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КАТЕДРА „ПСИХОЛОГИЯ“

SOUTH-WEST UNIVERSITY "NEOFIT RILSKI" BLAGOEVGRAD

FACULTY OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

ГОДИШНИК ПО ПСИХОЛОГИЯ

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У В О Д

Уважаеми Колеги,

С удовлетворение представям статии на преподаватели и докторанти както от Катедра Психология на Философски Факултет на Югозапададен Университет „Неофит Рилски" гр. Благоевград, така и от други катедри, факултети и университети.

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 Стоил Мавродиев

INTRODUCTION

Dear Colleagues,

With pleasure I want to introduce you papers from lecturers and PhD students as as well as from the Department of Psychology of Faculty of Philosophy of the South-West University "Neofit Rilski", Blagoevgrad and from other departments, faculties and universities.

The psychological theory and psychological researches are presented correctly. Both the tematical and the conceptual diversity make 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. Stoil Mavrodiev, Ph.D.

СЪДЪРЖАНИЕ - TABLE OF CONTENT

THEORETICAL ARTICLES

RESEARCH ARTICLES

Theoretical article

ТРИДЕСЕТ ГОДИНИ СПЕЦИАЛНОСТ „ПСИХОЛОГИЯ" В ЮГОЗАПАДЕН УНИВЕРСИТЕТ „НЕОФИТ РИЛСКИ" – БЛАГОЕВГРАД

THIRTY YEARS OF SPECIALTY "PSYCHOLOGY" AT THE SOUTH-WEST UNIVERSITY "NEOFIT RILSKI" – BLAGOEVGRAD

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Резюме

През учебната 1991 – 1992 г. във Висш педагогически институт[1] - Благоевград се разкрива специалност „Психология" – втората у нас след тази в Софийския университет „Св. Климент Охридски". Създаден като филиал на Софийския университет, ВПИ – Благоевград се утвърждава като първият университетски център даващ висше педагогическо образование. Успоредно с развитието и структурирането на университета, изразяващо се в постепенното създаване на нови факултети, катедри и специалности, се развива и утвърждава катедра „Психология". Статията представя историята на катедра „Психология", създаването и развитието на едноименната специалност в Югозападния университет.

Ключови думи: специалност „Психология", Югозападен университет, катедра "Психология"

Abstract

During the academic year 1991-1992 at the Higher Pedagogical Institute - Blagoevgrad the specialty "Psychology" was opened - the second in our country after the one at the Sofia University "St. Kliment Ohridski". Established as a branch of Sofia University, Higher Pedagogical Institute - Blagoevgrad is established as the first university center providing higher pedagogical education. In parallel with the development and structuring of the university, expressed in the gradual creation of new faculties, departments and specialties, the Department of Psychology is being developed and established. The article presents the history of the Department of Psychology, the creation and development of the specialty of the same name at the South-West University.

Keywords: specialty "Psychology", South-Western University, Department of Psychology

Тридесет годишният юбилей на специалност „Психология" в Югозападен университет „Неофит Рилски" – Благоевград е повод за гордост от постигнатите резултати и успехи в научната, и образователна дейност. Най-категоричното доказателство за това са високо качествените специалисти (от бакалавър – до

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[1] С Решение на Народното събрание от юли 1995 година (ДВ, бр. 68 от 1995 година) Висшият педагогически институт - Благоевград се преобразува в Югозападен университет "Неофит Рилски" - Благоевград

доктор), които са обучавани през годините, като този процес продължава и днес. С натрупания опит и традиции преподавателите от катедра „Психология“ надграждат постигнатото и отговарят на непрекъснато повишаващите се изисквания и стандарти в обучението на специалистите – психолози.

С настоящата статия авторът си поставя за цел да представи основните етапи от развитието на катедра „Психология“ и едноименната специалност.

Проф. Петър Николов обособява четири етапа в развитието на катедра „Психология“, които са свързани с развитието на самия университет:

- първи етап: от 1976 г. до 1980 г. – „Обединена катедра“;
- втори етап: от 1980 г. до 1983 г. – „Първи самостоятелни крачки“;
- трети етап: от 1983 г. до 1991 г. – „Собствено място в структурата на ВПИ“;
- четвърти етап: – след 1991 г. – „С отговорност за нова специалност“ (Mavrodiev, S., 2010 (a), p. 23).

Във Филиала на Софийския университет в Благоевград, който е разкрит през 1976 г., първоначално е създадена катедра „Педагогика“, към която са били и преподавателите по психология. Първият ръководител на тази катедра е проф. д.п.н. Дечо Денев, а първите хабилитирани щатни преподаватели по психология са: доц. д-р Трифон Трифонов, назначен 1976 г., доц. д-р Стефан Пеев – назначен 1977 г. и доц. д-р Стефан Стамболиев.

Важен факт съобщи проф. д.п.н. Румен Стаматов, който е от втория випуск студенти. На техния курс по психология са преподавали гостуващите една година във Филиала големи съветски психолози Валерия Сергеевна Мухина и Т.Н. Счастная, които са изнасяли лекциите на руски език и според проф. Стаматов – те са може би първите преподаватели по психология. Но по данни на Методи Делин (Mihailov, K. - compiler, 2004, p. 77) гостуването на проф. Мухина и доц. Счастная става след края на първата учебна година.

Освен лекциите, В. С. Мухина организира обучителен семинар по методология на психологическите и педагогически изследвания. Проф. Васил Мадолев подчертава, че семинарите са били много полезни за младите асистенти. Проф. Кирил Чимев отбелязва, че това гостуване е резултат от първите международни договори сключени с Московския държавен педагогически институт и Ленинградския педагогически институт (Mihailov, K. - compiler, 2004, p. 52). Благодарение на тези договори редица преподаватели от ВПИ специализират в Москва, подготвят и защитават своите дисертации. Снежана Македонска си спомня, че на първият ректор – проф. Александър Маджаров се дължат връзките с Московския държавен педагогически институт „Ленин“, чиито видни педагози и психолози като В. С. Мухина, Вера Логинова, Ирина Кононова, Вера Ядешко, Емма Суслова и др. са изнасяли лекции във ВПИ (Mihailov, K. - compiler, 2004, p. 111).

Един от доайените в катедра „Психология“ е проф. д.пс.н. Васил Мадолев, който започва работа в университета през 1977 г., една година след откриването на филиала на СУ в Благоевград, и е единственият асистент към тогавашния момент по психология. Той води упражнения по Обща, Детска и Педагогическа психология. (Mavrodiev, S., 2012, p. 8). Малко след това за асистент е назначен Людмил Кръстев, а през 1979 г. постъпват ас. Гергина Енева и ас. Стоян Евтимов. След това работа започва и ас. Наталия Александрова. За кратко асистент е била и Розина Попова.

Хоноруван преподавател в началото е бил проф. д.пс.н. Любомир Георгиев, който дава следната информация в интервю от 2010 г.: „Моята дейност като хоноруван преподавател постепенно отпадна с назначаване по Възрастова и Педагогическа психология на ст. н. с. Стефан Стамболиев – добър психолог и изследовател, както и други преподаватели“ (Mavrodiev, S., 2010 (b), p. 43).

Спомените на проф. Р. Стаматов за доц. Стефан Пеев са, че той е изключително обаятелен и ерудиран преподавател, студентите са общували с удоволствие с него. Доц. Пеев провежда спецкурс по Психология на мисленето, имал е афинитет към психологическите експерименти; консултирал е и е помагал на преподавателите по педагогическите и методически дисциплини. За проф. Стаматов доц. Пеев е един от най-големите специалисти у нас, разработвал дейностният подход в психологията; другата голяма фигура в

това направление е проф. Любомир Георгиев, който поставя дейностната теория в контекста на възрастовата психология, същият е бил докторант на П. Галперин. За доц. Трифонов си спомня, че акцент в неговите лекции по Обща психология е бил проблемът за способностите.

Новото висше училище започва да подготвя детски и начални учители с висше образование за пръв път у нас, което, безспорно, е било предизвикателство и отговорност за ръководството и целия академичен състав. Проучването на учебните планове на съществуващите тогава специалности – Предучилищна и Начална училищна педагогика показва, че психологическите дисциплини, които се преподават в началото са Обща психология и Детска психология, по-късно се въвежда и Педагогическа психология, а от 1986 г. започва да се изучава Възрастова психология (вместо Детска психология).

По естествен път през 1980 г. общата катедра се разделя на две самостоятелни катедри - „Педагогика" и „Психология". Първият ръководител на катедра „Психология" е доц. (тогава) Трифон Трифонов. Във връзка с повишените изисквания за психологическата подготовка на студентите – педагози, се е налагало непрекъснато усъвършенстване и разширяване на учебните планове, програми и лекционни курсове.

В новата катедрата се назначават още преподаватели и асистенти. Започва тясно сътрудничество с другите катедри във филиала на СУ в Благоевград; съвсем закономерно това е катедрата по „Педагогика", както и другите новосформирани катедри.

По това време се поставя началото на Лабораторията по психология и заслугата за нейното развитие е на постъпилия тогава млад лаборант Бойко Николов. С неговата енергичност, отбелязва проф. П. Николов, се създаде богата материална база. На него се дължи не само тясното взаимодействие, което филиала на СУ създава с Братиславския Научно-приложен институт, но и конструирането на нови апарати за психологически изследвания, които бяха финансирани от ръководството на филиала. (Mavrodiev, S., 2010 (a), p. 26).

Доц. д-р Бойко Николов си спомня: Чрез прогностичното си мислене на утвърден организатор и педагог, още на третата година от създаване на филиала, проф. Дечо Денев стига до извода, че пълноценното обучение на детски и начални учители е немислимо без наличие на съвременна лаборатория по психология. Преди още да съществува самостоятелна катедра по Психология, проф. Денев издейства щатна бройка, а Ректорът, проф. Маджаров, назначава на 28.09.1978 г. Бойко Николов, с основна задача да създаде тази лаборатория, като я оборудва със съвременна апаратура и тестове за психологични изследвания (от разговор с доц. Бойко Николов). С решение на АС през 2007 статутът на лабораторията е променен в Лабораторен комплекс по психология с р-л доц. д-р Бойко Николов (35 years South-Western University "Neofit Rilski", p. 32).

През 1983 г. Филиалът на СУ „Климент Охридски" в Благоевград се преобразува на Висш педагогически институт – Благоевград с 3 факултета и 9 катедри. През 1985 г. към ВПИ е създаден Научен съвет с председател доц. д-р Трифон Трифонов, с право да избира доценти по педагогика, психология, дефектология и методика на обучението.

През 80-те г. на ХХ век проф. Трифонов, доц. Пеев, доц. Стамболиев, доц. Енева, доц. Александрова, доц. Мадолев и др. публикуват първите учебници и монографии по психология.

В същия период са назначени: Мария Оракова (Мутафова) (1985), Радостина Ангелова (1986), Йовка Ванчева (1986), (Jubilee Almanac of SWU 1976-1996).

Катедра „Психология" се утвърждава в структурата на ВПИ и започва да обслужва, пряко или косвено, останалите катедри и факултетите, към които не принадлежи. Към нея започват да се обучават аспиранти (докторанти), които днес са професори в различни висши училища в страната.

Организират се първите научни конференции по психология. Така например през 1987 г. се провежда научната конференция „Мотивация и поведение"; 1991 – „Социална ситуация и автономия на личността" (Jubilee Almanac of SWU 1976-1996, p. 22).

От самото си начало катедрата по „Психология" е в структурите на факултета за подготовка на детски учители. Показателен факт за значимостта на катедрата е, че през 1992 г. с Протокол №7/19.02.1992 факултетът се преименува на „Факултет по психология и предучилищна педагогика".

В учебния план на спец. „Предучилищна педагогика" от 1990 г. в Психолого-педагогическия блок психологическите дисциплини са разширени и фигурират: Обща психология, Възрастова психология, Педагогическа психология, Експериментална психология и Психология на общуването. Учебния план на специалност „Предучилищна педагогика" дава възможност детските педагози да придобият специализация „Психология (психолог в детско заведение)". Дисциплините, които са включени са: Психодиагностика, Психопрофилактика на развитието на детето, Психология на надарените деца, Психология на изоставащите деца и Психокорекция.

В обучението на детските педагози (в различни учебни планове от 1990-те г.) се добавят и нови дисциплини (което по време съвпада със създаването на специалност „Психология") като: Социална психология, Психология на развитието, Психология на творчеството, Психология на ученето, Народопсихология на българина, Психология и педагогика на децата със задръжки в психичното развитие, Диференциална психология, Музикална психология, Психотерапия, Експериментална психология, Психологическа диагностика, Психопрофилактика на развитието на личността, Психология на малките групи, Психологически основи на сексуалното възпитание.

Преподаването на всички тези психологически преди и по време на създаването на специалност „Психология" показва разширяването на обхвата на научните интереси на преподавателите от катедра „Психология" и респективно на дисциплините, които започват да се преподават. Отговаряйки на потребностите на педагогическите специалности преподавателите по психология се подготвят за новата специалност.

Създаване на специалност „Психология"

Поставянето на началото на специалност „Психология" във ВПИ – Благоевград е естествен и закономерен процес, свързан с развитието на самия университет и на катедра „Психология". По този начин ВПИ е второто висше училище, след Софийския университет, в който се разкрива тази специалност. Първият випуск е приет през учебната 1991 – 1992 г. По-късно специалност „Психология" се разкрива и в други университети.

Проф. П. Николов си спомня: тогава не си давахме напълно сметка за събитието, което настъпваше (Mavrodiev, S., 2010 (a), p. 29). Както беше отбелязано, Факултетът за Подготовка на детски учители се преименува на Факултет по психология и предучилищна педагогика.

Със създаването на специалност „Психология" отговорностите и работата на преподавателите се променят. Ако до тогава са обслужвали другите специалности, то от този момент започва изграждането на специалисти от същото професионално направление, което е изисквало не само разширяването на психологическите дисциплини, но и увеличаване на хорариума и обема от научни знания, които да се преподават. Създаването на специалността става по време, когато в България текат процеси на демократизация и смяна на политическата система.

Тогава беше моментът, отбелязва проф. Николов, всеки член на катедрата да формира своята перспектива в нов облик – като преподавател и транслатор на съвременно психологическо знание, но и същевременно да бъде подготвен специалист в определена област на психологията (Mavrodiev, S., 2010 (a), p. 29).

Съвсем нормално е било катедрата да не е разполагала с преподаватели по всички базисни психологически дисциплини, поради тази причина като лектори са привлечени преподаватели от Софийския университет „СВ. Климент Охридски", БАН, Института по психология към МВР и др. Те започват да водят лекционните курсове по специализирани дисциплини като Юридическа психология, Пенитенциарна психология и др.

THIRTY YEARS OF SPECIALTY "PSYCHOLOGY" AT THE SOUTH-WEST UNIVERSITY "NEOFIT RILSKI" – BLAGOEVGRAD

Първият учебен план

Курсът на обучение на бъдещите психолози е 5 години за редовно обучение (магистър) и 6 години за задочно обучение (магистър). Учебният план дава възможност студентите да изберат следните специализации: Социална психология, Училищна психология, Бизнес психология,

Извадка от първия учебния план:

Задължителни дисциплини:

Общотеоретичен цикъл: Увод в специалността, Философия, Политология, Икономикс, Защита при екстремни условия, Логика, Информатика, Физиология на нервната система и анализаторите, Математическа психология.

Психолого-педагогически цикъл: Психологически блок: Обща психология, Психология на личността, Възрастова психология, Педагогическа психология, Експериментална психология, Социална психология, История на психологията, Психология на общуването, Икономическа психология, Психопатология, Невропсихология, Юридическа психология, Психотерапия, Еволюционна психология, Инженерна психология, Политическа психология, Психопрофилактика, Медицинска психология, Психология на сексуалността, Социална психиатрия, Организационна психология, Социално-психологичен тренинг.

Педагогическият блок включва: Педагогика, Методика на преподаване на психологията, Методика на преподаване на логиката.

Като избираеми дисциплини са предложени: Арттерапия, Психолингвистика и др.

През 7, 8 и 9 семестър студентите започват да специализират и да изучават съответни дисциплини:

Специализацията „Социална психология" включва дисциплините: Психология на аномалното поведение, Социология, Психология на средната и третата възраст, Психология на семейните отношения, Психология на девиантното поведение, Психология на алкохолизма и наркоманията, Психология на религиозното съзнание, Професионална психодиагностика, Основи на правото, Психология на трудовата заетост и безработицата, Психология на масовите явления, Пенитенциарна психология, Превантивна психология, Специализиран психотренинг.

Специализация „Училищна психология": Психология на педагогическата професия, Психология на девиантното поведение, Специализиран психотренинг Психология на семейните отношения, Психология на умствения труд, Психология на деца с трудности в обучението и задръжки в развитието, Психология на алкохолизма и наркоманията, Професионална психодиагностика, Психология на религиозното съзнание, Психология на масовите явления, Специализиран психотренинг, Психология на малките групи.

Специализацията „Бизнес психология": История на икономическите учения, Теория на икономическото поведение, Макроикономикс, Микроикономикс, Социология, Основи на правото, Психология на търговията и рекламата, Професионална психодиагностика, Психология на деловото общуване и маркетинг, Иновации и иновационно поведение, Личностен стил и поведение в бизнеса, психология на масовите явления, Специализиран психотренинг.

Учебния план за бакалавър, редовно обучение, със срок на обучение 4 г., наред с базисните дисциплини, дава възможност за следните специализации: *„Генетична психология"* с дисциплините: Психология на ранното детство, Стратегия и стилове на учене, Специална психология, Психология на класическото детство, Соицално-психологически проблеми на подрастващите и юношеството, Училищна адаптация и адаптация в ясли и детски градини, Психология на педагогическия труд и личността на учителя, Психология на девиантното поведение, Геронтопсихология.

Другата специализация е *„Икономическа психология"*, която включва: Икономическа психология, Психология на труда, Инженерна психология, Психология на управлението, Юридическа психология, Психология и маркетинг, Психология на търговията, Съвременни икономически теории, Психология на професионалния подбор.

Като избираеми дисциплини са предлагани: Клинична психология, Психология на стреса, Народопсихология, Психоника, Психология на творчеството, Мотивация на учебната дейност, Психокорекция, социология, Основи на психотерапията, Парапсихология.

След 2000 г. продължава укрепването и позитивното развитие на специалността. Подготвят се докторанти, в т.ч. и първите чужденци. Назначават се нови преподаватели. В периода 2000 - 2010 се хабилитират: доц. д-р Бойко Николов, доц. д-р Розина Попова, доц. д-р Добринка Божинова, доц. д-р Иванка Асенова, доц. д-р Мария Мутафова, доц. д-р Русанка Манчева, доц. д-р Станислава Стоянова, доц. д-р Стоил Мавродиев.

С протокол № 1/01.12.1999 на Академичния съвет катедрата и специалността преминават е в структурата на Правно-историческия факултет. Със своето енергично ръководство Деканът на ПИФ - проф. д-р Александър Воденичаров подкрепя специалността и катедрата. Финансират се редица проекти, конференции, дооборудва се, и се разширява Лабораторния комплекс по психология.

От 2003 до 2006 г. катедрата провежда успешно обучение - допълнителна професионална подготовка за психолози по специалност „Съдебна психология/Съдебно-психологични експертизи".

През 2006 г. започва да излиза като печатно издание на катедра „Психология", Правно-исторически факултет сп. „Психологическа мисъл". Проф. Любомир Георгиев е първият главен редактор за периода 2006-2009 г. В края на 2011 г. немските издатели PsychOpen се съгласяват да подновят издаването на Психологическа мисъл в електронен вид с английското наименование Psychological Thougt, осигуряват нов ISSN и първият електронен брой излиза през 2012 г. Списанието се индексира в Scopus от 2017 г. и понастоящем. Проф. д-р Станислава Стоянова е главен редактор на Psychological Thought от 2012 до 2019 г. и нейна е заслугата списанието да се индексира в световните бази данни. От януари 2020 г. списанието се издава от Югозападен университет "Неофит Рилски", а настоящият главен редактор е доц. д-р Наташа Ангелова.

По инициатива на проф. Мадолев за кратко в специалност „Психология" е въведена тютърна система за работа със студентите.

С протокол № 12/25.02.2009 на Академичния съвет, с цел оптимизиране структурите на университета, катедра „Психология" и специалността преминават във Философския факултет. Днес тя е водещото звено във факултета и има най-много студенти (бакалаври, магистри) и докторанти. Преподавателите участват в различни научни проекти и престижни научни форуми. С подкрепата на настоящото деканско ръководство в лицето на проф. д-р Б. Манов се назначиха нови преподаватели и бяха обявени конкурси за академичното израстване.

Трудно могат да бъдат изброени (без да се пропусне) всички преподаватели, които са били на основен трудов договор, гост-преподаватели и хонорувани преподаватели към катедрата от нейното създаване до днес, но всички те са оставили следа и са допринасяли за нейното развитие, и за добрата подготовка на студентите. С уважение и респект към всички тях, ще се опитам да посоча техните имена:

Ръководители на катедра „Психология" са били: проф. д-р Трифон Трифонов, проф. д.пс.н. Петър Николов, проф. д.пс.н. Васил Мадолев, доц. д-р Иван Григоров, проф. д.пс.н. Любомир Георгиев и проф. д.пс.н. Людмил Кръстев (настоящ ръководител), който е бил и Декан на факултета по Психология и предучилищна педагогика. Катедрата излъчва ректор на ВПИ - проф. Петър Николов (мандат 1983 – 1989) и Зам. Ректор - доц. Гергина Енева. Членове на катедрата са били заместник - декани на съответните факултети: доц. д-р Гергина Енева е Зам. Декан на Факултета за подготовка на детски учители в периода 1987-1989 г., доц. Людмил Кръстев е бил Зам. Декан на Факултета за подготовка на детски учители в периода 1989-1993, гл. ас. Радостина Ангелова също е била Зам. Декан на същия факултет от 1993 г., проф. Васил Мадолев е бил Заместник-Декан на Правно-историческия факултет; проф. Иванка Асенова е била Зам. – Декан на Философски факултет.

Щатни преподаватели в катедра „Психология" са били: проф. д-р Трифон Трифонов, доц. д-р Стефан Пеев, доц. д-р Стефан Стамболиев, доц. д-р Иван Григоров, проф. д.пс.н. Петър Николов, проф. д.пс.н. Любомир Георгиев, проф. д.пс.н. Васил Мадолев, доц. д-р Гергина Енева, проф. д-р Наталия

Александрова, доц. д-р Розина Попова, доц. д-р Бойко Николов, доц. д-р Добринка Божинова, доц. д-р Емил Маджаров, гл. ас. Стоян Евтимов, ас. д-р Йовка Ванчева, гл. ас. д-р Радостина Ангелова, ас. д-р Десислава Иванова, гл. ас. д-р Ирина Топузова.

Гост-преподаватели, хонорувани преподаватели и преподаватели от други катедри, в отделни периоди са били: проф. д.пс.н. Павел Александров, доц. д-р Алекси Алексиев, доц. Ане Ковачев, проф. Ралчо Трашлиев, проф. д-р Леон Леви, проф. д.пс.н. Димо Йорданов, проф. д-р Калин Гайдаров, проф. Георги Йолов, доц. д-р Надежда Стаменкова, проф. д-р Ради Овчаров, проф. д-р Толя Стоицова, доц. д-р Анета Йовкова, проф. д-р Фидана Даскалова, доц. д-р Веселина Русинова, доц. д-р Ели Сярова, доц. д-р Иван Карагьозов, проф. д.н. Таня Неделчева, доц. д-р Бойко Ганчевски, проф. д.пс.н. Людмил Георгиев, проф. д-р Йоланда Зографова, проф. Дина Батоева, проф. Румен Стаматов, доц. д-р Иван Иванов и др. Преподаватели от други катедри на университета са обезпечавали непсихологическите дисциплини.

Лаборанти към Лабораторния комплекс по психология са били: доц. д-р Бойко Николов, Роман Дражев, Свилен Симеонов, Борислав Славчов, Абдулсалих Джемал.

Настоящият състав на катедрата е: проф. д.пс.н. Людмил Кръстев (Ръководител на катедрата), проф. д-р Станислава Стоянова, проф. д-р Иванка Асенова, доц. д-р Мария Мутафова, доц. д-р Иван Кръстев, доц. д-р Русанка Манчева, доц. д-р Стоил Мавродиев, доц. д-р Наташа Ангелова, доц. д-р Биляна Йорданова, гл. ас. д-р Теодор Гергов, гл. ас. д-р Гергана Станоева, гл. ас. д-р Цветелина Хаджиева, гл. ас. д-р Емелина Цанева, ас. д-р Симона Николова, ас. д-р Николай Иванчев, ас. д-р Десислава Дренска.

Хонорувани преподаватели: ас. д-р Йорданка Динева, Тодор Тодоров, Велина Владимирова, Благовеста Дафкова и др.

Своят осезаем принос за развитието на специалността и катедрата дава административният състав. Инспектори „Учебен отдел" са г-жа Виктория Начева и г-жа Силвия Тодорова, секретар на катедрата е г-жа Гергана Ангелова.

Бивши секретари: Йорданка Шикерлийска, Димитрина Китанова, Ваня Георгиева, Радослава Кирова, Миглена Миленкова, Тина Солтарийска. Инспектори на учебен отдел са били Катерина Демиревска, Константин Сапунджиев.

Изключително отговорна и важна дейност е докторантското обучение. За целия период на своето съществуване в катедрата са се обучавали десетки докторанти, които са защитили успешно своите дисертационни трудове както пред Специализирания научен съвет по психология към ВАК (до 2010 г., когато ВАК е закрит), така и пред Научните журита. Под научното ръководство на преподавателите са подготвили своите дисертации редица чуждестранни докторанти от Р. Йемен, Р. Гърция, Р. С. Македония, Р. Албания и др. Сред тях са: Муфтах Али Ахмед, Омар Бамир, Салем Гуман, Ал Хадър Абдула, Катица Стоименовска, Мария Курти, Христос Дувлос, Вайос Панургиас и мн. други. Бивши докторанти вече са в редиците на преподавателския състав - Цветелина Хаджиева, Биляна Йорданова, Наташа Ангелова, Емелина Заимова, Теодор Гергов, Ирина Топузова и др. (докторант и възпитаник на катедрата е и авторът на настоящата статия). Докторанти на катедрата, като асистенти и хонорувани преподаватели са били: ас. д-р Ивелина Пенева, х. ас. д-р Марияна Стамболийска, ас. д-р Десислава Безинска, ас. д-р Елис Мустакли.

В своята история Катедрата си е сътрудничила с редица научни организации и звена в страната като: Института по психология на МВР, Центърът по пенитенциарна психология, Института по психология при БАН, университети в страната и чужбина, училища и др.

През изминалите четири десетилетия катедра „Психология" се развиваше успешно и се превърна в авторитетен научен и образователен център с добър научен потенциал.

За 30-те години на своето съществуване специалност „Психология" се утвърждава като една от водещите в страната. Доказателство за това са добрите специалисти, които се подготвят и намират успешна реализация. Свидетелство за авторитета на катедрата е и желанието за обучение на чуждестранните студенти и докторанти.

Времето тече и поколенията се сменят. Нека през следващите десетилетия развитието на катедрата и специалността продължат още по-успешно!

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Theoretical article

POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY: A NEW FORM OF PSYCHOLOGY

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Abstract

The study explores the interconnection of the subjective experiences of self – esteem with the emotions of anxiety, the assertive attitude and the interpersonal relationships, in the way that they are expressed through the use of social networking sites that have infiltrated in the social lives of individuals.

Keywords: positive, psychology, anxiety, self-esteem

The nature of the mind has fascinated thinkers throughout history, and there is a wealth of evidence showing that ancient civilizations tried to understand the connection between brain, mind, and behavior. These early musings, such as those of the Greek intellectuals Thales, Plato, Aristotle, and Pythagoras, fell under the banner of philosophy and helped to lay the foundation of what would later become known as Modern Psychology. Positive psychology is a relatively new form of psychology. It emphasizes the positive influences in a person's life. These might include character strengths, optimistic emotions, and constructive institutions.

One of the most prominent representatives of the Positive Psychology movement Seligman, in contrast with the dominant psychological trend that emphasized in psychopathology and negative emotions, pointed out that the ultimate objective of Positive Psychology was to identify and understand the concepts and constructs that allow human beings to flourish, experience happiness and joy within the community and society (Pezirkianidis, 2020).

I will focus in the interconnection of the subjective experiences of self – esteem with the emotions of anxiety, the assertive attitude and the interpersonal relationships, in the way that they are expressed through the use of social networking sites that have infiltrated in the social lives of individuals. The adolescent students that belong in the aging groups of 13 to 16 years old and study in the educational level of Junior High School are having an important role in this research. My objective to investigate scientifically the above mentioned concepts is justified due to the fact that my multi-

year experience as a teacher in high schools has leaded in the realization of the importance that the interplay among self – esteem, anxiety and interpersonal issues has not only concerning subjective well – being of adolescent students, but additionally in the educational practice and the achievement of educational goals.

Within this framework this view is apt to broaden the discussion about the concepts and their relations that consist the research goals of this study. First of all, the concept of self – esteem that constitutes one of the most widely examined ideas in psychological research will be approached. Self – esteem depicts the value that people place on themselves providing and contributing in the self – knowledge of the individual. In this way, high self – esteem is interlinked with a more positive evaluation of the self, while low self – esteem is connected with unfavorable assessment of self. It is important, though, to point out that high or low self – esteem does not necessarily result from an accurate or balanced justification, it is mostly a matter of personal perception and reflects personal beliefs. Even though, that a causal relationship between self – esteem and well being has not been confirmed yet, there is a critical link between the two concepts. Research supports the fact that high self – esteem is connected with less stressful experiences, it also enhances initiative and positive emotions (Baumeister, et al., 2003). Moreover, it has been proved that high self – esteem assists the internalization of significant others in a positive way (Mann, et al., 2004).

Anxiety disorders, such as phobia, social phobia, generalized anxiety disorder are a common mental health issue that adolescents are facing nowadays (Davila et al., 2008). All the cataclysmic changes that are taking place in adolescence from a biological spectrum, namely puberty, have impact on the increased levels of anxiety during this period of life (Reardon, et al., 2009). Furthermore, peer relationships play an important developmental role during adolescence and consist a critical factor concerning emotional and social well – being. The peer relationships can obviously have undeniable advantages for the individual, but they can also be a significant stressing factor, causing social anxiety. Positive peer relationships can also be protective and securing for adolescents and function against the emergence of anxiety (La Greca & Harrison, 2005). Another critical connection analyzed by the psychological literature is the connection among anxiety and self – esteem, as self – esteem is usually functioning as a protective mechanism against emotions of distress and loneliness, and a significant experience is related with the interactions with parents and other socializing factors especially during the early stages of individual's life (Greenberg, et al., 1992). Thus, it is obvious that the impact that these functions have in the mental and psychological world of each individual is closely interwoven.

To begin with, an important issue that arises is the attribution of a wide acclaimed definition of positive psychology. Within the different perceptions of the conceptualization common themes and patterns can be detected, however, differentiation and different interpretations indeed exist regarding the factors that the emphasis is mostly given. Sheldon and King (2001) give the definition

of positive psychology, as "*nothing more than the scientific study of ordinary human strengths and virtues," one that "revisits the average person"*. In the Journal of Positive Psychology (2005) it is mentioned that "*Positive psychology is about scientifically informed perspectives on what makes life worth living. It focuses on aspects of the human condition that lead to happiness, fulfillment, and flourishing.*"

Concerning the dawning of this theoretical domain, there is a series of worldwide social, political and economical changes that are related to its outbreak. Until World War II, the dominant scientific thinking in the field of Psychology was concerned with the prevention of psychological issues and the promotion of emotional and psychological health and additionally, the improvement of the quality of life. However, the consequences of WWII had turned the focus of attention strictly in dealing with the profound number of people experiencing psychiatric and psychological symptoms worldwide. The establishment of the Union Of War Veterans in United States in 1946, the American Institution of Mental Health in 1947 and the increasing influence of medicinal industry and pharmacology had an important impact in the dissemination of the medical model. Although, the people that were facing various mental health symptoms were being assisted by this model, in a direct and instantaneous way, the drawback was that the value and the importance of the continuous effort to enhance the well-being had been neglected. The fact that the concept of well being had been in the margin of the scientific research was pinpointed by the World Health Organization in 2001. So, the mere absence of mental health problems does not entail psychological, social and physical stability and health. This realization and recognition of the fact that people that did not report mental health problems were nonetheless unhappy leaded to the birth of Positive Psychology (Pezirkianidis, 2020).

The scientists that are being occupied with the complex question of what gives meaning to life, came to the point of gaining a deeper understanding in the ways and means that are being used in order to survive and endure conditions of extreme adversity. Yet, they are still in a preliminary stage regarding the conditions under which people are developing their inner and sentimental world in less harmful environments. The focus of positive psychology is to restore the predominant link in psychology that wanted to fix all the negative life experiences with an emphasis in positive life qualities. Each person is examined from a subjective perspective and additionally the subjective experiences that are being valued, in example well- being, contentment, satisfaction that is related with the past, hope and optimism that is related with the future, flow and happiness that is interconnected with the present. The individual characteristics that matter is the capability to love, the courage, the interpersonal skills and accomplishments, the perseverance, the ability to forgive, the originality of the personality, the spirituality, the talents and wisdom. At a broader and collective level, that concerns people as a group, the values that matter are being correlated with the factors that are transforming people into better citizens. As an example we can mention the sense of

responsibility, altruism, the level of civility, moderation, tolerance, and ethics (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). The actual meaning is that positive psychology has provided a different point of view to examine and understand human experience and has ultimately, established the creation of a common language that promotes the study of positive states, traits and outcomes. In this way a generally accepted common ground is being constructed among researchers and practitioners, despite the different scientific interests, that enables communication. The substantial affair is to provide a synthetic background that will unite both sides, negative and positive, health and illness, well- being and distress. In this case, there is a possibility to eliminate the division of the scientist and the practitioner.

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Theoretical article

SOCIAL EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN ADHD AND ASD CHILDREN: A LITERATURE OVERVIEW

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Abstract

The study is concentrated in describing the characteristics and particularities of the social abilities, emotional competences in children with a different development from the usual; diagnosed with any of the ASD and ADHD, and how their presence impacts these children. The conclusions part includes a comparison between these two target groups in terms of their social-emotional development.

*Key words***:** *social emotional development, children, ADHD, ASD.*

The social-emotional development of children is a long process that implies many different factors, with cognitive, social, emotional, affective character. It is affected by education, lifestyle, neurologic functioning, social environment, parenting style, individual development and early life context. The entire combination of all these factors shapes one of the most important aspects of the children's personality; the socio-emotional aspect. This aspect of the personality includes social capacities, communication skills, the ability to build social relationships, elements of emotional intelligence as empathy, understanding and expressing adequately their own emotions and others', being part of a group, knowing how to manage anger and aggression, coping skills and being assertive. Apart from the role of the context and all the education participants in a child's life, like parents, relatives, teachers, therapists, peers, a fundamental role has its own development with all its characteristics.

The objectives of the present study were:

1. Explore the socio-emotional development of young children, of which is altered as a cause of ADHD (attention deficit with hyperactivity disorder), and ASD (autism spectrum disorder),

through analyzing and summarizing the dates of previous studies, researches, theories and literature in this field.

2. Comparing characteristics of ADHD and ASD social emotional development, in which elements they have similarities and differences.

METHODS

This review involves a systematic search and analysis of studies and published articles available from 2010, that focused on different elements of ASD and ADHD children emotionality and alterations in aspects of their social emotional development. The FECYT (Fundacion Espanola para la Ciencia y Tecnologia – Web of Science) database was searched for articles in English, containing any combination of the following terms: *social emotional development in children, ADHD emotionality, ASD emotionality, social emotional development in ADHD children, social emotional development in ASD.* Then, the identified articles were screen and were selected the articles including ASD and ADHD population, empirical or theoretical studies about socio-emotional alterations in these groups.

The initial literature searched resulted in 323 articles, from which 47 were selected for this study. The other articles that were excluded didn't meet the criteria, they presented other target groups (other childhood disorders, or not children) or different aspects of the development.

RESULTS

Social emotional alterations in children with ADHD

ADHD is considered a heterogeneous disorder, affecting cognitive, neuropsychological and emotional functioning (Sjowall, Roth, Lindgvist, Thorell, 2013).

ADHD symptoms, such as hyperactivity, impulsiveness and inattentiveness, cause many problems and difficulties in different areas of children's and adolescents' lives. As a result of their deficits in learning and educational areas, children with ADHD can be perceived as different and strange from their peers. Their behavior differ them from the non ADHD children, causing isolation, lack of acceptance and approval in the group (Miranda, 2010). This fact brings to a lower self-esteem and worse auto-concept. ADHD children and adolescents present lack of social competence, non respecting norms and rules, experiencing peer rejection, problem solving deficits and other deficits in academic performances (Sibley, Evans, Serpell, 2010; Redmond and Ash, 2014).

In a comparison of ADHD children with a control group of typically developed children, Sjöwall et al (2013) found significant differences between them in elements of social-emotional competences, such as recognizing correctly the emotions. ADHD children failed in understanding correctly the facial expression of emotions and non-verbal communications. These deficits can contribute later in the lack of social abilities, having poorer social relationships, and in performing problematic social conducts.

The social emotional alterations of the youngsters diagnosed with ADHD can be internalizing or externalizing. Their need to have friends, to feel accepted and loved is always present, but the way they show it provokes unpleasant feelings as bother, boredom, irritation, annoyance, discomfort, and hassle. Internalizing social emotional alterations can be related to a low self-esteem and low motivation, due to their inappropriate behavior. Externalizing problems can be presented in aggressive conducts, interpersonal impairment in peer functioning, social-cognitive deficits, lack of pro-social skills and empathic responses toward others' needs (Hay, Hudson, Liang, 2010; Sibley, Evans, Serpell, 2010).

ADHD children present deficits in emotional response inhibition (Lopez-Martin, Albert, Fernandez-Jaen, Carretie, 2015), which means that they have difficulties in managing their response in situations with high emotionality. Findings showed that ADHD children need to make a bigger effort when they need to inhibit a response, comparing with typically developed children (Lopez-Martin et al, 2015).

Social emotional alterations in children and adolescents with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD)

Children and adolescents with Autism Spectrum Disorder are characterized by:

1. Deficits in social communication domain
2. Restrictive interests and repetitive behaviors domain (APA, 2013)

Autistic and Asperger disorder receive the attention of the mental health professionals that work and study in this area. It is considering a public health issue, with a great increase; ASD may be as common as 1 in every 152 children in the US (White, Oswald, Ollendick, Scahill, 2009).

Individuals with ASD show significant impairments in social interaction, communication, exhibiting a restricted range of interests and attention, general impairments in recognizing basic emotions and in identifying more complex ones, associated with altered perceptual, cognitive and neural processes, that impact academic, educational, social, and long-term outcomes, disrupting their family lives

(Ingersoll, 2010; Golan, Ashwin, Granader, McClintock, Day, Legget, Baron-Cohen, 2010; Stichter, O'Connor, Herzog, Lierheimer, McGhee, 2011).

According to Stichter et al (2011) "children with autism produce fewer affective expressions and are often believed to be unconcerned with the feelings of the others, showing poor performance in inhibiting social responses, working memory for facial expressions, and vigilance to interpret contextual cues for social interactions".

Cognitive and socio-emotional domains as symbolic play, self image, parent attachment of 4 to 24 months children are some of the specific domains that presents alterations (Thiebaut, Adrien, Blanc, Barthelemy, 2010).

CONCLUSIONS

The current study focused on social emotional characteristics of children and adolescents suffering from Attention Deficit and Hyperactivity Disorder and Autism Spectrum Disorder. This issue was presented through evidences of different studies from 2010 and now.

Summarizing the data from the articles, the main findings can be presented in two groups; similarities and differences between ADHD and ASD social emotional development.

Similarities:
1. Children from both groups show difficulties in recognizing basic emotions, non-verbal communication and in understanding complex ones
2. They show significant lack of social competences
3. Failures in having friends
4. Less pro-social behavior
5. Higher levels of bad mood
6. Higher possibilities of future internal/external disorders
7. Academic difficulties
8. Temperamental alterations, in terms of sociability and anxiety
9. Difficulties in many areas of everyday life
10. Inability to be empathic.
11. In both disorders, neural alterations can explain these deficits.

Differences:
1. ADHD children want to have friends and try to get their attention, but the way they try to causes hassle and bother at their peers, whilst ASD children seem to be in their own world without motivation of initiate any social relationship.
2. ADHD children have bad relations with their friends (when they have any).

3. ADHD children have wrong concepts and attributions about their social failures, meanwhile ASD children are disinterested in having friends.
4. Both of them show disruptive behaviors, but for different reasons. ADHD children don't respect norms and rules because they fail in the social response and reaction, but ASD children are not aware of them.

In conclusion, social emotional development in children with ADHD and ASD present many alterations, that professionals of mental health working with these individuals have to take into account and to include as a very important part of the intervention. Child development is a very dynamic process, and in the case of the disorders it is even more complicated. Social emotional skills and competences influence academic, cognitive, and intrapersonal areas of the personality. So, future studies can better explain issues concerning this aspect of children's development, with the aim of improving intervention programs and finally, the children wellbeing.

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Theoretical article

THE DIMENSIONS OF THE PHENOMENON OF SCHOOL VIOLENCE AND BULLYING

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Abstract

School bullying and violence are a multidimensional phenomenon that tends to spread alarmingly both in Greece and internationally, with huge negative consequences for the formation of "healthy" tomorrow's citizens. For this reason, it is necessary to clarify the context of its diagnosis and to analyze its various dimensions, which either refers to causes or effects, or even to addressing this pathogenic situation. In particular, the phenomenon of school bullying and violence will be explored in terms of its legal, pedagogical, psychological and social dimensions. In fact, according to the socio-ecological model of Fried & Fried (1996), the aggression of minors in the form of school violence is the result of various factors that affect the minor, such as culture, community, school, family and personal issues. Therefore, the risk of an individual being a victim or a bully of intimidation is a complex interaction and our aim is to map the problem as a systemic phenomenon, which requires a systematic and dynamic response.

Keywords: School Violence, School Bullying, Aggressive Behavior

School bullying and violence are a multidimensional phenomenon with huge negative consequences for the formation of "healthy" tomorrow's citizens, and the risk of an individual being a victim or a bully of intimidation is a complex interaction between individual, interpersonal, community and social factors (Karavoltsos, 2013). These factors are represented as five concentric circles with the learner at the center. It is, therefore, a systemic, dynamic framework, which acts as a determining factor in the development of the student-young person. This framework can provide rich stimuli and favorable conditions for the ideal development (cognitive, psychological, emotional, etc.) of the individual or, on the contrary, even the deficient or problematic composition of a single axis (culture, community, school, family) of the frame can entangle the person and not allow him to cultivate all his possibilities.

Violence among schoolchildren or school bullying is intentional, unprovoked, systematic and repetitive violence and aggressive behavior for the purpose of enforcing, oppressing, and causing physical and mental pain to peers from their classmates, in the context of an interpersonal relationship characterized by power disproportion, inside and outside school. In this situation, children who are intimidated are "powerful," who believe that through their actions they will derive some benefit, such as pleasure, social status, or even material gains. On the other hand are the victims, who hold the position of

the "weak" passive recipient of these violent actions. School bullying is manifested in various forms, such as direct physical and verbal intimidation, indirect intimidation (for example, social isolation, dissemination of false fame), sexual, racist, electronic, social bullying and blackmail which concerns the violent rape or destruction of the personal objects of the intimidated child.

School bullying is not individual aggressive incidents among students who are characterized by equality in "power" (social, physical, etc.) or possessing the same emotional load (both students are angry). Finally, school bullying is not a joke between pupils in the form of goodwill and if the recipient does not seem to be disturbed. Violence between students has serious short-term and long-term effects on their development and health. Intimidated children often have low self-esteem, psychosomatic problems, school denial, intense anxiety, sleep disturbances, phobias, depression, and even suicidal tendencies.

Children who are intimidated have a reduced self-control capacity, are unable to comply with rules and limits, and find it difficult to solve their differences and to manage their aggression, and may, in the future, exhibit anti-social and delinquent behaviors. Possibly, incidents of violence between schoolchildren are not always treated in the most appropriate way. For this reason, there is an urgent need to establish a clear framework for preventing and addressing the phenomenon of school bullying in the school environment, which is the most appropriate body for the proper education of children and adolescents and the channeling of healthy citizens into our society.

Legal dimensions

In Greek education legislation there is no provision for juvenile delinquency in school and, in particular, for school bullying. In the legislative educational framework there are no clear references to the competences of the actors in the educational process (School Counselors, School Leaders, Teachers) to the phenomena of school violence. Their responsibilities and the framework for addressing and managing school bullying incidents are derived from their general duties and obligations as set out in various laws and articles scattered in various presidential decrees and ministerial decisions.

In cases of delinquency of underage students at school, the provisions of the Penal Code referring to minors apply. In April 2015, Article 8 of Law 4322/2015 amended Article 312 of the Criminal Code, which deals with "causing damage through persistent harsh behavior" and also applies to minors.

In particular, it is stated: '1. Unless there is a case of a more serious offense, it is punishable by imprisonment, whichever by persistent harsh behavior causes a third person physical injury or other harm to physical or mental health. If the act is done between minors, it is not punished unless the age difference between them is longer than three (3) years, so only reforming or therapeutic measures are imposed. 2. If the victim has not yet reached his 18th year of age or can not defend himself and the offender has custody or protection, or belongs to the offender's home or has a working relationship with him or her or has been entrusted to him by the person responsible for custody or entrusted to him for upbringing, teaching, supervision or guarding, even if temporary, unless there is a case of a more serious offense, imprisonment of at least six (6) months. The same penalty shall be imposed on anyone who systematically neglects his or her obligations to the above-mentioned persons, is liable to suffer physical injury or harm to their physical or mental health. "Subsequently, the Ministry of Culture, Education and Religious Affairs, in circular C2 / 6563 / 21-11-1996, has banned group expulsion, as well as elimination of all students involved in rotation. In fact, it stipulates that the magnitude of the participation of each student in the offense should be carefully monitored, in order to impose similar penalties. Thus, although not fully institutionalized, the tendency and desire of the Ministry of Culture, Education and Religions to show a more modernized and upgraded pedagogical policy, such as the model of "peer-to-peer counseling" and the model of "Mediation"

The Council of Europe, in its effort to preserve the rights of the child, set up the "Child-Building Europe for Children" program (www.coe.int/children), which is dedicated to promoting the rights of the child child protection and the protection of children against violence.

In particular, the program focuses on issues such as home and school violence, human rights education, children and the internet and children, and the rule of law. Among other things, regarding children's rights, she declares that as a child "You have the right to protection against all forms of

exploitation, abuse and physical and psychological violence, including those occurring in the family and in childcare facilities" (European Council, 2009). While the Oslo Consultation identified six priority areas in order to ensure children's rights in the safe and safe environment, a picture of: www.coe.int violence-free learning in the school environment: 1) developing holistic school-based strategies; 2) working with children 3) support for teachers and other staff 4) awareness raising and education for human rights 5) legal protection for children (2011).

Indeed, the European Parliament and the Council of Ministers adopted a decision to create the DAPHNE III Specific Program (http://www.e-abc.eu/en/to-ergo/programma-daphne-iii) as part of the General Program "Fundamental Rights and Justice ".

As part of the prevention of the phenomenon, the program of the Hellenic Ministry of Environment and Waters has been implemented in Greece. The Ministry of Culture, Education and Religious Affairs, as part of the initiatives to prevent and tackle school violence and bullying, has set up a network of information, training, prevention and response to phenomena at central and regional level. The occurrence of violence between pupils in the school environment, be it small or high incidents, should leave no room for complacency. The individual and fragmentary responses of teachers to only extreme violence can not reverse such situations and infuse students with values and attitudes regarding human rights and respect for our fellow human beings. It is now imperative to establish a clear framework for preventing and tackling the phenomenon of school bullying, which will be supported and systematically fed by educational policies and good practices.

Psychological dimensions

As mentioned in the previous section, the phenomenon of school bullying involves various parties, including the victim (the child experiencing intimidation), the perpetrator (the child who is intimidating) and the child viewers (bystanders). The existence of school bullying situations and incidents will have many serious negative effects, either in the short or long term, on the psycho-emotional development of the child and adolescent, but also on the learning process (Stavrinides, Georgiou, & Theofanous, 2010). The child experiencing intimidation.

Usually, a child who is targeted and chooses to be bullied will have some specific features, such as somehow differing from the pupil's average image either in terms of physical characteristics (height, weight, skin color, etc.) to elements such as religion, nationality and / or sexual preferences and to be at a disadvantage in terms of power or authority over the intimidating child. It is characterized by the inability to defend itself as an introvert and without sufficient internal resources to ensure self-sufficiency.

Because of the unfortunate aggressive situations it experiences, there will be very serious negative psychological consequences that may affect it all its life (Espelage & Holt, 2001). (Kokkinos & Panayiotou, 2004) and have a sense of loneliness and low self-esteem (Andreou, 2004). In terms of personality or emotional consequences, it will be distinguished by: Low self-esteem (Salmivalli & Nieminen, 2002); feeling despair, shame; not solving problems; appearing depression forms (Kaltiala-Heino, Rimpelä, Rantanen, Rimpelä, 2000); not feeling emotionally or emotionally outburst; feeling lonely (Nansel, Overpeck, Pilla, 2001); best for isolation; birth for friendship and social gatherings; poor school performance and unjustified absences (Nansel et al., 2001); Behavioral Disorders (Holt et al., 2015). As regards the physical consequences, it will be (Gini & Pozzoli, 2009): psychological / psychosomatic problems (headaches, abdominal pains, etc.); innervation, sleep disturbances; biting his nails; he has loss of appetite While in very violent incidents of school bullying, the victim may need hospitalization because of serious injuries, or even in the extreme case, to lose his own life. It should be noted that because of the highly charged psychological condition of the victim there have been very extreme incidents in which the victim either during his or her schooling or later as an adult "takes the law into his hands" with an armed attack on the school where he is attending or was studying and killing pupils as a vengeance for the attacks he had suffered (Flannery, D., Wester, K., Singer, M., 2004).

With regard to his school life, because of the situations he experiences, he identifies the school with the concept of insecurity and disapproval, thus presenting elements of school denial, inadequate

schooling, inability to concentrate on work, refusal to participate in school activities and generally stops to participate in any learning process (Hawker & Boulton, 2000).

If these children do not receive adequate support, they will face serious psychological problems in their lives as adults, demonstrating inability to engage in interpersonal relationships, take responsibility and resolve problems, but even to have a smooth sex life. In general, the child experiencing intimidation is possessed by the sense of anger and shame about what is happening, guilt, because it feels that it is what blames for what is done and fear, since it constantly lives with the feeling that they will spoil it.

Unfortunately, incidents of school bullying are often not perceived by teachers and parents, and sometimes when they are done, they are often forbidden for various reasons or not treated because of the erroneous assessment that the victim should learn to deal with it alone condition. In general, there is a lack of information, limited awareness and lack of knowledge and skills to address the problem of school violence by both teachers and parents. The child who frightens Although the intimidating child is also responsible for the "abuse" of the victim, it also possesses important psychological problems that need special treatment.

(Bernstein & Watson, 1997), impaired self-control capacity (Unnever & Cornell, 2003), and low empathy (Espelage & Swearer, 2004). While low empathy appears to be a determining factor in aggressive behavior, recent research focuses on the negative association of phenomena with cognition - and in particular emotional empathy (Van Noorden, Haselager, Cillessen, Bukowski, 2014).

In addition, perpetrators, during their school life, usually do not have a good course performance, while creating problems at the time of classes and like to challenge teachers with their behavior (Olweus, 1993). General elements that distinguish children who are intimidated are:

They possess the need to dominate and impose their power on others;
  - Demonstrate impotence to control impulses and lack of sense of the measure;
  - They show diminished self-control capacity;
  - They are identified for their weakness in respecting rules and limits;
  - They have an inflated sense of themselves and empathy;
  - Abnormally low anxiety;
  - Difficult to solve their differences and manage aggression;
  - Demonstrate hostility to others especially in relation to parents and educators;
  - They are not particularly popular, and they are falling further as they move on to the educational levels;
  - They like to be surrounded by other classmates who consider them their "leader". (Olthof and Goossens, 2008) Exercise of school violence by a child usually the forerunner of delinquent and / or criminal behavior in the future (Eron, Huesmann, Lefkowitz & Walder, 1984).

Typically, these adults are involved in the law, are subject to abuse of addictive substances, drugs, alcohol, etc., while marrying often impose their opinion by abusing their spouses and children (Fried & Fried , 1996). A vicious cycle is created, since the people themselves may be victims of domestic violence. Kids viewers Children's viewers, although most often remain intimidated by incidents of bullying, also suffer from harmful psycho-emotional consequences. The fact that they occur in such incidents causes their familiarity with situations that cause physical or psychological pain and the formation of the erroneous perception of the prevailing power of the "mighty". By failing to react and intervene effectively, children's viewers have a sense of impotence and remorse, and they may be reluctant to associate with the victims because they are afraid of becoming intimidated by themselves (Rivers, I., Poteat, V., Noret, N. & Ashurst, N., 2009). Children's viewers, although not the perpetrators of aggression, play a particularly important role in school bullying and violence, and, depending on the attitude they hold, facilitate or function inhibitly to the recurrence of similar incidents and, in general, to their perpetuation (Salmivalli, Voeten, & Poskiparta, 2011).

 But, of course, children are each affected differently by watching such events happen next to each other. Children's viewers, depending on the attitude they hold in committing school violence, can be distinguished in the following categories:
  • Those who feel anger, shame and guilt because of their non-intervention;

• Those who are indifferent and removed when such scenes of violence, in order not to interfere or remain neutral observers of the episodes (the observers);

• Those who fear that they may be the next victim and deliberately associate with the "intimidators" (laughing or urging during aggression actions). But they experience the feeling of shame and guilt;

• Those who support the perpetrator and encourage the involvement of other students in victimization episodes (the actor's assistants);

• Those who laugh and encourage the perpetrator for the reason that they converge with their own behavior or, in a way, they admire the intimidator amplifiers). They act as an audience and laugh at the victim. In this case, we can talk about potential bullies;

• Interventions to stop intimidation and provide direct or indirect support to the victim (victim defenders) (Salmivalli, et al., 2011).

Children's viewers therefore have different reactions that play a key role in the evolution of aggressive incidents but also in the continuation of the phenomenon. When their reaction is to laugh, or to smile, or to make positive comments, it means that they applaud or even admire the child who is intimidating and, therefore, urge them to continue. When they just ignore or remain in negative commentary, they again reinforce the role of the intimidator, who will intensify his efforts by becoming even more aggressive in order to get them on his side.

Pedagogical dimensions

School bullying is a wider social phenomenon, not only for special groups or minorities but for the entire school population. Research findings demonstrate the key role played by the school climate, school administration and teacher interventions in halting or demonstrating violent behavior by students (Xinas & Chrysafidis, 2000).

With regard to the legal aspects of the sub-section on the sanctions to be imposed on aggressive students against their classmates, it is recommended to:

• Avoid abolition and criminalization of the act if ineffective methods are considered by various research studies. A child who is intimidated, after having been punished with miscarriage, will continue to harass his victim vengefully for the sentence imposed on him. In general, the teacher should be exempt from the 19th century model for the penitentiary prisoner.

• Do not seek reconciliation between the perpetrator and the perpetrator, as in the event of a repeat, the intimidator will confirm his "strength" and sovereignty, while the victim will be in a more unfavorable position, psychologically, if not physically.

The teacher has to deal with a cautionary incident of school bullying by devoting time to both parties - the victim and the victim - rather than being used only in discussions with the perpetrator. He should try to identify the problem by eliciting causes and incentives that have led the perpetrator to such behavior. The solutions it proposes should cover and be accepted by both sides of the parties involved.

In any case, however, such a climate should be cultivated in the school environment, so as not to neglect such incidents and the victim to trust the training staff for a smooth settlement. The best way to deal with the phenomenon is prevention. The school unit and teachers should, from the beginning of the school year, communicate and communicate to pupils and their parents the framework of the school code of conduct. At the same time, programs and projects related to the psychosocial education of pupils should be included in school planning.

Together with the pupils' learning obligations, reference should be made to their rights as pupils, but also to the framework for the protection of minors designated by the European Union (European Council, 2009). As far as educational reforms are concerned, there is a tendency to focus, not only on the form of education but also on the social context of the school, focusing on the role that human relations can play in adapting pupils (Chatzichristou et al., 2004). In summary, the following preventive actions are recommended in the school: • Discussion and briefing of teachers about their rights and behavioral rules in schools; • Finding appropriate ways of expressing aggression, such as sports and art, as well as appropriate a framework for the promotion of teamwork and fair play • Substantial and effective

supervision during breaks, especially in places where school bullying incidents are likely to occur students, such as toilets, warehouses, workshops, etc. • Communicating with parents about raising awareness and educating them about school bullying in order to be pregnant to detect symptoms if their children are involved in such incidents in some way • Encouraging parents to their active participation in the school life of their children and their cooperation with the educational staff • Care and taking appropriate actions for the smooth integration of newcomers or pupils with special needs • Per tyxi interdisciplinary programs related to the curriculum, to promote the mental health of students in order to enhance the feeling of cooperation and understanding among students • Training of teachers to the recognition and effective management of the phenomenon.

Social Dimensions

Of course, school bullying is not a phenomenon of virginity but a result of imitation of behaviors inherent in society. As mentioned in the Introduction of Unity, according to the Fried & Fried model (1996), community-society is the circle that encompasses and affects all other axes, assuming we live in an ideal culture where good behavior, peaceful coexistence and the democratic and peaceful resolution of differences (at least for today's Western civilization). However, the framework of setting up and preserving the values and sound standards of a society is in turn influenced by other axes, which may break its smooth recommendation, even if it is not institutionalized behavior. Such factors are the economic situation in a society, the policies that embrace the country, which according to its interests are constantly changing, as well as the implementation and support of policies from other societies-countries. In addition, school bullying, as an act of imitating adult behavior, should be explored both at the micro-level of the school and the family, analyzing the interpersonal relationships and the cooperation of the educational staff and the behavior of the parents both with each other and with children but also to the macro-level of our society, both through our excessive exposure to free media violence (movies, news, and even children's programs), as well as to established societies statements (violence between police and demonstrators, hooliganism, etc.), which emit wrong messages to young people. For example, hooliganism can be perceived as a heroic act, since one "defends" his team. These social reports are signs of annoyance, but also the result of exposure of young people to such incidents. This is a dynamic dimension in which we need to intervene in order to change the landscape and school life while, at the same time, school as an education institution should make a decisive contribution to the change of culture in society.

Conclusion

The phenomena of school violence and bullying at school are a multidimensional phenomenon that tends to spread internationally, with huge negative consequences for all citizens. In particular, the phenomenon of school bullying and violence was explored in terms of its legal, pedagogical, psychological and social dimensions. The aggression of minors in the form of school violence is the result of various factors that affect the minor, such as culture, community, school, family and personal issues. This framework can provide rich stimuli and favorable conditions for the ideal development (cognitive, psychological, emotional, etc.) of the individual or, on the contrary, even the deficient or problematic composition of a single axis (culture, community, school, family) of the frame can entangle the person and not allow him to cultivate all his possibilities.

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Theoretical article

SCHOOL BULLYING AND VICTIMIZATION. PREVENTION AT SCHOOL

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Abstract
School bullying is a frequent phenomenon at a global level, which has been known since ancient times. Almost until the end of the primary school, the majority of the students have fallen victim or involved in any way in any incident. Today, the new technology brought to light a new form of communication, the internet and created a new reality, the virtual reality. True life and digital life are simultaneously developing in some places contact. In this context, intimidation has found a new way of expression, and electronic bullying has been created. Punishment and insult can now be done via a computer or mobile and spread across the internet around the world. The study aimed to investigate the phenomenon of school bullying on teenage elementary and high school students and it's prevention at school and school level. Having in mind that in the majority of them 10-18 year olds has been victims of bullying at least once. Indeed, given that this group of people is the tomorrow's citizens of our society and those who will lead them in the future, their mental abuse must not leave any strangers.

Keywords: School Bullying, Victimization, Prevention, Intervention Models

The essence of School Bullying

School violence is a timeless phenomenon, but today, whether due to publicity given to incidents or because of the intensity of the phenomenon, it is increasingly concerned with modern society. The most prevalent period, most of which is manifested, is pre-puberty and puberty. The same period of life, however, is also the one that will affect the subsequent course and social behavior of man. School bullying and its new form - that of electronic bullying - are among the main expositors of violence at this age.

Definition of School Bulling

The definitions of school bullying are many. In 1989 Besag defined school intimidation as the repeated assault - physical, psychological, social or verbal - by individuals with power to individuals unable to resist, aiming at their own profit or reward (Besag, 1989). In 1994 Olweus expressed the view that school bullying is characterized by aggressive behavior or the purpose of negative behavior - repeated many times and at different times - in an interpersonal relationship between people of different strength (Olweus, 1994). The difference is that this time it is specified that individuals may be one or

more - both the perpetrators and the victims - and that the form of intimidation may be direct or indirect (Wang, Iannotti, Luk, Nansel, 2010).

Various surveys report the forms that bullying may have. So it can be physical, that is, use of body-to-body violence such as blows, kicks, kicks and / or robbing of property, or verbal intimidation such as offensive characterization and threats or harassment of sexual or racist. It may also be in the form of social intimidation, that is, the social exclusion of the individual or the instigation for social exclusion of the individual by groups despite his will or, finally, the dissemination of infamous information about the victim. The first two forms - the verbal and the physical - are considered direct forms of intimidation while the other two are indirect (Bjorkqvist, 1994). Indiscriminate bullying is also considered cyberbullying or electronic bullying or cyberbullying is internationally known.

The forms of intimidation seem to change with age. Thus the immediate manifestation of aggressive body-building behavior is more common in younger ages (Ayers, 1999). As people grow up and acquire more mental abilities and social abilities, the use of physical violence decreases and the verbal and social increases (Nishina, Juvonen, Witkow, 2005). Older children and adolescents - or even adults - seem to be more capable of indirect forms of intimidation. The mechanisms that lead to this treaty are probably the increase in physical abilities and the victim and the perpetrator - often changing balance - mental and psychological maturation, forced obedience to social rules, experience and integration into new social circles. In the same context, acquiring knowledge of social maneuvers and computer use leads to shifting intimidation to its non-direct forms, such as electronic bullying. However, it should be noted that there are studies that show that over time there are no significant changes in the type of aggression presented by the perpetrators. It appears that those who are intimidated generally have aggressive behavior without "specializing" in certain contexts of manifestation or time change (Craig, Harel-Fisch, Fogel-Grinvald, Dostaler, Hetland, Simons-Morton, et al, 2009).

The Example of Two Intervention Models

For a school policy to be effective bullying requires formal educational programs for pupils, parents, educational staff, and the management of school units. Moreover, according to the international data (Olweus, 1991), these programs would be ideal to organize themselves nationwide to benefit all schools in the country.

The proposal of Olweus

The one who proposed the most comprehensive action plan to suppress it school bullying is not - as expected - by Olweus. Since 1993, Olweus has begun to establish the "School Bullying Prevention Program / Cyberbullying Program" between pupils and pupils aged 5 to 15 (known as the "Olweus Bullying Intervention Program"), a long-term plan to change the school community school unit, classroom and individual level. This program aims to improve relationships between school children and to make school a safer and more positive environment for pupils' education and development.

Indeed, it is moving in the direction of reducing existing ones issues of intimidation between students and the prevention of any new ones (Olweus & Limber, 2007). In particular, Olweus dictates (Olweus & Limber, 2007):

a.   the setting up of a steering committee on school-based prevention bullying and cyberbullying;
b.   the anonymous completion of a questionnaire by the students for the assessment of the nature and extent of school bullying and cyber bullying;
c.   the necessary continuous training of the members of the committee and the staff of the school as a whole;
d. the development of a co-ordinate supervisory system;
e. adopting rules against school bullying and cyber-bullying;
f. Applying the appropriate effects, positive or negative, depending on the behavior of the pupils;

g. setting up staff discussion groups for the program themes the active participation of parents.

From the above components, time has made setting the most crucial clear rules and similar consequences for intimidating behavior, as well as close oversight of the Internet. The introduction of the rules is also proposed to be strengthened at the level order. At the class level, it is also advisable to organize regular meetings with students in order to increase their knowledge of school bullying and cyber bullying, as well as their empathy through their emotional understanding and experiential participation in any representations of intimidating incidents. In addition, Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (Olweus & Limber, 2007) is proposed. On an individual level, Olweus (Olweus & Limber, 2007) proposes serious discussions with the specific pupils who play the role of "dais" inside and outside school "in social networking", discussions with pupils and students they become victims of bullying and cyberbullying as well as further discussions with their parents' specific children.

It also proposes encouraging children to turn their energy, and their potential need for dominance and aggression in constructive activities, for example in forms of acceptable, legitimate aggression, such as martial arts and some predominantly "boyish" sports (Olweus, 1993).

If, nonetheless, some specific offenders are still exercising intimidation and cyber-bullying, their teachers can resort to moving them to another class or even to another school. This measure is particularly effective in the case of the "clickage", as - by spreading the victims in different environments - it breaks it apart (Olweus, 1993).

At community level, the program also includes membership of the community in the School Prevention Coordination Committee intimidation and cyberbullying, and broader co-operation between school and society to disseminate coordinated and joint anti-bullying messages and principles in the context of diverse community activities such as leisure activities, various clubs (cultural, dance, scouting, etc.) and Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (Olweus & Limber, 2007).

Olweus School Violence Prevention Program is set to application in Sweden, Norway, the United States, Canada, England, Mexico, Iceland, Germany and Croatia with impressive results, as there was a 20% to 70% reduction in intimidating incidents even in social media of minors.

The approach of Minton and O'Moore

Minton & O 'Moore suggests an approach that does not blame the perpetrator, but makes it clear how and to what extent his behavior affected the victim, gives him the opportunity to reflect on the consequences of his behavior on the others involved and suggests alternative ways of behaving for similar circumstances (Minton & O 'Moore, 2008).

Elimination or heavy punishment the perpetrator perceives as an unjust sanction by someone who has more power than himself, for example by him School principal. It may even seem to him to be analogous to his own misuse of power over the weaker one by the same victim, which could lead to the legitimating of intimidation in some way. In addition, heavy punishment fills the victim with anger and resentment on both the system and its representatives - the school, the professors, and the director - and the victim, to whom he can impute responsibility for the penalties he has suffered.

It is now commonplace to find that violence brings violence: like its violence victim of the victim brought the violence of the competent body against the perpetrator, so the second expression of violence would re-fuel the first by composing a vicious circle. So in order to break the cycle of violence, the reaction of those responsible to the abusive behavior of the perpetrator must be disarming - literally and metaphorically - and not the opposite.

According to O 'Moore, the key to every change in school framework is the teachers. Through individual operations, with the total behavior, but also through interaction with pupils and students teachers, teachers shape mentality, attitudes and values pupil population. Therefore, interventions against school bullying need to include special teacher training so that they can manage cyber bullying incidents (O'Moore, 2000).

And it is imperative that teachers realize that they have to they refute every incident that comes into their perception so as to assure students and teachers that their teachers can and do they face school bullying and veer-bullying with consistency and efficiency. Research attention is drawn to the fact that over the last decade in England, Italy and Ireland (O'Moore, 2000) violence more than half of primary school teachers and fewer than half of secondary school teachers were trying to intervene when a student or student was intimidated / cyber-bullied.

Thus, the primary objective of the interventions must be, according to O'Moore (O'Moore, 2000), sensitization of teachers on the large frequency of the phenomenon and the severity of its consequences. There is evidence (O 'Moore, 2000) that teachers tend to underestimate levels of intimidation / cyberbullying among their pupils and students and share with many other members of the wider community some widespread myths that prevail in the common consciousness around this flaming issue.

Another key objective is to teach the teachers to distinguish the signs of intimidation and victimization among the student population in order to bypass the precarious step of explicit reference and to deal directly with the incidents and the incident information of the specific parents. And it is very important to get in touch with the specific parents or guardians as soon as they see the first signs of anxiety so that parents and guardians have the time to investigate and eliminate any psychophonetic factors that contribute to the unwanted behavior of the child on time.

It has been mentioned that offenders and victims have low self-esteem. Next, in order to prevent school bullying and cyberbullying, it would be appropriate for teachers to be educated on how to promote the self-esteem of all pupils and students and prevent it from falling (O 'Moore, 2000).

According to Minton and O'Moore (2008), a complete program against him school bullying and cyberbullying needs to work both at the level of prevention of future incidents and at the level of resolving currents. A proper intervention in the direction of prevention starts with the information of pupils and students and the conceptual familiarization with all forms of school bullying and cyber bullying, even though the social networking means are easy to use throughout the school day. It continues with the cultivation to educators, parents and students - philosophers who profess against school bullying and cyber-bullying - which does not condemn the perpetrator, but the act - and the presentation of the phenomenon as loss STEPS whole community and not as a problem of particular expressions. It also includes information about its various theoretical approaches and the various approaches to it that each approach suggests.

Addressing current intimidating incidents requires uninterrupted operation of their reporting, investigation and filing mechanisms, and of course sanctions and support to the parties involved. Since victims and attendees are under great pressure from the group of peasants to silence the fact of intimidation, special encouragement is needed to prevent them from succumbing. Students who are the first to break this silence are entitled to credit, and their initiative to exemplify it is necessary. In addition to the tattoo of the traitor, especially the victims are afraid that any mention of the episode will retaliate against the perpetrators. They also do not trust school to be able to handle the issue discreetly and effectively in a way that will protect them.

In order to overcome these barriers, transparency is needed in reporting of intimidating incidents and a specific process, which will includes, according to Minton and O'Moore (2008), the following:

a. the coordination of strategies to combat schooling intimidation by a certain member of the staff - who prefers this role voluntarily - or by a long group.

b. talks to all pupils and students - at least every year quarter - to highlight the active action of the particular school against intimidation and to explicitly encourage the reporting of any such incident by victims and attendees to a teacher or teacher.

c. the observance of practices, that is to say, not only its careful hearing the prosecutor's report, but also its detailed record and archiving. Where appropriate, standard reference forms could also be used to facilitate categorization and archiving of incidents.

d. discussions / interviews with each involved separately and as soon as possible so that, when it comes to a clique, its members do not have it ability to consult for the reconstruction of their own version events and to prevent their involvement in any new incidents.

At discussions with the alleged criminals would not help; on the contrary, they also need to feel that their own side will be heard and taken into account in making the relevant decisions. And they do not need to be revealed to them by the person who reported the incident; what is needed is through the whole process of coping with the message that intimidating behaviors are not tolerated, at least in that particular school.

In cases where based on the degree of seriousness of the act and a system of discipline of the school is deemed appropriate, it would be legitimate to give an opportunity - but only one - to take responsibility for his / her act and to correct by adjusting his / her behavior to the rules of school discipline. Because it is likely that the perpetrator did not realize that his / her behavior is interpreted by third parties or, worse still, is perceived by the recipient as intimidating. For this reason, the perpetrator needs to be informed that the discussion under discussion is undoubtedly a case of intimidation in violation of school policy.

Minton & O 'Moore (2008) even suggests writing a written contract where the offender subscribes to the above. They also propose that other interviews be scheduled on a regular basis for the follow-up of the perpetrators.

d. Informing parents to open a dialogue with their child-perpetrator about the issue of school cyberbullying and with the guidance of his teachers to identify some stressful factors that perhaps strengthen his aggression. The parents of the victims, on the other hand, as soon as they become aware of what their children are, require the school to take immediate action to protect them. To reassure them, it is suggested that they regularly inform the school of the progress they are making in this direction. Of course, all this presupposes that the relationship between school and parents is healthy, cooperative rather than over-aggressive.

The key to the success of an intervention against school cyberbullying within the school is the harmonious co-operation with the school community as well as the provision of proper counseling to its members in the form of more guidance to staff and support for students (Minton & O'Moore, 2008).

Conclusion

It follows from the above that school bullying and cyberbullying is an international phenomenon that extends to all aspects of school life and threatens every member of the student population. Its consequences erode relations between classmates and classmates, as well as their values, and may even threaten the supreme good of life.

The incidents of school bullying are also on the agenda in the Greek school. This is also a critical phenomenon in Greece, as it can negatively affect the school performance of victims, their attendance at school and their participation in group school activities (Pateraki & Houndoumadi, 2001).

The school community is a social subset whose purpose is to help the child to be trained in his / her rights through the exercise of his / her rights and freedoms, but also by demonstrating respect for the rights of his / her classmates, and to protect them from their various forms of violation.

The phenomena of violence and school bullying at school seem to be are an inhibiting factor in the achievement of the above objective because they violate the rights associated with the social well-being and social and political freedoms of the child and on the other hand make the school inadequate with regard to its protective role. Thus, the fear and isolation of the victims, the anxiety and the fear of eyewitnesses in intimidating incidents that often lead to inertia, the lack of respect for the rights of others, and the need to obtain power and domination of the victims by causing incidents of victimization, appear to violate the right of the child to have an adequate level of life that allows for balanced physical, mental, mental, moral and social development. Still, with regard to the violation of children's rights, there are extreme cases where even the child's inherent right to life is violated.

As we understand, all of this has serious consequences for the school community. On the one hand, its cognitive and socializing roles are not served, while on the other hand the school community cannot provide the intended safety to students, the basic right of children.

Consequently, since school bullying and cyberbullying also afflicts our country, it is primarily necessary to investigate more precisely how students, teachers and parents perceive it. Stations and feelings of all of these could be explored more deeply using interviews (Pateraki & Houndoumadi, 2001). The Greek literature also lacks research on the specificities of victims and victims in Greek schools and about the short- and long-term consequences of school bullying and cyberbullying as they appear in our country (Pateraki & Houndoumadi, 2001).

But the most critical shortage is in the field of dealing with it phenomenon. It is urgent to introduce preventive policy for all schools, and will make full use of the power of the people in attendance. Of course, all of the above presupposes the employment of specially trained school psychologists in schools on a regular basis. And a necessary condition for the successful design and implementation of each intervention is the sensitization of responsible governmental, educational and all parents, to whom the most serious impact of the risk alert may be contributed by more and more scientists.

Similarly, internationally, school bullying and cyberbullying require a direct response from the school system in partnership with the family and the wider community, with the ultimate goal of restoring safety and healthy climate in school. Also, international literature is poor in qualitative research, and such surveys are needed to look deeper into the different aspects of the phenomenon.

The most widespread and most handy tool of our time is undoubtedly the internet. Therefore, the creation of more and more schools against school bullying can contribute to addressing the phenomenon. Already there are some such electronic pages. Olweus School Bullying Prevention Program, for example, is available free of charge on the Internet for information and guidance from relevant stakeholders. Short films available to children are available on YouTube; for example, youtube.com/user/Beat bullying is exposing England's attempt to fight school bullying through the internet; the page emblem sounds like a repository for the future: attitudes, changing behaviors, "while on the relevant school bullying bulletin site, www.beatbullying.org, it is explicitly stated that the target is a society where intimidation is not accepted. Short films from the most advanced in the fight against school bullying and cyber-bullying countries, such as Sweden, are short films; for example, there are many such films at

youtube.com/user/Friends-Mot Mobbning (where mobbning is Swedish term for school bullying and mot means against). Since the majority of children have access to the Internet, as a rule, they are very helpful in informing them and other such websites in other languages, valid and accountable by the competent bodies of each state.

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Theoretical article

FORMS AND TYPES OF VICTIMIZATION AT SCHOOL

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Abstract
School bullying is a frequent phenomenon at a global level, which has been known since ancient times. Almost until the end of the primary school, the majority of the students have fallen victim or involved in any way in any incident. The main aim of early research on quality in the social interactions of preschool children is not only to examine the developmental pathways of unpleasant interactions that are manifested, but also to identify the causal factors contributing to their manifestation. Responding to such incidents when they first occur gives the possibility of early intervention. It has been found that the involvement of children in victimization processes is responsible for the occurrence of more serious difficulties in adult life, such as delinquency, professional failure, use of prohibited substances. The study aimed to investigate the phenomenon of victimization at school and school level. Having in mind that in the majority of them 10-18 year olds has been victims of bullying at least once. Indeed, given that this group of people is the tomorrow's citizens of our society and those who will lead them in the future, their mental abuse must not leave any strangers.

Keywords: Victimization, School Bullying, Violence, Aggression

Definition of Victimization

In addition to the term "school bullying", the term "victimization" is often used. The concept of victimization is similar to that of school bullying in the presence of a target child. However, there are many substantial differences between these two concepts. Basically, the term victimization is used when our attention is mainly directed at the recipient of the actions. The term "school bullying" highlights the quality of the interactions taking into account the entire group of peasants involved, namely the attacker, receiver and observer-present. The concept of victimization differs from the concept of school bullying in that the use of the term "victimization" does not include the concept of repetition of acts, that is, that aggressive acts should be routinely and repeatedly directed towards a child, as is the case in school bullying processes.

For the use of the term "victimization" it is sufficient to observe only one incident. For the use of the term "victimization", it is also not necessary to see an inequality of power between the attacker and the recipient. This means that every child who receives an aggressive act is automatically perceived as a victim and we say he is victimized, regardless of whether there is or there is no inequality of power among the persons involved. For example, a child is involved in playing with his orchestras, e.g. builds a building with bricks, and in pre-school age in victimization processes results in poor development of social skills and positive social relationships (Rose-Krasnor, 1997), at some point starts to fly the blocks

or spoil the construction. His classmates can urge him to stop without success. Then the cops decide to exclude him from the game and thus victimize him. In this case, we use the term victimization as the pupil has been excluded from the play of peasants without taking into account the cause that led to this exclusion. It is a general term and an extended term.

Theoretical Approach of Victimization. Development Pattern of Stimulating Behavior

Björkqvist et al. (Björkqvist, Lagerspetz, Kaukiainen, 1992) developed a model that explains the development of physical and social aggression from the first childhood to puberty. Researchers underline that aggressive behavior follows a normative course and that the manifestation of one or another form of aggression depends on the developmental stage of the children. According to the above model, physical aggression is the primary form of aggressive behavior, which reaches its climax at about three years (Côté, Vaillancourt, Nagin & Tremblay, 2007). Preschool children use physical aggression to fulfill their goals and meet their personal needs because they have limited skills. As their cognitive, social and linguistic skills gradually develop, direct aggression (mainly physical) is gradually decreasing, while indirect forms of aggression are more common. In the past, it has been pointed out that indirect aggression is a sophisticated form of behavior manifested more frequently by older children (Björkqvist et al., 1992).

Empirical data show the progression of aggression. According to the developmental model of Björkqvist et al., Physical aggression and, more generally, its immediate manifestation, is decreasing towards the end of childhood. On the contrary, social aggression, and especially indirect forms of aggression, are predominant in middle-aged children. The emergence of direct physical aggression is common in pre-school settings (Underwood, 2003). However, the majority of middle-aged children rely more on indirect forms of intimidating behavior (Côté, Vaillancourt, LeBlanc, Nagin & Tremblay, 2006). Despite the normative course and prevalence of indirect aggression among older children, it has been observed that a small percentage of infant children also manifest indirect forms of social aggression (Ostrov & Keating, 2004). Preschool children manifest social aggression in a different way than older children. The younger children are expressed in a simpler and more direct way and their aggression is related to events of the present, e.g. a child immediately warns his friend that he will interrupt their friendly relationship if he does not give him a toy. Conversely, older children exhibit aggression in relationships using more sophisticated and complex ways, while referring to events that have occurred in the past (Crick, Casas & Ku, 1999). The research carried out by Crick, Ostrov, Burr, Jansen-Yeh, Cullerton-Sen & Ralston (2006) has shown that both boys and girls with social aggression in pre-school age still exhibit it with relative stability, age.

Forms and Types of Victimization. Direct and Indirect Sculptural Education Forms

Bjorkvist, Lagerspetz and Kaukiainen (1992) distinguished two forms of aggression: direct and indirect. They define direct aggression as a straightforward conflict, while indirect aggression as a behavior manifested in an oblique and "covert" way. In indirect forms of aggression, the main instrument used by the attacker to achieve his goal is to synergize with one or more individuals (Garandeau & Cillesen, 2006). There are four ways in which bullying behaves: commentary; pulling hair, pushing, blowing, and social, ie damaging the social relationships of omelets eg. the interruption of friendly relations, the social isolation of children, the spread of malignant rumors; cyber bullying, e.g. emails, mobile phone or social media with deceptive and threatening content. The online form of school bullying concerns mainly older children rather than preschool children. Both verbal and physical aggression is manifested more often in a direct manner, while aggression of relations manifests itself both indirectly and indirectly. For example, the exclusion of a cohort from a toy is a direct form of social aggression, while spreading malicious comments is an indirect form of aggression. Relationship aggression, such as the spread of rumors, is a "sophisticated" and covert way of embarrassment (Brendgen, Dionne, Girard, Boivin, Vitaro & Perruse, 2005). The manifestation of indirect and disguised forms of aggression brings the same unpleasant effects as direct forms. As far as the

psychological effects are concerned, physical, verbal and social aggression bring equally significant unpleasant results to recipients.

In general, we can distinguish two basic forms of aggressive behavior in the relationship of the peasants: reactive aggression and unprovoked-contributory. Reactive aggression occurs in situations where the person feels threatened or caused by an event and is caused by feelings of frustration and anger. It is described as a behavior characterized by impulse, anger and loss of control. On the contrary, the concept of unprovoked aggression is based on the theory of social learning and is a behavior by nature. This behavior is defined and driven by the desire to achieve a goal and the expected benefits that flow from it. Unprovoked aggression is a behavior that motivates sovereignty and prevalence for it is deliberate and deliberate. Despite their superficial similarities, these two forms of aggressive expression, reactive and unprovoked, are two distinct forms of behavior. It has been found that children who tend to express reactive aggression are more likely to be rejected by their group of offspring and become aggressive victims, while children who show more unprovoked aggression are more likely to become involved as attackers in early school.

First Event of School Education

In general, first friendships and social relationships are created during pre-school age. However, for some children, first relationships with their cohorts may not always be positive (Hay, Payne & Chadwick, 2004). Perry, Williard and Perry (1990) have found that aggressive children with their entrance to pre-school education are indiscriminately aggressive. At first, the attackers are not yet able to adequately distinguish the "ideal goal", ie to distinguish those children who have a disgust and dissuasive behavior, so the number of pre-school children that are victimized is increased (Hanish & Guerra, 2000). Over time, the attackers learn, mainly from the way the recipients react, to choose "ideal" target children. Thus, in the beginning an increased number of children may even experience some victimization experience. However, over time, only a small number of children remain on a steady basis as attackers. Those who have been struggling for a long time to create and maintain positive relationships with the minor are at risk of becoming a constant victim of attacks (Hanish, Martin, Fabes, Leonard & Herzog, 2005). This means that the victims accept the unjust attack of their classmates and in addition they experience the rejection by the team of healers (Hawker & Boulton, 2001). During pre-school age, children learn to conclude and maintain friendships, form a personal opinion about which classmates they are fond of or unfamiliar, form gambling groups with stable members, take their place in the group, and develop social skills. Five-year-old children have more mutual friendships, they are members of friendly networks, they develop more social play and spend more time with minor children compared to younger children (Coplan & Rubin, 1998). The complexity of social relations is also increasing. Large infants, in relation to young infants, form larger, more homogenized and cohesive social networks (Strayer & Santos, 1996). Young infants develop less in stable social relationships and therefore qualitative characteristics of interpersonal relationships such as social acceptance, mutual friendship, social play are less prominent in children under five. Thus, victimization relationships begin to develop in infancy (in children over the age of five) and become stable at about the end of preschool education (Hanish et al., 2004). It is a fact that with age and as children develop at the level of development, the rate of intimidation-victimization is decreasing (Smith, Madsen & Moody, 1999). There are various explanations for reducing bullying incidence in older children (Sutton, Smith & Swettenham, 1999). First of all, younger children experience higher rates of victimization because they have not yet acquired the necessary social and interpersonal skills to cope with the attacks they receive. Secondly, the increased incidence of bullying incidents recorded in preschool children may be fictitious and due to the way data is collected. One of the most common methods of data collection is structured interviewing of children. It is well known that preschool children, due to linguistic and cognitive

constraints, have a considerable difficulty in understanding precisely the concept of intimidation as perceived by older children, so the reliability of their answers is dubious (Sutton, Smith & Swettenham, 1999).

The Victim Circle

Floyd (1985) and Greenbaum (1988) have flagged intimidation as one Intergenerational problem. In other words, school bullies are usually victims of domestic violence. (Floyd, 1985; Greenbaum, 1988). Moreover, the above researchers suggest that there is a victim and victim circle, which is quite common in cases of social violence. Perry, Kusel & Perry (1988), studied the relationship between victimization and aggression, claiming that these two elements have a direct correlation. That is, some of the victims of the most extreme intimidation are also offenders characterized by extreme aggression.

It follows from the above that school bullying and cyberbullying is an international phenomenon that extends to all aspects of school life and threatens every member of the student population. Its consequences erode relations between classmates and classmates, as well as their values, and may even threaten the supreme good of life.

The incidents of school bullying are also on the agenda in the Greek school. This is also a critical phenomenon in Greece, as it can negatively affect the school performance of victims, their attendance at school and their participation in group school activities (Houndoumadi & Pateraki, 2001).

The school community is a social subset whose purpose is to help the child to be trained in his / her rights through the exercise of his / her rights and freedoms, but also by demonstrating respect for the rights of his / her classmates, and to protect them from their various forms of violation.

The phenomena of violence and school bullying at school seem to be are an inhibiting factor in the achievement of the above objective because they violate the rights associated with the social well-being and social and political freedoms of the child and on the other hand make the school inadequate with regard to its protective role. Thus, the fear and isolation of the victims, the anxiety and the fear of eyewitnesses in intimidating incidents that often lead to inertia, the lack of respect for the rights of others, and the need to obtain power and domination of the victims by causing incidents of victimization, appear to violate the right of the child to have an adequate level of life that allows for balanced physical, mental, mental, moral and social development. Still, with regard to the violation of children's rights, there are extreme cases where even the child's inherent right to life is violated.

As we understand, all of this has serious consequences for the school community. On the one hand, its cognitive and socializing roles are not served, while on the other hand the school community cannot provide the intended safety to students, the basic right of children.

Consequently, since school bullying and cyberbullying also afflicts our country, it is primarily necessary to investigate more precisely how students, teachers and parents perceive it. Stations and feelings of all of these could be explored more deeply using interviews (Houndoumadi & Pateraki, 2001). The Greek literature also lacks research on the specificities of victims and victims in Greek schools and about the short- and long-term consequences of school bullying and cyberbullying as they appear in our country (Houdoumadis & Pateraki, 2001).

But the most critical shortage is in the field of dealing with it phenomenon. It is urgent to introduce preventive policy for all schools (Psalti & Konstantinou, 2007), and will make full use of the power of the people in attendance. Of course, all of the above presupposes the employment of specially trained school psychologists in schools on a regular basis. And a necessary condition for the successful design and implementation of each intervention is the sensitization of responsible governmental, educational and all parents, to whom the most serious impact of the risk alert may be contributed by more and more scientists.

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The most widespread and most handy tool of our time is undoubtedly the internet. Therefore, the creation of more and more schools against school bullying can contribute to addressing the phenomenon. Already there are some such electronic pages. Olweus School Bullying Prevention Program (Olweus & Limber, 2007), for example, is available free of charge on the Internet for information and guidance from relevant stakeholders. Short films available to children are available on YouTube; for example, youtube.com/user/Beat bullying is exposing England's attempt to fight school bullying through the internet; the page emblem sounds like a repository for the future: attitudes, changing behaviors, "while on the relevant school bullying bulletin site, www.beatbullying.org, it is explicitly stated that the target is a society where intimidation is not accepted. Short films from the most advanced in the fight against school bullying and cyber-bullying countries, such as Sweden, are short films; for example, there are many such films at youtube.com/user/Friends-Mot Mobbning (where möbbning is Swedish term for school bullying and mot means against). Since the majority of children have access to the Internet, as a rule, they are very helpful in informing them and other such websites in other languages, valid and accountable by the competent bodies of each state.

Conclusion

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Consequently, since school bullying afflicts all countries, it is primarily necessary to investigate more precisely how students, teachers and parents perceive it.

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Theoretical article

ПСИХОЛОГИЧЕСКА ХАРАКТЕРИСТИКА НА ДЕЦАТА В НАЧАЛНА УЧИЛИЩНА ВЪЗРАСТ

PSYCHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF CHILDREN IN PRIMARY SCHOOL AGE

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Резюме

Началната училищна възраст е специален период от живота на детето. Възрастовите характеристики на развитието на децата в начална училищна възраст са обект на изследване на много учени (Л. Айдарова, Л. Виготски, В. Цукерман, Д. Елконин и др.). Началната училищна възраст обхваща периода от 6-7 до 10-11 години (Zagvozdkin, 2011, p. 44). Под начална училищна възраст се разбира възрастовият период, когато образователната дейност става водеща за детето, а основната умствена формация е вътрешната позиция на ученика и способността му да учи (Gurevich, 2010, p. 17). На всяка възраст детето взаимодейства с другите по различни начини, отношенията, които се развиват между него и най-близката му социална среда на определен възрастов етап, играят важна роля в психическото му развитие (Volkov, 2013, p. 5).

Ключови думи: Психично развитие, начална училищна възраст, поведение, училище, развитие на речта.

Abstract

Primary school age is a special period in a child's life. The age characteristics of the development of children in primary school age are the subject of research by many scientists (Aidarova, Vygotsky, Zuckerman, Elkonin and others). The primary school age covers the period from 6-7 to 10-11 years (Zagvozdkin, 2011, p. 44). Primary school age is understood as the age period when the educational activity becomes leading for the child, and the main mental formation is the inner position of the student and his ability to learn (Gurevich, 2010, p. 17).At any age, the child interacts with others in different ways, the relationships that develop between him and his immediate social environment at a certain age, play an important role in his mental development.

Key word: Mental development, elementary school age, behavior, school, speech development.

Изследването на психическото развитие на учениците в началното училище включва не само описание на наблюдаваните факти, но и тяхното тълкуване. В исторически план са се развили две теории за психическото развитие на човека: 1) теорията за сенсуализма (основана на социално учене); 2) теорията за преформизма (основана на вродени инстинкти).

Първата теория (теорията за сенсуализма) е свързана с името на английския философ от 17 век Джон Лок. Поддръжниците на тази теория вярват, че в поведението на човека няма нищо вродено, наследствеността не играе никаква роля за развитието на психиката и поведението на детето, а околната среда се разглежда като основен фактор за психичното развитие (Zagvozdkin, 2011, p. 19).

Втората теория (теорията за преформизма) се основава на възгледите на френския философ от 18 век. Жан-Жак Русо. Поддръжниците на тази теория вярват, че основните психични свойства на човека са присъщи на самата природа на човека. Психичното развитие, според тази теория, се разглежда като съзряване и реализиране на естествените наклонности на човека.

Тези теории поставят основата за развитието на нови теории, при които различни фактори на психичното развитие на детето се разглеждат по различен начин: теорията на конвергенцията; етологична теория; теория на привързаността; психоаналитична теория; епигенетична теория; теория на когнитивното развитие; теория на социалното учене; културно-историческа теория; теория за психическото развитие на Д. Елконин (Baryshnikova, 2018).

Началната училищна възраст е специален период от живота на детето, който се появява сравнително наскоро в психологията на развитието. Възрастовите характеристики на развитието на децата в начална училищна възраст са обект на изследване на много учени (Айдарова, Виготски, Цукерман, Елконин и др.). Има няколко подхода към периодизацията на психическото развитие на детето (Блонски, Фройд, Колбърг, Ериксон, Пиаже и др.). Според възрастовата периодизация, базирана на водещите дейности на психолога Д. Елконин, началната училищна възраст обхваща периода от 6-7 до 10-11 години (Zagvozdkin, 2011, p. 44).

Под *начална училищна възраст* се разбира възрастовият период, когато образователната дейност става водеща за детето, а основната умствена формация е вътрешната позиция на ученика и способността му да учи (Gurevich, 2010, p. 17). Л. Виготски и Д. Елконин, описвайки възрастовите периоди, отбелязват три основни характеристики на тази възраст:

- социалната ситуация на развитие;

- ръководене на дейности;

- свързани с възрастта психични новообразувания (Volkov, 2013, p. 4).

Тъй като на всяка възраст детето взаимодейства с другите по различни начини, отношенията, които се развиват между него и най-близката му социална среда на определен възрастов етап, играят важна роля в психическото му развитие (Volkov, 2013, p. 5). Социалната ситуация на развитието на началните ученици е свързана с характеристиките на училищното образование. С влизането си в училище по-малките ученици придобиват определен социален статус, придобиват социално значими отговорности, за изпълнението, на които получават обществена оценка. Така в начална училищна възраст социалната ситуация на развитие се превръща в ситуацията на учене, т.е. образователна дейност (Zagvozdkin, 2011, p. 115). Образователната дейност е систематично и целенасочено усвояване на знания, методи за действие и развитие на самия ученик. Тя е задължителна, целенасочена, социално значима и систематизирана.

В начална училищна възраст (7–11-годишна) водещата дейност е образователната дейност, в която учениците с помощта на учител овладяват правилата и методите на образователните действия, развиват се интелектуални и когнитивни способности. Целта на обучението за по-малките ученици е процесът на тяхната собствена промяна, а резултатът от тази дейност е промяна в тяхната личност и саморазвитие. Учените отбелязват, че за деца на възраст 6-7 години, които тепърва започват да се учат, учебната дейност не става веднага водеща, „съзнателно ръководена" и целите на обучението не се превръщат веднага в личните им цели. Формирането на образователни дейности при по-малките ученици включва развиване на умения за учене: да може да приеме учебната задача; да намери начини за решаването й; да избере правилните средства; да контролира стъпките си; да оцени получените резултати (Volkov, 2013).

Освен учебната дейност, която постепенно се превръща във водеща, в този възрастов период се проявяват още: трудовата, игровата дейност, общуването, творчеството и др. Всички те имат развиващ характер (Mavrodiev, S.,2019, p. 288).

За успешното формиране на образователната дейност при по-малките ученици е необходима положителна мотивация. За тези ученици най-значими са външните мотиви, които не са свързани с образователния процес, а са свързани само с неговия резултат (ориентация към похвала или оценки). По-малките ученици осъзнават социалното значение на ученето, че се нуждаят от знания за в бъдеще и искат да бъдат умни, културни и развити. В първите дни от престоя си в училище те имат положително отношение към учебните дейности, което създава благоприятни условия за започване на обучение.

Образователните мотиви са свързани със съдържанието и процеса на обучение, с овладяването на метода на дейност. Развитието на образователните и познавателни мотиви при по-малките ученици зависи от нивото на познавателните потребности, с което те идват в училище, от нивото на съдържание и организация на образователния процес. Появата и поддържането на познавателен интерес при по-малките ученици е свързано с игра и емоционални методи за организиране на учебните занятия. Използването на такива техники, както и забавен учебен материал, съвременни методи на обучение и възпитание, дава възможност за успешно формиране на положителни стабилни образователни и когнитивни мотивации при по-малките ученици. Образователната дейност на по-малките ученици трябва да бъде насочена не към резултата, а към установяване на метода за лесно усвояване.

Първоначално малките ученици все още не са в състояние самостоятелно да формулират и решават образователни проблеми, поради което в началото на обучението тази функция се изпълнява от учителя. Отговорността за пълното усвояване на цялата система от образователни действия от всеки от учениците е преди всичко на учителя (Baryshnikova, 2018).

При много от по-малките ученици не са формирани контролни действия, липсва им волята да не се разсейват по време на урока. Учителят е този, който през целия период на обучението учи по-малките ученици да управляват поведението си, да планират и контролират действията си и да развиват психичните си процеси. По-малките ученици в началото на първата година на обучение все още се учат да определят дали са постигнали резултат или не. През този период от време функцията за оценяване се изпълнява от учителя.

В начална училищна възраст игровата дейност, въпреки че придобива спомагателна стойност, влияе върху развитието на личността на по-малкия ученик, неговите двигателни способности и личностни качества. В началната училищна възраст обаче играта се използва като средство за организиране на образователни и трудови дейности. Настъпват значителни промени в съдържанието на игровата дейност на по-малките ученици. Сега те се интересуват не само от процеса на играта, но и от нейния резултат (Volkov, 2013).

Образователната дейност в начална училищна възраст е тясно свързана с работата. Участието на по-малките ученици в трудова дейност развива не само трудови и общообразователни умения, но и формира морални качества. Важна роля за формирането на положително отношение към работата играе организацията на колективната работа, която се провежда в уроците по трудово обучение. Формирането на положително отношение към работата при по-малките ученици зависи от учителя и от семейството.

Образователните, игровите и работните дейности допринасят за формирането на важни психични новообразувания при по-малките ученици. Новообразуванията са нови свойства и качества, които се формират в края на всеки преходен период (Zagvozdkin, 2011, p. 66).

Началната училищна възраст е важен възрастов период, през който се случват значителни промени в личната сфера на учениците от началното училище, тяхната емоционална, когнитивна, психическа и физиологична сфера на дейност. Основните характеристики на началната училищна възраст са важни за овладяване на образователната дейност и осигуряват умственото развитие на учениците през следващия възрастов етап.

Познаването от учителите и психолозите на характеристиките на психичните процеси и личността на по-малките ученици е важно, тъй като те създават основата за пълното включване на по-малките ученици в различни видове дейности и най-вече в образователни дейности. В началната училищна възраст тялото продължава интензивно да узрява, по-специално се развива централната нервна система, увеличава се теглото на челните лобове на мозъка, които играят важна роля за формирането на висши психични функции: мислене, въображение, реч (Vygotsky, 2017, p. 13).

Вниманието на учениците от начална училищна възраст се характеризира с малък обем (само два или три обекта), нестабилност, слабо разпределение и слаба превключваемост от един обект на друг (Vygotsky, 2017, p. 55). Учениците от първи и втори клас не знаят как да насочат вниманието си към това, което е основно и съществено в една история, картина или изречение. По-малките ученици са по-склонни да бъдат разсеяни, ако изпълняват прости, но монотонни дейности, отколкото при решаване на сложни проблеми, изискващи използването на различни методи и техники на работа. Случва се по-малките ученици, когато не разбират учебния материал да се разсейват, тъй като им е трудно да се съсредоточат върху непонятен сложен материал.

По време на началния училищен период обемът на вниманието при по-малките ученици нараства особено рязко, повишава се стабилността на вниманието, развиват се умения за превключване и разпределение. До трети-четвърти клас учениците стават способни да поддържат и изпълняват произволно зададена програма от действия за дълго време (Baryshnikova, 2018). Ако в началото на обучението преобладаващият тип при по-малките ученици е неволното внимание, то до края на началното училище вниманието им става доброволно, те развиват способността да се фокусират дълго върху обекта на дейност, да контролират вниманието си, да го превключват от един обект на друг.

В началото на обучението сред първокласниците преобладава неволната *памет*. Те не притежават техниките на семантично запаметяване (Baryshnikova, 2018). Първокласниците запомнят по-лесно ярки, необичайни неща, които правят емоционално впечатление. По-добре запомнят визуалния материал и много по-лошо - словесния, по-бързо запомнят конкретна информация, събития, лица, предмети, факти, отколкото дефиниции, описания, обяснения. По този начин при по-малките ученици визуално-образната памет е по-развита от словесно-логическата памет.

По-малките ученици все още са относително импулсивни пропорционално на възрастта си. Децата, които харесват процеса на обучение, умеят да запомнят информация по-добре от своите другари. Интензивността на запаметяването зависи не само от възможностите на детето, но и от нивото на усилията на учителя да направи информацията възможно най-интересна и достъпна (Smirnov, 2012).

При 10-11 годишните деца, механичната памет постепенно се допълва и се заменя с логическа; непосредственото запаметяване с течение на времето става опосредствано; непроизволното запаметяване се превръща в произволно. Това се дължи на факта, че, порастайки, детето се научава да мисли, да разсъждава, да разграничава необходимата информация от просто интересната информация (Nemov, 2013).

С развитието и усъвършенстването на писането (това се случва до трети клас), децата овладяват опосредстваното запаметяване, използвайки символни средства (Berezina, 2014). При тях идеално е развита неволевата памет, ярките, емоционално наситените и значими за детето събития и информация от неговия живот. Тези събития могат да бъдат свързани с всичко, независимо дали са добри или лоши.

В начална училищна възраст паметта на децата обикновено се развива в две посоки: произволна и смислена. Отличителна черта на по-малките ученици е, че те се опитват да

възпроизведат научената информация дословно, без да я интерпретират. Затова на този възрастов етап е важно да се следи не само детето да научи необходимата информация, но и как го прави. Много е важно ученикът в началното училище да разбира това, за което говори.

Една от важните задачи на учителя в началното училище е да научи децата да използват определени мнемонични техники. Това е на първо място разделянето на текста на смислови части (обикновено измисляне на заглавия за тях, съставяне на план), проследяване на основните смислови линии, подчертаване на смисловите думи, връщане към вече прочетени части от текста, за да се изясни тяхното съдържание, припомняйки мислено прочетената част и възпроизвеждайки на глас целия материал, както и рационални техники за запаметяване. Така осмисления материал лесно се възпроизвежда (Bolotova, 2012).

Паметта при по-малките ученици, подобно на вниманието, се развива в образователната дейност.

В началната училищна възраст настъпват значителни промени в развитието на *възприятието*. Възприятието на първокласниците все още не е достатъчно диференцирано. Те бъркат букви или цифри, разпознават обекти само в обичайното им положение, понякога пропускат или добавят ненужни елементи. На тази възраст се отбелязва голяма емоционалност на възприятието, т.е. добре се възприема само визуално, ярко и живо (Baryshnikova, 2018).

Въпреки факта, че учениците на тази възраст различават форма, цвят, звуци на речта, те все още не могат да се концентрират и внимателно да разгледат всички характеристики на предмета, да подчертаят основното и съществения в него. Следователно в началното училище учениците се учат целенасочено и фрагментарно да изследват предмета. По-малките ученици се учат да забелязват особеностите на възприемания обект.

Към края на началната училищна възраст, възприятието при учениците става синтезиращо, т.е. те започват да установяват връзки между елементите на възприеманото (Volkov, 2013, p. 51). Огромно постижение в развитието на възприятието на учениците на тази възраст е установяването на връзки между пространство, време и количество, преходът от неволно възприятие към целенасочено наблюдение на предмети или обекти, селективност по съдържание, а не по външна привлекателност.

Един от най-важните психични процеси при по-малките ученици е *въображението*. В процеса на образователната дейност началните ученици получават много описателна информация, която изисква непрекъснато да пресъздават образи, без които е невъзможно да се разбере и усвои учебния материал. Отначало въображението им не е достатъчно развито. В начална училищна възраст творческото въображение започва да се развива като способност за създаване на нови образи въз основа на съществуващи идеи. Така въображението на по-малките ученици става все по-управляемо.

Мисленето е от първостепенно значение за психическото развитие в начална училищна възраст. В първи и втори клас визуално-образното мислене е доминиращо. Това означава, че за да извършват умствени операции (сравнение, обобщение, анализ, логическо заключение), по-малките ученици трябва да разчитат на визуален материал. Мисленето на първокласниците е свързано с личния им опит.

Ж. Пиаже, който изучава етапите на развитие на детското мислене, установява, че мисленето на 6-7 годишно дете се характеризира с две основни характеристики: 1) липсата на формиране на идеи за постоянството на основните свойства на нещата; 2) невъзможността да се вземат предвид няколко характеристики на обект наведнъж и да се сравнят техните промени - центриране (учениците са склонни да обръщат внимание само на една характеристика на обекта, която е най-очевидна за тях, като пренебрегват останалите) (Baryshnikova, 2018).

Основната характеристика на този етап е способността да се използват логически правила и принципи по отношение на конкретен, визуален материал. Впоследствие в процеса на обучение те развиват способността да мислят не в образи, а в концепции (Volkov, 2013).

Развитието на *речта* е свързано с развитието на мисленето при учениците от началното училище. Речевата дейност на по-малките ученици се развива в процеса на общуване с възрастни и връстници. Речта при първокласниците е компресирана и неволна. През първата половина на годината в училище първокласниците се учат да слушат учителя и да следят действията му. Впоследствие те се запознават с думата, с речта като обект на познание. Те развиват умения за четене, овладяват писането, граматиката и правописа. В бъдеще устната реч започва да се развива, обхватът на нейното приложение се разширява. Тази форма на речта се развива постепенно в процеса на обучение, когато учителят изисква от по-малките ученици пълен, подробен отговор на поставения въпрос. Писмената реч на по-малките ученици е по-бедна от устната реч, по-монотонна, но в същото време по-подробна. На тази възраст изчезва егоцентричната реч, характерна за предучилищната възраст, т.е. по-малките ученици спират да казват на глас какво правят. До края на четвърти клас речта на началните ученици става разнообразна по интонация и ритъм, произволна, по-подробна, монологична и речникът се увеличава. По-малките ученици се отличават с емоционална впечатлителност, отзивчивост към всичко необичайно и ярко (Volkov, 2013, p. 54).

Емоциите при първокласниците са неволни и се откриват в някои импулсивни реакции (смях в урока, нарушаване на дисциплината). До втори или трети клас обаче учениците стават по-сдържани в изразяването на своите емоции и чувства и започват да ги контролират. Моторните импулсивни реакции, характерни за децата в предучилищна възраст, постепенно се заменят с речеви. Като цяло настроението на по-малките ученици е жизнерадостно, енергично и весело. Емоционално стабилните ученици от начална училищна възраст обикновено имат положително отношение към ученето. Основно емоциите на по-малките ученици се определят от дейността, нейния успех, оценката на учителя и отношението на околните.

Учебната дейност поражда много нови *чувства* у по-малките ученици. Промяната в социалния статус кара по-малките ученици да се чувстват горди, радостни и доволни. Заедно с тези чувства се появява и чувство на безпокойство от това да не забравят нещо за уроците, да не закъснеят за час. Усещането за безпокойство постепенно изчезва поради пристрастяването на по-малките ученици към училищния режим, новите правила и отговорности. До трети клас у децата интензивно се формират чувствата на другарство, приятелство и колективизъм. В началото на обучението по-малките ученици почти не сдържат чувствата си, но постепенно се научават да се държат сдържано в класната стая, контролирайки поведението си. Те не винаги могат да са наясно със своите чувства и да разбират чувствата на другите хора. Не винаги могат да възприемат правилно мимиките, изразяващи едно или друго чувство. Понякога тълкуват погрешно изражението на чувствата на другите, което води до неадекватната им реакция. Учат се да крият чувството си на срам и да сдържат гнева си. Тяхната агресивност е по-изразена във вербална форма, те не се бият, а се нагрубяват и дразнят.

Чувствата при деца в начална училищна възраст се развиват в тясна връзка с *волята*. В образователния процес се налагат различни изисквания към по-малките ученици. Необходимостта да се подчиняват на такива изисквания се превръща в най-важния фактор за трениране на волята. Поведението на първокласниците често се характеризира с дезорганизираност, липса на организация и липса на дисциплина. Те нямат достатъчно сила на волята да се сдържат, да не говорят по време на урока. Тяхното волево поведение до голяма степен зависи от инструкциите и контрола на възрастните. По време на началния период на обучение по-малките ученици се научават да управляват своето поведение и в края на първата година от обучението дисциплинираното поведение става привично за тях.

Способността на по-малките ученици да регулират поведението си допринася за развитието на способността да контролират собствените си действия, благодарение на което се развива *самооценката*. Развитието на самооценката при по-малките ученици зависи от академичните им постижения. Повечето от първокласниците оценяват работата си в класната стая и нивото на получените знания доста високо, те са доволни от себе си и от успеха си. Във втори клас обаче самооценката на учебната дейност рязко намалява за много ученици, а в трети клас отново се повишава. За да се развие адекватна самооценка у по-малките ученици, е необходимо да се създаде атмосфера на психологически комфорт в класната стая. Това означава, че учителят не трябва да оценява личността на по-малките ученици, а резултата от тяхната образователна дейност, да сравнява постиженията на по-малките ученици с техните постижения от предишни етапи и да насърчава дори малки успехи в обучението. Стилът на семейното възпитание е от голямо значение за развитието на самооценката при по-малките ученици. Учениците със занижена или ниска самооценка често развиват чувство за собствена непълноценност и дори безнадеждност. Самооценката на по-малките ученици става по-адекватна и диференцирана едва към края на началното училище.

Личността на ученика се формира в *общуването*. Комуникацията с връстници и възрастни спомага за психологическото развитие при учениците на възраст 6-11г. (Volkov, 2013). Още от първите дни на престоя си в училище първокласниците се включват в процеса на междуличностно взаимодействие със съученици и учители. През цялата начална училищна възраст това взаимодействие има определена динамика и модели на развитие. Системата на взаимоотношения дете-учител на тази възраст става централна, тъй като именно от учителя идва оценката на поведението и действията на ученика, именно чрез учителя по-малките ученици възприемат своите съученици. В начална училищна възраст учениците все още не са изградили собствени нагласи и оценки както за себе си, така и за своите съученици; те безусловно приемат и усвояват оценките на учителя, който е техният авторитет. Учителят оценява успехите и неуспехите в обучението на учениците от тази възраст, техните морални качества в различни житейски ситуации, а връстниците възприемат това като основни характеристики на личностните качества.

При първокласниците комуникацията със съученици по правило отстъпва на заден план. В началото на обучението по-малкият ученик е погълнат само от ученето и общува малко със съучениците си. Наблюденията показват, че първоначално първокласниците като че ли избягват директен контакт помежду си, всеки от тях все още е „сам по себе си“ и осъществяват контакт помежду си чрез учителя. През втората или третата година на обучение контактите със съучениците стават по-тесни. Тези промени са свързани преди всичко с ново отношение към ученето и личността на учителя, като личността на учителя става по-малко важна за учениците. На 9–10-годишна възраст учениците много по-остро преживяват забележките, получени в присъствието на съученици, те стават по-срамежливи и започват да се срамуват не само от непознати възрастни, но и от непознати деца на собствената си възраст.

Началната училищна възраст е важен период в развитието на личността на детето, поради което познаването на особеностите на психическото развитие на децата на тази възраст е от особено значение.

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Theoretical article

МЕНИДЖМЪНТ В КЛАСНАТА СТАЯ

MANAGEMENT IN THE CLASSROOM

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Резюме

Учениците прекарват голяма част от живота си в класната стая. Приоритетна задача на учителите е създаването на безопасна и организирана среда в класната стая. Мениджмънт на класа е специфична област в педагогиката, свързана с работата на учителите по създаването на безопасна учебна среда (Ivanov, 2005). Управлението на класната стая е свързано с всички действия на учителите, насочени към създаване на стимулираща учебна среда. Това включва: управление на пространството, времето, дейностите, материалите, труда, социалните отношения, поведението на учениците.

Ключови думи: Мениджмънт, клас, класна стая, учител, стилове на управление в класната стая, климат в класната стая

Abstract

Students spend most of their lives in the classroom. The priority task of teachers is to create a safe and organized environment in the classroom. Classroom management is a specific field in pedagogy related to the work of teachers to create a safe learning environment (Ivanov, 2005). Classroom management is related to all the actions of teachers aimed at creating a stimulating learning environment. This includes: management of space, time, activities, materials, work, social relations, student behavior.

Keywords: Management, class, classroom, teacher, classroom management styles, classroom climate.

Управлението на класната стая, като относително нова концепция в образователната психология, се отнася до ролята на учителя в процеса на преподаване и учене, до създаване на безопасна и стимулираща учебна среда. Този термин съчетава личността на учителя, неговите способности и професионално поведение, предназначени да обединят всички негови професионални роли, както и процесите, протичащи в ученическия клас и резултатите от тези процеси. Голям брой изследвания, които се занимават с различни влияния върху училищните постижения на учениците (Wang et al., 1993), посочват, че измежду 228 променливи управлението на класната стая има най-прякото въздействие върху постиженията на учениците.

Управлението на класната стая включва много аспекти: управление на пространството, времето, дейностите, материалите, труда, социалните отношения, поведението на учениците. Следователно тази концепция е свързана с широк спектър от предприети дейности от учителя в класната стая, като подреждане на физическото пространство, дефиниране и практикуване на

процедурите в класната стая, наблюдение на поведението на учениците, справяне с недисциплинирано поведение, насърчаване на отговорността на учениците за учене, преподаване на уроци по такъв начин, че да насърчава ориентирането на учениците за решаване на задачите (Watkins & Wagner, 2000).

Управлението на класната стая е една от най-важните роли, изпълнявани от учителите, защото това определя учителски успех. Ефективните учители са ефективни с всички ученици независимо от различните нива на постижения и хетерогенност в техните класове. Ефективните мениджъри в класната стая са тези, които разбират и използват специфични техники. Дори ако училището, в което работят, е силно неефективно, отделните учители могат да допринесат за подобряване на образованието.

Ефективното преподаване е една от най-важните теми на образователната психология. Многобройни са факторите, които влияят върху ефективното преподаване и постиженията на учениците. Изследванията показват, че действията на учителите в класната стая са най-важни в сравнение с всичко, което правят образователните и училищните власти (Marzano & Marzano, 2003).

Съществуват различни подходи към изследователските фактори за ефективно преподаване и учене по отношение на учителите. Някои автори обръщат внимание на личността на учителя, а други подчертават ролите и компетентностите на учителя. Напоследък много автори се занимават с концепцията за управление на класната стая, която обхваща всички тези аспекти и която се основава на реалното поведение на учителя в класната стая.

Някои от характеристиките на успешните учители са: топлина, доброта, дружелюбност, демократични нагласи, кооперативност, последователност, отвореност на мисълта и широки интереси. Добрите учители се описват и като хора, пълни с разбиране за проблемите на учениците, готови да им помогнат, позволяващи различни дейности в класната стая, както и поддържане на реда, чувство за хумор и добро познаване на учебните предмети. От ключово значение е учителя: да бъде сърдечен, разбиращ и приятелски настроен; да бъде отговорен, професионален и систематичен; да има стимулиращо поведение, въображение и ентусиазъм. Важни са и емоционалните характеристики, като съпричастност, емоционална стабилност и самоконтрол.

За да бъде успешен, учителят трябва: да има визия за бъдещето; да бъде отдаден на процеса на управляването; да поставя на преден план хората и личния принос на всеки; да общува открито, честно, позитивно, емпатийно. (Todorina, 2010). Учителят не трябва да забравя, че всяко дете е личност.

Функции, изпълнявани от ефективния учител:

• Избира, изработва и използва най-ефективните стратегии за обучение;

• Проектира учебна програма в класната стая, която улеснява ученето на учениците;

• При разработването на учебна програма взема предвид нуждите на учениците на колективно и индивидуално ниво, не разчита само на предоставения учебник от съветната област;

• Прилага правила и разпоредби и налага дисциплинарни действия (Calderon, 2019).

За да изпълни всички тези функции, учителят трябва да притежава подходящи компетентности, които представляват комбинация от черти, способности, знания и умения. Учителските компетентности са комбинация от педагогически и социални компетентности.

Учителят като модератор на процесите в класа има още една функция и тя е – превантивната, т.е. със своите действия и стил на ръководство да не допуска появата в бъдеще време на сериозни конфликти, негативни преживявания и психотравми у учениците (Mavrodiev, S., 1996).

Работата на учителя е да открие, да събужда и да поддържа мотивацията на учениците да учат и да се ангажират в дейности, които водят до учене. Учениците са склонни да вложат много усилия, когато им е интересно и приятно, когато виждат успеха от работата си. Умерената заинтересованост стимулира учебния процес. Когато няма заинтересованост, учениците работят зле или въобще не работят (Lecheva, 2009). В този контекст е необходимо да се обърне внимание на средствата, чрез които учениците могат да бъдат мотивирани да влагат усилията, изисквани за ученето.

От изключителна важност е и своевременната обратна връзка – ученик – учител. Адекватната и своевременна обратна връзка е изключително важна за качеството и ефективността на учебния процес. Чрез обратната връзка може да се прецени до каква степен са постигнати предварително формулираните цели, налице ли е успех и напредък, което от своя страна води до повишаване на равнището на личната удовлетвореност, на компетентността и увереността при дефинирането на бъдещи цели.

Контролът и оценката осъществяват мотивиращо въздействие. Важно е поставените изисквания да са ясни, оценката да съответства на положените усилия. Да има разнообразие в прилаганите методи и стратегии за изпитване и оценяване. Силен мотивиращ фактор за личността са постигнатите от нея успехи в учебната дейност както като резултат, така и като преживяване на успешността на действието. Успешните действия стимулират учениците, повишават тяхната увереност и активност в обучението. Високата оценка или похвала от учителя е източник на положителни преживявания. Критиката е необходимо да бъде конструктивна и насочена към работата на учениците, а не към тях самите. Сравняването на учениците един с друг не е удачно.

Целесъобразно е използването на различни подходи за провокиране и поддържане на интереса към учебния материал. Особено значимо място заемат разнообразните форми на преподаване, даването на обратна връзка, ефективното използване на състезателен елемент, индивидуалния подход, свързан с опознаването на отделните ученици, използването на подходящи технологии, материали и помощни средства и др. (Slavin, 2003).

Също така трябва да се отбележи, че ролята на професионалния опит, който отделния учител придобива с времето, съществено се отразява върху следвания от него стил на работа с учениците (Slavin, 2003). Учителят трябва да преподава уроците с желание, да покаже на учениците колко вълнуващ е предметът и по този начин да предизвика интереса им.

Класната стая е публично място, а учителят е винаги на сцената. Събитията се случват бързо и няма достатъчно време за мислене преди да се действа. Много неща се случват едновременно, а непосредствените обстоятелства влияят на събитията.

Тази сложна среда изисква управление на класната стая, което включва: широки познания за това, което е вероятно да се случи в класната стая, способност за бързо обработване на голямо количество информация и умения за извършване на ефективни действия за дълъг период от време.

Според Н. Мартин и Б. Болдуин (Martin & Baldwin, 1993) управлението на класната стая е многостранна конструкция, която включва три широки измерения: личност, преподаване и дисциплина. *Личностното измерение* включва убежденията на учителя относно личността на ученика и действията на учителите, които допринасят за индивидуалното развитие на учениците. Това измерение е свързано с възприемането от учителя на общия характер на способностите на учениците, мотивацията и цялостния психологически климат. *Преподавателското измерение* включва всичко, което учелят прави, за да установи и поддържа учебни дейности в класната стая, физическото подреждане на пространството и използването на времето. Третото измерение, *дисциплина*, се отнася до действия, предприети от учителя за установяване на подходящи стандарти на поведение в класната стая.

Климатът в класната стая е тясно свързан с учебната среда и се разглежда като основен фактор за поведението и ученето в класната стая. Класните стаи, които се характеризират с по-голяма сплотеност и насоченост на целите, по-малка степен на дезорганизация и конфликти, предлагат по-добри възможности за учене и следователно учениците стават успешни (Adelman & Taylor, 2005). Взаимното уважение и разбиране също е съществен елемент от климата в класната стая (Miller & Pedro, 2006). Много важно е да се създаде подходящ климат в класната стая, където учениците да обменят идеи и да изследват ново учебно съдържание. За да изпълни тази задача, учителят трябва да практикува стил на управление в класната стая, основан на конструктивни и продуктивни взаимоотношения с учениците.

Демократичното ръководство в класната стая означава учителят да се счита за един от членовете на класната общност, да обменя мнения с учениците, да ги включва в дейностите и да дава указания, но без да доминира. Подобно поведение на учителя насърчава учениците да приемат обща работа, да поемат отговорността за своите училищни задължения, да определят високи стандарти на обучение и да бъдат мотивирани за постижения.

Н. Мартин и Б. Болдуин (Martin & Baldwin, 1993) разграничават три основни стила на управление на класната стая. Тези стилове се основават на концепции, формулирани от Walfgang и Glickman (1980), обясняващи вярванията на различните учители относно дисциплината. Те говорят за континуум, който представлява три подхода за взаимодействие с учениците - неинтервенционистки, интервенционистки и интеракционистки. *Неинтервенционисткият подход* се основава на убеждението, че човек има свои собствени нужди, които да изразява и изпълнява, така че учителят да има минимален контрол. *Интервенционисткият подход е* основан на убеждението, че външната среда (хората и съоръженията) влияе по определен начин на човешкото развитие, така че учителят е склонен да постигне пълен контрол. Между тези две крайности е *интеракционисткият подход*, който се фокусира върху това, което индивидът прави, за да промени средата, както и как средата влияе върху индивида. В този случай контролът върху ситуацията в класната стая се споделя между учител и ученици. Имайки предвид характеристиките на продуктивния климат в класната стая и начините за създаването му, може да се каже, че интеракционисткият стил на управление на класната стая е най-добрия начин за изграждане на стимулираща учебна среда - климат в класната стая, който ще доведе до най-добрите постижения на учениците.

Стилът на управление на класната стая на учителите е много важен фактор за ефективно преподаване, особено като се има предвид постиженията на учениците в училище. Учителят, за който характерен стил на управление е интеракциониския, насърчава взаимодействието и сътрудничеството в класната стая, зачита личността на ученика, оценява инициативите, интересите и нуждите на учениците, използва методи на преподаване и материали, които получават пълна активност на целия клас по време на уроците, проектира дейности, насочени към ученето, цели прилагане на процедури за изграждане на положителна дисциплина, основана на

самоконтрол и отговорност на учениците. Накратко, учителят-интеракционист споделя отговорността за ситуацията в класната стая с учениците. Така той допринася за социалния климат, който стимулира ученето и личностния растеж на неговите ученици. Поради положителния социален климат и включването на учениците като активни участници в процеса на преподаване и обучение, класната стая става безопасна и стимулираща учебна среда. Следователно такъв учител е в състояние да постигне най-добри резултати в образователния процес.

В образователната практика е необходимо да се оцени конкретния стил на преподаване и след това да се положат усилия за подобряване на неговата ефективност. Надеждната оценка на стила на управление на класната стая на учителя може да бъде основата за планиране на професионалното развитие на учителите.

Ефективното използване на техниките за управление на класната стая може драстично да повиши резултатите на класа. Учениците в класове, в които се използват ефективни техники за управление, имат постижения по-високи от учениците в класове, където не се използват ефективни техники за управление.

Ефективното управление на класната стая се нуждае от добри правила и процедури. Правилата и процедурите се различават при различните учители и в отделните класни стаи. Правилата и процедурите не трябва да се налагат върху учениците, те трябва да бъдат обяснени. Обяснението е важно, за да се помогне на учениците да видят необходимостта от правилото и следователно да го приемат. Най-ефективните ръководители на класни стаи не просто налагат правила и процедури на учениците. По-скоро те ангажират учениците в проектирането на правилата и процедурите. Учениците в добри отношения с учителя приемат по-лесно правилата и процедурите и дисциплинарните действия, които следват нарушенията им.

Стиловете на управление на класната стая на учителите могат лесно да бъдат идентифицирани въз основа както на степента на контрол, така и на нивото на участие. Използваният тип управленски стил води до характерно поведение.

Ефективното управление на класната стая изисква умения, но също така изисква решителност. Учителят трябва да бъде твърдо решен да утвърди своя авторитет в класната стая на всяка цена, в противен случай поведението на учениците ще се влоши. Учителите с най-ефективни умения за управление на класната стая са тези, които са решени да следват и прилагат правилата си последователно, независимо от ситуацията.

Ефективното управление на класната стая ще се различава от учител до учител. Начинът, по който учителят свежда до минимум неподходящото поведение в класната стая, не е толкова важен. Важното е, че учителят използва своите уникални умения за насърчаване на положителното поведение на учениците в класната стая. Основната цел е да се предостави най-добрата образователна възможност за всички деца, които влизат в класните стаи.

В този контекст можем да обобщим, че една от най-важните задачи на учителя е ефективното управление на класната стая. Управлението на класната стая не означава само дисциплина и правила. Това се отнася до извличане и поддържане на вниманието на ученика, поддържане на възприемчивостта на ученика и постигане на целесъобразност. Това изисква преподавателска компетентност; богат учебен опит; поддържане на здрави взаимоотношения с учениците и др.

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Theoretical article

BURNOUT SYNDROME: BACKGROUND, CLARIFICATION, TREATMENT, AND POSITIVE SCHOOL MODE COPING STRATEGIES

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Abstract
Burnout syndrome is a global phenomenon and is associated with the creation of the human services industry. Since the mid-1970s, various definitions have been proposed in an attempt to describe the condition, and research in the form of books, articles, and dissertations has been published. The most prominent definition describes burnout as a state of physical, mental, and emotional exhaustion caused by chronic involvement in highly demanding activities. Moreover, coping styles provide practical ways of routine coping strategies, defined as treatment associated with temperamental factors. A person's traits comprise their coping style toward stress. Therefore, the suggested ways of dealing with a stressful event include personality dimensions and their basic characteristics and extend toward the predisposition of individual coping styles. Finally, the role of primary school teachers in ensuring a positive school mood as a means of coping with burnout syndrome is particularly important. Creating appropriate conditions within a school unit is achieved by appropriate dynamic interactions among the academic, psychological, and physical parameters of the school environment, and it can affect the teachers' mood during working hours. As a result, a positive school environment requires harmonious coexistence without conflict to facilitate the eradication of both occupational and school-related burnout.

Keywords: burnout, positive school mood, teachers, coping styles, work stress

Burnout clarification and historical background

During the 1930s, the term burnout was used among athletes to describe their exhaustion after significant physical effort, which hindered their ability to further perform according to their perceived capabilities in competitions. During the 1960s, burnout referred to the effects of long-term drug use and it was—quite ironically— used to describe both the physical and psychological condition of volunteers who offered their services to assist drug users (Farber, 1991; Hatzipemou, 2016; Manthopoulou, 2019).

During the mid-1970s the first articles regarding burnout syndrome were published in the United States in the context of social psychology termed "burning." Consequently, many books, articles, and dissertations have been published; it has been described as a global phenomenon and characterized as "a modern age disease" due to the creation of "a human services industry." Various definitions have been used to describe it, including alienation, boredom, depression, apathy, burnout reaction, occupational stress, and midlife crisis (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993).

Namely, the term "burnout" etymologically translates as "I consume progressively from within, to the point of coal mining" (Maslach, 1981, 1982; Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993; Maslach et al., 2001, p.399; Mouzoura, 2005). Furthermore, the American Psychological Association defines "burnout" as: physical,

emotional, or mental exhaustion accompanied by decreased motivation, lowered performance, and negative attitudes toward oneself and others".

The use of the term "burnout" in its contemporary meaning, was coined by clinical psychologist Herbert Freudenberger (1975), following his research in his occupational environment (a detoxification clinic), where he noticed burnout symptoms in the clinic's staff, manifested as emotional fatigue and decreased work motivation. The staff became irritable, biased, and suspicious, with negative attitudes toward their duties and showed symptoms of depression when interacting with patients. Moreover, these signs were accompanied by various symptoms, with most of them lasting for approximately 1 year. To describe the mental state of these volunteers in one word, Freudenberger borrowed the term "exhaustion," which had been used to describe the effects of chronic drug abuse until then (Amaradidou, 2010; Flambouras–Nietos, 2017; Karagianni, 2018; Koudigkeli, 2017; Lemonaki, 2017; Manthopoulou, 2019; Schaufeli et al., 1993).

Based on this research, professional exhaustion was defined as "weakness for performance or exhaustion due to excessive demands which concern power, energy or potential" (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). As a result, the person becomes inelastic and hinders structural changes and progress, as these require an effort to adapt. Further, Freudenberger argued that individuals who are highly committed and absorbed in their work can more easily develop burnout syndrome. It is noteworthy that Freudenberger provided two definitions for the "dedicated worker" who takes on too much work: "over-committed," meaning the person who receives no extracurricular satisfaction, and "authoritarian," describing the person who feels that no one but themself can efficiently complete a task (Amaradidou, 2010; Freudenberger, 1975; Koudigkeli, 2017).

Moreover, bibliographic references regarding fatigue have emerged even earlier than the 1970s; however, these are now scattered and isolated. Social and economic reasons of that time emphasized the phenomenon of burnout (Koudigkeli, 2017; Schaufeli et al., 1993). Namely, Farber (1983, p.11 as reported in Koudigkeli, 2017) argued that burnout is "the result of workers' growing need for recognition in their jobs, as well as their isolation from their communities." As a result, employees set and pursue high work-related goals but possess little energy to deal with difficulties and frustrations induced by their expectations.

Regarding professional exhaustion, Cherniss (1980) stated that—unlike in earlier times— in order for the worker to receive help to counter the individualism that prevails over the oppressed social whole, they reach out to related professionals and not the community, while the state is reducing its healthcare budget, thus resulting in progressively fewer workers being forced to cope with a greater workload (Koudigkeli, 2017).

According to Maslach (1982), burnout was initially studied in the fields of education, medicine, social services, justice, religion, mental health, and other anthropocentric professions. Early research was unable to clearly and specifically define burnout syndrome; to tackle this phenomenon, most studies have applied a clinical approach. The wide variety of burnout syndrome's definitions are markedly difficult to study. Burke and Richardsen (1993) proposed three separate definitions; the first definition, coined by Freudenberger and Richelson (1975), describes burnout as "chronic exhaustion and depression, which stems from the involvement of the individual in activities that are not in line with his ambitions." However, according to recent research, it is wrong to equate exhaustion with physical exhaustion and depression, as they are separate variables (Koudigkeli, 2017). In addition, exhaustion—in this case—is both physical and emotional; the second definition of Cherniss (1980) describes burnout as "a process of dismissal from work, a reaction to the inability of the individual to cope with the demands of a job"; finally, the third definition of Pines et al. (1981) as indicated by Koudigkeli (2017), describes burnout as "a state of physical, mental, and emotional exhaustion caused by chronic involvement in very demanding activities."

Koudigkeli (2017) also mentions Maslach (1976, 1982) as someone who associated her name with occupational burnout research because of her well-known model and measurement tool; she offered a comprehensive definition, including both physical and mental exhaustion, which is observed in every

professional whose work requires constant human interaction. According Maslach's approach, burnout is defined as "the syndrome of physical and mental exhaustion, in which an employee loses interest and positive feelings he had for the people he serves (patients or customers), ceases to be satisfied with his work and performance, and develops a negative self-image."

Distinction between burnout and stress is difficult, but Maslach and Schaufeli (1993) state that the syndrome and stress could be distinguished if time is considered. Burnout could be perceived as prolonged work stress, derived from work-induced demands, which exceeds the individual's capabilities. In addition, they reported that burnout results from a long process and emphasized Selye's view (1976) on stress, which states that exposure to stressors leads to general adaptive syndrome, which constitutes three phases: alertness, resistance, and exhaustion. In the last stage, following long-term exposure to stress, there is a depletion of psychological resources, which is detrimental to the organism. Finally, there is a difference between exhaustion and stress, as there is a possibility that a body deteriorates or fails to adapt without external assistance or environmental adjustments (Charalampous, 2012; Koudigkeli, 2017).

According to Kantas (1995), burnout is a particular form of occupational stress. Work-related burnout is a form of prolonged, chronic work-induced stress that greatly affects the employee leading to the perception that the individual lacks the necessary mental reserves to cope with work pressure; this appears gradually and is not due to any excessively stressful event but is the product of a long process that results in a person's inability to adapt to work-related stress (Kantas, 1996; Maslach, 1993).

Other researchers have described burnout syndrome as the progressive loss of idealism, energy, and purpose experienced by service-related professionals, such as social workers, nurses, and educators (Sturges & Poulsen, 1983). Cherniss (1980) describes burnout syndrome as "the disease of the superstitious." Brezniak and Ben Ya'Lr (1989) argued that this is caused by the imbalance between the possibilities of values, expectations, and environmental requirements. In conclusion, burnout syndrome is characterized as a form of individual defense, manifested by apathy and emotional distancing (Burke & Richardsen, 1996; Koudigkeli, 2017).

According to Pines (2002), burnout is related to the people's need to believe that their lives have meaning and their actions are useful and important; this need is an important motivator in those who seek life meaning through work. Should they fail, they are more likely to experience burnout. Finally, Pines believes that people who are dedicated and have invested in their work are more likely to develop burnout syndrome.

Various research and clinical observations have contributed to the identification and systematic study of the burnout syndrome, which is mainly investigated in the field of social services, which typically involve the formation of close relationships between professionals and clients (Aventinian-Pagoropoulou et al., 2002; Demerouti, 2001; Kantas, 1997; Koudigkeli, 2017; Papadatou & Anagostopoulos, 1997).

The definition of burnout has been extended both to educational and other professions involving human interaction, as well as in professions with no human contact (for example workers in the photographic film industry) (Demerouti, 2001; Kantas, 1996).

Burnout syndrome coping styles

Coping styles are associated with temperamental factors. Conversely, coping strategies are related to situation- and event-specific responses. A person's coping style shapes the typical treatment that a person uses as a reaction to stress; these styles have been explored and concern consistent coping behaviors associated with temperamental factors that are applied in stressful situations. Individuals carry out a preferred set of strategies and do not approach stressful situations within their context to select the appropriate response strategy for the case, which remains relatively standard both in time and circumstances. Lazarus and Folkmann (1984) argued that coping should be a dynamic course that varies depending on the course of the interaction for this reason and the existence of consistent coping styles are considered contradictory (Hepburn et al., 1997; Mouzoura, 2005).

It is possible that the suggested ways of dealing with stress originate from personality's dimensions and basic characteristics to predispose to the choice of specific coping mechanisms. Individual differences facilitate the degree to which a coping strategy relates at each point of interaction. Additionally, many researchers emphasize the importance of the distinction between coping styles and strategies. Response

measurement studies estimate stable individual variables rather than a specific response to a situation. According to Finney et al. (1984), the approach as a treatment is more effective than avoidance; however, the approach as a coping style would be more effective when people are faced with stressful events, which are within their personal control. Conversely, avoidance as a coping style would be more effective if the facts are not within their personal control (Carver et al., 1989; Dewe, 1985; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Mouzoura, 2005; Newton et al., 1996; Parkes, 1991).

According to recent studies, age and gender affect coping styles and—as the time passes—people move from an active to a more passive coping style. It is also claimed that the proposed roles for men and women change and potentially become similar during middle age. In addition, men become more addicted, while women become more aggressive (Mouzoura, 2005; Stefani, 2000). In conclusion, the study of coping styles pertains to perception of treatment, while the study that deals with coping strategies refers to a functional perception of coping. The difference between the two perceptions is not always clear; therefore, research should determine their focal point to avoid confusion and conceptual problems (Ferguson & Cox, 1997; Mouzoura, 2005).

The flexibility in confronting, namely, the access to a wide range of stress management mechanisms, appears effective. A rigid person would be less likely to use different coping strategies, even if they have employed them in the past; complexity, therefore, refers to various coping strategies that a person has used in the past, i.e., the number of strategies that could theoretically help a person in a stressful situation. (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Mouzoura, 2005).

Both flexibility and variety affect the ability to manage difficult situations. Therefore, people with a wider range of coping strategies are likely to effectively manage stressful events. The flexibility of treating stress levels as a mitigating factor has been documented for acute and chronic stress (Mouzoura, 2005).

Despite numerous research tools, many evaluation problems remain unresolved. Some are related to the distinction between treatment sources, coping behaviors, and treatment outcomes while others pertain to the nature of the stressors that differentiate response reactions, whether special measurements should be used in specific structures and a specific sample, the need for measurements with multi-level and multifactorial courses, as well as the solution of methodological problems (Anshel & Kaissidis, 1997; Costa et al., 1996; Mouzoura, 2005).

The role of a positive school mood in coping with burnout syndrome

A positive school climate is particularly important when dealing with teacher burnout and work-related stress. In this way, a quiet school environment is achieved with harmonious coexistence without conflicts. In each school, the creation of appropriate conditions is dependent on the dynamic interactions between the academic, psychological, and physical parameters of the school's environment, which can potentially affect the teachers' mood during their work (Hatzipanagiotou, 2003; Koudigkeli 2017).

The school environment is influenced by the complexity of the organizational structure, based on the way the school leadership is exercised, and the needs, goals, and aspirations of the teaching staff. In a school with a positive atmosphere, there is a sense of cooperation and camaraderie both between teachers and the parent-teachers' association or principal. In addition, a positive school environment should prevail between the teaching staff and the students to achieve goals and to improve student progress (Koudigkeli, 2017; Maroudas & Beladakis, 2006; Saitis, 2008).

Conversely, in a negative school atmosphere in which there is a sense of emotional direction and frustration, a teacher's quality of work is negatively affected and minimizes the school's effectiveness. Moreover, the principal can become instrumental in avoiding conflicts and promoting a harmonious coexistence between teachers in a calm environment devoid of stressful situations. Moreover, the principal can contribute to the formation and the promotion of a positive environment, as it is more dependent on the principal's personal ability to properly handle the human factor and less on their capacity and power bestowed upon them by law, in the following three directions: (a) communication

with the students; (b) communication and cooperation with parents; and (c) communication and cooperation with the teachers (Koudigkeli, 2017; Maroudas & Beladakis, 2006; Saitis, 2008).

It is notable that, according to article 11 of Greek law 1566/1985, the necessary communication within the school could be strengthened both through regular and unscheduled meetings of the teachers' association, where specific issues will be discussed, and solutions will be proposed aiming to "formulate directions to improve educational policy implementation and the facilitate school operation."

According to Saitis (2008), a school principal must be aware of the teachers' needs and consider their complaints. Moreover, they should encourage teachers to report any issues that concern them to enable joint action and timely resolution. Additionally, principals must be aware of the teachers' personality and abilities to accordingly divide the external teaching work (Koudigkeli, 2017).

According to Koudigkeli (2017), some personality traits seem to predispose work commitment and are an important protective factor for teachers. Such characteristics support employees within their work environment and promote leadership ability and individual characteristics (conscientiousness).

A person who is "engaged" with work shows high levels of energy and enthusiasm for their work; moreover, work time for them seems to pass quickly. Further, job commitment positively correlates with an individual's job performance, with good off duty performance, satisfaction in the educational community, and financial earnings (Chughtai & Buckley, 2011).

The above could describe a person who is tireless; however, even employees with high levels of work commitment are stressed after a day's work. The difference with other employees is that they perceive this fatigue as an alternative state of pleasure, as it is associated with positive achievements (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

It is strongly suggested that employees who are satisfied with their job are less absent, adequately and efficiently provide their services, and support their colleagues. There are many elements that link employee satisfaction with their organizational behavior (e.g., organizational citizenship behavior). As mentioned by Miller et al. (2009), Locke (1976) describes burnout as either a pleasurable or positive emotional state deriving from valuing one's work or work experience. Further, job satisfaction reflects a person's attitude toward their work or its specific dimensions, including both positive and negative emotions, and their thoughts related to specific brunches of work (earnings, autonomy) (Koudigkeli, 2017).

Concluding, the positive psychological state that focused on the modern organization regarding the management of human capital and the concept of employment emphasizes that in order for services and organizations to thrive, the commitment of employees who are responsible, motivated, dynamic, and maintain a stronger and coherent profile for advancement in their work is needed (Koudigkeli, 2017; Schaufeli et al., 2009).

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Theoretical article

PERSONALITY, THE FIVE-FACTOR MODEL (BIG FIVE), BURNOUT SYNDROME AND STRESS

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Abstract
Personality is a stable and organized set of psychological characteristics, which is shaped by the psychological, social, and physical environment that surrounds an individual; moreover, biological factors affect the shaping of individual personality. In essence, personality is the sum of a person's overall behavior, including non-overt behaviors, interests, mentality, and intelligence. Therefore, it is the sum of physical and mental abilities, as well as biological factors. The Five-Factor model (Big Five) is a theory including personality traits that people consider important and, based on which, human behavior can be described in its various manifestations and simultaneously explain numerous phenomena and reactions. According to the Five-Factor model, the key factors are Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism. Additionally, there is a correlation between burnout syndrome and personality factors. Various personality traits (motivation push to work, stress resistance, and self-esteem) have been explored to determine at what point these features contribute to the development of burnout. Finally, regarding occupational stress and personality factors, there is a relationship, as people's reaction to stress factors is directly related to their personality. The ways of reaction are divided into three categories: escape, battle, and slip and are briefly discussed in this article.

Keywords: burnout syndrome, five-factor model (big five), personality, stress

Clarification of the term "personality"

Personality refers to a person's behaviors, habits, and characteristics, which are all separate aspects and vary between individuals. The psychology of personality pertains to the study of unique individual differences. Social interaction is important in personality shaping; a person adopts specific behaviors and habits through which their personality is shaped. In addition, internal, external, genetic, and environmental factors also play an important role in personality formation. Personality traits vary from person to person. In essence, personality is the sum of a person's overall behaviors, including non-overt behaviors, interests, mentality, and intelligence. Therefore, it is the sum of the total physical and mental abilities of a human. The term "personality" is derived from the Latin word persona, which was used by the Romans to denote the theatrical mask worn by Greek actors before going on stage. In the past, the term "personality" translated to the external appearance of a person. Today, the term has taken on other dimensions, and it is used in various ways (e.g., Karapanou, 2020; Manthopoulou, 2019). Below we describe some definitions of personality over time in the international literature.

According to Larsen and Buss (2017), personality is a stable and organized set of psychological characteristics in an individual that influences their character in the psychological, social, and physical environment that surrounds them. According to Kazdin (2000), personality refers to the individual differences in the characteristics of a person's thoughts, emotions, and behavior indicating that the study of personality focuses on two aspects: understanding individual differences in specific personality traits and understanding how various individual characteristics are grouped as a whole (Manthopoulou, 2019).

McAdams and Pals (2006) provided an additional definition, according to which, personality is defined as "a change of individual uniqueness in a general evolutionary pattern of human nature, which expresses the evolution of those traits that are predisposed to develop, the characteristics that adapt and the life experiences that are integrated in a complex and different way in every human environment." Moreover, according to Mayer (2007), personality is an organized system within the individual that reflects their actions. Moreover, Funder (2004) stated that personality refers to an individual's personality traits, thinking, behavior, and emotion.

In conclusion, one of the most basic definitions of personality has been formulated by Pervin and Cervone (2013) who stated that "personality refers to the psychological characteristics that contribute to the fixed and distinct patterns of emotions, thoughts, and behavior of a person." The term "constant" defines the permanence of personality traits in time and in the various circumstances faced by an individual. Moreover, the term "special" refers to the characteristics of a person that distinguishes them from others. The use of the term "contribute" seeks out the psychological factors that affect the unchanging and distinctive characteristics of an individual. If we consider that a scientist's role is to describe and explain, the psychology of personality is considered descriptive, as researchers describe trends in personality development and the most important individual differences in a population or patterns of behavior that an individual adopts in different situations. In addition, the words "emotion, thought, and behavior" denote the relationship of a personality to all aspects of a person. The task of personality psychologists is to understand the complete individual (Manthopoulou, 2019).

The five-factor model (Big Five)

The Five-Factor model (FFM) is based on a fundamental lexical hypothesis, according to which, "the major dimensions of individual differences can be derived from the total number of descriptive indicators in any language system" (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2013). The model refers to the creation of easy-to-use terms, common to all people, which are used to identify important individual differences. The Big Five factors include aspects that define human interaction. Norman (1967) was the first to propose the five key factors through the study of previous research. Moreover, Goldberg (1981), based both on his own and others' research, coined the final version of the FFM (Manthopoulou, 2019; Pervin & John, 2001). The theory of the Five Great Factors was designed to present some of the personality traits, which is considered important for individual lives, based on which, human behavior can be described in its various manifestations, and, at the same time, justify many phenomena and reactions (Karapanou, 2020).

There is an increasing number of researchers who agree that there are five factors that can describe both personality and individual differences (Digman, 1989; Goldberg, 1990; John, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1985; McCrae & John, 1992). These five dimensions constitute the FFM or the "Big Five" (Karapanou, 2020). According to the FFM, the key personality traits or factors are Neuroticism, Extroversion, Experience Receptivity, Attentiveness, and Conscientiousness (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2013). Some of the above are also used in other theories, such as those of Eysenck, Gray, and Cattell (for a discussion, please see Boyle et al., 2016). The most widely known abbreviations used for the above model are NEOAC or OCEAN, which are derived from the initials of the above factors in English (Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism) (Manthopoulou, 2019). Following, we will analyze each factor individually.

Neuroticism is associated with emotional stability and describes a person's tendency to experience negative emotions, such as anxiety, depression, and anger. These individuals experience more stress than those with low neuroticism or emotional stability (Manthopoulou, 2019). They also exhibit many and intense phobias, and, at the same time, are greatly insecure. They are also characterized by irritability and eccentricity, as they find it difficult to remain composed, while they experience frequent outbreaks (Barrick & Mount, 1991), as they strongly experience their emotions. Furthermore, they are characterized by hostility, anger, depression, self-awareness, impulsivity, and vulnerability (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2013). Those who show increased scores in this factor lack confidence and are greatly anxious, depressed, and self-aware, as they are emotionally reactive and vulnerable to stress; finally, they are rarely satisfied (McCrae & John, 1992; Pervin & John, 2013). Conversely, those with a low score on this factor are more mentally stable, can easily handle stress, and present emotional stability, composure, and optimism (Karapanou, 2020; Papadimitriou, 2019; Tzinikou, 2018).

Extroversion describes a person's ease in social relationships and refers to the quality and intensity of interpersonal relationships. Extroverts derive pleasure from social situations—which they frequently pursue—and enjoy group settings; moreover, they create around them a pleasant atmosphere and liveliness. Furthermore, extroverts are active and have many hobbies, an active love life, and frequently express enthusiasm and willingness to pursue new experiences. Extroversion is related to tenderness, ambition, positive emotions, confidence, sociability, energy, cheerfulness, and trust (Digman, 1989; Karapanou, 2020). (Pervin & John, 2013; Tzinikou, 2018). Other extrovert characteristics are cordiality, teamwork, confidence, energy, the search for stimulation, and positive feelings (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2013; Manthopoulou, 2019). Conversely, introverts are characterized by calmness, cautiousness, and withdrawn behaviors.

Agreeableness is characterized by a friendly mood and sensitive interpersonal relationships; it is used to describe kindness and humility. It is a positive behavior with mildness and good intentions as main characteristics. Agreeable individuals try to avoid conflict and rivalries; therefore, when a problem arises, they always try to mutually compromise. They refrain from talking continuously about themselves, as they believe that it is through their actions that their personality is revealed. Other characteristics of these individuals include kindness, courtesy, trust, compliance, straightforwardness, modesty, altruism, and idealism. Agreeable individuals are usually generous, cooperative, modest, tender, trusting, easily forgiving, and tolerant. Conversely, non-agreeable individuals are suspicious, aggressive, and clinging to usually incorrect views (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2013; Karapanou, 2020; McCrae & Costa, 1997; McCrae & John, 1992; Pervin & John, 2013).

Conscientiousness includes credibility, diligence, and motivation for success. It describes the commitment to fulfill obligations in social, professional, and other aspects. The main characteristics of conscientious individuals are method and planning. They strive to honor their commitments and meet deadlines and accurately implement all necessary procedures for their completion. This dimension also includes self-control, virtue, and responsibility. A conscientious person is organized, systematic, and accurate and can control impulses and needs. Moreover, they usually plan and achieve their goals, as they show great commitment and self-discipline (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Goldberg, 1990; Karapanou, 2020). Conscientious individuals are consistent, ambitious, composed, disciplined, and show regularity, meticulousness, reliability, and exceed expectations by being organized, persevering, and implementing planning. Conversely, those with low scores are disorganized, careless, helpless, and unreliable (Pervin & John, 1999; Tzinikou, 2018).

The fifth factor could be construed as confusing because of its name; it is usually termed Openness to Experience, but it is also known as Intellect and Culture. It is narrowly connected with imagination, elegance, curiosity, values, originality, and ideas. Receptivity to experience refers to whether a person is intellectual, exploratory, authentic, creative, and open to new ideas. It is a dimension that is characterized

by curiosity, spirituality, originality, imagination, tolerance toward different views, intelligence, and art-loving (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Goldberg, 1990; Karapanou, 2020; Pervin & John, 2013). Individuals who are open to experience are creative, inventive, artistically concerned, idealistic, imaginative, and curious. Conversely, those with a low score in this dimension are conservative, conventional, without artistic sense, with traditional ideas, resistant to change, and have difficulty in analytical thought (Pervin & John, 1999; Tzinikou, 2018).

The FFM has been used to study and correlate its included personality dimensions with various factors in many countries, mainly in Europe and Asia. It is considered intercultural and has been used to study personality in countries with a different culture, history, ideology, economy, and social life. With its lexical origin as an advantage, it simply describes personality characteristics to facilitate respondent comprehension (De Raad, 1998; Gurven et al., 2013; Tzinikou, 2018).

The Five Factor model has received some negative criticism questioning its effectiveness. According to Chamorro-Premuzic (2013), this model lacks a theoretical basis for the development and nature of the procedures that govern Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, and Agreeableness; moreover, they believe that no theoretical background indicates the origins of differences in these characteristics. They recently noted that "although the five factors are considered independent of each other, when Neuroticism is reversed and rated in terms of Emotional Stability, some studies argue that the five dimensions are interrelated" (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2013). In conclusion, perhaps personality traits should be further simplified. Conversely, others have argued that existing correlations imply the existence of social answers, which are often impossible to avoid (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2013; Manthopoulou, 2019).

Finally, the FFM is valid, reliable, and used by many experts in the field, as most who use this model can compare their studies and conduct new research (Manthopoulou, 2019).

Burnout syndrome and personality factors

Various personality traits have been explored to determine the degree to which they contribute to the creation of professional exhaustion, i.e., burnout, with the most common being how employees interpret and deal with stressful working conditions, their motivation to engage in this profession, stress resistance, and self-esteem (Karapanou, 2020).

Pines (1993) stated that only highly motivated people at work can experience burnout, as they begin their careers with high goals and expectations. Should they fail to achieve their goals and fail to derive a sense of existential satisfaction, they feel unable to contribute to society as a whole and experience burnout.

Additionally, Papadatou et al. (1994) conducted a study with nurses to determine whether staff and environmental factors contribute to the development of burnout, finding that personality traits could predict burnout syndrome in a superior manner compared to demographic and occupational factors.

According to Zager (1982), teachers who are suspicious, introverted, nervous, and anxious were negatively predisposed toward their students and were more prone to burnout. Neuroticism and stress can make them aggressive, making it difficult for them to control their behaviors because of the high demands for discipline. People who experience anxiety and depression (aspects of neuroticism) are characterized by the perception that life events are challenging and potentially impossible to control (Barlow, 2000; Karapanou, 2020).

In addition, teachers with high levels of social stress may feel more incapable of controlling their students' misconduct. Conversely, conscientious teachers perceive mild behaviors as problematic in their effort to do their job well. Teachers "tolerance for students" behaviors are affected along with other

personality traits, such as receptivity to experience, as they willingly accept idiosyncrasy and new social and moral norms to experience positive and negative emotions (Karapanou, 2020).

Stress and personality factors

Individual personality is one of the factors that affects the way a situation is perceived as stressful. People who experience high stress levels are constantly in a state of readiness, feel vulnerable, and often think of contingency risks and assess their environment for indications of risks. A stimulus that is either negative or neutral for a healthy person is perceived as a threat by an anxious person (Matthews & Odom, 1989; Karapanou, 2020).

Concluding, individual reaction to stress factors is related to personality. The ways of reaction are divided into three categories: escape, battle, and slip. The "escape" category is aimed at avoiding the stress factor, leading the person to become suspicious and conservative and become passive - vulnerable. Regarding "battle," it is divided into external, where individuals aim for success but do not care how they will achieve it, and also internal, where people seem to have full control, but in reality, it exhausts them. Finally, "slipping" positions the person between battle and flight. Notably, when people use multiple tactics, they give the impression that they have no fixed values and are driven toward unpredictable behaviors (Karapanou, 2020; Roupa et al, 2007).

Conclusion

In this article, we discussed personality as a stable and organized set of psychological characteristics and the factors that affect its shaping. We described the Five-Factor model (Big Five) as a theory of personality traits, based on which, human behavior can be described in its various facets. According to the Five-Factor model, the key factors are Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism. We also touched upon the correlation between burnout syndrome and personality factors and the various personality traits that have been examined to delineate when and how these features contribute to the development of burnout. Finally, we proposed that there is a relationship between occupational stress and personality factors as reaction to stress being directly related to personality. We concluded with a brief account of the means of reaction, which are divided into escape, battle, and slip.

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Theoretical article

SELF-ESTEEM, SELF-REFLECTION AND HOW THEY ARE LINKED TO COMMUNICATION ANXIETY IN ADOLESCENT STUDENTS

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Abstract

Self-esteem is a constant feature of the adolescent student's personality and is one of the main 'keys' that lead him/her to happiness, prosperity and smooth development. Depending on how much the adolescent values him/herself and what idea he/she has formed about him/herself, he/she also creates the reality that surrounds him/her, his/her social identity, as well as the communication with the social environment. It has been found that there is a positive and directly proportional relationship between self-esteem and school performance and also, this is to a large extent a reflection of adolescents' self-confidence. Finally, self-esteem has a strong and inversely proportional relationship with anxiety and in addition, the high self-esteem acts as an important regulator against adolescent anxiety. Regarding self-reflection, it is a part of thinking and learning, and is identified with a high-level spiritual process that aims to improve adolescents' knowledge, views and ideas. And through the development of his/her cognitive activities and the investigation of his/her experiences, he/she can come up to another perception and evaluation of things, making correlations, generalizations, separations, evaluations and retrospection in old events. According to research, the most important benefit of self-reflection is that it can help adolescent students better to understand their stress and anxiety and thus, to increase and improve their self-awareness. Structured learning, self-reflection and anxiety are closely linked and by applying specific teaching-learning strategies in education, in combination with student's self-reflection, adolescents' stress and anxiety can be reduced, thus positively affecting learning and increasing, at the same time, their self-knowledge.

Keywords: Adolescents, anxiety, self-esteem, self-reflection, students.

Self-esteem

Self-esteem is one of the main keys for human happiness, prosperity and development. Depending on how much we value ourselves, we create our own corresponding reality. That is, it is an indicator, a scale, a measure stating the value, love and self-respect. Our body language, way of life, attitude towards life, relationships, career, creativity, are all stigmatized by the percentage of our self-esteem.

The concept of self-esteem is multidimensional and is related with the overall assessments of the individual for him/herself. Self-esteem is, in itself, for many researchers (James, 1983; Rosenberg, 1979), the set of assessments that an individual makes of his or her performance in particular areas, depending on the significance that these areas have for the person. When the levels of self-esteem are low, the areas in which there is the highest performance are of primary importance to the individual and delineate the meaning of self. Conversely, when self-esteem is high, the importance of the individual areas and the performance in each of them is not considered important by the individual. Reaching more recent views, Frost and McKelvie (2005) define self-esteem as the level of overall esteem that somebody has for his/herself, while according to Sedikides and Gregg (2003), an individual's self-esteem is referred to the individual's perception or in the subjective assessment of his/her value, self-respect and self-confidence, as well as the extent to which the individual maintains positive or negative views about him/herself.

As can be seen from the international literature, there is a controversy among authors as to the cognitive or emotional dimension of self-esteem. This distinction is crucial, because it implies a different Development Mechanism, as well as methods of its modification. If we accept that the texture of self-esteem is emotional, then its onset begins immediately after birth, in response to environmental stimuli, and once stabilized, affects the self-assessments and the sense of worth (Decci & Ryan, 1995; Brown, 1993). People with low self-esteem have a strong 'superego', live in a demanding environment or are overly depended on the opinion of others, so any experience of non-acceptance upsets their emotional balance and consequently their personal value. In contrast, people with high self-esteem activate the defense mechanisms in any negative reinforcement, with the result that emotional arousal is of minor importance. On the contrary, the cognitive interpretive model argues that differences in self-esteem between people are due to different self-assessments in individual areas, which are based on social comparison (Blaine & Crocker, 1993). Perseverance after failure is a characteristic of people with high self-esteem, while withdrawal and cowardice is a characteristic of those with low. The difference between the two interpretive models is not due to the self-image as a whole, but to the different cognitive shape of the success abilities they have created based on their experiences.

Regarding the type of self-esteem, it could be said that this is determined by the treatment received by the person in his/her family, school and work environment, by his/her relationships with peers on the way to adulthood, but also by the roles inside his/her social context. For this reason, the agreement between the real self, the self that others ask of us, the ideal self and finally, the revelation of the multiple masks contribute to the establishment of high self-esteem (Higgins, 1989).

During adolescence, self-esteem now refers to the overall idea of self and is influenced more by value than by individual abilities. Instead of, any perceived positive or negative event to change entirely the self-esteem, an overall arrangement of the stimuli is made. The adolescent's self-tests various social identities in order to determine which one best suits on his/her inner beliefs and perceptions. The standards set by the cultural environment now become tyrannical and, usually, the adolescent's negative experiences in one area are offset by his performance in another. The defense mechanisms create a protective shield around his/her 'Ego', the evaluation of which has stability, unshakable criteria and abstract cognitive and emotional structures. Joining groups is another good solution for a teenager's self-esteem, as they differentiate him or her from the rest, cover up the weaknesses and multiply the sense of strength. The identity of the 'Ego' is impregnated, ironically, by the judgment of others. In the years following the adolescence, the general context of self-esteem will evolve, but it will become more and more difficult to change and thus, everything will be soothed with adulthood.

Research to date has shown that the emotional stability, extroversion and the tendency to agree with the views of others were the factors that significantly predicted (53%) the levels of self-esteem, while the remaining 47% was attributed to individual deviations and error of measurement. A study by Robins et al. (2001), involving 327 people, focused on the correlation between self-esteem and the five-factor personality model. The five factors of the model were found to be responsible for 34% of dispersion of the self-esteem score. Also, people with high self-esteem had greater emotional stability, were more extroverted, aware and open to new experiences. Age, gender, social class and nationality did not affect this general picture. In addition, people with high self-esteem used more socially acceptable characteristics in order to describe themselves.

The configuration of self-esteem and its relationship with school performance

Preschoolers know that their body and mind belong to them and they learn their self-esteem in external ways, comparing, for example, themselves with others. Primary school children lose a part of their self-esteem because they have to overcome difficulties they encounter with new classmates and new rules. Also, in primary education, self-esteem is related to their successes, their performance in sports and of course to their performance in lessons. In adolescence developmental stage, adolescents' self-esteem is affected by bodily and hormonal changes, from their external appearance and opinion that others have about them. When adolescents have the right conditions, which arise within the family, friends and

purposes, then they develop high self-esteem. There are three main areas where self-esteem is mentioned during school age: the family, school and social sector.

Regarding the development of positive self-esteem in adolescents, this is helped by the creation of a supportive atmosphere in the classrooms, the adoption by students of a positive attitude towards school and the personality of the teacher. However, the creation of an emotional distance in the school classroom and in general the negative communication that prevails in it, have a corresponding impact on students' self-esteem. Richardson and Rayder (1987) investigated the school performance in relation to self-esteem and the results of the study showed that low school performance and school dropout are directly associated with the low self-esteem. And they concluded that friends, parents and teachers can make a decisive contribution to shaping and changing, for the better, children's self-esteem. Utley (1986) investigated the effects of self-esteem and the control center on academic performance and research has shown that there is a positive relationship between self-esteem and academic performance. Holly (1987), with the citation of studies showing that self-esteem is the result rather than the cause of academic performance, recognizes that a certain level of self-esteem is required in order for the student to achieve academic success and also argues that self-esteem and performance are linked.

In conclusion, the researchers conclude that there is a positive correlation between self-esteem and school performance. And the lower a child's performance, the more negative the self-esteem, but also the more degraded his/her assessments about his/her abilities, interpersonal relationships with parents and peers and his/her attitudes and interest for the school. Self-esteem depends so much on school performance that the adolescent's success in other areas cannot balance the feelings of inferiority which accompany failure in school. The most serious risk faced by a child with low school performance is to link his/her school failure with his/her mental or general ability, because then he/she will feel a strong threat to his/her self-esteem (Hadjichristou, 2003). This strong positive correlation between academic self-perception and self-esteem could be attributed mainly to the great importance of education for parents and students, which is often considered synonymous with the professional success and social advancement. Therefore, low school performance, because negatively predisposes the others to the student, also affects the image he/she creates for him/herself.

Self-esteem and communication

Communication is defined as the process of sending, receiving and interpreting messages. Human communication is always distorted by the 'noise', which distorts the essence and falsifies the intention of the pope. So, if a person sends the message 'x', the receiver receives the message 'X'. Communication includes the following stages: Coding, transmission, noise, decoding, and feedback.

Although the essence of self-esteem is based on introspection, few manage to come out unscathed from such a harrowing and revealing process, while even fewer have the mental strength to dare it. Therefore, it is a daily practice for a person to look for the sources of his/her self-esteem in others. So, it is raised the issue of communication with the important individuals of everyday life. The communication persons, as it seems, from a very early age, entrench their mental shapes, related to their properties. Believing that they have a characteristic, they imagine how someone behaves with this feature, adopt the behaviors which are consistent with this image, practically instill in others their self-image, process the reactions and give over to them, in order to confirm or contradict the possession of this feature.

The key role in interpersonal contact and communication is played by self-identifications and the aspects projected to potential audiences. The more ambitions and goals one sets, that is, the more one tries to look like one's ideal self, the more dependent one becomes on the opinions of others and the more he/she is under their constant criticism. High self-esteem and clear self-identification act as catalysts in communication technique because, according to Shannon (1948), it seamlessly fulfills its purpose, decreasing the uncertainty and insecurity that arise from vague and ambiguous information.

The communication transaction is then characterized by self-confidence, immediacy, is full of definite meanings and is free from the 'noise', which distorts the message. People with high self-esteem and a well-formed self-image participate comfortably in various social groups and events, persuade others more easily and they are not slaves of the instant moods and cyclothymia. Both verbal and non-verbal communication are stable and consistent with each other, emitting similar and not contradictory

messages, a fact that exudes in the listener a sense of confidence, pushing him/her to be equally clear in his/her expectations.

As has emerged from the research, in order to be more complete the representation of the self, it needs support from the other people, and so, the communication is structured in such a way, as to include such affirmations in many direct ways. Virginia Satir, Paul Watzlawick, Don Jackson and others claim that, almost, in every message is contained the prompt: 'Confirm me' and, consequently, the process of confirmation and refutation has preoccupied many writers.

Adolescent self-esteem and differences between the two genders

How we see ourselves, who we really are, and how others see us, are perhaps the most important components of human action. The timelessness of human experience, which contains self-perception as a basis, is determined and delimited by its universality and its continuous nature. If we wanted to further define the concept of self-perception, we could refer to a 'primordial feature' with which we filter and perceive the world. We understand ourselves through the perception of the world, which surrounds us. From the complexity of self-perception's definitions, Burn's (1979) position stands out, which is referred to the "personal, dynamic and evaluative image that the individual has about him/herself", considering then the "distinction between the perception, evaluation and self-assessment of the self, artificial and consequently, empty of meaning". Also, according to Leontari Aggeliki (1998), man shapes his/her self-image based on external appearance, personal beliefs and attitudes, abilities and skills, as well as a number of additional qualities. Self-image in turn affects a person's self-confidence and mental health and it is about the personal assessment about his/her value as an individual, which shows the degree that one respects his/herself, bodily, mentally, emotionally and morally (Makri-Mpotsari, 2001). And when one has self-esteem, he/she believes and feels that has an inner-innate value, which does not depend on right or wrong behaviors and external circumstances (Makri-Mpotsari, 2001).

Adolescence, as a phase of human development, is fascinating and has enormous consequences in the structure of the character and identity of the adult that follows. Experiences offer, both in quality and quantity, the necessary material for defining a more abstract and self-observable self. The body changes and offers search causes, and behavior is modified. This period of adolescence, 'second birth' according to Rousseau, with the new cognitive abilities, leads, mainly in the emotional field, to great tensions and instabilities. It has been described by many scholars as a period "full of transitions and oscillations between contradictory and conflicting moods, such as between... euphoria and melancholy, joy and gloom..." (Dragona, 1995). Rosenberg (1979) finds significant precessions in adolescence, in terms of self-perception, which others identify them as social, others deduce them more to psychosis of the individual, and others give them a clearer individual orientation.

The importance of approaching the concept of self-esteem in relation to critical period of adolescence is obvious. The completion of the adolescent personality formation and the identification of his/her identity, complete socialization, communication with others, as well as the acceptance of the roles he/she will be called to play as an adult, and his/her emotional-psychological state are assisted or limited by positive or negative formation of self-esteem.

The findings of various studies, such as those of Rosenberg, Elkind, Protinsky-Farrier, Harter, etc., advocate and converge on the idea of the gradual differentiation of perceptions that adolescents have of themselves. This differentiation does not concern only the whole image they have about themselves, that is, how it is structured as a whole but also what qualitative and quantitative characteristics are included in it, but it also concerns individual differences of 'internal' texture. The fullness of self-image and, consequently, the level of self-esteem degree that emanates from it, either as a co-modulator of self-perception or as a product of it, is significantly differentiated between the various aspects of the life and actions of adolescents. Thus, in areas such as family relationships and academic ability, lower performance has been observed in adolescents' self-perception and, consequently, in adolescent self-esteem.

According to the research, adolescents (boys and girls) are not a homogeneous group in terms of self-esteem and differences in it are affected by both age and gender of the adolescent. Self-esteem in

boys is increased in the first period of adolescence, in contrast to girls in the same period. With increasing age, self-esteem also seems to change incrementally. The main feature of the options is the apparent pluralism of the girls and the parallel orientation of the boys. The two sexes show more differences in the texture of the choices and the two age groups clearly differ in their intensity. Social stereotypes and roles seem to be a common regulator of adolescents' self-esteem, its feeder seems to be the family, positively or negatively, and of course its carrier, is the teenager him/herself.

Adolescence is known to be a period of cultural, bodily and emotional issues, such as conflicts with parents, problems with the school, imbalances in friendships and emotional relationships, communication anxieties, health-threatening behaviors and psycho-spiritual complexity. Most of them seem to be significantly differentiated between teenage boys and girls. Thus, in the study of Charbonneau et al. (2009), girls were more vulnerable to the negative effects of stress compared to boys. In another crossed study of 1185 adolescents, girls were found to have a higher degree of adaptability and fewer behavioral problems than boys (Aunola et al., 2000). On the contrary, it has also been shown that boys tend to externalize their behavioral problems, such as aggression, antisocial behavior and criminality, more than girls (Lumley et al., 2002). Still, self-esteem is a key part of adolescents' self-understanding and most likely greatly influences internal and external influences during adolescence (Moksnes et al., 2013). And, according to studies, boys seem to have a higher degree of self-esteem during the period of adolescence (Frost & McKelvie, 2004).

In addition, the self-esteem of adolescent students is perceived through a variety of social and psychological aspects, such as: competitiveness, supportiveness, independence, empathy, socialization, socialization terms, etc. For example, in cognitive tests girls choose more easy subjects, avoid competition and have lower expectations than boys while, on the contrary, girls have higher rates of socialization skills and lower rates of aggression (Vorbach & Foster, 2003). In addition, the boys emphasize competition and choose friends based on strength and intensity. Girls, on the other hand, seek opportunities to discover themselves while their friendships focus on issues of intimacy, love, and social cohesion (Ruble et al., 2006).

In conclusion, self-esteem is, to a large extent, a reflection of adolescents' self-confidence. At the same time, it is a dynamic concept and also, prone to internal and external stimuli, with particular peak during adolescence. Undoubtedly, the roles of the two sexes seem to have a significant impact on adolescents' self-esteem and influence the way adolescents choose attitudes and behaviors in the various social circumstances (Agam, Tamir & Golan, 2015).

Research has shown that adolescents' low self-esteem is found at the root of most emotional problems and usually, low self-esteem is experienced in times when he/she did not live up according to his/her expectations or the expectations of the people around him/her. In other words, he/she does not accept his/her mistakes and shortcomings and also, he/she judges him/herself and at the same time he/she is afraid that others also will judge him/her for his/her shortcomings. There are many areas in the life of the adolescent, where his/her low self-esteem is evident (Leontari, 1996). And usually, adolescents with low self-esteem find it difficult to separate from their parents, are distant, engage in activities only when they feel safe, and watch the others in order to decide what to do, before trying something new. They rarely ask questions or answer impulsively, have difficulty sharing and tend to be closely associated with only a limited number of children. Some adolescents, may be shy and introverted by their nature, but they have high self-esteem, even if they do not ask many questions or give spontaneous answers (Makri-Mpotsari, 2001). Also, adolescents with low self-esteem show a high degree of anxiety, are afraid to take risks and come, mainly, from busy parents who work long hours. Thus, it is very difficult for these adolescents to develop a strong sense of identity and to understand their strengths and weaknesses. Still, it is equally difficult for them to be convinced that they are important individuals, who deserve respect and happiness (Makri-Mpotsari, 2001).

Teachers, realizing all the above, can play an important role in the smooth education of adolescents, and not only, and greatly to contribute to the improvement of their lives. That is why they should convey a sense of care to every adolescent student, especially to those who do not make readily relationships and who need this feeling more than others (Makri-Mpotsari, 2001). And this is because, a competitive

environment such as school, mainly, favors adolescent students who have high self-esteem and, in a way, does injustice to others. And when the education system ceases to be competitive, then the self-esteem of the weak students is greatly improved, without hindering the good students. This is considered normal, as the success is not overemphasized, nor is punished or stigmatized the failure (Leontari, 1996).

In contrast, adolescent students who have high self-esteem easily make connections with their classmates, enjoy their new experiences, ask lots of questions, offer spontaneously and respond to challenges by trying new things. They see themselves with realism, think that they are 'okay', recognize their potential, easily perceive their limitations and, usually, adolescent students with high self-esteem are the positive 'leaders' of a school class. They are still distinguished by volunteering, they are willing to help their classmates, to take risks and to cooperate in groups for the purpose of learning. They are not threatened by changes or new situations, they respond positively to praise and recognition and they feel positive about their achievements, as they feel responsible for the results. These teens are realistic, responsible with their behavior and possible mistakes, set goals, know what they want to do for achieving in their lives and when faced with a problem or a difficult situation can find alternative ways to solve them. They also have strong views that, most of the time, they do not hesitate to express them, thus creating a bad impression on some teachers (Leontari, 1996).

Contemplation, reflection and self-reflection

We live in a world which is moving at a very fast paces, man has many obligations and so it is very difficult to save and dedicate a part of his/her precious time in order to engage in self-reflection and to ponder. And still if he/she succeeds it, it is not always easy for everybody to practice on it. This certainly should not be the case because self-reflection is a valuable 'tool' with many uses. Thus, we could say with simply words that self-reflection or personal reflection is the process during which we take some time to think, meditate, evaluate, and generally think more seriously and re-evaluate behaviors, thoughts, attitudes, motivations and our wishes. In other words, it is a deep introspection into our thoughts, feelings and motivations in order to answer all the 'Why?' which concern us. It allows us to analyze our lives in the short, medium and long term so that to understand where we are headed, to determine the degree of our satisfaction about the direction and to make the appropriate adjustments as necessary.

Mezirow, adopting the definition of Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985) as they formulated it in the article 'Reflection: Turning Experience into Learning', writes that reflection helps us to give the right meaning to some wrong our views and to correct the mistakes we have made in solving various problems. He also expresses the view that self-reflection is identified with a high-level spiritual process that aims to improve knowledge, views and ideas. This is a general definition for those mentally activities that a person or adolescent develops, exploring his/her experiences, in order to arrive at a different perception and appreciation of things. Based on this definition, the person or adolescent who self-reflects can make correlations, generalizations, divisions and evaluations, find analogies, solve problems and look back at old events. Through self-reflection, having as basis our views, we interpret, analyze or judge, accepting that self-reflection is a part of thinking and learning.

Dewey (1933) states that meditation or reflection is the active, persistent and careful examination of our beliefs and knowledge as to where they are based and what conclusions they lead us to. Meditation has, mainly, the meaning of personal reflection, i.e. the thought that is directed towards the individual him/herself, but also concerns the thought in general. For Dewey, education must continue throughout life, and contemplative thinking must be the primary purpose of education, at all levels. Also, reflective learning takes place through recall and analysis of experience and the reflective technique includes processes such as: the recall in memory, rationalization, reorganization, correlation and reflection (Jarvis, 1990). As for the contemplative act, it is based on the critical evaluation of our views and on the control over their sources.

It is a fact that reflection insinuates criticism and critical reflection is synonymous with questioning the validity of the way in which prior knowledge has been acquired. Thus, we often look at prior knowledge to see if we are doing the right thing in solving a problem, but critical thinking is also the questioning of our beliefs and expectations, which have been shaped by our contact with the world. Given

that our self-perception is closely linked to certain values, it is difficult to challenge those values. And also, questioning or denying the criteria by which we evaluate ourselves is usually emotionally charged. Regarding the change of the optics of the adolescent students, it can be hindered by embedded or external barriers, by occasional or mental factors or by insufficient information. With critical meditation they redefine the problem, reorient their efforts and consider alternatives. Their critical-meditation thinking does not deal with the 'how' but with the 'why', that is, what are the reasons and effects of what we do.

Doing a search in the international literature, we easily find that there is a lot of research in the field of school education, which also concerns the age of adolescence and which have found that infants, children and adolescents learn, on the one hand by processing past experiences, who filter them through reflection, and on the other hand, through their exposure to new experiences (Kraft & Kielsmeier, 1995; Laevers & Heylen, 2003). However, we must admit that there is a significant difference between the experience of adults and that of minors, which is both qualitative and quantitative. Thus, it could be said with certainty that the experiences and the corresponding thought of children and adolescents for the role of money or love, are very different in quality from those of adults. And this obviously happens because adults, due to their older age, have more and much different and in-depth experiences than teenagers. Therefore, we could argue that what is probably happening is that while the fundamental material, i.e. the experience, through which the processing and construction of new knowledge takes place is different, the learning process seems to be the same in both adolescents and adults.

Consequences and benefits of self-reflection on the adolescents

Self-reflection is the adolescent's ability to do in-depth a self-analysis in order to learn more about his/her fundamental nature and essence. Self-reflection is closely related to the adolescent's consciousness, directly to the philosophy of his/her consciousness, and more generally to the philosophy of the mind. It is also considered a key feature of self-knowledge and is associated with many different cognitive and emotional skills, most of which are developed during adolescence, profoundly influencing adolescent behavior, how he/she interacts with his/her peers and with the rest of the world but, mainly, the way on how he/she decides.

We could also say that self-reflection is a process during which the adolescent has a constant and in-depth communication with him/herself. In other words, he/she spends the time to think about his/her behavior in each of his/her actions, to analyze the reasons and causes that caused this behavior, to understand what were the causes, the result and the effects of the behavior and finally, to discover the what he could do to improve it all. All this personal information is processed in order to help him/her to discover new ways of behaving, with the main purpose of reviewing some of this information in his/her future behavior and actions, to improve them and make them more effective, in order to give him/her strength and joy (Sandra, 2020).

Also, self-reflection helps the adolescent in many different ways, the most important of which are the following:

a   Looking inward, he/she improves and enhances his/her emotional stability, through self-awareness and self-concept. This will improve his/her personal and professional lives.

b   It strengthens his/her self-esteem and makes his/her decisions clearer. Through self-esteem, decision-making becomes easier, communication more effective, and influence and confidence are established.

c   In order for the process of self-reflection to be effective in the adolescent, his/her sincerity plays an important role because through it, by better understanding his experiences, he/she is developed and is led to better choices.

d   Self-reflection offers to the adolescent the opportunity to adapt his/her behaviors and actions to future situations. The consequences and expectations of these behaviors can provide him/her with a valuable source of clear knowledge and learning (Toros & LaSala, 2019).

e   The adolescent, through his/her self-reflection and sincerity, develops abilities for the creation a positive mentality, keeping his/her ideas and thoughts positive.

As is evident, the benefits of self-reflection are many and so the adolescent should, despite his/her many obligations, to find and devote time to such a valuable process. The most important benefits for the adolescent through such a process are the following:

    a   It allows to the adolescent to acquire vision, perspective, realism and a clear and unambiguous point of view, as well as not to allow the emotion to negatively affect his/her judgment,

    b   It helps him/her to respond more effectively and not to react impulsively to various discussions or events, to think about the consequences of his/her words and actions, as well as to act more effectively.

    c   Self-reflection allows to the adolescent to think deeply, to properly process the circumstances, feelings and motivations in his/her actions, to live a complete, holistic and healthy life and to gradually acquire a deeper understanding of life.

Reflection on education

Research shows that giving time to adolescent students in order to reflect is a valuable tool, because it serves as a mean that creates greater self-awareness, appreciation of the process and product, but also deepens learning. Thus, considering that self-reflection is a developmental ability that fully emerges during adolescence and, at the same time, provides time to adolescent students in order to follow the process of self-reflection, through their reflection on the content of the lessons and the detection of gaps in their learning. In essence, it allows them to build critical thinking skills, develop problem-solving skills and thus gain greater independence and efficiency in their learning and maximize their understanding. These are the reasons why self-reflection, as a dynamic and continuous process, is so important. Also, through self-reflection, are given the opportunity to the adolescent students in order to evaluate their strengths and weaknesses, so as to be able to create a path of positive self-assessment.

Reflection can be seen as a bridge between learning and teaching, and it is a fact that, between these two, we usually prioritize learning without to displace teaching. This is because learning and teaching should not be on opposite sides but should coexist. And, through an active, reciprocal exchange, teaching can enhance learning (Malaguzzi 1993). Therefore, from the above it becomes clear that reflection exists at all levels of education and consequently applies to adolescents and also, its presence is considered necessary and indispensable both in learning and teaching.

The existence of reflection in education has been promoted by the three educational movements that have prevailed in the field of education in recent years:

    a   The movement of social constructivism where the knowledge is built with collective effort and cooperation,

    b   The movement of critical thinking that emphasizes to teaching that aims at understanding, and

    c   The movement for the holistic approach of knowledge that aims at the comprehensive development of the adolescent student (Kouloumbaritsi & Matsaggouras, 2004).

Still, many scholars have examined the reflection in education and the result of this examination has been that themselves to differentiate as to the way they define the principle, the levels, the content, the process and the time of reflection. An example is the classification of reflection based on the object on which the reflection focuses (Van Veen & Van de Ven, 2008) and is classified as:

    a   Functional, referring to the composition and effectiveness of pedagogical strategies,

    b   Academic, referring to the theories but also to the programs that penetrate the pedagogical work, and

    c   Critic, referring to the moral and social aspect of education.

Another example is that of the categorization of reflection according to its depth levels (Lee, 2005), which are as follows:

    a   The level of recall, when the teacher analyzes the event in the light of the recall of experiences,

    b   The level of justification, when the teacher correlates the experiences, interpreting with arguments and generalizing or finding new techniques, and

c   The level of critical analysis, when the teacher treats his/her experience with a tendency for change by controlling it from many perspectives, and being able to observe the result of the cooperation of teachers on children.

There is also another categorization of reflection based on time and the treaty that takes place (Schon, 1983).

As a consequence of all the above, it was the placement of reflection in the educational programs of Greek education, as it was considered that it acts in support of the other educational goals. Thus, the reflection is found in the 'New Curriculum - New School 2012', which encourages children, adolescent students but also the teacher to approach the educational process reflectively.

Relationship between self-esteem and anxiety in adolescents

According to the existing literature, the adolescent's impression of self-sufficiency or inadequacy is crucial for all aspects of his/her later life and includes mental, emotional and motivating qualities. The self-assessment and self-image that the adolescent forms through it is obvious and so, it is an internal regulator of his/her actions, that guides his/her personality, stabilizes the behavior and interprets and expects experiences commensurate with the degree of his/her self-esteem. The emotional component of the adolescent's self, the self-esteem, is a unique human feature, a main variable of his/her behavior, which determines his/her adaptive ability and helps significantly in the study and decoding of his/her behavior.

Also, as it is known through the research, communication anxiety is a general human component, which exists in almost every human being. And this, because in every age and at every stage of human evolution there are stressful situations. Adolescents, accepting many and different stressful situations, are not exempt from this feeling but also from their insecurity, a fact that is confirmed through daily experience, but also by scientific research. It should also be noted that the process of creating anxiety is common at all ages, but there are significant differences between adolescents and adults, in individual areas of this phenomenon. The difference between an adult and an adolescent is mainly determined by the greater number of experiences that the adult has and by the mental-cognitive supplies that he/she has developed to deal with anxiety situations. It is obvious that the accumulated experience of the adolescent differs significantly in both quantity and quality from that of the adult. In additional, essential cognitive functions and skills, such as attention, perception, the recognition and interpretation of environmental stimuli, the ablative thinking and language are not fully developed, except when the child will reach to the end of the adolescence (Paraskevopoulos, 1985).

These two parameters, namely the limited number of experiences and the reduced mental development, both together or separately, affect the process of creating communication anxiety and in particular to the cognitive assessment of a situation, but also to the regulation of the emotion it causes. Regarding the emotion, it is commonly accepted, that in adolescence it has different characteristics, such as intensity and duration. Even in adolescence, it is more difficult to regulate the emotion, due to the lack of mental abilities and functions of the individual. Regarding the cognitive assessment, it is fully understood that the adolescent lags behind, due to limited experiences and lack of mental development, as it is a complex process which is the intermediate stage between the stimulus that is of the external demands and the manifestation of anxiety. An additional area of differentiation of communication anxiety in adolescents and adults are the causes that provoke it, the external demands, as they are experienced and perceived by the person (Mpezevegkis, Vasilaki & Triliva, 2001).

The most important causes that provoke the anxiety in adolescents, depending on their personal capabilities, cycle of experiences and the level of mental development, based on the classification of Triliva, Vasilaki and Chimienti (1997), can be grouped into five categories, which are:

a   School performance: Burdened curriculum, difficulty and unsuitability of the material, exams.
b   School environment: The school is a milestone in the life of the child and adolescent, it seals in a normal way his/her first continuous separation from the parents, and it is also the first place of his/her socialization outside the family.

    c   Peers - classmates: The child and adolescent, after passing the egocentric stage of his/her development, seeks the communication and companionship with people outside the family.

    d   Family: It is obvious that the psychological atmosphere that prevails in the home directly affects the psychological state of the adolescent. Conflicts with parents and siblings, obstruction of childhood spontaneity, possible parental divorce or illness of family members, death or low educational and financial level, all contribute to increase the anxiety.

    e   Personal problems: Usually are related to the child's image about him/herself, also his/her future, sexual identity and free time.

In addition to the increased pressure and demands from the school, relationships with their peers also play an important role in causing anxiety in adolescents. Siegel, La Greca and Harrison (2009) studied the social anxiety in adolescents and their victimization by peers. The results of the study showed that these two show a strong correlation between them and therefore, the relationships which are developed between peers and, in particular, the close friendships, are important parameters of their mental health. And it is a fact that adolescents' troubled relationships with their peers lead to poor emotional functioning and, among other things, to the development of symptoms of depression and social anxiety (La Greca & Harrison, 2005). Therefore, as it have be shown in the above research, in the case that a good and close friendship is withdrawn the results for the adolescent are destructive and so begins the development of social anxiety.

Also, during the adolescence the prevalence levels for the social anxiety and depression in adolescents are increased (Esbjørn, Hoeyer, Dyrborg, Leth & Kendall, 2010). One possible explanation for the increased anxiety in adolescence is the fact that there is a higher incidence of life stressors in adolescence in combination with the cognitive vulnerability of adolescents (Mezulis, Funasaki, Charbonneau & Hyde, 2010). Two of the most important life stressors during adolescence are the interpersonal factors and also, those associated with success (Calvete, Orue & González-Diez, 2013).

It has also been found that the anxiety affects the performance of adolescents and this has important implications for the learning process. Adolescents with anxiety worry about the threat they may feel during a particular goal and thus they try to use strategies in order to reduce the effects of anxiety and so to achieve their goal (Derakshan & Eysenck, 2009). Therefore, the adolescents are essentially diverting their attention from the cognitive work, in an effort to find effective coping strategies for the anxiety.

Regarding social relationships and self-esteem in adolescents, it has been found that adolescent self-esteem is connected for a long time with the consequent pre-social behavior towards foreigners, and that the early pre-social behavior towards foreigners is associated with the promotion of the later self-esteem (Fu, Padilla-Walker & Brown, 2017). Such two-way relationships between self-esteem and pre-social behavior were not found with other groups, fact which demonstrates the complexity of developing adolescents' self-esteem and the multidimensional nature of the social behavior.

Self-esteem and communication anxiety in adolescent students

The connection between communication anxiety in adolescent students and their self-esteem are two concepts whose relationship have hardly been explored at all. This is mainly because both of these conditions often change during the adolescents' development and thus do not remain completely stable in order to be studied. However, several studies have found a moderate to high statistical power between anxiety and self-esteem (Lee & Hankin, 2009). More specifically, self-esteem has been shown to have a strong negative association with anxiety and depression (Moksnes, Moljord, Espnes & Byrne, 2010). Still, the high self-esteem has been found to act as an important regulator against anxiety, while the low self-esteem has been linked to anxiety symptoms and bodily complaints (Morley & Moran, 2011). Therefore, according to the literature, there is a tendency of a negative correlation between anxiety and self-esteem, with the latter being able to be considered as a mediating factor for anxiety. As mentioned before, the high self-esteem can have positive effects on people's lives and well-being, while the low self-esteem may be a risk factor for the occurrence of negative effects (Sowislo & Orth, 2013). So by extension, the same should be true for the adolescents.

In other words, self-esteem acts as a brace for individuals against feelings of anxiety, enhances coping strategies, and also, promotes both bodily and mental health (Pepping, O'Donovan & Davis, 2013). According to the above references to the findings of modern studies, there are important indications for the mediating and regulatory role of self-esteem in anxiety, mainly the trait anxiety, and in depressive symptoms. Similar findings are found in long-term researches, which have shown that the low self-esteem, in perspective, seems to predict increases in anxiety and depression, while anxiety and depression do not predict, respectively, reduced levels of self-esteem (Orth & Robins, 2014). Therefore, from the indication of the single implication of the previous investigations, we can conclude that the mediating model which has already been described and concerns the role of self-esteem in anxiety, is confirmed by long-term research, in addition to synchronized.

On the other hand, there are findings that show a positive correlation between anxiety and self-esteem, especially situational anxiety. Bharathi, Sasikala, Nandhitha and Karunanidhi (2015) studied the optimism, self-esteem and social acceptance in two groups of adolescent students with high and low test anxiety. The researchers found that the levels of optimism were high among the high-anxiety adolescent group. They also found that on the one hand the levels of self-esteem and on the other hand the levels of social acceptance were high in the group of students with high anxiety.

Also, depending on the feeling and the degree of optimism of adolescents, the relationship between high self-esteem and high anxiety also arises. In particular, adolescent students who are highly anxious about the exams, study well and usually score high, something which helps them to have self-confidence and faith in their abilities. Furthermore, adolescent students who have high anxiety in order to meet to parental and social expectations, are usually accompanied by support and reinforcement, something which explains the relationship between high self-esteem and high anxiety (Bharathi et al., 2015).

Self-reflection, structured learning and anxiety of adolescent students

Research has shown that structured learning, self-reflection and anxiety are highly correlated (Ganzer & Zauderer, 2013). In fact, by applying specific teaching-learning strategies in education, in combination with self-reflection, the reduction of students' stress and anxiety can be achieved, thus, positively affecting learning and, at the same time, increasing their self-knowledge.

Stress in the learning environment has been shown to contribute in creation of anxiety in adolescent students and thus leads to the development of poor coping skills, hindering students' academic performance. Emotional stress has been shown to negatively affect a student's ability to interact with peers and others, to manage educational goals, and to achieve successful learning outcomes (Duffy, 2009). Acquiring skills in a positive and structured learning experience generally enhances personal and professional development and builds trust. Providing students with a controlled learning experience and structured learning activities allows them to become familiar with and feel comfortable in their learning environment. Furthermore, providing appropriate structures and support to adolescent students can play an important role in facilitating their development in the educational experience.

The benefits coming of applying self-reflection in education are many, with the main benefit being that it can help adolescent students better understand their stress and anxiety and gain or increase their self-awareness, considering it to be an important teaching strategy. This process involves the internally examining and investigating of an issue that causes concern and that have been caused by an experience. Creates and clarifies the meaning from the point of view of the self and leads to a change of conceptual perspective (Donovan, 2007). Through the use of self-reflection, adolescent students can take a holistic, individualized approach to the learning that evokes the way they think, feel, and believe (Epp, 2008). Boud and Fales (1983) described three stages in the process of reflective learning: the prediction of an experience, the exposure to experience, and the final stage after the event. The school should facilitate discussions between students during the lessons and encourage the open exchange of concerns they may have. Students should also be given opportunities to openly discuss their thoughts, feelings, and concerns about any teaching or learning issues that arise, and not only.

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Theoretical article

SHAPING OF THE IDENTITY OF ADOLESCENTS

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Abstract
Adolescence is those stage of development, through which a series of rapid and continuous biological, personal, educational, social and interpersonal changes are usually signaled. And this is because, this specific but also so important for the later life, stage of development, is a critical period, during which, on the one hand, the adolescent is occupied by anxiety, distress and mental pressure, but on the other hand the adolescent is also interested with various other issues, such as: the acquisition of knowledge and experience, efforts to make plans for the future, management of various addictions, meeting of needs, confrontation of many challenges and risks (e.g. drugs, smoking, sexually transmitted diseases), interest for empathy, relationships with peers and the opposite sex, and finally, search in order to find answers for many other issues which concern him/her. Therefore, it is necessary an investigation, through the review of the international literature, which will concern both the way of shaping the identity by the adolescent, but also the ways with which it is affected or 'guided' by other external factors (family, peers, environment). Through a critical and comparative approach of important theories, which concern the acquisition of the personal identity of adolescents, it turns out that identity issues are not completely resolved during adolescence but they are subject to various changes and transformations during throughout adult life. Thus, identity issues return to different periods of human life and individuals are likely to move frequently from one category of identity to another, as they are involved in different roles, change their relationships and live in various environments, where they are experiencing many and different challenges.

Keywords: Identity, adolescents, shaping, development, theoretical approaches.

Adolescence, as a period of human development, has a biological beginning and a psychological end but it is difficult to be determined its exact limits. And the main reason that pushes us to be troubled about the adolescence is that it often becomes incomprehensible and agonizing. Many times, it contains so many contradictions that we find it difficult to reconcile it with mental health. Adolescence is also a transitional period between the childhood organization of the psyche and the ending to the adult and mature personality. In essence, a child will have to be transformed, gradually and in a relatively short period of time, into an adult, and this jump is considered huge. Thus, in this evolutionary phase, the mental and physical balance receives many shocks and the adolescent's personality is characterized by a constant fluidity.

Still, adolescence is that critical stage of development, during which man discovers who he is, what his 'beliefs' are and what paths he will follow in his life. That is, within this stage, he begins to form his identity. A successful shaping of identity by the adolescent is directly related to the development of a complete sense of self and its subsequent course. At the same time, it is a period where they dominate: the anxiety, uncertainty, controversy, various problems, anguish, exploration, and in general, it is a period of breaking the links with the past, but also of creating new ones with the future. Today's adolescent is called, in a particularly difficult and competitive society, to be attuned to adult role, learning to appreciate the potential hidden within him, using it creatively and facing the life with optimism and militancy.

It is also obvious that for the adolescent, the role of essential emotional relationships, communication, respect and love within the family is extremely important, because, in this way, they

provide him with important emotional supplies, maturity, but mainly they protect it from negative, meaningless and dangerous influences from third parties. The support of the adolescent from the parents, as it is expressed through the appreciation, interest or help offered to the adolescent, contributes greatly to the creation of a high self-esteem and self-confidence, and also offers to him all those supplies and strength in order to see the life clearly and realistically. In addition, in order the adolescent to acquire a satisfactory personal identity but also to be facilitated his independence from the family, a healthy support network is considered crucial, which, as usual, will consist from his peers. This group of peers provides the adolescent with many different alternatives and attitudes, enhancing the exploration and facilitating him on his efforts to achieve the autonomy and independence from his parents. However, apart from the two mentioned above, a basic condition for the successful shaping of the adolescent's identity is, mainly, his active participation in those choices and processes, which are related to shaping of his identity.

The main purpose of this article is to investigate, through the various existing theoretical approaches of the international literature, the route that follows the process of shaping of the identity of the adolescent, as well as, how its final acquisition is influenced by some important external factors (e.g. family, peers). The questions surrounding adolescence and shaping of adolescents' identity, which seek answers through such an article, are many and varied. Of particular interest however cause: the criticalness or not of the adolescence, if the shaping of identity is completed by the end of adolescence or continues into later life, if there are predetermined stages in shaping of adolescents' personal identity and finally, if and to what extent adolescents' peers and families influence their identities shaping.

Adolescence, its most important characteristics and development

Adolescence is defined as the developmental stage of transition from the childhood to adulthood and it is the developmental period which begins with the changes on pubic physiology and ends with the shaping of personal identity (Feldman & Elliott, 1990). The individual during this period is subject to major and rapid changes in all key areas of his development: physical, cognitive, emotional and social sector (Zilikis, 2007). This evolutionary process in human life leads to the conquest of the cognitive function and ends with the acquisition of a stable sense of self's identity, which is the ultimate goal. And it is also obvious, that adolescence in the 21st century is very different from the adolescence many decades ago. As early as the beginning of the 20th century, the dominant psychological and sociological views attributed specific characteristics for the adolescence. And the important thing is that 'adolescents' cultures' are considered basic cultural structures, in which the role of gender and the development of personal identity stand out (Dadatsi, 2012).

However, it is important to realize that adolescents experience a wide range of social changes that directly affect their lives. Today's society seems to be putting new pressures, as different demands are formulated on young people and their parents. The most obvious social changes, that affect young people now days, occur in areas such as the family and the transition from education to work. It is also important to pay due attention to contemporary phenomena, such as the globalization, diversity of multicultural societies and the catalytic effect of information technologies on the lives of young people (Coleman, 2011).

Researchers involved in the investigation of adolescence, such as Holmbeck and Shapera (1999), propose a multifactorial framework for understanding adolescent development and social adjustment, in the following format:

- Interpersonal context of adolescent development, such as: family, peers, school, and work.
- Primary developmental changes in adolescence, such as: biological, psychological/cognitive, changes in social roles.
- Developmental results of adolescence, such as: achievements, autonomy, identity, intimacy, psychosocial adjustment, sexuality.
- Demographic and intrapersonal mean variables, such as: nationality, family structure, gender, neighborhood/community, socioeconomic level.

It is important to understand, that a variety of social factors interact decisively with complex psychological and cognitive functions, but also with the biosomatic changes of puberty (Wolfe & Mash, 2006). Thus, the differentiation of the family structure is inevitably linked to a wide range of social and psychological issues which affect a significant number of children and adolescents. The need to deal with situations, such as breaking up the original family and the adjusting to new family arrangements, can lead the adolescents to anxious living conditions and emotional instability (Coleman, 2011).

It should also be noted, that the ongoing social changes that take place in gender identities, in the context of modern societies, have changed the established patterns of relationships between the two sexes. Entrenched perceptions to date, regarding the current social and psychological characteristics of the 'gender self' and identity, are challenged and revised, leading to new searches the developing person (Dadatsi, 2012). An important social change is also, the fact that new requirements and expectations are created regarding the roles of both sexes. Arises, therefore, the need to redefine the position of both women and men in modern societies and to find a differentiated conception of the shaping of gender identities (Deligianni-Kuimtzi & Sakkas, 2007).

Another major social change that is of great importance, is adolescent's transition from education to work. The historic changes taking place in the labor market today and the dramatic rise in youth unemployment have numerous implications. More and more young people today are forced to stay in education or specialization for longer periods, as jobs are scarce and short-lived, especially for people under 25 years old. Young adults nowadays are forced to treat work as temporary and to be adapted to conditions of financial turmoil (Coleman, 2011). At the same time, social changes such as globalization and migration are important for adolescents and positive and negative characteristics are highlighted in this development. In the era of globalization, adolescents have the opportunity to come into contact with different cultural expressions and different lifestyles. At the same time, they are given the opportunity to benefit from such a meeting and to be enriched with new skills and multiform interests. However, we cannot ignore the fact that the mobility of ethnic groups is often associated with prejudices and racist behaviors towards adolescents coming from ethnic minorities (Coleman, 2011).

According to the classic definition of the World Health Organization (WHO), adolescence is considered the age period starting from 10 to 19 years (World Health Organization, 2002). They are distinguished three developmental stages during the period of adolescence:

1) Early adolescence (10-13 years),
2) Average adolescence (14-15 years), and
3) Late adolescence (16-19 years).

Each of these three stages is characterized by specific physical, psychosocial and cognitive changes. Also, it is estimated that 80% of adolescents live in developing countries and for Greece the statistics show that there are about 1.3 million adolescents in our country, who represent about the 12% of the total Greek population (Hellenic Statistical Authority, 2001).

It is also known that, during adolescence, we distinguish the transition from dependence to autonomy. Through the identification processes, the adolescent seeks access to a stable sense of identity, which is also the final goal, and that is completed through the social registration and validation of this identity. Psychosexual development, perhaps the most crucial axis of the adolescent, is the background of many processes but also an essential component of identity. The image of the body and the real body are at the center of the processes of adolescence, but also at the heart of many pathological conditions. The main issue constitutes the integration of the gendered body in the image of the self. Psycho-emotional development and maturation teach the young person how to connect his emotions and also, the relationships with the environment, by definition, works decisively. Finally, psycho-mental cognitive development, which plays an important role in the whole developmental process, is crucial, while, at the same time, it can be hindered by psychopathological processes (Zilikis, 2007).

Adolescence, then, is a special and critical period in human life. A period in which various opportunities are presented, the feeling of freedom is strong, and the personality is strongly formed. At the same time, adolescence is the period where the expectations are high, the perception of 'invulnerable'

is dominant and the risks are underestimated (Kokkevi, 2010). Typical characteristics of adolescence, which make the adolescent vulnerable, are curiosity, emotional discomfort, increased sensitivity in terms of self-image, and the need for acceptance by friends. These characteristics push the adolescent to challenge parental authority, to seek new experiences and to adopt risky behaviors.

The concept and shaping of identity for the adolescent

The most important mission for the adolescent is the shaping of his personal identity and, on this, Moshman D. (2005) states that: "as man grows, he self-identifies himself according to his personality and ideology". After all, identity is the fixed view that every person has about himself, about his existence, the goals during the life, the position in society, his religious or moral and political beliefs, etc. Therefore, the successful identity shaping is directly related to the location and placement of the self in the time and social environment. It also requires the achieving of a sense of self and an adequate investigation and meditation concerning the alternatives (Wayne, 2008). In terms of shaping personal identity, this is considered to be the most important mission during the adolescent's developmental course. Already, from early adolescence, children wonder about their image and place in the world and try to self-identify themselves based on their characteristics and abilities. Young people seek for a stable image of themselves and are struggling to answer to the questions related to their existence, gender, beliefs or goals (Kenanidis, 2005).

The successful acquisition of the concept of identity involves the placement of the individual in many dimensions, such as: gender, sexuality, moral thought, political views, religiosity, professional orientation and national consciousness. The sense of coherent identity is associated with the certainty of the young person, that he has achieved his integration into the social and cultural environment where he belongs, while, at the same time, he feels comfortable with who he is and maintains a conscious sense of uniqueness (Moshman, 2005). Thus, as adolescents try to structure their personal identity, they search for the truth about their real selves, often change direction, explore a variety of possibilities and finally, they experiment with alternative aspects of their personality. The structure of identity is influenced by the innate abilities of the developing individual, but also by interpersonal factors. It is very important for the teenager to be identified with other people, who he admires or respects. Adolescents' path to self-discovery presents difficulties, as it is accompanied by uncertainty and sudden mood swings. In addition, the search for identity may go through dangerous situations, which make the adolescent particularly vulnerable emotionally and socially (Gottman, 2015).

French professor Debesse Maurice, who systematically studied the psychological phenomenon of the 'crisis of adolescent originality', concludes as follows: "The phenomenon of the crisis of adolescent originality is signaled by an aggressive denial of compliance which disorientates the adults but also the adolescents themselves. It interprets self-awareness evokes a strong sense of personal value and uniqueness of experience. It reaches to an outburst of personality that is born and to a kind of transient egoism, in order to calmly end up in a first and fragile spiritual composition, which reflects everything occupied the subject during the crisis, which has just passed" (Kosmopoulos, 1999).

During their developmental course, adolescents need to acquire a sense of self-control or, in other words, the ancient Greek virtue of 'prudence', aiming to the harmonious coexistence of logic and emotion. Important developmental task is also, the conquest of 'temperance' or 'temperantia', as it was called by the Romans. Of course, emotions and passion have their own value in the life, but young people must achieve the restraint of the emotional exaggeration and to seek the 'appropriate emotions', as the ancient Greek philosopher Aristotle called the emotions that suit every circumstance. Emotional repression causes apathy and does not allow the proximity in interpersonal relationships, while, at the same time, alienating people. However, emotional outbursts, such as uncontrollable anger, excessive anxiety, irrational fear and intense sadness, suppress the healthy development of identity in adolescence (Goleman, 2015).

During adolescence, the young person should not only self-identify as to their personality traits, but also to investigate the social roles that he will take on as an adult. And he is called to commit himself gradually, but also clearly, to ideological, religious and political positions, which will allow him to

maintain his uniqueness, but, at the same time, they will serve his need for acquisition of a unified identity, socially acceptable. Besides, the structure of the adolescent's identity is also influenced by cultural factors, which include dominant social values of the community. The exploration of social roles and the commitment in positions are two very important functions in order to be achieved the developmental goal of building the personal and social identity (Moshman, 2005). It is also important that, in the context of his theory of psychosocial development, Erikson refers closely to the 'identity crisis' experienced during adolescence, a crisis which is mainly related to the confusion of adolescents around the social roles and their image, on a personal and collective level. Still, the cognitive abilities of the abstract formal thinking now allow the adolescent "to process the specific details of childhood" (Bareudoins, 1981; Erikson, 1974), while at the same time, according to J.E. Marcia (1980), is driven, through the painful emotional course of identity formation, to a clear and stable sense of self (Vosniadou, 2007).

Theoretical approaches concerning the shaping of adolescent's identity

The development of adolescents' personal goals is directly related to the formation of their identity. And identity building is an important link between adolescence and adulthood, because it acts as a bridge between childhood experiences and personal goals, as well as to the values and decisions which allow the young person to take his own place in society. During adolescence, the individual must not only identify himself with specific characteristics but must examine the general roles he will be called upon to play as an adult in the wider social context, shaping the gender identity, religious identity and political identity. As supported by Benson et al. (2006), the shaping of personal identity prepares the individuals to face the challenges they will come across later in their life. An important risk factor for configuration potentially conflicting identities is the adolescent's need for diversity and uniqueness on the one hand, and his need for the acquisition of an identity, which will be accepted by 'significant others' and society, on the other hand.

Various theories have been developed for the way in which the adolescent acquires his personal identity, how it is shaped, and what may be influenced it. The positions of the three most important theories and some extra styles will be briefly presented below:

a) The identity crisis according to Erikson's (1968) theory:

According to the psychosocial theory of Erikson E. (1968), the 'Ego' plays a central role in his psychosocial theory, as is maintained the balance of man which will help him to develop the trust or instead the distrust (Lopiga et al., 2011). Even a person, in each of the eight developmental phases-stages of his life, from birth to old age, tries to satisfy various goals and needs by forming new perceptions of himself and his social environment. In each of these phases corresponds a developmental crisis of the 'Ego', which the individual must resolve (Nova-Kaltsouni et al., 2000). Finally, the social influences that receives the biological mechanism of human are of great importance for Erikson, as they are the ones that ultimately regulate the behavior of the individual (Salkind, 2004).

It is useful and practical to be mentioned here the stages of psychosocial development which Erik Erikson, according to his theoretical approach, distinguishes them into eight phases, which correspond to the stages of Sigmund Freud psychosexual development and are characterized by constant crises and conflicts with the inner and outer world. The outcome of these conflicts depends on the terms posed by the social environment in which the child grows up and has a significant impact on his socialization, which Erik Erickson perceives as a 'lifelong process'. The eight stages of psychosocial development, as defined by Erik Erickson, are as follows:

1) *Trust or distrust (1st year):* At this stage, that is when a baby is born, it will come in direct contact with its environment, which will help it to acquire external stimuli in order to be able to regulate its behavior (Salkind, 2004). Conversely, if the infant feels that its needs are not being met, it will develop a sense of futility and distrust (Lopiga et al., 2011).

2) *Autonomy or shame and doubt (2nd year):* This stage helps the child to control his physical behavior by regulating a specific muscle group (Salkind, 2004). Otherwise, the child feels guilty and does not become autonomous when he cannot control these muscles.

3) *Initiative or guilt (3rd - 6th year):* During this 3rd stage, children learn to become independent by taking initiatives by themselves in order to solve problems they encounter in their lives (Lopiga et al., 2011). This means that children need to be weaned from their parents, so that they are able to take complex initiatives in order to solve their personal needs on their own.

4) *Industriousness or inferiority (7th year to adolescence):* At this stage, the individual must learn to invest in his energy for learning as well as to properly exercise his mental and social needs (Lopiga et al., 2011). Otherwise, the child feels incompetent and oppressed or feels inferior without any particular value.

5) *Identity or confusion of the role (adolescence):* At this stage of 'puberty and adolescence', the most important achievement is the adoption of a role in society and its stabilization (Salkind, 2004). If the individual doubts for himself, then this situation creates the confusion of roles or moratorium, according to Erikson (Lopiga et al., 2011).

6) *Intimacy or isolation (adult life):* At this stage of 'Youth', the biologically mature person should understand the meaning of intimacy with his fellow human beings (Boeree, 2006). Otherwise, when there is no intimacy and trust, the person is led into isolation.

7) *Productivity or stagnation (middle age):* In this stage of 'Middle age', the person, which is professionally restored and is stabilized in his human relationships, seeks a stable life role which will make him feel completely satisfied (Salkind, 2004) The individual at this stage should show love for the upbringing of his children and worry about the future of next generations (Boeree, 2006).

8) *Completeness or despair (old age):* The last stage that of 'Maturity', constitutes essentially the completion of the 'Ego'. The completion of the 'Ego' comes in relation to the life the person lived, as he feels satisfied with all the choices he made and the goals he achieved (Boeree, 2006). On the contrary, the person who is not satisfied with what he did, feels despair and believes that he lost a large part of his life without achieving his goals (Salkind, 2004).

It is clear from the literature that Erik Erikson did not perform any experiments in order to confirm his theory, but he merely relied on the observation of adolescents who took part in a treatment program. In this, then, the limited sample of adolescents discovered an identity crisis. Erik Erikson's theory does not seem to provide a detailed analysis of the processes that lead to the identity crisis, nor does it indicate in detail the processes that contribute to its resolution. Also, the fact that some adolescents presented an identity crisis, does not mean that all adolescents are the same and that everyone is going through an identity crisis. In fact, there are huge individual and social differences in adolescents' experiences (Durkin, 1995). For example, Weinreich P. (1986) published findings from different groups of adolescent girls in the United Kingdom, where he found that girls coming from immigrant families had higher levels of role confusion than girls of dominant culture. It is a fact that adolescents belonging to ethnic minorities need more time to acquire an identity, probably because their lives are more complicated than the lives of other adolescents belonging to the majority.

It is also particularly important, that Erik Erikson stressed that the identity is never 'final', but continues to evolve and change throughout human life. It is subject to changes and transformations that are due, both to the developmental changes of the individual in all areas, and to his interactions with the environment (Schwartz et al., 2011). Also, according to Erik Erikson (1950), a person enters to adolescence in its fifth stage of development, which begins at the age of 12 and reaches the age of 20. And the developmental crisis that the adolescent is called to solve, can have a positive effect that is to acquire his identity, or have a negative effect that is to prevail the confusion of roles (Para, 2008). If the adolescent succeeds to join in a harmonious whole the opposite aspects of his social coexistence, he will form a satisfactory personal identity and a clear image of himself, while, otherwise, he will feel confused and will experience an identity crisis.

b) Identity categories according to Marcia's identity model (1966):

Erik Erikson's theory for identity, subsequently, was processed by Marcia James (1966, 1976), who defined the identity as an internal dynamic organization of: beliefs, principles, skills, aspirations and personal history of the individual. Although he argued that Erik Erikson's views were oversimplified, he took from his work the concepts of 'exploration' and 'commitment', which constitute the two main pillars for the formation of identity. By the term 'exploration', Marcia James (1980) means a period during which the individual makes choices, and reconsiders the old values and choices. It involves the exploration both the self and the external environment and suggest the search for a fuller sense of self. The result of this re-evaluation is the 'commitment' to a specific role, to a specific ideology (Schwartz, 2012).

According to Sigelman C. and Rider E. (2009), Marcia James argued that there are four categories of identity (as shown in the Table below), depending on the presence or absence of 'exploration' and 'commitment' in different areas of life of adolescents. According to Marcia James, every adolescent belongs to a category of identity and, the identity that he will shape, directly affects his personality. Also according to A. Papazoglou (2014), adolescents, depending on their personality, assimilate one of the following identities, which are categorized as follows:

	Commitment	**Lack of Commitment**
Exploration	Identity Achievement	Identity Moratorium
Lack of Exploration	Identity Foreclosure	Identity Diffusion

James Marcia's four (4) identity development statuses

1) *Identity Diffusion:* Individuals in this category have not explored nor have they committed to an identity, according to Shaffer D. (2009). So, they easily change their views and behavior. According to Martin C. and Fabes R. (2009), these are apathetic people, insecure and absorbed in their thoughts. They also do not have a strong personal or social identity. Their self-image is quite low and negative, as well as their social entourage is poor, without many friendships and relationships (Papazoglou, 2014).

2) *Identity Foreclosure:* Individuals who fall into the category of 'identity foreclosure', have prematurely committed to an identity but they have not explored it at all; and also, it has been designed by parents or other authorities (Shaffer, 2009) and so, the adolescents only have adopted it. This brings them face to face with their low self-esteem, as it makes them conventional, authoritarian and uncompromising in their social relationships and in personal character (Feldman, 2011). They lack autonomy and independence, while their relationships usually present problems (Hurrelman & Hamilton, 1996).

3) *Identity Moratorium:* The identity 'moratorium' refers to a situation where the adolescents still continue to explore their identity but they have not yet committed. Unfortunately, some people remain in this phase for a long time or indefinitely and often they challenge themselves (Wayne, 2008). As a result of all the above mentioned is, these adolescents often to experience fears, anxieties, negative emotions, low school performance and also, they are not very satisfied with their school. The positive element of the 'moratorium' is that the people who follow it have a positive image of themselves and their relationships with their social environment are satisfactory. Adolescents must necessarily experience the moratorium phase, before they can shape a mature identity (Martin & Fabes, 2009).

4) *Identity Achievement:* This stage of 'achievement identity' is a situation where adolescents, after a period of adequate exploration, have decide and have committed in terms of their personal strengths and choices, and finally, they are conscious about their lives (Irving & Sayre, 2016).

Also, the adolescents who belong to this category, experience greater acceptance of themselves, function independently to a large extent and feel their strengths and weaknesses. In addition, adolescents with 'achievement identity' have a high school performance and positive social behavior (Martin & Fabes, 2009).

Marcia J.E. (2002) argued that the process of identity shaping does not begin or end in adolescence and that adolescents can reach the 'Achievement identity' by first going through the stages of other identities. Still, adolescents' strong loyalty to 'Achievement identity' is not easily shaken, even though they may be affected by physical obstacles or external influences (Irving & Sayre, 2016). In addition, the identity is shaping in a gradual and often unconscious way, as the individual passes from the one category of identity to another, and in a specific order, starting from the 'Diffusion identity' and reaching the 'Achievement identity'. But this whole course of the adolescent towards the Achievement identity can be developed either smoothly, so that the adolescent will remain in it, or experiencing a crisis, where the adolescent can retrogress from the 'Achievement identity' to the 'Foreclosure identity' or 'Diffusion identity' (Papazoglou, 2014) .

Many times adolescents, in order to enter to the world of adults, change the category of their identity, due to the external and internal influences or pressures they receive. Thus, this route is sometimes abrupt and creates a disturbance/crisis in the adolescent, and sometimes it happens gradually and smoothly. Both Marcia J.E. as Erikson E. argued, that it is not possible for the adolescents who have reached to the 'Achievement identity' to return to a previous stage. But when Marcia J.E. continued one of his initial studies, he discovered that some of the adolescents who had reached to the stage of 'Achievement identity' had returned to the 'Foreclosure identity' or 'Diffusion identity', after six years (Eysenck, 2000).

c) Developmental route for identity acquisition according to Meilman (1979):

Although Erikson Erik hypothesized that identity crisis occurs in early adolescence and usually it resolves between the ages of 15-18, the age limits he proposed were overly optimistic (Shaffer, 2009). When Philip Meilman (1979) measured the forms of identity of men aged 12-24 years, he observed a purely developmental progress and according to him, most men, aged 12-15 years, had a 'foreclosure identity' or they were experiencing the 'diffusion identity'. And this was because at these ages, many young people, either have not yet thought about who they are, or they know, that even if they do have some thoughts, they may change their mind next month; this mean diffusion identity without judgment or commitment. Other adolescents are committed for certain aspects of their lives and may express some of their thoughts, say some words, do some actions or make some temporary decisions. It is therefore clear, that they themselves have never considered what suits them best or they have not explored other alternatives. They have simply accepted identities suggested to them by their parents or other people who influence them, that is they belong to category of 'foreclosure identity'.

At the age of 18, several adolescents reached the stage of 'identity moratorium', where at this phase, individuals experience a crisis or actively explore various issues of their identity. They may question their religion, think about trying drugs, or want to change some of their relationships. All of these happens because they are trying to find themselves (Sigelman & Rider, 2012) and to determine their identity. If the individual is able to evaluate the alternatives and find answers to the questions he explores at the moratorium stage, then it makes sense that he will move on to the next stage of 'identity achievement'. In the last phase of adolescence that is from 20-21 years, a relatively high percentage of 40% of individuals reached to the acquisition of identity. While at the age of 24, a percentage of the order of 55% of men had reached to the 'identity achievement'.

d) Identity shaping and different styles:

Bosma and Kunnen (2001) believe that the adolescent does not pass from one category of identity to another in a specific order, as argued by Marcia J.E. and Meilman P. It is also possible, that adolescents with a 'foreclosure identity' or 'achievement identity' may at some point return to the

lower category of 'diffusion identity'. Also, identity issues, many times, reappear at different stages of a person's life and individuals are likely to move back and forth in different categories of identity, as they test different roles, relationships, environments and challenges (Kroger, 2000).

According to Waterman A.S. (1988), the four categories of identity of Marcia J.E. do not constitute a clear developmental path followed by most of the adolescents or young adults. However, they can reasonably be considered as four different approaches which young people make good use during the route of the shaping of their personal identity. This route depends on the culture and the personality of the young people. Therefore, we cannot say, that a young person in the category of 'identity foreclosure' has not shape his identity. He has an identity but this identity has been adopted by parental or other social forms of power, without any change or exploration.

Berzonsky M. (1989) proposed a model of human behavior, in which J.E. Marcia's four categories, essentially, constituted different personal styles to solve problems & make decisions. A prerequisite for the successful shaping of identity is the active participation of the individual, in those choices which are related to identity, shaping and testing assumptions about himself with a rational and sober way (Grotevant, 1987). Berzonsky M. (2004) also introduced the term 'identity style' in order to show the way in which an individual processes, organizes, make good use and revises information related to himself. Thus, he proposed 3 'identity styles', which are as follows:

1) *The information style:* A person with an 'identity information style' will actively explore, create and maintain flexible commitments and will seek and utilize the relevant information regarding himself, when he will be called upon to make important choices in his life.
2) *The normative style:* Individuals with an 'identity normative style', will avoid dealing with information that may conflict with perceptions for themselves, will turn to those persons of their environment who have power, will not explore extensively and in depth, will comply with the expectations of other individuals or reference groups and finally, they will develop and cling to dogmatic commitments and permanent perceptions concerning themselves.
3) *The diffuse/avoidant style:* People with an 'identity diffuse/avoidant style' are characterized by the tendency to avoid choices related to their identity and from the case-by-case tackling of life. The individual's choice, one of the three identity styles, seems to be related to the intentions, requirements and motivations provided by the environment.

M. Berzonsky's identity styles are closely linked to J.E. Marcia's identity categories and many studies have shown that the 'information style' is associated with 'moratorium identity' and 'achievement identity'. The 'normative style' is inextricably linked to the 'foreclosure identity' while the 'diffuse/avoidant style' is related to the 'diffusion identity' (Adams et al., 2006). According to Berzonsky M. (2011), the dynamics of the individual's family greatly influence and determine the identity style he chooses, especially when it comes for an adolescent. On the other hand, the identity style which the young person chooses, influences the way he deals with and behaves in interpersonal relationships with his peers and environment, in general. This is because, these identity styles represent different strategies for processing the information of the social reality, to which the individual belongs.

According to Waterman A.S. (1988), the category of identity to which the adolescent belongs, depends much more on social and cultural factors than Marcia J.E. (1966) had assumed. Also according to Waterman A.S. (1982), adolescents with 'achievement or moratorium identity', usually, have more affectionate parents and are individuals with their own personalities and views. Adolescents with a 'foreclosure identity' have very close relationships with authoritarian parents, while those who have 'diffusion identity' tend to have distant relationships with indifferent parents. Even, Munro G. and Adams G.R. (1977) found in their research, that the university students were more likely than full-time young people, to be in a period of 'moratorium' in terms of their religious and political ideology. This may happens because the time inside the university provides to people with more opportunities for exploration and reflection than the workplace.

Adams et al. (2006) emphasize, that identity issues are not completely resolved during adolescence. It is noteworthy, however, that adolescents make significant progress in shaping their identities. Also, adolescents with 'achievement identity' are psychologically healthier than adolescents in other categories and, usually, these individuals reach in higher levels of success and social relationships. Therefore, the category of identity to which the adolescent belongs, has important implications for the quality of his adaptation to the environment and his relationships with others. On the other hand, it is very important what will be the behavior and the relationship that the parents have with the adolescent, because these two are very important and greatly influence the final choice of the type of identity that the adolescent will adopt. Thus, some important factors within the family or in the wider social environment, lead the adolescents to acquire different categories of identities.

How an adolescent's environment affects his/her identity

According to the 'International Study of Adolescence', the identity of young people is influenced by the structure of domestic life (Benson & Johnson, 2009). Identity shaping is greatly influenced by the interactions of young people with their families, with their peers, as well as with the rest of their social environment (Benson & Johnson, 2009). In terms of his social environment, the adolescent, as he reaches the adulthood, is overwhelmed by various questions related with his professional life and studies, and, due to the pressure he receives from his family circle, he resorts to peer groups in order to find the support he needs, and thus he begins to distinguish the identity of others from his own (Feldman, 2011).

The search for identity is very important for adolescents as they want to feel autonomous and independent. When children's parents are overprotective and restrictive with them, they tend to undermine their children's search for identity and independence (Benson & Johnson, 2009). Conversely, if parents exercise too little control over their children, they may adopt age-inappropriate behaviors and so to shape a latent identity (Benson & Johnson, 2009). Most engagement time between parents and adolescents in family gatherings, significantly increases the self-esteem of young people, the self-aim and the positive image for their future (Drogos, 2015).

Reference groups play an important role in identity shaping, as they are a measure of comparing of the adolescent's self-image with the group. As a reference group is popular, the adolescent compares his successes and abilities with that group and joins in it (Feldman, 2011). Still, love relationships with the opposite sex are essential for adolescents, as they begin to acquire emotional bonds and social prestige. Although adolescents' love relationships does not provide them with real emotional intimacy, it is a way, in order that through it, they to shape their identity (Feldman, 2011).

The shaping of adolescent's identity in the 21st century

Children during adolescence face many challenges but also dangers. At the same time, having as a role model their parents, who, most of the times, are users of tobacco, other substances or alcohol, and so, there is a high probability that the children will follow the same steps (Fagan & Najman, 2005). This is because, children, through social learning, in essence imitate their parents and thus resort themselves to the use of all or some of the above mentioned. In particular, and in terms of the use of various substances, perhaps the most important reason that adolescents start them, is simply because it offers to them a relaxation and calm (Feldman, 2011). A factor which influences adolescents to use substances, is the strong bond that exists between siblings, and that is because, when siblings grow up together they develop strong bonds and the one is a role model for the other. So, if the older brother starts using substances, then it is very likely that the younger brother also will start using those (Fagan & Najman, 2005). The danger of illicit substances lies in the fact that they can cause addiction, making adolescents more and more prone to these substances and ultimately, is more likely to lead them to psychological dependence (Feldman, 2011).

Another risk that lurks during adolescence, is the sexually transmitted diseases, to which adolescents are more prone because they are unable to understand the severity and consequences of these diseases (Chinsembu, 2009). Of course, the personal myth of the adolescent is involved here, according to which

he does not believe, that an unwanted pregnancy will happen to his partner or that he will get sick himself with a venereal disease.

Another serious risk to the health of adolescents is the reckless use of mobile phones which make it easy to access social media. Many studies report, that frequent use of mobile phones increases the risk of developing tumors in the brain (Hardell, 2017). However, the important others, and in this case the peer groups, are necessary for the shaping of the identity of the teenagers and so, the communication with them is considered necessary. Or otherwise, the daily communication with them, through the social media, is a compulsive need, which is very important for the young people and especially for the adolescents (Feldman, 2011). In various studies which have been conducted, the use of the internet is a refuge for adolescents, who seek socialization and fraternity through social chat sites (Drogos, 2015). Probably because, through this online communication link, young people feel that someone understands them and also, that they can safely express their concerns.

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Theoretical article

ПСИХОЛОГИЧЕСКИ И ДИФЕРЕНЦИАЛНИ ОСОБЕНОСТИ НА СЪВРЕМЕННИЯ ЮНОША

PSYCHOLOGICAL AND DIFFERENTIAL FEATURES OF THE MODERN ADOLESCENT

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Резюме

Докладът „Психологически и диференциални особености на съвременния юноша" е опит на автора да представи един съвременен поглед към юношата, като се обърне особено внимание на неговите психологически и диференциални особености. Периодът на юношеството е може би най-сложният и противоречив период от жизнения цикъл на човека. Това е времето между детството и зрелостта, през което психиката на юношата трябва да претърпи окончателна, завършваща цялото детство промяна. В резултат на нея поведението на юношата трябва да се изгради до едно минимално, точно определено равнище, което да позволи по-нататъшното съществуване на индивида. През този период се наблюдават съществени физически, психологически и индивидуални особености. Юношата подлага на цялостна преценка самия себе си и света, овладява нови социални роли и свой собствен стил на поведение, основавайки се на базата на своите диференциални и психологически особености. Текстът се фокусира върху въпроси, свързани с тези особености, влияещи върху формирането на съвременния юноша и неговото поведение.

Ключови думи: психологически, диференциални, особености, юноша, съвремие.

Abstract

The report "Psychological and differential features of the modern adolescent" is an attempt of the author to present a contemporary view of the adolescent, paying special attention to his psychological and differential features. Adolescence is perhaps the most complex and controversial period of a person's life cycle. This is the time between childhood and adulthood, during which the psyche of the adolescent must undergo a final, ending change throughout childhood. As a result, the adolescent's behavior must be built to a minimum, well-defined level that will allow the individual to continue to exist. During this period, significant physical, psychological and individual characteristics are observed. The adolescent subjects himself and the world to a complete assessment, masters new social roles and his own style of behavior, based on his differential and psychological features.The text focuses on issues related to these features influencing the formation of the modern adolescent and his behavior.

Keywords: psychological, differential, features, adolescent, modernity.

Актуалност на проблема

Периодът на юношеството е неделима част от развитието на човека. Характеризира се с бързо развитие на нервната система както и с дълбоки промени на физическо, биологично, емоционално, когнитивно и интелектуално ниво. От особено значение за този период са нововъзникналите способности, умения, нарастваща независимост и изграждане на идентичност.

Актуалността на темата на този доклад е обусловена от факта, че през последните две десетилетия изследванията в областта на развитието на юношите претърпяват интензивен растеж. Новите проучвания позволяват по-сложни възгледи за множеството измерения на юношеството, нови прозрения за процеса и времето на пубертета и нови перспективи за поведението, свързано с второто десетилетие от живота. В същото време основните теоретични предположения на полето се променят и узряват. Изследователите на човешкото развитие постоянно наблюдават, че второто десетилетие от живота е време на драматични промени: период на бърз физически растеж, ендокринни (хормонални) промени, когнитивно развитие и нарастваща аналитична способност; емоционален растеж, време на самоизследване и увеличаване на независимостта и активно участие в по-сложна социална вселена. През по-голямата част от този век учени изучаващи юношеството, са склонни да приемат, че промените, свързани с юношеството са почти изцяло продиктувани от биологични влияния. На него се гледа като на време на буря и стрес, което да се ограничи или да се премине възможно най-бързо.

От друга страна този проблем е свързан с перспективата за развитие на юношите. Психологическите и диференциални особености са обстоятелство, което ще позволи на децата да придобият когнитивна готовност, да завършат успешно своето образование, а това от своя страна е предпоставка за намаляване на безработицата след навършване на пълнолетие и за добро качество на живот впоследствие. Поради това има голямо значение разрешаването на този голям обществен, но и световен проблем.

В настоящата работа се акцентира върху някои теоретични аспекти, които се планира да бъдат проверени със серия от експериментални изследвания.

Научна теория

Периодът на юношеството се характеризира с достигането на ново равнище в развитието на вътрешната позиция, самосъзнанието и самоуважението, в тази възраст се появява активно оформяне на личността, изграждане на образа на света, избиране на свое място в този свят, планиране на своето бъдеще и способи за самоосъществяване. Юношеската възраст се явява преходен период от детството към възрастния период. В този период се преустройват всички предишни отношения към света и самия себе си. Именно тази възраст се характеризира със зараждането на значителни нови определящи развитието на значими личностни структури.

Б.Г.Ананиев разделя юношеството на 2 фази. Едната се намира на границата на детството, а другата – на границата на зрелостта. Първата фаза е ранна младост и се отличава с неопределено положение на младия човек в обществото. В тази възраст юношата осъзнава, че вече не е дете, но заедно с това и още не е възрастен. Втората фаза е юношество, което представлява само по себе си

начална форма на зрелост. Юношеската възраст според Б.Г.Ананиев, се явява като сензитивен период за развитието на основни социогенни възможности на човека. [1]

Сергей Л.Рубинщайн, обръща внимание на зависимостта на психическите процеси на личността, но отбелязва, че всяко външно въздействие влияе на индивида чрез вътрешни условия, които в него са формирани по- рано под влияние на външни въздействия. В своите трудове той отбелязва, че именно юношеската възраст се явява ключова за възникване на рефлекси като „ценностно-смислови самоопределения". Външната или социална детерминация действа, променяйки се чрез вътрешния опит на субекта чрез неговата ценностно-смислова определеност за личността.

Според А.Н. Леонтиев, личността се създава в обществените отношения. Индивидът навлиза в своята предметна дейност, на първо място се представя категорията дейност на субекта. Развитието на личността се представя пред нас като процес на взаимодействие на множество дейности, които влизат в йерархическо взаимодействие. В психологическата периодизация на Д.Б.Елконин и А.Н.Леонтиев водещата дейност в юношеска възраст е учебно- професионалната дейност. Мотивите, заема водещо място и са свързани със самоопределянето и подготовката за самостоятелен живот, с последващото образование.[2]

З.Фройд основоположник на психоаналитичния подход има свое разбиране за развитие на личността. Той разглежда личността като организирана система състояща се от относително стабилни характеристики, които ние днес наричаме черти на личността. Може да отбележим, че Фройд е бил един от първите учени, работещ в рамките на теория на личността. З.Фройд не е създал системна концепция за юношеската възраст, но е извел важни положения за природата на сексуалността в юношите, посочил е особеностите в развитието на емоционалните процеси и особеностите в развитието на юношите.

Е.Ериксън разработва теорията за психологическото развитие на личността, концентрирайки главните образи в роли на социалните взаимодействия в развитието на личността. В теория си отбелязва, че стадиите на развитие на човека обхващат целия му живот, развитието на личността се разглежда като динамичен процес, продължаващ от раждането до смъртта. В психосоциалната теория на Ериксън в периода на подрастване и юношеството е длъжно да се реши основната задача за постигане на идентичност, създавайки непротиворечив образ на самия себе си в условията на много избори/ роли, партньори, групи за общуване и др. „Юношите за да развият цялостно и съгласувано виждане за себе си и успеят да си изградят „концентрирана, единна и съгласувана" самоличност опитват много нови роли, докато се ангажират с романтични връзки, избор на професия и типични за възрастните занимания." (Мутафова, М., 2015: с.20). [3] Според Ериксън юношата се изгражда заедно с кризата за идентичност, активно се опитва да обобщи своя опит, за да формира своята идентичност. „Положителното разрешаване на предишните кризи – постигането на доверие, антономия, воля и трудолюбие, улеснява формирането на идентичността". (Крейгхед У. Едуард, Немероф Чаралс Б., 2008: с.299).[5] Той смята, че петият стадий от възрастовата психосоциална периодизация е най-важен период в психосоциалното развитие на човека.

В своето учение за развитието на личността Карл Г. Юнг отбелязва само два основни периода, които отбелязва като първа и втора половина в живота на индивида. Периодът на юношеството и младостта. Съгласно концепцията на Юнг, се ообособяват два периода: в първия /периода на юношеството/ преобладава екстровертната основа, обръща се повече към външния свят, стреми се към взаимодействие със своите социокултурни обкръжения, и към общуването с хора. Процесът на вглеждане и обръщане на човека към себе си Юнг нарича индивидуализация.

В своята концепция за юношеството представителят на гещалтпсихологията Курт Левин, разглежда периода като социално-психологическо явление, свързвайки психическото развитие на личността с изменение на социалното й положение.

Опитите за създаване на възрастова периодизация са правени в различни времена, но и до днес няма еднозначна позиция и общоприета класификация за възрастова класификация за периодите на развитие на човека. В процеса на развитие на психологическата наука са се появили много различни класификации, а единна класификация така и не е създадена. И затова може да се изведат общи тенденции в различни възрастови периодизации, а така също и близост в някои от тях.

Може да отбележим, че във възрастовата психология, периодизацията на възрастовото развитие на децата е разгледано по-детайлно, отколкото периодизацията на по възрастните.

В съвременната фундаментална литература по психология на развитието Грейс Крайг предлага периодизация макар и близка до по-горе споменатите, но не съвпадат напълно с тях. Отделя следните възрастови етапи: юношеска възраст от 12 до 19г. и ранна зрелост-от 20 до 40г. [6]

   Ако се направи сравнителен анализ на различните концепции на възрастовата периодизация то може да се отбележи, че подрастващата и юношеската възраст се разглежда в границите от 11 до 19 години с разделяне на ранен и старши подрастващ възрастов период.

Какво ни дава основание да се говори за психологически особености в юношеската възраст? Преди всичко тази възрастова категория се разглежда като период на интензивно интелектуално развитие, формиране на учебно-професионални дейности, асимилиране на ролята, навлизане в нов „възрастен" живот. Изследователите нямат единно мнение за самостоятелни етапи в периода на израстване, и в отсъствие на общоприета теория за когнитивното развитие във възрастите се допуска оценка на перспективното развитие.

Възможно ли е когнитивно развитие на юношеството? Развитието на когнитивната сфера при юношите по мнение на Жан Пиаже, е че придобиват абстрактно мислене и започват да мислят като възрастни, ползвайки научни термини. [3]

Грейс Крайг отбелязва, че другите когнитивни способности, особено аналитическото и логическо мислене, обикновено продължават да се развиват през целия живот. Въпреки това в настоящето не е ясно какви именно когнитивни способности търпят изменения и в какъв вид. [6]

Изследванията показват, че в юношеството следва понататъшно психическо развитие на човека. Структурата на личността се изменя във връзка с разширението и разнообразието на социалните връзки, преустройват се психически функции вътре в интелекта /Б.Г.Ананиев, М.Д.Дворишин, Л.С.Грановска, В.Т.Лисовски, И.А.Зимняя, И.С.Кон и др./

Много от познавателните функции на човека се развиват в този период - общо интелектуално развитие, в частност възприятия, памет, мислене, внимание степен на владеене на определен кръг логически операции. Учебни дисциплини способстват за развитие на теоретическото мислене. Продължава развитието на абстрактно-логическото мислене, теоретични разсъждения и самоанализи.

В юношеството се изменят черти от вътрешния свят и самосъзнание, преустройват се психически процеси и свойства на личността, мени се емоционално-волевия ред на живота. Най-важното ново в този период се явява развитието на самосъзнанието, което е самопознание в своята същност поставяне в основата на себе си откриването на своето АЗ, представа за своята индивидуалност, своите качества и същност на самооценката, самоуважението.

Юношеството само по себе си е особен период в развитието на личността. Във възрастовата психология подробно се разглежда периодизацията на възрастовото развитие на децата, което се отнася до възрастовата периодизация на юношите, където наблюдаваме различни характеристики на периода, представени от различни автори с различни теоретични позиции.

Юношеството е периодът на преход от детството към ранната зряла възраст, започващ от приблизително 11-13 годишна възраст и продължаващ до 18-21- годишна възраст, но точният времеви период зависи от такива разнообразни фактори като заобикалящата култура и биологичното развитие. (Крейгхед У. Едуард, Немероф Чаралс Б., 2008: с.299).[5] В английския език целият период се нарича с една дума, напр. „adolescence" или „teenage years", а в немския „Jugendalter".

Юношеството е последният период от детството и се характеризира като по-особен период в психичното развитие. През този период той се приспособява към социалната среда неговата психика претърпява промяна, която е необходима за по-нататъшното му съществунане в жизнения му път. Именно в този период се проявяват в поведението му всички качества на психиката, изградени през цялото детство.

Необходимостта от характеристика на юношеството се налага от спецификата на измененията, които настъпват във физиологичен, психологичен и социален аспект.

Според Иванка Бончева, в този период се изграждат „личната воля, характера, комуникативните способности, чувството за любов и мироглед". [7]

Проблемът на психологическите особености на темперамента в юношеска възраст придобива актуалност във връзка с условията за ефективно управление на вазимодействието на юношата с неговите връстници, родители, учители и др. Налице е процес на обръщане към себе си. Актуален е въпросът: „Кой съм аз?" Характерът е формиран, способностите са фокусирани, поведението все повече се подчинява на мотивацията, детерминирана от социалната среда. Формира се социално-

нравствената самооценка. В юношеството се утвърждават ценностите, интересите и идеалите на личността. Решаваща е ролята на възпитанието. Важно условие за формиране на характера е самовъзпитанието, самоизискването и самодисциплината. Особеностите в развитието на мисленето в юношеството: настъпват промени в мисленето, значително се подобряват процесите, особено важни са анализ, синтез, сравнение, тъй като те са много важни при обучението по различните предмети. И от тях зависят другите мисловни процеси – абстрахиране, обобщаване, конкретизация. Най-добре се проследяват възможностите на абстрактно-логическото мислене. Формирането на качествата на характера у подрастващите се осъществява в продължение на 17-18 години, но обикновено при 18 годишните може да се открият вече очертани качества на характера. Наблюдава се намаляване на познавателния интерес, появяват се познавателните емоции се тогава, когато физиологичното състояние се отклонява от оптимално фиксираното. Нещо повече – осъществяването на познавателния интерес от началото на половото съзряване започва да изисква извършване на усилие („воля“).

Руският психолог Волф Мерлин разграничава четири компонента, които са и етапи в развитието и самосъзнанието в онтогенезата: една от тях е социално-нравствената самооценка, която е характерна за юношеството. Въпросът: „Кой съм аз?“ е типичен за юношеската възраст. Той е мотивиран не просто от обикновена любознателност, а от стремежа на юношата да се утвърди като личност. Той се намира на прага на живота и трябва да направи своя избор – професионален, житейски, нравствен. Тези избори могат да бъдат успешни само ако младия човек добре познава себе си, своите интереси, възможности, силни и слаби страни. Търсенето на своето място в света, подбужда юношата да се сравнява вече не с връстниците си, а с образци от друга величина – популярни личности, филмови или рок-звезди.

Диференциални особености на юношата е другата страна на въпроса, който е разгледан като аспект на психиката на юношата - в сферите на неговата интелигентност, идентичност и личност. Юношеската възраст се отличава с потребност от изграждане на адекватна самооценка и самосъзнание, потребност от намиране на своята идентичност - психологическа самотъждественост, социална и сексуална идентичност. Към посочените типове идентичност можем да посочим и групова, и етническа. Изграждането на идентичност означава способност да се "преминава" границата от детството към света на възрастните и обратно. А това означава изграждане на позиции по жизнено важни проблеми, каквито са плановете и перспективите.

Настъпването на развитието на Аз-образът е много съществена промяна, отнасяща се до развитието на личността. Детето изгражда образ за себе си, който отразява неговата самостоятелност. Поглежда на себе си от различни гледни точки. Аз-образът започва да се изпълва с рефлексивно съдържание – Аз-ът се открива не само чрез отношението „Аз–Аз“, но и чрез отношението „Аз и другите“.

Според някои автори изграждането на един достоен образ за себе си в този период е от решаващо значение, тъй като юношите, при които в ранното детство – когато още са неузрели, не е започнало развитие.

 Заключение:

Юношеството е противоречив, труден и продължителен период, както за самия юноша, така и за хората, които по един и друг начини са ангажирани с неговото личностно и индивидуално израстване. По време на моята 10 годишна практика с ученици на възраст между 13-18г. като педагогически съветник в Професионална гимназия „Акад. Сергей П. Корольов" наблюдавам формиране на психологическите и диференциалните особености на юношите. Протичането му е сложен и динамичен процес, съпроводен с автономност. В този период за юношата голямо значение има оказана подкрепа и помощ. За целта съвременното общество предлага разнообразни и достъпни форми за това, които дава възможности за по-плавното протичане.

Важно е да се откроят съвременните особености – психологически и диференциални, влиящи за формирането на личността на юношата в съвремения свят. Това от своя страна се явява като адекватен, подпомагащ отговор на учители и родители за намиране на адекватни подходи и на „общ език" с тях. Познавайки спецификата на психологическите и диференциалните особености ще бъдат използвани по-правилни способи в работата с тях.

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Theoretical article

THE ROLE AND INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON
ADOLESCENTS' LEARNING BEHAVIOR

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Abstract

During the recent years, there has been a growing interest on the role of emotional intelligence and the skills associated with it, both in the school performance of students and in their adaptation in school (Humphrey, Curran, Morris, Farrell & Woods, 2007). And, as Humphrey et al. (2007, p. 235) characteristically state, "The acquisition of these skills is a prerequisite for students before they can access the traditional teaching materials which is presented in the classroom". It has also been argued by many researchers that emotions are closely related to cognition, thought and learning, fact which highlights and projects the importance of emotions in cognitive functions and processes (Brettos, 2003). And, as it is expected, the learning process and school performance are no longer considered detached from the emotional and psychological climate of the classroom and therefore, the request of the Swiss educator Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi's for a unified and comprehensive "learning with head, heart and hand", is more urgent and more timely than ever (Brettos, 2003). Therefore, the role of the teacher is upgraded and expanded, beyond and up from a simple transfer of knowledge, which implies that he/she is the "driving lever in the educational process" (Kapsalis & Brettos, 2002, p. 14). Also, the 'state mechanism' and the executives of education have the obligation to aim at creating healthy citizens, endowed with critical thinking, sensitivity, empathy and responsibility. And the main goal of all this actions should be the implementation of emotional learning programs in schools and through them, the promotion of the empowerment of specific skills, which have to do with the emotional intelligence. These skills, in turn, will lay the groundwork for a better student performance, fewer communication problems and less stress (Greenberg, 2003).

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, adolescents, school education, emotional learning, skills.

As for the concept and, in parallel, the definition of 'Emotional Intelligence', it is defined as the ability of individuals to recognize their feelings, as well as the feelings of their fellow human beings, to be able to distinguish the different emotions, to name them and finally to be able to use the emotional information as a guide to thought and behavior (Coleman, 2009). The term 'Emotional Intelligence' first appeared in 1964 in a paper by Michael Beldoch and later in 1966 in a paper by Benedetta Leuner. In the years that followed, after of these first two reports, various formulations of this term were published by many scholars. First, Howard Gardner introduced the idea of 'Multiple Intelligences', stating that the cognitive ability cannot be fully described by the IQ alone, as is traditionally the case (Gardner, 1983). Then Stanley Greenspan, in 1989, formulated a first model for describing the emotional intelligence, followed, in the same year, by Peter Salovey and John Mayer (Salovey & Mayer, 1989). But the one who made the concept of emotional intelligence widely known was Daniel Goleman, who in his book "Emotional Intelligence. Why EQ is More Important than IQ?", defined the emotional intelligence as:

> *the ability, somebody to be able recognize his/her own feelings, but also those of the others, to mobilize his/herself, and to be able to properly manage his/her emotions, as well as interpersonal relationships* (Goleman, 1997).

As Pekaar et al. (2018) found, emotional intelligence has been associated with both intrapersonal and interpersonal benefits, and more specifically, it has been positively correlated with mental and physical health, performance of work and the quality of social interactions. Still, emotional intelligence allows us to focus on making decisions based on goals and not on the basis of emotions. Research has also shown that the awareness and management of the individual's emotions is of paramount importance, and for this reason emotional intelligence, that is the ability to combine the emotion with the intelligence, uses the emotions as means for problem solving, as well as for other management processes (Toni Eason, 2009). It is also very important, the extensive studies which had been conducted on the emotional intelligence, support the view that emotional and psychological skills positively affect the organizational productivity, showing that the individuals, who can better diagnose the emotions of others, are relatively more successful in social settings but also at work (Rasool et al., 2017).

Numerous of other international studies have suggested that there is a close relationship between emotional intelligence and quality of life. More specifically, it is argued that emotional intelligence is related to a person's mental health, happiness and success in life (Gardner & Stough, 2003). At the same time, many researchers correlate the level of emotional intelligence with human physical health (Freudenthaler et al., 2008; Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2005), but also with the effectiveness of interpersonal relationships of the individual (Rey et al., 2011), arguing that people who better manage and organize

their emotions better, understand better the quality of their relationships (Lopes et al., 2003). In general, emotional intelligence seems to be positively related to the satisfaction one feels with one's own life (Austin et al., 2005), and the results of many research studies have shown that there is a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and satisfaction from the life, happiness (Berrios et al., 2016) and more generally with the quality of life of adolescents (Anjun & Swath, 2017). Finally, according to Dattner & Dumn (2011), emotional intelligence is an important factor for the success of the individual, while it is argued that it contributes significantly to his/her professional success but also to job search, as 2/3 of the total human abilities, which are required for a person's professional success, are of an emotional nature.

Concerning the field of education, in the current season, perhaps more than ever, is highlighted the need for love, interaction, mutual understanding, solidarity and empathy. Also, as it is known, the classroom is the second natural environment for the adolescents, after the family, in which he/she is for many hours every day and for many years. Therefore, classroom's climate significantly affects the emotional and social development of adolescents, strongly influences the whole learning process and acts as a catalyst in educational practice. Furthermore, the school is a place of formal education and socialization and it is important to promote the cultivation of attitudes and skills towards life, creating active citizens, rather than focusing on the sterile storage of knowledge or on the collection of information which is cut off from the environment. It is also very important for the teacher to have emotional intelligence, to consider it an important achievement for his/her students, and around this axis to plan and carry out his/her teaching, leaving room for self-action, creativity and expression of thoughts and feelings in the trainees. In order to be created a classroom, which will be oriented towards emotional intelligence, it is presupposed that the teacher or respectively the creator of educational material is able to recognize the learners as entities, authentic personalities, with their qualifications but also their shortcomings. The goal is the comprehensive development of each learner and it is crucial to give importance, so that he/she can get to know him/herself better and evolve in whatever direction he/she wishes.

In a study by Soumaya Chaffar and Claude Frasson (2005) on the subject 'The emotional conditions of learning' is referred that the ensuring of better learning conditions, and in particular through emotional conditions, as inducement for the students during the teaching, within a traditional education environment, even with the telling of an anecdote, teacher can change the emotions of adolescent students and to activate them in a more effective way. For this reason, the state and the school community must attach great importance to the development of emotional intelligence through the education, since the role of the school must be pedagogically and psychosocially oriented.

Therefore, it is necessary to be prepared and implemented 'social and emotional intelligence' programs, so that adolescent students can gradually build their skills and thus to acquire specific characteristics, which will be described in the following chapters. Also, it is very important that these students are exposed to emotional intelligence lessons in authentic environments and through experiential activities. Because in this way, the experiential activities and experience can lead the adolescent to apply social skills in his/her life, as well as emotional intelligence skills in his/her daily life and in any area of action.

1. The Role of Emotional Intelligence during the Adolescence

As is well known since 1995, when Daniel Goleman's book, entitled 'Emotional Intelligence', was published for first time, the term and the concept of emotional intelligence has been widely used, and numerous studies have been conducted, for different age groups, on its role in personal improvement, in improving the quality of life, but also on its relationship with ourselves and with others. In addition to adults, the related studies have been particularly concerned with the adolescent emotional intelligence, as well as the factors that contribute to its development (Pappa, 2013).

According to Steiner (2006) and Pappa (2013), emotional intelligence or emotional literacy is the ability somebody has, in order to:

a) Recognize his/her emotions and also, to differentiate and verbalize them,

b) Understand them,

c) Listen the others and to empathize with them,

d) Express his/her feelings in a productive way.

Still, the emotional intelligence helps the adolescents to manage their emotions in a better way, which increases their sense of self-worth and improves their quality of life. In addition, it contributes significantly to improve the adolescent's relationship with others and makes it possible and easier for him/her to work with other peers. Emotional intelligence not only releases the emotions, but also the adolescent's ability to understand them better, to manage them effectively and to control them more easily. Emotional intelligence also increases the motivations, optimism, joy and the sense of purpose, while suppressing the violence and contribute to reducing adolescent's depression and social isolation (Steiner & Perry, 1997; Steiner, 2006; Gottman & Declaire, 2009; Goleman, 2011; Pappa, 2013).

According to Goleman (2011), emotional intelligence consists of six (6) skills, which are also apply for the adolescents, and are as follows:

1) Self-awareness: It is one of the basic emotional skills and is about somebody being able to recognize and name his/her emotions. It is also important he/she to have a conscience of the relationship between his/her thoughts, feelings and actions.

2) Managing emotions: It is important for somebody to realize what is behind the emotions. In addition it is important, he/she to find ways in order to manage anger, fear, anxiety and sadness.

But the most important key-skill of a person is to be able to direct his/her emotions towards a positive outcome.

3) Empathy: For someone to find the measure of a situation and being able to act appropriately, requires understanding the feelings of others involved but also to be able to put his/herself in their situation. It is important for someone to be able to listen to others, without being overwhelmed by personal feelings, and there is a need to be able to distinguish between what others do or say, and his/her personal reactions and judgments.

4) Communicating: The developing of quality relationships with the others has a very positive effect on everyone involved. For example, enthusiasm and optimism are contagious, as are pessimism and negativity. Being someone capable to express personal concerns, without anger or passivity, is an important qualification.

5) Cooperation: Knowing someone how and when to lead and when to follow is very important for an effective collaboration. The effective leadership is not built on dominance, but on the art of helping others and working with them in order to achieve common goals. Recognizing the value of others' contributions and encouraging their participation can often do more good than giving orders or complaining. At the same time, there is a need to take responsibility and recognize the consequences of his/her decisions and actions, as well as to be consistent in the commitments he/she has undertaken.

6) Resolving conflicts: In conflict resolution there is a need for someone to understand the mechanisms that are effective. People in conflict are generally fortified behind a self-perpetuating emotional spiral, in which the declared subject of conflict is rarely the key-issue. In many of the conflicts that are resolved, someone needs to use the rest of the emotional skills

Emotional intelligence is something that is learned, so it is important for the adolescent to be able, in some way, to practice to emotional intelligence skills and, with this way, to have the satisfaction to reap all those benefits that it will offer to him/her. It is accepted that childhood and adolescence play an important role in the subsequent development and growth of adolescents, so for this reason, from the beginning the studies on emotional intelligence focused on children and adolescents, as well as on the ways of learning from them (Gottman & Declaire, 2009). Also, the study of research data has revealed that emotional intelligence is developed better in children and adolescents than in adults, when the information is transmitted through examples. For example, it is easier for someone to learn reading, but also to acquire other skills, such as sports, learning foreign languages, music.

From the pre-school period, children adopt different attitudes, and thus they begin to imagine themselves as good or bad, skilled or clumsy, happy or unhappy, etc. Children or adolescents may also

to consider, to liken or to identify themselves with some imaginary characters, as well as to adopt the emotional habits that are matched with their view for the self. And once the adolescents begin to behave in this particular way, they will be treated by the others in exactly the same way, and they will be characterized as cooperative or non-cooperative, happy or unhappy individuals. All of these emotional patterns, for their most part, are learned from the parents, as well as from the 'significant others' who are located in the adolescents' environment. Also, once the aforementioned attitudes and behaviors are adopted by adolescents, then they are changed into 'standards' or 'scenarios' about what the life is and with what it will look like in the future. These 'scenarios' can last a lifetime, unless something important happens which will change them.

2. The Emotional Intelligence of Adolescents within the School Environment

Experience and research have taught that emotions seldom have a place in education, and especially when a child leaves from the day nursery or kindergarten, almost all of their efforts are focused on cognitive skills, such as reading, writing and mathematics, which are responsible for the processing and assimilating of any kind of information we receive. Also, there are few or almost no supplies for teachers' specified training, which will prepare them for something like that. Of course, it would be very useful if, in parallel with the formal education, there was a 'school of emotions', where children and especially adolescents, could be taught and learned the skills of emotional intelligence. Obviously, the modern school as a structure but also the educational system in general, usually do not promote the emotional intelligence, probably because the school practice attaches great importance to the following basics:

   a) To the quantitative value for qualitative phenomena, such as behavior but also knowledge per se, since it uses grades or characterizations for gradation in order to assess the performance of adolescents,

   b) To the encouraging of the individual competition, rather than team cooperation and commitment in teams,

   c) To the push of the adolescent to believe that learning and knowledge are rare luxuries, occurring only in specific places at a given time, with predetermined topics and with the help of experts,

   d) To the great emphasis on logic, while at the same time are neglected the emotions and interpersonal relationships of students.

However, as has been shown through various studies, in addition to parents, an important role in the development of emotional intelligence of children and adolescents is also played by the teachers, who are undoubtedly the 'important others' in their lives. Many parents but also teachers, will argue that it is the parents who are responsible for learning emotional skills to their children, rather than the school. Nevertheless, the shrinking the family of western societies from extensive to strictly nuclear or single-

parent, as well as the much less time parents have in order to see their children, are important arguments to fall the biggest weight on the teachers and school (Pappa, 2016). In addition, parents are not always able to manage or transmit such emotional skills to their children or adolescents. Research shows that the developing of emotional skills is much easier during a child's personality development years, especially from the birth to three years, but this does not mean that the emotional skills cannot be learning object during the middle childhood and adolescence (Pappa, 2013).

One possible solution in order to be introduced, such useful emotional skills for the students in school, could be the break, where theory and practice could be combined. For this theme, Goleman (2011) describes that the teachers-ombudsmen, who are responsible for the students, many times resolve conflicts between the students, during the courtyard break. Therefore, such a 'school of emotions' could be a community-based activity or in combination with other activities, such as the scouts, parent-teacher associations, artistic expression groups, etc. Goleman (2011) also, suggested a number of skills that were mentioned in the previous chapter and which are: self-awareness, managing emotions, empathy, communication, cooperation and resolving conflicts.

Even, the effect of emotional intelligence on the learning behavior of adolescents is for granted, as there is the need for the introduction, in the curriculum of school lessons, of the lesson of the social emotional learning. It is therefore important to further explore the relationship between social emotional learning and the improvement of adolescents' ability, so that, they to absorb the new knowledge more effectively, to acquire the necessary skills more easily, to set and achieve positive goals, and finally, to improve their critical thinking and make more responsible decisions. It is also a fact that by improving adolescents' emotional intelligence, their school performance can be improved, they can be better trained in managing their stress and also, their conflict management and attitudes towards various social issues can be improved.

Finally, teachers, like parents, are emotional standards for children and adolescents, so it is very important, they to be positive emotional standards or 'emotional mentors' (Gottman & Declaire, 2009; Goleman & Senge, 2015). In order to achieve this, it is necessary teachers to develop, as much as possible, their own emotional skills and to approach children and adolescents with patience and respect, with delimitation, encouragement and positive mood.

3. Programs of Emotional Learning - Emotional Intelligence and Learning Behavior

A research conducted in 2002 on the implementation of social-emotional learning programs in primary and secondary schools, showed that there were multiple benefits of them to students (Elias, 2002). Regardless of the students' environment or the socioeconomic status of the family from which

they comes, its results showed that the implementation of the social-emotional learning programs had a positive effect on their social and emotional skills, relationship with the school, school performance, management of stressful situations, as well as in their general social behavior.

Several researchers have so far investigate the relationship that can link the age with the improvement of emotional intelligence, and they have concluded that it can be developed up to about 50 years (Bar-On, 2000). The same study also found that the emotional intelligence is developed, at a faster rate, in the early years of adolescence, but there is no record for the rate of development of emotional intelligence during the adolescence. Finally, it has been found that, in relation to gender, there are no generalized differences between boys and girls, there are simply some differences on individual dimensions of emotional intelligence, with the girls being more capable in recognition of the emotions (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 1999), and have better interpersonal abilities (Bar-On, 2000), in contrast with the boys, who have better intrapersonal abilities (Schutte et al., 1998).

It is a general finding that unfortunately, many students have reduced social and emotional skills and they lose the connection with the school as they move from primary to secondary education. So, this lack of connection with the school negatively affects their learning ability, behavior and health (Blumm & Libbey, 2004). In a general population of primary education of 148,189 of fifth- and sixth-graders, only the 29% to 45% of those surveyed were found to have social skills, such as empathy, decision-making and conflict management, and of these, only the 29% reported that their school provided to them an encouraging and friendly environment (Benson, 2006). According to another study conducted in a gymnasium and lyceum, the 40% to 60% were led to disconnect of their relationship with the school (Klem & Connell, 2004). Also, about the 30% of the population of students with low emotional intelligence were involved in high-risk behaviors, such as substance or alcohol use, sexual intercourse, violence, depression and suicidal tendencies, behaviors that certainly have a very serious effect on school performance and can minimize the chance of a successful adult life (Dryfoos, 1997).

Teachers, the official state and the general public agree that education systems should have as a final result, graduates who will be able not only to cope out their academic duties, but they in parallel will be able to work with different people having social and emotional skills that will enable them to have a healthy and responsible social behavior (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 2007). In other words, schools can play an important role in raising healthy children by supporting not only their cognitive development, but also their emotional and social development. Of course, we should not overlook the fact that in today's school there are limited possibilities to achieve these goals, since teachers at all levels are under strong pressure to focus only on enhancing the learning performance, which is basically of interest of the official state.

It has been found that the effort to implement an emotional intelligence program in schools, worldwide, results in a very promising approach in order to improve students' school performance

(Elias, 1997). It was observed that the adolescents with high levels of emotional intelligence performed better in school compared to those with moderate or low emotional intelligence (Platsidou, 2005). It is also interesting the conclusion that adolescents' relationship with the school performance is closer and more distinct when they have high emotional intelligence (Parker & Benson, 2004). With this, it turns out that for an excellent school performance requires a combination of a high functional level, both emotional and cognitive intelligence (Goleman, 2009).

Research has shown that educating adolescent students to enhance their emotional intelligence minimizes risk factors for them and strengthens their personality (Benson, 2006). It is also known that the adolescent student, that is the citizen of tomorrow, should be properly trained in order to have an integrated personality, which will enable to him/her to be flexible, social, responsible and, above all, to be able to meet and utilize the challenges offered to him/her by his/her environment. By introducing the emotional learning education, the school help the students of all levels to acquire skills for recognizing and managing of their emotions, set positive goals, establish and maintain good interpersonal relationships, have critical thinking and, finally, be responsible and capable of making decisions (Elias, 1997).

The main goal of the implementation of the emotional learning programs in schools is the promotion of the empowerment of the following five (5) specific skills, which have been mentioned above and which are: self-knowledge, self-management, social awareness, communication and responsible decision making (Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning, 2003). These skills, in turn, form the basis for a better students' performance, fewer communication problems and less stress (Greenberg, 2003).

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Theoretical article

ЗАЩИТНИ МЕХАНИЗМИ ПРИ ГРАНИЧНА ЛИЧНОСТОВА СТРУКТУРА

DEFENSE MECHANISMS IN BORDERLINE PERSONALITY STRUCTURE

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Резюме

Целта на статията е да представи най-важните аспекти на защитните механизми при гранична личностова структура. Граничната личностова структура се характеризира с дифузна идентичност, използване на примитивни защити, обикновено непокътната крехка способност за тестване на реалността, нарушения в регулацията на афектите и сексуалното и агресивно изразяване, инконсистентни интернализирани ценности и проблемни отношения с другите. В ранните етапи на развитие индивидите с гранична структура конституират примитивни защитни механизми, консолидирани около сплитинга.

Ключови думи: примитивни защитни механизми, гранична личностова структура, сплитинг, примитивна идеализация, проективна идентификация, отричане и тревожност.

Abstract

The paper is aimed to present the most important aspects of the defense mechanisms in borderline personality structure. Borderline personality structure is characterized by diffuse identity, the use of primitive defenses, generally intact fragile reality testing, impairments in affect regulation and sexual and aggressive expression, inconsistent internalized values, and poor quality of relations with others. In the early stages of development, individuals with a borderline structure constitute primitive defense mechanisms consolidated around the splitting.

Keywords: primitive defense mechanisms, borderline personality structure, spliting, primitive idealization, projective identification, denial and anxiety.

В психоанализата понятието „защита" дескриптивно представя борбата на Егото срещу травмиращи или непоносими афекти и идеи. По-късно З. Фройд (1926) казва, че е по-удачно „да го използваме експлицитно като общо обозначение за всички техники, до които прибягва Егото в конфликти, които могат да водят до невроза..." (цит. по Freud, 2017, p. 51).

Следвайки тази дефиниция, ние ще се опитаме да разгледаме защитните механизми при граничната личностова структура, която съдържа специфична, устойчива, патологична Его организация. Тези механизми се констелират поради липсата на синтез на противоположни образи

на Егото и обектите. Именно необходимостта да се ситуират и съхранят добри образи на Егото и обектите, и на добри външни обекти в присъствието на превалиращи, изцяло лоши Его образи и обекти, конституира съпътстващите, характерни за граничната личностова структура защитни механизми.

Сплитингът е изключително важен механизъм, предотвратяващ от една страна ескалацията на тревожността в границите на Егото, а от друга, защитаващ позитивните интроекции и идентификации. Именно, около него се конституират останалите защитни механизми.

О. Кернберг използва терминът сплитинг, за да представи единствено активния процес на поддържане на диференцията между интроекции и идентификации от противоположно естество. Той счита, че ингетрацията или синтеза на интроекции и идентификации от противоположно естество представлява най-важният източник за неутрализиране на агресията и е едно от следствията на патологичните обстоятелства, при които сплитинга е ексесивен, свързва се с провала на неутрализацията и по този начин се проваля един основен източник на енергия за развитие на Егото. Следователно, сплитингът се явява базова причина за слабостта на Егото и доколкото той изисква по-малко количество контракатексис в сравнение с потискането, едно слабо Его лесно регресира до сплитинг и създава порочен кръг, при който слабостта на Егото и сплитинга се захранват взаимно. (Kernberg, 2004) Проявленията на сплитингът най-често са:
        - селективна липса на контрол върху импулсите в дадени области, проявяваща се в епизодични изригвания на примитивни импулси, които са Его-синтонични;
        - разделяне на външните обекти на изцяло добри и изцяло лоши, което се изразява в пълен и рязък преход в отношението от едната крайност в другата, придружен с пълно и внезапно обръщане на емоциите и мислите за конкретен човек;
        - екстремни и рецидивни осцилации между противоречащи си концепти за Егото.

Следващият защитен механизъм, на който ще се спрем е примитивната идеализация. Тя представлява тенденция да се възприемат външните обекти като изцяло добри, за да е сигурно, че те ще могат да предпазят Егото от лошите обекти, които няма да бъдат инфектирани, развалени или разрушени от собствена агресия или от агресия, проектирана върху други обекти. Тази идентификация създава иреални, изцяло добри и силни образи на обекти и така влияе негативно върху развитието на Его-идеала и на Суперегото. Примитивната идеализация като контрапункт на последващите форми на идеализация, които вероятно са й производни, предполага липса, както на съзнавано, така и на несъзнавано признаване на собствената агресия към обекта, на вина свързана с тази агресия и на загриженост за обекта. Именно за това тя не би следвало да се дефинира като формиране на реакция, а по-скоро като пряка проява на примитивна, проективна фантазна структура, в която отсъства истинско отношение към идеалния обект. Налице е проста нужда от него с цел протекция от заобикалящия свят на застрашаващи обекти. Подобен идеализиран обект може да служи за подготовка към омнипотентна идентификация и споделяне величието на идеализирания обект, в качеството му на защита срещу агресията и директно задоволяване на нарцистични изисквания.

Още един защитен механизъм, изявяващ се със силни тенденции при гранична личностова структура е проективната идентификация. Спецификите се проявяват не само в количественото

доминиране на проекцията, но и в качествения ѝ аспект. Основната цел на проекцията е да екстернализира изцяло лошите агресивни образи на Егото и на обектите. Следствие от този процес е развитието на заплашващи обекти, срещу които личността трябва да се защитава. Подобна проекция на агресия е крайно неефективна след като има развити граници на Егото и способност за разграничаване от обектите. Интензивността на проективните нужди, плюс общата слабост на Егото, отслабва запазването на границите му точно в областта на проекция на агресията. Това води до усещането, че все още е възможна идентификация с обекта, върху когото е проектирана агресия и "емпатия" към вече заплашващия обект, която наслагва страх от собствената проектирана агресия. По тази причина личността трябва да контролира обекта, за да му попречи да я нападне, под влиянието на проектирани агресивни импулси. Необходимо е да контролира и изпреварващо да атакува обекта преди тя да бъде разрушена.

В обобщение проективната идентификация се характеризира с отсъствие на диференциация между Егото и обекта именно в областта, свързана с удължено преживяване на импулса, на страха от този импулс и на необходимостта да се контролират външните обекти, докато проекцията е активна. При по-високите нива на развитие на Егото късните форми на проекция нямат тази характеристика. Общото агресивно изкривяване на образите на обектите оказва патологично влияние върху развитието на Суперегото.

Граничната личностова структура предоставя редица доказателства за използване и на отричането като механизъм и най-вече на примитивните му проявления. Типичен пример е взаимното отричане на две емоционално независими сфери на съзнаваното, което просто подкрепя сплитинга. Личността е наясно с факта, че в този момент възприятията, мислите и емоциите за нея или за други хора са изцяло противоположни на тези, които е изпитвала в друг момент. Конкретният спомен няма емоционално значение, не може да повлияе начинът, по който се чувства сега. В бъдеще може да се върне към предишното състояние на Егото и да отрече настоящето при положение, че има спомен за него, но с тотална неспособност да направи емоционална връзка между двете състояния на Егото. Отричането може да се прояви и като просто необръщане на внимание на част от субективното преживяване или преживяването на външния свят.

Трябва да се подчертае, че преживените и съхранени емоции са отречени, както и познанието за емоционална връзка на определена ситуация с реалността. Връзка, за която е имало съзнавано познание или поне има вероятност то да стане такова. Базовата разлика с по-висшите форми на отричане се свързва с това, че психично съдържание е представено с негативен знак. Съдържанието се отхвърля като интелектуална спекулация, а емоционалната връзка с отреченото никога не достига съзнаваното и остава подтисната.

При граничната личностова структура намираме и друго ниво на отричане – чрез емоции, обратни на тези, които в момента силно се преживяват. Много често това е маниакално отричане на депресията. При тази форма на отричане, екстремен противоположен афект е използван за подкрепа на противопоставяне на Егото срещу застрашаващи части от преживяванията. Фактът, че има манийно отричане и присъствие на депресия, илюстрира тенденция към интимна свързаност между тях.

Омнипотентността и обезценяването са идентично свързани със сплитинга и представляват директни проявления на защитната функция на примитивната интроекция и идентификация. Тези личности, с присъщи защитни механизми, осцилират между потребността да установят изискващи отношения на зависимост с идеализиран, магичен обект и фантазии. и съпътстващи поведения, носещи послание за дълбоко чувство за лична магична омнипотентност. Комбинираните стадии представляват репрезентации на собствената идентификация с изцяло добър обект, мощен и свръх идеализиран, стоящ като защита срещу лоши и преследващи обекти. На дълбинно равнище отношението към идеализирания обект е грубо и притежателно. като продължение на самото Его.

Следва да се отбележи, че сплитингът разделя противоречивите Его-състояния, свързани с ранни патологични обектни отношения. Според О. Кернберг наличието на подобни ранни интернализирани обектни отношения в едно значително непреработено състояние, представляващо част от тези дисоциирани Его-състояния е само по себе си патологично и отразява намесата на сплитинга в тези синтезиращи операции, които обикновено предизвикват деперсонификация, абстракция и интеграция на интернализираните обектни отношения. (Kernberg, 2006)

Може да се обобщи, че примитивните защитни механизми представляват първичен опит за справяне с тревожността, те са ригидни, нефлексабилни и не позволяват успешна адаптация към външната реалност. Възникват в първите години на живота, когато развиващото се дете прави опит да се справи с интензивните афекти и свързаните с тях инстинкти – с отношенията между тях и с отношенията към външната реалност. Първоначалната стратегия е да предпази себе си от тревожността, произтичаща от влизащите в противоречие либидинозни и агресивни афекти чрез стриктното им сепариране и чрез сепариране на обектите, свързани с тях. „Примитивните защитни механизми са организирани около сплитинга и радикалната сепарация на добри и лоши афекти и обекти. Тези защитни механизми представляват опит да се предпазят идеализираните сегменти в индивидуалната психика или да предпазят вътрешния свят от агресивни сегменти." (Kernberg, 2006, pp. 18)

В крайна сметка ролята на защитните механизми е да преодоляват конфликтите, чрез конкуриращи напрежението афективни състояния и интернализирани забрани срещу инстинкти и външна реалност.

„Аналитичното лечение трябва да позволи да се изработи знание за тези идентификации и избор на обекти, да се стигне до фантазма, който запушва дупката на травмата. Отвъд фантазма се отваря пространство извън Едипа, достига се до „реалното на влечението" по Лакан или до защитата, което позволява да се промени животът на анализирания."(Motsinova-Brachkova, 2020, pp. 17)

Работещите зрели защити минимизират безпокойството, произхождащо от тези конфликти и максимизират способността да се действа флексабилно и успешно в живота. В случай на нормално психично развитие личността преминава от примитивните защити, които предоминират в детството към зрели защити, предоминиращи в зряла възраст – рационализация, интелектуализация, хумор и сублимация. За съжаление при личности с гранична структура

развитието на защитните механизми остава на примитивно равнище и по този начин конституира една специфична патология.

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Theoretical article

THE FAIRYTALES' ROLE IN THE CHILD'S EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT: A LITERATURE REVIEW

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Abstract

The existential motives and conflicts treated in fairytales express the early events and convictions of a people, which after they have taken on symbols and phantasy, are then transmitted to children. The fairytale is not only universal; it is not the same gist and the same storyline with different faces, but the fairytales are essentially different in different nations. In this way, the fairytale lies between the child psychology and social psychology; education psychology and cultural psychology. The study of fairytales touches many disciplines. This is another fact which testifies their richness and values.

Keywords: fairytales, children, education

Fairytales represent the most beautiful form of intertwinement of the imagination, phantasy and mystic with the culture of a nation. For this reason, the functions of fairytales are numerous and their study is at the same time intriguing, interesting, but not at all easy.

As part of a nation's the heritage, the same way as every other cultural component, the fairytale is definitely a form of expression of the social and psychological physiognomy of a people. As many other ethnographic elements such as the characteristic dresses, customs, literature, art, traditions, architecture which are influenced by various factors like the history, the geographical position, the relationships between the peoples, the national features, the politics, the fairytale also cannot escape the peculiarities of the national character.

Since the fairytales are a very clear representation of the massive psychology of a people, their respective motives, stories and characters have significant differences in different countries. It would be a

very naïve and childish mistake to think that fairytales are universal in their content. As an element of a people's physiognomy, the fairytale reveals a lot about the culture in which it was created, and where it has been told generation after generation, where it has been developed and enriched.

The fairytale as a social product

It is one of the simplest forms of the expression of the wisdom and the psychological experience of a nation. As Marie Louise von Franz (1970) defines it, "the fairytale is an expression of the psychic processes of the collective unconsciousness." This means that through the metaphors and the symbols of the fairytales we can clearly and easily read their content. If we were to rely on the psychoanalytic interpretations of the fairytales and to understand their content according to this "language", we would find many expressions of the id, ego and superego. But in this study, the fairytales will be studied according to a more macro, cultural and social perspective and not according to a psychoanalytic psychology optic.The popularity of the fairytales and the fact that they are so much liked by children, in every epoch and in every culture, testifies not only the values, but also their attractiveness by children.

The fairytale, more than any other means of communication and education, manages to enrich the child's life precisely because it is very empathic with his emotional needs. Children embrace fairytales since an early age and understand very well that it is not about a whatever alternative entertainment, that the parent tells him just to spend time. This happens because the fairytale is a very good source through which the child learns how the human relations work. Besides being oriented and guided by the fairytale, on the other hand the child finds himself emotionally in the fairytale. The internal psychological tensions and conflicts that the child goes through, show in the fairytale. For this reason the child appreciates the fairytale as one of the main ways of solving the difficulties that he has during the long process of growing up, by showing to him very clearly that life is made up of problems, which start early in life. The fairytale shows him that a great part of the problems come from the human nature itself; whereas another part is caused by the internal instincts and impulses. Here surfaces the unconsciousness with the principle of immediate pleasure. Along with the existence of problems and difficulties, the fairytale teaches to the child that the solution is always possible. By taking into consideration the main anxiety of early childhood, the anxiety of being separated from the parents, the fairytale has adjusted a solution. The practicality of the fairytale, ensures a happy ending. "They lived happily ever after" is the famous postulate that very wisely and intuitively serves to relieve this great source of anxiety that the child has. At the same time, this solution expressed in the form of a slogan, gives the message that to deal with the

adversities of life, we need to create a good relationship with another person. By showing to the child which are the alternative solutions about the anxiety of separation, the fairytale aims at explaining to the child that he will find the meaning of himself and the creation of his true identity, outside his relationship with his mother. He can thus be comforted by being told that the anxiety of separation and the fear of abandonment by the most loving figure, who is an unconditional source of kindness, caring, love, attention and affection can be skipped by creating a healthy relationship outside the family circle.

The fairytales' role in the child's education and development

Since the fairytales are told at an early age, without a shade of a doubt, their influence is enormous and their role is determinant in the child's development. A healthy development comprises without exception also a childhood rich in fairytales, which are at the same time funny and immensely educational.

The child needs to find himself and to ascertain his place in his social environment. The fairytale helps him a lot in this direction. Furthermore, the fairytale gives necessary messages about the human relationships, morale, the right and the good. No matter how anachronistic it may be, its educational value is unalienable, since it is thus one of the instruments that best performs this function.

No matter how old may the fairytale may, its magic lies in the fact that it transmits messages in the unconscious level, by adapting well to the child's psychology. Precisely here, in its meaning and value beyond time, lies the universality of the fairytales. A universality which transcends the time and space dimensions and that is the most convincing argument regarding their trustworthiness and validity. These last ones (the trustworthiness and validity) are very important constructs which we cannot put aside when it comes to scientific study. We cannot do without believing in the value and the efficiency of the fairytales, as far as the parents, grandparents, educators and everyone else who raises, brings up and educates children for years, decades and centuries, have trusted in the educative power of the fairytale.

Another benefit of telling fairytales is that from the way that they have been constructed and conceptualized, they offer answers to a great number of issues. Thus the fairytale serves as a manual for the child who finds answers for his dilemmas, internal conflicts, or about various aspects on how the world works by offering solutions to the existential questions that the child has; questions that sometimes the child does not know how to formulate and whom to address.

As one of the earliest and most traditional texts and since it answers the children's questions sometimes indirectly and sometimes directly, the fairytale directly influences their socialization and as a guiding factor in the explanation of the functioning of human relationships.

The relationship between the fairytale and fantasy is mutual; at a time that the fairytale is based on the imagination, it affects positively in the development of this characteristic in children. Thus, not only is it built on the magic of fantasy, but a child who is told fairytales, will have a more developed fantasy than another of his peers who has not been exposed to them.

The main purpose of the fairytale is not to show to the child all the phenomena of the external reality, but its objective is to deal with its internal dynamics. For this reason, it does not remain faithful to the real events and does not reproduce the external reality. If it had this purpose, that is, to reproduce the events and the experiences of the predecessors, the fairytale would be too descriptive and would not need fantasy. But, since it precisely refers to the internal psychological reality, the fairytale is expressed with multiple symbols. It would be too poor, concrete and linear if it would focus only on the external reality. It is only through symbolism, the language of images, imaginary characters and fantasy, the unconsciousness and the hidden conflicts can come to life and can be translated into the fairytale form.

The fairytale which speaks with fantasy, thus with the language of the child, shows him that the internal contradictions that he may have but cannot express, are not only his individual contradictions, but are wider and more comprehensive problems. By finding solutions for the internal psychological dynamics through the fairytales, the child understands a very important and consoling thing for his healthy psychological upbringing. He learns that he is not alone in his experiences and in the hidden corners of the unconsciousness. Precisely this awareness is a very useful emotional comfort.

The unreasonable fear of some parents, that the children through the fantasy and the constituent elements of the fairytale will create incorrect ideas of reality, is unbased. It cannot be thought that the child will create "addiction" to the imaginary events and episodes and will not know how to cope with the reality. The child is raised through the fantasy and develops with imagination. According to this point of view, the fairytale serves precisely this purpose.

The fairytale does a kind of catharsis of the child's internal experiences. If this were to lack in the child's life, his internal instincts and impulses would be suppressed. If the child would be totally

restrained from this symbolic form of expression, it would be at a risk to repress many internal dynamics and the result would be not at all positve for his development. If the child would be restrained from the unconscious expressions through the telling of fairytales, he would simply be deprived of a natural source of feelings, information and experiences. Thus, the "accusations" towards the fairytales as enhancers of anxiety, fear from the imaginary and unreal characters, are not correct and based on arguments that go parallel with the principles of the development of children. The characters are either very good or very bad; either beautiful or ugly; either intelligent or frivolous; either very poor or very rich. There is a polarity and an extreme and drastic division of all the features and characteristics of the events and characters, but this happens because that is precisely how the child's thinking works. The child at the age when he is introduced to the fairytales, has not yet developed the abstract and deductive thinking. So, in order for him to understand which is the moral standard and which are the socially acceptable behaviors, the differences and extremes help the child to position himself in an easier way and to identify with the good character and the hero of the fairytale.

At a psychological level, the fairytales help the child to lower his anxiety, insecurities and fears. The child in the majority of cases will identify with the main character, thus with the hero and the protagonist of the story. This identification will help the child understand that like the hero of the fairytale, he too will go through difficulties and challenges, which are unavoidable so that he can become victorious. This is the analogy that tells the child that like the hero of the fairytale, his process of growing and maturity goes through some similar stages and obstacles.

The child is able to understand all these motives by himself, without needing explanations and interpretations. The child is not literally told that his process of development will follow a certain path, at the end of which he will be older, better and wiser. It is not necessary for the text to be used in such a direct way, because the main purpose of the fairytale is educational more than didactic.

The fairytale performs also a therapeutic function, as long as it enables the child to project every emotion, and helps to soothe his internal conflicts. There are known some study cases of researchers and therapists (Paola Santagostino, Louisa Duss) who during their clinic practices have used the fairytale as a genuine therapeutic technique not only to obtain information at the moment of evaluation, but also later at the moment of intervention and treatment. This shows very clearly that the use of imagination and fantasy is useful in the cure of the psychological and affective tensions. By using the fairytale as a mechanism and as a projecting instrument, the happenings and events that the patient experiences, are transferred out of the self. In this way, the symbolism of the fairytales offers to the individual alternative forms of

expression, which are free, creative, original and individual. However, this study does not aim to focus on the influence of the fairytale on the individual psychology. The point of view according to which the fairytales will be analysed, is related with their definition as one of the clearest and cleanest forms of the expression of the massive psychology, or as would Marie Louise Von Franz (one of the principle scholars on the interpretation of fairytales) "of the psychic processes of the collective unconsciousness."

Here lies a great truth based on a very simple argument. If focus our attention on the Genesis of the origin of the fairytales, the first fairytale in the history of humankind is thought to have been around 1250 BC. The consciousness for the education of children for sure cannot have been the main factor of the creation of the fairytale as a category initially literary and cultural or as a story with an entertaining purpose for the child. So, we can rightly think that the fairytale has come as a confession, where stories were told, which took fantastic and magic elements, managed to get more attention. In this way, the fairytale could get through more easily, could gain popularity more quickly and win values by being widely used generation after generation. Precisely here, initiates the concept of this study. Considering how the fairytales were born, in a summarized way we will consider that from the way they have been created and have come down to us, all the changes in years bring us the cultural, social and psychological background from which they come. This means that inevitably, the fairytale has brought al the heritage of the context and the nation from which it comes, in terms of the national personality and character.

The motives that are most often found in fairytales

The fact that a great part of the characters in fairytales do not have a particular name, but remain simply named after their blood or family relations, allows the children to project elements of their relationships on them. Most of the fairytales have characters like the mother, the father, the sister, the stepmother, the grandmother, the prince or the princess. In this way the child may identify or find himself or may identify one of his close relatives in the respective character.

Why do fairytales begin with expressions such as "Once upon a time..." "A long long time ago in a far kingdom..."?
This distant and far form of narration, displaced in time and space, automatically places the child in an imaginary dimension as soon as the fairytale starts. From the start, the child is aware that it is not about real places or dates. When the fairytale starts with "once upon a time," it becomes clear that what the child will hear has nothing to do with the reality he lives everyday. The confessions and stories seem to

come from the depth of time, and in order to be told to the child in the form of a story they need to be cleaned from the dust of forgetfulness. Precisely about this feature of the fairytales, they are often associated as a communication that belongs to the grandparents. As the fairytale is old, so much that we do not know where it comes from and how long ago it was created, the grandfather or the grandmother is a very appropriated person to transmit it to the child. Since the fairytale represents popular wisdom gathered for generations; in an analogue way the grandfathers and the grandmothers are the people that in the eyes of the child carry this characteristic. The fairytale is permeated by a mystic confession because there are events that do not comply with the present, and mysterious because there are many details that are indeterminate and unspecified clearly. Once upon a time the animals used to talk, the people used to change into lifeless objects and vice-versa, the kings usually had three sons or three daughters, there used to be a mean stepmother, an evil witch or a fairy Godmother. The child knows very well that all these were "once upon a time," in unstated time and not today. Despite this, the fairytale remains very convincing and attractive for him.

Except the beginning motive and the way that the communication starts, one of the most well-known values of the fairytales which has influenced in their massive growth of popularity in childhood, is connected to the motive of happy ending. In order for a child to grow healthy, he needs to know that the things and problems, no matter how complicated they may be, in the end they are solved. The fairytale thus nurtures the spirit of hope and optimism. Here it is not about a false hope so that the child creates expectations and wrong impressions of the reality. But it is about the fantasies and illusions that the child needs and which help him solve problems. The child's irrational fears and anxieties require such imaginary solutions and alternatives, because certainly his emotional problems are different from the reality of the grown-ups.

A motive often found in fairytales is that of the naive child, frivolous and less favored then others., in terms of looks or character. Such a motive is consoling to the child who finds himself in the role of the little one. A very good example of this is that of *The Ugly Duckling*. As a consequence of his not so nice appearance, this characters has led a modest life where he has always felt humiliated. However, when he comes across challenges, he manages to succeed with his humbleness and kindness by becoming a hero and the protagonist. Such models are very useful to the child, who needs to understand the importance of gradual growing up and to accept his status as the youngest in the family. Since his concept of himself in this way is totally justified, the child by identifying with this fairytale character, at the same time learns that his potentials will be reached through a natural and spontaneous process of growing up and various experiences. At the same time, the motive of the child that is not happy as a

consequence of the way he is treated in the family or because he is despised by the others and that in the end achieves the appreciation and the love that he deserves, serves the sense of justice also. The happy ending, thus is one of the main conceptual shafts of the fairytale, so the fact that in the end everybody gets what he deserves, helps the child also in this direction. Another typical case is Cinderella, whose life was in absolute contrast with her stepsisters and stepmother. But, thanks to her patience, kindness and circumstances, she manages to ave a decent, peaceful and princess like life, as she deserves. Thus in this way, the child identifies with the character least favored by life in fairytales, through his journey. The motive explained above implies also the value that has acting and being active in the child's life. The gaining of autonomy, independence and self-confidence is essential for the child to create a healthy personality. The fact that the main character, the hero or the heroine of the fairytale has to go through some long and difficult experiences, shows that nothing can be taken for granted, and that he has to fight for what he wants. So the child clearly goes through the process of maturity. To achieve his independence and to create his own identity, distanced from the parent, the child has to face the challenges and difficulties that come to him on his own. This also influences in the education of an internal locus of control in the children.

The motive of the happy ending does not serve only to give the message that the future is hopeful, but also serves to teach the sense of justice and equilibrium. The evil person is punished and the good person wins because evil should die and the good should dominate. This is necessary in order for the child to believe in a peaceful and safe world where justice is served and where everyone gets what he deserves. The fairytales have a happy ending because this is the right way through which the conflicts are solved, order is set and justice is served. In this way, the child becomes familiar with the morale, with those behaviors which are socially acceptable and with the norms on which the society is built and works.

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Theoretical article

WORK SATISFACTION AND OCCUPATIONAL EXHAUSTION IN PRESCHOOL TEACHERS

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Abstract

A country's socio-economic development is linked to the education it provides. The relationship is two-way, as citizens with high levels of education are the potential for the development and progress of society, which leads to an improvement in the socio-economic level, which in turn leads to an improvement in the education provided. The core of the provided education is the kindergarten teacher. Its fundamental role has led to a wealth of research to highlight those elements that lead to effective preschool teachers and effective schools. A large part of the research has focused on the concept of occupational exhaustion and satisfaction, and both are related to both the kindergarten teacher's personal mental and physical health and their impact on the educational process and relationships with students and learning outcomes. Regardless of whether occupational exhaustion follows or precedes occupational satisfaction, or vice versa, the majority of research agrees that the causes of both concepts are multidimensional and include individual and environmental factors and interactions with each other. This view is important in terms of prevention and treatment measures taken to reduce exhaustion and increase satisfaction, as they are based on either the individual or the environment and apply interventions accordingly.

Keywords: Work satisfaction, Prevention, Preschool Teachers

Preschool teachers' "happiness" levels, as measured in a pan-European survey, fell by 28% during the crisis (Bell & Blanchflower, 2011). In a survey of a sample of private sector workers, job satisfaction overall and wages and security in particular were statistically significantly lower in 2004-2007 (pre-crisis) than in 2011-12 (crisis) (Markovits, Boer, Gerbers, Dick, 2013). The aim of the present research effort is to investigate the working conditions of pre-school and how they contribute to the occurrence of occupational exhaustion and ultimately to their professional satisfaction. The results show some degree of occupational exhaustion, mainly in terms of emotional exhaustion, but do not identify depersonalization and reduced achievement, while confirming the findings of studies that demonstrate significant levels of occupational satisfaction in preschool teachers.

The problems of modern kindergarten educators
It is a fact that the educator faces a number of problems in complex and multicultural societies and needs to have enough resources:

a) The educators must not only have a good knowledge structure and be characterized by the appeal for continuous information - training, in teaching subjects and teaching strategies, but also contribute to the creation of "defense mechanisms" in the new generation, given the admirable scientific achievements also create problems for modern man. This means developing a critical attitude towards scientific developments and cultivating ecological awareness and peaceful disposition and behavior;

b) The educator is called to play his always known mediating role, that is, to be the "bridge" for the connection of past and present or future, of different cultures, old and new generation, but a role that today becomes very complex and difficult. This means that the kindergarten teacher must contribute to the development of the student's ability to understand the "different" and to cultivate his respect for fellow human beings with a different cultural identity. It is also imperative on the part of the kindergarten teacher to cultivate understanding in the younger generation towards the elderly and the elderly, their views and standards of behavior;

c) It is also required by the educator to respect the student's personality and in the teaching process it is necessary to create a new relationship between kindergarten teacher and student, which presupposes a different role from the kindergarten teacher;

d) The kindergarten teacher also today faces difficulties that arise during the transmission of rapidly evolving knowledge in teaching. According to the research (Dimitropoulos, 1998, pp. 241 - 244), educators state in order of frequency, the following reasons for dissatisfaction with their profession:

1) their financial situation;

2) the lack of interest and affection for preschool teachers by the state;

3) the lack of substantial interest of the state in education and students in general;

4) the content of basic education and kindergarten teacher training;

5) the mental fatigue caused by the exercise of the teaching profession;

6) the lack of adequate kindergarten teacher independence;

7) lack of capacity but also meritocratic procedures for hierarchical development;

8) the nature of the teaching profession and the excessive demands on it;

9) the organization and management of the education system;

10) the non-participation of preschool teachers in decision-making;

11) the lack of evaluation of preschool teachers and the leveling that this lack implies;

12) the unbridled partisanship in education;

13) the characteristics of the students themselves with special needs, with the prob. such as the lack of building and technological infrastructure;

15) the behavior of parents and in particular their indifference to what is happening at school,

16) the structural dysfunctions of the Greek educational system;

17) the school's relationship with society and the world;

18) the way preschool teachers are selected;

19) the social image of the kindergarten teacher as he perceives and experiences it himself;

20) the scientific-professional identity of the kindergarten teacher and;

21) the interpersonal relationships in school and commentary or social life.

Significant are the problems in its role as a "mediator" that has become particularly difficult in modern societies due to their multiculturalism and value pluralism. Thus, the kindergarten teacher is often led into role conflicts and feelings of insecurity, as evidenced by many studies and researches (Xochellis, 2006).

In addition, the educator is called upon in modern school to take on and play the role of impartial judge, evaluating students' school performance and thus distributing "social privileges."

In the new educational environment and in view of the new aspects of the role of the kindergarten teacher, the following questions are urgently asked:

a) what conditions and skills must he have in order to meet his complex and demanding profession and b) to what extent these requirements are covered by his education.

A general answer that could be given is that, today and for the immediate future, a kindergarten teacher is required who, in addition to the usual cognitive supplies, related to his training in continuously enriched teaching objects and the corresponding teaching methodology, should be able to perceive and

include in their choices and actions the requirements arising from the existing conditions in modern societies. The new conditions give a new interpretation to the role of the kindergarten teacher and, therefore, require immediate changes in the education and training of preschool teachers. The traditional supplies of the kindergarten teacher are not enough to educate the citizen of today and tomorrow. An additional body of "educational goods" is also required as a precondition for communication and cooperation between people, as well as in terms of human values. In this context, a more general change of orientation in education is required. They are preceded by the development of a new human relationship with the faces, conditions and things of his environment and the cultivation of values and attitudes that go beyond local and national contexts and develop sensitivity towards fellow human beings and the environment, respect for human dignity, peaceful disposition and behavior, tolerance and respect for different cultural identities, the acquisition of social skills. In other words, a different profile is required for the kindergarten teacher, development of creative thinking and the social dimensions of the student's behavior, quality of thinking, ways of critical approach and acquisition of knowledge (Xochellis, 2006).

Occupational exhaustion. Factors

The term "occupational exhaustion" was first used in 1974 by Freudenberger to describe the symptoms of physical and mental exhaustion in mental health professionals. Today, of the 5,500 published studies on occupational exhaustion, 34% are for education professionals.

Professional kindergarten teacher exhaustion is a broad concept with many different aspects. It includes stress, lack of job satisfaction, depersonalization, low professional participation and even the desire to leave the profession. In more unfavorable cases it can lead to emotional exhaustion and depression. Preschool teachers with occupational problems, who cannot cope effectively, are experiencing stress. Weakness results from a prolonged feeling of stress and is a negative emotion (Maslach, 1993).

The person who is characterized by occupational exhaustion goes through the following three stages:

a) In the first stage, he experiences an imbalance between the sources of help and the demands regarding his work and is subsequently overwhelmed by anxiety

b) In the second stage, it is characterized by an unrestricted, limited-duration emotional reaction to this "imbalance", which is distinguished by feelings of fear, tension, drowsiness and exhaustion. In particular, he feels pressure that manifests itself in previous events (of a chauvinistic and psychological nature)

c) In the third stage, there are changes in the attitudes and behavior of the individual, such as a distancing, engineering or arrogant way of dealing with customers to meet his personal needs.

Therefore, occupational exhaustion could be characterized as a kind of weakness of the individual, manifested in apathy, arrogance and emotional distancing (Hughes, 2001). To assess occupational exhaustion, there are two psychometric tools that play a decisive role, are considered the most important and stand out for their validity and reliability: Tedium Measure (Pines, Aronson, & Kafry, 1981) and Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Specifically, for the construction of the Maslach Burnout Inventory, which is the most well-known psycho-aesthetic tool, statements of 1052 people of various professional specialties (police, preschool teachers, nurses, social workers, psychologists, lawyers, doctors, etc.) were collected.

It is an indisputable fact that in the teaching profession, as it is one of the pre-eminent socio-human-professional professions, occupational exhaustion affects a large percentage of professions of all depths in all countries of the world. Occupational exhaustion is the syndrome in which preschool teachers react to stressful factors. The term describes their excessive manifestations of anxiety, which is strongly associated with the emotional intensity of their constant preoccupation with other people. A kindergarten teacher experiencing occupational exhaustion feels sluggish, lacking in enthusiasm, has a feeling of dissatisfaction, finds it difficult to concentrate, lacks confidence, and loses his humor.

The factors that contribute to the creation of occupational exhaustion are the following: a) Personal factors (What role do the individual characteristics of the preschool teacher play in the creation

of occupational exhaustion?); b) Personal factors: (What role do people play); c) Organizational factors (What role does the school environment play? What role does the employer play?).

Many studies on occupational exhaustion adopt a behavioral approach to the syndrome, while others adopt a cognitive approach. Oranje classifies these studies into three categories (Oranje, 2001).

First, occupational exhaustion is considered to be a coping problem (interaction model); for example, occupational exhaustion stems from the negative impact of an individual's judgment of individual factors on his own abilities in relation to of its environment (Byrne, 1991).

Second, partial studies treat occupational exhaustion as a state of bodily and mental exhaustion that affects the atoms involved in large temporal states in situations that require intense 1985 (Kremer-Hayon & Kurtz, 1985). This view is categorized as the psysiological model. Third, the basic principle of partial studies is that the environment produces stressful factors that are responsible for the onset of occupational exhaustion. Such environmental factors are preschool teachers' social relationships with students, colleagues and principals (Brouwers & Tomic, 1999) and working conditions (Van Dierendonck et al., 1998).

However, studies examining preschool teachers' occupational exhaustion have been characterized by a lack of a solid theoretical basis and also by a lack of causation of causal relationships μ including environmental factors and effects on a person's psychosocial health. The theory developed for self-efficacy (selfefficacy) has recently been shown to be a sufficient theoretical framework for the Study of Kindergarten teacher Occupational Illness (Brouwers & Tomic 2000).

Professional Kindergarten teacher Satisfaction Factors

A set of factors affects job satisfaction. Dugguh & Dennis refer to environmental, individual and psychological (Dugguh & Dennis, 2014). Environmental issues include: communication, employee recognition, while individuals include emotions and personality, as well as genetic factors. Finally, psychologists include the individual's family, society, and living conditions.

In an effort to investigate the factors that affect preschool teachers' job satisfaction and burnout, they fall into three categories (Kyriakou, 1987):

a) environmental and content elements, such as workload and time pressure, lack of management support, low fees and low promotion prospects, lack of professional development

b) demographic factors such as gender, age and marital status and finally,

c) the personality traits of the kindergarten teacher.

For the preschool teachers, a lot of research has been done on the factors that influence them. Dimitropoulos (1998) in a first distinction singles them out as forerunners, who pre-existed and functioned as elements of shaping the "predisposition" towards the teaching profession and who according to His research differs from group to group of preschool teachers. Syndromes are factors that are all those that, regardless of category, form and origin, exist and function simultaneously with the practice of the profession by the subjects.

A second distinction can be made based on the area of influence (Dimitropoulos, as above). This is how the following categories appear:

(1) Individuals - personal, who are related to the personality and individual characteristics of the individual

(2) Social, who are related to the family and the wider social environment of the individual

(3) Preschool teachers, who are related to the educational system and the opportunities it offers for studies

(4) Professionals, who compose the professional reality, in the conditions under which the profession is practiced.

Sharma & Jyoti (2009), distinguish the factors that affect the professional satisfaction of preschool teachers in endogenous, exogenous and demographic.

Organizational Factors

Warr proposes a general framework for classifying key factors that promote job satisfaction, which is divided into intrinsic and exogenous (Warr, 2005). According to Evans, factors that contribute to job satisfaction are called "sources of satisfaction" (Evans, 1998) and are related either to the content of the job or to the context in which it is performed.

Endogenous Factors

Endogenous factors can arise from classroom activities. Daily friction with students reveals to preschool teachers if they have gained anything from teaching. This kind of perception of kindergarten teacher control in the school environment is understood as an endogenous factor that affects professional satisfaction (Sharma & Jyoti, 2009). In fact, proponents of professional autonomy argue that this (autonomy) will make the educational profession more attractive.

Intrinsic factors are considered a good incentive for preschool teachers, as they enjoy teaching and coloring with young people, while few are involved in the teaching profession for a salary.

Exogenous Factors

Exogenous factors that affect job satisfaction include wages, support provided by management, security provided by the profession and the resources provided (Koustelios & Kousteliou 2001). These characteristics are indicated by agencies such as researchers and preschool teachers, who argue that "poor working conditions" have "stigmatized" the teaching profession and that if the kindergarten teacher experiences the absence of the above factors, his performance in the classroom is affected.

If endogenous factors motivate preschool teachers to engage in the profession, exogenous factors affect their desire to stay in it.

Demographic Factors

As in other professional disciplines, factors such as age, gender, marital status, and working hours are related to job satisfaction.

Research has repeatedly confirmed that job satisfaction varies with age in men and women. Men and women do not derive satisfaction from the same factors as professional satisfaction. For men, stable work is important, while for women, interpersonal relationships (Grammatikou, 2010).

Professional Satisfaction - Occupational Weakness and Researches

Professional satisfaction is associated with variables such as motivation, performance, commitment to the body and consequently the mental health of the person experiencing it. In contrast, exhaustion syndrome is negatively associated with satisfaction (Platsidou, 2010).

For Maslach & Shaufeli, the relationship between occupational exhaustion and occupational satisfaction is unclear (Maslach & Shaufeli, 1993). Three approaches to this relationship are mentioned. The former perceives exhaustion as the cause of reduced satisfaction.

The second, on the other hand, realizes that reduced satisfaction leads to exhaustion. And finally, the third considers that another variable such as that of bad working conditions leads to occupational exhaustion and affects satisfaction (Daniilidou, 2013: 55).

In the case of preschool teachers, exhaustion usually begins with a feeling of "overload" from a close relationship with students and parents and colleagues, can lead to negative attitudes and cynicism towards students (depersonalization) and lead to reduced performance. Elevated levels of exhaustion can lead to job dissatisfaction (Platsidou 2010).

Job satisfaction is associated with pleasant emotions that may be related to the appreciation of one's work. In the teaching profession, exhaustion is negatively associated with job satisfaction. For Koustelio & Kousteliou (2001), occupational burnout can be seen as the result of a lack of professional satisfaction and vice versa.

Dimitropoulos (1998), in the research conducted and participated by the preschool teachers who served in the period 1990 - 92 - including preschool teachers - in a very general assessment and taking into account the results of the research data from various surveys regarding the satisfaction of our preschool teachers , finds that:

1). Our preschool teachers show a high percentage of general satisfaction with their profession

2). From research with different categories of employees, preschool teachers appear to be the most satisfied or one of the most satisfied categories of employees

3). Preschool teachers may appear very satisfied, but they experience great dissatisfaction with several factors used in the research.

Koustelios in a study conducted on 357 primary and secondary school preschool teachers in the prefecture of Thessaloniki, examined the professional satisfaction of preschool teachers and whether it is influenced by their personal characteristics (Koustelios & Kousteliou, 2001). The results of the research showed that the overall level of satisfaction of preschool teachers with their work was high. In terms of gender, women appear to be more satisfied than men. However, there was no significant correlation between marital status and job satisfaction.

Zembylas & Papanastasiou conducted a study on a sample of 461 preschool teachers in schools in Cyprus and their findings show that the happier preschool teachers are in their working conditions and working relationships, the more satisfied they feel with their work. It is found that exogenous factors (eg salary, working conditions, employment relationships, etc.) affect kindergarten teacher satisfaction. Similarly, endogenous factors are said to have little effect (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006). Saiti (2007), in a nationwide survey conducted by distributing questionnaires to 1200 Primary Education Preschool teachers, trying to identify the factors of professional satisfaction of preschool teachers, highlighted seven important factors:

1) The first factor is related to the school climate and the principal;

2) The second concerned preschool teachers' assessments of promotion opportunities and the benefits of their work;

3) The third factor is related to the recognition of preschool teachers' efforts and the administrative organization of education;

4) The fourth factor is related to the remuneration of preschool teachers;

5) The fifth concerns the general organization of the school;

6) The sixth factor is related to preschool teachers' emotions;

7) Finally, the seventh is related to collaboration between preschool teachers.

Papanagiotou and Theofilidis (2008), in a survey conducted in Cyprus by preschool teachers in four neighboring schools, exploring job satisfaction, student and parental recognition of their work and recognition of their work by supervisors and colleagues, and In relation to the level of meritocracy, the following emerged: there were no statistically significant differences in gender. Preschool teachers say they are generally satisfied with their profession and their satisfaction does not differ from years of service. Research has shown that the most important source of satisfaction is the recognition of preschool teachers' work by parents and students. Preschool teachers seem to receive less satisfaction from meritocracy levels.

Tarasiadou (2008), in a study of 167 preschool teachers examining the motivations of professional development and their impact on their professional satisfaction, found that pre-school preschool teachers are motivated by their love and interest in their profession and consider their work important. They value the opportunity given to them through their work to achieve remarkable goals and to develop their professional skills. They value personal development as the most important motivation, thus expressing the need for continued provision of learning and maturation opportunities as part of their professional development. Finally, Taralaikou conducted a study on working conditions and professional satisfaction of pre-school preschool teachers. The research findings indicate preschool teachers' job satisfaction, low social prestige and unsatisfactory earnings. Preschool teachers would not leave their profession, but would like to change working conditions. Factors that enhance the practice of the profession include vacations and holidays, working hours, working with colleagues and students, staying in the school unit and continuing professional development. On the contrary, the factors that hinder

include the changing schedule (shift), the implementation of the assessment, the administrative organization, the amounts available for the school, the health insurance, the extracurricular tasks, the number of children in the class, the salaries, the social problems behavior and the number of students in the classroom.

It should be noted - as pointed out by Platsidou (2010), that the research data for preschool teachers are not many. On the one hand, it is a small professional group and on the other hand, there is no correspondence between pre-school education and other countries. Primary education research usually includes preschool teachers.

Given the small number of studies on occupational exhaustion and satisfaction that focus on preschool preschool teachers, it was decided to conduct relevant research that will attempt to demonstrate the role of their working conditions in the possible occurrence of occupational exhaustion syndrome and their impact on occupational disease. their satisfaction, the results of which are presented in the research part.

Conclusions

From what has been presented and analyzed above, it is clear that the role of counselors in dealing with work stress can be crucial. Since the main goal of counseling is to help the person effectively and to deal partially or completely with his problem, through this process the person can expect his activation and adequate functioning.

Regarding the work stress of preschool teachers, its treatment can be approached in counseling either individually or in groups. At the individual level, through counseling or where necessary treatment (tertiary approach) is considered, the individual can be helped to gain as much self-awareness and self-control as possible in order to develop additional responsibility and self-control and to be able to plan his actions. On the other hand, in addition to the symptoms at the psychological level regarding work stress, the goal is to improve work performance. The help that the kindergarten teacher can receive through the counseling process in order to be able to better adapt to his working conditions and to be able to derive satisfaction from his work will help him to be able to perform more and better. As a result, the school organization will become more efficient. Care for support at this level is important as from work the person covers not only his biological needs but also psychological and social. In addition, the kindergarten teacher's ability to reach a level of functionality that will enable him to achieve achievable goals and be able to deal logically and calmly with his working conditions, stressful situations, requirements and expectations will lead to to improve the level of satisfaction and the sense of success that are decisive factors in effective teaching.

Schematically the kindergarten teacher with the help of the counselor will follow an evolutionary course of three stages: first through the investigation he will be able to understand the problem and then through the insight he will help to understand himself. Finally in the third stage he will be able to take action that will lead to the solution of the problem (Malikiosi-Loizou, 2001).

At the group level, the implementation of a psychoeducational program based on the principles of cognitive-behavioral therapy or derived from the assumptions of the systemic view will both help the individual kindergarten teacher to understand the factors and processes leading to the onset of anxiety and the recognition of symptoms as well as the school organization to realize that the problematic situation does not concern a personal problem of the kindergarten teacher but concerns the whole body to take appropriate action to improve conditions and tackle the problem takes and weaknesses (Malikiosi-Loizou, 2001).

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Theoretical article

ЮНОШЕСТВО И АНОРЕКСИЯ ПОД ВЛИЯНИЕ НА СОЦИАЛНИТЕ МЕДИИ

ADOLESCENCE AND ANOREXIA UNDER THE INFLUENCE OF SOCIAL MEDIA

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Резюме
Настоящата статия е теоретичен обзор, базиращ се главно на проведени изследвания, целящ да очертае психологическите особености в периода на юношеството като предпоставка за по-голям риск от развитие на хранителни разстройства. Разгледано е негативното влияние на социалните мрежи, в които подрастващите прекарват голяма част от свободното си време, като това се явява възможност за въвличане в нездравословно поведение, особено за интернализиране на образа на тялото, което се явява като предиктор за развитие на хранителни разстройства.

Ключови думи: юношество, анорексия, социални мрежи.

Abstract
This article is a theoretical overview, based mainly on research, aimed at outlining the psychological characteristics of adolescence as a prerequisite for higher risk of developing eating disorders. The negative impact of social networks in which adolescents spend much of their free time is considered, and this is an opportunity to engage in unhealthy behavior, especially to internalize the body image, which is a predictor of the development of eating disorders.

Keywords: adolescence, anorexia, social networks.

Периодът на юношеството е характерен с продължителното и не леко търсене на въпроса, който е от фундаментално значение за юношата - "Кой съм аз?", като именно това е моментът, в който започва изграждането на личната идентичност. Формирането на личната идентичност до голяма степен зависи от свободните избори и индивидуални решения, които юношата е необходимо да осъществи при изпълняване на различни активности. Ако не съумее да интегрира и балансира тези аспекти, и не е достатъчно способен да осъществи самостоятелно своите избори, тогава може да настъпи обърканост спрямо собствената личност, както и спрямо социалните роли, пред които е изправен да изпълнява (Янкулова, Йо., 2016, с. 141).

Периодът на юношество може да бъде определен още и като метаморфоза, която приключва с „напускане". Част от тази метаморфоза се изразява в напускането на детското тяло и приемането на новото тяло – тялото на възрастен (Циркова, Д., 2007).

Според Уиникът периодът на юношеството е период на лични открития, които е необходимо младата личност да ги преживее сама, като реално юношата не би искал да бъде разбран (Уиникът, Д., 2004)

Преходният период, се изразява в преход от детството към живот като възрастен. Възрастта на подрастващите се дефинира като психологически особена (сложна), като в следствие на това, че в нея настъпват едновремено интензивни физиологични и психични промени. Основно при голяма част от подрастващите се променя обкръжението (в много случай радикално), появяват се нови интереси, компании, променят се навиците, което води обикновено до рязка промяна в поведението.

Обикновено процесът на юношеството е свързан с прояви на рисково поведение – антисоциални прояви, провали в училище, наркозависимост, суицидни действия, анорексия. В този период младата личност няма достатъчно формирани критерии за обективно оценяване на действия (свои и чужди) и ситуации. Емоционалната устойчивост и самоконтрол не са на достатъчно високо ниво, за да бъдат прилагани ефективно, за разлика от една емоционално зряла личност. Именно затова този период носи своята уязвимост за юношата в търсенето на своята идентичност. Това е времето, в което рискът от попадане в неблагоприятна среда и следване на лош модел на поведение, е твърде голям (Папазова, Е., 2013; Шумкова, И., 2010; Александрова-Караманова, А., 2017; Янкулова, Йо., 2016).

Тук трябва да отбележим, че днешният тинейджър живее в една доста различна реалност –дигиталната среда, която формира нови умения и представи за житейските възгледи на подрастващите. Социалните мрежи, които са пренаситени с много манипулативна информация налагат определени актуални стандарти в много аспекти, като един от тях са крайно рестиктивните диети, които юношите не подлагат на критично осмисляне и започват да следват, като в повечето случай подражават на дадена медийна личност.

Днешното общество като цяло твърде много преекспонира един нездравословен модел на тялото – твърде слабо тяло (skiny), като еталон за красота и приемственост от обществото. Тази пряко наложена ангажираност с теглото при подрастващите, развива нездравословно поведение и отношение спрямо храната и процеса на хранене, които съответно водят до хранителни нарушения и придружаващите ги психо-емоционални проблеми (Хаджиева, Ц., 2019; Караманова-Александрова, А., 2017).

Именно това са пректе пътища да се стигне до хранително разстройство, което може да доведе дори до необратими последици (Хаджиева, Ц., 2019).

Според Лакан, при анорексията това, което детето яде е „нищото" (Lacan, J., 1973, p. 96).

Авторът определя анорексикът като, че не яде нищо, в следствие на това, че е бил прехранван по отношение на потребността от храна, като в момента трябва да поддържа едно реално желание, чрез отказа да удовлетворява тази нужда (пак там). Още за анорексията!!!!

Деларош определя анорексията като „Болест, характерна за юношеството, анорексията е форма на бавно самоубийство, маскирано по многобройни начини привличащо под отговорност околните чрез едно псевдобезразличие, отличаващо се с рядка жестокост" (Деларош, П., с. 74).

Съвременните социо-културални фактори преекспонират и видоизменят в полза на модната индустрия и средствата за масова информация слабото тяло, като еталон за красота и

успех. Стремежът за постигане на такъв идеал неминуемо, по един или друг начин, засяга хранителното поведение на юношата и спазването на рестиктивни диети (Rus-Makovec & Tomori, 2000).

Идеалът за слабо тяло днес е по-силно интернализиран от която и да историческа епоха от развитието на човечеството. Дори напротив, 21 век води началото на една особено "модерна" и разпространена болест, особено сред младите девойки, анорексията, или още казано компулсивният стремеж към все по-слабо тяло. Ето защо идеалът за слабо тяло служи като етиология на заболяването в редица обяснителни модели за хранителните разстройства. В периода на юношеството нагласите към външния вид на младата личност оказват изключително важна роля в самооценката. Голяма част от младежите на тази възраст са обсебени от мисълта за теглото си и фикс идеята да достигнат определени (несъответстващи на здравето) стандарти за телесно тегло, които се опитват да следват с алиментарно хранене (недохранване), създаващо реален риск за малнутриция (нарушение в клетъчния баланс) (Хаджиева, Ц., 2019; Grogan, S., 2008; Morrison, Kalin and Morrison 2004).

Редица личностни фактори играят ролята и на предиктори на риска от развитие на хранително разстройство в следствие на склонността на личността към идеализиране на слаб, изящен (според съвременната култура) телесен образ, както и чрез социалното обкръжение (връстници), които още повече подкрепят и построкават този идеализиран образ.

Според Националната американска асоциация за хранителни разстройства НЕДА: „Анорексията е третата най-разпространена хронична болест през периода на юношеството; 95% от тези, които имат хранително разстройство, са на възраст от 12 до 28 г.; при жените между 15-24 годишна възраст смъртността, в следствие от анорексия, е 12 пъти по-висока от всяко друго психиатрично заболяване; около ½ от момичетата и 1/3 от момчетата в тийнейджърска възраст прилагат нездравословни методи за контролиране на теглото: пропускане на хранения, гладуване, пушене, повръщане, прием на лаксативи (https://www.nationaleatingdisorders.org).

Опити за осъществяване на контрол на теглото в голяма степен се наблюдават не само сред възрастните, но и сред юношите. От проведени 72 световни изследвания с над 1 200 000 участници над 18 години, които са правили опит да редуцират теглото си или да го контролират в рамките на 12 месеца, 42% от изследваните лица са прибягвали до методи за отслабване, 23% да поддържат теглото си в определена граница. При юношите процентът на опитите за намаляване на теглото е сравнително по-голям (по Александрова-Караманова, А., 2017).

По данни от друго изследване юношите с нормално тегло, спазващи диета към момента, е между 1% и 9% за момчетата и между 9% и 28% за момичетата, докато при тези, опитвали се да редуцират теглото си в последните 12 месеца – между 14% и 34% за момчетата и между 40% и 60% за момичеата (пак там, с.513).

Установено е, че най-честите методи за редуциране на теглото както при възрастни, така и при юноши са така наречените здравословни стратегии, базирани на схващането за биология и физиология – здравословно хранене (принципа за разделно хранене) и включване на активна физическа дейност. Не е обаче никак малък делът на ангажираните с нездравословни поведенчески актове, които крият реален риск за здравето – пропускане на хранения, редуциран рием на храна, изключване на основни групи храни, приемане на диуретици и лаксативи, пиене на кофеинови напитки и тютюнопушене, с цел понижаване на апетита, индуцирано повръщане, пиене на големи количества вода, хранене в определен час, не съобразен с реалната необходимост от глад и насищане (Ojala et al, 2007; Brown et al, 2016).

Проведено дългосрочно изследване сочи, че дефицитното хранене, което е свързано с нездрвословни поведенчески стратегии за контрол н теглото, на по-късен етап водят до осезателно повишаване на теглото, до наднормено тегло, чести епиоди на преяждане, емоционално хранене и развитие на хранително разстройство (анорексия, булимия) (Neumark-Sztainer et al, 2006; Хаджиева, Ц., 2019).

Многобройни изследвания сочат, че поведенческите практики за редуциране и контрол на теглото не оказват положително влияние в дългосрочен план върху здравословното състоянието на теглото. В тази връзка изследователи са установили, че бивши диетици, поддържат настоящем по-високо тегло от теглото, което са имали преди да предприемат стратегии за неговото редуциране (Neumark-Sztainer et al, 2006; Neumark-Sztainer et al, 2006; Larson et al, 2006; Haines & Neumark-Sztainer, 2006; Haines et al, 2006).

Телевизията е най-често използваната медия от децата и юношите, като голяма част от това телевизионно съдържание се гледа през итерактивни електронни платформи – компютри, таблети, смарт телефони (по Александрова-Караманова, А., 2017, с. 487).

Електронните медии се превърнаха в неизменна част от живота на съвременните хора, като в това число вече неизменно попадат и децата още от ранна детска възраст, където телевизионното въздействие е още по-силно за развиващата се нервна система на детето. Ето защо днес съвременните деца се етикират като „екранни деца", които прекарват голяма част от ежедневието си пред екрана, потъвайки във виртуалната реалност.

Въздействието от електронните медии може да бъде както позитивно, така и негативно. Проведено изследване сочи, че социалните медии оказват ефективен резултат върху психо-социалното развитие на децата-изграждане на нови приятелски взаимоотношения, развитие на социалната компетентност, по-висока самооценка, развитие на когнитивна и афективна емпатия (Valkenburg & Peter, 2011).

Според някои автори социалните медии допринасят за по-високата информираност и обогатяват знанията в различни области, като един от тези аспекти е изграждането на здравословни хранителни навици (Strasburger, Jordan & Donnerstein, 2010).

От друга страна негативните въздействия от социалните медии са свързани с насилието, агресията, намаляване на просоциалното поведение, което се представя под различна медийна форма; с преждевременно водене на сексуален живот и съответно по изразено фриволно поведение, както и склонност към сексуално насилие от страна на момчетата; с употреба н алкохол, цигари и наркотици.; с установяване на вредни хранителни навици, водещи до повишаване на телесната маса и хиподинамия; с повишаване риска о хранителни разстройства, разстройства, свързани с възприемане на външния вид; с разстройство на съня и настроението (депресия); с дистрес и понижено академично представяне (Александрова-Караманова, А., 2018, 2012; Божинова и Таир, 2011; Хаджиева, Ц., 2019; Inchley et al., 2016).

Изследване, класифицирало седем от най-значимите потенциални рискове от въздействието на социалните медии, сочи промотирането (въвличането) на анорексията като един от тях (Mascheroni & Cuman, 2014).

Проведено проучване в социалното медийно пространство докладва, че 95% от изследваните момичета отчитат яростната атака от установените негативни критерии за красота в публикации в социалните медии – коментари, снимки, видеа, като повечето от тях (72%) ги виждат поне веднъж седмично, изразявайки желание социалните мрежи всъщност да бъдат

пространство, което да дава възможност за позитивно изразяване и приемане на тялото (62%) *(Tiggemann, M., & Slater, A., 2013).*

В друго изследване 41% от момичетата в тинейджърска възраст признават, че използват социалните мрежи, за да „изглеждат по-готини“. Те отчитат че изпиват натиск от необходимостта да изглеждат по-добре он-лайн, но също така твърдят, че социалните медии им помагат за развитие на тяхната социализация – изграждане на приятелски и други взаимоотношения. Както и, че потребителите на социални мрежи са значително по-склонни от тези, които не са социално-медийни потребители, да интернализират стремеж към отслабване и фокусиране в тялото. (Fardouly, J., & Vartanian, L. R., 2015).

В тази връзка, отделно от това изследване, друго твърди, че използването на социалните мрежи е свързано със самообективиране и тяхното използване само за 30 минути на ден може да промени начинът, по който човек вижда собственото си тяло (Fardouly, J., Diedrichs, P. C., Vartanian, L. R., & Halliwell, E., 2015).

Заключение

Многопластовата динамична структура, на която е стъпило съвремието не изисква толкова теоретични констатации, относно процесите на промяна, колкото практично, креативно, иновативно и резултативно въздействие, водещо до рационална адаптация, гъвкавост и нагаждане към новите условия на живот и взаимодействие.

Промените, които настъпват у юношите, касаят цялото общество, защото като социални единици ние не може да се разглеждаме като откъснати от цялото, а напротив, като част от една мащабна система в чиято динамика сме основни участници.

Съвременният юноша преди всичко се нуждае от един нов, актуален и рационален подход от страна на всички възрастни в неговото близко обкръжение. Старите консервативни модели на интеракция са безуспешни за неговото разбиране и подкрепа от страна на възрастните. Подрастващите се развиват в една съвършено различна среда, пренаситена от зрителни и слухови стимули, които в една определена (здравословна) степен обогатяват и развиват младата личност. Нейните хоризонти са лишени от консервативното и ограбващо въздействие на старите норми и принципи, съблюдавани от предходните поколения.

Младият човек днес е по-информиран, по-уверен, по-можещ, но заедно с това и много повече изложен на риск от вредни въздействия. Ето защо преди всичко е необходима превенция – в по-ранна възраст децата да бъдат научени не как да се крият от тези въздействия (защото е почти невъзможно да се избегнат), а как да им се противопоставят, за да не стават част от техния живот. Именно тук е от особено важно значение диадата родител-дете – детето да получи актуалното и практично социално онаследяване,за да придобие необходимите социали умения и компетенции.

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Research article

ПОЛОВА ДИФЕРЕНЦИАЦИЯ НА ЕМОЦИОНАЛНАТА ИНТЕЛИГЕНТНОСТ ПРИ ЮНОШИТЕ

SEX DIFFERENTIATION OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN ADOLESCENTS

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Резюме

В статията са представени резултати от проведено изследване със 142 юноши от два града в Гърция. Целта на изследването е да се установи нивото на изразеност на емоционална интелигентност при юношите. Резултатите показват преобладаване на средните нива. Не се доказват статистически значими разлики по пол.

Ключови думи: юноши, емоционална интелигентност, възприемане на емоциите, управление на емоциите, използване на емоциите

Abstract

The article presents the results of a study conducted with 142 adolescents from two cities in Greece. The aim of the study was to determine the level of expression of emotional intelligence in adolescents. The results show a predominance of average levels. There are no statistically significant differences in gender.

Keywords: adolescents, emotional intelligence, emotional perception, emotional management, emotion use.

Емоцията е важна от човешкия живот, защото засяга всичките му аспекти. Като сложен психологически феномен, включва чувства, физиологични реакции и съответстващо поведение. Чувствата са вътрешният израз на емоцията, те са това, което субектът изпитва в резултат на емоциите (Dutta, 2016). За дълго време емоциите се разглеждат като сили, които организират, дезорганизират или нарушават способността на хората да разсъждават и мислят, да се държат рационално или не в житейски ситуации . Поради тази причина доминиращият подход в психологията е да се изучава строго изолираната емоция и познанието за нея. (Ekman Davidson, 1994 ; Holyoak, Morrison, 2005). Промяната на научната парадигма разширява значимостта в изучаването на емоционалната експресия в живота на човека. (Martin, Clore, 2001) Конструктът „емоционална интелигентност" се появява като научна необходимост за обяснение на личностни умения, надграждащи общата интелигентност и техническите и професионални такива. Самият термин, въведен от Salovey и Mayer (1990) я определя като

форма на социална интелигентност, която включва способността на личността да разбира собствените си чувства и емоции и тези на околните, да може да ги проверява в общуването и да ги използва, за да ръководи мисленето и действията си. Емоционалната интелигентност лежи в основата на останалите личностни умения, подпомагайки общуването (идентифициране на емоции на невербално ниво), когнитивната ефективност (използване на емоциите за насочване на когнитивното мислене), поведенческата активност (разбиране на информацията, която емоциите предават и действията, които емоциите генерират), социалната активност (регулиране на собствените емоции, в лична полза и за общото благо) Независимо от множественият интерес към изследването на конструкта „емоционална интелигентност", така както многообхватно е разбирането за човешката емоционалност, така трудно може да се намери и точен измерител на нейната същност. Затова измерването и е в зависимост от разбиранията на автора за нея. Независимо от наличието на дефиниции и концепции все още в процес на търсене е обхватното представяне на емоционалната интелигентност като способност на личността или като личностна черта за самоефективност (O'Connor et al., 2019) Без оглед на възрастовия период емоционалната интелигентност е потенциалът, който служи на личността в нейната адаптация в заобикалящия я свят, спомага за усещането и за своето място в него. Тя е ценният източник, помагащ на личността при вземането на решения, а в по-широк план и за мотивиране, убеждаване, общуване, ръководене и контрол над хора и групи. Възможно е и поради липса на взаимно разбиране, изключителна импулсивност, липса на забавяне на удовлетворение или толерантност, тя да е и тази която „води индивида в по-голяма степен и към емоционална турбуленция" (Dutta, 2016, 29).

В периода на юношеството личността е изпълнена с желание за опознаване на себе си, на своите чувства и чувствата на другите. Това е нейна вътрешна потребност. Това й помага да разшири своя кръгозор за света, да може да бъде част от него и ефективно да се справя с всички предизвикателства, възпрепятстващи пълноценната и активност и функционалност. Емоционалната интелигентност е факторът повлияващ личностната и социалната и значимост в сферата на междуличностните отношения. Тя е предикторът за демонстрация на емоционална и социална зрялост. Като всяка способност на личността тя се развива във времето и затова изследването на състоянието и в периода на юношеството е интересен проблем.

Цел и задачи на изследването. Целта на проведеното изследване е да се установи степента на изразеност на емоционална интелигентност при юноши от гръцки училища

Хипотези на изследването: В процеса на реализация на изследването се предположи че емоционалната интелигентност в периода на юношеството ще има полови измерения. Освен това поради засилената потребност от опознаване на себе си и околните тя няма да се изразява във висока степен.

Изследвани лица. Изследваната група включва 142 юноши на възраст от 16 до 18 години, разпределени по пол – 62 момчета и 80 момичета. Факторът пол е включен в изследването като променлива. (Фигура 1)
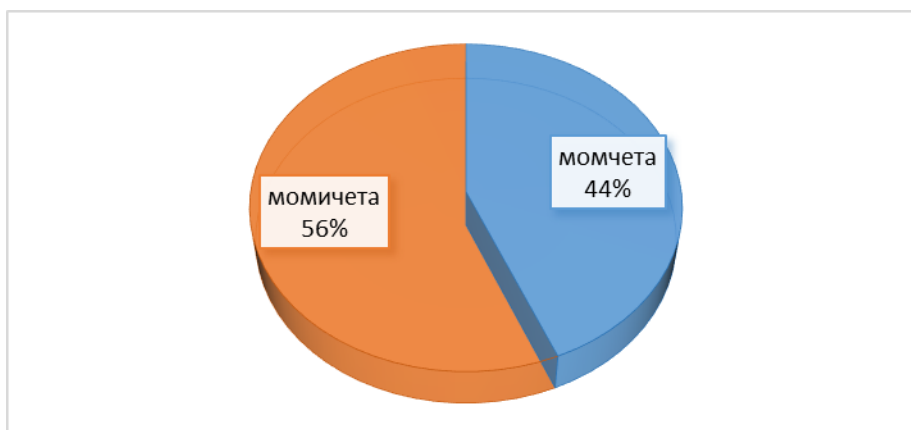
Фигура 1.Разпределение на изследваните лица по пол

Всички изследвани лица са обучаващи се в градовете Верица и Яница в Гърция. Изследването е проведено през учебната 2020-2021 година. Използваният психологичен въпросник е адаптирани за гръцка популация. Той е създаден от Schutte Self-Report (SSEIT) и измерва общата емоционалната интелигентност. В този си вид се предлага и на юноши и включва четири подскали: възприемане на емоции, използване на емоции, управление на емоции и управление емоциите на другите хора. Въпросникът SSEIT е структуриран въз основа на модела за EI от Salovey и Mayer (1990).

Резултати от изследването

Резултатите за емоционалната интелигентност (Таблица 1) показват плавност в разпределението на структурните елементи сред изследваните лица. За цялата извадка изследвани лица разпознаването и управлението на собствените и чуждите емоции не с много висока изразеност, няма и голяма разлика между минималните и максимални стойности.

Таблица 1. Резултати за стойностите на емоционалната интелигентност (за цялата извадка)

Променлива		Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Error	Std. Deviation
Емоционална интелигентност (общ резултат)	42	102,00	158,00	124 , 61	1,012	12, 068
Възприемане на емоциите	42	30,00	49,00	38,41	, 366	4,369
Управление на собствена емоция	142	20,00	43,00	33,33	, 429	5,113
Управление на чуждите емоции	142	20,00	39,00	30,86	, 300	3,583
Използване на емоцията	142	16,00	30,00	21,83	, 255	3,049

Разпределението на изследваните лица в зависимост от степента на изразеност на емоционалната интелигентност включва най-голямо присъствие на резултати в обхвата на средното ниво. Прави впечатление, че изследваните лица умеят повече да възприемат емоциите, по-малко да ги управляват и най-слабо да ги използват.

Таблица 2. Равнища на изразеност на емоционалната интелигентност (за цялата извадка)

Равнище	N	%
Високо ниво	24	16.9
Средно ниво	106	74.6
Ниско ниво	12	8.5

Два пъти повече са изследваните лица с високо ниво на емоционална интелигентност в сравнение с тези с ниска такава. Разпределението на резултатите по пол не дава превес на момичетата или момчетата. (Таблица 3)

Таблица 3. Резултати за емоционалната интелигентност по пол

пол	Ниво на емоционална интелигентност					
	Ниско		Нормално		Високо	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Момчета	8	12, 9	46	74, 2	8	12, 9
Момичета	4	5,0	60	75,0	16	20,0
Pearson Chi-Square, p, Cramer's *V*	$\chi^2_{\,|2|} = 3.626$, $p = .163$, Cramer's $V = .160$					

И при момчетата и при момичетата, изследвани лица, преобладават резултатите от средния регистър. Момичетата демонстрират, математически, по-изразено присъствие на високо ниво на емоционална интелигентност. Тази особеност не повлиява крайната статистическа оценка, обозначаваща отсъствие на статистически значима разлика в резултатите по пол. След приложена статистическа процедура хи-квадрат, за две независими групи изследвани лица, коефициентът на разлика е висок ($\chi^2_{\,|2|} = 3.626$, $p > 0.05$) Независимо от това честотата на регистъра в двете крайности ниска-висока емоционална интелигентност е в полза на половата диференциация. От резултатите за V на Cramer (0:1) липсата на връзка е на ниво 0.16.

Таблица 4. Резултати от Т –тест за емоционалната интелигентност по пол

		Момчета			Момичета			$t_{(140)}$; p
		N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	
Емоционална интелигентност		62	121 , 66	11,47	80	126,90	12,08	t = -2,618; p = .010
Възприемане на емоциите		62	37,80	4,16	80	38,88	4,49	t = -1,468; p = .144
Управление на собствена емоция		62	31,79	5,22	80	34,52	4,72	t = -3,267; p = .001
Управление на чуждите емоции		62	30,75	3,66	80	30,95	3,53	t = -. 316 ; p =. 753
Използване на емоцията		62	21,48	2,82	80	22,11	3,20	t =-1. 220 ; p =. 224

Статистическата значимост на разликите е най-силно изразена при общите стойности на емоционалната интелигентност. Тя се отнася както за момчетата, така и за момичетата (t = -2,618; p > 0.05). Момичетата по-слабо контролират своите емоции с сравнение с момчетата (t = -3,267; p = .001), като разликата е със статистическа значимост (p<0.05). Не се установява наличие на разлики по пол относно възприемането на емоциите (t = -1,468; p > 0.05), възможността за тяхното използване (t = -1. 220 ; p >0.05), както и управлението на чуждите емоции (t = -. 316 ; p >0.05). Това може да се определи като възрастова особеност. Процесът на развитие на емоционалната интелигентност свързан с опознаване и управление на собствените емоции и след това тези на другите хора.

Дискусия

Както за живота на зрелия човек, така и за подрастващия и юношата ефектите от познаването на собствените емоции и тези на другите хора е от много голямо значение. Последните години все по-настойчиво се поставя въпроса за влиянието на емоционалната интелигентност върху процеса на социално развитие на личността, върху личностното и социалното и благосъстояние. Разпознаването на човешките емоции и реакциите, на тях, все още приоритетно се свързва с проблемните зони в здравето на човека и особено на детето. Присъствието на емоционалната активност и ефективност в обучението, труда, социалната активност са обект на засилен научен интерес. Проведеното изследване доказва, че социалната интелигентност, в периода на юношеството, не се свързва с половите характеристики на изследваните лица от двете гръцки училища. Тя е възрастов атрибут и затова е желателно да се изследва съвместно с други психични феномени като самоуважението или самооценката. Не без значение е и влиянието на семейната среда и отношението на учителите и техните компетенции за нейното формиране.

Обобщение

Така проведеното изследване дава основание да се направи обобщението, че емоционалната интелигентност, като личностен атрибут в периода на юношеството, при изследваните лица от Гърция, не се отличава с висока степен на изразеност. Както при момичетата, така и при момчетата тя е в средния регистър. Момичетата по-слабо успяват да контролират емоциите си, докато момчетата са по-успешни в това. Опознавайки себе си и околните, юношите в периода 16-18 години, развиват умението си да оперират с емоциите си по пътя на самоконтрола над собствения емоционален свят и по-слабо чрез използване на емоциите си и контрол над емоциите на околните.

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Research article

ИЗСЛЕДВАНЕ НА ВРЪЗКАТА МЕЖДУ СПОСОБНОСТТА ЗА ЕМОЦИОНАЛНА ЛИЦЕВА ПЕРЦЕПЦИЯ И АГРЕСИЯТА В НАЧАЛНА УЧИЛИЩНА ВЪЗРАСТ

EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FACIAL EMOTION RECOGNITION ABILITY AND AGGRESSION IN PRIMARY SCHOOL AGE

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Резюме

Представят се данните от изследване, целящо верифицирането на хипотезата, че в начална училищна възраст, по-добре развитите способности за емоционална лицева перцепция са свързани с по-ниски нива на агресия. Изследвани са 485 типично развиващи се деца, на възраст 7г. -11г. и 5м. (средна възраст М = 9.20+1.22; 233 момчета и 252 момичета). За оценка на нивото на агресия е използвана скала „Агресия" от въпросника за агресия и депресия, адаптиран за българската популация от Драголова (2006). За оценка на способността за емоционална лицева перцепция са използвани 6 фотографии на лица, експресиращи шестте базисни емоции (страх, тъга, щастие, изненада, гняв, отвращение), включени във FACES база данни (Ebner, Riediger & Lindenberger, 2010) с валидиран набор от лицеви експресии на емоции. Получените резултати показват връзка между способността за разпознаване на емоциите страх и изненада и нивото на агресия в този възрастов период.

Ключови думи: емоционална лицева перцепция, агресия, начална училищна възраст

Abstract

The data from a study aimed at verifying the hypothesis that in primary school age, better developed abilities for emotional facial perception are associated with lower levels of aggression, are presented. 485 typically developing children are tested, aged 7-11 years and 5 months (mean age M = 9.20 + 1.22; 233 boys and 252 girls). For the assessment of the level of aggression, the "Aggression" scale is used in the Aggression and Depression questionnaire adapted to the Bulgarian population by Dragolova (2006). For an emotional facial perception ability assessment, 6 photographs of individuals expressing the six underlying emotions (fear, sadness, happiness, surprise, anger, disgust) included in the FACES database (Ebner, Riediger & Lindenberger, 2010) are used with validated set of facial expressions of emotion. The results obtained shows a link between the ability to identify the emotions fear and surprise and the level of aggression in that age period.

Keywords: emotional facial perception, aggression, primary school age.

Тук ще бъдат разгледани психичните конструкти агресия и емоционална лицева перцепция, като феномени, също така ще се представят конкретни модели за тяхното обяснение.

Агресията обикновено се разглежда като необходимо адаптивно средство или авариен механизъм, без който човечеството никога не би могло да оцелее. В тази много широка формулировка всяко активно поведение на човек спрямо хора и предмети, спрямо природата като цяло, би могло да се нарече агресия[1]. Резултатът от него може да бъде желан продукт за личността и обществото и нежелан такъв, респективно, разрушаващ човека или постигнатото (Бончева, 2015; Dennen, 1980).

По-специфичен за развитието на агресивното поведение в детството е въпросът "природа срещу подхранване", който „претегля“ и сравнява приноса на генетичните/биологичните фактори спрямо факторите на средата за развитието на агресивно поведение. За определяне на това как агресията ще бъде развита у детето, а в последствие и у възрастния, не само биологичните фактори са значими, тъй като социалната среда е мощен регулатор на невробиологичните процеси и поведението (Imtiaz, Yasin & Yaseen, 2010).

Настоящата разработка предполага фокус върху агресията при децата в периода на начална училищна възраст (НУВ). Предвид изследваната целева група, за релевантна на целите на проведеното изследване се счита Теорията за обработка на социална информация (ОСИ), която описва набор от когнитивно-емоционални механизми и разглежда как менталните операции влияят върху поведенческите реакции в социални ситуации (Crick & Dodge, 1994). Моделът за ОСИ предполага, че за да се реагира по подходящ начин на социални ситуации, социалната информация трябва да се обработва по определена подредена схема. Начинът, по който децата интерпретират определено събитие, повлиява върху това как ще реагират в конкретна ситуация. За целта авторите предлагат няколко стъпки в модела на ОСИ:

- кодиране – това е процес на приемане на информация от околната среда, която трябва да бъде кодирана точно;
- развитие на атрибуция - извършването на атрибуции включва вземане на решение какво мотивира поведението на другите хора; въз основа на информацията, която децата кодират от определена ситуация, те биха могли да решат, че другите са действали с доброкачествено, враждебно или с двусмислено намерение.
- избор на цел - включва избор на най-желания резултат в дадена ситуация.
- генериране на реакции - за да се постигне тази цел трябва да се създадат алтернативи за реакция. Генерирането на отговори е процесът на обмисляне за поведенческите реакции в дадена ситуация.
- оценка на реакцията – случва се, когато децата преценят дали реакцията е подходяща за използване в конкретна ситуация и дали тази реакция ще бъде свързана с желаните резултати.
- прилагане – приемането и прилагането на реакцията е начинът, по който детето всъщност се държи.
- Множество проучвания (Dodge, 1980, 1993; Dodge, Lochman, Harnish, Bates, & Pettit, 1997; Lochman & Dodge, 1998) относно протичането на процеса на ОСИ при деца, които са били затруднявани или провокирани от свои връстници, предимно в смисъла на приписване на намерение в поведението на други деца (известно също като „враждебни атрибутивни пристрастия“), показват, че агресивното поведение при деца е свързано със следните специфични дефицити във всяка от тези шест стъпки:
- Проблеми с кодирането, включващи или свръхмнителност към враждебни сигнали, или пренебрегване на приемането на съответните невраждебни сигнали (Dodge, Bates, & Pettit, 1990).
- Извършване на враждебни (а не доброкачествени) атрибуции (Dodge, Price, Bachorowski, & Newman, 1990).
- Избор на инструментални (например спечелване на игра), а не на междуличностни (например поддържане на приятелство) цели (Slaby & Guerra, 1988).
- Генериране на по-малко поведенчески реакции като цяло, и по-висок дял на агресивни отговори на различни проблеми (Asarnow & Callan, 1985).
- Положителна оценка на вероятните междуличностни и инструментални резултати от агресията (Crick & Ladd, 1990).
- Умение за прилагане на агресивни реакции (Dodge, McClaskey, & Feldman, 1985).

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[1] Агресията най-общо се определя като акт на агресивно поведение (Concise Oxford English Dictionary, 2002). В рамките на този документ агресия и агресивно поведение ще бъдат използвани като взаимозаменяеми термини.

Метаанализи показват, че атрибутирането на намерение и агресивното поведение са ясно свързани, но резултатите от емпиричните проучвания по тази тема варират значително (Orobio de Castro, Veerman, Koops, Bosch, & Monshouwer, 2002). Лонгитюдинални проучвания показват, че връзките между ранните рискови фактори и по-късно агресивното поведение са опосредствани от моделите на ОСИ (Pettit, Dodge & Brown, 1988). Например, суровото физическо наказание в ранна възраст прогнозира отклонения в ОСИ, което от своя страна прогнозира проблеми с поведението по-късно в живота на тези деца (Weiss, Dodge, Bates, & Pettit, 1992). На по-широко концептуално ниво, ранните етапи на ОСИ включват познания за приноса (т.е. вземане на съответните сигнали от социални стимули, включително лицеви експресии на емоции и определяне на намеренията на другите в тези ситуации), докато по-късните стъпки включват познания за резултатите (т.е. желаните резултати, възможни реакции и интерпретации на поведенчески реакции в социални ситуации). Според предложения модел, начинът по който индивидът преминава през описаните стъпки, се определя от ситуацията на стимулите, възможностите за обработка на информацията на лицето и така наречената „база данни“. „Базата данни“ съхранява по-ранния опит под формата на асоциации, спомени и схеми, които се използват във всяка стъпка на обработка на информация. Развитието в ОСИ се появява чрез увеличаване на скоростта и ефективността в обработката на информация, чрез опит, който променя „базата данни“ (Dodge, 1993). На база на тези заключения авторите на Теорията за ОСИ предполагат, че "…менталната репрезентация на минали събития се съхранява в дългосрочната памет. По-късно тази памет е интегрирана с други спомени в обща психична структура, която ръководи обработката на бъдещите социални сигнали“ (Crick & Dodge, 1994:78).

Емоционалната лицева перцепция е слабо проучен феномен сред българските деца, който в настоящото изследване се разглежда като способността на децата правилно да разпознават изображения на човешки лица, изразяващи шестте базисни емоции - щастие, страх, изненада, гняв, отвращение и тъга. Според концептуалната рамка на Теорията за базисните емоции на Екман (Ekman, 1992a, 1992b, 1999), всяка от тези емоции - щастие, страх, изненада, гняв, отвращение и тъга, има свое универсално изражение на лицето, което се изразява и разпознава междукултурно още през ранното детство.

За да идентифицират правилно дадена емоция, децата трябва да използват информацията от динамичните промени от движенията на мускулите (при лицева експресия), за да генерират хипотези относно експресираната емоция, да я категоризират, и след това да прогнозират поведението на този, който я изразява (Pollak & Kistler, 2002; Susskind et al., 2007; Teunisse & de Gelder, 2001; Young et al., 1997). Зрителното разпознаване на емоцията изисква сравняването на актуално възприетите черти на емоционалната експресия със съхраняваните в паметта абстрактни образи на емоционални човешки лица (въз основа на подробни конфигурационни свойства на повърхностната мускулатура на лицето, напр., стисната челюст или повдигнатите вежди при лицева експресия на гняв). Следователно, предположенията, които децата правят за емоционалните състояния на другите ще се ръководят от техните очаквания, чувствителността на възприятието им, но най-вече от достъпа до абстрактните енграми на емоционалните знания, които са натрупали в хода на живота си (Pollak & Sinha, 2002).

Способността за разпознаване и назоваване на емоции допринасят за точността в кодирането и интерпретацията на социалните сигнали (Lemerise & Arsenio, 2000), което се вписва в концептуалната рамка на Теорията за обработка на социална информация ОСИ(Crick & Dodge, 1994). Съгласно нея, емоционалните спомени предоставят информация за минали преживявания, връзки между емоции и познания, позволяващи активиране на емоциите, свързани с конкретната ситуация. Езикът служи като основно средство за формирането на тези междусистемни връзки, предоставяйки на децата възможност за назоваване и обсъждане на емоциите. Тези емоционално-познавателни връзки стават част от работната база данни на детето, автоматично достъпна всеки път, когато детето кодира и интерпретира социални сигнали (Izard, 2002; Lemerise & Arsenio, 2000). Знанията за емоциите улесняват адаптивното социално поведение чрез увеличаване на вероятността точно възприетите социални сигнали да активират емоциите, подходящи за текущото поведение (Izard, 1991, 1993; Izard, Schultz, et al., 2000). Към края на периода на НУВ повечето деца имат функционален речник на емоциите и са способни да идентифицират базисните емоции, както в себе си, така и у другите въз основа на ситуационни, поведенчески и лицеви знаци (Fabes, Eisenberg, Nyman, & Michealieu, 1991; Waern, 1977). Доказано е, че за да разпознаят емоционалното състояние на другия, по-

малките деца разчитат на лицевата експресия в по-голяма степен, отколкото на ситуационните сигнали (Hoffner & Badzinski, 1989). Според други проучвания обаче (Balconi & Carrera, 2007; Camras & Allison, 1985; Widen & Russell, 2002; Widen & Russell, 2010) ситуационната (причина и следствие) информация е по-полезна за емоционалната дискриминация/атрибуция, отколкото лицевата експресия на емоции на деца във възрастовия диапазон от 4 до10 години.

Докато децата растат и прекарват повече време в училище с други деца, използването на знания за емоциите, реализирано чрез подходящо социално поведение, може да става все по-важно за връзките с връстниците им (Mostow, Izard, Fine & Trentacosta, 2002). Поради значителната роля на лицевата информация за подходящата модификация на социалното поведение, способността за декодиране на лицева експресия се счита за важен компонент на социалното взаимодействие. В този смисъл идентифицирането на емоциите е от решаващо значение за последващото социално взаимодействие и функциониране (Philippot & Feldman, 1990; Vicari et al., 2000). Предполага се, че нарушената способност на децата за правилно разпознаване на емоционални сигнали може да е свързана с разрушително и неотзивчиво поведение и агресивност спрямо връстниците (Denham et al. 2002; Hughes, Dunn & White 1998; Martin, Boekamp, McConville & Wheeler 2010) и поведенчески разстройства (Bowen et al. 2014; Fairchild et al., 2010). Насърчаването на уменията за разпознаване на емоции по лицеви експресии също насърчава развитието на емпатията и разбирането на чуждите чувства, което на свой ред улеснява и подпомага адаптивното социално функциониране.

Изучаването на проблема, отнасящ се до затрудненията на децата в общуването и подпомагането им да се развият като зрели възрастни, е широко дискутиран през последните години. Развитието на когнитивните умения, като решаване на проблеми и академичните постижения, и афективните умения, като характеристики в поведението, емоционална регулация по време на социално въздействие – всички тези умения благоприятстват здравето и личностният растеж, съответно бъдещото благополучие на децата като възрастни. Считаме, че проучването на връзката между способността за емоционална лицева перцепция и агресията в периода на НУВ отчасти ще допринесе за изясняването на проблема свързан с неефективното взаимодействие между децата и повишените агресивни отговори.

Изследването е базирано на Теорията за обработка на социалната информация (Crick & Dodge, 1994) от една страна и Теорията за базисните емоции (Ekman, 1992a, 1992b, 1999) от друга. Неговата основна цел е да се проучи връзката между способността за емоционална лицева перцепция и агресията, конкретно в периода на начална училищна възраст, с допускането, че по-добре развитата способност за емоционална лицева перцепция е свързана с по-ниски нива на агресия.

Метод

Субекти

В изследването взеха участие общо 485 типично развиващи се деца, на възраст от 7г. до 11г. и 5м. (средна възраст $M = 9.20 \pm 1.22$, 252 момичета и 233 момчета), разпределени в четири възрастови групи: група I клас ($N = 85$), група II клас ($N = 120$), група III клас ($N = 118$) и група IV клас ($N = 162$).

Участието на всички е доброволно и с информираното съгласие на родителите и училищните власти.

Инструментариум

Скала „Агресия" от въпросника за агресия и депресия

Въпросникът за агресия и депресия е адаптиран за българската популация от Драголова (2006) и е предназначен за измерване на агресията и депресията при деца в начална училищна възраст. Състои от 24 твърдения, като в настоящото изследване е използвана само скала „Агресия", включваща 11 твърдения. Изчисленият коефициент за вътрешна съгласуваност α на Кронбах за изследваната извадка с деца е 0.572 за цялата скала и 0.647 за скала „Агресия". Скалата на отговорите е дихотомна – „да" (1) и „не" (0).

Тест за измерване на емоционалната лицева перцепция

В настоящето проучване са използвани фотографии от FACES база данни, създадена и валидизирана в Max Planck Institute for Human в Берлин, Германия (Ebner, Riediger & Lindenberger, 2010), предназначена за изследване на лицеви експресии на емоции. Базата данни съдържа валидиран набор от лицеви експресии на емоции. Тестът съдържа 6 лицеви експресии на шестте базисни емоции – щастие, страх, изненада, гняв, отвращение и тъга, като от изпитвания се изисква да избере лицевата експресия съответстваща на изписаната дума, обозначаваща конкретна емоция. Вярното разпознаване се оценява с 1 точка, а грешното – с 0 точки.

Резултати

В таблица 1 са представени резултатите от проведения Хи-квадрат анализ, сравняващ процентното представяне в групите на участниците разпознали и съответно неразпознали емоциите с ниско, средно и високо ниво на агресия. Статистически значими различия се установиха само по отношение на разпознаването на емоциите *страх* ($\chi^2_{|2|} = 6.894$; $p = 0.032$; Cramér's $V = 0.120$) и *изненада* ($\chi^2_{|2|} = 6.185$; $p = 0.045$; Cramér's $V = 0.114$).

Таблица 1. Резултати от анализа на връзката между способността за емоционална лицева перцепция и нивата на агресия

Емоция		Агресия нива						Pearson Chi-Square; Df; (P)/ Cramér's V
		Ниско		Средно		Високо		
		брой	%	брой	%	Брой	%	
Страх	Група разпознали	260	74.9	80	23.1	7	2.0	$\chi^2_{|2|} = $ **6.894**; $p = $ **0.032**; **Cramér's $V = 0.120$**
	Група неразпознали	102	77.3	22	16.7	8	6.1	
Изненада	Група разпознали емоцията	304	76.2	86	21.6	9	2.3	$\chi^2_{|2|} = $ **6.185**; $p = $ **0.045**; **Cramér's $V = 0.114$**
	Група неразпознали емоцията	57	72.2	16	20.3	6	7.6	
Щастие	Група разпознали емоцията	346	76.7	92	20.4	13	2.9	$\chi^2_{|2|} = 4.550$; $p > 0.05$; Cramér's $V = 0.097$
	Група неразпознали емоцията	18	60.0	10	33.3	2	6.7	
Гняв	Група разпознали емоцията	351	76.5	95	20.7	13	2.8	$\chi^2_{|2|} = 5.378$; $p > 0.05$; Cramér's $V = 0.106$
	Група неразпознали емоцията	12	57.1	7	33.3	2	9.5	
Отвращение	Група разпознали емоцията	307	76.6	82	20.4	12	3.0	$\chi^2_{|2|} = 0.939$; $p > 0.05$; Cramér's $V = 0.044$
	Група неразпознали емоцията	55	71.4	19	24.7	3	3.9	
Тъга	Група разпознали емоцията	333	76.2	91	20.8	13	3.0	$\chi^2_{|2|} = 0.668$; $p > 0.05$; Cramér's $V = 0.037$
	Група неразпознали емоцията	30	71.4	10	23.8	2	4.8	

От таблицата е видно, че в групите на неразпозналите и двете емоции, процентът на децата с високо ниво на агресия е три пъти по-висок, отколкото в групите на разпозналите тези емоции.

Корелационният коефициент на Пиърсън (таблица 2), информиращ за линейната връзка между разпознаването на всяка от емоциите и нивата на агресия поотделно, установи слаба, но статистически значима отрицателна линейна зависимост ($p < 0.05$) между разпознаването на емоциите *щастие* ($r = -0.097$; $p < 0.05$) и *гняв* ($r = -0.104$; $p < 0.05$) и нивата на агресия.

Таблица 2. Резултати от корелационен анализ между разпознаването на емоциите и нивата на агресия

Разпознаване на емоции	Агресия нива
Щастие	- 0.097*
Страх	- 0.015
Изненада	- 0.068
Гняв	- 0.104*
Отвращение	- 0.043
Тъга	- 0.036

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) *p < 0.05
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) ** p < 0.01

Обобщено представени резултатите, показват значима връзка между емоционалната лицева перцепция и нивата на агресия, сочеща че по-добре развитата способност на децата за перцепция на лицеви експресии на страх, изненада, щастие и гняв е свързана с по-ниски нива на агресия.

Дискусия и заключение

Получените в настоящото изследване резултати свидетелстват за съществуването на връзка между емоционалната лицева перцепция и нивата на агресия, което подкрепя първоначално издигнатата хипотеза. Установи се, че разпознаването на емоциите *страх* и *изненада* влияят върху нивата на агресия и разпознаването на *гняв* и *щастие* е отрицателно свързано с нивата на агресия. Емоционалната лицева перцепция включва процеси на идентификация (Ekman, 1992a, 1992b, 1999), рефлексия (Iacoboni et al., 1999; Iacoboni, 2008; Rizzolatti & Craighero, 2004), обработка на информация (Pollak & Sinha, 2002), и натрупан до момента емоционален опит (Mostow, Izard, Fine & Trentacosta, 2002). Получените резултати, демонстриращи че неправилното разпознаване на емоциите *страх* и *изненада* се свързва с високо ниво на агресия, както и установената отрицателна връзка между разпознаването на *гнева* и *щастието* и нивата на агресия позволяват допускането, че по-добре развитата способност на децата за разпознаване на тези емоции е свързана с по-ниски нива на агресия. Тази перцепция, позволяваща агресивност през емоционалния опит, рефлексията и идентификациите на децата, показва, че колкото по-слабо развита е способността за разпознаване на емоциите, толкова по-високи са нивата на агресия. Невъзможността за точно възприемане, кодиране и интерпретация на социални сигнали като лицева експресия лишава децата от възможност да активират подходящите за текущата ситуация емоции, съхранени в работната им „база данни", което от своя страна предполага повишено агресивно поведение (Crick & Dodge, 1994; Izard, 1991, 1993; Izard, Schultz, et al., 2000), особено, когато се има предвид, че децата в НУВ се уповават на лицевата експресия повече, отколкото на ситуационните сигнали (Hoffner & Badzinski, 1989).

Изцяло съгласуващи се с данните от предходни проучвания настоящите резултати свидетелстват, че намалената способност на децата правилно да идентифицират емоциите е свързана с разрушително и неотзичиво поведение и агресивност спрямо връстниците (Denham et al. 2002; Hughes, Dunn & White 1998; Martin, Boekamp, McConville & Wheeler, 2010) и с поведенчески разстройства (Bowen et al. 2014; Fairchild et al., 2010). Резултатите са консистентни с теорията за обработка на социалната информация (Crick & Dodge, 1994), според която точното кодиране и интерпретиране на неестествени и враждебни сигнали, генерирането на неагресивни отговори и компетентното оценяване и прилагане на отговори, подпомагат социалното функциониране на децата в периода на началната училищна възраст, което добре ги обяснява и хвърля допълнителна светлина.

Считаме, че резултатите могат да намерят приложение в разработването на обучителни програми, целящи повишаване на ефективността на разпознаване на емоции по лицеви експресии, респективно намаляване на агресията на ученици в начален курс. По този начин, работейки с децата в начална училищна възраст на практика, ще се приближим до идеята за благополучно развити индивиди, участващи по всякакъв обществено полезен начин в социума.

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