката е вътрешен регулатор в дейността на човека, в неговата цялостна психична дейност. Регулативната ѝ функция не би могла да се осъществи без наличието на знания - за другите и за себе си.

Глобалната самооценка, емоционалната интелигентност, кариерната мотивация, толерантността на личността на работещи, методи за изследване са представени в психологичната наука (Stoyanova, 2011; 2014; Stoyanova, & Peneva, 2014; Peneva, & Stoyanova, 2011; Stoyanova, 2010; Slavchov, & Stoyanova, 2007). Степента на дълбочина и осъзнаване на придобития от личността опит е отразена в субективната самооценка на личността. В дейността и чрез различни стилове на взаимодействие, личността съотнася себе си с другите, себе си със самата себе си (Mutafova, Stoyanova, & Peneva, 2013). Самооценката отразява степента на самоуважение у индивида. Тя е позитивна или негативна установка, насочена към определен специфичен обект, наречен "Аз" (Rosenberg, 1979).

Познавателната и регулативната функция на самооценката се намират във вътрешно единство (Mutafova, 2015, pp. 53-54, 2014; Orakova, 2000, pp.58-62). Изграждането на адекватната самооценка като механизъм за психична саморегулация е свързано с развитие на рефлексивното "Аз". Чрез анализ на заложените ситуативно оценки на обективни и субективни данни за разлика от външната оценка (базираща се на оценките на значимите други), самооценката (съставена от вътрешна оценка (базирана на опита на "Аз"-а като субект), произтичаща от чувството за компетентност) е относително стабилна (Andreeva, 1998; Velichkov, 1989).

В саморегулацията на поведението на човека като вътрешноприсъщ неин компонент е определянето на собствената му идентичност. То се характеризира с някои особености (Andreeva, 1998; Mutafova, 2015; Orakova, 2000, pp.8-11):

Позволява и индикира чувството за разбиране, предвиждане и контрол върху средата.

Опосредства резултатите, които хората получават от социалния живот.

Процес, средство или резултат е от показването на себе си като определен тип човек, като по този начин се дефинира и собствената идентичност (винаги в определен контекст).

Организационна структура е за информацията (т.е. хората могат да ги използват за организиране и поддръждане на релевантна информация).

Интерпретационен филтър е (т.е. образът влияе върху това, как релевантната информация се избира, интерпретира, съхранява и възпроизвежда от паметта).

Сценарий за действие е, основан на поведенчески прототип на или на дефинираща реакцията информация и стандарти.

Оценъчна рамка е, за преценяване на поведението (т.е. съдържа стандарти, чрез които ще се сравнява собственото поведение).

Информация за взаимоотношението между образите и резултатите е идентичностният образ (т.е. образът съдържа данни за последствията от това човек да е типът, представен от образа). Като такива, идентичностните образи опосредстват възприятията, чувствата и поведението на човека в социалната среда (Andreeva, 1998; Mutafova, 2015; Orakova, 2000, pp.8-11).

“Аз”-идентификациите са по-правдоподобни до степента, до която отговарят на следните пет критерия:

1. Вътрешна консистентност – “Аз”-идентификациите са по-правдоподобни, когато са логически структурирани и нямат вътрешни противоречия.

2. Простота и лесна предаваемост – “Аз”-идентификациите са по-правдоподобни, когато са по-прями, по-искрени и лесно предаваеми описания.

3. Съответствие на преобладаващите предположения и ценности – “Аз”-идентификациите са по-правдоподобни, когато съответстват на преобладаващите ценности, убеждения, предположения и правила на общността.

4. Консенсусна валидизация – “Аз”-идентификациите са по-правдоподобни, когато получават валидизация (действителна или въображаема) от околните и особено от онези, които са значими.

5. Увереност и умения за убеждаване – “Аз”-идентификациите са по-правдоподобни, когато се налагат и отстояват с по-голяма увереност, особено от актьори, които притежават по-добри актьорски

способности и се приспособяват към склонностите на публиката (Andreeva, 1998; Mutafova, 2015; Orakova, 2000, pp.8-11).

“Аз”-ефективността представлява валидна личностна променлива, която съдържа “Аз”-перцепциите за личната способност да се организират и да се прилагат действия в конкретни ситуации, които могат да съдържат нови характеристики. Това е оценката на хората за тяхната ефективност, компетентност и каузална субектност. Личните преценки за “Аз”-ефективността не са генерализирани чувства за успех или контрол, а по-скоро оценка на това, колко добре човек може да действа в специфична среда (Andreeva, 1998; Mutafova, 2015; Orakova, 2000, pp.8-11) и в този контекст е рефлексивен компонент на вътрешната мотивация на личността.

Разработвайки теорията си за “Аз”-ефективността от перспективата на теорията за социалното учене, А. Бандура разграничава очакванията за ефективност от очакванията за резултата (Bandura, 1977). Очакването за ефективност е убеждението, че човек може успешно да извърши дадено действие. То е преценка за личната ефективност, а очакването за резултата е оценката, че дадено действие ще доведе до определен резултат, т.е. първото е убеждението в личната компетентност, а второто – убеждението в собствената среда. Така чувството за безуспешност може да е резултат или от ниска “Аз”-ефективност, или от възприемане на социалната система като неотзивчива към действията на човека.

Според А. Бандура “Аз”-ефективността и очакванията за нея варират по три основни измерения: обхват (т.е. трудността или предизвикателството, което човекът е готов да посрещне); сила (или съпротивляване на оборващия опит, т.е. убежденията на човека, че може да се справи със задачата) и всеобщност (или относителната степен на специфичност) (Andreeva, 1998; Bandura, 1977; Mutafova, 2015).

Високата “Аз”-ефективност има благотворни последици чрез "актуализиращата тенденция" - природната мъдрост, заложена в организмите, човека и Вселената като цяло (Rogers, 1965). Това е тенденцията към развитие, оздравяване, към творчество и социализация според К.Роджърс (Rogers, 1965). Той често използва метафората за покълването на бобеното зърно: това, което ще порасне е заложено в семето, а градинарят, респективно обучаващият, може само да създаде най-добрите условия за оптималното му развитие. Тя

означава, че възможностите за добро здраве се "съдържат" в човека и трябва само да бъдат стимулирани за нормален растеж и развитие, за отстраняване на препятствията така, че той отново да се движи напред (Rogers, 1965).

Това е свързано със самоактуализацията (Rogers, 1965). В основата на "вътрешното израстване" на индивида е общуването с другите хора, изградено на база на топлина и доброжелателство. Роджърс изследва феномена емпатия - в своите първи формулировки той определя емпатийните състояния като продукт на общуването, но разбиранията му за емпатийния начин на общуване между субектите се променят (Rogers, 1965). Авторът счита, че в известен смисъл субектът се дистанцира от своето "Аз". Субектът се "обръща" към своето "Аз"- тоест рефлексира. Обектът на влияние прераства в субект, който се саморазвива (в съответствие със собствените си възможности). Автентичното поведение на личността се обуславя от способността ѝ да рефлексира, за да се изгради системата "Аз и Аз"(т.е. рефлексивният компонент на вътрешната мотивация), не само системата "Аз и другите"(т.е. рефлексивният компонент на външната мотивация). Тази способност се актуализира в хода на индивидуалното развитие на индивида. Според К. Роджърс (Rogers, 1965), често хората имат неправилна представа за себе си и гъвкавата самооценка е необходимо условие за безболезнено приспособяване на индивида към постоянно променящите се условия. Изследвани са самосъзнанието, самооценката, мотивацията и функциите им за развитие на личността (Rogers, 1965; Maslow, 1943).

По изследователски данни, чувството за "Аз"-ефективност е свързано с по-висока степен на себеутвърждаване, по-висока самооценка, по-силно чувство за контрол върху живота, повече успехи в работата и по-добри академични постижения (Andreeva, 1998; Bandura, 1977; Orakova, 2000, pp. 8-11). Отделните хора се различават по отношение на самосъзнанието си, а това е неразривно свързано със степента, до която те могат и в действителност упражняват контрол върху външното си поведение, себепредставянето си и невербалния израз на емоциите и афекта. Много изследователи докладват за установяване на положително взаимоотношение между себенаблюдаването и външното самосъзнание, а понякога себенаблюдаването се нарича и "Аз"-перцепция (Andreeva, 1998).

Хората, които се ръководят от информацията за ситуацията (с високи резултати по скалата за себенаблюдаване), демонстрират и по-голяма “кроситуационна променливост” в поведението си (Andreeva, 1998; Orakova, 2000, pp. 8-11).

Лицата, които притежават в по-голяма степен социалната способност да се себенаблюдават, разглеждат своето “Аз” като “Аз в тази ситуация”, докато тези с ниски резултати по скалата- като “Аз”-завинаги (Andreeva, 1998; Orakova, 2000, pp. 8-11).

Стратегията на хората със силна способност за себенаблюдаване са целенасочените усилия за прагматично създаване на образ, подходящ за социалните сили и междуличностите тежнения на ситуацията, стремежът да бъдат “точния” човек на “точното” място и в “точното” време, т.е. стратегия, която позволява гъвкавост за бързо и ефективно справяне с променящите се ситуационни изисквания (Andreeva, 1998; Orakova, 2000, pp. 8-11; Stamatov, & Minchev, 2003; Mutafova, 2015).

“Аз”-образът е многоклетъчна, многомерна динамична структура; динамична регулативна система, представяна частично във всеки момент на саморегулация и работният в момента “Аз”-концепт е постоянно изменящо се знание за себе си (Markus, Smith & Moreland, 1985). Мисловните схеми - наричани различно - „индивидуален почерк” или „рамка” работят, като селектират механизми, които влияят върху информацията, която ги съпътства - как я структурират, какво значение ѝ придават, какво могат да я правят след това (Markus, Smith & Moreland, 1985). Те имат отношение към структурирането на мотивацията на учителите.

Рефлексивното “Аз” у различните хора се различава по съдържание, насоченост (да бъде положително или отрицателно), по интензивност (сила на чувството), контрастност (значимост за субекта), последователност, устойчивост и др. (Orakova, 2000). За разлика от други установки, рефлексивното “Аз” се характеризира със съвпадение на обект и субект на установка; със съвместимост на съжденията за себе си със самооценяване. Действията към самия себе си се реализират от позицията на отношение на личността към себе си като към субект на действие. Емоциите, възникващи между компонентите на рефлексивното “Аз”-когнитивен, емоционален и конативен (поведенчески) се реализират чрез гратификация (удовлетворение) и фрустрация на потребностите на субекта.

Положителните емоции повишават нивото на собствената ефективност. Те са свързани с автокомуникациите и са в основата на увеличения диапазон от възможни начини за самоизразяване и самореализация на личността. Спецификата на рефлексивното “Аз” (Andreeva, 1998; Mutafova, 2015; Orakova, 2000, pp.8-11) се състои в неговата бимодалност, т.е. отражение на онова, което принадлежи на “Аз”-а на личността интерсубективно (т.е. е рефлексивен компонент на външната мотивация) и интра-индивидуално (т.е. е рефлексивен компонент на вътрешната мотивация).

В своята бимодалност, рефлексивното “Аз” е модус на мотивационна активност у субекта.

Според Д.Н.Узнадзе поведението на субекта се проявява в екстерогенна форма (в основата на която са субстанционалните потребности) и интерогенна форма (в основата на която са функционалните потребности) (Uznadze,1985).

✓“Аз”-концепцията е динамична установъчна подсистема на психиката на субекта (Orakova, 2000). Функционирането ѝ съдейства за кросситуационна променливост, за антиципация, за филтриране на интерсубективността и интраиндивидуалността на субекта - включват се личностни механизми- несъзнавано съзнателно (неосъзнат контрол на емоции и импулси в зависимост от рационална интерпретация на ситуацията), отрицание (недостатъчно осъзнаване на определени събития, преживявания, усещания, които биха причинили болка на човека при признанието за тях), изтласкване (несъзнателните психични образувания в един момент вземат връх, независимо от “цензурата” на съзнанието), проекция (неосъзнато отхвърляне на собствени емоционално неприемливи мисли, установки, желания и приписването им на други хора), смесване (разреждане на афекти на към обекти, които не са действителни източници на психическо напрежение) (Plutchik, Kellerman, & Conte,1979, pp.229-257).

✓“Аз”-образът е установъчна подсистема на психиката на субекта, характеризираща се с интерсубективност, множественост, консистентност. В този смисъл знанието за себе си, оценката на собствените им качества, поведенческата им самореализация (като производна на знанието и оценката на себе си) в личностен и професионален план са в единство. Във всеки момент на психичната саморегулация “Аз”-ът им е представен в работно състояние; влияе се от личностните им дименсии (Uznadze, 1985; Orakova, 2000).

✓ Установката е особено състояние на единство на външни и вътрешни фактори, представени от потребности у субекта; ситуации на удовлетворяването им и “инструментални възможности на субекта, тоест predisposition на конкретно по-вѐдение. Установката е основа на активността на субекта, отразяваща релационната ѝ същност. Модусът на съществу-ванието ѝ се заключава в способа и съдържанието на отноше-нието към света и към себе си (Uznadze, 1985; Orakova, 2000).

Рефлексията у субекта е интегрална способност за осмисляне на собственото си съзнание, дейност и общуване. Личностната рефлексия експлицира функционирането на “Аз”-а във времето в интересубективен и интраиндивидуален план (Orakova, 2000).

Рефлексията е представена в монистичната структура на личността (Morgun, 1987; Orakova, 2000).

Рефлексията и пространствено-времевите ориентации на личността: като рефлексия на миналото, свързана със самооценката на направеното; като рефлексия на настоящето, свързана със самоконтрола и корекцията на текущата дейност; като рефлексия на бъдещето, определящо планирането и предвиждането.

Рефлексията и потребностно-волевите преживявания на личността: като засилване и отслабване на волевата саморегулация на отрицателните преживявания при висока интензивност на неудовлетворени потребности; като определеност, игнориране или възобновяване на амбивалентни преживявания (удивление, любознателност и др.); като засилване на положителни преживявания при ниска интензивност на удовлетворени потребности.

Рефлексия и съдържателна насоченост на дейността: като планиране, самоактуализация, самоконтрол, корекция и самооценка на своя труд, на своето общуване, на своето поведение (педагогическо майсторство), на собствените качества на личността.

Рефлексията и равнището на усвояване на дейността: като обучение чрез интериоризация; осъзнаване на нормата на усвоената дейност и отклонения от нея; осмисляне на творчеството като търсене, подбор и конструиране на продукти.

Рефлексията и предшестващите форми на реализация на дейността на личността: като производна форма от моториката (познавателни движения), перцепцията (познавателни възприятия) и речта (познавателно осъзнаване посредством езика). Добре развитата

рефлексия оказва обратно регулиращо влияние на различните форми на реализация на дейността на личността.

В контекста на многомерната концепция на личността, рефлексията на учителите (Morgun, 1987; Orakova, 2000) е компонент на интериндивидуалната-външната и интраинди-видуалната-вътрешна мотивация. Учителите реализират предпочитанията си по всички инварианти и така „определяват“ мотивите ,т.е.- реализират „мотив с цел“. При външната мотивация целта е интериоризирана от учителите от другите хора в Социума, а при вътрешната мотивация целта е интериоризирана от учителите на себе си. Принципите за активност, за съзнателност, за рефлексивност и за толерантност са основополагащи за учителя (Vasilev, 2006). Постига се удовлетворение на потребността на учителя от самопознание и самоактуализация (Rogers, 1965; Mutafova, 2015, 2007). Реализира се несъзнателната и съзнателната саморегулация; неосъзнатата (реактивна) и осъзнатата (рефлексивна) самоорганизация (Vasilev, 2006)- включително на вътрешната и външната мотивация на учителя. Рефлексивните компоненти на мотивацията са факт, който обуславя адекватната вътрешна и външна мотивация на учителите.

Създадена е „Скала за мотивацията на учителя на Мария Мутаfoва“:

Инструкция:

Какво Ви мотивира в учителската професия ?

Определете степента на изразеност на всяка от описаните мотивационни характеристики. Оградете едно от числата от 1 до 7, като 1- означава минимална степен на изразеност на мотивационната характеристика, а 7- означава максимална степен на изразеност на мотивационната характеристика.

Благодаря Ви!

Приятна работа!

1	Удовлетворението в работата ме мотивира да съм добър учител.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2	Успехите на учениците ме вдъхновяват да имам нови идеи в работата.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3	Престижът на учителската професия ме мотивира в реализацията ми на учител.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4	Новите предизвикателства на учителската професия ме мотивират в реализацията ми на учител.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5	Отговорността ми да съм добър учител е мое призвание и ме мотивира в работата.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6	Добър човек съм и призиванието ми да съм добър учител ме мотивира в работата.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7	Уважението ми към учителската професия ме мотивира да съм всеотдаен и благороден учител.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8	Самоуважението ми ме мотивира да съм всеотдаен учител.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9	Одобрението на другите хора ме мотивира да съм благороден учител.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10	Конкуренцията с другите учители ме мотивира да съм добър учител.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11	Радостта на другите хора, когато работят с мен, ме мотивира да съм добър учител.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12	Успехите на другите хора ме мотивират да съм добър учител.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13	Удовлетворението да съм добър учител ме мотивира в работата.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14	Осъзнавам призиванието си на добър учител и това ме мотивира в работата.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15	Радвам се, че мога да съм добър учител и това ме мотивира в работата.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16	Добър човек съм и това ме мотивира да съм добър учител.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Ключ

Скала за вътрешна мотивация на учителите: 1, 5, 6, 8, 13, 14, 15, 16.

Скала за външна мотивация на учителите: 2, 3, 4, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12.

Балът в точки по скалата за мотивация на учителите се изчислява като сума от точките на всяко изследвано лице по скалата за вътрешна мотивация на учителите и по скалата за външна мотивация на учителите.

1=1 точка; 2=2 точки; 3=3 точки; 4=4 точки; 5=5 точки; 6=6 точки; 7=7 точки

Скалата за изследване на мотивацията на учителя е с висока надеждност (Алфа на Кронбах е 0.927), както по скалата за вътрешна мотивация на учителя, така и по скалата за външна мотивация на учителя.

Таблица 1: Анализ на надеждността на скалата за изследване на мотивацията на учителя по скалата за вътрешна мотивация на учителя и по скалата за външна мотивация на учителя.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.927	0.932	16

Изследвани лица

Изследването е проведено в периода 2016 – 2017 г. с учители от Република България.

Изследваните лица са 120, от тях - 18 мъже (15 %) и 102 жени (85%). 78 (17 мъже и 61 жени) са от ОУ „Св.Св.Кирил и Методи“, гр. Видин; 42 (1 мъж и 41 жени) са от ОУ „Христо Смирненски“ гр. Радомир, област Перник.

Норми

Нормите са реализирани с програма SPSS, v.20 за разграничаване на високо, средно и ниско ниво на вътрешна мотивация и на външна мотивация на изследваните учители по

скалата за мотивация на учителя (по скалата за вътрешна мотивация на учителя и по скалата за външна мотивация на учителя).

Средно аритметичната стойност по скалата за вътрешна мотивация е 46,15 т., стандартното отклонение е 7.53 т., т.е. резултати под 38.62 т. се приемат за ниско ниво, а резултати над 53.68 т. се приемат за високо ниво и резултати от 38.62 т. до 53.68 т. се приемат за средно ниво. Фигура 1 визуализира процентното разпределение на изследваните лица, които са проявили високо, средно и ниско ниво на вътрешната мотивация.

Фиг.1: Процентно разпределение на изследваните лица с високо,средно и ниско ниво на вътрешна мотивация.



Средно аритметичната стойност по скалата за външна мотивация е 41,93 т., стандартното отклонение е 7.93 т., т.е. резултати под 34 т. се приемат за ниско ниво, а резултати над 49.86 т. се приемат за високо ниво и резултати от 34 т. до 49.86 т. се приемат за средно ниво. Фигура 2 визуализира процентното разпределение на изследваните лица, които са проявили високо, средно и ниско ниво на външна мотивация.

Фиг. 2: Процентно разпределение на изследваните лица, които са проявили високо, средно и ниско ниво на външна мотивация.



В заключение, изследванията по скалата за мотивация на учители, която съдържа скала за вътрешна мотивация на учителя и скала за външна мотивация на учителя продължават. Насочва се вниманието на изследователите към значимостта на проблематика за рефлексивните компоненти на вътрешна мотивация на учителя и на външна мотивация на учителя в контекста на компетентното им удовлетворение от себе си и в работата си.

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ERGICITY – THEORIES AND VIEWS

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Abstract

Ergicity characteristics is important area of research into the functioning of psychological processes and their modeling, to consider current theories and concepts in psychology of Ergicity characteristics. This paper provides different theories and definitions related to Temperament and Ergicity characteristics.

Key Words: *ergicity, temperament, emotions.*

Numerous authors that believe that the evolution had main role in shaping the emotions' characteristics and functions, emphasized the notion of emotions adaptations (Cosmides, & Tooby, 1997; 2000; Posner & Rothbart, 2007; 2007a; 2007b).

Numerous studies of the temperament were created in psychological literature (Adler, 1965; Andreeva, 1998; Buss, 1975).

James - Lange Theory

James suggests that emotions are result of physiological changes induced by a stimulus.

“My theory ... is that the bodily changes follow directly the perception of the exciting fact, and that our feeling of the same changes as they occur is the emotion. Common sense says, we lose our fortune, are sorry and weep; we meet a bear, are frightened and run; we are insulted by a rival, are angry and strike. The hypothesis here to be defended says that this order of sequence is incorrect ... and that the more rational statement is that we feel sorry because we cry, angry because we strike, afraid because we tremble ... Without the bodily states following on the perception, the latter would be purely cognitive in form, pale, colorless, destitute of emotional warmth. We might then see the bear and judge it best to run, receive the insult and deem it right to strike, but we should not actually feel afraid or angry” (Walter, 1927, Lange, & James, 1967).

Lange agrees with the conception of James about the emotion as a consequence of the perception of physiological changes. According to him psychological changes are controlled by a part of the brain (Walter, 1927, Lange, & James, 1967).

The result is the James-Lange theory of emotion (Walter, 1927, Lange, & James, 1967). According to James-Lange theory the emotion is a result of psychological reaction of event. The emotional reaction depends on the interpretations of those psychological reaction. The James-Lange theory inverted the way of thinking about the cause and the effect dependence between the experience of emotion and its manifestation. James and Lange emphasized that the autonomic activity and actions induced by emotional stimuli generate the feeling of emotion (Walter, 1927, Lange, & James, 1967).

The Cannon–Bard theory of emotion

Different from the James - Lange Theory Cannon and Bard state that Emotion-arousing stimuli simultaneously trigger emotional experience and psychological responses (Cannon, 1927; Bard, 1928;1934). The main highlight in this theory is the importance of the central nervous system in triggering a given emotion. As such the psychological changes are consequence of emotion.

The importance of the cognition in emotion is illustrated by Schachter (Schachter, & Singer, 1962).

Schachter-Singer Theory

According to the Schlachter-Singer theory the experience of the emotional is determined by an interaction between two factors - physiological arousal and cognitive label, i.e. when an emotion is felt, a physiological arousal occurs and the person uses the immediate environment to search for emotional cues to label the physiological arousal (Schachter, & Singer, 1962).

Physiological arousal, which is conceptualized as being diffuse in nature, determines the intensity, but not the quality, of an emotional state. The cognition determines which emotion, if any, will be experienced. Both cognition and arousal are necessary conditions for the occurrence of an emotional state (Schachter, & Singer, 1962).

They assume that the individual needs to understand his physiological state at every moment. The individual tries to find a cognition

that allows to specify the relevant emotion every time he experience an undifferentiated activation. If no corresponding cognition is found likely to explain why he/she is physically stimulated, he will identify the emotion by comparison with other individuals in the same situation. However, when the individual has no explanation, he will not look for factors in the environment that can explain the arousal.

According to Rusalov the emotionality and social emotionality are temperamental characteristics (Rusalov, 1989).

The temperament is interpreted by Rusalov as a system of formal, behavioral changes, reflecting the fusion synthesis, programming, performance and feedback in the functioning of the human psyche in its interaction with the subject world and society (Rusalov, 1989; Mutafova, 2011). Affective synthesis corresponds to the ego; Programming of plasticity; Performance - of the pace and feedback - of emotional sensitivity. The study of the personality subscales of the questionnaire on the structure of the temperament of Rusalov is objectively oriented (in the subject world) and subjectively oriented (communicative in society) (Rusalov, 1989; 10-21; Mutafova, 2011). The personality scale for Rusalov's temperament structure contains 9 subclasses: subjective agility, social agility, plasticity, social plasticity, pace, social pace, emotionality, social emotionality, a control scale for social desires (Rusalov, 1989; Mutafova, 2011).

Emotionality - the emotional sensitivity of the person to the discrepancy between conceived, planned, expected, real object action and its results; Sensitivity to job failures.

High Level: the person is highly sensitive to the discrepancy between conceived, planned, expected, real object action and its results, feeling of a sense of well-being, anxiety, inferiority, high worry about work, sensitivity to failure, divergence between conceived, Anticipated, actual object-effect and its results.

Low Level: The person has little emotional reactivity in failure, lack of sensitivity to work failure, calmness, and confidence in himself.

Social emotionality - emotional sensitivity of the person in the communicative sphere, sensitivity to communication failures, to other people's assessments.

High Level: the person is highly emotional in the communicative sphere, high sensitivity to communication failures.

Low Level: the person has low emotionality in the communicative sphere, lack of sensitivity to communication failures, self-confidence, and situations of communicating with others.

Ekman differ six basic emotions that are with universal expression and are supposed to have had an adaptive function: joy, disgust, surprise, sadness, anger, fear (Ekman, 1992a; 1992b; 1999; 1982;1985; 1994;).

Matsumoto and Ekman define emotions as “transient, biopsychological reactions designated to aid individuals in adapting to and coping with events that have implications for survival and well-being” (Ekman, 1992a; 1992b; 1999; Ekman, Levenson & Friesen, 1983).

The tolerance and the emotional intelligence have an important role in improving the interaction between different personalities (Stoyanova, 2010).

There are various researches in the psychological literature about the temperament (Adler, 1965; Andreeva, 1998; Buss, & Plomin, 1975; Mavrodiev, 2008; 2015; Rusalov, 1989; 2012; Stoyanova, 2011; Mutafova, 2007, pp. 17-19; 2011, pp. 196-215).

The sanguine temperament has a strong, mobile and balanced superior nervous activity. Sanguinis is moveable, proactive, quickly adaptable, with strong emotions, but not exceeding necessary due to the balanced nervous processes; a strong will that provides him with the necessary resistance to overcome life's difficulties (Mutafova, 2011; Rothbart & Bates, 2006; Rothbart & Derryberry, 1981; Rothbart et all, 2006).

The phlegmatic temperament has a strong, not very mobile but balanced nervous system. The phlegmatic is characterized by prolonged reflection on his actions; with impulsivity; with the knowledge of his emotions and has no difficulty in overcoming the difficulties. Changes occur slowly (Mutafova, 2011; Rothbart & Bates, 2006; Rothbart & Derryberry, 1981; Rothbart et all, 2006).

Choleric temperament is determined by strong but unbalanced nerve processes. The choleric is excited, unrequited, with frequent change of decisions and moods; difficult to maintain self-control. His adaptation is hampered by the instability of his decisions (Mutafova, 2011; Rothbart & Bates, 2006; Rothbart & Derryberry, 1981; Rothbart et all, 2006).

The melancholic temperament, defined by a weak type of nervous system. Melancholic is characterized by weakness of will, timidity, indecision, passivity, sometimes with a depressed mood (Mutafova, 2011;

Rothbart & Bates, 2006; Rothbart & Derryberry, 1981; Rothbart et al., 2006).

There is no pure temper. Every individual has a temperament containing components of all four types. Determining his / her affiliation to one of them is not absolute and is carried out using psychological tests (Mutafova, M., 2007, 17-19).

For Rusalov the temperament is combination of formal and behavioral changes reflecting affective synthesis, in the functioning of the human psyche in its interaction with the subject world and society; ergicity, quickness, plasticity and emotionality (Rusalov, 1989; 2012)

Subject ergicity generally reflects the activity of a person as: a pronounced need to absorb the subject world, the presence or absence of a pursuit of activity, an intense mental and physical labor, also a level of tone and involvement in the process of activity (Rusalov, 1989; 2012).

Social ergicity relates to the need of the person in social contact; with his desire to explore social forms of activity; with his aspiration: to leadership, to communication and to the acquisition of a high rank of socialization through communication (Rusalov, 1989; 2012).

The personality scale of Rusalov about the structure of the temperament contains 9 subclasses: subjective ergicity, social ergicity, plasticity, social plasticity, pace, social pace, emotionality, social emotionality, a control scale for social desires (Rusalov, 1989; 2012).

The respondents' answers are based on the degree of expression of the specific behavior in the questions of Mutafova's modification of the Rusalov temperament questionnaire from 1 to 7, with 1 being the smallest and 7 the maximum degree of expression (Rusalov, 1989; 2012; Mutafova, 2014; 2015; Orakova, 2000).

Questionnaire for the structure of the temperament (Rusalov, 1989; 2012) (Translated from Mutafova).

Instructions: "You are asked to answer 105 questions. Questions are focused on clarifying your usual behavior. Try to present typical situations and give your first natural answer that comes to your mind. Respond quickly without thinking and without missing a single question. Remember there are no "good" or "bad" answers. If you chose yes, type "yes". If you have chosen a "no" answer, type "no".

Are you a moving person?

Are you always ready right away without thinking about joining a conversation?

Do you prefer privacy than a large company?

Do you experience a constant thirst for activity?

Your speech is usually slow, right?

Are you a wounded person?

Do you often sleep less because you have quarreled with friends?

Do you always want to do something in your free time?

Does your speech often overtake your thoughts in conversation with other people?

Are you annoyed by the rapid speech of your interlocutor?

Would you feel unhappy if you have been deprived of the opportunity to communicate with people for a long time?

Have you ever been late for a meeting or a job?

Do you like to run fast?

Are you experiencing the stumbling blocks in your work?

Is it easy to carry out work that requires continuous attention and great concentration?

Is it difficult to speak very fast?

Are you often worried when you have not done the job properly?

Do your thoughts often jump over each other during the conversation?

Do you like games that require speed and agility?

Is it easy to find other options for an already solved task?

Are you worried if you are misunderstood the conversation?

Do you have a complicated, responsible job?

Do you come to talk about things you do not understand?

Do you grasp the fast speech?

Is it easy for you to do many tasks at the same time?

Do you have any conflicts with your friends about telling them something, thoughtlessly earlier?

Do you usually prefer simple work that does not require much energy?

Are you easily upset when you find minor deficiencies in your work?

Do you enjoy a job?

Is it easy to communicate with different people?

Do you usually prefer to think, to weigh things up and then to speak?

Are all your habits good and desirable?

Do you have fast movements with your hands?

Do you usually keep silent and do not contact when you are in the society of little-known people?

Are you easily switching from one solution to another?

Are you sometimes inclined to exaggerate in your imagination the negative attitude of your loved ones towards you?

Are you a conversational person?

Is it usually easy for you to perform a job requiring instant reactions?

Do you usually speak freely, without hindrance?

Are you worried that you will not be doing your job?

Are you easily offended when your close people point out to you your shortcomings?

Do you attract tedious, responsible work?

Do you consider your movements slow?

Do you happen to keep thoughts that you would like to hide from others?

Can you think without thinking about asking another person a questionable question?

Do you enjoy rapid movements?

Is it easy to "generate" new job-related ideas?

Are you worried about a responsible conversation?

Can you say that you are fast executing your order?

Do you like to take large amounts of money on your own?

Is your mime rich in conversation?

If you promised to do something, do you always fulfill your promise, whether you are comfortable or not?

Are you afraid that others are treating you worse than they should?

Do you usually prefer to perform only one operation?

Do you enjoy games at a fast pace?

Are there many long pauses in your speech?

Is it easy to bring in a big company?

Do you usually feel a surplus of strength and want to do some hard work?

Is it usually difficult to switch your attention from one job to another?

Do you have the chance to spoil your mood for a long time that you have failed a planned job?

Are you often not asleep because you are not dealing with things directly related to your work?

Do you like to be a big company?

Are you excited as you make friends with your friends?

Do you have a need for work that requires dedication?

Are you sometimes going out of yourselves, angry?

Are you willing to solve many tasks at the same time?

Do you keep yourself in a big company?

Are you often giving your first impression?

Are you worried about the lack of confidence in the job?

Are your movements slow when the masters do something?

Is it easy to switch from one job to another?

Do you read aloud quickly?

Do you sometimes crawl up?

Are you silent when you are in a friendly circle?

Do you need people to cheer and comfort you?

Do you have many different orders at a time?

Do you work fast in a fast pace?

In your free time, do you attract the opportunity to talk to people?

Do you often suffer from insomnia when working failures?

Do you shake your hands during a quarrel?

Do you think long before you make your point of view?

Are there among your acquaintances people you do not like?

Do you usually prefer light work?

Are you easily offended in the conversation with trifles?

Do you usually decide to start a conversation first?

Do you attract people?

Are you inclined at first to think and talk?

Are you often excited about your work?

Would you always pay for transporting luggage during transport if you are not afraid of checking?

Do you usually have a special night and company?

Do you tend to exaggerate in your imagination job failures?

Do you like to talk quickly?

Is it easy to refrain from speaking of an unexpected idea?

Do you prefer to work slowly?

Are you worried about the slightest difficulties in the job?

Do you prefer the slow, relaxed conversation?

Are you often excited about your mistakes at work?
Are you able to successfully carry on a lengthy, labor-intensive job?
Can you, without a long thought, turn to another person?
Do you often worry about feeling insecure in communicating with people?
Are you easily taking on new tasks?
Are you tired when you have to talk long?
Do you prefer to work relaxed without much strain?
Do you like the varied work that requires switching attention?
Do you like to be alone with yourself for a long time?

KEY:

Ergicity / Erg / Yes - Questions 4, 8, 15, 22, 42, 50, 58, 64, 96; No - 27, 83, 103.

Social Ergicity / SErg / Yes - 11, 30, 57, 62, 67, 78, 86; No - 3, 34, 74, 90, 105.

Control issues of social desirability / K / Yes - 32, 52, 89; No - 12, 23, 44, 65, 73, 82.

The Rusalov's questionnaire is used to diagnose the properties of the "subject" and the "communicative" aspect of temperament. The respondents' answers are "yes" or "no", which means that the questionnaire is a dichotomous.

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SELF-ASSESSMENT OF 7-12 YEARS OLD STUDENTS – THEORIES AND VIEWS

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Abstract

Countless researches have been dedicated to the structure, functions and possibilities of forming the self-assessment, the concept of the personality' self-esteem, a positive or negative unit forwarded to oneself and others (Coopersmith, 1967; Rosenberg, 1965; Mavrodiiev, 2015; Mutafova, 2007; 2014; 2015; Orakova, 2000; Stoyanova & Peneva, 2014).

Key words: self-assessment, personality, individual-psychology

The terms self-assessment and self-respect are highly dependent structural components of the term self-esteem, which is relatively stable and is a component of the self-consciousness of the personality (Peneva & Stoyanova, 2011; Stoyanova & Peneva, 2014, p. 90).

The adequate self-assessment is based on positive and assertive behaviour of the personality (Peneva, 2012).

The persons with a realistic self-assessment are more intelligent and worry and fear more the potential setback to come (Velichkov, 1989). The research for the specifics of the personality of the ones, who have developed the need to feel accomplished shows that they are characterized with higher expectation for success and acceptance of their future realization, one full of success. They consider perfection to be more viable than prestige. They acknowledge the preciousness of time and develop skills, which aid them with the way they spend their time (Velichkov, 1989).

Perception is perhaps our most important mental/psychological function, in that it is a prerequisite for all other processes of our cognitive system. An organism that lacks perception is not capable of learning, memorizing, thinking and developing consciousness. Perception is the basic way in which we receive information about the environment we live in. According to Reid (1785) perception is the set of experiences that are associated with external environmental stimuli. Sense on the other hand, is the internal experience of the organism that does not connect to any

external object. Therefore, perception is the product of a mental process that connects the respective organic experience with the outside world and gives meaning to the cognitive system. According to Samartzi (1998), concept in psychology is defined as the way in which the experiences perceived by our senses are transmitted. Perception is a function controlled by the conscious part of oneself which organizes the conscious thoughts and desires.

The perceptual process can be divided into several stages. This distinction does not mean that concept is occurring partially. It is simple a means to simplify its study. The stages of perception are:

External stimulus (eg light) that enters the sensory organ (eye).

Recording of that stimulus in the sensory organ (picture on the retina). Create electrical signals from the receptors.

Transfer of signals by specialized neurons.

Signals reach the brain.

Signals are analyzed by the brain.

Perception of an external object.

These stages involve a static perception. However, in reality, perception is scarcely a static event. The body reacts to perception (usually through movement) which leads to new perceptions so that the process is repeated.

According to cognitive theories, the perceptual stimulus is poor in information and it requires further cognitive processing in order to enable the individual to gain an understanding of his/hers environment. Perception depends on learning, memory, speed of process and the conscious knowledge which we have acquired through our previous experiences. The basic principle of cognitive theories about perception is that the latter can be defined as the end product of a series of mental functions that are occurring in our perceptual processing system. Under that prism, one can argue that thought, expressive speech and problem-solving planning is the end product of a perceptual/cognitive process that involves many and different functions.

Developed cognitive/perceptual abilities of young children -even from infancy- are considered as indicators of giftedness (Antoniou, 2009). Special cognitive abilities that are exerted in IQ test, extraordinary memory and the ability to learn new information are considered to be related to increased perceptual awareness of gifted children (Thomaidou, 2008).

As a cognitive regulator of personal competence and resources that the person can use in certain circumstances, its own system of self-assessment acquires the self-sustaining capacity and the basis for sustainable strategies of development and use of personal competence (Rosenberg, 1965; Tair, 2006; Stoyanova, 2010, 2011; Velichkov, 1989, pp. 59 – 63; Orakova, 2000, pp. 58-59; Mutafova, 2014, 2015).

Exploring the interrelationship between the self-assessment and the communicative strategies reveals that individuals with low self-assessment, when having a conversation, have their focus set on protecting themselves from criticism and unwillingness. They consider the tasks for social interaction to be difficult and prefer to receive information that makes it harder for them to express themselves. Concerning the strategies of the behaviour in situations, where beforehand a bad reputation was made to others, individuals with high self-assessment don't conform to other people's opinions for them and are capable of behaving in a certain manner, with which they make people see them in a more positive aspect. Individuals with low self-assessment, who confirm others expectations towards them and review the situation as a source of limits, rather than a source of possibilities for personal manifestation. Researches reveal that individuals with high self-assessment remember and use vital information for the "Self" more often after success, but those with low self-assessment use the said information after a setback. The easy pliability of the reactions of the learned helplessness for the people with low self-assessment is due to the activating of the self-evaluative data with negative content, in which a strong generalizing of the failure happens and a denial of the way it actively works. That is how the self-assessment, with the help of the activated and processed information, is a cognitive regulator of the personal competence and resources, which a person can invest in certain circumstances. The system of self-assessments of the personality receives the quality to self-sustain and it's hard for it to give into a certain change. Stable strategies of development are formed and used for personal competence. (Velichkov, 1989, pp. 59 – 63; Orakova, 2000. p. 59).

Furthermore, this overexcitability of the senses drives perception, consciousness and emotion. It also bridges the gap between the cognitive and the emotional level of their lives. This level of conscious awareness or self-consciousness that leads the individual to think and criticize his/hers experiences is called apperception. Perception is an interpretive process

that is not based only on information coming from the stimulus but is also influenced by previous experiences and knowledge.

According to Jung apperception is the foundation of learning and is defined as “the psychic process by which a new content is articulated to similar already – existing contents in such a way as to be understood or clear” (Watson, 1914). Further, term apperception describes the minds and psychological perception of itself, integrating the past and the present experience. It’s any portraiture of our perception of the world and includes sensory memories, language, personal beliefs, etc. According to Gennaro & Huenemann (1999), apperception is not consciousness but self-consciousness or self-perception.

The psychoanalytic process had studied the perceptual and apperceptual abilities as mental functions through which individuals organize their consciousness (thoughts, perceptions) and unconscious desires.

The research of Stamboliyska (2016) includes certain aspects of cognitive processes and operations of students from primary school age, and investigates their level through indicators: perceptual categorization relational signs, perception of compliance with standard touch, finding the equivalence and similarity by perceptual differentiation, perceptual recognition and identification, representation of the information and attribution (marking them), scanning and registration of the information, classification, setting class and series, understanding of the logical relations and a character orientation, regarding to optimization of the sensory knowledge (Stamboliyska, 2016).

The interaction between Id, Ego and Superego is presented in the Freud’s three-component model of personality. With the protective mechanism sublimation (as a mechanism through which the retained sexual energy will be redirecting to non-sexual objects and activities that is acceptable for the individual and for the society) the personality realizes creative activity (Freud, 1990). Freud describes the giftedness from a conscious and unconscious perspective. In this sense, the Freud’s theory may be used as a base of an analysis of perceptual and apperceptual abilities of 7-12 years old children.

Freud describes perceptual and apperceptual abilities from a conscious and unconscious perspective. According to his first theory, the psych of individuals can be studied according to their level of consciousness. That is, the psych can be described according to the degree of awareness about the psychological phenomena that occur within an

individual. So the three levels are the conscious, the preconscious and the unconscious (Potamianos, et al., 2002).

The conscious level includes memories, emotions and thoughts. It is defined by data that the individual is aware of, whereas the preconscious consists of all which can be retrieved from memory. These two parts are closely connected but do leave a large area to be filled by the unconscious level (Auffret, 2005). Information or knowledge about this level is not known but Freud argues that there lie the ideas, the impulses and the feelings of anxiety or pain in general, which are presented symbolically in dreams or parapraxes (i.e. a slip in memory, speech, writing or random ‘accidents’).

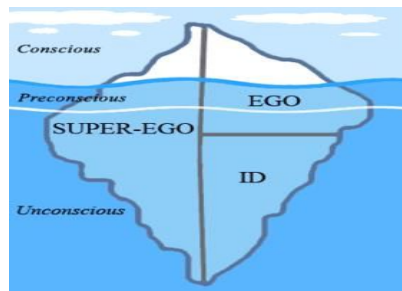
Additionally, in his second theory, Freud describes three parts of the mind: Id, Ego and Superego.

The Id is driven by the basic instincts of sexual desire and urges, acts on the principle of gratification, i.e. aims at maximizing the immediate gratification, and operates entirely on the unconscious level (Potamianos, 2002).

The Ego (Ego) is the pragmatic part of our personality. It includes the psychic and cognitive functions through which the individual perceives reality, thinks and acts. It operates on what Freud called ‘reality principle’ and aims at maximizing gratification within the limits of the real world. It’s role is to balance the demands of the Id and Superego. The Ego develops from infancy, emerges approximately in 6 months and is identified within the conscious level.

The Superego includes the ethical and social values of the individual. It assumes the role of consciousness, creating feelings of guilt when social norms are being violated. It is formed from the age of 4 and onwards.

Figure 1. Visualization of Freud's theory.



Taking into account the framework of modern tendencies in the field of school psychology, as well as empirical data about the contribution of psychological programs for the promotion of mental resilience and well-being at a school environment, we have chosen to implement the program 'Social and Emotional Learning' in this study, as the optimal method for a group of preschool children, given the multitude of studies that support the positive outcome from such trainings both in social/emotional skills at school and at the daily life of young children (Durlak, et al., 2011; Powell & Dunlap, 2009; Payton, et al., 2008).

Social and emotional learning as well as life skills training are applied programs that promote mental health at a school environment. They are suitable for students of all educational levels, starting from kindergarten. In the early 1990s researchers from various faculties began to seek common ground for creating a framework that would support positive social, emotional and academic development of children and adolescents in school. The establishment of Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL) is until today the most influential organization in terms of promoting the goals of Social Emotional Learning (Merrell & Gueldner, 2010). According to Zins, Bloodworth, Weissberg & Wallberg, 2004, p. 6:

"We define Social and Emotional Learning as the procedure through which children enhance their ability to integrate thought, emotions and behavior, in order to achieve important obligations in their lives. Children with sufficient knowledge of Social - Emotional Learning are able to identify and manage their emotions, create healthy relationships, set positive goals, satisfy personal and social needs and make responsible and moral decisions".

The Social and Emotional Learning is a scientific psychological method that uses group teaching, employs techniques from the cognitive/behavioral approach and is consistent with the kindergarten's curriculum. The teaching of SEL's skills is somewhat training to techniques of emotional intelligence (Kourmouzi, 2013). According to the Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL), the content of the SEL program identifies five groups of interrelated basic social and emotional skills, which although should not be followed deterministically, reveal the key principles of implementation (Devaney, O'Brien, Keister, Resnik, & Weissberg, 2006). These are as follows:

Self-awareness Includes the abilities of identifying the perception that children hold for themselves (self-awareness), their emotions and self-esteem.

Self-management: Involves self-regulation skills and the ability to transform them into actions. Includes self-control, manage stress, control of impulses, self-self-motivation and perseverance in terms of overcoming challenges.

Social awareness: It is the ability to create functional relationships with others and involves the perception and acceptance of visual similarity and diversity of others, empathy, and respect of other people.

Relationship Skills: Involves the ability to create successful relationships based on social interaction and communication, to resist inappropriate social pressure, to prevent, manage and resolve interpersonal conflicts, and the ability to give and receive help.

Responsible decision making: Refers to the making and taking of individual and social decisions. It could represent problem-solving or the evaluation of various alternative solutions.

Cross thematic curriculum framework for Greek Kindergarten (DEPPS, 2003) states that the

"purpose of the kindergarten in accordance with the legislation is to help children develop physically, emotionally, mentally and socially within the context of the broader objectives of primary and secondary education and to properly socialize the children" (p. 586).

Special emphasis is given to the fact that «children should develop their self-esteem, basic skills of cooperation and simultaneously realize their uniqueness and identify similarities and differences with other people and respect such. Moreover, it is evident that the development of social skills in kindergarten is linked to the content that emerges from the language activities and the participation of children in other program activities (p.588). »

This conceptualization for the purpose of the Greek educational system can only result in the establishment of a strong connection with the definition of programs that promote mental health and social/emotional learning. Despite the fact that the curriculum requires the development of social and emotional skills in children, and although many teachers

recognize and accept this urgent need, the non existence of specialized school psychologists in the flexible zone or at day schools in combination with the teachers' ignorance in terms of implementing the methodology of such programs, makes almost impossible to integrate the social/emotional learning in school reality. This finding highlights the need for a systematic methodological approach that will help to implement programs which promote mental health at the kindergarten.

Under this framework, social-emotional learning as a program of primary prevention and promotion of mental health in school can be ideally applied to gifted children, who either due to their asymmetrical development or other components of giftedness, are more in need of emotional education at this critical developmental phase, rather than of cognitive-educational approaches that emphasize on educational and learning efficiency.

According to Mutafova (2014, p. 16-17) the first function is the sensory - perception through which we gather information from the environment. The second is the intellectual - thinking, i.e. we organize our experience in a logic way, the third is intuition, we relies to our intuition function when a stimulus is new and unexplored, and the final is the feeling-emotion, is the subjective significance of the object for the subject. The four functions direct the conscious cognitive activity, pursuing different goals.

By thinking, man tries to understand the nature of the world and the experience, whereas emotion contributes to the evaluation of direct and indirect facts based on pleasure or displeasure. The processes of thinking/perceiving and emotions/feeling seek to categorize experience in different ways. The first is based on cognitive processes of categorization and classification, whereas emotion consists in subjective situations that arise in response to emotional experiences (Mutafova, 2014).

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TEACHERS – THEIR PEDAGOGICAL SKILLS

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Abstract

"The teacher is considered a central figure in any classroom learning environment. Thus, the interaction which students have with their teachers determines the nature of their interpersonal relationship with others and enables the students to improve their communication and interaction processes. Today teachers and students spend a substantial amount of time interacting with one another in the classroom" (Gupta and Fisher, 2011; Mutafova, 2014; Mutafova & Okoutsidou, 2016a).

Different styles of interaction between teachers and students in the classroom increase the necessity of further researches (Mutafova, Stoyanova & Peneva, 2013; Mutafova, 2015).

Key words: *abilities of the teacher, personality, ego.*

Views for Theories related to Effective and Social Perception

In Asch's words, "How do the perceptions, thoughts, and motives of one person become known to other persons? In what way is the gap that separates one person from another bridged?" (Asch, 1952, p. 143). To answer questions like these, psychologists study impression formation, the way in which we form impressions of others and attribute specific characteristics and traits to them.

One general conclusion of the research on impression formation is that our impressions follow the general dictum of Gestalt psychology on sensation and perception: The whole is greater than the sum of the parts. As noted by Asch over four decades ago, people's impressions of others are formed from more complex rules than a simple sum of the characteristics that they use to describe the person. This point can be illustrated by central traits and the primacy effect (Buskist & Gerbing, 1990).

Schemata. The central organizing theme of much of cognitive psychology is the concept of schemata. Schemata provide an overall framework for processing information about people, objects, and situations.

By serving as organizational frameworks for interpreting new information, schemata provide a much needed means for reducing an

otherwise unmanageable complex social world to something within which people can function. According to psychologists, people construct schemata not only for activities and events but for people as well (Bransford & Johnson, 1972).

Central Traits. A central trait is a schema because it helps peoples to process or summarize a large amount of information gathered through their interactions with that person. Although his research predated the modern emphasis in cognitive processing and schemata in social psychology, Asch demonstrated that central traits could be powerful tools for developing initial impressions of others (Asch, 1946). Asch provided subjects with a list of traits describing a hypothetical person. Some subjects received a list which included the trait “warm,” while others received a list of traits that was identical, except the trait “warm” was replaced by “cold.” Subjects receiving the list including "warm" were more likely to see the person as generous, happy, and altruistic. But, not all traits seemed to be so important in shaping one’s perception of another person. When the words "polite" and “blunt” were substituted for “warm” and “cold” no discrepancies in subjects’ perceptions were observed. In other words, the trait of "warmth" is somehow interpreted as being more central to the personality than is "politeness." People’s perception of others, then, is based partially on the schemata they have regarding others’ central traits (Buskist & Gerbing, 1990).

The Primacy Effect. To determine whether first impressions might overpower later if impressions in the development of schemata, Asch presented following lists of words to two groups of subjects (Asch, 1946).

Intelligent, industrious, impulsive, critical, stubborn, envious

Envious, stubborn, critical, impulsive, industrious, intelligent

The tendency to form an impression of a person based on the first information people receive about them is called the primacy effect. The impression someone receives of a person seems to be the most persistent. Later information may violate our schema of the person and is consequently given less consideration when forming perceptions of others. More work, which has involved developing mathematical equations of cognition, has been able to predict the primacy effect with reasonable accuracy, indicating that social perception follows predictable rules (Anderson, 1974).

Stereotypes: As we have seen, schemata simplify the world around us by organizing information along specific themes. For example, schemata

allow us to categorize people into groups organized along one or more attributes such as profession (manager, school teacher), age (young, senior citizen), ethnicity (Caucasian, African American), or size (tall, short). Although these organizational structures allow us to function in a complex world, sometimes schemata can be misleading. Not everyone fits into our schemata, nor are all people who are classified into a particular group exactly alike (Buskist & Gerbing, 1990).

One glaring example of the negative aspects of schemata are stereotypes, oversimplified schemata that are applied to an entire group of people. Even without spiteful intentions, most people misperceive members of other social groups. The groups could be students at a neighboring college, people from another region of the country, or members of another ethnic group. These misperceptions often occur in specific ways. For example, people who are members of other groups are often seen as more similar to one another than they actually are (Wilder, 1981; Quattrone, 1986). The oft-heard statement "They all look the same to me" is illustrative of people's tendency to view members of other groups as being so similar to one another.

Stereotyping has both cognitive and behavioral consequences. Prejudice, which literally means to "prejudge," refers to a negative evaluation of an individual based on his or her membership in a specific group. Prejudice involves forming expectations of an individual's behavior based on a stereotype of that person's membership in a particular group. Discrimination, which is the behavioral expression of prejudice, is treating someone differently because of his or her membership in a particular group. Stereotypes form the cornerstone on which both prejudice and discrimination rest (Buskist & Gerbing, 1990).

Stereotypes are often extremely resistant to change. One reason for this may be the very nature of our cognitive systems. As we saw earlier, once a schema is established, subsequent information is interpreted within the context of that schema. Accordingly, information that appears to contradict the schema is discounted.

Despite their resistance to change, stereotypes and their expression in prejudice and discrimination can under certain circumstances be reduced. The case of Vaders is an especially interesting example. Through unfortunate circumstances, Vaders was taken hostage by a group of political terrorists in the Netherlands. The terrorists had decided to execute Vaders as a sign of their conviction, but first allowed him to dictate a final

letter to his loved ones at home. In the letter, Vaders spoke of his life in very personal terms, referring to his successes and failures, his aspirations, and the dreams he held for his family. Amazingly, after having learned so much about Vaders, coming to see him as an individual with the same as themselves, the terrorists decided not to kill him (Buskist & Gerbing, 1990).

A practice commonly employed under less extraordinary social circumstances is to substitute cooperation for competition between groups. In the jigsaw classroom, for instance, students from different ethnic backgrounds are placed in mixed-ethnic groups and provided with academic assignments. The grade a student receives is based upon the performance of the entire group, thus encouraging cooperation among the group's members. Such cooperation leads not only to improved academic performance among individuals, but to social interactions that are not dictated by previously held stereotypes (Aronson, Stephen, Sikes, Blaney & Snapp, 1978). These two examples illustrate how personal interaction may reduce the negative stereotypes we have regarding other people.

Attribution. Social psychologists develop scientific theories that explain social behavior. All of us, however, have our own common-sense theories and explanations of social behavior - all of us in our daily lives try to explain both our own behavior and the behavior of others. Why was John late? Does the politician mean to keep her campaign promise, or is she just trying to get elected? Why did your best friend get such a good grade on the last psychology test when you did so poorly?

Answers to questions like these are important to our own lives and they contribute to an understanding of our behavior. To help explain how people infer the causes of their own and others' behavior, social psychologists have developed attribution theories (Kelley, 1967).

One attribution task that we face almost daily is deciding whether someone's behavior is due primarily to personality characteristics of that person, or to characteristics of the situation or environment in which the behavior occurred. You may, for example, see your favorite athlete in a TV ad promoting a soft drink. In real life does this person prefer that soft drink to others, or is the endorsement simply due to a large monetary inducement?

According to Heider:

Behavior can be ascribed primarily to the person or the environment, that is, behavior can be accounted for by relatively stable traits of the

personality or by factors within the environment. Failure, for instance, can be attributed to lack of ability, a personal characteristic, or to the supposition that the task is very difficult, an environmental condition (Heider 1958, p. 56).

Attributions to the person are called dispositional, and those directed toward the environment are called situational. Dispositional and situational attributions are made according to specific kinds of rules. Two important attributional rules are covariation and discounting (Buskist & Gerbing, 1990).

Freud's psychoanalytical theory

Freud believed that personality is composed of three primary interactive and often competing components: the id, ego, and superego. These components do not actually correspond to physical parts of the brain, instead they represent basic principles regarding how the mind works in shaping our personalities. The basic theme of Freudian theory is that the mind, especially the unconscious mind, is a perpetual battleground in which the id, ego, and superego are engaged in unending conflict. This inner conflict, which may take different forms in different people, is reflected one's personality (Eneva, 1994).

The Id. The id is the personality structure that is the unconscious reservoir of libido, the psychic energy that, fuels our inherited biological instincts. Freud referred to these as Eros, representing life and love. Those instincts for aggression or those that lead to self-destructive behavior, he called Thanatos, representing a death wish. The id is our most primitive personality structure and is the source of the energy for the entire personality system; The id follows one and only one rule, to obtain immediate gratification, whatever from it may take. This is known as the pleasure principle; if hungry then eats; if angry, then strike or seek revenge or destroy something (Eneva, 1994).

The id has an utter disregard for societal rules and values. It is held in partial check by Freud's second component of personality, the superego (Freud, 1900; 1933).

The Superego is the reposition of an individual's moral values; it is stocked with the laws, mores, and sanctions of the society in which one lives. Although the id is complete and functioning at birth, the superego develops later. The superego is the personality structure in opposition to the id; when the id urges "do it now", the superego counters with "don't do it if it's morally wrong" (Freud, 1933).

The superego is composed of two parts, the conscience and the ego-ideal. In the conscience moral sanctions reside that the superego uses to counter the aggressive and sexual promptings of the id. The conscience is a sort of substitute parent. The child who begins to reach for a cookie before dinner, but then begins to feel guilty and withdraws her hand, is being influenced by her superego.

The superego also houses the ego-ideal, the standards of goodness and virtue that an individual strives to achieve. While the id prompts humans to seek gratification via the pleasure principle, the superego is directing one's toward his or her ego-ideal (Buskist, & Gerbing, 1990; Freud, 1900; 1914; 1933).

The ego is the structure of personality that involves cognitive processes, such as thinking and reasoning that the mind uses to process information about the environment. The ego serves as the interface between the individual and the environment; it is responsible for the human's self-awareness. The ego also serves as the general manager of personality; it makes the decisions regarding the pleasures that will be pursued at the urging of the id and the moral dictates of the superego that will be followed. In addition, the ego must also deal with the limitations imposed by external reality – not everything desired can be obtained immediately, if at all; some moral dictates cannot be followed or are simply impractical. The ego works according to the reality principle, or the tendency to satisfy the id's demands realistically, yielding to and accounting for the demands of reality, sometimes delaying the gratification of desires springing forth from the id, and sometimes softening the rules and regulations offered by the superego.

As the general manager of personality, the ego must constantly juggle the competing demands of the id, superego, and reality to maintain an equilibrium in which neither the id nor the superego dominate; hence Freud's metaphor of the ego as a battleground, the scene of perpetual conflict.

According to Freud,

“The poor ego . . . feels hemmed in on three sides, threatened by three kinds of danger, to which, if it is hard pressed, it reacts by generating anxiety . . . Thus the ego, driven by the id, confined by the superego, repulsed by reality, struggles to master its economic task of bringing about harmony among the forces and influences working in and upon it; and we

can understand how it is that so often we cannot suppress a cry: 'Life is not easy' " (Freud, 1933).

Defense Mechanisms.

Freud's patients all seemed to have one symptom in common - anxiety or an intense emotion apparently caused by a repressed internal conflict. What anxiety signals is that repression alone is not enough to keep the conflict unconscious. The conflict is beginning to emerge into consciousness, which, of course, will threaten the ego. In this case, the ego invokes its second line of protection: defense mechanisms, unconscious mental tactics that the ego uses to insulate itself from threatening ideas, perceptions, emotions, and instincts. The most fundamental defense mechanism is repression (Repression involves obstructing from awareness the instincts of the id and the emotions entailing guilt and regret of the superego. Although repressed feelings are not conscious, they continue to be active in the unconscious mind, shaping and influencing behavior many years after they occurred (Buskist, & Gerbing, 1990; Freud, 1900; 1914; 1933).

Freud believed that one's personality is basically formed during childhood. It is during this period when unconscious forces exert influences that will characterize an individual's thought and behavior patterns for the rest of his or her life. In general, Freud argued that personality develops across five psychosexual stages that span the period from birth until adolescence. Each of the psychosexual stages refers to the developmental stages that are defined by the part of the body or erogenous zone from which sexual gratification is primarily derived. Each stage is characterized by a particular psychosexual conflict that requires resolution (Freud, 1905). Freud also believed that an individual's failure to resolve the conflict associated with each stage results in fixation, or an unconscious obsession with the erogenous zone involved in that stage (Buskist, & Gerbing, 1990; Freud, 1900; 1914; 1933)..

Views of Pedagogical Abilities of Teachers

The interaction between teacher and student can be intrapersonal and interpersonal. The psychological view of the teaching profession is different from the sociological views (Eneva, 1994; Mutafova, & Okoutsidou, 2016b; Orakova, 2000; Mavrodiev, 2015; Mutafova, 2015; Velichkov, 1989; Walster et al. 1996; Weyant, 1978; Wilder, 1981; Wilson, 1975).

According to humanistic views of Rogers the teacher is a facilitator of students in the effective interaction between teacher and student (Mutafova, 2007; 2015; Orakova, 2000; Rogers, 1965; Stamatov, 2015; Stamatov & Minchev, 2003; Stamatov & Sarijska, 2013; Vasilev, 2006; Yankulova, 2016).

The system of self-assessments of the personality receives the quality to self-sustain and it's hard for it to give into a certain change. Stable strategies of development are formed and used for personal competence. Experimental data exists for the fact, that deeper realization of the personal condition and qualities weaken the suggestibility of the subject and its dependence on external sources of information for its sincere intentions. While your attention is forwarded towards yourself, it increases the truthfulness of the answers on the personality quizzes – the correlation between the evaluation and a persons' real-life behavior reaches 0.70 – 0.80. The researches of the attention a person has forwarded towards oneself reveals that accepting the lower personal competence, has strong motivational functions and forces negative emotions to resurface. They are the forces that keep the regulatory and valuable regulation of the behavior going (Velichkov, 1989; Orakova, 2000; Mutafova, 2014).

Accepting Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences has several implications for teachers in terms of classroom instruction (Gardner, 1983). The theory states that all seven intelligences are needed to productively function in society. Teachers, therefore, should think of all intelligences as equally important. This is in great contrast to traditional education systems which typically place a strong emphasis on the development and use of verbal and mathematical intelligences. Thus, the Theory of Multiple Intelligences implies that educators should recognize and teach to a broader range of talents and skills (Gardner, 1983; Mavrodiev, 2015)

Another implication is that teachers should structure the presentation of material in a style which engages most or all of the intelligences. For example, when teaching about the revolutionary war, a teacher can show students battle maps, play revolutionary war songs, organize a role play of the signing of the Declaration of Independence, and have the students read a novel about life during that period. This kind of presentation not only excites students about learning, but it also allows a teacher to reinforce the same material in a variety of ways. By activating a wide assortment of intelligences, teaching in this manner can facilitate a deeper understanding of the subject material.

Important role in improving the interaction between teachers and students is their emotional intelligence (Stoyanova, 2010). Tolerance of the teacher is essential for effective interactions with the students (Stoyanova, 2015).

Many learning styles can be found within one classroom. Therefore, it is impossible, as well as impractical, for a teacher to accommodate every lesson to all of the learning styles found within the classroom. Nevertheless, the teacher can show students how to use their more developed intelligences to assist in the understanding of a subject which normally employs their weaker intelligences (Lazear, 1992; Mutafova, 2014). For example, the teacher can suggest that an especially musically intelligent child learn about the revolutionary war by making up a song about what happened.

A better approach to assessment is to allow students to explain the material in their own ways using the different intelligences. Preferred assessment methods include student portfolios, independent projects, student journals, and assigning creative tasks. An excellent source for a more in-depth discussion on these different evaluation practices is Lazear (Freud, 1914; Lazear, 1992).

Styles of teacher in the interactions with the students can be direct style with direct influence and indirect style – with indirect influence. The Flanders system of Interaction Analysis is used to determine whether a teacher is indirect or direct in his approach to motivation and control in the classroom. The system describes teacher behaviors in the order in which they occur, in any subject at any level. It does not, however, include nonverbal behaviors and teacher-student interaction. Characteristics of the direct style with direct influence of teacher are: lecturing, giving directions, criticising or justifying authority, the students-talk response, the students-talk initiation, silence or confusion. Characteristics of indirect style – with indirect influence of teacher are: accept feelings of the students, praises or encourages, accepts or uses the ideas of students, asks questions (Buskist, & Gerbing, 1990).

These styles can be direct with direct influence and indirect-indirect influence of the teacher over students.

According to Perls, people are not made up of separate components, this is, mind, body and soul, rather human beings function as a whole. In doing so, one defines who one is (sense of self) by choice of responses to

environmental interactions (boundaries). The word “Gestalt” (of German origin) refers to a “whole, configuration, integration, pattern or form”.

Perls describes three zones of experience: the exterior, middle and interior zones of experience (Perls, 1947; 1973).

The exterior zone - exterior experience comes through the senses as they contact the immediate environment.

The interior zone – This experience is related to organism (hunger, thirst and all actions that accomplish the maintenance of homeostasis).

The middle zone – This zone is called DMZ (the demilitarized zone), is the point of contact between internal and external experience. This zone is controlled by the thought. This zone includes memories, wishes – things which are processed by the mind through thinking. From the Gestalt perspective, much of that is called neurotic behaviour originates in the DMZ. It occurs when the activity in this area is confused with reality.

Gestalt provides situations in which the person is confronted with experience on its immediacy, without the distortions of the DMZ. Only when distortions of this zone are set aside can the organism function in a healthy way.

According to Perls DMZ contains, for most people, too many should and ought, which keep external and internal experience from standing on their own (Perls, 1947; 1973).

The knowledge about DMZ is an important part of the competence of the teacher in the interactions between teachers and students.” (Mutafova&Okoutsido, 2016b).

The problem of the effective interaction of the teachers with the students is getting more and more relevant for the modern educational practice. There are different styles used from the teachers in the interaction with the students in the classroom that can be effective and not effective related to their pedagogical characteristics.

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12-15 YEARS OLD STUDENTS AND THEIR EMOTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS – THEORIES AND VIEWS

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Abstract

Emotion is important area of research into the functioning of psychological processes and their modeling, to consider current theories and concepts in psychology of emotions. This paper provides different theories and definitions related to emotional characteristics.

Key words: *emotionality, self assessment, intelligence.*

Erikson creates psychosocial theory for the personality development. Respect and support of initiatives and personal activity are prerequisites for the development of the personality's potential (Erikson, 1963; 1968).

According to Izard emotion manifests itself in two forms: emotional states and emotional traits (Izard, 1980; 1994; Stoyanova, 2011).

The tolerance and the emotional intelligence have an important role in improving the interaction between different personalities (Stoyanova, 2010).

Numerous researches have been dedicated to the structure, functions and possibilities of forming the self-assessment, the concept of the personality' self-esteem, a positive or negative unit forwarded to oneself and others (Coopersmith, 1967; Rosenberg, 1965; Mavrodiev, 2008; Mutafova, 2007; 2014; 2015; Orakova, 2000; Stoyanova & Peneva, 2014). The emotional component is part of the self-assessment (Mutafova, 2014).

Characteristic of the temperament is the emotionality (Rusalov, 1989; Mutafova, 2011).

The term temperament is defined as the dynamics of the psyche. and means proportionality (dynamic characteristics of the psyche are determined by the proportion of body fluids). The predominance of any of them determines the temperament properties (Mavrodiev, 2008).

The dynamics of the psyche is determined by the dynamics of the basic nervous processes. Pavlov creates a typology of the superior nervous activity based on the criteria: strength, mobility and equilibrium of the processes of excitation and retention. The four types of higher nervous

activity correspond to the four classic types of temperament: the sanguine temperament is determined by a strong, movable and equilibrated type of superior nervous activity; Phlegmatic temperament - strong, slow and balanced; Choleric - strong and unbalanced, melancholic - weak type of superior nervous activity (Mavrodiiev, 2008).

James suggests that emotions are result of physiological changes induced by a stimulus (Walter, 1927, Lange, & James, 1967).

“My theory ... is that the bodily changes follow directly the perception of the exciting fact, and that our feeling of the same changes as they occur is the emotion. Common sense says, we lose our fortune, are sorry and weep; we meet a bear, are frightened and run; we are insulted by a rival, are angry and strike. The hypothesis here to be defended says that this order of sequence is incorrect ... and that the more rational statement is that we feel sorry because we cry, angry because we strike, afraid because we tremble ... Without the bodily states following on the perception, the latter would be purely cognitive in form, pale, colorless, destitute of emotional warmth. We might then see the bear and judge it best to run, receive the insult and deem it right to strike, but we should not actually feel afraid or angry” (Lange, & James, 1967).

Lange agrees with the conception of James about the emotion as a consequence of the perception of physiological changes. According to him psychological changes are controlled by a part of the brain (Walter, 1927, Lange, & James, 1967).

The result is the James-Lange theory of emotion (Walter, 1927, Lange, & James, 1967). According to James-Lange theory the emotion is a result of psychological reaction of event. The emotional reaction depends on the interpretations of those psychological reaction. The James-Lange theory inverted the way of thinking about the cause and the effect dependence between the experience of emotion and its manifestation. James and Lange emphasized that the autonomic activity and actions induced by emotional stimuli generate the feeling of emotion (Walter, 1927, Lange, & James, 1967).

The importance of the cognition in emotion is illustrated by Schachter (Schachter, & Singer, 1962).

Schachter-Singer Theory

According to the Schlachter-Singer theory the experience of the emotional is determined by an interaction between two factors -

physiological arousal and cognitive label, i.e. when an emotion is felt, a physiological arousal occurs and the person uses the immediate environment to search for emotional cues to label the physiological arousal (Schachter, & Singer, 1962).

Physiological arousal, which is conceptualized as being diffuse in nature, determines the intensity, but not the quality, of an emotional state. The cognition determines which emotion, if any, will be experienced. Both cognition and arousal are necessary conditions for the occurrence of an emotional state (Schachter, & Singer, 1962).

They assume that the individual needs to understand his physiological state at every moment. The individual tries to find a cognition that allows to specify the relevant emotion every time he experience an undifferentiated activation. If no corresponding cognition is found likely to explain why he/she is physically stimulated, he will identify the emotion by comparison with other individuals in the same situation. However, when the individual has no explanation, he will not look for factors in the environment that can explain the arousal.

Cognitive theory, also known as cognitive revolution, an approach that had been developed during 1950-1960's, and especially the observation of cognitive functions as well as the emergence of personal computers as 'mind simulators' and means to 'verify theories of thinking' has managed to question the omnipotence of behaviorism and to shift the focus from the 'external stimuli -responses' approach towards perception, thinking and problem solving (Lohman 1989, p. 335). Thus, the emergence of cognitive theory as the primary paradigm in explaining the psychological phenomena has set the understanding of the human mind as a primary objective (Anderson, 1992). In order to fully define the area of cognitive development as far as children are concerned, one had to examine intermediate concepts such as attention, speed of process and memory, also known as general cognitive functions.

The concept of intelligence has been defined through the use of various and diverse approaches employed by specialists. The first approaches have been based exclusively in its linkage to wittiness, the development of measuring methods and the design of special educational programs for intelligent students (Terman, 1925, 1954). Despite the many and diverse definitions, the term intelligence (Spearman, 1904; Binet&Simon, 1916; Thurstone, 1938; Wechsler, 1958; Guilford, 1967) refers nowadays to our composite psychobiological ability to learn, process

our sensory stimuli through perception and execute appropriate actions, problem solving and adapt quickly and effectively in the surrounding environment, according to the prevailing culture (Gardner, 1999, 1983; Snow et al., 1982; Carpenter et al., 1990). Our personal thesis is that this definition echoes one of the most recent conceptualizations of the term and is -in its entirety in line with the framework of our assignment. According to Goleman (1995), intelligence is not a single and independent skill, but rather a composition of many functions, including emotion. There are theories related to the emotional intelligence of the personality (Stoyanova, 2010).

Having been influenced by Gardner's views on interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence, Gardner wrote about emotional intelligence emphasizing on the way people cope, interact and communicate with each other through their emotions. It would be a logical assumption to think that the general intellectual ability which encompasses logical thinking, planning and problem solving, abstract thinking, understanding of complex relationships and quick learning has many and diverse impacts on the individual and on society in general.

His research on the development of intelligence shifts Terman's beliefs that it is constant in terms of time, indicating that it can be quickly improved during childhood and grow gradually (Terman, 1925, 1954). Extensive literature linking the development of intelligence to the speed of process and working memory exists and supports such views. The correlation between working memory and intelligence has been the interest of many researchers (Babcock, 1994; Kyllonen & Christal, 1990; Larson & Saccuzzo, 1989) and is actually proven in the systematic covariance that high performances exhibit in terms of working memory in the framework of intelligence measuring assignments. According to Conway & Engle (1996) such covariance is not attributable to the better information processing of individuals with better working memory, but rather to the substantial correlation between intelligence and working memory (Conway & Engle 1996). Such findings are in line with the neo-Piagetian theories, according to which an increase in the working memory is one of the causative factors of general intelligence (Pascual-Leone, 1970).

Contemporary research associates intelligence with cognitive flexibility in fields such as thinking, mathematics, reading, problem solving or even social intelligence (Cartwright, 2006; Spiro & Jehng 1990; Spiro, Feltovich & Coulson, 1992). According to Spiro & Jehng (1990, p. 165),

the term cognitive flexibility refers to one person's ability to change his or hers structure of knowledge automatically and adapt accordingly to variable conditions (Spiro & Jehng 1990). Results indicated that high achieving students exhibited a tendency to have greater metacognitive ability and be quicker in problem solving processes compared to average achievers. The researchers suggested that these differences may be useful in understanding high achievers' way of thinking but also in the ways that such process differs from other students (Dover & Shore, 1991). All these events involve high cognitive functions such as analysis, synthesis, generalization and abstract thinking (Berar, 2001).

The systematic study of intelligence and the identification of children with highly developed cognitive functions have laid the basis for the study of gifted individuals that go beyond children and include adolescents and adults as well. Despite the different definitions that had occasionally be given to 'gifted' individuals, it is commonly accepted that intelligence and above the average performance in specific tests is a key component (Howe, 1997, p. 23) that must be present together with other characteristics, such as cognitive flexibility, creativity, talent, leadership and commitment (Papadopoulos & Mutafova, 2016; Piiro, 2007). In spite of modern theories that had been developed in order to define the concept of intelligence (Sternberg, 1997; Gardner, 1983;1987;1991;1993; Gardner & Hatch, 1989 Renzulli, 1977; 1979; 2004; Renzulli & Purcell,1996; Renzulli & Reis, 2002; Gagne,1999) in terms of current practices and the existence of guidelines that must be followed in the process of identifying gifted individuals, cognitive ability tests are essential and predicative of the outcome of the evaluation.

Sternberg's Triarchic Theory of Intelligence

According to Sternberg, intelligence is multidimensional and can be applied in the study of intellectual giftedness. From the psychometric theories Sternberg's Triarchic theory of intelligence hopes to explain the individual differences through the information processing mechanisms in three aspects (Sternberg, 1982, p.975-1055; 1985):

A: Analytical - componential: Information processing which consists of:

a) Metacognitive components as designing, coordinating and evaluating processes,

b) Performance components: processes to apply the mandates of metacognitive components and

c) Cognitive processes components for knowledge acquisition.

Knowledge acquisition components obtain information during the process of cognitive development and consist of three types: a) selective coding in order to distinguish irrelevant information, b) selective combination for the completeness of the information in terms of meaning and c) selective comparison for the correlation of recent coded information with previous stored ones. The differences on these components lead to individual cognitive development differences, i.e. children with high IQ's show high function of selective coding to ignore irrelevant information (Sternberg 1985; 1997).

The performance components in each cognitive problem are related to the process of coding by which the stipulations of the problem are identified, the conclusions drawn, the relationships are sought and finally with the application through which the solution is chosen and applied. Adults and children of high intelligence are usually quick in problem solving processes, even though they use plenty time for the first step, i.e. the coding. Conversely, less able children are slower in problem solving processes due to poor coding and are focusing on other characteristics of the problem. Metacognitive components are used to design strategies and are therefore important in transferring knowledge from one context to another (Hayes, 1998).

B: Synthetic - individual's lived experience: Previous experience interacting with the aforementioned types of information processing components in order to enable individuals to cope with the problem's or situation's demands. Thus experience can be completely absent or full, i.e. having achieved sequences that have been automated by familiarity and practice. This theory is essentially examining the ways in which intelligence interacts and is affected by the individual's personal experience. It focuses on the processes that individuals apply but also on the ways in which they extract data from their organized corpus of knowledge so as to act 'smart' in case of familiar data and situations. It also describes the ways by which individuals act effectively in novel situations, as well as on how certain types of information can be automated (Sternberg, 1985).

C: Synthetic - Creative : The third level of Sternberg's theory about intelligence and 'outer world' focuses on how 'smart thinking' is applied for 'external purposes or objectives' which can be further divided into three categories: adapting, changing and selecting an environment (Sternberg,

1986). How such objectives are achieved depends on the nature of the environment with which individuals interact.

Thus, Sternberg's idea is that giftedness can be defined as the ability of children and adults to acknowledge their strengths and weakness and find ways to promote the first and balance the later (Sternberg, 2003).

Sternberg has formulated various ideas regarding the different ways in which people think and act 'intelligently'. At the same time, he has explored the different mental skills required for an 'intelligent' behavior. He proposes different ways of 'intelligent behavior' which complement Gardner's ideas about the multiplicity of intelligence types

For example, Sternberg notes that individuals exhibit different styles of 'mental self government'. In other words, Sternberg argues that some individuals possess a 'legislative style of intelligence' given the fact that they undertake tasks such as creating or designing an action. Other individuals possess the 'executive intellectual style' and focus on the implementation of the activities and not in the design and creation. Other individuals can be characterized as possessing 'judicial' intelligence, i.e. focusing on supervising, adjusting and evaluating activities which also held the most importance for them (Sternberg, 1998). Finally, Sternberg noted that even though individuals who possess all three styles exist, they differ on the extent to which each one behaves and dominates on its environment (Sternberg, 1998).

Sternberg's studies on intelligence have led him to describe certain criteria for the assessment of gifted children. He employs a pentagonal model and describes the five following criteria that a child must meet (Sternberg, 2003):

Criterion of excellence. High level performance and excellence on one or more dimensions of human activity and expression relative to the social group, as well as establishing a correlation between the phenomenon of poor academic achievements of gifted children that come from disadvantaged social and economic strata (Sternberg, 2003).

Criterion of rarity. High level performance and excellence in one or more dimensions of human activity and expression or manifestation of one or more rare skills relative to peers. The criterion of rarity strengthens and extends the criterion of excellence (Sternberg, 2003).

Criterion of productivity. The individual's performance must be accompanied by a stable and consistent thought production and not be an instantaneous or disjointed reaction at a given time (Sternberg, 2003).

Criterion of demonstrability. Excellence must be detected and validatable at any time by reliable and systematic procedures in order to avoid false impressions and conclusion that can be simply attributable to a series of random and favorable conditions. The criterion of demonstrability is closely related to the criterion of productivity (Sternberg, 2003).

Criterion of value. The performance or skill of the individual must be in accordance with the existing values and norms of the respective social environment and be valued by the majority of the reference frame (Sternberg, 2003).

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THE MODERN TEACHER – THEORIES AND VIEWS

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Abstract

In a modern educational context, the teacher should combine many qualities as an educator, leader, organizer, facilitator, researcher, friend, reformer, since education should be a social experience through which children learn about themselves, develop interpersonal skills and acquire basic theoretical knowledge and expertise (Gouvras, Kyridis, Mavrikaki, 2001).

The Role of the Teacher

In the history of Education, regarding the characteristics of the educator and his personality, various theoretical approaches have been expressed, which had as a starting point pedagogical, philosophical and religious currents of the time. According to these approaches, the teacher is a global personality, distinct by pedagogical skills and love for his students (Cave & Mulloy, 2010). At the same time, the teacher is the holder of wisdom and knowledge and should offer to students that knowledge and human values. In the traditional school, which was characterized by authoritarianism, the teacher had the role of transmitter of knowledge and values; he was thought to be omniscient, all-wise and a mobile encyclopaedia (Papas, 1995).

Before we talk about the role of teacher in the modern school, we should clarify the concept of "role." With the concept of "role" we mean all the expectations and the expected behaviour of a person, who holds a position within a group. The teacher is a member of the school, i.e. an organized society. As a member of this group, he has specific obligations and should play a similar role with specific requirements. So we cannot understand the role of the teacher detached from the social-cultural context (Moore, 2008).

Referring to the role of the teacher, we can say that this is determined by conscious or unconscious expectations and requirements of all social groups and institutions that are directly or indirectly involved with the school. These social groups (students, parents, associations, administration,

state, etc.) evolve and change, thus changing the role of the teacher. The teacher's role is still affected by his scientific training, the meaning and the importance that the teacher gives to his role of and by the school reality in which this role is implemented (Ntouskas, 2005).

The society, however, is changing and so does the school. These changes are reflected in the role of teacher. The socio-cultural changes, the evolution of technology and the rapid speed of information, combined with the continuous increase of knowledge, formed a different perception of the role and the profession of teachers'. This perception is reinforced by the endorsement of educational work as a social role (Cave & Mulloy, 2010).

The school and learning conditions cannot be understood without taking into account the role of the teacher. Learning cannot be achieved without the presence of the teacher in the classroom, no matter how much technology advances, and if new theories are formulated and new teaching methods are applicable. The most basic and dynamic factor is the teacher, who in his scientific creation and passion for his work is informed and actively review new data and adopt ways of practical application, in order to positively affect the learning and education of the student, but also the students' future development and path (Cave & Mulloy, 2010).

Before referring in more detail in the role of educators in modern school, it is appropriate to refer to the known functions performed by the school nowadays, as a social and pedagogical organization. According to Konstantinou (1994), the school performs an ideological-socialization function and transfers social and cultural elements to pupils as well as ways of thinking and broad guidelines, standards, incentives and perceptions of justice and morality (Konstantinou, 1994). It also performs a technical-learning function and transfer cultural-technical information to students, such as writing, reading, arithmetic, etc. to enable them to actively participate in the various fields of social life (Konstantinou, 1994).

A third function of the school is selective, that gives students their social status. Inside the school students are selected for specific positions of the social hierarchy, according to their education and so their respective integration into society and determining life chances (reproduction of social structure) are predetermined. Finally, school releases parents from their educational role, resulting in their periodic release of the available work force (Cave & Mulloy, 2010).

Based on the social functions of the school in which the leading role is played by the teacher plays, the respective roles are formed. The teacher

is called to play respectively the role of the evaluator and guard. In the literature teacher is mentioned as a consultant, innovator, officer, etc. In these roles, we can also add the public servant, which the teacher acquires of their vocational placement by the State (Ntouskas, 2005).

We note that the role of the teacher is multidimensional. We could say that the teacher is required to perform many different roles simultaneously. Often these roles conflict with each other and create confusion, especially if the teacher is not sufficiently prepared to face such a situation. We note that many times the teacher encounters difficulties and dilemmas in fulfilling his role as there are conscious and unconscious expectations of various social groups, including the requirements of the formal state, such as the curriculum (Turner, 2008).

Briefly, we could say that a teacher, to be successful in all his roles, should be aware of his role and work, love his profession, be scientifically qualified (to hold that knowledge from various scientific fields, e.g. Pedagogy - Didactics, Developmental Psychology, Social Psychology, behavioural psychology, etc.) and especially to respect the individuality of each child (Ntouskas, 2005). That is, the way in which the teacher will face all its obligations depends on how he understands his role, himself and the operation of the school as a social organization (Turner, 2008).

Features of the teacher's personality should be the initiatives making ability, courtesy, patience and perseverance, honesty, objectivity, sociability, justice, optimism, enthusiasm, cheerfulness, humour and especially respect for the rights of the child and general love for the child. Teachers must, therefore, be an integrated personality, and not just provide knowledge and learning, but inter-educate the personality and character of students (Ntouskas, 2005). What the modern society requires in addition to the teacher is to be "innovator" to have that constant updates on new developments taking place in psychological, pedagogical, socio-cultural level, but also in technology and mainly to have versatility, flexibility and ability to adapt to new roles (Ntouskas, 2005).

The question is how the teacher will give a positive direction to all the factors mentioned in order to create favourable conditions for creative and meaningful learning, which is the desired goal of every teacher and every school (Konstantinou, 1994).

Despite the knowledge that a teacher may possess, the preparation before entering the classroom is an important part of the teaching process. He must therefore be multifaceted prepared to present new knowledge,

enhance learning and cultivate the abilities and skills of the students. This preparation is necessary and performed with continuous scientific information (Turner, 2008).

At the same time, the teacher must take into account both the level and learning pace and learning style of each student in the class. Following the scientific approach of both sides (new knowledge - students), the teacher will try to find a way that the educational subject will be dealt with wonder and interest by pupils and excite them (Konstantinou, 1994).

At the same time, the teacher should orient students to the target (or the objectives) of the module. It is not enough to only know himself the goal of each module, but it is necessary to have directed the student to it as well, because the student are the ones to achieve this goal and any success or failure depends to a large extent on their own efforts and abilities (Turner, 2008). Also, the teacher in preparing (programming) of teaching, should take account of the duration of the teaching period, the visual aids that may be in possession, the principles underlying the teaching and the relationship of a module with the everyday experiences and backgrounds of students (Turner, 2008).

When the teacher has a properly organized plan of instruction, then he acts with more certainty and comfort during it, is more flexible and decisive, leading both to enhance their students and make the module understood. Moreover, he has the option to apply with respect the basic psycho-pedagogical principles of teaching and mainly he demonstrates his confidence and self-esteem (Turner, 2008). Students intuitively perceive the confident of educators and enhance their confidence that his help and guidance, and, thus, overcome the difficulties and reach the goal of teaching (Turner, 2008).

When we talk about preparation, certainly we are referring to a flexible design, in an advisory pilot project on which modifications and changes are possible without departing from the intended target. Nobody, of course, can achieve a faithful implementation of any project, because each teaching process is unique. The same teaching is never repeated and a lesson cannot be performed with every detail it was initially planned (Papas, 1995). Each teaching is a personal creation of each teacher, a certain day and time, with a particular material, in cooperation with certain pupils, targeted especially under certain psychological climate (pedagogical atmosphere) which cannot be repeated (Ntouskas, 2005).

As it is necessary the teacher prepares daily, equally necessary is the beginning of each school year to deal with the annual logistics, innovative programs and school peculiarities (village - city, shifts, etc.) and unforeseen situations. Also, the teacher has to make a proper planning of material, depending on the credit hours of each lesson. Within this annual program will integrate and shorter schedules (monthly - quarterly - biannual) (Papavas, 1995). This programming is obvious that leaves possibilities for modifications and simultaneously it will be more useful if it is done in cooperation with students or even in their knowledge to accept and adopt it. All these require the teachers' adequate scientific training, skills, desire and willingness as they will enable participation in drafting or reform of each programming (Turner, 2008).

Therefore, the role of teacher in the modern school is not limited to the mere transmission of knowledge but, starting with the specific problems of students, the role is consultative, collaborative, and provides impetus to the effort of students (Papavas, 1995; Kossyvaki, 1997). When we speak for motivation role of the teacher, we are referring to finding motive strategies that will enable the development of all students' potential to the fullest. The teacher is the one who is called to adjust the contents of learning to the specific needs of the class and the interests of students (Kossyvaki, 1997).

In order for teachers to implement effective ways of teaching in an environment of cultural diversity, they should redefine their role, both individually and collectively. Schools are learning institutions and in order to respond effectively to their mission, they need to adapt to changing demographics and social conditions. A prerequisite for effective teaching is teachers to be informed about relevant research and theory and assume responsibility for the implementation of appropriate teaching practices that will meet the language and learning needs of their students. More specifically, the teacher should apply in the classroom practical techniques such as (Fontana, 1994, 1995):

To know in depth the subject of the training program and prepare appropriately for each lesson

Be able to give satisfactory answers to the students' questions.

Implement continuous evaluation of the educational needs of students and guide students towards different knowledge sources (books, magazines, and internet) for further investigation of the educational object.

At the beginning of the school year teacher should analyze the students' expectations or behaviours and his own expectation of excellent students, average students and the bad students.

Urge students to find alternative applications in what he teaches them i.e. to develop critical thinking about the learning material

Avoid cultural prejudices and racist tendencies. The positive atmosphere and the relationship of acceptance and respect between teacher and student lead to ever greater effort of students.

Develop close interpersonal relationship with students, since this makes children feel that they are surrounded by a supportive environment.

Implement new practices, to monitor the effectiveness of these practices and led to general conclusions that contribute to the improvement of the educational status conditions.

Use new educational practices, such as action research, based on team work form. Action research is a collaborative activity that takes place in the school environment and involves both the teacher and the students. Its cooperative character allows finding solutions to problems that occur in school, improves teaching and increases students' academic success. The collaborative action research in conjunction with the use of electronic games in the educational process can lead to positive results. The use of the game as an educational tool is a powerful incentive for the involvement of students in the educational process, favours the experiential activity and links the knowledge with everyday life. It also promotes creativity, methodical work and imagination.

Build upon previous knowledge and experience of students, because this allows students to interpret new information in relation to what we already know. It also helps teachers to get to know their students as individuals with their own unique personality and allows them to adapt their teaching to the needs and interests of each student.

Cultivate meta-cognition skills, i.e. the ability of students to think about the cognitive processes required for a cognitive function.

Be familiar with the subject he teaches, have humour, be flexible, properly organize the classroom and teaching time, be fair, inspire the students, know the needs of students, provide feedbacks, show enthusiasm, achieve the goals along with the students, give students responsibilities and be communicative.

Accept any child, despite their different cultural background. The teacher should place particular emphasis on strengthening the bilingual

student identity, to improve their school performance. The positive academic performance of a student reflects a positive sense of identity, develops the motivation to succeed academically, and enhances his confidence that his presence is respected in the classroom.

Apply techniques or strategies that enhance the understanding of new information and develop the skills of the students. The application in the classroom of techniques such as the use of graphs, cooperative learning, developing learning strategies, the peer tutoring, the dialogue journals, and the authentic assessment is some of the many important activities, but for an effective teaching human relationship are also very important. The teaching techniques and strategies can be useful and effective if teachers and students cultivate a relationship of mutual respect and mutual acceptance.

Another important parameter in the relationship between teacher and student is the self-assessment process, particularly when it is motivated by the effort of teachers to continuous progress and improvement. The teacher evaluates himself as to the educational process in order to identify potential weaknesses and contribute appropriately to eliminate them (Fontana, 1994).

Especially, the success of the teacher in the self-assessment process can be judged by whether the teacher:

Adopts self assessment techniques to accomplish more than they have already conquered and improves his interpersonal skills by requesting constant feedback from students and other teachers.

Reassess situations by adopting a different perspective and trying to get into the position of those with whom they deal (e.g. students, colleagues etc.).

Design assessment programs through which they can be inspired to implement and evaluate their own educational work.

Sets target to develop new knowledge, skills and attitudes related to increasing the effectiveness of his role.

Creative Teacher

Creativity is a particular kind of thinking that has originality and flexibility and introduces something new. Also it is our ability to produce several possible solutions to problems that do not have a single answer (Turner, 2008).

Creativity includes some stages: During the preparation, the creative person identifies the problem and explores the various possibilities. Then follows an incubation period, during which the creative person often puts

the whole matter aside, sometimes for a few minutes only, sometimes for years. After that verification / evaluation follow, where ideas are tested for their value. Finally follows the execution, which is the practical step of creation (Turner, 2008).

Creativity and school

All teachers are teachers of creativity and that implies for both scientific and artistic courses. The first thing that the teacher should bear in mind is that he must exploit every opportunity to encourage creative thinking to his students.

In our educational system we tend to reward only the "right" answers and punish the "false". This makes children reluctant to try new or original solutions to problems, since their chances of making a mistake are inevitable. In other words, they prefer to play for sure. But the imagination and the formulation of an answer other than the conventional are integral parts the creative process. The teacher should be able to create an atmosphere where students' effort are encouraged and rewarded (Turner, 2008).

This does not mean that we underestimate the correctness or accuracy. The creative act also includes the verification / assessment. The solution should be tested to prove that it works. If not, then it should be discarded, although we always praise the child for his efforts. Even this failure may trigger new ideas to be tested in turn and perhaps lead to the desired solution.

Schools have rules and regulations, methods of operation and behaviour and often the conformational child is more convenient than a child with vivid imagination. Moreover, the original ideas may often useful but sometimes they are strange and silly. So, they may create the teacher the suspicion that the child just says what he descends. Creativity is an unpredictable thing and not always appears in a form matching the circumstances. By studying the children's responses and watching where they lead their ideas, the teacher quickly learns to recognize when children try to use their imagination and when they just want to make an impression. If the teacher neglects this study, he might stifle good ideas along with unnecessary and give the class the impression that he does not tolerate originality (Matsagouras, 2002).

The first condition for encouraging creativity is the free manifestation in the classroom and the second condition has to do with the way the class is organized. Creative teachers have exposed as children to a

rich a variety of experiences in an environment that encourage them to ask questions, test their ideas with active experimentation and follow their interests through hobbies and develop specific talents and skills (Turner, 2008).

Creative teaching techniques

Teachers are more likely to promote creativity in children if they have a wide range of interests themselves, if they like to share experiences with the children inside and outside the class, if they have research spirit and if they are happy to try new ideas and if they enjoy to ask questions and to answer to the children's questions (Turner, 2008).

Teachers can try different methods, such as brainstorming, that proved particularly successful in education and has many educational applications. This method advocates that to solve a problem, people should sometimes work in groups and be encouraged to express ideas in complete freedom. Nothing should be considered impossible or inappropriate and no criticism should be applied to anyone. In this way problems are often solved that seemed insoluble, because everyone in the group triggers ideas to others. The teacher should not be judgmental but allow everyone to express their ideas, so that the process and the solution of the problem have educational value (Matsagouras, 2002).

In contrast, if the teacher keeps on insisting on his own ideas, even if he just gives them as an example, he restricts students because these way students focus on them and preclude their own ideas. Therefore, even if it is simply a discussion or edit of an item in the class, the teacher should avoid ending the issue and summarize things or offer his own solutions. As these solutions have the prestige of the teacher, the children will consider them "correct" and put an end to any individual creative considerations (Matsagouras, 2002).

Even at the end of the discussion, the teacher should avoid the temptation to always deliver judgments on the value of the ideas expressed. Often it is better to leave things open, causing the children to pursue their thoughts on the subject, instead of giving the impression that the last word has been said and nothing more remains to be said (Matsagouras, 2002).

It is therefore essential that children be taught to distinguish between different kinds of thinking and decide what is appropriate in a given situation. Many studies show that across the same problem children make different kinds of solutions, depending on whether they are being asked to

consider creative and original or practical. The practicality seems as instruction to students not escape the known methods, while the originality motivates children to use their imagination, looking for something new. Creativity, as other school activities, helps children depend not only on their skills, but also on the accuracy with which they express their opinions (Matsagouras, 2003).

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PERSONALITY OF THE TEACHER – THEORIES AND VIEWS

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Abstract

The importance of the teaching profession growth and the necessity of studying the value of the personality of the teacher.

The beginning of modern conceptualization and measurement of values in psychology is put by Rokeach, who first defends their right to autonomy and distinguishes them from attitudes. His approach to the structure of the value system can be defined as a structural-energetic. This paper presents different views of the values. Different scales for measurement of the value have been presented: Rokeach Value Survey (RVS); the Karagiozovs' modification of the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS).

Key Words: *value, instrumental values, terminal values*

The scientific study of the teacher values is a field of research in the psychology (Perry, 1926; Pepper, 1958). Famous authors develop a typology of values in which persons' stable preferences for all kinds of behaviours are categorized (Allport, Vernon & Lindzey, 1951; Maslow, 1971).

Within the time this idea has been abandoned in favour of the notion that each individual creates a very personal and flexible hierarchy. The beginning of modern conceptualization and measurement of the value in psychology, where values are conceived of as guiding principles in life which transcend specific situations, may change over time, guide selection of behaviour and events and which are part of a dynamic system with inherent contradictions has been influenced by Rokeach (1973, 1979).

Communication at school is realized as process - cyclical, dynamic and uninterrupted - between students and teachers (Tsvetanska 2006). This is not only a process of exchange of information, but also of exchange of assessments, expectations and the formation of certain relationships (Duffy et al., 2001).

The communication at school is based on the principle of reciprocity: it implies reversibility of the relationship. Which is being realized through feedback (Tsvetanska 2006). Part of the teacher's function is to provide

pupils with adequate feedback that turns them into participants in the process, and to encourage them to be active participants in the process communication process in school not only as recipients of a certain quantity information, but also as generators of questions, ideas, discussions (Duffy et al., 2001).

Professional responsibility of the teacher is preparation, planning and adequate encoding messages sent to students as well as the right ones use of communicative channels (Tsvetanska 2006). Encouraging them to ask questions, give comments and opinions, the teacher gives them the opportunity to be actively involved in the learning process, not to be passive listeners, for which it is not even known what or how much they hear. Shortening the distance between teacher and pupils leads to the establishment of a better overall relationship of trust and mutual concern. The rules of communication in classroom should be negotiable and should not be imposed by the teacher from the position of pedagogical authority or formal authority (Duffy et al., 2001). The cooperative spirit of communication stimulates the positive attitudes of all participants in the process. It presupposes an unconditional acceptance of the students have the opportunity for success in training, the right to own opinion and position - as well as their free expression. Successful training is realized in the context of good communication between pupils and teachers - to the best results pupils reach so called search or research strategies. They imply encouraging sufficient student autonomy by gathering information, experimenting. Communication is connecting an element between the components of the strategy, which determines to a great extent its effectiveness (Tsvetanska 2006). Good communication skills of the teacher are the key to involving pupils in the learning process (Duffy et al., 2001). Good communication skills in this case is the teacher to be able to skillfully construct and deliver his message, which is consistent with context of interaction and with the audience. In a study by Grunnenwald and Ackerman (Gruenenwald & Ackerman 1986, Duffy et al., 2001) students highlight the good communication skills of the teacher - and good communication in general - as a determining factor for the quality of the education received, while the teachers place first the good command of the subject.

One of the main functions of the teacher is communicative. It is realized on several levels: communicating with each student separately, communicating with groups of students and communication with the class

(Rogers, 1965). It is communicating, the teacher performs its regulatory and corrective work, and effective communication implies insight into the motives of the other, to achieve a true understanding of his / her personality. That suggests and high levels of empathy in the teacher. The concept of empathy is introduced for the first time in psychology by Carl Rogers, one of the founding fathers humanistic psychology. Empathy is a key skill for effective communication (Rogers, 1965).

Rodgers himself defines it as the ability to sense the world of the other, as if it were yours but without losing your own point of view (Rogers, 1965, Hojat, Gonnella, Nasca et al. 2002).

But in order to have empathy, a real understanding of the position and the needs is needed to the other - what happens in effective communication(Rogers, 1965, Hojat, Gonnella, Nasca et al. 2002).

Nowadays, empathy is defined as a complex construct, unifying cognitive and affective (emotional) component (Hojat, Gonnella, Nasca et al. 2002). The cognitive component includes the ability to understand feelings and the experiences of the other and to see the world from his point of view - that is, yes account was taken of the individual specificity of this point of view. The Affective Component is associated with the ability to experience the feelings of the other.

One of the focal points in the analysis of teachers - students interaction is the distribution of the teacher's attention and the choice of feedback, which he gives: the time the teacher has at his disposal is also limited must decide how to use it - how much of it to use for teaching, what about students' questions, what about giving feedback, what - for individual help and support for a student. According to Brown and Sachs (Brown and Saks 1987, Maas 2000), the teacher is inclined to make the most "economical" choice - to devote the most time and energy to what according to him, will bring better results (in the sense of better success of students and discipline in class). This is an individual choice. In front of each teacher the question is how long to devote to group instruction, teaching of new material, of testing and how many - the individual student in the form of individual help or answer to students' questions. Another choice that each teacher does, is what feedback to give and to what extent - whether to dominate positive feedback (praise for coping, encouragement, positive comments) or negative (criticism, negative remarks) (Brown and Saks 1987, Maas 2000).

According to Rokeach, values are lasting beliefs about preferred ways of behavior or ultimate goals. Values and attitudes are psychic determinants that regulate people's social behavior, but no sign of equality must be placed between the two concepts Rokeach (1973, 1979).

Rokeach develop an instrument that can be used in order to compare individual commitment to a set of values wherever the researchers live and whenever they complete a survey: Rokeach Value Survey (RVS). He proposed a list of two sets of values each includes 18 questions – terminal values (refer to desirable end states of existence) and instrumental values (refer to preferable modes of behavior). This instrument has been widely used in the measurement of values (Mayton et al. 1994).

Each set is ranked by subjects according to the importance of the items as leading principles in their lives. The main goal here is to force subjects to identify priorities among competing values. In the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) all values are assumed to be universal, which helps to disclose a persons' value priorities.

The terminal values in RVS:

- 1.True Friendship
- 2.Mature Love
- 3.Self-Respect
- 4.Happiness
- 5.Inner Harmony
- 6.Equality
- 7.Freedom
- 8.Pleasure
- 9.Social Recognition
10. Wisdom
11. Salvation
12. Family Security
13. National Security
14. A Sense of Accomplishment
15. A World of Beauty
16. A World at Peace
17. A Comfortable Life
18. An Exciting Life

The Instrumental Values in RVS:

1. Cheerfulness
2. Ambition
3. Love
4. Cleanliness
5. Self-Control
6. Capability
7. Courage
8. Politeness
9. Honesty
10. Imagination
11. Independence
12. Intellect
13. Broad-Mindedness
14. Logic
15. Obedience
16. Helpfulness
17. Responsibility
18. Forgiveness

Rokeach believes that the main motivational process that leads to value change or stability is the feeling of frustration or satisfaction with yourself. Value change is present when awareness of the inconsistency between two values provokes dissatisfaction of the personality as a moral and competent human being. Cognitive reorganization occurs in order to reduce or eliminate this feeling and preserving the individual's self-esteem (Rokeach, 1973; Rokeach & Ball-Rokeach, 1989).

The Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) has been used by different researchers and for different researched in order to explore many facets of values, like the relationship between values and behavior, the role of values, and the extent to which people remain committed to particular values over time (Feather, 1975; Karagiozov, 1999).

Following Questionnaire shows the modification of the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) made by Karagiozov (Karagiozov, 1999).

**QUESTIONNAIRE
FOR VALUE ORIENTATIONS
Modification by Karagiozov (Rokeach Value Survey (RVS))
(Karagiozov, 1999)**

Instruction: Here is a list of some goals that people might want. Choose the most significant one from your point of view, and in the brackets (on the left!) Located in the same row, place the figure 1. Then choose the next most important goal and mark it (on the left!) With the figure 2 then proceed in the same way to the end. Your ultimate goal, according to you, should be given the number 18. Then evaluate how each of the listed goals has been achieved by you in life by typing in the brackets (to the right) the corresponding percentage by number.

- Active life (fullness and emotional saturation in life) [%]
- Life wisdom (sound sense and maturity of reflection) [%]
- Health (physical and mental) [%]
- Interesting job [%]
- The beauty of nature and art (experience of the wonderful) [%]
- Love [%]
- Materially secured life (lack of material difficulty) [%]
- Good and faithful friends [%]
- Public recognition (respect and recognition in society) [%]
- Knowledge [%]
- Productive life (maximum use of own capabilities) [%]
- Development (constantly spending time) [%]
- Freedom (independence and independence) [%]
- Happy family life [%]
- Happiness for others (for all people around the world) [%]
- Creativity (an opportunity for creative work) [%]
- Confidence in yourself (inner harmony, indiscipline) [%]

The Karagiozov's modification of the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) has been used in different researches of the value (Mutafova, 2007, p.197).

With the Karagiozov's modification of the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) it is possible to deepen the awareness of the values of the surveyed persons and research the degrees of expression of the respective values according to their degree of expression on a scale of 1-7 (1- the value is least relevant to me, 7 the value is for me to the maximum extent). This will modify the scale in the following way:

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR VALUE ORIENTATIONS

Mutafova's modification of the modification made by Karagiozov of the
Rokeach Value Survey (RVS)
(Karagiozov, 1999; Mutafova, 2007)

Instruction: There is a list of values that are typical for you with varying degrees of expressiveness. Please choose the degree according to the degree of expression on a scale of 1-7 (1- the value is least relevant to me, 7 the value is for me to the maximum extent).

Active life (fullness and emotional saturation in life)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Life wisdom (sound sense and maturity of reflection)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Health (physical and mental)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Interesting job	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The beauty of nature and art (experience of the wonderful)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Love	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Materially secured life (lack of material difficulty)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Good and faithful friends	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Public recognition (respect and recognition in society)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Knowledge	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Productive life (maximum use of own capabilities)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Development (constantly spending time)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Freedom (independence and independence)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Happy family life	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Happiness for others (for all people around the world)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Creativity (an opportunity for creative work)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Confidence in yourself (inner harmony, indiscipline)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

The necessity of studying the values of the personality of the teacher growth with the importance of his profession and responsibilities. In the interaction with the students, the teacher needs to possess values but also to understand that they are the base. This is an important part so that the teacher can pass these values to the students as well.

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TEACHERS' OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

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Abstract

Teachers are a professional group experiencing high levels of occupational stress in today's society, with various estimates of the size and parameters of the phenomenon. The profession of the teacher consists not only of the pedagogical and academic process that takes place in the classroom. The interaction of many factors (bureaucratic - procedural issues, educational changes, communication relationships) creates a work environment that causes occupational stress. Prolonged exposure to this environment leads to the occurrence of teachers' burnout syndrome. Although public opinion considers the profession of a teacher to be the most privileged because of the extended holidays and limited teaching hours, research data classify that it is among the three most stressful occupations worldwide (OECD, 2013).

Teachers, exercising a predominantly humanitarian profession, are subject to stressful conditions and are often lead to professional exhaustion. The present article refers to the definition of occupational stress, the sources that cause it and the various ways it manifests itself. It is also associated with the burnout syndrome as a result of the prolonged exposure of the teachers to stressful situations and proposes ways of dealing with them in order to prevent the burnout phenomena and to be able to carry out their most important work more constructively themselves.

Key-words: *teachers' occupational stress, teachers' burnout syndrome*

Introduction

In the modern world, the professional environment is one of the most important sources of stress. The relationships that the individual develops within, the nature of the work and the potential problems they face in it, greatly affect their everyday life and their quality of life. Occupational stress is a very modern subject of study and research, as the economic crisis that several states globally face since 2008, has led to significant changes in the workplace, such as insecurity, reduced earnings and benefits, high unemployment rates, etc., situations that exacerbate its appearance. Greece

occupies the first place in Europe in work-related stress with a 55% (European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2009).

The concept of stress is difficult to define with precision and as a result there are many definitions available. This occurs both because it is a multidimensional and multilevel concept and because of the view that stress is defined differently depending on the research field used (Wilson, 2002). In particular, Lazarus (1993) argues that stress is the result of a person's energetic interaction with his or her environment and that it may have physiological, psychological and sociological parameters that are not necessarily independent of one another. In particular, according to Ganster and Rosen (2013), stress is defined as an interaction process in which various environmental events begin a series of cognitive and physiological responses of the individual ultimately affecting his or her well-being.

In general, stress can occur when the worker does not "fit" well with work, or when his /her work is responsible for the safety, well-being or behavior of others. The humanitarian professions and the profession of teacher in particular, clearly collect many of these elements. Several teachers see teaching as a particularly stressful process. The main reasons for stress are the lack of motivation on behalf of the students, the lack of time to solving problems that arise every day, the lack of discipline of students, the difficulty of understanding among teachers, even the lack of infrastructure at schools (Kloska & Raemasut, 1985).

Occupational stress among teachers

One of the most comprehensive definitions of teachers' occupational stress is that formulated by Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978). According to this, teacher's stress is defined as a reaction, such as anger or depression, to a negative effect, often accompanied by pathogenic psychological and biochemical changes, such as heart rate rhythms. A modern and shorter definition emphasizes that the stress of the teacher is the experience of unpleasant and negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration or depression as a result of some aspects of his work as a teacher (Kyriacou, 2001). Recent research indicates that the profession of teacher is among the most stressful (Kyriacou, 2001). In particular, in 2004, the profession of teacher was ranked among the six most stressful professions (Cranwell-Ward & Abbey, 2005).

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978), leading work-related stress analysts, distinguish the conditions that cause teacher stress in two categories: a)

Exogenous conditions related to excessive workload, lack of cooperation and unpleasant working environment, and (b) the endogenous conditions associated with individual personality traits such as, for example, the frustration and the anger that can arise from the excessive expectations at work.

Kyriacou (2001) notes that the main sources of teacher stress are, in order of priority, the teaching of non-motivated students and students that lack discipline in the classroom, as well as the inability of teachers to manage issues related to time- deadlines, workload and possible changes. In addition, stress can be caused by the evaluation of their work by others, the difficult or demanding relationships with their colleagues and management, and by poor working conditions. However, the stress experienced by each teacher is unique and depends on the particular, complex interaction between the stressful sources and the personality, values, abilities and individual circumstances experienced by everyone (Kyriacou,2001).

In the Greek educational reality, in addition to the factors above, the factors that have been reported as significant stressors for teachers, are the insufficient salary, lack of special scientists in schools, such as psychologists and social workers, low social recognition of the profession, working hours, as well as frequent reforms in the education system (Maroudas, 1999, Mouzoura, 2005).

Teachers' stress can be manifested with confusion, aggression, avoidable behavior, increased absence tendency, reduced performance of both the teacher and the students. When a teacher experiences intense stress, many sides of their performance, such as creativity and application of teaching techniques, are affected. It is difficult to determine exactly which factors and what combination will result in the creation of a high degree of stress in each individual. These factors are usually: student discipline, student negative attitudes towards school, insufficient preparation time, lack of clear definition of the role of the teacher, etc. Also, the personality of each teacher and his / her ideology have been identified as important factors in the creation and the treatment of stress.

In summary, the teacher's stress depends on the following factors: a) Role conflict or ambiguity of the role. b) The teacher's assessment that he is not able to cope with the requirements of the profession. c) The reduced ability to meet the requirements of the profession due to unsatisfactory

working conditions. d) The unknown or new professional requirements. e) Sources outside his role as an educator.

In research that have been conducted to investigate work-related stress among teachers, it has been found that men experience stress more intensely than women do and that men have difficulty in adopting appropriate stress management strategies compared to women, who handle work stress more effectively (Chatzichristou 2004). On the other hand, Payne & Funham come to opposite conclusions, claiming that women are more stressful than their male colleagues (Leontari & partners 2000).

In a recent research among primary school teachers with a view to the implementation of a pilot stress management program in their workplace, the most important source, according to the teachers, was the workload (Karadimas & partners 2004). Teachers report as a stressor mainly the fact that: “they need to take home school work, prepare for the teaching process and take care of their continuous education at the expense of their personal free time” (Karadimas & partners 2004: 408). The other stressors reported by teachers in the same research are mostly out of school and are not related to students' behavior, but to the relationship between family-home and responsibility issues, while their stress, to a lesser extent, is due to their “career, work climate and relationships” (Karadimas & partners 2004: 408).

Therefore, the conclusion that emerges from the above is that all these stressors combined with the personal expectations of teachers can “cause deep disappointment and anxiety, the feeling that they have neither the time nor the stamina to cope with so many requirements, and a sense of shock that many teachers experience and they can hardly overcome” (Karastathi-Panagiotou 2006).

Teachers' Burnout Syndrome

The most important and perilous effect of prolonged exposure to high occupational stress is the onset of Burnout Syndrome. Kyriacou (2001) defines teachers' burnout as their physical, emotional and behavioral exhaustion, while Maslach and Jackson (1986), after extensive research, have approached burnout syndrome, apart from a simple exhaustion, in a multidimensional model. According to this, in professions of human services, including teacher's job, professional exhaustion is defined as a syndrome manifested under three fundamentally separate but empirically

related dimensions: a) emotional exhaustion, b) depersonalization, and c) reduced personal accomplishment (Kokkinos, 2006).

An additional common characteristic of burnout' definitions, and especially Maslach's three-dimensional model, is that burnout syndrome is associated with long-term exposure to stressful circumstances. Time appears to be an essential factor in distinguishing professional burnout from occupational stress. As a result of the extended exposure to stress, the individual is unable to cope with the situation he experiences and displays symptoms of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal achievement (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993).

Occupational stress and teachers' burnout syndrome cannot be distinguished depending on their symptoms, but mostly under the process of their development and their duration. Thus, occupational stress is an adaptation process which is temporary and is accompanied by various impermanent symptoms, while professional burnout consists in the collapse of this adjustment, accompanied by chronic malfunctions (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993).

Within this context, the symptoms of teachers' burnout syndrome can be classified into three major categories: a) physical symptoms such as headache, fatigue, stomachache, etc., b) psychological symptoms such as anger, signs of depression, stress, low self-esteem, feelings of disappointment, panic disorders, etc., c) behavioral problems, such as limited interaction, judgmental attitude towards other individuals and colleagues, systematic absence or pretexts for absence from work, procrastination, inability to perform a task (Maslach et al., 2001). These symptoms not only have serious repercussions on the emotional, psychosomatic and social health of teachers, but also lead to their limited and low-quality performance, which adversely affects the academic achievements of their students (Blandford, 2000).

The boundaries between stress and burnout syndrome in the workplace are vague and often overlap each other, while many researchers confirm the relationship between them. Considering the concept of professional exhaustion as an evolutionary process, an individual can accept that a transitional process is followed where the worker goes through several phases, during which he experiences chronic, accumulated stress and ultimately exhaustion. At this stage he feels that his mental reserves are not enough to cope with the pressure of his workplace. However, the distinction between the different phases in psychological

phenomena or the discrimination between "normal and pathological" with regard to human feelings and behavior is not obvious, as it is associated with the existing scientific knowledge, the statistical criterion of the "average" and the socio-political and cultural circumstances. Nevertheless, the effects of burnout syndrome, both on the worker and on the working environment, are obvious.

A teacher, as all the other citizens, is called to handle a series of other difficult situations in his private life, along with the stress and exhaustion he may experience in his work, as a consequence of the economic crisis Greece is facing in recent years: the dramatic wages and allowances cuts, unemployment, the excessive tax increases, the increased cost of living and the reduced health and welfare benefits are only a few of the measures that have reversed family planning and led to the impoverishment of citizens. Therefore, stress and burnout symptoms that may affect teachers in their work, are not decompressed in their private life but, on the contrary, they are enlarged.

Teachers' stress management

Teachers who suffer from burnout syndrome, affect themselves, their students and the educational system negatively (Hughes, 2001). The strategies they use to handle the stress they experience are: talking with their husband/ wife, friends or colleagues, television, reading and physical activity. Other less creative strategies are complaints to colleagues and relatives, smoking and emotional withdrawal (Kloska & Raemasut, 1985). The process of managing stress begins with the acceptance of the situation and the wish for change (Cedoline, 1982).

The strategies are differentiated and each teacher resorts to different strategies in order to maintain his physical and mental balance. The strategies that can be implemented are the following: 1) recognition of the environment that children want in the classroom, 2) creation of the appropriate conditions for ensuring this environment, 3) individualized support for each student, 4) development of the virtue of "belonging" somewhere 5) the administration of justice, 6) assignment of responsibilities to all, 7) consistency, 8) cordiality, 9) encouragement, 10) understanding of children' difficulties and 11) humor (Chatzichristou, 2004).

Stress management strategies should be a part of teachers' education in order for them to perform their task more effectively. It is a fact that

more and more students with learning difficulties and behavioral problems are integrated into general classrooms, so the consequent demands on behalf of teachers are now increased. Moreover, the large number of foreign students that currently study in Greek schools, increases the stress of teachers, since they are called to contribute to the effective integration of these students into the Greek educational system. Consequently, modern teachers are confronted with more stressful situations (Fink & Janssen, 1993; Chatzichristou, 2004).

Conclusion

The findings of Greek research regarding occupational stress and burnout syndrome of teachers are very interesting and they create a perfect ground for further investigation. On the one hand, the overall view resulting from research statistical data reveals moderate levels of occupational stress and burnout. On the other hand, if someone examines teachers' stress sources carefully, for example, low wages, insecurity and changes generally, he will easily conclude that nowadays the stressful sources seem to be shifting from the student, curriculum and teaching methods, to other "clerical", bureaucratic and procedural aspects.

In other words, teachers' interest and anxiety are no longer focused on how to accomplish their educational and pedagogical work better, but in their life outside school. This finding is particularly worrying about the future of public education in Greece, as it may become a threat to the effectiveness of the teacher and consequently to the quality of the education provided. It would be particularly useful, therefore, large-scale equivalent research to be funded and implemented, for teachers at all levels of educational system, in order for, initially, the actual situation experienced by teachers nowadays to be captured and, after that, a program for the dissemination of techniques for management and prevention of stress to be designed.

In general, teachers need help in performing their work by receiving emotional support and guidance for themselves. Working with school psychologist will contribute determinedly to the factors mentioned above. The school psychologist will be able to help them to move in a positive direction, in order for teachers to solve the difficulties they face and help them adopt effective coping strategies. He will also be able to listen to each teacher separately, to suggest possible ways to meet his needs and alternatives to the problems that make him suffer. Teachers practice a

profession which is often characterized and described as a humanitarian profession that serves a "social purpose", which adds great importance to their work. The stress and often burnout syndrome that teachers experience, hinder the performance of such their important work. Hence, teachers should be helped and given as much creative and meaningful guidance as possible.

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UNDERSTANDING TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION

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Abstract

The present article is drawn up on in the context of my PhD dissertation under the title: "Burnout Syndrome of both General and Special Education Teachers in primary schools regarding their Personality Traits". In order to examine this subject of burnout syndrome closely, we should first decode the basic factor that causes it: lack of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is a key component of teaching, as it is a key factor in the creativity, performance, mentality and well-being of the educator. The terms "Job Satisfaction" and "Job Burnout" have been the subject of research and a point of interest for the scientific community for several decades. Actually, in a large number of surveys, the phenomenon of job satisfaction and burnout syndrome are examined in a parallel manner, which not only indicates the relationship between these two phenomena but also their interdependence, since the absence of job satisfaction often leads employees to burnout syndrome.

The choice of this particular issue was made on the basis that the work of teachers is often at the heart of discussions in all developed societies, especially in Greece where the economic crisis has dramatically affected teachers. The rapid changes in society structures have resulted in significant variations in the exercise of the profession of a teacher. The intense interest for teachers becomes easily understood, since education contributes to a very large extent both to the political and social, as well as the economic development of a country.

Key-words: *job satisfaction, teachers, burnout syndrome, motivation*

Introduction

Job satisfaction is one of the important issues of organizational psychology, especially because it is considered to be inextricably linked to both the mental health of employees and the interest of organizations to have high efficiency and in many cases satisfied staff. Besides, job satisfaction is crucial to a person's self-esteem, especially if we consider the time an individual spends at work during his/her lifetime. Professional

satisfaction is related to attitudes and reflects how people feel about both their profession as a whole and the various aspects of it. In other words, satisfaction is the degree to which the individual likes their profession, and dissatisfaction is the degree to which they dislike it.

Although research has approached the phenomenon of professional satisfaction in a different way, the researchers agree that professional satisfaction is a multidimensional conceptual construction and consists of several elements (Koustelios, 2001), but without denying the existence of a whole satisfaction generally from work.

Job satisfaction is not a simple concept but consists of several points. A common distinction is between intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction (Warr 1987). The intrinsic refers to the content of work and its conduct, i.e. the margin of autonomy for the way the project is performed, the degree of responsibility, the variety of activities, etc. Extrinsic is related to the context and the working conditions, namely the hours, security, wages, etc.

Job satisfaction has been the subject of many studies in recent years, following the effort of researchers to define the content, dimensions and effects of this phenomenon in various workplaces and in a variety of professions. Thus, job satisfaction is defined by the positive and negative attitudes of the individual towards his work and is directly related to important aspects of work such as productivity, the reduction of workplace errors, the number of absences and the intention of the employees to abandon their workplace (Kantas, 1998). Job satisfaction is related to attitudes and reflects how people feel both for their profession as a whole but also for the various aspects of it. In other words, satisfaction is the degree to which the employees like their profession and dissatisfaction is the degree to which they dislike it.

Conceptual Definition of the term

The most commonly used definition for job satisfaction comes from Locke (1976), according to which professional satisfaction is defined as the person's positive emotional response to the specific work they perform, provided that their professional values are fulfilled. On the contrary, professional dissatisfaction is prompted by the frustration of the individual's work values. Locke simply defined job satisfaction as a pleasant or positive emotional state that comes as a result of assessing one's work or work experience. The most important reasons for the many surveys on job satisfaction is that: a) satisfaction itself can be considered as the

ultimate goal, since happiness is a goal in every person's life and (b) job satisfaction affects considerably many functions of our everyday life.

According to Wanous & Lawler (1972), job satisfaction occurs when the needs of the individual and the characteristics of his profession coincide. Another similar theory is the one of Holland's (1996), in which Holland states that satisfaction and professional development depend on each individual's personality trying to fit in their working environment. Finally, Spector (1997), in a more simplified but comprehensive definition, considers that it is related to the positive feelings the individual has for his work.

In education, job satisfaction refers to "the emotional relationship of the teacher with their teaching role and emerges through the distinction of the relationship between what people want from their profession and what they think it offers them." (Tarasiadou & Platsidou, 2009).

Teachers' Job Satisfaction

The job satisfaction of teachers is a crucial component of the educational process since the degree of professional satisfaction of each individual is a decisive factor for its efficiency, creativity, mental and social well-being, and its immediate surroundings. The psychological relationship of teachers with their profession has direct and substantial impact on their relation with students, with all the obvious implications, so the study of the subject of job satisfaction acquires completely new dimensions concerning their educational life, their overall educational reality and the overall efficiency of the education system (Kantas, 1998; Dimitropoulos, 1998). The job satisfaction of teachers depends on factors such as: the development of effective relationships with students, the development of social relationships with colleagues, participation in decision-making processes, the ability to apply new ideas, autonomy and independence, and opportunities for individual development (Zempylas & Papanastasiou, 2006).

In the last three decades, teacher satisfaction level has been systematically explored in the international research arena, and many studies have attempted to identify sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among teachers in primary and secondary schools (Eliophotou-Menon et al., 2008). In Greek reality, in recent years, a part of the interest of educational research focuses on the teacher, his role and the difficulties he faces. However, few empirical studies have explored key

determinants that influence teachers' levels of job satisfaction. The issue of professional satisfaction is complex and multidimensional and therefore difficult to measure (Makri-Mpotsari & Matsagouras, 2003).

Theoretical Approaches of job Satisfaction

One of the most widespread motivation theories is the "hierarchy of needs theory" by Abraham Maslow (1943). His theory links job satisfaction with the satisfaction of human needs, as there is a specific hierarchy of human needs, which is depicted by the pyramid form. At the lower levels of the pyramid, basic human needs are concentrated, while the most complex are at the top of the pyramid. Maslow argued that people during their lifetime act in such a way as to satisfy as many of their needs as possible, in the most efficient and cost-effective manner. Once a need is met, the desire to meet new needs is presented at a higher level and the escalation is strictly hierarchical (Papanis & Rontos, 2005). Each individual intends to develop their potential and therefore must first meet their biological needs (e.g. hunger, thirst, sleep). The next level of the hierarchy is the need for love and emotional response. At the next level are the needs for social contact and the need for social recognition while at the top of the pyramid lies the need for self-actualization and self-identification. The emergence of the need for self-actualization only exists when the needs of all previous levels have been met. Maslow argues that meeting all the needs of the hierarchy is an important factor in ensuring the individual's mental health.

"Two factor theory" (1968) was developed by Frederick Herzberg. According to this theory there are two distinct groups of factors about the job satisfaction and the general performance of the individual at work. Herzberg distinguishes two kinds of needs: a) those that cause satisfaction in the workplace, coming from the basic biological needs of the individual and which he calls motivators, and b) those that cause dissatisfaction, related to work content, which are called hygiene factors. Factors such as achievement, recognition of the project, nature of work, responsibility, ability to promote are motivations according to Herzberg, while factors such as salary levels, occupational safety, work conditions are hygiene factors.

Alderfer's theory is an extension of Maslow's principles (1972). Aldefer limited the five main categories of needs to three: a) the existence needs that cover the normal and security needs; b) the relatedness needs

with the social environment that cover social needs and c) the growth needs that cover the two higher levels of Maslow's needs, the needs of self-respect and self-actualization (Kantas, 1998, Papanis & Rontos, 2005).

The association of motivation and job satisfaction is also found in Vroom's (1964) "expectancy theory", which deals with what determines the person's intention to make a personal effort at work. This effort contributes to the performance of the department or the entire organization in which the employee is working. He argues that a person's work motivation is determined by 3 variables, valence, instrumentality, and expectancy.

Finally, Stacy Adam's "equity theory" (1963) claims that employees follow the norms of equality and justice in their work. Employees compare everything they invest to the business with the results they receive, and at the same time with the results of another person or group they offer just as well. If an employee experiences an injustice, that is, working under a framework of inequality, he may be dissatisfied and reduce his performance. People who feel wronged but do not try to change their attitudes are led to latent practices either by changing their behavior towards the importance of the factors of inequality or by redefining their exemplary relationships in the workplace (Kantas, 1998).

The role and the work of teacher

The issue of teacher's job satisfaction is important, as the role of the teacher is directly linked to the development of children, the future of each country and the continuity of society. Therefore, by ensuring teachers' professional satisfaction, the levels of equality and the development of education could be increased in a stable and continuous way (Saiti, 2007).

The teacher is the most important factor in any change needed at school (e.g. for educational reforms). The existence of competent teachers with the required knowledge, skills and attitudes is the key factor in providing high level education. However, if they are not professionally satisfied, their productivity may be affected by burnout syndrome, absence, apathy or abstinence. Supporting this idea, Lusser (1990) has shown that job satisfaction can make a substantial contribution to the efficiency and effectiveness of an organization. It also contributes to the production of high-level products and services as well as to maintaining low levels of burnout and abstinence.

Obviously, the goal of each education system is to prepare capable citizens who will help the country's political, social and economic

development. The above objective will be achieved when the 'fittings' of education systems are in good condition. The most important tool of the educational act, which is the spearhead of every educational system, is content educator, who is also committed to his role (Naylor, 1999). According to Luthans (1998), if people work in a clean and friendly environment, they are more enjoyable at work. If the opposite is the case, it is difficult for them to achieve results. When their needs are not met, individuals can be affected psychologically, morally and economically.

Job satisfaction has very important consequences: it means that teachers are happy, dedicated and committed to their role. Teachers seek to be professionally effective and satisfied in their work. As argued by Jaiyeoba and Jibril (2008), satisfied teachers are one of the most important factors in the education system. The success or failure of the system depends mainly on the satisfied teachers, but also on the satisfied headteachers and supervisors. Teachers especially spend a great deal of their time with their students in the classroom, and because of this they have a significant impact on their success.

Factors contributing to job satisfaction

We could divide teachers' job satisfaction factors into two categories: organizational factors and demographic. Warr (2005 - report by Tarasiadou & Platsidou, 2009) states that these factors can be divided into extrinsic ones, which are often considered cause of teacher dissatisfaction and their decision to change profession, and intrinsic ones, which make them feel positive. The intrinsic factors of job satisfaction, as recorded by the same researcher, are: freedom and participation in decision-making during school activities, activities on a variety of topics, the use of teacher qualifications, responsibility for completing a school activity, the pleasant school climate, the assessment of the course of work and the opportunities for promotion.

Koustelios and Kousteliou (2001) classify working time, salary, working conditions, etc, as extrinsic factors. Tarasiadou and Platsidou (2009) believe that the school unit is considered to be an organization that directly influences the organization positively or negatively. It has also been argued and found by other researchers that relationship with students is one of the most important factors, as well as communication with colleagues, the ability to promote new ideas, the participation in decision-making, autonomy, relationship with headteacher etc. (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006). Security, effective leadership, superiors' support,

lack of rigorous supervision, good interpersonal relationship, are also included in factors contributing to teacher satisfaction. Teachers' job satisfaction depends on the demographic and individual characteristics of the employees, such as age, gender, educational level, economic background, marital status, experience, working time, etc.

Relationship between job satisfaction and burnout syndrome

Teachers, practicing a highly humanitarian profession, are subject to severe stress and therefore teaching is considered as one of the professions with high to very high levels of stress.

As Maslach and Schaufeli claim, there are three approaches to the relationship between job satisfaction and burnout syndrome: 1) Burnout syndrome is the cause for the reduction of job satisfaction, that is, professional dissatisfaction is an emotional consequence of burnout syndrome. 2) The very opposite view, which considers that professional dissatisfaction causes burnout syndrome and 3) both professional dissatisfaction and job satisfaction can be caused by a third variable, such as bad working conditions (Koustelios & Kousteliou, 2001). It can therefore be assumed that there is some form of causal relationship between job satisfaction and burnout syndrome, especially with regard to the dimension of emotional exhaustion, and this relationship is supposed to exist in other professions, beyond that of the teacher (Kantas, 1996).

Teachers' dissatisfaction with their work has a negative impact on the educational system. Low job satisfaction means lower levels of employees' attachment to their work. These people either change their jobs or continue to work inadvertently (Demirel & Erdamar, 2009). Unsatisfied employees are a great risk as they result in failure to meet the aims and objectives of school.

According to Hoy & Miskel (1996), lack of job satisfaction on the part of the teacher, results in frequent absences from school, aggressive behavior towards colleagues and students, early retirement from work and psychological alienation from his work. All these negative results lead to poor and inefficient teaching that is at the core of the educational process.

Various research has shown that lack of job satisfaction is accompanied by feelings of depression, despair, anger, contempt and futility (Pinder, 2008). Additionally, research has revealed the link between the lack of professional satisfaction of teachers and the school failure of students (Hargreaves, 1994).

In Greece, past research results show the existence of burnout syndrome in the field of education to a certain extent. However, for at least eight years now, the area of education, as a workplace, has been undergoing major and difficult changes for employees, a fact that creates a clearly more stressful environment than that in previous years. Economic changes, such as wage cuts, tax increases, change in teacher rankings, institutional changes in school, underfunding of schools with implications on school facilities and infrastructure, “punishing” teachers' evaluation with high impact on their earnings, but also on their stay in the field of education, job insecurity, which accompanies the closure of many schools in the small regions, increase teachers' work stress.

Concerning teachers' job satisfaction, it is considered that teachers with higher levels of professional satisfaction have higher levels of productivity. Therefore, the negative factors affecting the encouragement of teachers should be identified and eliminated in order to improve the levels of motivation for their work (Karsli & Iskender, 2009). The factors contributing to teacher burnout syndrome can be divided into three categories. The first one concerns personal factors such as gender, marital status, the class they teach, the type of academic studies. The second concerns interpersonal factors, the role other people play in the creation of burnout syndrome. The third concerns the organizational factors, the role of the school environment and the organizational requirements of education (the need to complete the curriculum in a specific timeframe, the role conflict in the school unit, the lack of supportive counseling, etc.) (Pappa, 2006).

In addition, the environment generates stress-causing factors that are responsible for the outburst of burnout syndrome. These environmental factors are the social relationships of teachers with students, colleagues, headteachers and working conditions (Pappa, 2006).

Many studies on the field of education, acknowledge stress overload, working conditions, professional development, poor working relationships with colleagues, low pay, lack of clarity and conflict of roles, relationships with parents, teachers' expectations, pressures exerted by educational leadership, lack of communication, social issues and mistrust as serious stress causing factors (Kantas, 1996, Koustelios & Kousteliou, 2001, Dimitropoulos, 1998, Papastylianou & Polychronopoulos, 2007).

In general, it can be argued that the well-being of educators is influenced by their job satisfaction and skills, while the lack of prosperity is

related to work, which can lead to stress, that can subsequently affect their job performance (Pillay, Goddard & Wilss, 2005). Thus, the psychological health of teachers is imperative for the "success" of students, the educational system, and for the wider society web (Vesely et al., 2013).

Conclusion

The main objective of the present study was to investigate teachers' job satisfaction in Greece compared to international research. The study of the individual theories concerning the interpretation of the phenomenon of job satisfaction leads us to the conclusion that no theoretical construction alone is sufficient for a complete understanding of the phenomenon. This fact, however, does not diminish the importance and possibilities of their utilization, in an attempt to systematically study the individual aspects and the way in which satisfaction arises from work.

In general, the results of Greek research have shown that Greek teachers have lower levels of burnout syndrome than their foreign colleagues (Papastylianou, Kaila, Polychronopoulos, 2009). However, especially regarding teachers, it should be noted that while the levels of stress and exhaustion they present in various research are sometimes high, there is no evidence to suggest that this occupational category faces some increased mental or physical health problems. It seems that teachers either exaggerate in the relevant questionnaires, or the long periods of vacation and colleague support are life-saving in their case (Kantas, 1996). Despite the fact that burnout syndrome levels are low and that most teachers find their work extremely satisfying, many researchers have also recognized that teaching is a stressful job.

In summary, teachers nowadays often have to combine the heavy task of teaching with the additional responsibility of children' "raising awareness" towards adulthood when parents are busy or absent. They need to maintain close relationships with other people and make quick decisions, so the decisions that are made often have serious economic, social or other consequences on all those lives involved. Conclusively, it is obvious that the role of the teachers and the job satisfaction resulting from their profession are two very important parameters, not only for the transmission of knowledge to the new generations but also for the significant influence it exerts on the behavior and the life of students and, thus, in society as a whole. The teacher is the one who, with his attitude, gives the example and contributes to building the values that will form the basis for the future.

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ГЛАВА 3: ПСИХОЛОГИЯ НА ЛИЧНОСТТА CHAPTER 3: PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY

ЕСТЕТИЧЕСКИ ПРЕДПОЧИТАНИЯ ЗА ФОРМА И СИМЕТРИЯ В КОНТЕКСТА НА ДИМЕНСИЯТА ЕМОЦИОНАЛНА СТАБИЛНОСТ - ЕМОЦИОНАЛНА ЛАБИЛНОСТ

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AESTHETIC PREFERENCES FOR SHAPE AND SYMMETRY IN THE CONTEXT OF THE DIMENSION OF EMOTIONAL STABILITY - EMOTIONAL INSTABILITY

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Резюме

Естетическата оценка е функция на динамичната обработка на информацията от възприемащия субект, при която колкото по-свободно той обработва даден естетически стимул, толкова по-положителен е естетическият отговор. Настоящото изследване е част от подробно проучване на естетическите предпочитания на личността, като тук са представени множество различия в субективните предпочитания за форма и симетрия в зависимост от дименсията емоционална стабилност - емоционална лабилност.

Ключови думи: емоционална стабилност - емоционална лабилност, естетически предпочитания, индивидуални различия

Abstract:

Aesthetic evaluation is a function of the dynamic processing of information by the perceiving subject in which the more freely he processes an aesthetic stimulus, the more aesthetic response is. The present study is a part of a detailed study of the aesthetic preferences of personality, and here are presented many differences in the dimension emotional stability - emotional instability.

Keywords: emotional stability - emotional instability, aesthetic preferences, individual differences .

Въведение

Перцептивното овладяване се влияе от променливи като първично възприятие, разяснения, продължителност на презентацията, повторенията, или контраста фигура-фон. Посочените променливи се отнасят и за концептуалното овладяване, както и към семантичните структури на знанието и индивидуалните особености (Winkielman, Schwarz, Fazendeiro, & Reber, 2003).

Обработката на всеки естетически стимул може да се характеризира с разнообразие от параметри, които са неспецифични по отношение на съдържанието, като например скорост и точност на обработка на стимулите (Reber, Wurtz, & Zimmermann, 2004). Най-често тези параметри притежават характеристиките на миналия опит от цялостна обработка или овладяване на естетическа информация. Голям брой проучвания показват, че хората използват овладяването и за различни неестетически оценъчни решения (Jacoby, Allan, Collins, & Larwill, 1988), яснота на изображението (Whittlesea et al., 1990), продължителността на експозицията (Witherspoon & Allen, 1985), предходни познания за обекта (Whittlesea, 1993), и тяхната степен на съответствие с реалността (Reber & Schwarz, 1999).

Повечето теоретични становища могат да бъдат обобщени в предположението, че високото овладяване на естетическите стимули подсказва положително състояние в рамките на когнитивната система или в личностното функциониране (Winkielman et al., 2003). Успешното овладяване на естетически стимули предизвиква положителен афект, защото се свързва с напредък и опознаване на стимула при наличието на подходящи структурни познания за интерпретиране на стимула (Fernandez-Duque, Baird, & Posner, 2000). Високото овладяване може да е показател, че външните стимули са познати и по този начин е малко вероятно да бъдат вредни за емоционалното състояние на личността (Ramachandran & Hirstein, 1999).

В някои изследвания се представят на участниците снимки на предмети от ежедневието, като например бюро, птица, или равнина (Reber, Winkielman & Schwarz, 1998). Качеството на снимките е леко влошено и овладяването на обработката е манипулирано, чрез визуална процедура за замъгляване. В зависимост от условията целевата снимка се предшества от подсъзнателни представи за силно влошеното качество на контура на всяка от подбраните снимки.

Установява се, че съвпадението на контура улеснява обработката (високо овладяване), в съответствие с изследванията, които доказват, че подсъзнателните визуални единици подобряват точността с която стимулт може да бъде идентифициран (Bar & Biederman, 1998).

Настоящият подход налага селективен преглед на изследванията, които се стремят да идентифицират ключовите фактори на естетическата оценка, съставени от различни изследователски традиции. Подчертава се ролята на атрибутивните процеси и очаквания, по отношение на обработката на информацията и овладяването на цялостния процес на възприемане на естетически стимули. Интересно е обяснението, че теорията за перцептивно овладяване на естетически стимули дефинира явленията, които са трудни за концептуализиране, в контекста на други теории. Теорията за перцептивно овладяване помага да се обясни взаимодействието между развитието на ранните предпочитания и социализацията, предпочитанията към определени форми и съществуването на индивидуални различия по отношение на обективната реалност и красотата като две страни на едно и също явление.

Прегледът на емпиричните изследвания доказва, че високото овладяване е надеждно свързано с повече положителни оценки. Тази възможност получава най-голямо внимание в контекста на дискусията относно естеството на ефекта от елементарна експозиция, където повторението увеличава харесването на първоначално неутрален дразнител (Zajonc, 2000). Някои автори предполагат, че ефектът от самото експониране на стимула може да се отрази върху увеличаването на неговото перцептивно овладяване (Bornstein & D'Agostino, 1994). При това положение може да се обобщи, че всяка променлива, която улеснява овладяването на преработката на естетическа информация, води до увеличаване на личностните предпочитания, дори в условията на една-единствена експозиция.

Програма на изследването

Целта на представеното изследване е да се установят естетическите предпочитания на лица с изразена емоционална лабилност или емоционална лабилност към характеристиките форма и симетрия на компютърно генерирани изображения.

Предполага се, че личността в контекста на дименсията емоционална стабилност - емоционална лабилност демонстрира специфични естетически предпочитания за форма и симетрия.

Въпросникът, който е приложен в настоящето изследване е разработен от Ханс Айзенк и е свързан с неговия модел на личността. В България е адаптиран от Paspalanov & Shtetinski, (1984). От въпросника използваме скалата Невротизъм – невротична нагласа, дължаща се на наследствени, придобити или следствие от вътрешни конфликти фактори. Фиксира нивото на личностна стабилност и емоционална чувствителност. Лабилният (неустойчив) човек е емоционално чувствителен, податлив на стрес. Стабилният (устойчив) човек е спокоен, невъзмутим, неподатлив на стрес. Когато показанията по скалата са над нормата се отчита емоционална лабилност (неустойчивост), а когато са под нормата - устойчивост. В скалата са включени 23 айтема.

Резултати

Използването на конджойнт анализ дава възможност да се разбере относителното значение на всички естетически измерения и комбинации между тях и по този начин да се интерпретира цялостната естетическа оценка към демонстрираните визуални стимули. Целесъобразно е да се подчертае, че резултатите от конджойнт анализа предоставят независим външен стандарт по отношение на личностните естетически предпочитания спрямо демонстрираните визуални стимули.

Таблица № 1. Естетически предпочитания за форма и симетрия при лица с изразена емоционална стабилност

фактор	факторно равнище	оценки на полезността	стандартна грешка	относителна важност
форма	триъгълник	2,135	0,194	32,596
	кръг	4,057	0,186	
	шестоъгълник	-1,922	0,194	
вертикална симетрия	ляво	1,304	0,194	39,917
	център	4,313	0,186	
	дясно	-3,009	0,194	
хоризонтална	над средата	1,976	0,186	

симетрия	среда	0,958	0,194	16,322
	под средата	-1,018	0,194	
диагонална	ляво \ дясно	-1,024	0,129	11,165
симетрия	дясно / ляво	1,024	0,129	
	константа	7,114	0,136	
коэффициент на корелация	стойност		равнище на значимост	
	Pearson's R	0,926		0,001
	Kendall's tau	0,901		0,001
	Kendall's tau Holdouts	1,000		0,021

Резултатите от анализа за определяне на естетическите предпочитания за форма и симетрия при лица с изразена емоционална стабилност установяват следните предпочитания. Според формата най-предпочитана е тази на кръга, следвана от тази на шестоъгълника. Най-рядко предпочитана е формата триъгълник. В зависимост от вертикалната симетрия най-предпочитана е позицията център, следвана от позицията ляво. Най-рядко предпочитана е позицията дясно. По отношение хоризонталната симетрия най-предпочитана е позицията над средата, следвана от позицията среда. Най-рядко предпочитана е позицията под средата. При изследваните лица с изразена емоционална стабилност, прави впечатление, че в зависимост от диагоналната симетрия по-предпочитана е позицията горен десен ъгъл - долен ляв ъгъл, за разлика от позицията горен ляв ъгъл - долен десен ъгъл.

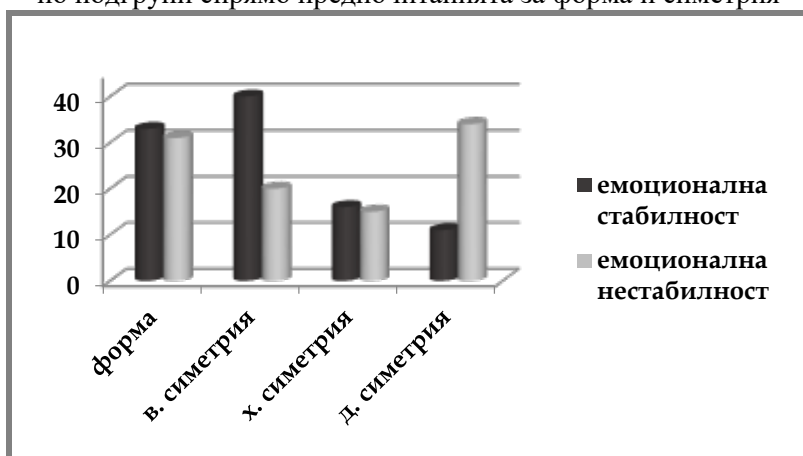
Таблица № 2. Естетически предпочитания за форма и симетрия при лица с изразена емоционална лабилност

фактор	факторно равнище	оценки на полезността	стандартна грешка	относителна важност
	триъгълник	1,452	0,203	
форма	кръг	-2,110	0,203	31,137
	шестоъгълник	3,562	0,181	
вертикална	ляво	-1,008	0,203	
симетрия	център	1,523	0,203	19,428
	дясно	2,531	0,181	
хоризонтална	над средата	1,829	0,181	
симетрия	среда	0,867	0,203	15,323
	под средата	-0,962	0,203	

диагонална симетрия	ляво \ дясно	3,107	0,133	34,112
	дясно / ляво	-3,107	0,133	
	константа	7,168	0,148	
коэффициент на корелация		стойност	равнище на значимост	
	Pearson's R	0,972		0,001
	Kendall's tau	0,938		0,002
	Kendall's tau Holdouts	1,000		0,021

Резултатите от конджойнт анализа за определяне на естетическите предпочитания за форма и симетрия при лица с изразена емоционална лабилност доказват, че според формата най-предпочитана е тази на шестоъгълника, следвана от триъгълната форма, а най-рядко е предпочитана тази на кръга. В зависимост от вертикалната симетрия най-предпочитана е позицията дясно, следвана от позицията център, като най-рядко предпочитана е позицията ляво. По отношение на хоризонталната симетрия най-предпочитана е позицията над средата, следвана от позицията среда, а най-рядко предпочитана е позицията под средата. По отношение на предпочитанията за диагонална симетрия при лицата с изразена емоционална лабилност най-често е предпочитана позицията горен ляв ъгъл - долен десен ъгъл, за разлика от позицията горен десен ъгъл - долен ляв ъгъл.

Графика № 1. Процентно разпределение на значимостта на факторите по подгрупи спрямо предпочитанията за форма и симетрия



По отношение на значимостта на фактора форма се установява, че тя е по-висока при лица с изразена емоционална стабилност, в сравнение с тази при лица с изразена емоционална лабилност. Значимостта на фактора вертикална симетрия е по-висока при лица с изразена емоционална стабилност, в сравнение с тази при лица с изразена емоционална лабилност. Значимостта на третия фактор хоризонтална симетрия е по-висока при лица с изразена емоционална стабилност, в сравнение с тази при лица с изразена емоционална лабилност. По отношение на значимостта на фактора диагонална симетрия се установява, че тя е по-висока при лица с изразена емоционална лабилност, в сравнение с тази при лица с изразена емоционална стабилност.

Заклучение

Представеният тук проблем се разглежда от аналитична и емпирична гледна точка, а изследователските усилия са съсредоточени върху разработването на модел за измерване на естетическите предпочитания, в контекста на индивидуалните различия и личностните особености.

Успешно се демонстрират практически подходи за създаване на естетически стимули, които имат положителни ефекти с определени личностни характеристики по посока разкриване на естетическите предпочитания.

Въз основа на резултатите от проведеното изследване се установява, че различията в предпочитанията за форма и симетрия, в контекста на дименсията емоционална стабилност – емоционална лабилност са статистически значими.

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TOM 2

ISSUE 2

ГЛАВА 4: СОЦИАЛНА ПСИХОЛОГИЯ

CHAPTER 4: SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

BULLYING IN SCHOOL

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Abstract

The general aim of this study is to investigate and explore the effects of bullying on students. We will define bullying, identify the characteristics of bullies and victims and outline the consequences of bullying. Additionally, it is very important to understand and develop a comprehensive understanding of school bullying and also identify strategies and best practices for bullying prevention.

Keywords: *Consequences and effects of bullying, Definition of bullying, Bully-Victim characteristics, Bullying prevention.*

One of the most important problems faced by at least 1 in 10 children and adolescents today is school bullying of pupils from their classmates, based on the results of a study conducted by the Society for the Psychosocial Health of Children and Adolescents in collaboration with the Pedagogical School of ATh. Also, a Child's Smile survey reveals that 32% of students have been bullying victims (34.2% boys, 29.71% girls). At the same time, according to research data from the National Center for Social Research (EKKE): primary school students are more susceptible to abuse than adolescents, while 11% of high school students admit acts of violence against their classmates. What happens, why the phenomenon of bullying spreads like an epidemic? Bullying is an epidemic. It is rampant, widespread and pervasive and the effects can be catastrophic. It occurs in our communities, in our schools – and sadly – even in our homes. Bullying statistics are staggering, scary and merit serious consideration and immediate action. Consider the following:

- 90% of students in grades 4-8 report have been harassed or bullied.
 - 28% of students in grades 6-12 experience bullying.²
 - 20% of students in grades 9-12 experience bullying.
- (stopbullying.gov)

- In grades 6-12, 9% of students have experienced cyberbullying.²
- Over 160,000 kids refuse to go to school each day for fear of being bullied. (Nation Education Association)
 - 70.6% of students report having witnessed bullying in their school—and over 71% say bullying is a problem.
 - Over 10% of students who drop out of school do so due to being bullied repeatedly.
 - Each month 282,000 students are physically assaulted in some way in secondary schools throughout the United States—and the number is growing.
 - Statistics suggest that revenge [due to bullying] is the number one motivator for school shootings in the U.S.
 - 86% of students surveyed said, "Other kids picking on them, making fun of them or bullying them" is the number one reason that teenagers turn to lethal violence at school.
 - Nearly 75% of school shootings have been linked to harassment and bullying.
 - 87% of students surveyed report that bullying is the primary motivator school shootings.
 - 64% of students who are bullied do not report it. (Petrosina, Guckenburg, Devoe and Hanson 2010).

Bullying is unwanted, aggressive behavior among school aged children that involves a real or perceived power imbalance. The behavior is repeated, or has the potential to be repeated, over time. Both kids who are bullied and who bully others may have serious, lasting problems. Bullying can take the form of physical contact, words or more subtle actions. "Bullying (is) the repeated use by one or more students of a written, verbal or electronic expression or a physical act or gesture or any combination thereof, directed at a victim that: (i) causes physical or emotional harm to the victim or damage to the victim's property; (ii) places the victim in reasonable fear of harm to himself or of damage to his property; (iii) creates a hostile environment at school for the victim or (iv) materially and substantially disrupts the education process or the orderly operation of a school." Bullying can affect everyone—those who are bullied, those who bully, and those who witness bullying. Bullying is linked to many negative outcomes including impacts on mental health, substance use, and suicide. It is important to talk to kids to determine whether bullying—or something

else—is a concern. Kids who are bullied can experience negative physical, school, and mental health issues. Kids who are bullied are more likely to experience:

- Depression and anxiety, increased feelings of sadness and loneliness, changes in sleep and eating patterns, and loss of interest in activities they used to enjoy. These issues may persist into adulthood.
- Health complaints.
- Decreased academic achievement-GPA and standardized test scores-and school participation. They are more likely to miss, skip, or drop out of school.

A very small number of bullied children might retaliate through extremely violent measures. In 12 of 15 school shooting cases in the 1990s, the shooters had a history of being bullied. Kids who bully others can also engage in violent and other risky behaviors into adulthood. Kids who bully are more likely to:

- Abuse alcohol and other drugs in adolescence and as adults;
- Get into fights, vandalize property, and drop out of school;
- Engage in early sexual activity;
- Have criminal convictions and traffic citations as adults ;
- Be abusive toward their romantic partners, spouses, or children as adults .Kids who witness bullying are more likely to:
- Have increased use of tobacco, alcohol, or other drugs;
- Have increased mental health problems, including depression and anxiety;
- Miss or skip school

Although bullies are often looked at as simply out of control children, a significant number of children use aggression in their everyday lives. There are many characteristics that define these dominant children as bullies. Rigby (1993) specifically defines bullies as those having an aggressive personality pattern, with the tendency to react aggressively in a variety of situations. They also tend to have an inability to control their inhibitions against aggressive tendencies and often have a positive attitude toward violence. Power, Dyson and Wozniak (1997) note that, physically, aggressors tend to be older and stronger than their peers. As well as personality and physics, family situations are influential on a child's aggression. Perren (2005) suggests that families of bullies frequently have little closeness and unity, as well as being focused on power over one

another. These children often report more negative family functioning than non-bullies. Because of the lack of parental and family support, many adolescents use bullying as a form of control and attention.

These children do not know the correct form of asking for attention, love and support from others, including their peers. Brown (1986) suggests that this is often a response to family situations, as well as peer pressure. A portion of these children lack any control in their lives, except for the control they place on others.

School is an additional environment where adolescent bullies may struggle to obtain control. Pellegrini (2000) notes that these adolescent bullies are at risk for a variety of school-related and psychosocial problems that can be detrimental, both physically and emotionally.

As one can imagine, the peer pressure adolescent's face on a day-to-day basis is expanded exponentially when placed in a school setting. There is a similar impact in regards to bullying. Adolescents may feel peer pressure to bully, especially in school settings, in order to obtain control in a complex social environment.

A victim is often a person who suffers from destructive acts, either emotionally or physically. Many believe that victims are mostly random, undeserving people that were simply in the wrong place at the wrong time. However, research has come to find that victims quite often find themselves in the same situation over and over again. There are possible explanations for victims and their tendency to be victimized. Primarily, victims tend to be young and smaller physically.

In addition, the home environment plays an important role in a victim's life. Parental abuse or misconduct may leave a child with no knowledge of proper relationships. Perren (2005) states that families of male victims seem to be overly protective and close, while the families of female victims lean toward unhealthy emotional abuse. Just as with bullies, a lack of family support can leave a child with deeper psychosocial problems that may manifest themselves in social environments, predicting their involvement in victimizing activities.

The school environment is just as important as the home life in the development of victims. In terms of peers, Perren finds that limited popularity and social networks can be a precursor for victimization in an adolescent social setting. Limited support from peers and adults could show a child that bullying is not only right, but also admirable. The adolescents who are bullied feel as though the whole world is against them.

It is important to consider that bullies and victims are not all that different. In fact, in many cases they are the same person. Peskin et al. (2006) identifies bully-victims as those who are both bullied by others and bully others. She suggests that they are more likely to be male. Many times children find that when they are lacking something essential in one environment, they will over-compensate in another. Quite often, children may be victims at home and a bully at school.

It may be even more complicated than simply their environment. A child could have been a victim all through childhood and when emerging into adolescence or adulthood decides it is time to take control, control over others. Perren (2005) states that research has found that children who bully others, but are also bullied themselves form a sub-group that is called aggressive victims, proactive victims or bully-victims.

However, the research also states that these sub-groups often overlap in terms of bullying. Rigby (1993) proposes that the tendency to bully others and the tendency to be victimized by other are not polar opposites. His findings also indicate that the predisposition to bully others and to be victimized can possibly be correlated. It is important to realize that although bullies and victims are on the opposite ends of the spectrum, they really are not all that different.

Bullying can threaten students' physical and emotional safety at school and can negatively impact their ability to learn. The best way to address bullying is to stop it before it starts. There are a number of things school staff can do to make schools safer and prevent bullying.

Training school staff and students to prevent and address bullying can help sustain bullying prevention efforts over time. There are no federal mandates for bullying curricula or staff training. The following are some examples of options schools can consider.

Activities to teach students about bullying. Schools don't always need formal programs to help students learn about bullying prevention. Schools can incorporate the topic of bullying prevention in lessons and activities. Examples of activities to teach about bullying include:

Internet or library research, such as looking up types of bullying, how to prevent it, and how kids should respond, presentations, such as a speech or role-play on stopping bullying, discussions about topics like reporting bullying, creative writing, such as a poem speaking out against bullying or a story or skit teaching bystanders how to help, artistic works, such as a collage about respect or the effects of bullying.

Addressing the signs of bullying early, before the behaviour and its impact get worse, is important to creating a safe and caring school and community.

As a parent, you can help to prevent bullying by teaching your children how to:

- be caring of others, get along, deal with angry feelings;
- be assertive without being aggressive in standing up for themselves.

Children need to understand how important it is to report bullying. Parents can help by encouraging children to talk about what is happening at school, in their neighbourhoods, on the bus, etc.

As well, it is important to teach children the difference between telling and tattling. Tattling is reporting to an adult about someone else's behaviour in order to get them in trouble. Telling is reporting to a responsible adult about someone else's behaviour in order to help someone – themselves or someone else. Parents and families can help children understand the importance of reporting harassment and guide them through the complaint and investigation process.

Bullying is a serious problem that can dramatically affect the ability of students to progress academically and socially. A comprehensive intervention plan that involves all students, parents, and school staff is required to ensure that all students can learn in a safe and fear-free environment.

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ГЛАВА 5: ЮРИДИЧЕСКА ПСИХОЛОГИЯ. CHAPTER 5: LEGAL PSYCHOLOGY

ФУНКЦИОНИРАНЕ ПСИХИЧНАТА ЗАЩИТНА ДОМИНАНТА НА ОБВИНЯЕМИЯ ПРИ ПРОВЕЖДАНЕТО НА РАЗПИТ В РАМКИТЕ НА НАКАЗАТЕЛНИЯ ПРОЦЕС.

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FUNCTIONING OF THE MENTAL DEFENSES IN THE CONDUCT OF INTERROGATION WITHIN THE CRIMINAL PROCESS.

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Резюме

От изложената в доклада тематика е видно, че органите на досъдебното производство както и съда е възможно в една или друга степен да бъдат повлияни както от личността на обвиняемия, така и от неговата компетентност да участва в наказателния процес. В това отношение като експерт, психологът може да окаже неоеценимо съдействие. Всяка една експертиза би попомогнала на всички участници в правораздаването по повод на обективната им оценка за извършителите на правонарушения, за разбиране на индивидуалната им защита и присъщото за тях самооправдание по време на процесуалните действия. Участието на психолози в наказателния процес е от ключово значение за установяването на истината в разследването, защото всяко престъпление като деяние има субективна страна, изразяваща се в психическото отношение на дееца към извършеното деяние. Установяването на тези психологически мотиви е ключов момент от наказателния процес с оглед установяването на истината.

Психологическата защита стабилизира личността в критичните условия на противодействие, свързани с отстраняването на преживяванията на напрежение, тревога, стрес и фрустрация, водещи към максимална мобилизация на нейните ресурси и същевременно до техния преразход . По такъв начин индивидът,

който е обект на процесулните действия, максимално се защитава от неблагоприятните външни влияния, но с цената на много усилия и огромна загуба на нервно-психическа енергия, което повишава собствената му уязвимост вместо да допринесе за нейното намаляване. Възникването и функционирането на психологическа защита може да бъде значително възпрепятствано в резултат на взаимодействието на разследващия с обвиняемия. Още по-сложна е ситуацията, когато се стигне до разрыв на комуникационния контакт, която може да възникне при психологическо отчуждение и самоизолация на обвиняемия поради желание да се защити.

Защитната психологическа доминанта е реална психическа дейност, с която трябва да се съобразяват разследващите полицаи, следователи и съдии, за да успеят ефективно да се справят със своята задача и да преодолеят в кратък срок съпротивата на разследваните лица и да докажат по законосъобразен и морален начин тяхната вина и причастност към разследваните криминални деяния.

Ключови думи: обвиняем; психологическа; защитна; доминанта; престъпление; наказателен, процес, противодействие, стрес, мобилизира,

Abstract

From the subject presented in the report it is evident that the pre-trial and the court bodies may, to some extent, be influenced both by the person of the accused and by his competence to participate in the criminal process. In this regard as an expert, the psychologist can offer invaluable assistance. Each expertise would assist all actors involved in the administration of justice on their objective assessment of the offenders, the understanding of their individual protection and the inherent self-justification during procedural actions. The involvement of psychologists in the criminal process is key to establishing the truth in the investigation, because every crime as an act has a subjective side, expressed in the psychic attitude of the perpetrator to the committed act. Establishing these psychological motives is a key point in the criminal process with a view to establishing the truth.

Psychological protection stabilizes the personality in the critical conditions of counteraction, related to the elimination of the experiences of tension, anxiety, stress and frustration, leading to maximum mobilization of its

resources and at the same time to their overpayment. Thus, the individual who is the subject of the process action is protected against the adverse external influences, but at the cost of a lot of effort and enormous loss of nervous-mental energy, which increases his own vulnerability instead of contributing to its reduction. The appearance and functioning of psychological protection can be significantly impeded by the interaction of the investigator with the accused. Even more complicated is the situation when it breaks the communication contact that may arise in the psychological alienation and self-isolation of the accused due to the desire to protect himself.

Protective psychological dominance is a real psychic activity that investigators, investigators, investigators and judges need to take into account in order to effectively deal with their task and to overcome the resistance of the investigated persons and in a time to prove in a lawful and moral way their guilt and participation in the commitment of the crimes .

Key words: *accused; psychological; protective; the Dominant; crime; criminal, process, counteraction, stress, mobilize*

Увод

1. Юридикопсихологическият анализ на обвиняемите започваме с разглеждането на техния правен статус и процесуални характеристики

Съгласно чл. 54 от НПК "Обвиняем е лицето, което е привлечено като такова в това качество при условията и по реда, предвидени в този кодекс." Основната идея, която влага НПК се базира на тезата, че когато лицето е привлечено като обвиняем, това означава, че срещу него е повдигнато и обвинение. Става дума за така нареченото предварително обвинение, което може да бъде повдигнато по два начина – с постановление за привличане на обвиняем или с протокола от първото действие по разследването срещу лицето / чл. 219, ал.1 и ал. 2 НПК/. С изготвянето на постановлението или протокола лицето е привлечено като обвиняем и тази фигура е конституирана по делото. От този момент това лице разполага с всички права, предвидени за обвиняемия, но също така спрямо него могат да се приложат мерките за процесуална принуда, регламентирани в НПК. С акта на конституиране на обвиняемия в досъдебната фаза на процеса той придобива визираниите в чл. 55 НПК процесуални права, в обсега на които е и възможността да даде

обяснения по повдигнатото му обвинение. / P- 626- 2011 н.о на ВКС/. / Chinova. M./

Окончателното обвинение се повдига, след като е приключило разследването, с обвинителен акт на прокурора, което действие е израз на конституционното му правомощие да привлича към отговорност лицата, които са извършили престъпление от общ характер.

2. Основен процесуален способ за установяване на истината в наказателния процес и разкриване извършителя на престъплението е разпита на обвиняем

Провеждането на разпита е тясно свързано с изпълнението на специална задача с конкретно поставена цел. А именно при така събраните материали да се извлече основната информация от дълговременната памет на разпитваното лице относно извършеното престъпно деяние. Решаващо условие за съхраняването на факти, събития в дълговременната памет се явява осмислената интерпретация. Тя зависи от опита, ориентацията, интелектуалното развитие на личността, от степента на активното взаимодействие на индивида с материалния свят, обхвата на неговата система от знания и представи, включени в понятиийното поле на съзнанието . При съхраняването на фактологията в паметта се получава личностна реконструкция, обобщение, фрагментизация. Устойчивостта и своеобразието на такова съхранение зависи от значението и конкретния смисъл на материала в съзнателната памет. В резултат на припомнянето се актуализира не само съответния образ в паметта на обвиняемия, но и всяка система на отношения /в това число и емоционални/, свързани със съответните обекти. (Minchev, 2008; Kunchev, 2013; Madzarov, 2014).

Най-голямо значение при разпита има такъв вид възпроизвеждане като припомняне на извлечените от дълговременната памет образи на миналото, локализиращи във времето и пространството.

Наличието на властнически пълномощия се явява един от най-съществените психологически фактори в междуличностното взаимодействие на разследващия орган с обвиняемия в наказателния процес. Тези пълномощия могат да създадат илюзия за обвинителното направление на дейността на разследващия, а в немалки случаи да предизвикат у него професионална деформация при продължително

упражняване на длъжностните функции. Основна функция на разследващия е не обвинението, не защитата, а разкриването на истината в процеса на разследването, чрез пълното, обективното и всестранното изследване на обстоятелствата по делото. Законът изрично забранява на разследващия да предприема ходове на оказване на психическо насилие спрямо обвиняемия, изтръгване на показания с методи на насилие, заплахи или други незаконни мерки, задаване на свидетели, потърпевши и др. лица с процесуални качества на подвеждащи въпроси, огласяване на показанията на участниците в очна ставка. Разследващият непрекъснато се сблъсква с разнообразни явления в човешката психика.

3. В процеса на разследване на конкретното правонарушение разследващият и обвиняемият влизат в остро противоборство, като и за двете страни съществува напрежение и фрустрация. Обвиняемият в подобна позиция съзнателно или несъзнателно се старее да отстоява своите интереси и неизбежно реализира съответната защитна стратегия. Възможното противодействие на разследващите органи се формира още при възникването на престъпния умисъл в хода на извършването на престъплението и с определени действия по прикриването на следите от престъпното деяние. Опитният извършител на престъпления със значителен криминален опит прави всичко възможно, което според него ще му позволи да прикрие следите от престъплението. Той се старее да направи всичко възможно, крайно да затрудни разследването, да въведе разследващия в заблуждение. Фактически потенциалният обвиняем планира повече или по-малко подробно определена защитна линия на поведение в случай, че нещата за него се развият неблагоприятно и бъде разкрит. (Kunchev, 2013; Kunchev, 2003; Inbau, 2008).

Особеностите на психическото състояние на обвиняемия се определя от характерната за него психическа доминанта, която на свой ред се структурира в зависимост от отношението му към събитието на престъплението и предстоящото правосъдие. (Enikeev, 2006; Grigorov, 2008; Inbau, 2008).

3. Концептуална структура на защитната психична доминанта на обвиняемия

1. Защитната доминанта на обвиняемия определя основните направления на неговата психическа дейност, функционирането на когнитивните му процеси и актуалните психически състояния. Той

притежава в значителна степен повишена чувствителност към всички събития свързани с процесуалните действия, които по някакъв начин застрашават стабилността на отстояваните позиции . При това, както редица автори изследвали този процес подчертават, протича постепенно укрепване на защитните позиции. Те допълнително се разширяват и стават все по-регидни.(Grigorov,2008;Kunchev,2003; Vuchkov,2010; Ganchevski, 2011).

Въпреки предвидените от законодателя гаранции за спазването на човешките права и законосъобразното реализиране на процедурите свързани с разследването на обвиняемия и реализацията на досъдебните и съдебните процеси, той е в уязвима позиция и изгражда релевантна на ситуацията и на съдържащите се в нея заплахи защитна доминанта, за да гарантира собствената си защита и да намали рисковите от евентуално наказание. Тя определя цялостното му психическо функциониране за периода на осъществяване на досъдебните и съдебните процедури. Следва да допуснем, че защитната психологическа доминанта естествено възниква при всеки заподозрян и обвиняем и нейното специфично функциониране зависи от неговите персонални особености, както и от своеобразието и развитието на ситуацията при реализирането на процесуалните действия и в частност на провежданите разпити.

Защитната психическа доминанта помага на заподозрения и обвиняемия да овладее собствените си стресове и вътрешни напрежения, да придобие едно по-адаптивно и целенасочено поведение в ситуацията на разследването , за да съхранява собствения си психически статус и защитава своите правни интереси в трудна и комплицирана в правно и психологическо отношение ситуация.

Защитната психологическа доминанта е реална психическа даденост, с която трябва да се съобразяват разследващите полицаи, следователи и съдии, за да успеят ефективно да се справят със своята работа и да преодолеят в кратък срок съпротивата на разследваните лица и да докажат по законосъобразен и етичен начин тяхната вина и причастност към проучваните инкриминирани деяния.

2. Психическата защита на индивида като цяло е способ за стабилизация на личността в критични условия на конфликтно взаимодействие и е свързана с отстраняване на чувствата на слабост, тревожност и несигурност. В процеса на разпита е важно да се отчитат

психодинамичните особености на разпитваните лица, обусловени от типа на тяхната висша нервна дейност.

Разпитът като изследване на специфичния второсигнален източник на информация има своя генетична структура, образувана по пътя на получаване, съхранение и предаване на информацията на човека. В процеса на разпита, разследващият орган се сблъсква с различни индивидуални проявления на психологическата защита и психическо отчуждение.

Психологическата защита стабилизира личността в критичните условия на противодействие, свързани с отстраняването на преживяванията на напрежение, тревога, стрес и фрустрация, водещи към максимална мобилизация на нейните ресурси и същевременно до техния пререзход. По такъв начин индивидът, който е обект на процесуалните действия, максимално се защитава от неблагоприятните външни влияния, но с цената на много усилия и огромна загуба на нервно-психическа енергия, което повишава собствената му уязвимост вместо да допринася за нейното намаляване. Възникването и функционирането на психологическа защита може да бъде значително възпрепятствано в резултат на взаимодействието на разследващия с обвиняемия. Още по-сложна е ситуацията, когато се стигне до разрыв на комуникационния контакт, която може да възникне при психологическо отчуждение и самоизолация на обвиняемия поради желание да се защити.

Обаче и при доброволното даване на показания е необходима мобилизация на мисловната дейност на разпитваните лица. В тези случаи психическата доминанта, детерминираща действията на разследващото лице ще изпълнява ролята на мобилизатор и кондензатор нейната психическа енергия.

3. Мобилизацията на паметта на разпитвания съдейства за предоставяне на възможност за свободен разказ, повтаряне на разказа с различни стадии на повествование /средата, края на събитието, изложение на отделните епизоди/, разпит за факти съпътстващи престъплението /асоциация за съседство, сходство, контраст, причинно-следствени асоциации/. В процеса на разпита може да се стигне до предявяването на веществени доказателства, намиращи се в пряка или косвена връзка със забравени факти, може да има разпит на местопроизшествието, запознаване на разпитвания с показанията на

други лица, преминаване на разпита по планове, схеми, рисунки, фотоснимки, модели и макети. (Kunchev,2003; Kunchev,2013).

При спомнянето на отделни събития, хората обикновено отбелязват тези страни от субекта, които съответстват на тяхното емоционално състояние и личностна насоченост, тоест става въпрос за нещата, които правят впечатление на конкретния човек, към който той проявява избирателност, пристрастност и предпочитания. Например, при уплаха се преувеличава степента на преживяваната опасност на застрашаващите обстоятелства. Чувството на ненавист, което е овладяло разпитвания съдейства предимно за възпроизвеждане на негативните качества в другия човек, независимо от особеностите на ситуацията и неговите действия в нея..(Kunchev , 2013; Stankov, 2006).

Трябва да се отчете, че в зависимост от типа висша нервна дейност в разпитваното лице могат да възникнат различни временни затруднения в припомнянето на определени събития. Ако разпитваното лице се намира в превъзбудено състояние, разпитът следва да се прекъсне или отложи, отчитайки възможността за възникване в последствие на явлението реминисценция- по-пълно и точно възпроизвеждане на събитията след края на възбудата, противопоставянето или каквато и да било друга вътрешна психическа дейност, саботираща процеса. В паметта на човека винаги се съхранява повече информация, от това което той може да възпроизведе към момента. Въпросът е доколко той ще реши , че е целесъобразно да я предостави в зависимост от хода на процесулните действия и неговата позиция при тяхното провеждане .

Предвяване на обвинение означава даване възможност на обвиняемия да се запознае с пълния текст на повдигнато срещу него обвинение. Гаранциите са задължение на държавните органи, и държавните органи са задължени да ги предоставят на обвиняемия. От този момент нататък той изгражда и си структурира неговата защитна психическа доминанта. Тя може да бъде активна и да се изразява в даването на лъжливи показания, унищожаване на веществени доказателства, създаване на недостоверни такива, оказване на натиск върху свидетели. От друга страна психическата доминанта на обвиняемия може да бъде пасивна. В тези случаи той е склонен към отказ от сътрудничество, не желае да дава показания, демонстрира затвореност и резервираност при провеждането на разпитите с него.

Действията на ръследващия, предшестващи получените показания, като удостоверяване на личността на разпитвания, разясняване на неговите права и задължения имат своята важна задача. Те въвеждат разпитваното лице в процеса на официално ролево общуване. Системните предупреждения могат значително да намалят психическата активност на разпитвания, в началото на разпита, а тя трябва да бъде пределно ограничена. В началния стадий на разпита ръследващия орган се стреми да получи информация за разпитвания, за неговите личностни особености и психически състояния, да определи неговото отношение към правосъдието, към дадените следствени действия и към личността на самия ръследващ орган. По този начин представителят на ръследващия орган прави предварителни изводи, спрямо възможната тактика на разпита в дадената ситуация и установява комуникативен контакт с разпитваното лице.

4. Основни хипотези на защитната стратегия

1. Dulov A. (1975) установява, че поведението на обвиняемия се определя от множеството на следните фактори: /1/ от социално-психологически дефекти в личността му; /2/ от психологическата структура на извършеното престъпление; /3/ от наличието на предходен опит, свързан с общуване с правоохранителните и правораздавателните органи; /4/ от психологическите особености на участниците в правораздаването и възможностите им да оказват въздействие ; /5/ от обема на известната на обвиняемия информация за действията на правоохранителните и правозащитни органи.

Mazdarov E. (2006) твърди, че повтарянето на престъплението е резултат от утвърдили се асоциален модел на самоактуализация, в основата на който стои негативния. Аз- образ и екзистенциална фрустрация, индикирана от преживяванията на отчужденост, изолираност и самотност. Обстоятелствата, тласкащи индивидът към извършването на престъпление не са свързани с това, че той не желае или не разбира, че трябва да живее нормално и порядъчно, а от това че в определен човек се е опорочила системата на смисловите екзистенциални принципи, което води до изкривяване на отношението му към определени страни от социалната действителност. Оценяването на личността на човека, извършващ престъпление е необходимо да изведе доминиращите подбуди и да обобщи типичните способности на неговото поведение, стратегията му на действие в

различни ситуации . Човешкото поведение се организира около основни ценностни позиции на личността. Водещите системообразуващи фактори на конкретния тип личност се явяват механизми за смислообразуване, които определят характера на цялостната му житейска активност .

Причините за престъпното поведение извършителят вижда не в своите отрицателни качества, а във външните обстоятелства, свързани с поведението на други хора. Извършването на престъпното деяние се съпътства от високата самооценка на престъпника. За това свидетелстват неадекватната оценка, която престъпника има за нещата от действителността, дълбоки нарушения в сферата на самооценка и самоконтрол. В следствие се формира система на психическа самозащита на престъпника.

2.Самооправданието за предумишлено престъпление се извършва със различни способности: откриване на вина у жертвата; обезценяването на обществените и правните норми в съответствие с нормите на паралелно съществуващи антисоциални групи /престъпни банди, др групи с антисоциално поведение/; прехвърляне на отговорността на други лица, оправдаване с някакви други сложни обстоятелства и т.н.

В отделни публикации на Соков (2005) обстойно се разглежда въпроса за влиянието, което се оказва върху обвиняемия, чрез невербална комуникация, вокализацията и вербалните послания върху участниците в съдебното заседание. Особено значение при категоризирането на конкретните характеристики на обвиняемия има оценката на неговата невербална комуникация.

Паралингвистите (Peterson K. and collegs Andreeva, 1998) предлагат осем модела на невербална експресия. Нито един жест или позиция на тялото сами по себе си не посочват определена емоция или нагласа. За да се интерпретира поведението на обвиняемия, трябва да се разглежда цялостен модел на сигналите, идващи по различните канали. (Соков,2005) . Трябва да се отчита, че всеки един индивид е част от различна култура, което изисква осъзнаването на опита на съответната обществена група. Следователно, категоризирането на конкретните атрибуции варира в широки граници.

Паралингвистиката често се определя като онова, което е останало след като вербалното съдържание се извади от речта , т.е безсъдържателни аспекти на речта /интонация, ударение и тн. (D.

Alington / Andreeva, 1998). Визира се и предложението личността да се преценява на базата на качествата на гласа. Резултатите от подобно изследване са представени в книгата на Sokov (2005). Преценки на личността на база качествата на гласа разкриват нейни поведенчески и пресоанални особености.

3.Особеностите на психическото състояние на обвиняемия / заподозрения/ в значителна степен се определят от неговото отношение към събитието на престъплението и правосъдието (Grigorov,2008) Съществено значение имат ценностните личностни диспозиции, а също така и рефлексията на обвиняемия спрямо степента на доказуемост на престъплението, както и състоянието му по време на разследването. В зависимост от тези обстоятелства могат да възникнат две различни стратегии в поведението на обвиняемия. Защитната доминанта за противодействие на разследваните лица (обвиняем, заподозрян или свидетел, дори и потърпевш) се характеризира като основен психически феномен от който зависи в голяма степен ефективната практическа ориентация на разследвания. И уменията му резултатно да противостои на разследващите го органи. В хода на процесуалните действия защитния механизъм за възможно противодействие на следователя разследващия полицаи или магистрата започва да се формира още при възникване на престъпния умисъл, а след това и в хода на извършеното престъпление и при скриването на неговите следи. Опитният престъпник прави всичко възможно за да унищожи или замаскира следите от реализираното криминално деяние, да затрудни разследването, да въведе разследващия в заблуждение. Той планира линията си на поведение и в случай на разкриване на престъплението. (Stoichev, 2009; Sokov, 2005) . Защитната доминанта на обвиняемия определя направлението на неговата психическа дейност, чрез която се поддържат конкретни защитни позиции в процеса на разпита и провеждането на цялостното разследване. Тази функционална роля на защитната психическа доминанта на обвиняемия разкрива и основната задача (изграждането на защитна стратегия за противодействие на разследването и скриването на истината за престъплението) .

5. Заключение

От направения анализ е видно, че всички участници в досъдебното производство, съдебното производство и съдебното заседание е възможно в една или друга степен да бъдат повлияни

както от личността на обвиняемия, така и от неговата компетентност да участва в съдебния процес. В това отношение като експерт, психологът може да окаже неопенимо съдействие. Всяка една експертиза би подпомогнала на всички участници в правораздаването по повод на обективната им оценка за извършителите на правонарушения, за разбиране на индивидуалната им защита и присъщото за тях самооправдание по време на процесуалните действия. Участието на психолози в наказателния процес е от ключово значение за установяването на истината в разследването, защото всяко престъпление като деяние има субективна страна, изразяваща се в психическото отношение на деца към извършеното деяние. Установяването на тези психологически мотиви е ключов момент от наказателния процес с оглед установяването на истината.

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ГЛАВА 6: КЛИНИЧНА И КОНСУЛТАТИВНА ПСИХОЛОГИЯ. CHAPTER 6: CLINICAL AND COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY

ДЕСЕНСИТИЗАЦИЯ И ПОВТОРНА ПРЕРАБОТКА НА ИНФОРМАЦИЯ ПОСРЕДСТВОМ ДВИЖЕНИЕ НА ОЧИТЕ

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Резюме

Десенситизацията и повторната преработка на информация посредством движение на очите (EMDR) е емпирично валидиран психотерапевтичен подход, който използва модела за адаптивна преработка на информацията (AIP) model. EMDR може да бъде прилаган при работа с последствията от психологическа травма и широк спектър от други негативни житейски преживявания като изключим случаите на органични дефицити, интоксикация или нараняване. EMDR терапията е концептуализирана в осем фази, съставени от стандартизирани протоколи и процедури, които улесняват цялостната оценка на клиничната картина, подготовката на клиента и обработката на: минали събития, които поставят основата за патология, настоящите тревожни ситуации и бъдещите предизвикателства.

Ключови думи: десенситизацията и повторната преработка, психотерапия, модел за адаптивна преработка на информацията

Abstract

Eye movement desensitization and reprocessing (EMDR) is empirically validated psychotherapeutic approach, which uses Adaptive Information Processing (AIP) model. EMDR can be applied when working with the consequences of psychological trauma and a wide range of other negative life experiences, excluding organic deficits, intoxication, and injury. EMDR therapy is conceptualized in eight phases, consisting of standardized

protocols and procedures, which make easier the complete assessment of the clinical picture, patient preparation and the treatment of: past events, which place the foundations of pathology, current adverse situations and future challenges.

Key Words: *desensitization and reprocessing, psychotherapy, AIP model*

Увод

EMDR е емпирично валидизиран интегративен психотерапевтичен подход, който се прилага за интервениране на психологическа травма и други отрицателни житейски преживявания. Подходът е разработен от Франсин Шапиро и е базирана на Adaptive Information Processing (AIP) modela, който е в основата на разбирането на клиничната феноменология и който се фокусира върху ресурсите на клиента (Rogers, & Silver, 2002). В рамките на AIP модела се предполага, че човешкият мозък обикновено може да обработва стресираща информация, в посока позволяваща адаптивен отговор, създавайки функционални паметови мрежи. Само ако тази вродена система за обработка на информация е засегната, паметта ще бъде съхранена в „сурова“, „необработена“ и „неподходяща“ форма, по начина по който генерира дискомфорт и клинична симптоматика (van der Vleugel, van den Berg & Staring, 2012). Така ако паметовите мрежи от спомени съдържат непреработен материал, настоящите възприятия могат да бъдат детерминирани от по-ранни дисфункционални емоции, мисли, вярвания и усещания, свързани с минало събитие. Това предполага и невъзможността за свързване с други паметови мрежи, които да притежават адаптивна информация. От позициите на на AIP modela, дисфункционално съхранените паметови мрежи се разглеждат като скритият първоизточник, както на патологията, така и на психичното здраве (Solomon & Shapiro, 2008). Например травмиращ опит от детството може да бъде кодиран като механизъм за оцеляване и да включва чувства на опасност, които са неподходящи за възрастния. Тези минали събития обаче запазват интензитета си, защото не са били асимилирани по подходящ начин в адаптивни мрежи (Rogers & Silver, 2002). Една от ключовите принципи на модела AIP е, че тези дисфункционално съхранени и не напълно обработени спомени формират основата на психопатологията (Valiente-Gómez et al., 2017). Активирането на тези спомени, дори години след събитието, може да доведе до спектър от симптоми, оформящи актуалната проблематика

на клиента. В процеса на работа чрез следване на EMDR протоколите и процедурите тези дисфункционално съхранени спомени се преработват като непреработените паметови компоненти (визуални картини, мисли, звуци емоции, кинестетични усещания, вярвания) се трансформират в адаптивни решения. Моделът на AIP не приема нагласите, емоциите и усещанията за прости реакции към минали събития. Те се разглеждат като прояви на физиологично съхранени възприятия, запазени в паметта, и реакциите към тях (Knalf & Touzet, 2017). Този възглед за настоящите симптоми в резултат на активирането на спомени, които не са били адекватно обработени и съхранени, е неразделна част от терапевтичната EMDR концепция.

EMDR Протокол в осем фази

EMDR е психотерапевтиче подход, който започва с първоначален контакт с клиента и се разгръща в осем фази. Фазите от три до осем се повтарят в повечето сесии (Shapiro & Maxfield, 2002). Разбирането на клиента и на клиничната картина, концептуализацията на случая и терапевтичното планиране са базирани на AIP modela, според който настоящите трудности, произхождат от неадекватно преработени минали преживявания, които са съхранени в нервната система по неадекватен начин (De Jongh, Ten Broeke & Meije, 2010). Преди да обърне внимание на травмиращите спомени, терапевтът използва EMDR, за да помогне на клиента да развие уменията си, за да толерира всички негативни последици, които могат да бъдат предизвикани от активирането на паметовата мрежа. Макар че, паметовата мрежа съдържа информация от миналото, тя служи на настоящето и бъдещето. Всички спомени, които се преработват се превръщат в ресурси, а непреработените в патология (Engelhard, van Uijen & ven den Hout, 2010). Разбирането на AIP modela е в основата на тридименсионалния протокол в EMDR, който се състои от работа с минало, настояще и бъдеще. За да се осигури пълна обработка на всички свързани с паметта мрежи, терапията обикновено започва с най-ранните инциденти (McCullough, 2002). В допълнение към насочването и разрешаването на травмиращи спомени, EMDR се използва за справяне с настоящите ситуации, които предизвикват емоционални смущения, като се преработват тригерите, така че вече не активират симптоматични реакции. Той също така се прилага, за да помогне на клиента да развие специфичните умения и модели на

поведение необходими за здравословен и функционален живот. Билатералната стимулация (the eye movements) като компонент на ЕМДР според редица проучвания (Jeffries & Davis, 2012; Shapiro, 2014) улеснява обработката на информацията като намалява яркостта на паметовите изображения и свързаното с тях въздействие. Този ефект може да подобри обработката чрез десенсибилизация като намали стреса и свързаното с това избягване. Предполага се, че тъй като изображението става по-малко натрапващо се, клиентите са по-способни да получат достъп до повече адаптивна информация и да създават нови връзки в паметовата мрежа (Maxfield, Melnyk & Gordon Nauman, 2008).

През първата фаза терапевтът събира пълна информация за историята на клиента като установява доколко случаят е подходящ за ЕМДР. Идентифицира целевите събития сред позитивните и негативните в живота на клиента, оценява неговата готовност за ЕМДР и разработва терапевтичен план. В допълнение към стандартните процедури за оценка, терапевтът идентифицира подходящи цели за терапията. Целите могат да включват разработване на ресурси за управление на емоциите, обезпокоителните спомени и свързаните с тях минали инциденти, на настоящи провокиращи фактори, които предизвикват дистрес, както и инсталиране на шаблони за бъдещи нужди. Оценката на характеристиките на клиента (стабилност, интегративен капацитет, поносимост към афект, история на привързаността, готовност за промяна) по време на тази фаза на снемане на историята е критично важна за успешния ход на терапията.

Втората фаза на подготовка или стабилизиране е насочена към установяване на терапевтичните взаимоотношения, формулиране на разумни очаквания и обучение на клиента по отношение на неговите симптоми. Фокусът е върху усъвършенстването и развитието на личните ресурси, като например безопасността, преподаване на техники за управление на самоконтрола, преди да се работи върху травмиращите спомени. Тук се препоръчва да се улесни достъпа до позитивни емоции като се създаде "safe place". Тези техники за самоуспокояване са важен елемент от терапията и се използват за "затваряне" на непълни сесии, както и за поддържане стабилността на клиентите между и по време на сеансите. Клиентите с история на травма в детството често имат дефицит в регулирането на афекта и контрола на импулсите и може да изискват значителна подготовка. За

такива клиенти, интервенциите от фаза две могат да бъдат значително по-продължителни и да изискват работа за подобряване на ресурсите, съчетаваща релаксация и EMDR. Това се отнася и за някои клиенти с тревожни разстройства, проявяващи избягващото поведение, преди да могат да започнат сериозни опити за обработка на травматичните спомени (Shapiro & Maxfield, 2002).

В третата фаза се осъществява достъп до целевия спомен и започва обработката на травматичните инциденти, със структурирана клинично насочена оценка на сензорните, когнитивните и афективните компоненти на целевата памет (Patihis, Cruz, & McNally, in press). Клиентът описва свързаното визуално изображение, което е най-ярко и убедително. След идентифицирането на сегашното нерационално негативно вярване за себе си, което се предизвиква от този образ (например "Аз съм едно разочарование" или "Аз съм слаб"), той изразява желаната положителна когниция (например "Аз съм значим" или "Мога да се справя"). Оценява колко вярно е това положително вярване, когато мисли за травматичния инцидент, използвайки the validity of the cognition (VOC) scale, където 1 is "feels completely false," and 7 is "feels completely true." При това повторението на позитивното вярване за себе си формира реалистична цел на терапията. Идентифицира емоциите, асоцииране с целевия спомен, като повтаря негативната когниция. Освен това, може да ускори обработката на информацията, като създаде предварителни асоциативни връзки между целевата памет и емоционално коригиращата информация. След това клиентът съчетава визуалния образ с негативното вярване – това активира паметовата мрежа и често предизвиква силен афект. Той идентифицира емоциите асоциирани с целевия инцидент и оценява своето ниво на безпокойство, напрежение, дискомфорт чрез Subjective Unit of Disturbance (SUD) scale, where 0 is "никакъв дискомфорт" and 10 is "the highest disturbance imaginable." Фиксирането интензитета на емоцията позволява на клиента да изрази чувства, които може да не са били изразявани никога по-рано, като по този начин се улеснява предварителната обработка на информацията. Освен това насоката на отговора позволява на клиента и терапевта да разпознават промените в типа емоция, преживян по време на сесията. След това клиентът идентифицира и открива усещанията в тялото, които се предизвикват от травматичното картина. Отговорът на въпроса: „Къде в тялото си

ги усещаш?" позволява да уточни сензорните симптоми (напр. гадене, потене, сърцебиене) и да ги разграничи от когнитивните интерпретации (например, аз съм безсилен). В резюме, във фаза три се разкриват картината, негативното вярване, което присъства в момента, желаното позитивно вярване, настоящата емоция, физическите усещания и се измерват нивата по основните скали the validity of the cognition (VOC) scale и Subjective Unit of Disturbance (SUD) scale.

Във фаза четири се осъществява десензитизация. Следват се каналите от асоциации, така както се появяват по отношение на спомените. Терапевтът ниструктурира клиента да се съсредоточи се върху визуалното изображение, негативното вярване и усещанията в тялото, а след това да "Остави това което ще се случва да се случи". Клиентът поддържа този вътрешен фокус, като същевременно движи очите от една страна на друга, следвайки пръстите на терапевта докато се движат през зрителното поле (bilateral stimulation обичайно 20 или повече сета според нуждите на клиента). След всеки the set of eye movements терапевтът подканя клиента да поеме дълбоко въздух и да издиша, след което пита "Какво се случи, какво забеляза сега? Задръж вниманието си върху това." Като цяло новият материал (образ, мисъл, усещане или емоция) са фокусът за следващия набор от движения на очите. Стандартизираните процедури ръководят взаимодействието клиницист-клиент и задават последователността на процеса (van den Hout & Engelhard, 2012). Този цикъл на редуващо се насочено внимание и обратна връзка с клиентите се повтаря многократно по време на сесията и обикновено се съпровожда от съобщени промени в афективността, физиологичните състояния и когнитивните прозрения (Knalfa & Touzet, 2017). Такива смени се концептуализират в модела на AIP като резултат, когато се правят връзки между нефункционално съхранената памет и по-адаптивната информация. Ако тези асоциации не се появят спонтанно, терапевтът се намесва, за да въведе необходимата информация. Тъй като отрицателните изображения, вярванията и емоциите стават дифузни и по-малко валидни, положителните са склонни да стават по-силни и по-изявени. Bilateral stimulation се прави толкова пъти, колкото клиента сподели нова информация или за настъпили промени. Тази фаза е завършена, когато клиентът обяви SUD рейтинга 0 за първоначалния спомен (Shapiro & Maxfield, 2002).

Във фаза пет (инсталиране) се работи върху свързване на желаната позитивна когниция с целевия спомен или картина. Тя може да започне след като целевата памет е достъпна без дискомфорт и насърчава изразяването и консолидирането на когнитивните прозрения на клиента. Цели се укрепване на връзките с позитивните паметови мрежи и увеличаване на ефекта от това върху свързаните с първоначалния спомени. Често по време на тази фаза се проявяват по-адаптивно самовъзприемане и нови положителни и реалистични възприятия за себе си (Parnell, 1996; Korn & Leeds, 2002). Клиентът се замисля едновременно за първоначалния спомен или картина и за най-желаната позитивна когниция, докато се прави Bilateral stimulation. Инсталирането продължава дотогава, докато материала започне да придобива все по-адаптивна форма. Фокусът е върху включването и повишаването на силата на положителната когниция, докато клиентът не оцени своята увереност във формулираното позитивно вярване по Validity of the cognition (VOC) scale на 7 или близо до 7.

В шестата фаза на телесно сканиране целта е да се завърши преработката на всякакво остатъчно безпокойство, свързано с целевия спомен. Според AIP modela всяка дисфункционално съхранена информация има физиологична проява. EMDR processing не счита за завършен, докато клиентът не е в състояние да мисли за травмирация спомен без да изпитва каквото и да било напрежение в своето тяло. Ако клиентът съобщава за негативни усещания, те подлежат на преработка, докато той не се освободи от каквото и да е болка, стрес или дискомфорт (Solomon & Shapiro, 2008).

В седмата фаза на приключване (затваряне), терапевтът определя дали преработката е завършила адекватно и ако не, помага на клиента да бъде завършена чрез насочена визуализация или техниките за самоконтрол, разработени във втора фаза Тук се цели да се достигне стабилно емоционално състояние на клиента при затваряне на сесията и да осигури неговата емоционална стабилност между сесиите. Прави се кратък преглед през очакванията и преориентация към настоящето. Измества се вниманието от мрежата, свързана с целевия материал като се осигурява пренасочване към друга неутрална или позитивна паметова мрежа, несвързана с целевата Клиентите са насочени към нуждата от наблюдаване и записване в дневник на материала, които излиза между сесиите – сънища, прозрения, спомени, емоции. Тази задача подобрява

стабилизирането чрез разширяване на ефекта от терапевтичния процес върху реални житейски стресови фактори и засилване на чувството за самоусъвършенстване и наблюдение (Korn & Leeds, 2002).

Във фаза осем (reevaluation) се прави оценка на ефектите от терапията и осигурената цялостна преработка в терапевтичния процес. Освен това преоценката е заложена в терапевтичния план в началото на всяка EMDR сесия след първоначалната сесия. Терапевтът осъществява достъп до спомена от миналата сесия, изследва какво се е появило от последната до настоящата, за да може да определи дали са съхранени ползите от адаптивната преработка на информацията. Дневникът на клиента се преглежда, за да се оцени степента, до която ефектите от лечението са генерализирани или има нужда от идентифициране на нови насоки, които трябва да бъдат разгледани. Терапевтът оценява дали ситуационните въздействия предизвикват дистрес и дали новите умения за адаптивно функциониране са интегрирани в рамките на реалната социална система на клиента. Целта на EMDR терапията е да се постигнат устойчиви благотворни ефекти от процеса за най-кратък период от време (Shapiro & Maxfield, 2002) . Оценката на цялостния напредък е релевантна на отработения целеви материал, който би позволил на клиента, да се чувства в мир с миналото си, да владее настоящето и да е способен да прави адаптивни избори за бъдещето. Осемте EMDR фази могат да бъдат завършени в няколко сесии или за период от няколко месеца, в зависимост от нуждите на клиента и тежестта на симптоматиката. EMDR като терапевтичен подход се ръководи от ясни и разбираеми принципи, описани в стандартизирани процедури и протоколи. Придържането към установените принципи е предпоставка за позитивни резултати от терапията.

Заключение

Тъй като, травматичният опит е свързан не само с миналото, но и с реакцията към актуални тригери и със съпротиви по отношение на бъдещи събития, в EMDR се прилага тридименсионалният протокол (минало-настояще-бъдеще). Работата с настоящите отключващи фактори може да осигури достъп до по-ранни асоциации, които също се нуждаят от преработка (De Jongh, Ten Broeke, & Meijje, 2010). По този начин се идентифицират и променят настоящите ситуации, които предизвикват дисфункции, преживяванията в миналото, които са

отключили актуалната симптоматика, инсталират се позитивни връзки и нова информация и умения, позволяващи бъдещ отговор в адаптивна посока на действие. Този интегративен терапевтичен подход позволява на клиента да се освободи от травматичния опит, причиняващ патологията, да се стимулира адаптивната преработка на информацията и да се интегрират нови информационни канали, от които да черпи адаптивни решения, достъпни в контекста на настоящето и бъдещето.

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ГЛАВА 7: ПСИХОЛОГИЯ НА ПОТРЕБИТЕЛЯ CHAPTER 7: CUSTOMER PSYCHOLOGY

КОМУНИКАТИВЕН АСПЕКТ НА БИЗНЕСОБЩУВАНЕТО

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COMMUNICATION ASPECT OF BUSINESS

Assoc. Prof. Ivan Krastev, Phd

Резюме

В статията се разглежда един от най-важните аспекти на бизнесобщуването, а именно комуникативният аспект. Особено внимание се отделя на задачите, които си поставя бизнесобщуването, целите, които то преследва и средствата, които използва за да бъде възможно най-ефективно. Направен е опит, също така, да се класифицират невербалните средства, които биха улеснили или съответно затруднили бизнесобщуването.

Ключови думи: *кинетика, паралингвистика, проксемика, тактилни средства*

Abstract

The article discusses one of the most important aspects of business communication, namely the communicative aspect. Particular attention is paid to the tasks of business communication, the aims it pursues and the means it uses to be as effective as possible. An attempt has also been made to classify non-verbal means that would facilitated or respectively obstruct business communication.

Keywords: *kinetics, paralinguistics, proxemics, tactile means*

Въведение

Общуването, а още повече бизнесобщуването представлява най-вече комуникация, т.е. обмен на специфична и значима за участниците специализирана информация. От особена важност е комуникацията да бъде ефективна, т.е. да съдейства за достигането на поставените цели от страна на всички участващи в този процес. Това предполага решаването на две групи основни въпроса, а именно:

1) какви средства за комуникация да се използват при общуването за достигане на оптимален ефект;

2) как да се преодолеят възникващите комуникативни бариери, за да може общуването да даде необходимите резултати.

Решаването на посочените проблеми предполага необходимост от наличие, както на теоретични знания от една обширна област на бизнеспсихологията, така и практически умения на хората, участващи в комуникационния процес. Ето защо напоследък все повече се отдава значение на създаващите се научни дисциплини в тази област като бизнесинформация, психология на деловото общуване, бизнескомуникация, както и на овладяването на специализирани методически тренинги в този аспект.

Един от най-важните въпроси, свързани с комуникативния аспект на общуването представлява начина, по който се обменя информацията между хората, участващи в този процес. В този смисъл езикът, като главно средство за човешко общуване използва определени знаци за съхраняване, преработване и предаване на информацията. Този процес се осъществява с помощта на думи, но също така и чрез позата на тялото, жестовете, интонацията, мимиките и т.н. Така, в първия случай говорим за вербално, а във втория – за невербално общуване. Психологията на бизнесобщуването отделя голямо внимание на невербалните елементи на комуникация, тъй като по словесните канали се предава чистата информация, докато по невербалните – отношението към партньорите по комуникация. При това голяма част от психолозите приемат идеята, че невербалният аспект представлява по-важната и значима част от процеса на общуването и насочват изследванията си именно върху нея (Стоицова Т., 2005; Лавриненко В, 1997; Берн Е., 1992; Фаст Дж, 1993; Люис Д., 2001; Пийз А. и Гарнър А. 2000).

Очевидно много автори възприемат твърдението на американския професор по социална психология Алберт Мехрабиан, че думите съставляват само 7% от акта на комуникацията, звуковите средства (включвайки тона и интонацията) – 35%, а 55% заема невербалният аспект в общуването (Meharbian, 1972; Meharbian, 1981).

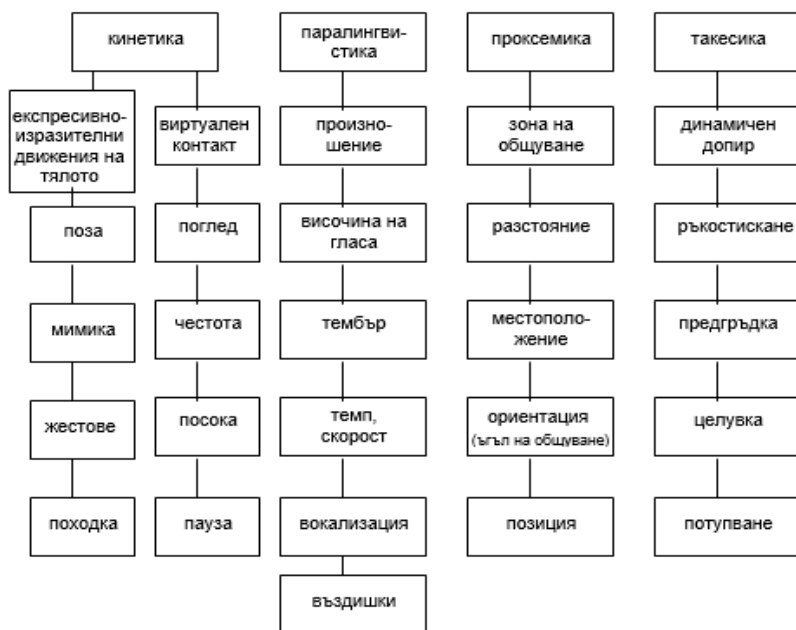
Очевидно между вербалните и невербални средства за общуване съществува своеобразно разделяне на функциите. По словесните канали се предава т.н. чиста информация, докато по невербалните – отношението към личността, с която се общува.

Невербалното поведение на човека е тясно свързано с неговите психически състояния и служи като средство за тяхното изразяване. В

процеса на общуването, невербалното поведение се изразява като показател за невидимите от непосредственото наблюдение индивидуално-психологически характеристики на личността. По този начин именно с помощта на невербалното поведение се разкрива вътрешната същност на човека и се формира психическото съдържание на общуването. В този смисъл вербалното поведение по-лесно може да се адаптира към променящите се условия, докато средствата на невербалната комуникация се оказват в значителна степен по-слабо пластични.

В социално-психологическите изследвания са разработени различни класификации на невербалните елементи на общуването, чиито по-важни аспекти могат да се представят в следната схема:

Фигура № 1. Невербални средства за общуване.



Посочената схема разкрива основните невербални елементи на общуването, които условно могат да бъдат разделени на четири основни групи:

1. Първата група невербални средства за общуване обхваща т.н. *кинетични средства*. Те представляват зрително-възприеманите движения на партньора, разкриващи изразително-регулативната функция на комуникация. В този смисъл, кинетиката изследва общата моторика и разположението на различните части на тялото, емоционалните реакции на човека чрез ръцете (жестикулиране), лицето (мимика), позата на тялото (пантомима) и т.н. Разработени са в тази част специални мимически кодове, обхващащи отделни части и елементи на лицето, които разкриват излъчващите сигнали за емоционалното състояние на общуващите. Към кинетиката се включва също и визуалното общуване, характерно предимно с особеностите и ефектите на зрителното възприемане и взаимодействие. Тук вниманието се акцентира главно върху визуалния контакт, изразяващ се в настойчивия или разсеяния поглед, неговата посока и честота на фиксиране, продължителността на задържане и отклоняване и т.н.

2. Втората група невербални елементи на общуването представляват т.н. **паралингвистика**, която разкрива особеностите в произношението, тембъра и височината на гласа, паузите между думите, а също така и различните видове психофизиологични прояви на човека, като въздишки, възклицания, плач, смях, покашляне и т.н.

Очевидно с помощта на паралингвистичните средства се регулира словесния поток, икономисват се езикови средства за общуване, но най-главно те допълват словесните изказвания като разкриват емоционалните състояния на общуващите. Така например такива чувства, като радост, ентузиазъм и недоверие обикновено се изразяват чрез висок тон на гласа, докато печал, тъга или умора се предават чрез мек и приглушен глас с понижена интонация към края на изречението. Същото се отнася и за темпа на речта: бързата скорост разкрива, че общуващият човек е развълнуван и разтревожен, докато бавната реч показва състояние на умора, тъга или високомерие.

3. Третата група невербални средства за общуване се включват в понятието **проксемика**, което буквално означава близост. Поради факта, че общуването винаги е пространствено детерминирано, проксемиката изучава законите на комуникацията, свързани със ситуационната ориентация на партньорите: дистанцията, позициите и

местоположението, което те заемат и т.н. Така например такива проксемически компоненти като ориентация на тялото, позицията и ъгъла на местоположението на общуване сигнализируют за насоката на мисленето и отношението към партньора. В този смисъл ако общуването притежава белези на съперничество или има отбранителен характер партньорите сядат един срещу друг, докато при дружеска беседа обикновено заемат ъглови позиции или сядат един до друг.

4. Четвъртата група обхваща т.н. **тактилни** средства за общуване, които включват динамичните съприкосновения между хората като ръкостискания, целувки, прегръдки, потупвания по гърба или раменете и т.н. Динамичният допир представлява в по-голяма степен необходима форма на стимулация, отколкото сантиментална подробност на човешкото общуване. Динамичното съприкосновение се определя от различни фактори, най-важните сред които са статуса на партньорите, тяхната възрастова разлика, пола, времето и степента на тяхното познание и т.н. Така например ръкостискането може да изразява доминиращо положение на партньора (когато ръката е отгоре, а дланта покрива тази на другия човек). Обратната позиция показва покорното положение на другата страна. Съществува, разбира се и равноправно положение, изразяващо се чрез ръкостискането.

От всички невербални средства за общуване обаче, именно таксическите елементи в най-голяма степен разкриват функциите на индикатора за статусно-ролеви различия между партньорите, както и степента на тяхната близост. Ето защо неадекватното използване на таксическите средства може да доведе до известни пречки и даже конфликти в общуване.

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ГЛАВА 8: ПСИХОЛОГИЯ НА СПОРТА CHAPTER 8: SPORT PSYCHOLOGY

ФИЗИЧЕСКАТА АКТИВНОСТ КАТО АКТУАЛНА ПРЕДПОСТАВКА ЗА ФОРМИРАНЕ НА ДВИГАТЕЛНИ НАВИЦИ

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PHYSICAL ACTIVITY AS A PREREQUISITE FOR FORMATION OF MOTOR HABITS

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Резюме

Настоящата статия има за цел да очертае и изтъкне необходимостта и ползата от осъществяването на редовна физическа активност, която повлиява благоприятно върху психофизиологичното здраве на личността и изгражда трайни навици за осъществяването на физическа дейност. Приведени са изследвания в тази насока, които доказват еднозначно положителното въздействие на физическата активност върху здравето.

Ключови думи: *физическа активност, навици, здравословна полза*

Abstract

This article aims to outline and highlight the necessity and the utility of regular physical activity, which has a favorable influence on the psycho-physiological health of the personality and builds permanent habits for the physical activity. Some studies have been carried out in this direction, which unequivocally demonstrate the positive impact of physical activity on health.

Key words: *physical activity, habits, healthy benefit*

„Физическата активност има потенциала не само да добавя години към живота, но има доказателства и за това, че тя може да добави живот към годините.“

(Европейски съвет за хранителна информация, по Димитрова, Д., 2014, стр. 187)

Движението е необходимост и естествен начин на живот за хората. Движението е задължително условие за поддържане на нормалната структура и функциите на повечето системи и органи в тялото на човек, като липсата му съответно води до патологични изменения в тях. То е също така и едно безспорно доказателство за уникалната и неизменна способност на човека посредством волята и усилието целенасочено да променя формата на тялото си чрез упражнения (Blakemore&Froguel, 2008). Психиката се развива чрез действията, които човек извършва за опознаване на света като същевременно психичните особености на човека се проявяват в дейностите, които извършва и продуктите, които създава чрез тях.

Редуцирането на движението или хиподинамията (обездвижването) е характерно за съвременния човек, който предпочита комфорта от индустриализацията и технологичния прогрес. Наблюдава се така да се каже един непрекъснат стремеж към минимизиране на физическите усилия, което от своя страна води до здравословен проблем - затлъстяването, от което страдат все повече хора, особено в активна възраст. Ходенето през последните 20 – 30 години е намаляло около 3 пъти. Хиподинамията е свързана освен със стремежа за комфорт и възползване от постиженията на научно-техническия прогрес, също така и с отсъствието на осъзнаване на ползите от ежедневни спортни занимания („Министерство на младежта и спорта“, 2011).

Редовното и правилно осъществяване на физическа дейност оказва видимо и благоприятно въздействие върху физическото и психическо здраве. Спортът укрепва тялото, подобрява функционирането на организма, увеличава съпротивителните сили и жизнения тонус (Стефанов, Ц., 2009).

Самата физическата култура се явява компонент на развитието на личността, като формирането ѝ до известна степен се повлиява от физическите упражнения. Настъпващите физически промени при умерена активна дейност и положителна агласа към физическа

активност се изразяват в: положителни емоции; повишено самочувствие; ускоряване на метаболитните процеси; висока работоспособност (Матеева, Л. и Чалъкова, Р., 1997).

В исторически план все повече внимание се отделя на потребността от грижа и оформяне на тялото, в стремежа за постигане на здраве, красота и сила. В хода на своето еволюционно развитие човечеството изучава биохимичната структура на човешкото тяло и последващото въздействие от спортната тренировка върху целия организъм.

Физическата активност, дори не като приоритетен тип дейност, благоприятства за формирането на свързаните с нея психични свойства, в резултат на което спомага за понататъшното развитие и формиране на психическите способности на личността (Станкова, К., 2007, с.62). Ето защо, физическата активност трябва да бъде, макар и не приоритетно, но застъпена в ежедневието на съвременния човек, независимо от неговата възраст, като предпоставка за физическото и психическо благосъстояние на личността.

Усвояването на навик за извършване на физически упражнения в същност не прогнозира честотата на извършване на самите физически упражнения (Gardner, &Lally, 2013). Научно изследване за развитие на навици за физически упражнения в рамките на 12-седмичен период показва, че пропуски в изпълнение на упражненията се отразяват негативно спрямо бъдещите резултати от физическата дейност (Gardner, &Lally, 2013). Практикуването и усъвършенстването в дадена спортна дейност изисква постоянство и търпение.

Спортът е навик, който поставя началото за промяна и в други аспекти от живота на личността. „Навикът да се спортува разпростира влиянието си върху всичко. По някакъв начин той улеснява утвърждаването на другите добри навици” (Дюиг, Ч., 2013, с. 150).

Всяка дейност, насочена към активизиране и мобилизиране на физическия потенциал, оказва благоприятно въздействие върху редица органи и системи в тялото, включително и върху когнитивните процеси. Така изграждането на навици за спортна дейност дава реална предпоставка за изграждането и на други полезни навици. Например: когато човек започне да спортува, обикновено става по-рано, стреми се към по-здравословен начин на хранене, опитва се да ограничи вредни навици като тютюнопушене, алкохол и др.

Създаденият в Университета в Маями Център за изследване на спорта в обществото (CRSS) се основава на залегналия в него принцип, че спортът е една институция, която може да окаже ефективно влияние, както върху живота на личността, така и върху цялото общество по дълбок и понякога по драматичен начин. Основните резултати от това проучване сочат, че по-добри академични постижения имат студенти от женски пол, участващи в спортни занимания, както и такива, чиито родители имат висок образователен ценз и практикуват даден спорт. Също така резултатите отчитат, че спортуващите млади хора развиват по-добри навици за учене и прекарват много по-малко време в седнало положение, за разлика от тези, които не спортуват (Rhodes, 1998).

Обикновено човек свързва физическата дейност с укрепване и развитие на мускулатурата, увеличаване на силата, издръжливостта, ловкостта и бързината. Всичко това по начало има очевиден резултат за тялото, но също така и за мозъка.

Изследване, проведено в Япония, обяснява как непосредствено след физическа тренировка хранителните вещества в кръвта започват да се придвижват към мозъка с определено по-висока скорост от обичайната, което благоприятства мозъчната кора и хипокампуса, които отговарят за дълготрайната памет и способността за учене (Петрова, К., 2015).

Как се изгражда навикът за спортуване и защо много хора спортуват редовно? На този въпрос потърсили отговор изследователи от Университета на Ню Мексико. За целта изследвали 266 човека, които най-малко три пъти спортували през седмицата. Учените открили, че първоначалните мотиви за изследваните лица да започнат да спортуват били от различно естество и не от голямо значение, но тук като важен момент се откроява фактът, че те продължили да спортуват (това се превърнало в техен навик), заради специфична награда за която те започнали да копнеят. 92% от изследваните лица твърдели, че тренират ежедневно, понеже това ги кара да се чувстват добре, като у тях се породил копнеж по приток на ендорфини и други невротропни вещества, които тренировката предизвиква. 67% от друга изследвана група отчитат, че спортните занимания им носят чувство за постижение, копнеейки за триумф при подобряване на резултатите им, като за тях тази награда била достатъчна, за да се превърне в траен навик (по Дюиг, Ч., 2013).

По подобен начин участници в интервенционни изследвания, които всеки ден извършват нови действия, твърдят, че тези действия се превръщат в тяхна втора природа или част от ежедневието им за период от две седмици (Gardner, Sheals, Wardle, & McGowan, 2014).

Проведена интервенция, насочена към стимулиране изграждането на навици за умерена физическа активност при възрастни хора, със заседнал начин на живот, допринася за редуциране на времето, изразено в седнало положение, и до увеличаване на движението и умерената физическа активност (по Гарднър, Б., 2016).

Прогресивното развитие на технологиите и урбанизацията измести фокуса на човека върху стремежа за създаване на улеснение и комфорт във всички обществени сфери за сметка на движението. Именно затова актуалността на настоящия въпрос се свежда до влиянието на промените, наложени от новия начин на живот на съвременния човек, които на свой ред измениха неговия естествен биоритъм и доведоха до негативни психо-физиологични последици.

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