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ЗАЩИТЕНИТЕ ПОЗИЦИИ В ПУБЛИКАЦИИТЕ СИ ОСТАВАТ ОТГОВОРНОСТ НА
АВТОРИТЕ.

THE VIEWS EXPRESSED IN THE PAPERS ARE THEIR AUTHORS` RESPONSIBILITY

У В О Д

Уважаеми Колеги,

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

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

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

Гл. редактор: Доц. д.н.Стоил Мавродиев

INTRODUCTION

Dear Colleagues,

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

The psychological theory and psychological researches are presented correctly. Both the tematical and the conceptual diversity 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, D.Sc.

TABLE OF CONTENT VOL 13, ISSUE 1, 2022

THEORETICAL ARTICLES

THE ROLE AND INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON ADOLESCENTS' LEARNING BEHAVIOR - Fotini Iliadou pp. 1-15

ANXIETY IN ADOLESCENTS' LIVES, COPING STRATEGIES AND PARENTAL INFLUENCE - Fotini Iliadou pp. 16-36

ARE E-LEARNING TEACHING METHODS ACTUALLY TOTALLY BENEFICIAL? - Vasiliki Kordatou pp. 37-43

SOCIAL ANXIETY AND INTERNET IN ADOLESCENCE: THE ROLE OF SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS FOR THE ADOLESCENT - Antrea Chrysanthou pp. 44-63

THE EFFECT OF MUSIC AS A THERAPEUTIC TOOL ON THE PSYCHOLOGY OF PATIENTS IN THE FIELD OF HEALTH - Dimitra Dimopoulou pp. 64-69

THE NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES OF THE PANDEMIC AND THE STRESS CREATED ON TEACHERS - Petroula Bentsou pp.70-80

WHAT ABOUT TEACHER'S E-READINESS? - Maria Botsoglou pp. 81-86

SELF-ESTEEM IN ADOLESCENTS: FACTORS AFFECTING SELF-ESTEEM AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-ESTEEM AND BODY IMAGE - Antrea Chrysanthou pp. 87-108

HIKIKOMORI SYNDROME: UNDERSTANDING THE JAPANESE SOCIAL WITHDRAWAL PSYCHOLOGICAL PHENOMENON Pop & Zaimova-Tsaneva pp. 109-120

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HEALTH-RELATED QUALITY OF LIFE (HRQoL) AND ADOLESCENTS' EMOTIONS Fotini Iliadou pp. 121-136

PSYCHOPATHOLOGY OF ADDICTIVE BEHAVIOR - THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION Kiril Zarlevski pp.137-166

RESEARCH ARTICLES

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDENTITY, SELF-ESTEEM AND SOCIAL ANXIETY:
GREEK AND CYPRIOT ADOLESCENT STUDENTS - Antrea Chrysanthou pp. 167-
186

AN INVESTIGATION OF JOB SATISFACTION IN GREEK PRIMARY SCHOOL
TEACHERS IN RELATION TO DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS Apostolou &
Mancheva pp.187-200

AN INVESTIGATION OF DEMOGRAPHIC FACTOR EFFECTS ON BURNOUT
SYNDROME IN PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN GREECE Apostolou & Nikolova
pp. 201-213

STUDY OF SELF-ASSESSMENT AND THE NEEDS FOR ACHIEVEMENT, FOR SAFETY,
AND FOR SEX IN MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS Tsvetelina Hadzhieva pp. 214-
224

TABLE OF CONTENT VOL 13, ISSUE 2, 2022

THEORETICAL ARTICLES

PSYCHODYNAMIC INTERPRETATION OF ELECTORAL BEHAVIOR Yordanova &
Stanoeva pp. 225-233

RESILIENCE AND STRUCTURALLY SIMILAR PHENOMENA Boryana Nikolova-Hristakova
pp. 234-241

PSYCHICS CORRELATES OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION Boryana Nikolova-
Hristakova pp. 242-246

ASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR AND FORMATION IN CHILDHOOD AGE Boryana Nikolova-
Hristakova pp. 247-251

PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSONALITY COMPONENTS OF THE TOLERANCE-
INTOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY DIMENSION Kiril Velkov pp. 252-271

DIFFERENTIAL PSYCHOPHYSIOLOGY AND PSYCHOPATHOLOGY OF WORK
ACTIVITY AND PSYCHOTRAUMA IN IT - GENERAL THEORETICAL
POSITIONS, PRACTICAL-APPLIED ASPECTS AND SOCIO-MEDICAL
SIGNIFICANCE Kiril Zarlevski pp. 272-286

INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION IN THE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES: GREECE, FRANCE, GERMANY AND GREAT BRITAIN. THE MODEL OF IMMIGRANT INTEGRATION DURING THE PADEMIC PERIOD Petroula Bentsou pp. 287-294

DEVELOPMENT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE Tsvetelina Hadzhieva pp. 295-299

TERRORISM AND GEOPOLITICS. RELATIONS IN THE ANALYSIS. PSYCHOLOGY AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH ON TERRORISM. ASPECTS AND TRANSCENDENCE OF TERRORIST PERSONALITIES Roumian Roussev pp. 300-307

SOME PECULIARITIES OF BEHAVIOUR OF ADOPTED CHILD AND PARENTS IN THE INITIAL STAGE OF ADAPTATION IN THE FAMILY Velichka Dosheva – Hristova pp. 308-313

THE STAFF OF SPECIAL EDUCATION SCHOOL UNITS AND TRAINING: THE RELATIONSHIP OF BURNOUT WITH THE PHYSICAL CONDITION OF THE INDIVIDUAL Maria-Sara Koumoutsou pp.314-325

PROFESSIONAL BURNOUT AND MENTAL RESILIENCE AMONG TEACHERS IN THE REPUBLIC OF GREECE Theodora Roidou pp. 326-334

WORK SATISFACTION OF TEACHERS FROM THE REPUBLIC OF GREECE Evaggelia Niaoru pp. 335-343

EFFECTS OF PARENTING STYLES ON ADOLESCENT OUTCOMES: SOME RECENT RESEARCH FINDINGS Sofia Mussa pp.344-348

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTS PERSONALITY AND PARENTING STYLES: A LITERATURE REVIEW Sofia Mussa pp.349-351

RESEARCH ARTICLES

AGGRESSION AND SELF-ESTEEM IN ADOLESCENTS Simona Nikolova pp.352-362

INFLUENCE OF THE ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND RESILIENCE ON THE ASSERTIVENESS DURING THE PERIOD OF YOUTH (18 – 28 YEARS) Nikolova-Hristakova & Mavrodiev pp. 363-372



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 et al., 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).

Key words: 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 (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

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

(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.

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,

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

while suppressing the violence and contribute to reducing adolescent's depression and social isolation (Gottman & Declaire, 2009; Goleman, 2011; Pappa, 2013; Steiner & Perry, 1997; Steiner, 2006).

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.

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

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

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.

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 investigated 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

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

dimensions of emotional intelligence, with the girls being more capable in recognition of the emotions (Mayer et al., 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 schools 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 et al., 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 et al., 2003).

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Theoretical article

ANXIETY IN ADOLESCENTS' LIVES, COPING STRATEGIES AND PARENTAL INFLUENCE

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Abstract

The term 'coping' which means someone's own conscious effort, to minimize or tolerate anxiety, is heard very often during the recent years, is widely used by the most and has been established in the lives of modern people, of families, in school, while its use concerns all ages. The anxiety situations experienced by the modern man and the ways for coping them, began to be the subject of intense and continuous study for many decades and by many scientific disciplines, including: psychology, social sciences, psychiatry, pedagogy and counseling. The scientific investigation of the coping strategies, which are often useful for the adolescents, mainly concerns the detection of many and varied factors that may or may not affect, separately or in relation, these strategies. Furthermore, the scientific interest in the study of coping, regarding the 'parent-adolescent' system, is considered particularly important, as well as the perceptions, behaviors and reactions of parents, for the 'coping' of their children.

Key words: Anxiety, adolescent, coping, anxiety strategies, parental influence.

Since the end of the 20th century, many scientists have turned their interest and studies to the various anxiety situations faced by the modern adolescent, but also to the way of dealing with them, which is referred to in the international literature as 'coping'. From the beginning of those researches, it seemed that children and adolescents face anxiety situations different from those of adults, which often get out of adolescents' control. In addition, adolescents function cognitively differently from the adults and the developmental changes to which they are subject, affect, and consequently, to the ways with which they are coping the situations in which they are involved. Thus, began to be developed theories of coping for the adolescents, which are different from the pre-existing for adults, with the aim of developing support and mental empowerment programs for adolescents under anxiety conditions. Through all these theories and studies, many psychotherapeutic and educational programs have emerged

which aim to help the adolescents to develop appropriate coping skills, by following those appropriate coping strategies that they find useful.

The stage of continuous development, in which adolescents are, and the consequent cognitive and emotional immaturity, make them particularly vulnerable in terms of mental and physical health, in their dealings with the various environmental stimuli which create anxiety to them, and for this, the parents are highlighted as natural persons of the utmost importance, in the 'meeting' of adolescents with these stimuli. Parents, as the most important environmental factor, determine the content of many things and are generally a role model for their children. We could say, with certainty, that the perceptions of parents about how their children behave when they are involved in anxiety situations are of particular scientific interest, as well as which is children handling, which most often requires a special treatment. It is also very important, whether and to what extent the parents' perceptions for their children 'coping', coincide with the perceptions of the own children.

The Concept 'Anxiety' and the Literature Review for Adolescent Anxiety

Freud considered anxiety to be an unpleasant emotional state characterized by all those phenomena that were covered by the word 'nervousness' and included experiential, physical, and behavioral manifestations. This anxiety situation served to warn the individual that some kind of adjustment was needed (Spielberger, 1982). Freud also distinguished the anxiety in (Han, 2009):

- a) Objective: It involves a complex internal reaction to an expected damage, which arises from an external hazard, and its intensity is proportional to the magnitude of the hazard.
- b) Neurotic: In this case, the source of danger is internal, there are feelings of tension, and the person is not consciously aware the anxiety's stimulus.

Anxiety is defined as an unpleasant emotional state characterized by subjective feelings of tension, anxiety, fear and by the activation or stimulation of the autonomic nervous system (Han, 2009). According to Manos (1997), anxiety is defined as that unpleasant emotional state, which includes feelings of tendency, fear or even terror, as a response to a danger whose source is largely unknown or unrecognizable. But in terms of anxiety in general, it is a reaction to a perceived risk, in which are involving biological, behavioral and cognitive functions (Smith et al., 2014). Another distinction of anxiety is that which divides it into (Spielberger, 1982):

- a) Occasional: Refers to the anxiety which a person may experience at any time.

ANXIETY IN ADOLESCENTS' LIVES, COPING STRATEGIES AND PARENTAL INFLUENCE

b) Personality trait: Refers to the predisposition or readiness of the person to experience anxiety in the course of his/her life.

Anxiety is often confused with stress and fear, and these may be considered as similar concepts, when in fact they have nothing to do with each other. Fear is defined as an emotion very closely related to stress, which refers to a realistic rather than indeterminate situation such as anxiety, thing that creates an impression of threat and concern in the face of a real danger (Paleologou, 2001). Thus anxiety must be distinguished from the fear, in which the individual perceives the danger, that is, he recognizes the source of his fear, prepares his action and inwardly processes its consequences, according to the principles of W.B. Cannon's theory. Stress, on the other hand, has no specific purpose and thus refers to an indefinite threat, for a future and expected danger, which the person is not aware of and therefore his/her preparation for action is impossible.

In recent years there has been a growing interest for the study of the phenomenon of anxiety, which is justified in the sense that it is associated with the manifestation of symptoms/signs, both organically and psychologically. As for the first, mild or severe psychosomatic problems usually occur, while for the psychological level, the anxiety affects the:

- a)** Behavior, creating increased anxiety and irritability,
- b)** Emotional reactions, where is observed increased anxiety and emotional transitions,
- c)** Cognitive functionality, which causes difficulty in concentration, and
- d)** Social behavior, where withdrawal and/or restriction of social relationships are often phenomena.

Michael Madianos (2003), in his book 'Clinical Psychiatry', states that in the psychological symptoms are included: restlessness and impatience, feeling of indefinite fear and agony, nervousness, attention deficit, difficulty in concentrating and reduced perceptual capacity. While, in the physical symptoms are included: shortness of breath, feeling of drowning, feeling 'knot in the neck', chest pain, difficulty swallowing, palpitations, cold hands, fainting tendency, dry mouth, anorexia, nausea, dizziness, abdominal pain, muscle tension, motor restlessness, tremor, weakness, vertigo, sweating, frequent urination and tension headache.

Next, will be mentioned about how the adolescence is associated with anxiety, as it is a separate developmental phase, due to the rapid biological and physical changes, both in the mental abilities of adolescents and their sexuality. It begins biologically, with the advent of puberty, which is an inevitable

biological phenomenon and finally, ends with the conquest of self-identity and gender, as well as the sense of autonomy and independence, which are the characteristics of adulthood. By itself, this period presents anxiety, due to the abrupt onset of many changes (Karagiannopoulou, 2007). Anxiety is an unpleasant emotional state, which involves feelings of fear or tension, as a response to a threat whose source is largely unrecognizable or completely unknown. Anxiety is also a common reaction, which occurs in most people to some extent, with an excessive reaction to mildly stressful situations (Manos, 1997).

In addition, psychologists and psychotherapists distinguish two forms of anxiety: normal and pathological, with the former being a 'signal' of warning of an impending danger. In fact, human performance improves when there is a moderate degree of anxiety, being a creative and motivating factor for life in difficult times (Varvogli, 2006). On the contrary, pathological anxiety, either it occurs at times when there is no real threat, or it continues for a long time, after the passage of the factor that caused it. It is more intense, more persistent or more frequent than what is generally considered normal, as it is not a normal reaction of the body to stress or everyday problems (Hadfield, 1991).

All adolescents, without exception, experience anxiety due to the changes and conflicts of adolescence, but adolescent anxiety is different from that of children and adults. It is often a masked, indefinite fear of a possible failure, of an unwanted exposure to the social environment, and is exacerbated by a variety of reinforcing factors, such as high goals and excessive expectations. In recent decades, a good number of, mainly, foreign studies have investigated the effects of increased anxiety on adolescents, presenting it as a cause of physical problems, behavioral problems and psychological disorders (Anyan et al., 2018; Edwards et al. 2014; Hoferichter et al. 2014; Moksnes et al., 2014; Mathew et al., 2015; Raknes et al., 2017; Young & Dietrich, 2015).

In a study by Kashani and Orvaschel (1990) in a sample of 210 children aged 8-17 years, it was found that anxiety is the most common feature in psychopathology for this age group. In particular, in adolescents aged 14-16 years, a percentage of 17.3% showed symptoms of anxiety disorder. It was also found that behavioral and psychological criteria change dramatically under the influence of anxiety. In recent years, anxiety has increased greatly and is directly related to genetic predisposition. Another study, on the frequency of anxiety in children and adolescents aged 4-16 years, showed a rate of 10.4% with symptoms of anxiety disorder (Legrand et al., 1999).

ANXIETY IN ADOLESCENTS' LIVES, COPING STRATEGIES AND PARENTAL INFLUENCE

Young and Dietrich (2015) studied the possible factors that can lead to anxiety disorders and depression in a sample of 41 children, 11-15 years old. According to the findings, stressful daily events, concern and repetitive thoughts predicted the anxiety and depression in the sample, demonstrating the importance of prevention and timely intervention to reduce the above symptoms.

Another study, conducted in Norway on a sample of 1,719 students aged 12–17 on anxiety levels and the impact on adolescent quality of life, showed a strong correlation between high anxiety levels and low quality of life, results highlighting the importance of prevention, as well as the early onset of mental health interventions in anxious adolescents (Raknes et al. 2017).

In the large nationwide survey of the University Research Institute of Mental Health, which is conducted every four years, it was observed that from 2006, to 2010 and until 2014, decreased the percentage of the life satisfaction of adolescents with respective percentages of 69.0%, 64.1% and 60.1%. To the ways with which the financial crisis can affect children's relationships and their happiness, are included family and social relationships, peer marginalization, and a general feeling that their lives are not what they should be. In contrast, the satisfaction with family relationships did not show any decrease during these years. The percentage of students who reported feeling stressed from school dropped to 32.0% in 2014, from 39.0% in 2006 and 40.4% in 2010.

Research on adolescent anxiety and gender relations seems to be influenced by evolution of puberty but also, the role of gender adopted by adolescents (Carter et al., 2011). In a study on the association of anxiety with social factors and motivations in 493 adolescents, aged 11-16 years, a subgroup of girls was found where the anxiety symptoms increased with the passage of age. In addition, gender differences in anxiety symptoms were found, while the academic competence and internal self-regulation differ between the two sexes, in terms of the anxiety levels they determine (Duchesne & Ratelle, 2016).

In another study by Lewinsohn et al. (1998), was examined the gender differences in terms of anxiety, in a large sample of adolescents consisting of 1,079 individuals who did not have any disorder, 95 who had recovered from an anxiety disorder, and 47 who had a current anxiety disorder. Participants were tested on a wide range of psychosocial skills. There has been a predominance of girls among the incidents of the past or present anxiety, but not among those who have never experienced anxiety disorder. An interesting finding is that already from the age of 6 years, the girls are twice as likely to

experience anxiety disorder as boys and the prevalence of anxiety and depression appears to be in favor of girls.

The Development of Social Anxiety in Adolescence

The categorisation of anxiety disorders in adolescents is not an easy task and perhaps for this reason there are three different diagnostic categories related to anxiety disorders, which are referred to anxiety which appears under different social circumstances:

- 1) Social phobia, as social anxiety disorder, according to DSM,
- 2) Social phobia, according to ICD-10, and
- 3) The social anxiety disorder of childhood.

Because the boundaries between social anxiety disorder and social phobia are very blurred, it is suggested to be used better the term 'social anxiety disorder' instead of the term 'social phobia', as the disorder is rarely caused by a specific stimulus, and people affected do not have constantly an avoidant behavior, as it is reported in the content of 'social phobia' (Kuhl et al., 2010).

Regarding the origin of social anxiety, this has been correlated with specific types of interpretations in the explaining the causality of socially related events. These types perpetuate anxiety related to one's ability to gain acceptance from others, and therefore help to maintain the social anxiety (Taylor & Wald, 2003). To the same conclusion are reached Vasilopoulos et al. (2012), who state that the interpretations of socially anxious people are distinguished by prejudice, as both young people and adults make less positive or more negative interpretations, in ambiguous social circumstances, in relation with the individuals with more social self-confidence. In addition, Cederlund and Ost (2011) found that children with social phobia display biased interpretations in relation with the socially non-anxious children and also, use less evidence before interpreting an ambiguous situation as threatening. Finally, one more supporting element is found in the research by Muris et al. (2003), in which it was found that children with high levels of social anxiety, appear more interpretations of prejudice, compared to non-anxious children.

It is therefore obvious that the early identification of children with social anxiety or social phobias should be the focus of specialists in mental health institutes. And this is because, certain forms of social anxiety are part of a person's normal development, however, about 1-5% of school-age children show, in several social events, an extreme anxiety that they can hardly cope with (Kuhl et al., 2010). Young people with social phobia also have severe implications in their social, cognitive, and emotional

ANXIETY IN ADOLESCENTS' LIVES, COPING STRATEGIES AND PARENTAL INFLUENCE

functions (Epkins, 2002). Also, the onset of social phobia, before the age of eleven, has been found that can lead to irreversible results, and by extension, it may precede from the onset of a severe depression (Epkins, 2002).

The ability of someone to understand the perspective of others, and to be concerned about his/her negative evaluation by them, it is possible that it is fully developed in the age of about 8 years (Croiser & Burnham, 1990). In the end of childhood and in the beginning of adolescence, the social fears and evaluation fears prevail, while, at the same time, it has been pointed out that children with social phobia, aged 7 to 14 years, have difficulty in the field of social skills, compared to children who do not present anxiety (Spence et al., 1999).

Social anxiety/social phobia comes from normal anxiety, which is maximized by the demands of pre-adolescence on a social level. In this age children participate in social assessment situations, such as: the answer to questions inside the classroom, works, game in groups, and the performance in sports or music. In addition, in the pre-adolescent stage parents no longer have the responsibility to regulate their children's social interactions, and therefore, adolescents themselves take the initiative for their social contacts. All the above requirements, in combination with the cognitive development that takes place in adolescence, in terms of the perception of visual angle of the other and the self-awareness, facilitate the manifestation of social phobia. Although, all the adolescents experience the social anxiety at some stage of their development, not all of them develop pathological levels of social anxiety and social phobia.

Thus, children and adolescents with social anxiety manifest fear in a variety of situations and activities, such as: talking, eating, writing, doing something in front of others, taking the initiative to have a conversation or to maintain a conversation, to speak to persons in power, to claim, as well as to participate in parties and extracurricular activities (Hoffmann, 1999). Finally, children with social anxiety have high levels of discomfort, loneliness and generalized anxiety (La Greca & Lopez, 1998).

Kakouros and Maniadaki (2004, p. 173) argue about the social phobia, that: "In order to be put the diagnosis of social phobia in adults, the necessary precondition is the recognition and admission on their part that the fear and anxiety, which they are experiencing, are unjustified. However, this precondition does not apply completely to children and adolescents because, due to cognitive and developmental limitations, they may not be able to recognize that their fear is unjustified and excessive". Also, as mentioned in the diagnostic criteria of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders - 4th

Edition - Text Revision (DSM-IV-TR) (2004, p.209): “In children and adolescents, depending on their age, there must be proof of the ability of social relationships with familiar people, while the anxiety should appear when they are between peers and not only in their interaction with adults”.

In terms of the dimensions that anxiety takes in adolescents, according to the cognitive model, five areas of the functionality are changed when the adolescent suffers from it. These are referred in changes in psychophysiology, mood, behavior, cognitive field, and interpersonal relationships (Friedberg & McClure, 2002). Regarding the physical part, many children experience physical discomfort, the most common of which are that they feel heavy sweating, lightheadedness, stomach upset, increased heart rate, muscle tension, shortness of breath and intestinal discomfort (Friedberg & McClure, 2002). Still, behavioral symptoms generally reflect the most obvious signs of anxiety, and the tendency of avoidance is a shocking sign of its symptoms. These signs are easier to be recognized in children and adolescents, because they cannot forever avoid the circumstances and events from which they fear, as this has a huge impact on their daily lives. Nail biting, thumb sucking, some compulsions and hyperactivity are other common behavioral symptoms of anxiety in childhood and adolescence. These behaviors are manifested by children and adolescents, in order themselves to feel calmer or to face the threatening situations. It is no coincidence that these children and adolescents are usually anxiously and careless (Friedberg & McClure, 2002).

The cognitive symptoms of anxiety reflect the way with which the adolescents receive the incoming information, and as Gouvra et al. (2005, p.306), anxiety depends on the cognitive functions that are related to the individual and his/her environment. According to Cederlund and Ost (2011), a common feature of anxious children is their tendency to have a reduced ability to perceive the demands of their environment. Of course, it is good to be mentioned that the aforementioned dimensions do not act individually, but there can be a combination of them, depending on the psychosynthesis of the person, his/her character, but also how he/she experiences the world around him/her.

The Social Anxiety of Adolescents and the Relationship with Their Peers

As important as the parents, teachers and adults in general are for an adolescent, equally important are his/her peers. The parents meet the adolescent’s need for safety and protection and provide him/her with the supplies he/she needs in order to cope with life, while the teachers provide him/her with all the supplies he/she needs for his/her education and behavior, which will serve later for finding work but also for his/her socialization. Finally, adolescent’s friends and peers cover his/her need for companionship, while they are the people with whom he/she will have fun, play, will be associated with

ANXIETY IN ADOLESCENTS' LIVES, COPING STRATEGIES AND PARENTAL INFLUENCE

and socialized in the field of youth. Through the company of them, the adolescent develops his/her sociability, self-confidence, abilities and personality. He/she learns how the relationships are created and what they need in order to be healthy, as well as how to love, to respect the others, to coexist and be able to communicate.

Therefore, under these conditions, a small society is formed, inside which the adolescent acquires the first behavioral habits within the group and creates his/her first relationships with others, who are equal to him/her, as partners in the life but also in any activity. And through the communication with the peers, are applied in practice the rules of conduct, which every adolescent has learned, and which he/she begins to adapt accordingly to each circumstance. For the smooth relationship between the adolescents but also for the good functioning of the team, the necessary components that the adolescents should have, are: good will and faith, ability to respect the common purpose, understanding and positive communication and, if it is necessary, overcoming of the individual desires and aspirations. All this together, will later play a decisive role and will contribute to the smooth integration of the adolescent in the 'adult society'. Based on all of the above, it is undeniable that an adolescent's relationships with his/her peers play a very important role in his/her emotional and social development. And according to Anagnostaki (2008), the adolescents who have, at least, one friend appear less psychopathology problems and present a better psychosocial and school adjustment. Also, as Nikolaou (2005) argues, the difficulties that arise, during the elementary school years, in the relationships with peers, are directly related to adjustment problems, which appear later during adolescence and adulthood.

It has been confirmed that the good relationships with peers are considered a prognostic element for the positive development of the adolescent. The adolescents who are accepted by their peers have fewer 'externalization' or 'internalization' problems, such as low self-esteem and depressive feeling, and have better scores on the ability and adjustment scales (Anagnostaki, 2008). Also the adolescents, who are rejected and disliked by their classmates or are excluded by the group, show much more anxiety compared to adolescents, who are accepted by the group of peers. So we can observe, that anxiety and the symptoms it causes are directly associated with difficulties and obstruction of children's social functioning (Nikolaou, 2005). Also, according to the research, adolescents with intense social anxiety and negative self-perception, that is, who perceive themselves at a lower level than their peers, and/or they are not particularly accepted by the whole/group, have lower self-esteem than the adolescents who do not present anxiety (La Greca & Stone, 1993).

Adolescents with generalized anxiety disorder often have concerns about their evaluation on their interpersonal relationships, in which are included, the unrealistic anxiety or the concern about their

behavior in the past, as well as a greater need for reassurance (Nikolaou, 2005). In addition, adolescents with social anxiety feel more concerned about how they will be evaluated by others, and often exhibit social withdrawal and avoidance behaviors (Nikolaou, 2005).

In addition, it has been found that girls during the adolescence compared to boys, experience more intense social anxiety, which is associated with a greater reduction in the field of social functioning (La Greca & Stone, 1993). And according to other research data, the high levels of social anxiety have a negative effect on the functioning of adolescents, concerning their interpersonal relationships, and in the perception of friendship and social support (La Greca & Lopez, 1998). It has also been found that girls with high levels of social anxiety mention that have fewer close friends and consider that these friendships are characterized by low levels of emotional closeness, companionship and social support compared to friendships of those girls with low levels of social anxiety. These findings show that social anxiety has an effect on the development of close interpersonal relationships, especially in girls (Nikolaou, 2005).

Coping Strategies in Adolescents

As is well known, anxiety is not an thymic condition which characterizes only the adults, but it is also be observed in children and adolescents, as it is evidenced by the daily experience and scientific research. Firstly Stark, Spirito, Williams and Guevremont (1989) with their research, but also afterwards Galanaki and Besevegis (1996) and Gelhaar et al. (2007) with their researches that followed, they all came to the below mentioned similar conclusions, which are focused that the most common problems faced by adolescents and which mention to anxiety, are created in:

- a) School: Here, the adolescents mention problems related to their performance in lessons, relationship problems with the teachers, as well as with their peers.
- b) Family: For this case, the adolescents point out problems in their relationship with their parents and siblings.
- c) Their interpersonal relationships: The problems here are identified, both in the relationships of adolescents with their friends, as well as in their relationships with the opposite sex.

In the 1960s, the research that concerned the defense mechanisms for the anxiety was mainly related to the concept of ‘coping’, which is attributed in the international literature as ‘confrontation of anxiogenic situations’. More specifically, this term represents a set of various cognitive actions and behavioral efforts, which the person drafts, in order to cope with specific internal and external

ANXIETY IN ADOLESCENTS' LIVES, COPING STRATEGIES AND PARENTAL INFLUENCE

challenges, as well as with the conflicts between them, for which he/she considers that they exceed his/her mental reserves (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis & Gruen, 1986). In simpler terms, we could say that the concept of 'coping' in children, adolescents and adults, refers to their better adaptation to the conditions which cause anxiety to them. But in recent decades, admittedly, the term 'coping' is directly related to the regulation of anxiety and is defined as the regulatory action of man in stressful situations (Skinner & Wellborn, 1994), as a conscious and voluntary effort to regulate the emotion, thoughts, behavior, physiology and the environment, which is developed as a reaction to stressful conditions (Compas, Connor-Smith, Saltzman, Thomsen & Wadsworth, 2001), and as regulatory processes in stressful contexts (Skinner, Edge, Altman, & Sherwood, 2003; Skinner & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2007).

Compas (1987) in a literature review on coping strategies in childhood and adolescence, discusses the differences that need to be made in the study of coping strategies in children and adolescents. Recent researches have studied and confirmed the above differentiations between 'coping' in adults and 'coping' in children and adolescents (Rokach, 2001; Goossens, 2006). In this context also, various theoretical models have been developed for the operation of coping in children and adolescents, and among which, holds a leading position that of Lazarus & Folkman (1984) and Coyne & Lazarus (1980). This model has as a central element the interaction between the individual and the environment, and although it was developed for the adults, it can also be applied to adolescents. Thus the developing person, based on this view, processes and reacts to situations that occur around him/her, assessing which situations/events/stimuli and for what reasons are considered sources of anxiety and also, what are his/her supplies in order to deal with this situation of anxiety.

One question that arises among the experts is, whether children and adolescents become more effective in dealing with stressful situations as they grow older and gain more experience. This question is difficult to be answered because it is almost impossible to clearly determine when an anxiety situation management strategy is effective or helps the child/adolescent to adjust, and when not. According to these, Perez & Reicherts (1992) suggested six dimensions/subjective judgments that the adolescents present in a stressful situation (Table 1). Understanding how young people of both sexes, of different age groups and different cultural backgrounds, classify and present stressors, through these six dimensions, is revealing of the 'coping' intentions they have in a given situation and of the mode they link 'coping' intentions and preferences by choosing specific coping strategies.

Table 1: Subjective dimensions of stressful situations

Strength/Resilience:	The individual gives a subjective meaning to a situation, based on the importance and seriousness of his/her negative connotation.
Control:	The subjective assessment of how much the person can control the stressful situation.
Inconstancy:	The subjective assessment that the situation will change on its own.
Ambiguity:	The subjective assessment of the uncertainty created by the situation.
Reappearance:	The subjective assessment that the stressful situation will 'hit' again.
Familiarity:	The degree of personal experience in such situations.

(Source: Perrez, M., & Reicherts, M. (1992). Stress, coping & health: A situation-behavior approach, p.26)

Another research team consisting from Rothbaum, Weisz and Snyder (1982) distinguished between primary and secondary control. The primary control, according to them, aims to influence objective situations or events, in order to weaken their stressful effect. The secondary control allows to the adolescent to compromise on conditions that do not change and may help him/her in anxiety conditions which do not change. The research by Compas and his collaborators (1988), which concerns the exercise of control in the treatment of anxiety situations, moves in the same direction. It has been found here that older children and adolescents consider school-related anxiety situations to be more controllable than those related to interpersonal relationships. The literature on dealing with stressful situations indicates that when young people believe that something can be done in order they to influence the anxiety situation directly, they will experience an anxiety situation in a way which will be characterized mainly by problem-oriented strategies, from behaviors of approach or primary control. Conversely, when the young people perceive that the anxiety situation cannot be treated at present, indirect strategies will dominate in the way of dealing with, for example, ways of dealing which focus on emotion, avoidance, secondary control (Boekaerts, 1996).

Suls & Fletcher (1986) in a meta-analysis of researches about the 'coping' in adolescents, into stressful life events, observed that the avoidance is the predominant reaction to short-term threats, while the approach is the more effective reaction when the threat remains, mainly because it entangles the individual's cognitive and behavioral efforts, in his/her endeavor to manage and deal with this long-term

ANXIETY IN ADOLESCENTS' LIVES, COPING STRATEGIES AND PARENTAL INFLUENCE

adversity. The results of the meta-analysis showed that both problem-focused and emotion-focused strategies are equally important for a successful adaptation to anxiety situations. Subsequent researches have led to similar conclusions (Fields & Prinz 1997; Frydenberg & Lewis, 2000; Aldwin, 2007). And in general, the research made it clear that there are not adaptive reactions suitable for all people, in all situations and for all moments. An anxiety management strategy may help a child or adolescent to adjust, but to others it may have no effect. The question therefore which remains is, whether the applied strategy for dealing with an anxiety situation, takes into account the requirements and needs of a particular situation or not (Boekaerts, 1996).

Relationship with Parents and Coping Strategies in Adolescents

So far, there is not enough scientific research on the effect of parental coping with the respective ways of adolescent, for the same case. It is now clear, through the findings of long-term and multifaceted research, that the ways adolescents use in order to manage their anxiety are not only based on individual factors, but their social environment (family, neighborhood, school, etc.), in which they live and develop, also plays an important role in this. These exogenous factors can influence the 'coping' of adolescents, either as a source of empowerment in the choice of effective ways to deal with anxiety, or as an obstacle in assessing the stressful situation they are experiencing.

The peculiarities, the background and the dynamics of each family, influence accordingly the configuration of the 'coping' of its children. Of particular interest for this case is the study by Kliwer, Fearnow & Miller (1996), which concerned the investigation of a theoretical model on the influence of parental behavior on how their children formulated their strategies for dealing with anxiety. Their findings clearly confirmed that the strategies which children choose to deal with their anxiety are directly related to the family environment, the quality of relationships with their parents, the anxiety strategies used by their parents themselves, as well as with parents' hints and instructions addressed to them.

Many other studies conducted, have led to similar findings, while another study on a similar case has looked at the relationship between the 'coping' in adolescents with cancer and their parents' behavior (Lewis, 1997). Based on the hypothesis that parental 'coping' affects the correlation between "coping" of their children and their perception for their mental health and well-being, empirical data have shown that parental 'coping' significantly affects the 'coping' of adolescents. Indications for similar findings provides also the research by Frank (1996) on children with cancer, which showed a

correlation between children's adaptation and that of parents, without fully confirming the direct effect of the 'coping' of parents with that of their children.

Surveys conducted to date, and which has been related to the families of adolescents with cultural differences, resulting in different parenting practices, has shown that parents, as well as other members of the adolescents' social environment, acted as a catalyst in the coping involving adolescents. That is, it appeared that parents who effectively deal with their own anxiety, manifest behaviors that positively affect the 'coping' of their children. While on the contrary, the behaviors of adults, parents or not, that are associated with the increasing of the sadness of their children, concerned reassurance, agitation or criticism, empathy and passing of the control to the child.

All these indications, however, raises questions and put under discussion, whether the parental guidance and consolation to their adolescent children, provide a powerful mechanism that will ultimately help them to build their own defenses and, by extension their own strategies for 'coping'. Because there is always the risk, when the persons of attachment are 'always there' in order to take over the setting of the adolescents' anxiety situations, adolescents will not learn to evaluate the various stressors, in terms of their own unique existence and also, will not learn to act according to their own initiatives but also, to assume their responsibilities.

Also, according to other researches, it has been concluded that when parents create the conditions for an immediate confrontation to constant anxiety, then the behavior of their adolescent child will be dominated by his/her determination to reduce his/her anxiety symptoms as fast as possible. In this way, the adolescent, in order to quickly gain the control in an anxiety situation, will prefer to act with immediate actions, in order to relieve the symptoms (primary control), instead of learning the right, which is to reconstruct the stressors. On the contrary, when the adolescent learns to adapt flexibly to his/her daily obligations, then he/she will develop a regular of non-urgent/immediate approach to the stressful factors which cause anxiety to him/her. Of course, this flexibility presupposes special behaviors, such as the distraction or the relaxation through creative pursuits and sports, which will result that the existence of a stressor not automatically to lead to a mood disorder, decreased of self-esteem and consequently, to the reduced performance of the adolescent (Boekaerts, 1996).

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Theoretical article

ARE E-LEARNING TEACHING METHODS ACTUALLY TOTALLY BENEFICIAL?

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Abstract

Teaching methods are a tool, which help educators in their work and independently on circumstances. A new method of teaching is the one of e-learning teaching, where the educating method takes place mostly electronically. In e-learning, students educate themselves with the help of their tutors. Remote teaching, together with access to the network may equal to a way of success but, in fact, is that so? The analyses of some reviews on e-learning indicate that the particular drawbacks from e-learning education are noteworthy and we should take them into serious consideration. In a first place, it is significant to point some benefits out from e-learning teaching methods but what mostly matters is that the disadvantages seem overweighed comparing with the advantages. We, however, cannot deny that e-learning teaching methods released our hands and made our life much easier, though what we should realize is that every single piece of technology needs fine operation. With this, we mean that children and teenagers should have confined leeway with means of technology, strictly into the field of education and only. Anything more than this can make damage or/and serious causalities with their life, personality, program of studying and so one. Therefore, we recommend for a fair and smooth use, so the parents and educators to provide children with proper guidance of what they can do with e-learning techniques.

Key words: benefits, drawbacks, education, e-learning, methods of teaching.

E-learning teaching method is a means of teaching whose first use dates back at approximately 1840's, when Isaac Pitman taught his pupils shorthand via correspondence as a form of distance learning (Epignosis LLC, 2014; Gogos, 2013). Distance learning comprises both learning in an electronic environment (i.e., e-learning) and face-to-face learning (Bulgarian Ministry of Education and Sciences, 2020), as well as extra-curricular activity (South-West University “Neofit Rilski”, 2009)

E-learning teaching is based on technology developed in a distinguishing grade and managed to receive a widespread recognition all over the world, through the evolution of the internet and other similar media and mainstream ways. This tool became gradually so useful and familiar even from younger ages since its use was very easy and effortless (Qiu et al., 2022). Moreover, it solved plenty of everyday problems and reduced some others, but the most important thing was that it mitigated destinations, as long as communication was performed via applications with the use only of camera and microphone.

E-learning education is a teaching method based on digital material, which exists online and can help any student being in a remote region to have access to this material. What more, they can accomplish a distancing lesson without being present in the same class. Some lessons have an asynchronous form, that is to say, they offer flexibility to every learner/ employer who has a particular and strict own schedule. Technology has shown so much progress that the geographical gap is bridged, and online teaching is more feasible (Mason & Rennie, 2008).

Advantages of e-learning teaching method

To begin with benefits of e-learning teaching, we could ensure that it solved plenty of issues occurred in remote regions and in circumstances where live attendance is impossible. Many people nowadays work lots of hours but meanwhile are willing to attend seminars or training lesson for becoming qualified at a specific field or to obtain new skills for a task. Their heavy schedule as well as fast pace of life do not allow a leisure time available for extra activities; so, development of e-learning methods allowed them to have access to online training in an easy way and without spending much time attending it (Mladenovic et al., 2022).

The network itself is a huge channel including almost everything we can even imagine; and all of this in an incredibly cheap way. Every human nowadays has at his/her disposal a smartphone, a tablet, or a personal computer and all these devices can be connected to the internet. Thus, a world wide web spreads and is ready to be used for any purpose arisen (Mladenovic et al., 2022).

It is actually believed that e-learning teaching method is more fun and interactive, because various things could be done during an e-lesson and thanks to design, colors, backgrounds and the content, it can activate the interest in learning and the lesson is not boring, passive and ordinary, but e-learning helps students get activated and participate more during the lesson (Qiu et al., 2022). Every platform is designed by such a particular way that aims to make the students feel enthusiastic and more energetic (Qiu et al., 2022).

ARE E-LEARNING TEACHING METHODS ACTUALLY TOTALLY BENEFICIAL?

In 2020, when a severe pandemic burst into the whole planet, the e-learning teaching method was the protagonist in every single educational structure and institution. The COVID-19 pandemic was very dangerous for public health, mostly to elders and humans belonging to a vulnerable population (Pan et al., 2020). In the latest years, the educational structures mostly universities adopted this way of teaching (e-learning) due to the coronavirus pandemic. Indeed, there are the so-called Open Universities with an undergraduate or/and a postgraduate program entirely based on e-learning teaching methods, where each professor creates a forum for his/her lesson exploiting means of communication such as camera, microphone and digital content in order to teach his/her students without needed to be present in a university structure. By this way, the countries gave the opportunity for plenty of candidates to study in universities without having to leave their permanent place of living, and without the worry of costs living another city or town where the university is settled. This motivation relieved many families and gave great privileges for an effortless but qualitative higher-grade education (Fazeli et al., 2022).

During coronavirus pandemic, the websites having educational material and information technology relative to education, open their access and make this material reachable to all those who need it. They do not have any cost, just using the internet connection and a world full of encyclopedias, media about school courses, educational and scientific articles and so on is available. Many students and their families felt relieved financially from this free access. Equality to education became a fact (Mladenovic et al., 2022).

Disadvantages of e-learning teaching method

Our everyday lives today have changed due to the faster pace, many working hours, outdoor activities and so on. As people work nowadays on huge industries or high brand-name companies and commercial ones, technology has barged in our lives necessarily. Otherwise, our production would not be the desirable one and as a result, salaries and benefits would not be rewarded. We have to use electronic devices, even in non-working times in order to control and regulate our on-the-job responsibilities. However, this lasting-many-hours occupation with electronic devices not only causes many headaches and dizziness, but also prevent humans from keeping in touch with family and friends. E-learning teaching and training requires plenty of hours in front of a screen, which is something exhausting for human eyes. Automatically this does not let people getting involved with other people as long as they have to complete what is on duty (Qiu et al, 2022).

A disadvantage concerning online learning is that practical skills are somewhat harder to pick up from online resources (Arkorful & Abaidoo, 2014; Mladenovic et al., 2022). For example, even though

building a wooden shelf is something one can easily share information about, record videos of and explain, but the practical experience is essential. Besides, the skills for pottery, sport and surgery require hands-on experience; they cannot be fulfilled via e-learning teaching method.

Rapid development in the field of informatics in our era, as well as spreading of computing and networking technologies in almost every section of human activity, eventually affect not only personal but also social statistics and eventually introduce new ways of using them. So, in this way, education cannot be unaffected by this change, and thus we see more and more speeding dissemination of information and access to it is easier than ever (Mason & Rennie, 2008). This easy accessibility to internet and so to information, makes every single user interfering and thus can change or modify information. This whole procedure led to emergence of unreliability and may the spreading of fake news. As long as every user is able to create or to edit a piece of information, so does s/he can support his/her own thesis, but in the context of personal belief and not a fact being necessarily objective. We are now to conclude that news coming from the internet are not always reliable and in order to confront this, the one and only solution is developing of humans' critical thinking.

It is considered as a drawback, the fact that we have a strong dependence on the network (Kheyri et al., 2019). Of course, a means offering everything we may need to search for is valuable because it extricates us of spending much time and money to find, but also alienate us of buying new books, making use of our homie encyclopedias and generally estrange us from whatever we used to call as "traditional". The unique feeling that we felt when we obtained a gift-book and the sense of keeping in touch with the paper releasing its fragrance, now are replaced by a newly comer method full of pixels and sometimes annoying pop-up windows in the corner of web pages.

The impact of using e-learning as a teaching method

As we outlined previously, teaching via e-learning method has many advantages and a few, but strong and severe, disadvantages. This new system came abruptly into our lives, in one way or another made us adjust our program in order for us we can fit to it and carry our duties out (Fazeli et al., 2022). However, there is an important factor concerning frequent, as well as constant use of e-learning and electronic devices.

In a first place, spending many times working and/or training through e-learning may prevent us from going out and having a socialization with other people, neighbors even with our families (Arkorful & Abaidoo, 2014). It is a severe consequence that Internet manages to absorb so much energy and time

ARE E-LEARNING TEACHING METHODS ACTUALLY TOTALLY BENEFICIAL?

from humans but what we all do is nothing but accept it. Such an acceptance, subconsciously, creates stress and an important change of lifestyle, because the most of our everyday lives is spent doing tasks for our studies or/and work (Encarnacion et al., 2021). The de-socialization we all end up living through, does not let us improve our physical and mental life. We are not able to talk with another person, to spend quality time with friends, to prevent loneliness devastating us, to agree or disagree with someone supporting out opinions and in general, to have a human contact. This contact is gradually replacing with a screen or pad, a bunch of electronic devices and a room with no human existence but unfriendly – eventually- environment (Kyrma & Mavroidis, 2015).

It is not sure if the skills obtained from online courses are successfully developed. The lack of practical implementation causes not only inefficiency but also weakness in expansion of personal talents and so, embarrassment and stress. What we have concluded so far by now is that e-learning teaching method may cause more psychological and mental burden and less benefits in our everyday lives.

The main problem arisen here is the psychological burden caused by the systematic use of e-learning training. When a human is obliged to carry his/her tasks and duties out through the digital technologies in order to finish what is assigned to and the person is overwhelmed and less familiar with these technologies, this may result in both physical and mental exhaustion, disorders of sleeping and well-being, weakness in concentration and final academic/job failure. Our mental and physical health should be smooth, well and peaceful that can be succeeded only if we are more precautious of what we use or we are attempting to do in everyday lives. Each aspect of our lives demands our sobriety, critical thinking and energy.

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Theoretical article

INTERRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIAL ANXIETY AND INTERNET IN ADOLESCENCE: THE ROLE OF SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS FOR THE ADOLESCENT

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Abstract

When adolescents spend many hours on the internet, then, according to international practice, they are faced with serious consequences that affect their daily lives and mental health. According to research, a significant percentage of adolescents show social anxiety and internet addiction. Some other studies have also found that there is a direct correlation between the widespread use of the internet and the social anxiety of adolescents, which also has a negative effect on their social development. However, with regard to the way with which this correlation is affected, when the ‘social/friendly relations’ factor is involved, there are several contradictory conclusions between the studies. Apart from the above, it has also been found that the close and quality friendships between adolescents mitigate the power of the correlation between the social anxiety and internet addiction, and therefore act as a deterrent to them.

Key words: Social anxiety, Internet, Adolescent, Social relationships, Adolescence

Social anxiety is considered a disorder, which occurs very often especially in adolescents of developed societies, and as research has shown from time to time, leads them to social isolation and creates feelings of inadequacy, low self-esteem, embarrassment, humiliation and depression (Ballenger et al., 1998). Social anxiety is defined as the repetitive and intense emotional discomfort or fear that one feels, which is combined with various social circumstances or events, with the interaction with other people, as well as with the usually negative evaluation or observation by them (Leitenberg, 1990).

The two most important factors for the occurrence of social anxiety in adolescents are usually intra-family conflicts but also, the lack of close relationships between adolescents (Chartier et al., 2001). This can be occurred at any age, but most commonly occurs in adolescence, early adulthood or early

childhood; while, statistically affects women more than men. In addition, adolescents' relationships with friends and classmates play a critical role in developing social skills and feelings of personal satisfaction. Therefore, the factors that make it difficult or hindering the interpersonal functioning of adolescents, could join in a crucial group that needs thorough investigation.

Many are the researchers who argue that social anxiety in adolescents is directly related to their frequent preoccupation or addiction to the internet. This results in being created several adverse consequences and effects in adolescents' social relations (Gordon et al., 2007; Prizant-Passal et al., 2016). And more specifically, adolescents' frequent and prolonged browsing in the internet, limits their social activity and makes it difficult to develop healthy interpersonal relationships (Morgan & Cotten, 2003). In contrast, conversations and messaging, through social media, expand adolescents' opportunities for contact with their peers, thus enhancing their personal satisfaction and self-esteem (Valkenburg & Peter, 2007).

In conclusion and according to the above mentioned, friendships but also the close interpersonal relationships between adolescents seem to be related to social anxiety and internet addiction, as a result they interact and are interdependent.

Social Anxiety Disorder in Adolescence: Causes, Manifestation Factors and Implications

Social anxiety disorder

According to Leigh and Clark (2018), social anxiety is the most common anxiety disorder and the third most common mental health disorder, after depression and substance abuse. It is defined as the intense and recurring fear one feels in various social circumstances, the constant and unwarranted concern that one may be negatively characterized by others, criticized or even ridiculed (American Psychological Association, 2013). Adolescents suffering from social anxiety disorder usually avoid various social circumstances and interpersonal contacts. And when they are forced to be in a place with other people and communicate with them, they feel intense discomfort and stress. Social anxiety occurs mainly in adolescence and its effects are more serious in adolescents than in adults.

La Greca and Lopez (1998) report that social anxiety is structured on three different axes, which are:

- a) The fear of negative evaluation,
- b) The avoidance of interpersonal communication, and/or participation in any social circumstance, and
- c) The avoidance of participation in specific social activities, and/or the avoidance of new acquaintances with peers.

SOCIAL ANXIETY AND INTERNET IN ADOLESCENCE: THE ROLE OF SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS FOR THE ADOLESCENT

Hidalgo et al. (2001) argue that the last 2 of the above 3 axes are distinct forms of social anxiety and thus define them as: 1) generalized social anxiety disorder and 2) specific social anxiety disorder. They also believe that a person may suffer from one form or another of the disorder.

As it has been found, social anxiety is a common psycho-pathological disorder and it is claimed that about 20% of the world's population will experience it at some point in their lives. This high rates, combined with the fact that it is a generalized mental disorder with chronic and detrimental effects, have aroused the interest of researchers internationally, in order to study and understand the disorder. It is worth mentioning here that a mild form of social anxiety can occur to anyone at some point in his/her life (Hope et al., 2009). However, this condition is considered normal and should not be confused with social anxiety which usually lasts a long time, causes quite strong negative emotions and its effects are important for the mental health of the person experiencing it (Jefferson, 2001).

Social anxiety disorder in adolescence

Although social anxiety occurs in many adults, its first appearance and develop take place in the middle childhood and especially in adolescence. This is rather expected, since adolescence is a critical period, where the person tries to adjust his relationships with his parents and peers and to understand his social position among his friends and classmates (Lightfoot et al., 2014). Also, the child's sense of identity and self-perceptions begins to take place through social comparison with his/her peers and children, spending more time with classmates and their friends, they are concerned e.g. about how well they are doing in relation to them in sports, or whether the other children like them, or whether their classmates will make fun of them (Lightfoot et al., 2014).

All these create an expected concern, a reasonable anxiety, which if it exceeds certain limits and cannot be controlled, will have clear negative results on how the child sees him/herself and how he/she perceives his/her personal identity (Gilbert, 2001). The potential failure of the above social goals can lead the adolescent to low self-esteem and unsuccessful social adjustment and, consequently, to social anxiety (Dodge et al., 1989).

During the adolescence, young people begin to become independent of the family and spend more and more time with their peers. This social differentiation is crucial to adolescents' social and emotional development and is supported through a specific neurocognitive ability, called self-consciousness - private or public (Kilford et al., 2016). The development of public self-consciousness, while helping adolescents shape the way they treat others and create more mature and quality relationships with their peers, can be linked to the development of social anxiety due to self-consciousness as a social object

(Mallet & Rodriguez-Tomé, 1999). Of course, the public self-consciousness alone is not enough for the emergence of social anxiety, but simply functions as a kind of precursor involved in its development and maintenance (Tillfors et al., 2012).

Several studies have found that the development of social anxiety disorder during the adolescence is more prevalent in girls than in boys, and even causes to them more intense negative emotions (La Greca & Lopez, 1998). So girls worry more than boys for their appearance, the appreciation that others have for them and about how socially adequate they are, with the obvious result that they are more vulnerable to feelings of social anxiety. In contrast, some surveys conducted in Southeast Asian countries did not find significant differences in levels of social anxiety between girls and boys, probably due to the cultural difference of these civilizations (Hofmann et al., 2010).

Implications from social anxiety for adolescents

Adolescents suffering from social anxiety usually face social adjustment problems and usually show indifference to their school obligations resulting to have poor school performance, other times they leave school or the various sports/cultural clubs early, and sometimes they may start consuming alcohol or have a tendency to self-harm and suicide (Mehtalia & Vankar, 2004). The avoidance of participation, from the part of the socially anxious adolescent, in various social events, but also the general difficulties in his/her social adaptation, gradually lead him/her to social exclusion. This exclusion reinforces the feeling of adolescent's loneliness which can even lead him/her to depression, which is a very serious mental disorder and its effects can last throughout the later adult life (Teo et al., 2013).

The lack of social skills observed in those adolescents who experience the social anxiety, prevents the formation of new friendships and the participation in smaller and larger groups of peers, which are important for adolescents' social and emotional development. Social anxiety is also likely to disrupt existing friendships if they are not particularly close and also, have not a sense of deep intimacy (Tillfors et al., 2012). Social anxiety, among other things, is associated with self-esteem, i.e. the esteem that a person has for his/her personal value, and this may be one of the causes of low self-esteem or be the result of it (Iancu et al., 2015); and in addition, self-esteem plays an essential and important role in the overall mental health of the individual (MacIness, 2006).

According to Erikson theory, children before entering in adolescence, will go through a stage in which they will judge that they are ambitious and capable of dealing with new situations and challenges that arise at home, at school and in their social environment, or that they are inferior and unable to

SOCIAL ANXIETY AND INTERNET IN ADOLESCENCE: THE ROLE OF SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS FOR THE ADOLESCENT

respond effectively to these new challenges (Lightfoot et al., 2014). The fear for a negative evaluation and the anxiety about the final achievement of satisfactory solutions, can lead the adolescent to failure to meet the above challenges and consequently to acquire lower self-esteem, which in turn can lead to new failures, or to increase of anxiety and the avoidance of participation in new social situations and environments. Finally, a strong predictor of low self-esteem is the social exclusion, which as mentioned above is one of the effects of social anxiety (Leary, 1994).

Factors of manifestation and causes of social anxiety

From the moment it has been found, that social anxiety affects the social functionality but also the overall mental health of the adolescent, it makes sense for the scientific community to be concerned with identifying its causes and factors that act as predictors for its development and maintenance. According to the literature, two of the main factors for the occurrence of social anxiety in adolescents are intra-family conflicts between parents and the lack of close relationships between adolescents (Chartier et al., 2001).

After all, interpersonal relationships have been shown to significantly affect a child's entire social and emotional development, in all stages of development, from early childhood to adulthood, and especially during the adolescence (Lightfoot et al., 2014). Relationships between adolescent peers, as they are mentioned below, include various aspects and manifestations, which in turn more or less react on the development of social anxiety:

1) **Acceptance from peers:** Non-acceptance by peers has a very strong correlation with social anxiety during the adolescence, and functions as a strong predictor of its occurrence (Flanagan et al., 2008). La Greca and Lopez (1998) also report that adolescents with high levels of social anxiety have low social adjustment and reduced acceptance by their friends and classmates. In parallel, Greco and Morris (2005) argue that social anxiety is associated with consistently low levels of acceptance by peers. However, the rejection by peers can lead the adolescent to social isolation, which in turn can cause or enhance social anxiety (Teo, et al., 2013). Adolescents who feel neglected or rejected by their peers show higher social anxiety, not only in relation to their popular classmates, but also in relation to the controversial and aggressive (Inderbitzen et al., 1997).

It is important to note that rejection by peers affects all people, but much more the adolescents than children and adults. All people are interested in what others think of them and the reduced acceptance or rejection by acquaintances and friends causes discomfort and anxiety to all

individuals, but much more to adolescents than to adults, as the latter show a resistance to influence by their friends, in contrast to adolescents where this resistance is reduced or non-existent (Leigh & Clark, 2018). In conclusion, as it appears from the international literature, the acceptance of the adolescent by his peers is an important factor of short-term and long-term social adjustment and therefore, acts as a protective factor versus the onset of social anxiety.

It is worth noting at this point the two-way correlation between social anxiety and social acceptance, in the sense that social anxiety may be the consequence of neglect and rejection by peers, or conversely, the cause, to which it is due the reduced acceptance by them. According to Tillfors et al. (2012), low levels of acceptance by the part of peers predict appearance or increase of social anxiety in adolescents, while La Greca and Lopez (1998) argue that adolescents with social anxiety have less support from their peers and reduced social acceptance. Therefore, we could say with certainty that social anxiety and low social acceptance, especially during the adolescence, are connected and entangled with each other in a vicious circle.

2) ***Close friendly relations:*** In addition to peer acceptance, the close friendly relations during adolescence are also associated with social anxiety (Van Zalk & Van Zalk, 2014). Creating a close interpersonal relationship between two adolescents plays a very important role in the acquisition and development of social skills, which are associated with peers' acceptance and social anxiety. Close friendships with peers are a critical aspect of adolescents' interpersonal and social functioning, they become increasingly important until the late adolescence, they serve a variety of important developmental functions, such as: providing deep intimacy, companionship and emotional support, and also, they are a means of expressing emotions but also resolving conflicts (Berndt, 1982).

Still, deep and close friendly relations offer to adolescents support and emotional security and therefore, can act protectively against social anxiety (Schneider & Tessier, 2007). According to Erath et al., (2010), in close friendly relations the young people do not feel that they can be evaluated negatively or ridiculed by their friends. The same researchers also note that close friendly relations not only provide a protective framework against social anxiety, but they can offer to socially anxious adolescents, all the benefits they lose from other kind of friendships, which they are reluctant to develop due to the social anxiety that they are experiencing.

Greco and Morris (2005), as well as many other researchers, have concluded that the factor that is important for the protection of adolescents from social anxiety, is the quality of friendly relations and not their quantity. Still, social phobia, which is an extreme form of social anxiety, is

SOCIAL ANXIETY AND INTERNET IN ADOLESCENCE: THE ROLE OF SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS FOR THE ADOLESCENT

related to the quality of friendship (Rodebaugh, 2009), and according to La Greca and Harrison (2005), the quality of stable and close friendly relationships is linked to social adjustment and low levels of social anxiety in adolescence. Finally, it has been found by Beidel and Turner (2007) that young people who experience social anxiety to a large extent, report that they have poor quality friendships. Therefore, it could be said as a conclusion that social anxiety is inversely proportional to quality interpersonal relationships, that is, with the close, stable and lasting friendships over time.

3) ***Erotic/romantic relationships:*** In addition to close friendly relations, romantic/erotic relationships that begin to develop during adolescence are equally important. Collins (2003) argues that erotic relations between adolescents play a key role in the development of their social adjustment and functioning, their sense of ‘belonging’ and therefore, the position they have in their companies and groups. Some researchers have found that many teens feel neglected by their close friends when the latter begin dating and spending time with their sexual partners (Roth & Parker, 2001); and as already reported neglect by friends is a powerful predictor of the development of social anxiety.

According to Laursen and Williams (1997), the young people feel, in a love affair, similar or more intense feelings of support, intimacy and companionship as in a close friendship. And for this reason, a stable romantic relationship can also act as a protective factor against social anxiety. It has also been found that the adolescents who fail to get out on a romantic appointment or do not have a sexual partner, have significantly higher levels of social anxiety than others (La Greca & Harrison, 2005).

Adolescents and Internet: A Love-Hate Relationship

Causes and factors of adolescents’ internet addiction

Internet use is one of the most popular recreational activities, especially among adolescents in developed western societies, and in recent years both the number of adolescent users and the amount of time they have been online for any activity have increased exponentially (van den Eijnden et al., 2010). Adolescents are generally particularly vulnerable and much more prone than adults to excessive internet use, resulting they are at a higher risk of addiction (Mossbarger, 2008). And enough adolescents, especially those who have few social interactions and a degraded social life, try to develop their

personal identity through the internet, as there they can easily and often experiment (Ferraro et al., 2007).

Research has shown that there are many factors associated with adolescent internet addiction, but one of the most important predictors is poor interpersonal relationships between adolescents, as well as the bad relationships between parents and children (Liu & Kuo, 2007). Some research even suggest that boys are more prone to internet addiction than girls (Lam et al., 2009), while some others do not distinguish significant gender-related differences (Andreou & Svoli, 2012). Finally, there are several psychopathological factors that seem to be related to internet addiction, such as introversion, depression & anxiety (Selfhout, et al., 2009). Finally, it was observed that adolescents with low levels of self-esteem spend much more time online, as a result of which they are more prone to addiction.

Effects on adolescents from internet addiction

It has been found that excessive use of internet by adolescents creates addiction, the effects of which are many and create significant problems in daily functioning, interpersonal and family relationships, as well as in the mental well-being of adolescents (Anderson, 2001). Many times, schoolwork is neglected by them and inconsistency in schoolwork can obviously lead to poor attendance and school failure (Leung & Lee, 2012). Still, the friendly and family relationships of adolescents are disrupted to a great extent so that various problems are created that gradually damage the quality of their interpersonal relationships. In essence, the supposedly romantic interactions that take place on social media, lead to the neglect of sexual partners, resulting in emotional alienation and conflicts with them (Young, 1996).

Continuing about the effects due to adolescents' internet addiction, several studies have found that the majority of adolescents experienced problems with proper nutrition, sleep deprivation and fatigue due to their attachment to the computer (Bener et al., 2019; Do & Lee, 2018). In general, adolescents' internet addiction is associated with various serious physical and mental illnesses, such as depression and anxiety. Even, the excessive use of the internet can contribute to social isolation, depression, limitation of healthy social relationships, resulting in the increase of the feeling of loneliness (Rebisz & Sikora, 2016).

Adolescence: Internet Addiction and Social Anxiety

Relationship between internet addiction and social anxiety

SOCIAL ANXIETY AND INTERNET IN ADOLESCENCE: THE ROLE OF SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS FOR THE ADOLESCENT

Social anxiety and internet addiction are two disorders which are mainly developed in adolescence and have several effects on the mental health, and social and emotional well-being of the individual. It is argued by many researchers that these two disorders are closely related to each other and in many studies a large percentage of comorbidity has been found, that is simultaneous occurrence of both (Bernardi & Pallanti, 2009; Bozkurt et al., 2013; Floros et al., 2014). Such a kind of comorbidity of two or more disorders, which is not strictly and scientifically defined, makes it difficult to diagnose and study each disorder separately, and much more to study the phenomenon of comorbidity. Especially, the difficulty in studying a comorbidity of mental disorders is to determine exactly to which disorder each of the observed consequences is due and to determine which of the disorders is the causative cause, and what is the result of the other (Caron & Rutter, 1991).

Many researchers who have studied internet addiction and its comorbidities have come to similar conclusions. Dong et al. (2011) report that many of the mental disorders, which manifest at the same time as the internet addiction, it is not clear whether they are the precursors or the consequence of the addiction. Morahan-Martin (2005) states that the cause-and-effect relationship, between internet addiction and other disorders, is extremely uncertain, and point out that the relationship can be reciprocal. Yücens and Üzer (2018) report that there is a clear correlation between addiction and social anxiety, but they point out that it is not clear, to what extent the social anxiety is the cause or the consequence. The above doubts have caused a wide debate in the scientific community that is, whether the abuse of the internet is the symptom of another psychological disorder or vice versa.

Caplan (2003), based on the results of a relevant research carried out by him, developed a theory according to which, the adolescents who feel lonely or depressed are more likely to choose and prefer online communication and social interaction than their peers from the corresponding face-to-face interactions. Based on this approach, several researchers presented researches, which extended the above behavior on the part of adolescents, and to those who presenting social anxiety. According to these researches, socially anxious adolescents much more prefer computer communication and internet interactions, because there, due to the anonymity that exists, they do not feel the fear of negative evaluation or negative comments from others (Lam et al., 2009; Prizant-Passal et al., 2016). Caplan (2007) and Bernal-Ruiz et al., (2017) emphasize that social anxiety is perhaps the main predictor for the problematic internet use and the development of a corresponding addiction.

In addition, Feng et al., (2019) argue that social anxiety is between the general anxiety and the stress regarding internet addiction. More specifically, they report that the pressure of everyday life and the stressful situations that adolescents experience, can force them to spend a lot of time on the internet,

thus developing an analogous addiction, or they may be the cause of social anxiety which in turn leads to internet addiction. Finally, Tas (2019) states that social anxiety in adolescence can lead directly to internet addiction or can reduce the mental resilience to stressful situations/events and psychological support from friends, thus contributing to the development of addiction.

On the other hand, there are many researchers who argue that social anxiety seems to be an impact of internet addiction despite the cause that causes it. It has been confirmed that adolescents with high levels of social anxiety spend the time that are connecting to internet, mainly in web navigation rather than on social media (Weinstein et al., 2015; Yayan et al., 2016). Given the above, it may not be entirely true to claim that socially anxious adolescents are connecting to internet because they feel safe in remote computer interactions and have no fear of being negatively evaluated. In contrast, many adolescents reported that when they are connected to social media such as Facebook, they feel compared to their peers and this sensation causes to them strong feelings of concern (Calancie et al., 2017).

It seems therefore that for adolescents, the frequent connection to social media tends to create social anxiety or to reinforce it in cases where this pre-exists. Indeed, the anonymity of the internet helps many adolescents to present a different image of themselves as they seek to impress their peers, but this fact endangers their peace of mind and social well-being and also, creates social anxiety in the long run, because they know that, at some point, they may meet live with their online friends (Harman et al., 2005).

Finally, Dong et al. (2011) state that social anxiety is clearly the result of internet addiction. In their relevant research, they studied for a long time a group of adolescents, several of whom at some point showed addictive behavior towards the internet, and found that the levels of social anxiety were very high after their addiction, while before their involvement with the internet they were lower even from normal levels. It is possible therefore, social anxiety has been developed in these adolescents due to the forced use of the internet.

In conclusion, it can be argued that there seems to be a strong, positive correlation between social anxiety and internet addiction (Seifi et al., 2014; Yücens & Üzer, 2018). Despite all these, while this relationship has been confirmed by the most scientific research conducted in recent years, cannot be ascertained with the same scientific certainty, which of the above two disorders is the cause and which is the consequence (Morahan-Martin, 2005).

Interpersonal relationships between adolescents and their role

SOCIAL ANXIETY AND INTERNET IN ADOLESCENCE: THE ROLE OF SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS FOR THE ADOLESCENT

As discussed above, interpersonal relationships between adolescents are closely linked to social anxiety. Problematic or incomplete close friendly and romantic relations constitute one of the predictors for developing of social anxiety, while on the contrary, healthy and honest interpersonal relationships can act protectively against the onset of social anxiety (Erath et al., 2010; La Greca & Harrison, 2005). From the moment that relationships between peers, play an important role in the development or enhancement of social anxiety, which in turn is closely linked to internet addiction, is obvious the importance of interpersonal relationships and in this disorder (Prizant- Passal et al., 2016).

Adolescents addicted to the internet spend most or all of their free time in cyber activities, thus neglecting social interactions with family and friends, thus disrupting their relationships with them (Seo et al., 2009). Therefore, a first finding is that internet addiction tends to negatively affect adolescents' interpersonal relationships. On the other hand, if friendships are strong and of good quality, they can work to reduce addiction. Indeed, according to Liu and Kuo (2007), internet addiction is the result of social anxiety in adolescents, which, as they claim, can be overcome or reduced if the adolescent who experiences it develops proper and healthy friendships. Therefore, the good interpersonal relationships can also work effectively in order to reduce internet addiction.

According to another approach, adolescents, in addition to other causes such as loneliness or social anxiety, turn to the internet and especially to social media in order to satisfy their innate need to seek and make new friends (Smahel et al., 2012). Young people know that the internet, with its capabilities, makes it easier for them to search for new relationships and so they use it as a tool to make more friends (Subrahmanyam et al., 2006). In addition, those adolescents who are extroverted and have increased social skills, thus enjoying a high quality of friendly and interpersonal relationships as well as social recognition, feel that the internet will facilitate their social network expansion and personal satisfaction (Selfhout et al., 2009). Internet, with the possibilities it offers, can play an important role in maintaining and supporting social contacts (Mazalin & Moore, 2004).

From the above mentioned can be ascertained the possible correlation between internet addiction and interpersonal relationships between adolescents, while the conclusions from various studies have revealed that the effects between these variables are reciprocal. The presence and quality of interpersonal relationships determine how the internet is used, and consequently the effects or benefits on the adolescent user.

Conclusions

From all the aforementioned it could be said with certainty that a large percentage of adolescents in various countries show two serious psychosocial disorders, social anxiety and internet addiction that sometimes are presented both together but usually separately, and have significant effects on the daily life and mental health of the adolescent. These two disorders are related to each other, with the result that the person experiencing them, finds it more difficult to control them. On the contrary, friendships that develop during adolescence seem to help alleviate social anxiety and consequently internet addiction.

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Theoretical article

THE EFFECT OF MUSIC AS A THERAPEUTIC TOOL ON THE PSYCHOLOGY OF PATIENTS IN THE FIELD OF HEALTH

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Abstract

In the present paper, an attempt is made to highlight through past studies the effect of music as a therapeutic tool on the psychology of patients in health settings. First, the term of music therapy is analysed, as well as its historical background. Then the relaxing and relieving effect from music therapy for patients with chronic and serious diseases is presented. Next, we talk about the effect of music on the psychology of patients in a health institution and whether it contributes to the evolution of the patient's course, as studies have clarified the direct relationship of music to stress reduction and diminishing the negative emotions that are quite reasonable to experience during their stay in a medical institution. In addition, the cases of patients who have calmed down psychologically and emotionally in the face of a serious and chronic disease and have managed to eliminate it or treat it over time much more painlessly are reported through research. Finally, the conclusions demonstrate the need for the alternative method of music therapy used worldwide and it is useful to consolidate and further establish it.

Key words: medical spaces, music, music therapy, patients, psychology

The concept of music therapy

First, in order to understand the approach of music as a therapeutic tool to patients in health settings, it is necessary to clarify this concept in scientific and acceptable terms. Music therapy is a systematic and reflexive process of intervention wherein the therapist helps the client to improve, optimize and promote the client's health, using various facets of music experience that form some relationships causing change (Bruscia, 1989; Bruscia, 1998; Dimitriadis, 2018). Music therapy is also defined as the intentional use of music or musical elements in order to achieve some therapeutic goals: rehabilitation, support and intervention in mental and physical health (Kartasidou, 2004). Music therapy

is a part of sound therapy and sound therapy uses music and other sounds (auditory and vibratory inputs) to promote well-being, stress relief, relaxation and distraction, to influence a person's physiological and/or psychological state (Anderson, 2008; Makris & Makri, 2009). Music as a therapeutic tool is a scientific clinical method used by specialized staff in patients mainly with psychiatric, emotional, personality, cardiac and oncological problems and in which the therapist comes into contact with the patient through sounds (sound therapy) and music (music therapy) aiming at maintenance or recovery of the client's mental health (Papanikolaou, 2011).

In particular, music as a therapeutic tool for patients has been applied since antiquity (Polychroniadou, 2003), for example by Theophrastus who considered that with the use of the flute it was possible to deal with epilepsy (cited in Burney, 1789) or in ancient Egypt from 1500 B.C. the positive effect of music on blood pressure was confirmed (Antonakakis, 2001).

Music and its psychological effects on the individual

Music affects the individual in various ways because of its characteristics. More specifically, the tempo, the melody, the rhythm, the harmony and the music volume create deep emotions in the person (Gabrielsson & Lindström, 2001; Juslin & Sloboda, 2001). In particular, music under certain conditions has the ability to provoke various emotions in the individual, music manifests whatever emotions the individual has (Gabrielsson & Lindström, 2001). However, music can create such emotions that are caused by what the individual considers tasteful in music and those that are produced by the music itself (Juslin & Sloboda, 2001). The basic emotions such as joy, fear, sadness, etc. are universally recognized in vocal and musical expression, while perceiving complex emotions is more cross-culturally varying and more dependent on the social context and the individual listener (Juslin, 2013).

Music stimulation can change the inputs in sensory and motor parts of the brain, which results in the following changes in the individual's behavior, as McClellan (1991) points out below:

1. Visual and acoustic impressions of movement and sound.
2. Visual impressions of colors.
3. Physical movement such as rocking, spinning, bouncing.
4. Unusual insights or associations.
5. Increased breathing rate, fast heart rate, intense sweating, etc.

THE EFFECT OF MUSIC AS A THERAPEUTIC TOOL

Music and patients

A fairly satisfactory number of studies have demonstrated the positive effect of music on patients as a muscle relaxant during their stay in health facilities and more specifically the reduced degree of stress in patients during the required procedures and examinations. In particular, it has been found that relaxing music calms the person after a stressor (Khalifa et al., 2003).

The patients who listen to music are better able to get rid of a fairly good percentage of chronic pain, such as arthritis and back pain (eMedExpert, 2017; How music affects us and promotes health, n.d.). Slow music diminished heart rates and blood pressure, as well as it helps expectant mothers to give birth with fewer painkillers, as they were much calmer (eMedExpert, 2017; How music affects us and promotes health, n.d.). Listening to favourite music and classic music facilitates recovery after stroke (eMedExpert, 2017). Music that includes lyrics, melody and rhythm has helped in oncology clinical patients, resulting in calmer patients and higher quality of care (Kwekkeboom et al., 2008; Lin et al., 2011). Music therapy, as a painless and cost-effective treatment for cancer patients, has the potential to alleviate the patient's pain, fatigue and stress, as it can distract them from stressful situations and negative emotions, during of their treatment and later (Athanasakis & Karavassiliadou, 2012). Music may be used in palliative care to help mitigate suffering (Magill, 2009). Using music therapy in patients with chronic and severe problems relieved and calmed them, increased their pain control, physical comfort and relaxation (Krout, 2001). Music therapy eased communication between terminally ill patients and their families (Krout, 2003). However, music therapy in patients with burns did not contribute to reduction in their anxiety and pain (Ferguson & Voll, 2004).

Conclusions

For the progress and the psychological support and empowerment of the patient, it is useful to use other alternative methods that will focus mainly on his/her psychology.

Music therapy is a necessary method for medicine today (Etkin, 2010). Therapists interested in specializing in music therapy have the opportunity to study it only in specific countries abroad in private schools through seminars or accelerated studies with an official representative of this treatment the European Music Therapy Confederation (EMTC) (Papanikolaou, 2011).

In summary, music as a therapeutic tool in the field of Medicine is a necessary, alternative, and innovative method for the patient and especially for patients with serious and chronic diseases. In addition to any pathological and physical problem a patient may face in order to be better treated, a

prerequisite is his/her mental strengthening during examinations and treatment or surgery, but also later in life. The more calm, emotionally stable and focused the person is, the faster they will recover. The psychological factor is directly related to physical and pathological problems, which is why several times a condition arises from the stress, and poor psychological state of the person, which intensifies during the stay of the person in medical facilities and affects the chance of his/her progress. Music therapy is a method that the history of mankind has shown to have been used for a long time with great success for the patient, so it is necessary to develop and practice it in today's world where people with psychosomatic problems are increasing in number and, mainly due to the pandemic in recent years, the stress has increased and it is necessary to use music therapy to rest the person mentally.

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Theoretical article

THE NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES OF THE PANDEMIC AND THE STRESS CREATED ON TEACHERS

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Abstract

This article presents literature review of some conducted studies and theoretical assumptions about the pandemic period creating stress in teachers. Within a short period of time all the teachers in the world had to adapt to the new conditions and to differentiate their lessons so that the distance education could take place through an electronic classroom. The pandemic has had a negative effect on teachers increasing the levels of stress. The reasons for and the consequences of teachers' stress during the period of the pandemic are analyzed.

Key words: anxiety, distance education, e-learning, pandemic, stress, teachers

In a short time, millions of members of the educational community have started teaching in front of a computer screen while students have to stay home and watch lessons online. Worldwide, as of March 13, 2020, the schools in different parts of world were closed (Teachonline.Ca, 2020; UNESCO, 2020). This brought about a massive change in the way all the courses moved to the internet in a matter of days. Transferring face-to-face education to a digital environment has been and continues to be one of the most serious challenges for teachers and students. The digital classrooms, especially in the first wave of the pandemic, were formed in a very short time and the teachers did not have the required knowledge so it was used in a more pilot way. Most members of the educational community have faced the challenges of lack of online teaching experience, or support from educational technology teams (UNESCO, 2020; Wei, 2020). From the second wave of the pandemic onwards, the teachers became more familiar with the digital classrooms and managed to organize their lessons in a digital environment (Tsichouridis et al., 2021).

The services of each state cooperate with international organizations and private companies in order to provide all students with distance education and to ensure for all the continuation of study and learning based on curricula (Reimers et al., 2020). There are many concerns about equality in education, inclusion and the need to ensure that the design and delivery of distance education does not exacerbate existing educational and social inequalities (Miller, 2020).

The design of integrated distance learning strategies should be guided by long-term goals. In addition to responding to the pandemic period, efforts to develop distance education at all levels of education provide valuable lessons and thus can end student exclusion (UNESCO, 2020; Winthrop, 2020).

This new educational situation was not easy for either the students or the teachers. Teachers around the world have come under increasing pressure due to the new conditions created by distance learning. On the one hand, the sudden transition to an unknown situation and on the other hand the inability to handle new technologies were key factors that trigger their stress (Zaidi et al., 2020). Also, the reluctance of many teachers to use the available digital applications to carry out the lesson in a new environment was another factor that inflates the stress experienced by teachers (Klapproth et al., 2020).

At this point it is very important to mention that the pandemic of Covid-19 disease and the measures related to distance learning aimed at limiting its transmissibility have also affected students of all ages. In particular, the students seem to have faced various problems of a mental and emotional nature as they experienced increased levels of stress, intense loneliness and isolation, and in many cases adopted behaviors that were harmful to their health (Klapproth et al., 2020). Also, several students experienced some behavioral and communication problems, anxiety and sleep disorders due to stress because of pandemic and the measures related to separation, isolation, lockdown, and quarantine (Schwartz et al., 2021).

Transition to e-learning as a source of teachers' stress

In the spring of 2020, the Ministry of Education and Religions in Greece, in order to respond to the suspension of face-to-face teaching, issued some instructions for a direct transition to distance learning in all educational structures, in order to maintain the contact between teachers and students in learning process (Greek Ministry of Education & Religions, 2020). In just two - three weeks, the digital transition was complete and more than 100,000 digital classrooms were already operational, and a number of ministerial decisions were issued to provide legal support for the new educational conditions (Greek Ministry of Education & Religions, 2020). The teachers had to respond immediately to the new teaching

THE NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES OF THE PANDEMIC AND THE STRESS CREATED ON TEACHERS

conditions of distance education and e-learning, which for many of them were unknown until then, so they had some difficulties (Huang et al., 2020). These mainly concerned issues with internet connection, finding suitable online teaching materials, good digital skills for operating computers as well as general skills of teachers related to distance learning, such as adaptability, autonomy, self-regulation, motivation and communication skills (Huang et al., 2020). On the one hand, the fight against the disease and the strict isolation measures that have profound psychological consequences for everyone (anxiety, depression, fear for oneself and loved ones, inactivity) and on the other hand, new practices and procedures in education become stressors (Lifelong Learning Platform, 2020).

According to the literature (Spyromitros & Iordanidis, 2017), the main sources of teacher stress are usually outside the classroom, without excluding the possibility of locating the source within the classroom or for reasons related to the operation of the organization. Each teacher experiences stress differently, because of different sources of stress, different situational and personality peculiarities (Spyromitros & Iordanidis, 2017). This means that "in a similar context of work conditions, the sources of stress experienced by each teacher are likely to be different and come from any type of stressors related to their profession" (Spyromitros & Iordanidis, 2017, p.168). It is therefore expected that the threat due to the pandemic combined with the simultaneous stressful conditions for teachers will provoke anxiety and insecurity (World Health Organization, 2020). In other words, it is a sudden change that creates stress in education as some new learning practices must be found that are related to the internet and there must be an ease in communicating with students (Karalis, 2020).

Sources and levels of teachers' stress in the period of the pandemic

Teachers' work stress is not a new finding, since as early as in 1983 Golembiewski et al. established that the teaching profession was associated with high levels of stress. Recent research has recorded a fairly high percentage of stress in teachers of all grades with the result that stress is increasing more and more (Kountouras et al., 2018).

The impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on teachers' mental health is a research concern of the scientific community. Some studies have been carried out to investigate the levels of stress experienced by teachers due to the new conditions that have been created. Santamaria et al. (2021) attempted to assess the impact of the pandemic and the measures taken on teachers' mental health. Their research involved a total of 1633 teachers working in various educational units in Northern Spain. The results of the research showed that teachers were mentally tired due to the conditions caused by the pandemic and their efforts to

deal with it (Santamaria et al., 2021). In particular, the teachers showed high levels of stress which were more pronounced in women who had increased responsibilities at home (Santamaria et al., 2021).

One of the few Greek studies that has been carried out with the aim of investigating the pandemic in the mental health of teachers is the research by Stachteas and Stachteas (2020). A total of 226 teachers working in schools with students of all grades took part in this research. The processing of the collected answers revealed that the pandemic of Covid-19 disease and the new conditions prevailing in the field of education had negatively affected the teachers' mental health. Typically, one in three teachers had very high levels of stress related to the educational process but also stress related to the risk to which they were exposed due to the contact with a large number of students (Stachteas & Stachteas, 2020).

Another important research was conducted by Wakui et al. (2021) on 263 teachers working in schools in Japan. In particular, an attempt was made to investigate whether teachers felt anxious when returning to the classroom after long periods of distance learning. The results of the research showed that teachers were particularly anxious mainly due to their fear of not getting sick and transmitting the disease to their family (Wakui et al., 2021). However, they also felt anxious about the educational process and the quality of the work they produced due to the unprecedented conditions caused by the pandemic and the restrictive measures (Wakui et al., 2021). Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al. (2021) attempted to investigate whether teachers experienced anxiety and stress during the pandemic. The answers of 1,633 teachers working in educational units of all levels in Spain revealed the existence of high levels of stress that affected both personally and professionally the teachers' work. Also, through the same research it became clear that stress levels were significantly higher in female teachers and older teachers (Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al., 2021). On the other hand, the male and younger teachers did not experience as much stress as a result of the new conditions that had been created (Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al., 2021).

Stress and anxiety in teachers are associated with the students' academic and cognitive progress, the effectiveness and application of the teaching techniques and aids, the relationships between the instructor and the employer (Tsimpoukli, 2018), the perceived time pressure (Maas et al., 2021), workload (Jomuad et al., 2021) and uncertain work future (Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al., 2021). The dimensions and sources of teachers' stress today, when the educational crisis due to the pandemic is huge, are increasing. The main sources of teachers' stress, insecurity and depression are the COVID-19 isolation measures that caused alienation, sadness and fear, as well as the continuous changes in the educational process and deadlines which in turn caused insecurity, fear and anxiety (Domata, 2021), besides the necessity for the teacher to cope with teaching through new technological applications (Tsimpoukli, 2018).

THE NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES OF THE PANDEMIC AND THE STRESS CREATED ON TEACHERS

In conclusion, all the above research shows that the pandemic of Covid-19 disease as well as the conditions caused by the restrictive measures that have been implemented have had a negative impact on the mental health of teachers in various countries around the world, ultimately leading to rising levels of anxiety they feel.

Conclusions

During the period of the pandemic, stress in teachers may cause more negative psychological symptoms and higher sick-leave rates due to these symptoms (Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al., 2021). The COVID-19 pandemic has adversely affected human health, and has led to social, psychological, economic, and educational changes worldwide (Di Carlo & al., 2021; Minkos & Gelbar, 2021). Among these changes, an important part concerned education and in particular the closure of schools and universities which was implemented to help maintain social distance and slow down the spread of the virus (Van Lancker & Rarolin, 2020; Viner et al., 2020).

Initially, an important factor that caused the negative consequences for teachers was the sudden transition from face-to-face to virtual teaching, also known as emergency e-learning. Pandemic e-learning differs greatly from the deliberate and well-designed online teaching. Pandemic e-learning has been perceived as an abrupt and unplanned change in learning contexts that has not been chosen by either learners or teachers (Moser et al., 2021). Furthermore, in this context, the organization and didactic planning to transfer teaching contents into an online environment while maintaining their relevance has been a great challenge for teachers of all academic levels as they were unprepared (Khalili, H., 2020; Popa et al., 2020).

Likewise, the emergency e-learning has also provoked changes in teachers' workload (Palau et al. 2021), as preparing a teacher for an e-learning course/class devotes considerable time to his/her personal leisure time. All these changes have affected the teachers' motivation decreasing task identity (doing a task from beginning to end with a visible outcome), decreasing task significance, decreasing autonomy in scheduling the work, decreasing social interactions, but increasing skill variety (Kulikowski et al., 2022). Thus, some of the school-centered studies conducted during school closures and lockdowns suggest that this crisis has caused symptoms such as anxiety or depression in teachers, in addition to increased rates of divorce and domestic violence, which may limit their ability to teach adequately (Al Lily et al., 2020).

Furthermore, teachers, especially in primary education, are largely female. Consequently, there is a high number of female teachers who, during the lockdown period, had to take on the burden of caring responsibilities (children, elderly people, etc.) at home and combine these with their profession (Ramos,

2021). Therefore, female teachers may have had more stress, anxiety, and depression than male teachers in the context of the pandemic (Li et al. 2020; Stachteas & Stachteas, 2020).

Besides, re-opening of schools and return to classes did not eliminate the psychological symptomatology among teachers, on the contrary, it kept it at quite high levels (Besser et al., 2020; Wakui et al., 2021). Re-opening of schools itself, amidst great uncertainty and controversy in many countries over the pandemic's development, was a stressful time for many teachers (Kim et al., 2021; Ozamiz-Etxebarria et. al., 2021) as the teachers may feel stressed by the threat of getting infected, deteriorating some of their skills, and dissatisfaction with their students' knowledge and skills (Beteille et al., 2020).

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THE NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES OF THE PANDEMIC AND THE STRESS CREATED ON TEACHERS

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THE NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES OF THE PANDEMIC AND THE STRESS CREATED ON TEACHERS

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Theoretical article

WHAT ABOUT TEACHER'S E-READINESS?

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Abstract

The transition from face-to-face to online teaching requires a number of organizational adjustments and teaching skills. For teachers to become competent online educators, it is necessary to have a high degree of understanding concerning e-learning and distance learning. Particularly important for the effective implementation of online teaching and learning is the factor of teacher's E-Readiness. The purpose of this study is to investigate the necessary factors of teacher's Readiness for Online Teaching, and the factors that influence their digital skills and attitudes.

Key words: distance education, e-learning, online teaching, teacher's e-readiness.

According to Oxford Dictionary Online, readiness is defined as the complete preparation of an individual for action or experience. Respectively, Borotis & Poulymenakou (2004) determine e-Learning readiness as the physical and/or mental preparation of an individual or organization for the e-teaching experience or action. The introduction and implementation of e-readiness can facilitate a school organization in designing its e-learning strategies to effectively achieve the goals of Information Communication (Kaur & Abas, 2004; Penna & Stara, 2008).

One of the main reasons for the failure of e-learning is because teachers, instead of trying to develop new pedagogical techniques and methodologies that could maximize the use of new technologies, prefer to integrate the dominant teaching styles of the classroom into the latest technological means (Ncube et al., 2014).

The purpose of this review is to define the concept of teacher's e-readiness and its vital role in the effective implementation of online teaching. In addition, the need for the evaluation of teacher's e-readiness and the main factors that affect teachers' skills during its implementation are studied.

Assessment of teacher's e-readiness

Many researchers have used the assessment of e-readiness by a school organization to determine the starting point before the implementation of e-learning (Fazelian & Azimi, 2013). Darab and Montazer (2010), in their research on the assessment of the electronic readiness of Iranian universities, proceeded to development of a new framework of nine elements regarding management, policy, network, equipment, security, culture, human resources, financial, regulations, content, and standards. Their research showed that the most important indicators of the implementation of e-learning systems were related to 'laws and regulations and 'management.'

Adair (edited by Shattuck, 2014) argues that faculty readiness, including teacher behavior, training, and attitudes, is one of the most important factors influencing student online learning experience. Preparing faculty members in the transition from formal and conventional education to online learning environments is vital, as their readiness acts as the main driving force for connecting the members of the school organizations with the students to achieve shared learning objectives. That is why the participation of teachers in the planning the implementation of schools' online education plans should be encouraged and promoted (Phan & Dang, 2017).

In recent literature reviews of Rohayani et al. (2015) regarding the factors that affect the electronic readiness of teachers, their skills and abilities emerged as the most critical factors. Similar studies on the relationship between the attitudes of university teachers and students in the adoption of e-learning systems (Ong et al, 2004) showed the existence of positive correlations between them.

For teachers to become competent online educators, it is necessary to have a competent degree of understanding concerning e-learning and distance learning. Especially for distance education, some of the suggested best pedagogical practices concern (Phan & Dang, 2017): "*Induction*," "*Building of learning communities*," "*Construction of support networks for students and lecturers*," "*Development of adequate security practices*," "*Thorough planning*," "*Communication between lecturers and students*," "*Student-student interactions*," "*Respect of student diversity about learning styles*," "*Activities that ensure high levels of time on task*," "*Feedback*," and "*Maintenance of high expectations*."

WHAT ABOUT TEACHER'S E-READINESS?

From the above pedagogical practices, induction has a significant role as it refers to the assurance provided by the technological ability of students for their successful introduction to the online learning environment (Phan & Dang, 2017).

Factors affecting teacher's e-readiness

Although the literature indicates the existence of many surveys regarding the investigation of e-readiness in educational institutions, research focusing on the e-readiness of teachers is relatively limited (Phan & Dang, 2017).

Phans and Dangs' (2017) critical literature review regarding the factors that affect the e-readiness of secondary and university teachers concluded by creating a Conceptual Framework for Teacher E-readiness. According to this framework, the main factors influencing the electronic readiness of teacher's concern: *attitude, technology competency, pedagogy, training, and time constraints* (Figure 10).

Attitudes

Attitudes, or "lifestyle readiness" of teachers, refer to satisfaction, resistance to change, expertise, organizational culture, administrative instructions, and the rules of an online environment (Mills & Gay, 2016). According to research data, teachers' attitudes or lifestyles are one of the primary and critical factors influencing their online readiness. (Phan & Dang, 2017). Although e-learning can assist educational institutions in advancing their academic goals, teachers' attitudes towards e-learning can affect their success (Ncube et al., 2014).

Technology Competence

Technical skills refer to teachers' technological skills and abilities for the essential operation of computers. They are related to the use of the Internet technological issues, such as web search, teleconferencing, and various learning management systems (Phan & Dang, 2017). According to Holsapple and Lee-Post (2006, as cited in Mills & Gay, 2016), Teachers' technical skills are the ability to "*access the Internet and network exclusively, and their ability to use basic software tools*" (p. 38). Research shows that teachers' technical skills have a substantial impact on their electronic readiness as they become more familiar with ICT (such as computers, the internet,

Pedagogy and Methodology

Electronic teaching pedagogy has emerged as one of the most important factors influencing the electronic readiness of teachers. The concept of "pedagogical knowledge" refers to the ability of teachers to design appropriate e-learning experiences, the suitable choice of e-learning tools and teaching methods, as well as to manage group online discussions and interactions (Eslaminejad et al., 2010).

Methodology issues also pose a significant challenge to e-teacher readiness and e-learning success. The issues of design, delivery, and pedagogy challenges, in particular, have been recognized by researchers as vital to the success of e-learning, as traditional teaching methods cannot be introduced and operate in an e-learning environment. For e-learning to become like an activity-based conventional classroom, it requires educators to extensively use various teaching methods (such as problem-based learning, project-based learning, inquiry-based learning, scenario-based learning, etc.) (Phan & Dang, 2017).

Training programs

One of the most critical missions of educational institutions is to support teachers in using and applying innovative technological tools for the effectiveness of their teaching. Therefore, it is necessary to implement teacher training programs to support the development of their e-preparedness. Such programs should be continuous and cover all the different aspects of online teaching methods, including technical skills, online teaching methodology, pedagogy, online educational content, etc. (Eslaminejad et al., 2010; Ncube et al., 2014; Saekow&Samson, 2011).

Time

Time constraints seem to be another factor influencing teachers' e-readiness. However, in most studies, this factor is not expressed much compared to the aspects of attitudes, pedagogy and methodology, technology competence, and training. In many cases, teachers report that they are too busy with their classroom and administrative work to devote sufficient time to their electronic readiness (Koo, 2008). As a result, the time constraint factor can be an obstacle for educational institutions in their efforts to adopt online and distance learning practices.

Conclusion

In order for educational organizations to achieve effective online education, they need to ensure the e-readiness of their teachers. For teachers to become competent online educators, it is necessary to

WHAT ABOUT TEACHER'S E-READINESS?

have a competent degree of understanding concerning e-learning and distance learning. Therefore, in the transition from traditional to online teaching, it is necessary to know how to change the pedagogical pedagogy for a smooth transition from conventional classrooms to online learning environments.

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Theoretical article

SELF-ESTEEM IN ADOLESCENTS: FACTORS AFFECTING SELF-ESTEEM AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-ESTEEM AND BODY IMAGE

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Abstract

One of the main pillars of the adolescent's emotional intelligence is the self-esteem. The realistic and positive way with which he/she evaluates the characteristics of him/herself, plays a very important role in many aspects of his/her later life. The positive self-esteem has been found to be associated with better adolescent's performance in school and later in the workplace, while also shielding him/her against various mental disorders. Thus, it is considered increasingly critical that the family and education to aim not only on the cognitive development of children and adolescents, but also, on cultivating of a better relationship between them and themselves. It is clear that the self-esteem is not an innate trait of the adolescent, which arises from his/her birth and remains constant and non-negotiable throughout his/her evolution. On the contrary it appears, evolves, is shaped and modified by the quality of the experiences he/she has inside from his/her interaction with cultural, social, family and other interpersonal factors. It is a process of comparison, which contains differences, similarities or incompatibilities. Of course, a necessary condition for the formation of the adolescent's self-esteem is that he/she understands the cognitive side of him/herself, in order subsequently to proceed to its evaluation. The main factor that shapes an adolescent's self-esteem is usually his/her family environment, since the experiences of his/her childhood are able to guide him/her to a great extent. There are of course other factors, individual or environmental of the adolescent, which can contribute to the formation of his/her self-esteem.

Key words: Self-esteem, adolescent, body image, self-esteem factors.

This article focuses on adolescent's self-esteem, and secondarily investigates the relationship between self-esteem and adolescent body image. As is well known, adolescence refers to a defining period in a person's life, during which the search for his/her identity takes place, the quality of which significantly determines the psychosocial development of the individual. In this quest, adolescents are

quite vulnerable and often exhibit bipolar behaviors. On the one hand they need guidance and on the other, they want to be alone in order to discover themselves. And the manipulations, of both parents and teachers, are crucial for shaping the self-esteem. According to Papanis

The importance of approaching the concept of 'self-esteem' in relation to critical adolescence is obvious. The completion of the formation of the adolescent's personality, the definition of his/her identity, his/her full socialization, 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 the positive or negative formation of self-esteem. (Papanis, 2011, p. 198).

The general and most important conclusions from the above researcher's study are the following:

- The overall self-esteem of boys is higher than that of girls (Papanis, 2011, pp. 233-244),
- Social stereotypes and roles seem to be the common regulator of the size of adolescents' self-esteem,
- The feeder of self-esteem seems to be the family and its carrier, the adolescent him/herself (Papanis, 2011, p. 226),
- Adolescents' self-esteem appears to be generally lower than that of adults (Papanis, 2011, p. 226).

In her research, Makri-Mpotsari (2000) argues that the findings of the international literature converge that the two basic aspects of the concept of 'self', that is self-esteem and self-perception, have a positive relationship with the various forms of social support offered to the individual, through the following four different groups: parents, classmates, teachers and close friends and the groups which constitute the most main categories of important 'others' for students of the late adolescence (16-18 years).

According to the results of the above research, have been found the following important conclusions:

- Students who feel that they have a positive appreciation for their parents, think that they do better in school and also, have a better appearance and behavior,
- Peer support seems to be statistically more important for adolescents' relationships with peers, their physical appearance, and their emotional-transgender relationships,
- The support of an adolescent's public image by his/her peers is expected to be more closely related to his/her self-esteem, despite from the support of the more private image, which he/she presents to family and close friends (Makri-Mpotsari, 2000, p. 108),
- The role that teachers have in the individual areas of self-perception and self-esteem is weak, thing which differs significantly from the international researches (Makri-Mpotsari, 2000, pp. 108-109).

FACTORS AFFECTING SELF-ESTEEM AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-ESTEEM AND BODY IMAGE

According to the above researches but also with others, the self-esteem varies depending on the gender and the individual sectors of self-perception, with the boys being the ones who seem to have the highest overall self-esteem. In addition the important ‘others’, who seem to determine the quality and size of self-esteem, are the parents and classmates, over teachers and close friends, but with the difference that peers are gradually predominate. However, the minimal contribution of teachers in all these processes makes an impression, a fact that raises concerns but also highlights the problems of the modern educational system. Of course, as the authors of the above researches rightly point out, their results and conclusions can in no way be generalized, since the dynamics of adolescents’ personalities are constantly changing. But these are useful enough in order to raise some concerns and mobilize the researchers for further research.

Concepts and definitions for ‘Self-esteem’

The self-esteem begins to take shape in the first weeks of a person’s life, depending on how he/she perceives the same that others respond to his/her needs. It is not measurable, until children between the ages of five and eight begin to have a clear opinion of their worth and ability in terms of their appearance, social acceptance, school ability, and their athletic and artistic skills. Growing up, the child increases his/her social contacts, experiences and expectations. He/she realizes that he/she is capable and that is where his/her self-esteem is of the highest importance, when he/she is called to face challenges, problems and life experiences. His/her degree of success depends on the belief in the value of him/herself, that is, on high self-esteem. Self-esteem, positive or negative, is not innate in the individual, but is formed through his/her experiences and interaction with his/her psychological and social environment (Vavili, 2008, p. 11-12).

The concept of self-esteem has been attributed in various ways by different researchers (Harter, 2006). According to Rosenberg (1965), the self-esteem is defined as the positive self-assessment, describing the person with a high self-esteem as a person who respects and considers him/herself worthy. However, the leading exponents of the concept of ‘self’ such as James, as it has been mentioned by Papadioti and Athanasiou (1999) and Cooley (1902), who give to the term ‘self-esteem’ a global meaning, referring to an overall attitude towards ‘self’, independent of personal judgments that concern specific aspects of life. Cooley (1902) accordingly referred to the theory of the ‘self-mirrored self’, according to which the perceptions that one considers that the others form about one’s face, form a kind of social mirror, from which one can see his/herself and to form his/her self-image. And according to

Glasser (1999), the most important aspects of self-esteem are a sense of belonging, of acceptance and ability.

Papadopoulou (2015, p. 41), in her doctoral dissertation, characterizes Stanley Coopersmith as a pioneer in the research. He stated the following about the self-esteem.

By self-esteem we refer to the intra-personal evaluation of a person, which is usually kept unchanged and expresses a belief of acceptance or disapproval. It is an internalized critique of about how much one is considered capable, important, successful, and worthy. In short, self-esteem is a personal certification of value, which is expressed by the attitudes about 'self'. It is a subjective experience, which the individual transmits to others verbally and through his/her behaviors and choices of self-esteem. (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 4-5).

We understand, therefore, that Coopersmith perceived the self-esteem as the assessment that the individual has of him/herself.

William James defined self-esteem as the quotient of a fraction, the numerator of which contains the total of the individual's successes in the specific field and the denominator the total of his/her expectations (Papanis, 2011, p. 231). He wrote: *"Our sense of worth in the world is an analogy between what we believe we are and what we do. It is the ratio of reality to our potential, a fraction, where the numerator is our pretender actions and the denominator is our successes"* (James, 1890, p. 296). For James, the self-esteem can increase or decrease based on changing expectations or the fluctuation of the realistic goals. Self-esteem increases when the individual succeeds in the areas he/she is capable of, undoing any failures and gradually reducing them. It is essentially the global view for our value as individuals (Papanis, 2011, pp. 117-118).

Reaching in more recent views, Frost and McKelvie (2005) define the self-esteem as the level of overall esteem someone has about his/herself, while according to Sedikides and Gregg (2003) an individual's self-esteem refers to the individual's perception or to subjective assessment of his/her value, self-respect and self-confidence, as well as to the extent to which the individual maintains positive or negative views about him/herself. Brown et al. (2001) distinguish three ways with which the term 'self-esteem' is used:

- The first way refers to self-esteem as a feeling of love for the self,
- The second way as a self-assessment of the abilities and characteristics, and
- The third way as a result of an event.

FACTORS AFFECTING SELF-ESTEEM AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-ESTEEM AND BODY IMAGE

Finally, common perception in the literature between Dermitzaki and Efklides (2000) - Leary, Tambor, Terdal and Downs (1995) - Marsh and O'Mara (2008) seems to be the one who perceives the concept of 'self-esteem' as the emotional-evaluative side of the individual and constitutes the global view one has of his/her value as an individual. However, although the self-esteem has been studied a lot over time, it remains difficult to be identified and also, is multidimensional (Papanis, 2011, p. 24).

The self-esteem of adolescents

Self-esteem in adolescence refers to the overall idea of 'self' and is increasingly influenced by value rather than individual abilities. The 'self' comes face to face with itself and tries various social identities, in order to determine which one best suits with its inner beliefs and perceptions. Cultural norms seem tyrannical in the eyes of adolescents, whose self-esteem is shaken if they do not conform to the commonly accepted rule. Thus, the adolescents close in on themselves, who with various defense mechanisms try to protect themselves from the surrounding pressures. The adolescent perceives as an escape his/her acceptance by a group, as it differentiates him/her from the rest, covers his/her weaknesses and multiplies his/her sense of strength. The identity of the 'Ego' is permeated, ironically, by the judgment of the others (Papanis, 2011, pp. 37-38).

Self-esteem and self-confidence are two driving forces that push the individual into life. Adolescents' self-esteem is shaped by their relationships with their parents, the way they are educated and their socio-economic level. Then we will see which are the characteristics of the adolescents with high self-esteem and also, those with low (Mantoudis, 2018).

Adolescents with high self-esteem and consequently healthy mental health are happy and satisfied with themselves, social, make friends, are active with many interests, try new things and have clear goals and vision, having clarified who they are and what they want (Mantoudis, 2018). It should be commented here that this category of adolescents concerns the minority of their population. The stimuli and demands of the modern capitalist system, as well as the pressures exerted by parents on children, in order to succeed in their life and to meet the demands of society, place a severe burden on their mental health. In addition, the promoted 'patterns' by the western culture confuse the adolescents, who are forced to choose between many identities. This is the reason why they prefer to be isolated, so that they can search for themselves.

The main features and more likely to appear are those that occur due to low self-esteem. The adolescents in this category have changeable emotions, do not feel satisfied with what they have, are

jealous and always feel wronged, are socially invisible or cling to toxic friendships, are critical, insult and comment negatively, have limited interests and avoid trying new things, are insecure and cannot make decisions, they hide feelings of inferiority and worthlessness, have no goals and are easily influenced by others, use unfair ways in order to achieve their purpose, and generally they have no sense of identity. All of the above negative characteristics are not intentionally created by the adolescent, but reflect the relationship he/she had and has with his/her parents (Mantoudis, 2018).

Parents, unwittingly, often lay the foundation for a low self-esteem for their children. When they are away from home for several hours leaving the child alone, he/she develops feelings of inferiority and feels not acceptable. When parents neglect the child, they make him/her to feel insignificant, annoying and that he does not deserve the attention, not only of his parents but of no one. Also, when parents speak badly, shout or abuse children, they cause serious trauma to their mental world and create feelings like that of low self-esteem. In addition, stress, insecurity and low self-esteem are transmitted to children, who develop similar problems which, however, are extremely more aggravating for a child than for an adult (Mantoudis, 2018). All elements of the life and character of the parent are recorded in the subconscious of the child who reacts similarly to similar situations. The quality of a child's morals and behavior starts with his/her family.

On the other hand, there are the overprotective parents and those who have strict requirements from their children. Overprotection leads to the inability of the child to take responsibility or to make important decisions. Then, strict requirements often hide strong elements of narcissism, which want the teenager 'perfect', in order to satisfy the 'Ego' of the parent. This is especially harmful for the child, as he/she is constantly compared to other children who are more capable and thus, he/she is constantly under the circumstances, since the demands that parents sometimes have are unrealistic. Often the small successes of children are not recognized, with the result that children either to give up the effort completely or to remain captive for years to the satisfaction of their parents (Mantoudis, 2018). The above results in, the adolescent and then the adult is constantly trying to earn the reward from his/her parents, doing things that do not express him/her but the needs of his/her parents. The mental and social damage of such situations unbearably affects the psychosynthesis of the individual, since he/she does not have his/her own identity.

Other categories of children who show high rates of low self-esteem are: the obese, short stature, with various strong characteristics or homosexuals, children with learning difficulties, but also children of separated families who, when experiencing the separation, feel guilty and responsible, with their self-esteem to be affected to a large extent (Mantoudis, 2018).

FACTORS AFFECTING SELF-ESTEEM AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-ESTEEM AND BODY IMAGE

Some useful tips that a teacher can give to parents are the cultivation of communication and trust, the respect of the views and personality of the child, the possibility of trial and error, so that he/she learns through his/her experiences, the discussion so that the child to discover him/herself and, perhaps the most important, the support on his/her efforts even if they do not seem so ideal (Mantoudis, 2018). It is extremely important that children, and especially the adolescents, to have the support from their parents. Only then they will be able to achieve their identity and succeed in life. However, whatever the difficulties of life and whatever the obstacles, a mentally healthy and strong person is able to face them, unlike someone whose low self-esteem sets quite mental limits.

Factors influencing the self-esteem

A person's self-esteem seems to change during his/her life and this change is not only due to age change but also to further factors. One of the factors, which has been discussed and influence the change in self-esteem is the gender. The differences that have been found to exist between men and women are small and so, the researchers do not consider the gender as a direct but as an indirect cause of it. More specifically, it is estimated that the difference in treatment between men and women in the educational and work environment affects their levels of self-esteem. In addition, nationality has been the subject of research into its effect on self-esteem, with the results showing that e.g. the African Americans and Latinos compared to Americans of European descent have higher self-esteem during adolescence and adulthood, but much lower during the third age.

In addition, studies have investigated the relationship between socioeconomic status, social relationships and life events with the change in self-esteem. According to them, people with increased socio-economic status have higher self-esteem at any age than people with low status. Also, the social relationships have been shown to affect individuals' self-esteem and that stressful life events have the potential to change an individual's self-esteem during his/her lifetime (Orth, Erol, & Luciano, 2018).

As for an adolescent's self-esteem, it can be influenced by many and variable factors, the most important of which could be: gender, age, place of residence, marital status, overall health status, profession, religion, ideology, heredity, the expectations of the adolescent him/herself but also of society, etc. (Papanis, 2011, pp.197-198).

Self-esteem, in turn, affects the above variables by creating so a re-feed circular field. The concept of 'self-fulfilling prophecy' (Papanis, 2011, p. 198) is also important, which is considered a prediction that directly or indirectly causes its realization by itself, due to a positive feedback between conviction and behavior. The phrase is attributed to the sociologist Robert Merton, who first coined the term and

systematically studied its structure and consequences. In his article of the same name written in 1948, Merton wrote:

The self-fulfilling prophecy is, at first, an erroneous definition of a situation that triggers a new behavior, which leads to the initially erroneous conception of the situation becoming a reality. This deceptive power of self-fulfilling prophecy perpetuates the dominance of error. Because in this way, the prophet cites the real course of events as a proof that he was right from the beginning. (Merton, 1948, p. 195).

In other words, a positive or a negative prophecy, strong conviction or delusion, which is considered true while it is essentially false, can affect what is happening to such an extent that people's reactions fulfill the hitherto false prophecy.

It has also been found that an adolescent's impression of his/her 'self' adequacy or inadequacy, as well as his/her inextricably linked approval or disapproval with it, contains mental, emotional, and motivating qualities. The role of 'self-esteem', especially in adolescents, is crucial in building a healthy, realistic, cohesive and consistent personality. We understand, therefore, how important the concept of 'self-esteem' is to the adolescent's mental health. If an adolescent with low self-esteem strongly believes in his/her inferiority or weaknesses, then all his/her reactions and actions will be fatally led to failure. And also, if the adolescent has as given that he/she will fail, then most likely he will fail. Therefore, the self-esteem is essentially transformed into an internal regulator of the adolescent's personality, which directs and stabilizes his behavior and also, evaluates his/her various experiences. All decisions made by the individual are, therefore, related to his/her self-esteem (Vavili, 2008, p. 14).

Some of the most important and changing factors, which have been mentioned above and which especially affect a person's self-esteem when he/she is going through adolescence, are the following:

Gender as a factor influencing adolescent's self-esteem

As already mentioned, adolescence is a period of cultural, physical and emotional issues, such as conflicts with parents, problems with the academic community, imbalances in friendships and emotional relationships, behaviors that are dangerous to health and mental complexity. Most of them seem to differ significantly between adolescent boys and girls. For example in the study of Charbonneau et al. (2009), girls were more vulnerable to the negative effects of stress compared to boys. In another comparative 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

FACTORS AFFECTING SELF-ESTEEM AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-ESTEEM AND BODY IMAGE

externalize their behavioral problems, such as aggression, antisocial behavior and crime, more than girls (Lumley et al., 2002).

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). Indeed, according to studies, boys seem to have a higher degree of self-esteem during the adolescence (Frost & McKelvie, 2004). The main reason is related to the traditional roles of both sexes, where the role of the male is associated with high self-esteem. In particular, according to Agam et al. (2015), self-confidence is a trait of men, on the contrary for girls such a characteristic is contrary to the prevailing standards that require a more moderate attitude. In essence, experiential experiences and social norms place the boys high on the pedestal of self-esteem as opposed to girls where high self-esteem is seen as a violation of traditional gender roles (Kling et al, 1999).

Self-esteem is perceived through a variety of social and psychological aspects, such as competitiveness, supportiveness, independence, empathy, socialization, the conditions of socialization, and so on. For example, in cognitive tests, girls choose easier subjects, avoid the competition, and have lower expectations than boys. Girls, on the other hand, have higher rates of socialization skills and lower rates of aggression (Vorbach, 2003). In addition, the boys emphasize the competition and choose friends based on strength and intensity.

On the contrary, girls are looking for opportunities to discover themselves while their friendships focus on issues of intimacy, love and social cohesion (Ruble et al., 2006). The emotional-compromise attitude of the girls is also seen through the study of the friendly relations between the two sexes. Teenage girls express a higher degree of support and encouragement from their best friends, compared to boys. A decoding correlation of this attitude is the fact that when concluding a friendship, girls show lower levels of negative interaction compared to boys, who, when making a friendship have a higher degree of negative interaction, with unbridled competition (De Goede et al., 2009). In general, friendships between adolescent girls are characterized by empathy, great intimacy, self-disclosure, interdependence, care and coexistence of fears and afflictions. Boys interact inside large groups of individuals-friends with an emphasis on companionship, competition, risky activities, excitement and the postponement of emotions and intimacy (Benenson et al, 2003; Galambos et al., 2004). These different emotional responses can make girls more vulnerable to depression but also to protect them from externalities, such as aggression and recklessness, in contrast to boys (Rose 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 in parallel prone to internal and external stimuli, with a particular peak during the adolescence. Undoubtedly, the roles of the two sexes seem to have a significant impact on adolescents' self-esteem and influence the way with which the adolescents choose attitudes and behaviors in different social circumstances (Agam et al., 2015).

Body weight as a factor influencing adolescent's self-esteem

A large volume of research studies has underlined the association between self-esteem and body weight. In particular, both overweight and obesity appear to be associated with low self-esteem, especially in the female population (Miller & Downey, 1999). To a large extent, this relationship is attributed in social slim standards and the pressures for a lean body, which mainly affects the women (Buote et al, 2011). Although the previous data concern the adult population, recent meta-analysis has shown that the inverse relationship between self-esteem and increased body weight is stronger in the young ages rather than in later life (Miller & Downey, 1999).

From studies to investigate the relationship between Body Mass Index (BMI) and the degree of self-esteem, the results of these studies are not so clear. In the study by Kiviruusu and colleagues (2015), a negative relationship was actually found between BMI and self-esteem for the adolescent girls in the study. Regarding adolescent boys, however, the results were not as expected. Initially, no correlation was found to be statistically significant, but the existing relationship also appeared to be positive, i.e. completely incompatible with the existing literature. Of course this study, which had a timeless-perspective design, showed higher correlations for the older ages of these women (Kiviruusu et al., 2015).

In any case, studies around the world have found that the body weight is negatively correlated with the general self-esteem of girls at least five years old (Davison & Birch, 2002), but also of adolescents respectively (Braet et al., 1997). Apart from that, it appears that adolescents are likely to have poorer overall self-esteem as well as physical self-confidence, than the corresponding lower-weight adolescents (Frenchetal, 1995; O'Dea & Abraham, 1999). In general, the relationship between self-esteem and BMI is more consistent in adolescents than in younger children.

Cross-sectional studies have shown an inverse relationship between obesity and self-esteem. Gortmaker and colleagues (1993) found no relationship between overweight and self-esteem in 10,039 young adults aged 16 to 24. However, French and colleagues (1995) found an inverse relationship between BMI and self-esteem in 1,278 white girls and boys who were in adolescence. In addition, Fisher and colleagues (1994) found similar results in an urban sample of 399 predominantly African and

FACTORS AFFECTING SELF-ESTEEM AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-ESTEEM AND BODY IMAGE

Hispanic adolescents attending in high school. Finally, Kertesz and colleagues (1992) also found lower self-esteem scores in overweight students aged 14 to 15 years. However, other studies show higher scores of physical appreciation in overweight boys compared to girls who are not overweight or obese (Fowler, 1989).

Physical and mental health: Prognostic factors of adolescent's self-esteem

According to Harter (1993), success in important areas of a person's life as well as the acceptance by significant others are the main prognostic factors for adolescents' self-esteem. In particular, adolescents with low self-esteem appear to be possessed by feelings of diminished ability and acceptance, due to their difficulty in keeping up with behaviors and standards that are deemed appropriate by the society, family, or peers (Harter, 1993). Similarly, as several studies point out, the decreased self-esteem in adolescents may be associated with depressive emotions, anxiety, and eating disorders (Neagu, 2015).

One of the relationships that has been thoroughly studied is that between self-esteem and the occurrence of eating disorders, as the number of people with an eating disorder is increasing. According to Mora (2017) the appearance of a low score on the scale of self-esteem, significantly increases the likelihood of a high score on the scale of eating disorders. The existence of low levels of self-esteem has been shown to be directly related to anorexia nervosa, bulimia nervosa, episodic overeating, and generally with food intake disorders (Mora, 2017).

Silvera and colleagues (1998) in their research studied the self-esteem of students and university students by dividing it into complacency, which is based on social feedback and acceptance mainly by peers (subjective and emotional criteria), and in the ability of the individual, which is based on the interpretation of his/her performance (objective criteria). The results of this research showed that there is a correlation between complacency and the clinical diagnosis of an eating disorder but not between the individual's sensations of competence (Silvera et al., 1998).

High self-esteem has been associated with better health, positive social behavior, success and satisfaction, while low the self-esteem has been associated with dangerous behaviors related to health and social problems, such as depression, anxiety, eating disorders, and suicidal tendencies (Mann et al. 2004). To the corresponding direction are also moving the results of the studies in which have been found that girls who showed higher levels of physical dissatisfaction and resorted to a diet, reported reduced self-esteem (Kelly et al. 1999; Lawrence, 1995).

Research by Gual and colleagues (2002) provided alternative explanations for the phenomenon of the association between low self-esteem and eating disorders (Geller et al., 2002). One of them is the existence of a factor, such as e.g. the impaired serotonin activity, genetic characteristics, or an unknown factor that may be responsible for both the onset of eating disorders and the psychological characteristics of high neuroticism and low self-esteem. They also noted that the high levels of neuroticism and low levels of self-esteem can be both causes and effects of eating disorders, so creating a vicious circle that perpetuates these disorders.

It is particularly important to note that the increased self-esteem can act protectively against the appearance of eating disorders (Geller et al., 2002) and the chronic low self-esteem that precedes the appearance of an eating disorder may enhance its development, which explains also the increased presence of depression in patients with eating disorders (Silverstone, 1992).

Apart from physical health, low self-esteem also seems to be associated with poor mental health. More specifically, according to study findings, the decreased self-esteem in adolescence is associated with depressive behaviors, anxiety, substance abuse, suicide and aggressive behavior (Kostanski & Gullone, 1998; Mpairaktari, 2019). In conclusion, significant emphasis should be placed on programs to prevent and enhance adolescent self-esteem, as the long-term consequences of low self-esteem seem to have a serious impact on the later course of a person's life (Trzesniewski et al., 2006).

Relationship between body image and the degree of adolescents' self-esteem

Adolescence is a transitional period, which affects both the adolescent's image of his/her body and his/her self-esteem, with the onset of puberty being one of the defining points of this transition. More specifically, girls during this period feel their body to change, their weight to increase and, therefore, they move away from the ideal lean body for them, resulting to live a dissatisfaction for their body image, which leads to low levels of self-esteem. On the contrary, boys at the beginning of puberty are biologically close to the ideal, for them, muscular body with the result to increase their satisfaction and, by extension, their self-esteem (Morin et al., 2011).

According to Grogan (2006), as body image is defined as the set of perceptions, thoughts and feelings that a person has in relation to his/her body. In order to fully understand the term, researchers have divided the 'body image' into the 'physical image', that is the visual idea that a person has of him/herself, and into his/her 'degree of satisfaction' in relation to the body and its functions (Darden, 1972).

According to Burns (1982), body image is the composition of four elements, as follow:

FACTORS AFFECTING SELF-ESTEEM AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-ESTEEM AND BODY IMAGE

- The subjective perception that the person has for his/her appearance and physical abilities,
- Individual's personal situations and emotional experiences,
- The effect of society on the individual and the ideal body image, which is shaped by experiences, perceptions, comparisons with other standards, and
- The identification with other people's bodies.

Leontari (2011) correlates body image with an important part of self-image, which is consistent with the quality of life and the smooth psychosocial integration of the individual in the environment in which he/she lives. Still, various social, environmental, cultural, emotional, and biological factors have been associated with the satisfaction for the body image (Adamidou et al., 2013). Perhaps one of the most important factors, which seems to have a strong influence on children and adolescents in modern western society, is the media. An additional exogenous factor that seems to significantly affect the satisfaction from the body image is the environment of the individual, in which is included not only the family but also the social environment, the 'significant others' (Cafri et al., 2005). There is also a significant correlation between ethnicity and body image (Grabe & Hyde, 2006). Finally, there is a wealth of correlational researches on gender, age, psychological factors, social status and how they affect the perceived body image (Tiwari & Kumar, 2015).

In general, the relationship between body image and the degree of self-esteem of adolescents has been the subject of study in many countries of the western world, and beyond. An important variable in the direction of this relationship is the body weight. Through the research, a positive correlation has been observed between self-esteem and body image satisfaction, for boys and girls. And the correlation that arises from the triptych: self-esteem, body image perception, and body weight or BMI between adolescent boys and girls, highlights the emphasis on tailor-made prevention and intervention programs in order to reverse misconceptions and ideas.

Between the two sexes, the relationship between self-esteem and body image seems to be more important in adolescent girls than in boys, as the former pay special attention to their appearance in relation to the latter (Wichstrom, 1998). In addition, a study involving girls and boys in early adolescence found that the low self-esteem was a predictor of the development of physical dissatisfaction in girls, a fact that was not verified for boys (Paxton et al., 2006; Wojtowicz & Von Ranson, 2012). However, these differences appear to diminish during the transition from early to late adolescence (Von Soest et al., 2016), although there are researches showing that there are no gender differences in adolescence, in terms of the relationship between self-esteem and body image (Van den Berg et al., 2010).

As mentioned above, self-esteem was a predictor of the development of physical dissatisfaction in adolescent girls, a fact that contradicts with the research results by Johnson and Wardle, who showed that body dissatisfaction was a predictor for the self-esteem (Johnson & Wardle, 2005). Similarly, Morin and colleagues (2011) studying the relationship of these two variables bidirectionally, concluded that physical dissatisfaction affects the self-esteem and not the opposite.

Respectively, Von Soest and colleagues (2016) point out that the negative body image is associated with decreased self-esteem in adolescence, as the constant exposure to ideal beauty standards and the attempt to adopt them, leads to intense self-criticism and dissatisfaction with the overall self-image. This raises the question of the causal relationship between these two factors, which, according to Tiggemann (2005), only long-term studies assessing both dissatisfaction regarding body image, and self-esteem in the long run, can clarify it with accuracy.

Conclusions

The concept of 'self' has occupied the humanitarian sciences since ancient times and often coexists with concepts such as 'self-esteem' and 'self-image'. At the same time, adolescence concerns a defining period in the life of each individual, during which the search for 'identity' takes place, the quality of which determines the psychosocial development of the adolescent. In this quest, adolescents are quite vulnerable and often exhibit bipolar behaviors. On the one hand they need guidance and on the other they want to be alone in order to discover themselves. As a result, the manipulations mainly of both parents and teachers to be crucial for the formation of a low or high self-esteem in adolescents.

According to the surveys reported in this article, the self-esteem varies by gender and the individual areas of self-perception, with boys being the ones who seem to have an overall higher self-esteem. In addition, the important 'others' who seem to largely determine the quality of adolescents' self-esteem are the parents and classmates, versus the teachers and close friends, while then peers predominate. Finally, there is a wealth of correlational research on gender, age, psychological factors, social status, and how they affect the perceived body image.

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Theoretical article

HIKIKOMORI SYNDROME: UNDERSTANDING THE JAPANESE SOCIAL WITHDRAWAL PSYCHOLOGICAL PHENOMENON

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Abstract

Hikikomori represents a severe form of social withdrawal commonly found in Japan. The Japanese social withdrawal is characterized by the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare as a condition that causes a person to withdraw and isolate in one's house for six months or more. During this time, they do not attend school, work, or participate in neither social or family interaction. Studies have shown that 613,000 cases of middle-aged existed throughout Japanese society in 2018, and a total of cases up to 1.5 million. The purpose of this article is to provide information to understand better the social withdrawal phenomenon that is common in Japanese society and is spreading worldwide. Also, this article aims to provide a clinical and social review, including the evaluation methods, treatments and management techniques used to support people who are Hikikomori.

Key words: Hikikomori, isolation, social withdrawal, deviant behavior

The word "Hikikomori" is a Japanese word that describes a severe form of social withdrawal characterized by complete social isolation, a condition that affects mainly adolescents and young adults. The word is composed of the verb "hiki" that means to move back and "komoru", that means to come into. The collectivism is a very important compound of the Japanese society, that allows social groups to form easily. Once a person may retreat from a particular group, will be called "the person who has withdrawn into seclusion". The Japanese Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare (MHLW, 2003)

describes the social withdrawal as complete social isolation through avoidance of the major social interactions and responsibilities that last at least six months. The most common reactions are: confining themselves in a room, usually in parents' house, not responding to the family's callings, refusing to go to school, and spending time playing video games or internet-based virtual reality role-playing games. (Emmanuel et al , 2013)

The phenomenon began to attract society's attention after the controversial publication of *Hikikomori: Adolescence Without End* by the psychiatrist and psychopathologist T. Saito in 1998, that wrote a clinical perspective over the rapidly increasing cases of Japanese social withdrawal. Even if the Hikikomori is commonly observed in adolescents, the condition may continue past the age of adolescence, and it can occur in adults too. Regarding the Japanese surveys, there have been few studies based on community samples (Wong & Ying, 2006). The study estimated in that 0.56% of every household had at least one case of social withdrawal. The same study also reported that 54.5% of the interviewees had experienced a psychiatric disorder such as anxiety, impulse control, suicidal behavior, and substance-related addiction. Previous research (Kondo et al, 2013), reported a possible relationship between personality traits, psychological factors and the social withdrawal. In recent years, the number of people in their 30s and above is increasing due to the prolonged social withdrawal. According to the research conducted by KHJ in 2017 (Kazoku Hikikomori Japan) the average age of social withdrawal was 33.5 years old, and 25% were in their 40s. The average period of withdrawal was 10.8 years, with 16% of the subjects reported more than 20 years. The average age of financially supporting families was also assessed and it resulted that the average age is 64.1 years old. It has been pointed out before 2010 that the social withdrawal tends to continue even in middle-aged and older people. When parents who support withdrawal children enter old age, they often get stuck financially. For this reason, there are support organizations such as KHJ where parents with withdrawal children can apply to receive funds for aiding them, on the premise that the child will not escape withdrawal even after parent's death.¹

The understanding of the phenomenon is important in order to prevent social withdrawal and its consequences. Previous research (Yong & Nomura, 2019) had reported a high correlation between suicides in Japan and the Hikikomori phenomenon. The study showed that people with one or more suicide risk factors have 2.8 times higher significant chances of being social withdrawn. In addition, previous literature reported that suicide is the leading cause of death in Japan among young people. It occurs mostly in the undefined unemployed group that indicates the social withdrawal groups of

¹ Japan's biggest parent based organization for dealing with hikikomori, founded by the late Masahisa Okuyama. See <http://www.khj-h.com/>

HIKIKOMORI SYNDROME: UNDERSTANDING THE JAPANESE SOCIAL WITHDRAWAL PSYCHOLOGICAL PHENOMENON

Japanese society (Japanese Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare report, 2021). Even if this phenomenon is mainly associated with Japanese culture-bound syndrome, researchers have reported an increase in social withdrawal worldwide in countries such as South Korea, Canada, Spain (Malagon-Amor et al 2014), Austria, France (Chauliac et al, 2017), and the USA (Teo et al ,2015).

Moreover, the specialists as the psychiatrists and psychologists from these countries, had observed and examined the phenomenon. They concluded that the psychological factors are the main causes of the hikikomori syndrome and that social withdrawal may be an outcome of a specific disorder that has to be treated (Teo et al, 2015). Withdrawal is becoming more prominent in Italy as well, and newspapers in Italy have published special articles. It is estimated that there are about 100,000 young people in Italy with the Hikikomori Syndrome, but the exact situation is unknown. Awareness of the problem has been poorly researched in the past. Still, measures are being taken, such as establishing a support group "Hikikomori Italy"², which was based on Japan's efforts.

A clinical perspective: Factors, Characteristics & System Model

The following is an explanation of withdrawal from the perspective of the operant conditioning learning process (National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, Tokyo, 2003), which explains the mechanism of spontaneous human behavior. The withdrawal state begins with the action of avoiding an unpleasant situation. Avoidance does not overcome discomfort in the long run, but short-term consequences are satisfactory with the absence of discomfort, and avoidance behavior is strengthened. As the withdrawal state becomes longer, various conflicts arise, such as difficulty in returning to the organizations and increasing the stress based on the self-identification with the withdrawal state. Therefore, voluntary actions to escape from the withdrawal state will be attempted, but as a short-term result of this action, an unpleasant reaction from oneself and others may occur as "punishment." If the person succumbs to this punishment, it will be learned to strengthen the withdrawal state (Kawai & Uchida, 2013).

Previous research (Watanabe et al 2010) found that people in social withdrawal have less emotional ties with their families and more interpersonal fears. Hikikomori behavior may have other consequences due to isolation such as weakening the family relations and developing anthropophobia. The multiple causes of social withdrawal can be divided into three categories such as the individual, the

² L'Associazione "Hikikomori Italia Genitori,2017

family, and the society. T. Saito presents the concept of the healthy system and the Hikikomori system (Fig.1) to offer a better understanding of the phenomenon. The health system is described as all the three parts of a system: the individual, the family, and the society that are in contact and functioning together, while the Hikikomori system's categories are not in contact and are not moving together and the inner system's power are perceived as stress that prolongs the vicious cycle.

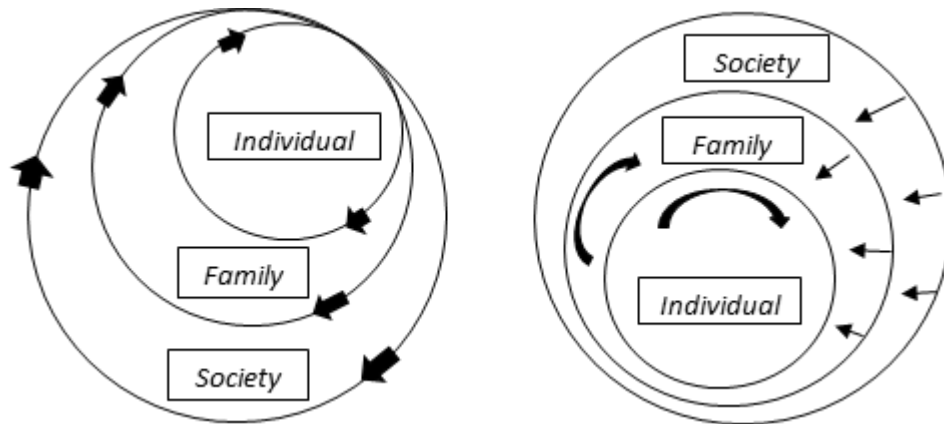


Figure 1. Healthy System vs Hikikomori System, by Saito Tamaki, 1998

Children raised in dysfunctional families have difficulties creating healthy relationships with their parents, and the basis of relationships may be misanthropic. Sometimes the child may pretend in front of parents and simulate normal behavior, and in reality, in many cases the child is socially withdrawn because of bullying (Saito, 1998). According to a study conducted by Shunsuke Nonaka (2015), a household with a social withdrawal case has the same ability to increase the child's desired behavior through communication compared to other general families. Still, the families show weak control over unwanted behaviors of the children, suggesting that family communication is not functioning properly and increases the risks for social withdrawal. The reasons for social withdrawal are not associated only with poor family relations but also with the relationship with the workplace. Many people have become socially withdrawn due to such factors as sexual harassment and power harassment.

The psychiatrist and psychopathologist T. Saito (1998) reported that the patients found in the state of social withdrawal had been sleeping during the day and are active at night, not to confront their families. The factors such as their sense of self-pride, concerns about their appearance, and the deteriorating relationship with their own family cause them mental discord, sometimes even leading to violent behavior or even attempting suicide. T. Saito (1998) had stated that as the symptoms progress, others would believe that the person that is in social withdrawal is being lazy and acting lethargic, but

HIKIKOMORI SYNDROME: UNDERSTANDING THE JAPANESE SOCIAL WITHDRAWAL PSYCHOLOGICAL PHENOMENON

there are deep conflicts and strong fretful feelings that are developing and get hidden below the surface. The majority of the people having the Hikikomori Syndrome do not experience boredom, even if they spend their days locked in their room, their minds appear to be busy, not offering psychological room to feel bored.

According to Kendo et al. (2013), the Hikikomori behavior had a wide coexistence with psychiatric disorders, including anxiety disorders, personality disorders, pervasive developmental disorder, mood disorders, and schizophrenia. Another important aspect in order to understand the social withdrawal is the psychological symptoms that one may have. One of the most common symptoms is anthropophobia, or the fear of others, making it difficult to access the person. A person in a social withdrawal state might still interact with others to accomplish physical needs, such as eating or buying food. Studies have reported (Kondo et al, 2008; Saito,1998) that obsessive-compulsive behaviors might develop as a secondary trait in patients with a prolonged withdrawal state. Another important aspect regarding the behavior is the violent outbursts at home caused by the hidden grudge towards the parents. The cases and symptoms of the Hikikomori syndrome are classifiable as a variety of existing DSM psychiatric disorders, but it does not have a specific classification (Teo, 2010).

In order to have better identification of the signs and symptoms, the Japanese specialists (Teo & Gaw,2010; Koyama et al,2010; Saito, 1998) had reported the following main characteristics of the syndrome:

- Spending most of the time at home
- Spending time mostly on playing video games
- Rejecting the responsibilities such as going to school or work
- Persistence social withdrawal more than 6 months
- Avoidant personality
- Are excluded the persons that have psychotic related disorders
- Are excluded the people who still maintain friendships

Methodologies for diagnosis and evaluation

The symptoms of Hikikomori may vary and are non-specific, they can be found in various of conditions, making difficult the process of diagnosis of Hikikomori due to the similarities of its

symptoms and early stages of other mental disorders (Guedj-Bourdiau, 2011). Hikikomori is a phenomenon that is growing not only in Japan but across countries and cultures too and it needs to have an improved definition of the disorder in order to make it easier to be diagnosed. Currently, the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare had created an evaluation and support guideline manual³ for professionals that includes definition of the phenomenon, methods for evaluation and diagnosis of the patient and support methods. The guideline book was created based on Japanese clinical researches over the phenomenon (Naoji et al 2009; Toyoji et al 2008) In order for a person to proceed to further evaluation the patient has to meet the following conditions:

- To not have social contact for 6 months
- To not leave the house for 6 months
- To refuse participation in social activities
- To refuse school attendance/To refuse going to work
- To refuse excursions outside of the house

Two factors are important for a proper evaluation. The first factor is that the specialists cannot offer effective support only with the information obtained at the beginning of the consultation and it is necessary to accumulate information on a longer-term involvement. The second factor is related to assessing whether there is an underlying mental illness. The first step of Hikikomori evaluation is including conversations with the patient or with the parent to access information that provide an overview of the factors that are involved in the Hikikomori and their aspects. In order to have a clear evaluation, it was proposed the usage of “multi-axis evaluation method” to obtain a whole picture with information regarding the patient.

Axis 1: Background diagnosis of mental disorders: Diagnosis of mental disorders excluding developmental disorders and personality disorders

Axis 2: Diagnosis of developmental disorders: Diagnose any developmental disorders

Axis 3: Evaluation of personality tendencies (school refusal classification types for children) /
Axis 3.1 Evaluation of personality tendency including personality disorder. (For children that refuse going to school, it is useful to classify them according to the characteristics of the factors that initiated school refusal such as over-adaptive type, passive type, and impulsive type.)

Axis 4: Evaluation of the stage of hikikomori: preparation stage, starting stage, final Hikikomori stage

³ ひきこもりの評価・支援に関するガイドライン, <https://www.zmhwc.jp/pdf/report/guidebook.pdf>

HIKIKOMORI SYNDROME: UNDERSTANDING THE JAPANESE SOCIAL WITHDRAWAL PSYCHOLOGICAL PHENOMENON

Axis 5: Environmental evaluation: Evaluation of environmental factors that contributed to the occurrence of hikikomori and local resources that can support recovery.

Axis 6: Withdrawal classification based on diagnosis and support policy: Evaluate which of the three groups* of withdrawal classification is based on the evaluation results from Axis 1 to Axis 5 and create the support plan based on it.

*In order to make the process of evaluation clearer, to separate the similar symptoms of Hikikomori and early stages of psychiatric disorders, The Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare divided the social withdrawal into three categories and added them to the 6th axis.

(1) The first group are the people that have as main diagnosis a psychiatric disorder such as schizophrenia, mood disorders and anxiety disorders.

(2) The second group represents developmental disorders such as pervasive developmental disorder and intellectual disability.

(3) In the third group are patients with personality disabilities (or their tendencies), neurotic tendencies, somatic symptom disorders, and identity problems.

Treatment and management

Even if Japan has a diversity of organizations for mental health support and financial support organizations for households that have a social withdrawal case, according to Kendo et al. (2013), the average period of initiation of asking for support is 4.4 years. Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare (2010) had created a 4-step intervention method. (I) The first step consists in family support and it underlines the importance of parents access over the child. This step requires the parent to initiate a first contact and do an evaluation of the child. (II) The second step is helping the child to accept individual support. (III) The third step requires training with intermediate-transient group situation as a group therapy. (IV) The final step includes a social participation trial, where the person has to learn reintegration.

The adolescents that are dealing with the withdrawal state are challenged by feelings of frustration, failure and fear to not be hurt, that is why is important to be provided a sense of security and an environment where it can be offered a proper understanding of their actions. It is important for the parents to acknowledge the phenomenon and do not try to manage it alone but to offer support, in order for the child to accept the help and the visit of a specialist. It is also important to not force the person to stop the

withdrawal immediately, but to wait and comfort the person to do steps on the path of the solution (Yamanaka, 1978). The aim of every type of support is to help through breaking the person's physical isolation and to push them to accept a role in the society actively (Li, 2015). In Japan exist three efficient provided services that help Hikikomori. The most common one is the mental health centers that use psychological and clinical approaches, followed by the community settings that are using psychosocial approaches. The third service refers to a larger variety of alternative treatments such as horse assisted therapy, group activities therapy such as cooking in farms (Chan & Lo, 2014) and online-based interventions that include the online counseling and games designed for helping people to break the isolation such as Pokemon Go (Kato et al, 2016). Psychodynamic psychotherapy, nidotherapy and techniques of manipulation of the physical and social environment also had been proofed as being efficient. Pokemon Go, an online game that was released in 2016, had a big therapeutic contribution to the social withdrawal cases through its gameplay techniques of bringing the virtual world into the real world. The game had a strong impact over people dealing with Hikikomori, that went out in search for pokemons after years of staying isolated inside of their rooms and improved their well-being (Kato et al 2016).

Conclusion

This article discusses the Japanese psychological phenomenon of the sever social withdrawal, also called Hikikomori Syndrome, which had been characterized as social abandonment and complete isolation for longer than six months. The Hikikomori can also be described as a resulting interaction of psychological and sociological factors, including the family and society. This phenomenon is affecting almost 1.5 million people in Japan in the present. It has been found similar cases that are increasing in other countries too, especially in Italy, South Korea, USA. Hikikomori phenomenon had been considered a culture-bound syndrome mainly affecting adolescents. The question that is rising is regarding the truthfulness of this statement if the Hikikomori syndrome is specific to the Japanese society or is a worldwide concern. In this article it was presented theoretically, the symptoms presented by the specialists regarding the Hikikomori and the factors that contribute to social withdrawal development in one's life. Teo and colleagues (2015) had stated that the Hikikomori should be considered an idiom of distress rather than a syndrome and that should not be included in clinical manuals, even if Japanese clinicians are considering the phenomenon as a disorder and a psychiatric matter that needs immediate attention and treatment (Teo et al, 2015). The family's attention and support were proven to be one of the most efficient first steps into reaching the person found in social withdrawal.

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Theoretical article

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HEALTH-RELATED QUALITY OF LIFE (HRQoL) AND ADOLESCENTS' EMOTIONS

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Abstract

The term 'Quality of Life – QoL' has not yet been clearly defined and in a specific and uniform way, resulting to continue to be a multidimensional, changeable and subjective concept, which is difficult to be defined and measured, because of the different importance it has for each person. It is a sum of a series of objectively measurable life conditions experienced by a person or adolescent, but also of subjective evaluation indicators, which are related to the personal satisfaction of the individual or adolescent from his/her life (Migerode, Maes & Brondeel, 2012). As for the term 'Health Related Quality of Life – HRQoL', it is a dynamic and volatile concept, the assessment of which is changing, as change the level of health, relationships, experiences and roles of the individual or adolescent. And it is defined as the optimal level of mental, physical, social functionality, relationships and perceptions of health, fitness, life satisfaction and well-being.

Key words: Quality of life), HRQoL, health, adolescent, emotion, lifestyle.

In recent years, for the assessment of health and especially for the human Quality of Life (QoL), a special value is given not only to clinical data but also to those data which are arisen by the individual him/herself and are related to the subjective assessment of his/her health. Regarding QoL, it can be understood as progress or as the subjective well-being. According to the first dimension is assessed the ability of the individual or adolescent to perform an activity, as well as his/her response to social roles. The second dimension includes the set of reactions on a mental and emotional level, which show the degree of satisfaction that the person or the adolescent feels for his/her life and well-being, in relation to his/her goals, expectations, values, worries and priorities (Renaud & Bedard, 2013).

The investigation of HRQoL, which is referred to the subjective assessment of the ability of the individual or adolescent to perform daily activities, as well as to their impact on his/her daily physical, emotional and social well-being, is considered important in various aspects and activities of his/her life (Fayers & Machin, 2007). The measurement of HRQoL expands the way with which a person perceives the health, so that the health can no longer be assessed only through clinical indicators, but also to include, how the same person feels psychologically, emotionally and physically, how he/she manages his/her relationships with the other people, how he/she manages his emotions but also, how he/she deals with the daily life. In terms of HRQoL assessment during the recent years, it has played an important role in the assessment of adult health, as it is shown by the large increase in the number of HRQoL measurement tools (McHorney, 1997). Also, the fields of pediatrics and adolescent health, also during the recent years, conscious of the critical situation and taking seriously into account of the sensitive period of puberty, have given special attention to the measurement of HRQoL in children and adolescents, as is evidenced by the various measurement tools which have been investigated and are already available for these populations (Eiser & Morse, 2001).

The investigation of QoL applicable for children and adolescents in Greece, has not been a special research object. Any approaches made and the concerns which have been existed during the investigation, mainly concerned issues of aggression and bullying or substance use by the adolescents, but without existing some overall effort for research approach and by extension for implementing policies, of what is called QoL for adolescents. In this sense, the financial crisis of 2010 in Greece gave the stimulus for further engagement with the specific issue, and thus, an increase of interest for this issue was created.

Quality of Life (QoL) and Adolescents' Emotions - Health-Related Quality of Life (HRQoL)

The concept of "Quality of Life - QoL" and its connection to various scientific fields emerged only two decades ago, however the reference to it began much earlier, but nevertheless, it has not been clearly defined and in a specific and uniform way, resulting to be encountering many conceptual ambiguities. It is undoubtedly a multidimensional, changeable and subjective concept, which can hardly be defined and measured, due to the different importance it has for each person. The definition of QoL for the human represents the perception that he/she has for his/her place in life, according to the general social systems, personal goals, expectations and concerns, as well as the feeling of the successful achievement of his/her personal goals (Cramer et al., 2004). Despite the impossibility of human intervention and the subjectivity of many levels of QoL, the scientific documentation and highlighting of useful terms of improvement of living conditions, can be emerged a necessary policy-making tool.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HEALTH-RELATED QUALITY OF LIFE (HRQOL) AND ADOLESCENTS' EMOTIONS

The QoL must have a stability in its pursuit and a constant upward trend, which will ensure the longevity of the development products (Papanis, 2007). And according to Tzinieri–Kokkosi and partners (2003), the free time that each person has in his/her disposal, as well as its proper exploitation, contribute positively to the improvement of his/her QoL.

However, the QoL is defined with a different way by each person, giving each time a different meaning to the term, depending on the respective object of his/her interest (Oikonomou et al., 2001). The World Health Organization (WHO) defines the QoL as the perception that each person has for his/her life situation, depending on the value system and culture in which he/she lives, and depending on the goals, expectations and concerns he/she has (Langelaan, 2007). The QoL is influenced by personal factors, such as living conditions and sense of well-being, and environmental factors, such as marital status, educational level and standard of living (Schalock et al., 2002), and also, it depends on from the health, psychological and emotional state, the level of independence and the social relationships that each individual develops (Mugno et al., 2007).

It therefore becomes clear that the QoL is a sum of a series of objectively measurable living conditions experienced by an individual or adolescent, and which are: physical health, personal circumstances, social relationships, functional activities, aspirations, broader social and economic influences, but also of subjective evaluation indicators, which are related to the personal satisfaction of the individual or adolescent from his/her life (Migerode et al., 2012). According to this distinction (objective conditions and subjective indicators), the health, natural environment, housing, living conditions, use of time, social inclusion, financial ability to meet needs, safety from external risks are considered objective indicators, while the satisfaction from the life, the feeling of adequacy and satisfaction from the functionality of the individual, satisfaction from the services provided and the possibility to participate in various activities, are included in the subjective evaluation indicators of QoL (Theofilou et al., 2010) .

More generally, the QoL is a concept that reflects the individual's view of him/herself and is evaluated in comparison to the individual and the circumstances (Renaud & Bedard, 2013). Research on youth employment and rehabilitation programs evaluates the objective QoL, while when the research focuses on the person's emotional state and how he/she perceives his/her life, is evaluated the subjective QoL, where one of the basic levels of its evaluation is the satisfaction from the life (Guerette & Smedema, 2011). And as reported by Goswami et al. (2016), the data from a number of researchers, including Tweed and Morris (2015), show that the QoL, in the attempt of its study and record, it is more

correct to be perceived as a phenomenon with multiple parameters, which includes both voluptuous, as well as blissful dimensions in particular. The debate over the definition and coefficients of QoL continues even today, and the latest models of sociology and psychology combine and separate the psychological and socioeconomic factors in three areas: external conditions, interpersonal relationships and internal balance (Lindström, 1995). Still, as McCall argued, the QoL consists in the existence and in accessibility to those necessary conditions, which ensure the happiness of the individual in a given society (McCall, 1975).

Therefore, from all the above mentioned it follows that the QoL, in addition to a broad concept that is, it is also subjective and changeable, with multiple dimensions and characteristics, which make it difficult, it to be accurately quantified and measured. And so, with the absence of a generally accepted and objective definition, many researchers in recent years have argued that they supposedly know well the expression and the definition of the term “Quality of Life – QoL”. But the careful observation reveals that the term QoL means different things when it comes for different people. In addition, the European Foundation on Social Quality of the European Union, going one step further, has established the “Social Quality of Life – SQoL”, which is defined as the degree to which citizens are able to participate in social and economic life of the community, in conditions that enhance their personal well-being and prosperity. The level of the SQoL of the individual depends on the degree of financial security, level of social inclusion, degree of social cohesion and solidarity, level of autonomy and finally, the level of health (Fries & Singh, 1996).

The concept of “Health Related Quality of Life – HRQoL”, a term which was introduced in the 1980s and includes the below conceptual dimensions, also is a research pole of attraction for a wide range of disciplines, and especially for the scientists in the field of health:

- 1) Of the subjective assessment of the physical and mental functionality of the individual,
- 2) Of the effect of health status on the functionality of the individual,
- 3) The limitation of functionality to areas of life which are necessary, in order that the individual can achieve the goals he/she has set (Kaplan & Bush, 1982).

It is therefore be understood that this is a subjective perception of health level, which focuses on the effect that a particular health condition has on the individual’s ability to live a satisfactory life. It is a multidimensional concept which incorporates both the positive and the negative aspects of wellness and life, and integrates the physical, mental and social health. In addition, the HRQoL is a dynamic and volatile concept, the assessment of which changes, as change a person's level of health, relationships,

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HEALTH-RELATED QUALITY OF LIFE (HRQOL) AND ADOLESCENTS' EMOTIONS

experiences and roles. So, HRQoL can be defined as the optimal level of the mental, physical and social function, also of the relationships and perceptions for the health, fitness, satisfaction from the life and well-being.

Because, the physical and psychological health, as well as the emotional balance, are a part in order to be determined the level and the QoL of a person and consequently of adolescent, the researchers, dealing mainly with the medical sciences, have coined the term HRQoL, which concerns the focus on the evaluating of the physical and psychological health, but also of the HRQoL (Hunt, 1997; Mooney, 2006). The term HRQoL, like that of QoL, also involves ambiguities and it is relatively difficult to identify the elements that make it up, which vary from study to study. In general, QoL in relation to health may include issues, such as health in general, physical symptoms, the emotional, cognitive and social functionality of the individual, as well as concepts of existential content (Fayers & Machin, 2007). The HRQoL can be defined as the functionality in the physical, emotional and social dimension of life, taking into account the well-being, as it is evaluated by every human being.

The HRQoL is therefore a dynamic concept, which changes along with the level of health, relationships, emotional world, experiences and roles of the individual or adolescent. For these reasons, HRQoL has attracted the interest of researchers from the field of health, which is related to the fact that the evaluation of HRQoL provides a spherical and comprehensive picture of the effects of diseases on the individual or of the emotions, as opposed to the normal and clinical examinations, which usually detect only the health problems (Guyatt et al., 1993; Haywood et al., 2005). So, the development of HRQoL tools is very important, as their use in public health studies or in the study of the mental and emotional world of the adolescents, allows the researchers to monitor the health status of a population over time, to locate, inside to the general population, subgroups of high-risk with appearance of a low HRQoL, to assess the impact of interventions on specific populations and to guide, any corrective or innovative health policies, in the broad sense.

As for the adolescents, the research on HRQoL is a relatively recent research project. As it happened in the case of adults, but with a delay of about a decade, the development of the QoL research field for children and adolescents took place in three successive stages:

- 1) In the first stage, in the late 1980s, the study focused on the assessing of children's QoL as a theoretical concept, emphasizing to the existing differences between the QoL concepts in adults and in children.

- 2) The second stage, which was began in the early 1990s and continues to this day, concerns the construction of tools suitable for the measuring of QoL in children and adolescents.
- 3) The third stage, started from 1995 onwards, concerns the application of the tools mentioned above, in public health studies but also in clinical studies in order to measure the results of the medical interventions and the care provided from the health services.

Initially, there have been doubts, for several years, about the ability of children and adolescents to express reliably their opinions, attitudes, and emotions in relation to their QoL (Herjanic & Brown, 1975). But then, other researches had shown that children were able to reliably assess their personal well-being and functionality, as long as the questionnaires to be tailored for their age and cognitive level (Bullinger & Hasford, 1991). So, the understanding of the concept of HRQoL or the assessing of the different aspects of the personal health and well-being of children and adolescents is therefore determined by the age, maturity and cognitive development of the child. From the study also identified some factors which affect the adolescents HRQoL and, the most important of which are the demographics, ethnicity and migration, chronic disease or obesity, smoking or alcohol or drug use, socioeconomic background, social support and the existence of primary health services.

Factors Affecting the Quality of Life (QoL) and Lifestyle

With the term “Lifestyle” is approached the abstract concept, which is commonly used in order to describe the choices people make about their behavior and consumption patterns. Especially, regarding the health, are mainly studied the aspects of lifestyle related to behaviors, such as smoking, alcohol consumption, drugs, physical exercise and diet. These specific behaviors are related to health and, at the same time, are a personal choice and responsibility of the individual, and for this reason are more often chosen by the researchers as representative dimensions of lifestyle. However, has been shown that the lifestyle is significantly influenced by social and cultural variables, which are studied in parallel, such as income, work and place of residence, natural and social environment. These are variables which directly affect, not only behavior, but also the level of health of individuals. Specific choices of the lifestyle are often the risk factors for the manifestation of diseases, and so, should be taken seriously in the design of prevention and health promotion services (Blaxter, 1990).

An important conclusion, common in many relevant studies regarding the effect of lifestyle on a person's level of health is that there are actually few cases of people following, either a completely healthy or a completely unhealthy lifestyle. For this reason, the effect of people's lifestyle on the sector of their health, should be considered in combination with other variables. As such, important factors,

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HEALTH-RELATED QUALITY OF LIFE (HRQOL) AND ADOLESCENTS' EMOTIONS

related to behavior and health status, have been demonstrated, which give quality characteristics to the individual's life. Indicative, these are the social class, educational level, quality of care, occupation, income, marital status, eating habits, physical disabilities, chronic diseases, anxiety.

The social living conditions of the individual undoubtedly determine, directly or indirectly, his/her behavior and level of health, however, as these are interrelated variables, make it difficult to draw easy conclusions, but cannot be omitted by any analysis. Despite the significant methodological difficulties posed by the comparison of health and socio-economic indicators in different countries, the international literature substantiates the conclusions according to which the socio-economic characteristics of the population are significantly influenced by the perception of the level of health, and to some extent they specify the health inequalities in the population. While at the same time, is valid the general rule, that is, the members of lower socioeconomic groups are more likely to report low general level of health, more symptoms, disability, and chronic health conditions. However, in these conclusions the picture of socio-economic inequalities does not show uniformity (Roberts et al., 2007).

Emotions and How They Affect Adolescents' Health

Adolescence is a sensitive transition period and is full of constant adjustments, intense experiences or reactions and, which is characterized by constant changes in biological, social, psychological and emotional level. All these processes have as effect to influence, depending on the intension of the case, the physical and mental health of adolescents. Central position in the research, in particular of the psychosocial characteristics of children and adolescents, possesses its emotional intelligence and its various views (Maridaki-Kassotaki, 2011). Furthermore, the developmental period of adolescence affects the social relations of the adolescent with his/her peers and with persons from his/her wider environment, as well as the way his/her adaptation in the family, school and social context, in which he/she lives and works (Nurmi, 2004).

Numerous of studies, mainly of the field of psychosomatic medicine, have confirmed that the way we think and feel affects the functions of our body (Tsiantoula et al., 2002), that is, that every emotion is accompanied by certain physical or mental symptoms, and more specifically, the emotional state of a person or of an adolescent does not leave his/her body unaffected, since it activates the cardiovascular, musculoskeletal and neuroendocrine system of his/her body.

Following those mentioned above, the researchers Nummenmaa Lauri, Glerean Enrico, Hari Riitta and Hietanen Jari of Aalto University in Finland, in their article published in 2013 and entitled “Bodily maps of emotions”, expressed, in the beginning of their research, the view that the emotions coordinate the human behavior and physiological states, during of the important survival events, but also of pleasurable interactions (Nummenmaa et al., 2013). And they continued, reporting that, although we often have consciously aware of our current emotional state such as anger, anxiety or happiness, the mechanisms which create these subjective senses still remain unclear. They also argue that the emotions are often felt in the human body and the somatosensory feedback has been suggested in order to evoke conscious emotional experiences (Nummenmaa et al., 2013). Concluding, they find out that the emotions are linked with distinct but partially overlapping maps of the body senses, which could be the basic core of the emotional experience (Nummenmaa et al., 2013). And, wanting to go one step further, they mapped the parts of the body which activate certain emotions, such as happiness, anger, fear, anxiety, shame, contempt, jealousy, sadness, depression, indifference.

Therefore, everything that happens in the adolescent's life has been created by him/her, based on the thoughts and beliefs held in his/her subconscious, and everything that happens inside him/her, then, determines the outside of him/her. The negative thoughts and emotions which go through his/her mind, do not only affect the facts of the now, but it is certain that in the long run they will affect, positively or negatively, his/her whole life. And if for many years, some of the negative emotions are ‘stacked’ in the subconscious, then it will be very difficult for the adolescent to keep him/herself in a functional level, balanced and, physically and mentally, healthy.

Even, it has been established that happiness is the physical condition of man, it is the challenge of our life and it is the real reason of our existence. In fact, we were born and made in order to be happy and that is where our natural space is. During the adolescence, adolescents experience more intense the emotions of joy, happiness, excitement, optimism, anxiety, anger, appreciation, respect, love, and so their body reacts accordingly, by releasing endorphins and oxytocin, often is referred as the “the embrace of hormones”. And when the emotions of adolescents are positive, then they feel beautiful and seek more and more. In contrast with the negative emotions which can remain trapped in the body, the positive emotions can help to dispel the effects of negative emotions in the body, because the positive emotions are not trapped in the body, but there is a belief that they activate cellular changes which improve the normal body function. Even, the negative emotions are mainly related to the activation of the sympathetic system, in order to put the person in a state of readiness to be able to face a possible

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HEALTH-RELATED QUALITY OF LIFE (HRQOL) AND ADOLESCENTS' EMOTIONS

danger. But the frequent and intense activation of the sympathetic system can cause stomach damage, which can be caused by intense anxiety that has as a result the over activity of the digestive system.

Research on the Quality of Life of Children and Adolescents in Modern Greece

The scientific research in the field of QoL, which is about children and adolescents, is quite limited compared to other research areas. However in the recent years, this field has begun to attract much interest from many researchers, and in fact with an exponential rhythm, apparently because the QoL is inextricably linked with the psychological, physical and emotional index of each children or adolescent. It is also intertwined with the daily life of people and by extension of adolescents, which daily life is delimited by the social context in which the adolescents live, as well as by their personal choices.

In the context of several scientific studies, a holistic approach for the QoL has been followed in the past, which included both hedonics and blissful parameters. In other words were examined, both the psychological and emotional (positive and negative) states, as well as the cognitive dimensions (life satisfaction and its dimensions) of QoL. As it is supported, the emotional dimension of QoL is less stable in the long run, because it is based on the positive emotional experiences of people which are changed over the time, but also in a short period of time. Nevertheless, the evaluation that people make totally about their life, but also how satisfied they are in general from their life, or in relation to some of its specific dimensions, seems to be more stable in the long run (Rees et al., 2013). Having in mind all these, for the designing of a long-term research, this combinatorial and holistic approach of the QoL should be the cornerstone on which will be done its design.

Regarding the QoL of children and adolescents in Greece, it has not been a particular subject of large-scale research, nor a central goal of any policy until the period of economic crisis, which began in 2010. Any approaches and speculations mainly concerned issues of aggression and bullying or substance use by adolescents, but without exist any overall effort of research approach and by extension an implementation of policies, of what is called “Quality of Life” or “Prosperity” of adolescents. In this sense, the financial crisis in Greece of 2010 gave the stimulus to researchers for a further engagement with this issue and so, was created an increase of interest in this sensitive and substantive issue. One of the most important effects of the economic crisis, both internationally and especially in the Greek society, was the one about adolescents. The poverty, the need to provide school meals, the reduced efficiency of adolescents in school, youth unemployment and migration abroad for work, financial

problems, difficulty in starting a family, problems in education or in studies and finally the unemployment of parents, were the ones who marked the sensitive psyche and emotional world of adolescents and also, had a serious impact on their QoL.

The Greek state made many information efforts and interventions to students on education issues, nutrition and QoL, which were designed and organized by the Institute of Educational Policy (IEP) in collaboration with schools and universities. The purpose of these interventions was to inform students about physical and mental health, nutrition and QoL, so that they themselves can cultivate certain habits, which will help them to improve all the above mentioned. The most recent attempt in order to design a comprehensive youth policy, which included also extensive reports on the well-being of children and adolescents, was the “Framework of Strategy for Youth Empowerment 2017-2027” (Antoniou et al., 2018), which was prepared and drafted by the "General Secretariat for Youth and Lifelong Learning". In this context, a clear reference was made on issues of health, physical and mental, but also on the reduction of social inequalities among young people. This plan was quite detailed and coherent, both in terms of general content and QoL issues for the young people. Consequently, comprehensive policies are required from the relevant government agencies in order to address all these problems concerning children and adolescents, aiming at their best QoL. Obviously, the role and usefulness of the research should turned in this direction, which is quite important and substantive because it can supply with objective data to the competent bodies regarding the QoL of young people, utilizing not only objective indicators but also the subjective and psychological well-being.

In terms of the existing research on the subject under consideration, despite the fact that the objective indicators provide quite useful information about QoL on the macro level, they have received considerable criticism and also, have some limitations, which need to be considered before the implementation (McGillivray, 2007). It has been argued by Hicks (2011) that the use of the objective indicators, for the recording of the adolescents' well-being, is paternalistic because they clearly guides the participants' responses in the research.

In Greece, a long-term research on child welfare and the QoL in children and adolescents has not been planned and has not taken place to date. From time to time, surveys have been conducted either independently by domestic agencies or through international programs, which examined various aspects of the lives of young people, and in a small part also include QoL. Although, most of the research conducted in Greece on youth, mainly concerns its socio-political participation and action or youth subcultures (Demertzis & Stavrakakis, 2008, p. 20-29) or unemployment and intergenerational relations; but also, there are some which approach issues related to QoL. In these surveys are included also some

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HEALTH-RELATED QUALITY OF LIFE (HRQOL) AND ADOLESCENTS' EMOTIONS

dimensions, such as living conditions and integration into the social fabric, the use of new technologies and media, interpersonal relationships (Demertzis & Stavrakakis, 2008), sexuality, unemployment, personal and social problems, free time and others (General Secretariat for New Generation, 2012).

In addition of the above mentioned researches, more specific researches has been conducted from time to time, focusing on children and adolescents, which mainly concerned issues such as substance use, in-school violence and sexuality (Kokkevi et al., 2016), the school environment (Kokkevi et al., 2015), nutrition (Kokkevi et al., 2015) and others. Based on the existing research, the main interest seems to be located in bullying and in nutrition and health issues, as the latter arose as a result of the Greek economic crisis of 2010. But what is important is the exploitation and the active participation of children and adolescents, and to be precise, they must be placed at the heart of decision-making processes, as this can lead to a substantial improvement of the conditions and their QoL (Koronaïou et al., 2016, p. 98-99).

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Theoretical article

ПСИХОПАТОЛОГИЯ НА ЗАВИСИМОТО ПОВЕДЕНИЕ – ВРЪЗКАТА МЕЖДУ ЛИЧНОСТНИ РАЗСТРОЙСТВА, СОЦИОКУЛТУРА И НАРКОЗАВИСИМОСТТА

PSYCHOPATHOLOGY OF ADDICTIVE BEHAVIOR - THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION

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Резюме

В статията се представя и анализира зависимото поведение от социокултурен и психопатологичен аспект. Разглеждат се границите между “нормално” и “анормално” в психопатологията и чрез социокултурния модел се анализира естеството на наркотичната зависимост. Анализира се проблематиката личностни разстройства – наркозависимост и връзката между тях. Акцентира се върху социологията на наркоманиите, значението им сред различните култури, както и най-често използваните методи за психотерапия.

Ключови думи: зависимо поведение, култура, наркозависимост, психопатология

Abstract

The article presents and analyzes the addictive behavior from socio-cultural and psychopathological aspects. The boundaries between "normal" and "abnormal" in psychopathology are considered and the nature of drug addiction is analyzed through the sociocultural model. The issue of personality disorders - drug addiction and the relationship between them is analyzed. Emphasis is placed on the sociology of addictions, their importance among different cultures, as well as the most commonly used methods of psychotherapy.

Key words: addictive behavior, culture, drug addiction, psychopathology

Увод в проблематиката “зависимо поведение” – историческа справка

Съдейки по данните от научната литература, зависимото поведение има толкова дълга история колкото самото човечество. Изхождайки от историята на човешката еволюция е открито,

че някои растения променят начина, по който се чувства човека. Индийският пипер се е дъвчел в Тимор заради подобния на никотин ефект от поне 13.000 години (William J. Ray, 2015). Кокаинът се открива в естествена форма в листата на коката, а морфинът – в опиумовия мак. Археологически доказателства показват, че перуанските племена дъвчат листа на кока от около 8.000 години. Истински макови семена са открити в селище на 4.500 години в Швейцария. Други доказателства сочат, че опиума може да се открие в Европа в неолитната, медната и бронзовата епоха. Следователно хората са открили естествено съществуващите психоактивни вещества и са ги използвали от зората на историята (William J. Ray, 2015).

В подобна историческа справка се твърди, че в египетски йероглифи от 5.000 г. пр. н.е. се споменава за листа от кока. В гробници в Близкия Изток са намерени семена на марихуана, а в китайските медицински книги опиумът е регистриран като лечебно средство още през 973 г. пр. н.е. Още в древността е използван и изсушен сок на незрялата семенна кутийка на мака за лечение, за успокоение, лично вглъбяване и постигане на еуфория. Най-ранното свидетелство за производство на алкохол е открито върху египетски папирус от 3.500 г. пр. н.е. (Mancheva, R., 2012).

Когато преди около 10.000 години сме се отдалечили от ловуването и събирането на храна, сме открили и как да произвеждаме алкохолни напитки, например бира и вино, макар че това е станало по-рано. В действителност има някои сведения, че сме произвеждали бира, преди да започнем да произвеждаме хляб (Hayden, Canuel & Shanse, 2013 цит. по William J. Ray, 2015). По целия свят се намират естествени съставки за направата на алкохол (McGovern, 2009 цит. по William J. Ray, 2015). Една от тях е медът. Други съставки са специфични за региона. В Близкия Изток има ечемик, пшеница и грозде. В Африка има треви и палмов сок. В двете Америки има царевица, какао, кактусови плодове и кока. В Китай са открити гърнчарски артефакти, датиращи от преди 7.000 г. пр. Хр., с остатъци от ферментирали напитки. Други гърнчарски съдове са открити в Иран, датиращи от около 3.500 г. пр. Хр., които са били използвани за съхранение на вино. Повече от ясно е, че използването на психоактивни вещества е част от нашата история.

Зависимо поведение, адиктивно поведение, наркотици, психоактивни вещества

Както вече споменах, човечеството има дълга история на употребата на психоактивни вещества. Използването на тези вещества е част от човешката култура, социалния живот и еволюционната история. Точно тази история прави хората уязвими на желание за редица

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION

психоактивни вещества. Следователно може да има много мотивации за употреба на дроги и алкохол.

Според мен, връзката “дрога – преживяване” е една от основните нишки по които се е протягало зависимото поведение из човешката история. А самото преживяване се е явявало и се явява един от фундаменталните мотиватори за повторна употреба на същото или подобен вид вещество. Преживяванията, провокирани от въздействието на наркотиците са усилени, магически, потискащи или активиращи съзнанието, което отключва желанието за повторно изживяване на същото. По отношение на преживяването може да се добави, че *преживяването за вечност* се наблюдава в по-редуцирани варианти в норма при много силни емоции и чувства, както и при психични разстройства преди всичко при психотична депресия, шизофрения, интоксикация с ПАВ и помрачение на съзнанието (Роров, Г. , 2019). В сравнение с харесването на дадено вещество, желанието и търсенето му използват различен път в мозъка, който е свързан с пристрастяването. Тук следва да се дефинира самото понятие “пристрастяване”.

Поведението, което се свързва със злоупотребата на психоактивни вещества, се нарича адиктивно (addiction- склонност, пагубна привичка). Адиктивното (пристрастеното) поведение (addiction behaviour) обозначава специфична форма на отклонение в поведението, която не се разглежда като болестно състояние и може да се представи като преходен етап към установяване на такива негативни форми на зависимост като наркомании, токсикомании и алкохолизъм (Mancheva, R., 2012).

Проф. д-р Н. К. Узунов определя пристрастяването като инстинктивен и емоционален стремеж, влечение към материални и духовни облаги (Uzunov, N., 2010). Според други литературни източници зависимостта, пристрастяването се определят като склонност към възнаграждение без контрол, т.е. подчинение на импулсивността (Piryova, B., 2011). Понастоящем в същия източник се дава по-обширна дефиниция на понятието пристрастяване (от англ. abuse) което представлява силно изразена зависимост, при която определено настъпват поведенчески отклонения като например приемане на алкохол при рискови ситуации (шофиране, алпинизъм, плуване), доставяне на дрогата чрез асоциално или криминално поведение, negliжиране на морални норми и др. Пристрастените към дроги обикновено търсят бързите и мощни ефекти от интравенозно приложение, при което се преживява силно генерализирано върху цялото тяло удоволствено усещане подобно на оргазъм, наречено “първа тръпка” или “кик” (от англ. - ритник).

Проф. Божидар Димитров в своята известна “Психофизиология” (2014) дефинира пристрастяването като физиологична нужда от продължаване и увеличаване на дозата. Освен

поведенческите промени, налице са и физически увреждания. (Dimitrov, B., 2014). В други научни произведения се среща следното определение за пристрастяването: “Пристрастяването е ситуация на употреба на психоактивни вещества, в която хората изпитват по-силна мотивация, водеща до активно желание за и търсене на веществото, а не просто избор на това кога и къде човекът да има това преживяване” (William J. Ray, 2015). Тук обаче следва да се отбележи, че понятията пристрастяване и зависимост се почти взаимозаменяеми. Твърди се, че пристрастяването се описва и от гледна точка на зависимост от психоактивни вещества и зависимостта е начинът за обясняване на пристрастяването.

Грите основни компоненти отличаващи зависимото поведение се разглеждат като:

1. Желание да се търси и да се употребява определено психоактивно вещество,
2. Неспособност да се избягва или да се ограничи приемът на веществото и
3. Преживяване на отрицателни емоционални състояния, когато веществото не е на разположение (William, 2015).

Зависимостта е психическо състояние, често пъти физическо причинено от взаимодействието на веществото с организма. При нея характерното е „вътрешния“ стимул да се приеме веществото за да се избегне дискомфорта, причинен от липсата му в организма. Този дискомфорт, посочен в дефиницията „зависимост“ представлява абстиненцията. „Зависимостта“ е налице и когато употребата на вещество или клас от вещества придобива много по-висок приоритет за дадено лице, отколкото други видове поведение, които в миналото за него са имали по-висока стойност. Основният отличителен симптом е желанието, непреодолимото влечение на всяка цена да се набави и приеме дрогата. С течение на времето „пристрастяването“ се заменя със „зависимост“ (Zlatanova, 2017).

В широкия смисъл на думата зависимостта се разглежда в два варианта: като нормална зависимост от въздух, вода, храна, които са важни елементи за оцеляването на човека или зависимост от хора (привързаност към родители, приятели, съпруг, съпруга), като необходими елементи за процеса на социална адаптация на индивида. Патологичната зависимост включва симбиозни отношения на човека с някакво вещество или хора и променя както условията му на живот, така и формите му на приобщаване към останалите хора. Адиктивното поведение се свързва с патологичната зависимост (Mancheva, 2012) и затова специално ще анализирам връзката между патологична зависимост – наркомания в отделна точка, като централен проблем на тази разработка, достоен за научен анализ.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION

Що се отнася до понятието “злоупотреба” може да се каже, че злоупотреба (abuse) е приемането на психоактивни вещества до степен, която се отразява сериозно на здравето и на професионалната дейност на личността. Т.е. високия прием, който води до трайни промени в здравословното състояние на личността и нейното поведение. Напълно може да се твърди, че злоупотребата е *психично* и *поведенческо разстройство*, дължащо се на употреба на психоактивни вещества и формите ѝ се разделят в зависимост от приетото количество вещество, предизвикващо интоксикация, увреждане, зависимост или други разстройства (Mancheva, 2012).

Веществото, което при употреба въздейства на психичните процеси, на когнитивната и афективна сфера на личността е прието да се назовава като психоактивно. Следва да се отдиференцират наркотиците от психоактивните вещества. Разликата се състои в това, че наркотиците са официално забранени и за тяхната употреба, реклама, разпространение и т.н. се носи отговорност по закона, докато за ПАВ (психоактивни вещества) по принцип това не е така. Наркотиците се ползват главно с пряка цел наркотично опиване, докато ПАВ имат и други функции, освен за опиване. Освен това, при прекомерна (продължителна) употреба на наркотиците зависимостта е гарантирана, докато при ПАВ зависимостите не се проявяват толкова силно и толкова бързо. В малка доза наркотикът, както в известна по-малка степен и психоактивното вещество, предизвикват приятни преживявания (еуфория и др.), но при прекомерна употреба е възможно да се създаде непреодолимо влечение към тях, отравяне, формиране на абстинентен синдром, негативни изменения на личността, деградация, сомато-вегетативни разстройства, психични отклонения, суицид и др. (Ivanov, 2019).

Класификация и психофизиология на наркотичните вещества

Уместно е да се направи важно уточнение още в началото, че долу предложените класификации съвсем не обхващат разнообразната и многообхватна палитра на изразените мнения в науката по отношение класификацията на наркотичните вещества. Изчерпателните класификации са обект на по-тясно ориентираните специалисти занимаващи се основно с тази проблематика. Така, за да се направи точна, научна, обхващаща всички аспекти на наркотичните вещества класификация е почти невъзможно. Това е така защото експертите не са единодушни когато става въпрос за изграждане на единна концепция за класификация на наркотичните вещества.

Преди да разгледам част от класификациите, бих искал да дефинирам т.нар. “химическа зависимост” като форма на зависимо поведение в която спадат повече на брой видове химически зависимости: тютюнопушене, алкохолна зависимост, наркозависимост, лекарствената зависимост и др. Химическата зависимост се създава в специфични условия чрез въздействие на химични

вещества главно върху мозъка и ЦНС (централната нервна система), които нарушават нормопсихологичното протичане на виталните функции на организма и реорганизируют, модифицират, променят нормалните поведенчески модели. В социално-психологичен смисъл на думата химическата зависимост е зависимостта от употребата на всякакви психоактивни вещества, които могат да се разделят на легални (цигари, алкохол, лекарства) и нелегални (кокаин, опиати) (Mancheva, 2012).

Според други източници се твърди, че за обозначаване на лекарствените средства предизвикващи зависимост, се използват още наименованията *”дрога”* или *”наркотици”* (Pirgova, 2011). Понастоящем се прави класификация на лекарствените средства предизвикващи зависимост (също *”дроги”* или *”наркотици”*) в зависимост от типа въздействие (основно върху ЦНС) като се разделят на:

- общо потискащи ЦНС – депресанти (алкохол, барбитурати);
- болкоуспокояващи - морфино-подобни (морфин, хероин, кодеин);
- успокоителни – анксиолитици, транквилизатори (бензодиезапини);
- психостимулатори (амфетамин, кокаин, кофеин, никотин) и
- психозомиметици (LSD, мескалин, канабис (марихуана, хашиш)) (Pirgova, B., 2011).

Споменава се, че общото което ги обединява, е удоволствието (хедонистично) изживяване, което създават и възникналото желание това изживяване да се повтаря.

Световната организация по наркотични вещества (WOD) разделя наркотиците на основата на зависимостта, която причиняват:

- алкохол (всички видове спиртни напитки);
- амфетамини (амфетамин, дексамфетамин, матамфетамин и т. н.);
- барбитурати, други сънотворни препарати, транквилизатори (барбитал, фенобарбитал, диазепам и други);
- канабис (марихуана, хашиш);
- кокаин (листа от кока, кокаин хидрохлорид, крек);
- халюциногени (LSD, мескалин, буфотенин и други);
- кхат (листа от млади клонки от дърво, които се дъвчат в някои региони на Източна Африка и Арабския полуостров);

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION

- опиум, други болкоуспокояващи препарати (морфин, хероин, кодеин, метадон, фентанил и други);
- летливи разтворители (толуол, ацетон, бензол, етер, хлороформ и др.);
- опиум, морфин, хероин, синтетични болкоуспокояващи препарати. (Mancheva, R., 2012).

Някои учени разделят наркотиците на четири основни групи: халюциногенни (психеделични препарати), стимулатори, наркотици от опиоидната група (опиоиди) и седативно-хипнотизиращи (депресанти) (Bartol, 2004).

Употребата на наркотични вещества е причина за трайни деформации и изменения в човешкото съзнание. Те са вещества, които действат предимно върху централната нервна система и при „внасяне” в организма предизвикват ступор, който води до успокоение или наркотичен сън. Като пример за въздействие на чисто физиологично ниво на наркотичните вещества се посочва въздействието на няколко отделни (най-често употребявани субстанции):

1. За юношите и младите мъже следва специално да се отбележи, че марихуаната намалява кръвното ниво на мъжкия полов хормон тестостерон и броят на сперматозоидите с около 50% при хората, изпушили 10 или повече цигари марихуана за седмица. Това силно намалява оплодителната способност на спермалната течност (Pirgova, 2011).

Тук бих искал да цитирам един интересен експеримент проведен от Dornbush et al. (1971): студенти по медицина, мъже, са пушили цигари с високо (22,5 mg), ниско (7,5 mg) съдържание на марихуана и плацебо (риган, който изглежда, мирише и има вкус на марихуана). Измервани са ЕЕГ, времето за реакция, кратковременната памет и оценката на време. Само при висока доза са намерени увеличен процент алфа-активност (8-13,5 Hz) и намаление на бета- (24,5 Hz) и тета- (4-7,7 Hz) активността. Времето за реакция значимо се удължава, а изпълнението на задачи за краткотрайна памет се потиска от високите дози. Интересно е, че акуратността за оценка на време не се повлиява при никоя от приложените дози. Такива данни са получени и при експериментално пушене или на марихуана или на синтетичен тетра-хидрокси-канабинол (ТНС, активното вещество на канабиса) от хронично злоупотребяващи младежи. (Roth et al., 1973, цит. по Dimitrov, 2014, р.378). Понастоящем се обяснява, че ТНС предизвиква ефекти върху ЕЕГ, които се намират между тези на марихуана и плацебо, въпреки че както марихуаната, така и синтетичният ТНС са съдържали еднакво количество – 10 mg от активното вещество. Изводът е, че състоянието на релаксация в будно състояние, асоциирано с количеството алфа активност, се усилва от марихуана (Dimitrov, 2014).

2. С мозъчно изобразяване дори при тютюнопушене се установяват промени, подобни на тези при приемане на кокаин, хероин или алкохол. При зависими индивиди има активация в предната дълговидна извивка, амигдалата, орбито-челната извивка и задната част на страничната префронтална кора при показване на стимули свързани с пушене. Това са все зони свързани с емоциите. (Pirgova, 2011). Понастоящем се фактологизира въздействието на амфетамин и кокаина, при които има твърде подобни ефекти върху структурите на мозъчния ствол и лимбичната система (бодрост, еуфория, съкращения на скелетната мускулатура и др.).

3. LSD (диетиламид на лизеринговата киселина) – вещество което променя percepцията и съзнанието. Този психозомиметик причинява симптоми като халюцинации, промени в настроението и поведението. (Dimitrov, 2014)

4. Хероинът и метадонът могат да доведат до персистиращи функционални промени в нервната система (Dimitrov, 2014) и довеждат до психично състояние на блаженство и спокойствие, наслада, приповдигнато настроение или апатия (Mancheva, 2012).

Към психофизиологичните прояви се отнасят: абстиненцията и толеранса.

Абстиненцията е синдром, проявяващ се във вид на комплекс от разстройства на организма, които изчезват след поредното приемане на субстанцията, а толерансът се свързва с приспособяване на организма след многократна употреба, изискващо увеличение на дозата с цел постигане на определена степен на въздействие. Зависимостта също е както физиологична (организмът се пристрастява към наркотичното вещество) така и психична (човек осъзнава потребността си от наркотика и предприема определени действия за неговото доставяне). (Mancheva, 2012)

Факт е, че проблемите на наркозависимостта са обект на изследване от медицинските науки, социалните науки и психологията. Според съвременният био-психо-социален модел за анализ на наркоманиите, причините за зависимото поведение се търсят и анализират в единството и сложно взаимодействие на биологични, социални и психични фактори. Приема се, че независимо от различията в клиничните прояви на отделните форми на наркотичната зависимост, те имат общи социално-психологични признаци (Mancheva, 2012).

Едни от най-честите отличителни признаци на наркозависимостта са: силния, неовладян стремеж и потребност за прием на наркотика с цел постигане на усещане за комфорт или отстраняване на неприятни усещания от абстинентния синдром, социална дезадаптация на

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION

личността (Mancheva, 2012), както и компулсивна употреба на ПАВ (употребяващия много трудно може да спре да приема drogата по свое желание без да изпита психологичен и физиологичен дискомфорт). (Zlatanova, 2017).

Изследванията показват, че характерни черти на хората, злоупотребяващи с наркотици и ПАВ са: липсата на индивидуални и социални интереси, влечения, обидчивост, ранимост, внушаемост, засилен критицизъм, импулсивност, отчужденост, занижена самооценка, неудовлетвореност, мързел, конфликтност и др. (Ivanov, 2019). Също така се съобщава за лица с неустойчив характер (неустойчива акцентуация) които са подвластни под влиянието на други наркомани. При хипертимните личности решаващо е подчиняването на социалната група. При шизоидните личности има подчертана склонност към марихуана и други опиати. За хистероидните акцентуации са привлекателни стимулантите, които носят чувството за увереност, господство и др. По-обща черта на наркозависимите личности са още: емоционална незрялост, слабият самоконтрол, както и неспособността лицето да се погрижи за себе си (Ivanov, 2019), равнодушие към социалната среда, упадък на нравствените и морални аспекти в поведението и негов регрес, занемареност и апатия, загуба на вяра в собствените сили и др. (Mancheva, 2012).

От направения кратък анализ на психофизиологичните и психоповеденческите характеристики отнасящи се до наркозависимостта, може да се заключи, че психоактивните вещества влияят върху огромен брой структури на личността, започвайки от най-нисшето (физиологично) ниво до най-висшите системи – самоконтрола, ценностната система, самосъзнанието.

Наркоманията като социално значим проблем (социология на наркоманията)

Много хора смятат употребата на наркотици като един от най-големите проблеми на съвременното общество. Пристрастяването често се развива прогресивно от началните, експериментални етапи до устойчиви навици за прекратяване на зависимостта. Waldorf (1983) (Zlatanova, 2017) интервюира 200 бивши наркомани за да изследва процесът на ставането им зависими и как са се изчистили от наркотиците. Той установява следните фази на зависимостта:

1) експериментиране или инициране употребата на наркотици. Става обикновено в компанията на връстници: някои опитват хероин от любопитство; други опитват опиати след този етап, други продължават;

2) Ескалация. Моделите на честа употреба в рамките на месеци води до дневна употреба, физическа зависимост и повишена толерантност;

3) Относително стабилна употреба на наркотици, което позволява на зависимия да получи относително висок тонус да поддържа увереност по отношение на възможностите да се справя с професионалните задължения и други отговорности независимо от безспорната зависимост. Аргументите за употребата на наркотиците са „грижата за бизнеса“;

4) Дисфункция или „преминаване през промени“. Зависимият изпитва негативни ефекти от навика си, който може да стане очевиден, може да се опитва да приключи с него сам или с помощта на други, но се проваля.

5) Възстановяване или връщане към живота. Успешното поведение е развитие на нагласи за прекратяване употребата на наркотици което води до основни промени в начина на живот;

6) Бивша наркоманна зависимост. Изисква се развитие на нова социална идентичност като адаптиране към нови роли чрез програми за лечение.

Факторите за употребата на наркотици са много. Част от факторите, които стимулират индивида да прибегне до употребата на наркотици са: 1) Конфликт между индивидуални и обществени ценности; 2) Поява на различни субкултури; 3) Неадекватна социализация и дезинтеграция в социалната среда; 4) Дискриминация; 5) Бедност; 6) Невъзможност на индивидите да изпълнят общественоприетите цели; 7) Хедонистични нагласи; 8) Медийно възпитание на нагласата „да живеем ден за ден“, „да избягаме от скуката“, да търсим адреналин“; 9) Дезинформация за последиците от употребата на наркотични вещества; 10) Лоша организация на институциите, ориентирани към превенция и борба със зависимости; 11) Лабилна психика на индивидите; 12) Наблюдаване на девиантни модели на поведение от страна на авторитетни за индивида личности и др. (Zlatanova, 2017).

Проучванията показват, че от 40 до 50 % от младежките наркоманни прояви произхождат от разстроени семейства, където е регистрирана раздяла, развод или ранна смърт на родител. Част от бащите говорят за трудностите и незадоволителността от професията си, което предизвиква отблъскване на децата не само от себе си, но и от своето професионално и социално поле. Друга част изглеждат преуспяващи, като хора за които няма пречки – нещо, което ги прави „недостижими“. В следствие на това класическият авторитарен начин на възпитание постепенно изчезва и децата остават нерядко в известен „емоционален вакуум“, без авторитети, които в най-честият случай са или родител, или учител. (Zlatanova, 2019).

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION

Важно е да разберем, че семейството е основната социализираща институция, която формира психосоциалната идентичност на подрастващия. Ако разберем това, става ясно, че ако семейството не функционира правилно, детето няма да може да изгради у себе си адекватни социални възприемания на ситуацията. Важно е да се отбележи, че социално–демографските характеристики на семейството не са толкова от съществено значение за бъдещото наркоманно поведение на детето, по-важна в този контекст е психическата конфигурация на взаимоотношенията. (Zlatanova, 2017)

Основните елементи, които влияят върху детето и неговото развитие могат и да се сведат до следните:

- а) пълнота – наличието (отсъствието) на всички членове на семейството, както в актуален, така и в исторически план;
- б) разпределение на ролите – съответствие (несъответствие) между възрастово-полово-родителския статус и изпълняваната роля;
- в) личностно присъствие – осмисляне и личностна ангажираност с изпълняваната роля;
- г) степен на семейна интегрираност – взаимна съпричастност на членовете на семейството един към друг и към глобалното възпроизводство на семейството;
- д) психическа атмосфера – удовлетвореност на членовете на семейството от тяхното съжителство ;
- е) стил на взаимоотношенията – степен на равнопоставеност и партньорство;
- ж) идентификация със семейството – до каква степен отделно взетия член на семейството се чувства обвързан с него извън актуалното му присъствие. Семействата, които се намират в условия на финансова обремененост или някаква форма на социална обремененост, независимо колко постоянни са ще са повлияни от негативните параметри на обкръжението. (Zlatanova, 2019).

Според мен, за възникването на наркоманиите силно влияние оказват социалните фактори и въздействия, но наред с тях съществена роля играят и личностовата, биологичната и генетичната предиспозиция (предразположеност) на организма. С други думи, комплексните взаимодействия между факторите на средата, психичната и биологичната (в частност физиологичната, генетичната) даденост на личността ми дават основание да стигна до заключението, че наркоманиите имат биопсихосоциален произход.

Социологически изследвания показват, че юношите прибягват до наркотици и алкохол по най-различни причини. Някои от тях са:

1) Любопитство. Младите хора искат да знаят какво е да си “на върха”. Терминът “на върха” има няколко значения – да си в чудесно настроение, да изпаднеш в еуфория, да си изпълнен с мечти, да изпиташ промяна в усещанията или просто да си в състояние, различно от рутината;

2) Търсене на силни усещания. Някои специалисти смятат, че е естествено човек да търси и изпита удоволствие, предизвикано от хубава храна, приятна музика, каране на ски, правене на любов, пиене на алкохол и употреба на наркотици;

3) Натиск от страна на връстниците. Най-често децата изпушват първата си цигара – обикновена или с марихуана, понеже техни приятели им предлагат да опитат. Те не възприемат това като упражняване на натиск, а по-скоро като възможност да се присъединят към дадена компания. Адаптацията е силен фактор и може да подтикне децата да прибягнат към употреба на наркотици;

4) Бунт. Рекламите по телевизията, в списанията и на плакатите, рок съставите и бившите спортисти професионалисти възхваляват приемането на променящи настроението химични вещества. Алкохолните напитки и най-вече виното и бирата се свързват с добро настроение.

5) Употребата на алкохол и наркотици е един от начините да се придобие самочувствие и увереност във възможностите за успешна кариера.

Според структурно-функционалистката теория на Мъртън, девиантното поведение се корени в механизмите на функциониране на обществото. (Zlatanova, 2019). Невъзможността да се постигнат социалните културни цели чрез наличните средства кара индивидите да прибягват към девиантно поведение. Изследванията показват силна връзка между използването на алкохол и насилието. Menard and Mihalic (2001) изследват тази причинно-следствена връзка, като установяват, че насилието често е свързано с честа и хронична употреба на субстанции, което се отбелязва и от други автори. (Zlatanova, 2019). Така например по отношение на връзката между употребата на алкохол и насилието, Leonard (2008) заключава, че вероятно силният ефект на алкохола върху когнитивните процеси обяснява големия брой случаи на насилие, свързано с употребата му. Той отбелязва също така, че връзката между двете отразява „сходни характеристики на индивидите, които упражняват насилие и пият много и контекстуалните характеристики, които допринасят за двата вида девиантно поведение” (Zlatanova, 2019).

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION

Медицински данни за връзката между тератогенните увреждания (увреждания от вредности по време на бременност) се срещат много често. Така, при приемане на кокаин от майката по време на бремеността се наблюдава микроцефалия, когнитивни проблеми и синдром на внезапната смърт (Piryova, 2017).

Следователно трябва да имаме предвид, че връзката между употребата на субстанции и отклоняващото се поведение, насилието, вродените и придобитите болести както и социалната адаптация и дезадаптация зависи от много други променливи като социално-демографските характеристики, насилие в детството и личностните характеристики, размера и типа субстанции, както и контекста на употребата им. Употребата на алкохол и наркотици е най-често срещаното поведение сред мнозинството от възрастните и много от подрастващите.

Норма и абнормност - психопатология и социокултурен модел

Социокултурният модел в психопатологията се основава на хипотезата, че психичното разстройство на човека би се разбрало най-добре чрез анализ на социалните и културни фактори, които влияят на индивида и които оформят неговия социален характер. Какви са социални норми и идеали, какви са социалните роли, които човек съзнателно или безсъзнателно играе, с какви семейни и социални структури е свързан, какво е качеството на общуването му с другите хора, какви са неговите социални предразсъдъци и нагласи? Всички тези фактори, взети заедно, образуват социокултурната среда и детерминация на характера на човека както в норма, така и в патология.

За момент ще се спра върху понятията “норма” и “патология” защото смятам че, ако не познаваме нормата няма да знаем какво е патология и обратното. Норма е дума с латински произход, означаваща мярка, ръководно начало, правило, предписание. В психопатологията най-често се употребява понятието средна норма, която има статистически характер. Нормално е това поведение, което е присъщо на болшинството от хора, определени по пол, възраст, социален статус, професия или при определена типична ситуация (стрес, фрустрация, загуба на близък, криза). Нормално е това, което е общо за определена ситуация. Тъй като средните норми се раждат от определена исторически фиксирана социокултурна общност, не е възможно да се определи валидна и задължителна за всички хора, през всички времена и култури норма, която да е подходяща за измерване, сравнение и оценка. Затова средната норма е различна за различните епохи, култури, социални слоеве, религии и житейски ситуации.

Заболяване означава частично или пълно, временно или постоянно нарушаване на способността на човека да ръководи собствения си живот и съдба. Понятието болест в широкия смисъл, в който се използва в психопатологията, означава разстройство на адаптацията, неспособност за творческо решаване на жизнени проблеми, нарушение или прекъсване на социалните отношения. Следователно в категорията „болен“ попада онзи човек, който според социалното му обкръжение и психотерапевта, по някакви субективни или обективни причини самият той е подложен на страдание или причинява такова на хората, с които общува (*аспект на страданието от болестта*), който не може сам да се справи адекватно с ежедневните и екстремни условия на живот (*аспект на неспособността, причинена от болестта*), който поради значителните си различия от останалите хора, не може да осъществи качествени и продължителни социални връзки (*аспект на нарушено общуване*). Това широко понятие за психична болест, определено от парадигмата страдание - неспособност - отчужденост, може да бъде използвано при всички други болестни разстройства (Stoykov, 2009).

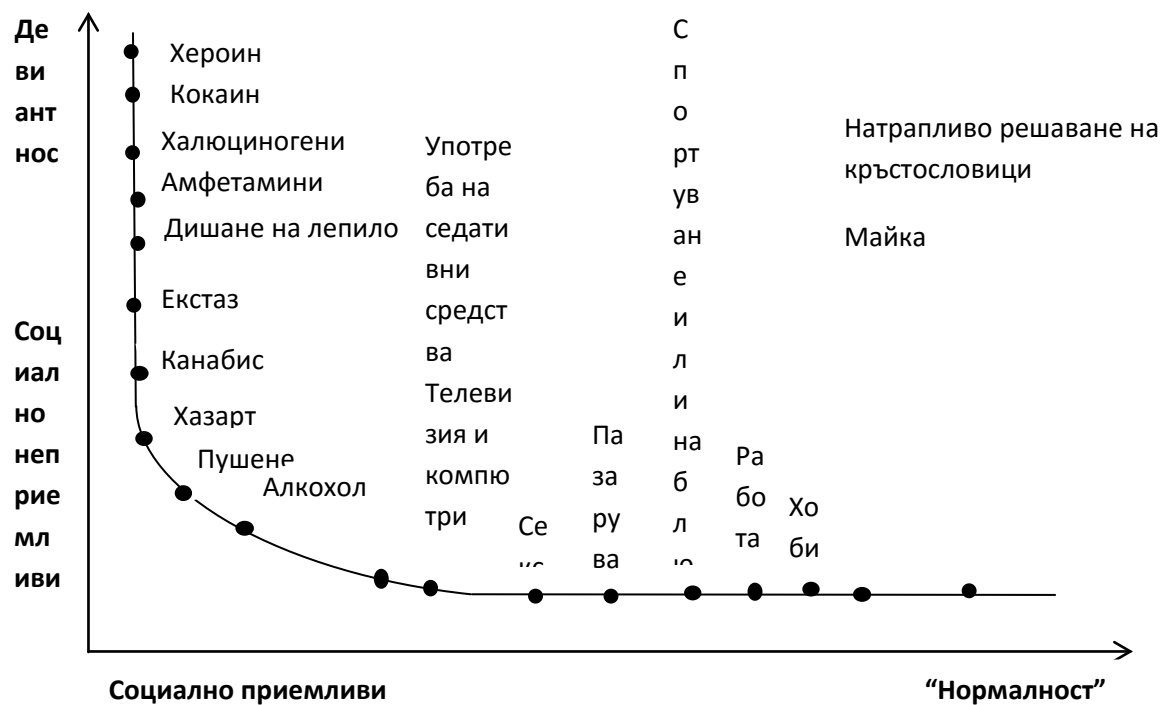
В други източници се дава дефиниция за понятието абнормно в следния вид: абнормно е това, което се отклонява от нормата за дадена група, като се акцентира върху факта, че абнормността не е автоматично равнозначна на понятието болест. Като пример се посочват акцентуациите на характера или леки снижения на интелекта. Когато абнормността е с отрицателен знак Г. Попов това нарича девиантност (Popov, 2010). Само да спомена, че според проф. Н. Маджирова много човешки поведения могат да следват това, което е известно като нормалната крива, в която по-голяма част от хората са струпани около най-високата точка на камбаната, което е средното. Тези, които са в двата края на кривата, са в категорията на “ненормалното”. (Madzirova, 2021).

Аналогично на екзистенциално-хуманистичния модел, който заимства категории и принципи от философията и етиката, социокултурният заимства принципи и категории от социологията и антропологията. Според социокултурните теоретици личността и поведението на човека се формират посредством социални сили. За да бъде анализирано разстроено поведение, психотерапевтът следва първо да анализира цялата социална система, в която пациентът функционира като семейна структура, социални формални и неформални връзки, икономически условия, етнос, традиции и религия, обществени прояви и социални роли. Социокултурният модел изисква и конкретен анализ на социалните връзки на пациента с други хора, извън семейството, като акцент се поставя на качествения анализ и динамиката. (Stoykov, 2009).

Връзката “нормалност” – “девиантност” може да се представи чрез следващия модел:

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION

Фиг. 1. Спектър на зависимостите (модификация по J. Marks, 1985).



Подреждането на фигурата е отнесено към съвременната европейска култура, но може да бъде допълнено и променено за всяка друга култура. (Роров, 2007).

Патология, култура и зависимости - психопатологични аспекти на зависимото поведение сред културите

Култура и психопатология споделят общи характеристики. Те имат сходна антология: и двете са надбиологични системи и вид интерпретации – на колективен опит и поведения (културата) или на индивидуални преживявания (психопатологията) (Onchev, 2020). Те имат и сходна епистемология: и в двете водещи черти не се осъзнават докрай от участника или пациента и могат да са по-очевидни за външния наблюдател, а вникването и в двете изисква поставяне “в обувките на другия” (Onchev, 2020). Културата оказва несъмнено влияние върху всички аспекти на симптоматиката: от генезата, изявата и разпознаването ѝ до смисъла, който ѝ се придава, и начина на търсене на помощ. Немалко културни разлики в психопатологията имат биологични причини. Един пример доказващ тази теория е връзката между часовите слънцегреене годишно с депресията и самоубийствата които са в основата на големите разлики между населението на Екватора и това на средните географски ширини към полюсите (Onchev, 2020).

Що се отнася до проблемът за зависимостта към дроги има своята дълга предистория в българската култура и това явление се етикетира като наркомания, а носителите на явлението, твърди Г. Попов, станаха “другите” – безкрайно различни, неразбираеми и носещи заплахата. (Роров, 2007). Нормата и патологията не са различни планети, а представляват един континуум на състояния, които постепенно, понякога незабележимо, преминават едно в друго. Психологичната зависимост може да прераствне в психопатологична. Дефиницията за психопатологична зависимост може да гласи така: Повтаряща се във времето свръхупотреба на вещества или дейности, доставящи удоволствие, при лишаването от които настъпва “синдром на отмяна”, характеризираща се с поява на неудоволствени преживявания и психологични и телесни симптоми. (Роров, 2007). Феноменът “оттегляне на удоволствието” е част от времевата структура на личността (минало-настояще-бъдеще; избързване-изчакване). Редица изследвания показват, че този феномен корелира с по-голяма личностова разтегнатост напред в бъдещето, с по-голяма възможност за планиране и прогнозиране, както и с по-голяма академична успеваемост. Не случайно се споменава този факт от Г. Попов защото обратното – стремежа към непосредствено удоволствие “тук и сега” е основна личностова характеристика на зависимите от дроги. Те нямат времева разтегнатост към бъдещето, както и към миналото и живеят само с непосредственото настояще. (Роров, 2007). Понастоящем, той твърди, че проблемът за зависимостта към наркотици не трябва да се разглежда изолирано, а като част от широк спектър на психотропици, много от които могат да бъдат свръхупотребени и да доведат до своеобразна зависимост. Тази зависимост може да се отразява добре или зле на социалното функциониране на индивида, но във всички случаи трябва да бъде познана, подкрепяна или отстранявана.

Според оценка на Националния фокусен център за наркотици и наркомании на базата на последното национално представително проучване сред общото население на възраст 15 - 64 години в България, проведено през 2012 г., разпространението на употребата на хероин през последните 12 месеца е малко по-високо от употребата на метадон (не за лечение) и на други опиати. Около 0.2% ($\pm 0,00\%$ доверителен интервал 95%, т.е. около 10 000 души) от общото население в България е употребявало хероин през последните 12 месеца, 0,1% ($\pm 0,00\%$ доверителен интервал 95%, т.е. около 5 000 души) от населението в България е употребявало метадон (не за лечение), същата е употребата на други опиати. Общо 0,4% от общото население в България са употребява и някакъв опиоид (хероин, морфин, метадон и т.н.) поне веднъж в живота си. В абсолютни числа това означава, че около 20.000 души на възраст между 15 – 64 години са с поне една употреба на някакъв опиоид в живота си. Наблюдава се известен спад в сравнение с 2005 г. (1,1%); 2007 г. (0,9%) и 2008 г. (0,9%). Разпространението на употребата на хероин и други

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION

опиати в България остава сравнително стабилно с лека тенденция за намаляване през последните пет-шест години. Налице е тенденция за намаляване на броя на лицата, потърсили лечение във връзка с употреба на хероин или други опиати, и повишаване на средната възраст на потърсилите лечение. Хероинът остава най-широко разпространеният опиаат, но на фона на нарастващата употреба на метадон (не за лечение) и други синтетични опиоиди. (Kozhuharov, 2017).

За обществото наркозависимостта е стар проблем, водещ към престъпност, ниска производителност, психични заболявания, пренос на болести, а напоследък и набъбващ брой затворници. Близо седем от десет затворници отговарят на критериите за злоупотреба с наркотични вещества или зависимост от тях. Според едно изследване 35,6% от лишените от свобода са били под влиянието на наркотици по време на криминалното си деяние. Злоупотребата с наркотици се изразява в десетки милиарди долари загуби, главно заради наркопрестъпления. (Igalman, 2017).

Повечето държави решават проблема с наркоманията, като я криминализират. Преди няколко десетилетия 38 000 американци са били в затвора за престъпления, свързани с наркотици. Днес те са половин милион. На пръв поглед това може да звучи като успех във войната с наркотиците, но масовото лишаване от свобода не е намалило наркотърговията. Това е така, защото в голямата си част хората зад решетките не са босовите на картелите, кръстниците на мафията или дилърите на едро – хората, попадащи в затвора, са там за притежание на малко количество дрога, обикновено под два грама. Те са потребителите. Те са пристрастените. Отиването в затвора не решава проблема им – то обикновено го влошава. САЩ държи в затвора заради наркопрестъпления повече хора, отколкото е целият брой на затворниците в Европейския съюз. Проблемът е, че затворничеството повлича един скъп и порочен кръг от рецидиви и повторни затваряния. То разрушава съществуващия социален кръг на хората и им дава нов социален кръг и нови трудови възможности – обикновено такива, които подклаждат зависимостта им. (Igalman, 2017).

Всяка година САЩ харчи 20 милиарда долара във войната с наркотиците; общата сума за света е над 100 милиарда долара. Инвестицията обаче не се изплаща. Откакто е започнала тази война, употребата на наркотици се е разширила. Защо разходите не са донесли успех? Проблемът с наркоснабдяването е, че то е като балон с вода – натиснеш ли го на едно място, ще се издуе на друго. Вместо да се атакува снабдяването, по-добрата стратегия е да се насочи вниманието към търсенето. А търсенето на наркотици е в мозъка на пристрастения. Някои хора изтъкват, че наркозависимостта е свързана с бедността и натиска на връстниците. Те наистина играят роля, но

в сърцевината на проблема е биологията на мозъка. При лабораторни експерименти плъхове си прилагат сами наркотици, натискайки постоянно лостчето за отпускането им, пренебрегвайки храната и водата. Плъховете не правят това заради финанси или поради социална принуда. Правят го, защото наркотиците използват основополагащите системи за възнаграждение в мозъка им. Наркотиците на практика казват на мозъка, че това решение е по-добро от всички други неща, които би могъл да прави. В битката може да се включат и други мрежи, представляващи всичките причини за устояване на дрогата. При пристрастения обаче жадуващата мрежа побеждава. Мнозинството наркозависими искат да спрат, но откриват, че не са в състояние да го сторят. В крайна сметка те стават роби на своите импулси. Тъй като проблемът с наркозависимостта се намира в мозъка, много е вероятно и решенията да се намират пак там. Един от подходите е да се наклонят везните в полза на контрола на импулсите. (Igalman, 2017).

Факт е, твърди Г. Попов, че обществото може да проявява по-голяма толерантност към вредни за здравето, но дълбоко вкоренени в културата вещества като алкохола, и напълно да отхвърля други, нетипични за дадената култура вещества като марихуаната и хероина, въпреки че по официални статистики алкохолът и тютюнът причиняват десетки пъти по-често смърт, отколкото хероина. И на второ, но не на последно място, може да съществува антагонизъм между различните способности за доставяне на удоволствие (например алкохол или хероин) нямат зависимост към дейности, доставящи удоволствие (например нямат или рядко имат хоби). Нашата култура, характеризираща се с висок степен на несигурност и тревожност, съществува ярка дихотомия между социално приемливите и социално-неприемливите зависимости, както вторите се преживяват като различните, чуждите или опасните “други”. Колкото повече вникваме в дълбочината на този проблем, толкова повече “другостта” ще става по-близка и възприемчива, а това е изключително важен фактор за формиране на адекватна и трайна обществена стратегия спрямо явлението “зависимост към психоактивни вещества”.

Културни и психопатологични особености на наркозависимостта

В литературата съществуват десетки опити да се дефинира наркоманията и да се направи точна класификация – в качеството си на психично състояние, симптом, синдром или отделна нозологична единица. В този раздел ще се опитам да Ви представя само част от изказаните до този момент мнения по отношение естеството на наркоманията. Тъй като този проблем е всеобхватен и многопластов, тук ще акцентирам основно върху разбиранията на психопатологията за наркоманията и културната обусловеност на този вид зависимост.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION

Наркоманията представлява патологична потребност към системно приемане на определени субстанции, естествени или синтетични, при наличие на повишена толерантност, заедно с необходимост от непрекъснато увеличаване на дозата и настъпване на абстиненция и дискомфорт при прекъсването на приема (Zlatanova, 2019). *По дефиниция наркоманията е болестно състояние* което се проявява в систематична употреба на наркотични вещества (наркотици) или на психоактивни вещества (ПАВ) и се характеризира с физическа и психична зависимост спрямо тях и последващи други здравословни (включително и в сферата на психиката) проблеми (Ivanov, 2019).

Токсикоманията е по-общото понятие и според някои автори и към него освен наркоманиите принадлежат и алкохолизмът, табакотоманията (страстта към тютюнопушене), кофеинотоманията (страстта към пиене на кафе), зависимостта от ПАВ и др.

Под „наркотици“ се разбира широк спектър от субстанции: от болкоуспокояващи медикаменти до алкохол, халюциногени, марихуана, стимуланти като кофеин, никотин, хероин, кокаин, влияещи върху психиката, настроението и централната нервна система. През 50-те години на XX век започва ускорено производство и приложение на психотропни вещества - лекарства, които въздействат на емоциите и мисленето на човека и понастоящем намират широко приложение, заедно с други методи за терапия. Но революцията, свързана с психотропните лекарства, е съпроводена и със сериозни социални и психологични проблеми. Някои от тези медикаменти имат нежелани странични ефекти, които задълбочават страданието. С тях нерядко се злоупотребява, което води до пристрастяване. В най-общия случай психотропните вещества въздействат преди всичко на главния мозък и премахват много симптоми на психичните разстройства. Най-популярната класификация на психотропните лекарства се основава на техните характерни лечебни свойства. Те биват невролептици, антидепресанти, транквиланти, психостимуланти и психодислептици. (Stoykov, 2009). Тъй като за моята разработка е важна класификацията на наркотиците, разгледана по-горе, тук няма да се спирам на подробностите около психотропните лекарства и техните лечебни свойства.

Наркоман, или токсикоман, може да бъде наречен всеки, който отговаря на някои или всички условия, отбелязани от СЗО:

- а) намира се в състояние на периодично или хронично интоксикаране, което поставя и индивида и околните в опасност;
- б) увеличаващата се толерантност причинява склонност към покачване на дозата;
- в) болният проявява силно влечение към определен препарат, граничещо със зависимост;

- г) не е в състояние да се откаже от по-нататъшното вземане на лекарството;
- д) става психично, а често и физически зависим от веществото и неговите ефекти, в следствие на което внезапното спиране на препарата води до физическа и психическа зависимост.

Веществата, които причиняват зависимост в днешно време са много разпространени. Като се абстрахираме от наркотиците, терминът токсикомания се приема като по-подходящ за характеризиране на това болестно състояние. От едни вещества има само психическа зависимост. Например: хашиш, кокаин, амфитамин, мескалин, кофеин - те предизвикват промяна в настроението и не настъпват същински абстинентни явления. От друга страна има и препарати, които предизвикват и физическа още известна като органична зависимост. Тя се изразява в мъчителни и болезнени абстинентни симптоми, които често застрашават живота на болния. Такива препарати са морфин, хероин, алкохол, хипнотици и аналгетици. Тази реакция се причинява при честата употреба на чуждото токсично вещество, което става част от обмяната на организма. Прекъсването на неговия прием води до два основни психопатологични симптома: *силна необходимост от препарата*, придружена със страхова напрегнатост и *абстинентни симптоми*.

Един от признаците за зависимост от наркотичното вещество е наличието на *абстинентен синдром* или *абстинентни състояния*. Те се характеризират с деперсонализация, включваща замъгляване на съзнанието, дезориентация, смътност на възприятията, обърканост и изключване на мисленето, халюцинации, нелудничави идеи и други подобни. Със задълбочаване на наркотичната зависимост се развива и психоорганичен синдром. Възниква силно увреждане на краткосрочната памет, докато способността за непосредствено възпроизвеждане е съхранена. Развива се усещането за време и за последователност на събитията, нарушена е способността за усвояване на нова информация.

Ние още не знаем кое е основното разстройство при зависимостите от дроги, ако въобще може да се говори за “основно разстройство”, тъй като био-психо-социалният обяснителен модел на наркоманиите, който ползва за анализ системния подход, разглежда дрогата само като катализатор на една ескалираща дисфункционалност на системата (семейство, училище, общество и т.н.), заявява Г. Попов (Поров, 2007). При сигурна невробιοлогична основа на контрола върху импулсите, основаваща се на честотата на разстройствата в контрола на импулсите, има огромна разлика в разпространението – от крайно редки до една четвърт от цялата популация, което е знак, че патологията има различни лица. В култури, които са пермисивни към употребата на алкохол и вещества, нарушеният контрол върху импулсите може да се прояви чрез злоупотреба и зависимост,

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION

докато в рестриктивни спрямо пиене и вещества култури може да приемем формата на гневни изблици, личностова или афективна патология.

Връзката между личностовите разстройства и наркозависимостта

Личностовата патология е продължение на личностовото разнообразие. В индивидуалистични култури с приоритет на автономността и индивидуалните норми тя е по-разпространена, отколкото в традиционните общности. Реалната честота на личностови разстройства в общата популация е между 1 и 3% за всяко поотделно и между 10 и 13% общо за всички, като в много райони на Третия свят тя е неизвестна, особено в селата. (Onchev, 2020).

Терминът зависимости в психологията и психопатологията се определя като вид поведение, чийто корен се открива и при здравите хора и се изразява например в употреба на алкохолни напитки, диети, преяждане, натрапливи мисли (като напр. натрапливо звучаща мелодия) натрапливи действия (напр. неколкократно проверка дали си заключил или дали си изключил електричеството) и т.н. От тези нормални човешки действия израстват и болестните разстройства, наричани “зависимост към ПАВ”, “анорексия” и “булимия”, “натрапливо разстройство” и т.н. В психологичен смисъл, би могло да се каже, че разстройството в тези случаи се изразява в “свръхупражняване” на нормални поведения. В психопатологичен смисъл към това се добавя *елементът на страданието, невъзможността за собствен контрол върху поведението, усещането за вътрешна принуда и нарушеното функциониране.* (Роров, 2007). Ако се върнем назад до 30-те години на миналия век, ще забележим, че в медицинския модел се появява подход, възприемащ човека като едно неразделно цяло. Според него човекът е не само психо-физическо-социално, но и духовно същество. В психиатричното мислене тогава преобладавали все още фройдистки и неофройдистки психоаналитични теории, а силно влияние оказвали също така и навлизащите във фазата си на бързо развитие открития в областта на мозъчната неврофизиология. (Voydillo, 2008). Днешните схващания за психопатологичния смисъл на нормалните човешки действия се основават именно на биопсихосоциалния модел.

Злоупотребата с вещества се дефинира като маладаптивен модел на употреба на вещества, характеризиращ се с рискова или компулсивна употреба или наличие на ролева увреда или повтарящи се правни проблеми, но без развитие на толеранс или абстиненция. Зависимостта изисква по-високо ниво на асоциирани дисфункции, което обикновено се съпровожда от физиологични симптоми на толеранс и абстиненция. (Kozhuharov, 2017). Диагнозата на разстройствата, свързани с опиоидна употреба, се опира на същите критерии, използвани за

диагнозата на другите зависими разстройства. (Kozhuharov, 2017). DSM-4-TR. 2000 г , дефинира две диагностични категории за разстройствата, свързани с употреба на вещества: злоупотреба и зависимост. Според DSM-4 диагнозата както на злоупотреба с вещества, така и на зависимост, изисква наличието на специфично, свързано с употреба на вещества поведение с продължителност поне 12 месеца, което се съпровожда с три или повече от следните симптоми:

- (1) толеранс, изразяващ се във: а) *нужда от значително увеличение на вземаната доза от веществото, за да се постигне същият ефект, или б) с продължаващата употреба значително намаляване на ефекта от същото количество вещество;*
- (2) абстиненция, изразяваща се със: а) *абстинентен синдром, характерен за веществото, или б) употреба на веществото, за да се предотврати или облекчи абстинентен синдром;*
- (3) количество или продължителност, която е по-голяма от възнамеряваната;
- (4) повтарящи се неуспешни опити за контрол или редуциране на употребата;
- (5) отнемането на много време за пациента за употреба на веществото, лекуване от ефектите му или сдобиване с веществото;
- (6) редуциране или изоставяне на важни социални, професионални или развлекателни активности поради употребата на веществото;
- (7) продължаваща употреба на веществото, въпреки очевидните соматични или психологични проблеми. (Американска психиатрична асоциация, 2000, цит. по Kozhuharov, 2017).

Американската психиатрична асоциация допуска диагнозата на опиоидна зависимост да се постави без наличието на толеранс или абстиненция, но в практиката подобни пациенти рядко се наблюдават. Пациенти без толеранс или зависимост не биха покрили настоящите критерии за опиоидна субституираща терапия, но биха били подходящи за други типове терапия.

Честотата на антисоциалното ЛР рядко е завишавана от антисоциалното поведение у наркомани и алкохолици. (Onchev, 2012). Според литературни данни се наблюдава, че разстройствата свързани с употреба на психоактивните вещества са много чести коморбидни разстройства при почти всички ЛР съгласно DSM-V. Така, разстройствата свързани с употреба на психоактивни вещества са придружаващи следните разстройства на личността: *параноидно разстройство, антисоциално разстройство* което е във висока коморбидност със злоупотреба на

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION

психоактивни вещества – налице е при 60% от страдащите, *гранично и нарцистично разстройство на личността* и др. (Asenova, 2018). Според мен, разстройствата свързани с употреба на ПАВ са не само придружаващи изброените разстройства на личността, а и до голяма степен отключващи тези разстройства или такива с подобен произход. Смяя да твърдя, че разстройствата свързани с употреба на ПАВ са между фундаменталните фактори за етиопатогенезата на личностовите разстройства.

Като цяло опиоидната зависимост се асоциира с висок риск за психиатрична коморбидност, като зависимостта към незаконни наркотици показва по-висок риск за психиатрична коморбидност, отколкото зависимостта към легални вещества. Рискът е кумулативен, така че пациентите с множествена наркотична зависимост са с най-висок риск за развитие на психични разстройства (Kandel et al., 2001, цит. по Kozhuharov, 2017). Едно проучване показва, че 47% от пациентите, търсеци метадонова субституираща терапия, имат добавъчни психиатрични разстройства (Brooner et al. 1997, цит. по цит. по Kozhuharov, 2017). Въпреки че специфичните коморбидни диагнози биха зависели от региона и изследваната популация, драматичната група/кластер от личностови разстройства (антисоциални за мъжете, гранични за жените), афективни и тревожни разстройства имат по-висока превалентност при популацията на опиоидно зависими (Brooner et al. 1997, цит. по Kozhuharov, 2017). Едно проучване при пациенти, зависими от кокаин, намира, че самооценъчен личностов инструмент (Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory-2; Millon, 1997, цит. по Kozhuharov, 2017)) е бил полезен само при скринирането за личностови разстройства. Структурирано интервю за личностово разстройство (Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-4 Axis I Disorders; First et al. 1997, цит. по Kozhuharov, 2017) е оценявано като по-надеждно при диагностицирането на личностови разстройства (Marlowe et al. 1997, цит. по Kozhuharov, 2017).

Зависимостта от наркотици е комплексно заболяване. (Vedar, i kolektiv, 2008). То се характеризира с натрапчиво, понякога неконтролируемо страстно желание за наркотик, търсене и употреба, които упорито остават дори пред лицето на извънредно негативни последствия. За много хора зависимостта от наркотици става хронична, с възможно подаване на желанието за прием на наркотик дори след дълги периоди на въздържане. Като потвърждение на тезата за “наркоманията като болест” се привежда следното обяснение: “зависимостта често включва не само принудителното взимане на наркотика, но също така и широка поредица от дизфункционални поведения, които нарушават нормалното функциониране в семейството, на работното място и в по-широката общност, в която живее един индивид. Зависимостта също така може да постави хората в

увеличен риск за заболяване от широка гама други болести. Тези болести могат да бъдат придобити поради беден живот и лоши здравни навици, които често съпътстват живота на един зависим, или поради токсичните ефекти на самите наркотици.” Понастоящем се чете, че зависимостта има толкова много измерения и нарушава толкова много аспекти на живота на един индивид, и затова лечението на това заболяване никога не е просто. (Vedar, i kolektiv, 2008). Според мен, напълно може да се приеме, че сериозното нарушаване на социалния живот и личността на наркозависимия са основа върху която са се създавали и ще се създават бъдещите концепции за “наркоманията като болест”.

Болестта при всички зависими е всъщност една и съща, но нуждаещите се от помощ хора често са съвсем различни, освен това търсят помощ на различни етапи от развитието на болестта и произтичащите от нея проблеми. За много пациенти започването на терапия се превръща в най-големия прелом в техния живот. Зависимостта е една от малкото болести, чието лечение помага на здравеещите да се научат да живеят по-добре от много други хора, които не са зависими. Разбира се, при едно условие: че успеят да оздравеят от своята зависимост. (Voydillo, 2008.) Степента на зависимост от наркотика обикновено е свързана с характеристиките на конкретния наркотик, с продължителността на употребата на наркотика, с времето между приемите, както и с приеманите дози. Трябва да се отчитат и тенденциите при горните характеристики, както и дали пациентът е зависим към едно или към повече психотропни вещества. При *диференциалната диагноза* трябва да се отчита близостта на клиничната картина на наркоманията до някои екзогенни и ендегенни психози. Твърде важни са и особеностите на личността на наркозависимия.

Психотерапия на наркоманиите

Освен точното констатиране на ползваното вещество или наркотик, психотерапевтът трябва да установи връзките и взаимодействията в триъгълника „вещество - личност - среда“, в който трябва да се търсят условията, факторите и конкретните причини за наркоманията при даден пациент. В момента у нас е актуална комбинацията на марихуана плюс стимуланти от амфетаминов тип, главно кокаин. Расте и употребата на хероин. (Ivanov, 2019).

Според Националния център по наркомании, през 2018 год. 11% от българското население, или около 500 000 души, са опитвали наркотик или наркотици. Броят на наркоманите у нас по неофициални данни надхвърля 250 000 души, което е смятащо голям брой за сравнително малкото население на страната. При положение, че това число расте твърде бързо, картината става още по-мрачна. Оттук следва неоспоримият извод за нарастващата важност на лечението на

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION

наркоманиите и за необходимостта от интензивна квалифицирана психотерапевтична дейност в тази област. (Ivanov, 2019).

Психотерапевтът трябва още, както е по принцип при всички зависимости и вредни привычки, да разкрие симптомите на страданието, степента на обсебеност на пациента и етапа на наркоманията, в който се намира той. Психотерапевтът може да потърси освен характерните за наркомана личностни черти, но още и обстоятелствата, които обикновено съпътстват битието на наркозависимите и в този смисъл също са фактори за злоупотребата с дрога. Най-често в тази област се посочва кризата на идентичността в юношеската възраст, която при някои млади хора протича доста драматично и може да се превърне в обстоятелство, подкрепящо страстта към наркотиците. Трябва да има предвид и възможността пациентът му да страда от полинаркомания - зависимост не от един, а от два и повече наркотика. При противодействието на наркоманията съществуват няколко прости общи правила:

1. Неотстъпчивост спрямо поканите и настояванията за употреба на наркотик от близки и приятели. Обикновено тези покани са придружени с обвинения за страхове, за нелоялност към групата, за липса на кураж и др. Пациентът трябва да се научи да не се поддава на този натиск.
2. Прекъсване връзките с хора и със среди, в които наркотиците са приети и съставляват част от битието.
3. Създаване на контакти на добри отношения с хора, чието поведение е алтернативно на дрогирането - трудолюбиви и успели лица, спортисти и др.
4. Създаване на нови жизнени ценности и цели, различни от наркоманските. Търсене и упражняване на дейности, които са полезни за личността на пациента.
5. Замяна на кумири, имащи отношение към наркотиците (рок звезди, артисти, музиканти, певци и др.), с нови кумири, които далеч не са свързани с употребата на дрога.
6. Избягване на специфичния наркомански уличен жаргон в речта. Това правило съвсем не е за подценяване, напротив, от психологическа гледна точка то е твърде важно заради различния стил и различната визия към живота и общуването при наркоманските среди.
7. Избягване на наркоманската субкултура в нейните различни проявления в киното, литературата, музиката и т.н.
8. Укрепване на волята по различни подходящи за пациента начини и т.н. (Ivanov, 2019).

Освен тези общи правила за психотерапевта са важни, разбира се, ефективните методи за психотерапевтична работа срещу адиктивното поведение. Тези методи са два типа:

- 1.) превантивни спрямо адикцията

2.) противодействащи срещу реално съществуваща адикция (зависимост)

Най-ефективните превантивни методи за непопадане в състояние на зависимост са следните:

- 1) Методи на ролевите ситуации.
- 2) Метод „Думи по буквите на името”
- 3) Метод „Продължи историята”.
- 4) Метод на черно-бялата дискусия.
- 5) Брейнуошинг.
- 6) Метод на утвържденията.

Методи на същинската терапия (срещу реално съществуваща адикция):

- 1) Метод „Личността на наркомана”.
- 2) Метод „Ако ..., то”.
- 3) Метод на усилване на мотивацията.
- 4) Поведенски методи.
- 5) Методи на подходящата среда.
- 6) Дихателни методи.
- 7) Аверсивни методи.
- 8) Метод BSCT (поведенски тренинг за самоконтрол).
- 9) Метод на договарянето.
- 10) Метод на телесното релаксиране (отпускане).
- 11) Метод на свободното фантазиране.
- 12) Метод на твърдото „Ив!”. (Ivanov, 2019).

Дейвид Игълман, американски невробиолог и невроучен, в своята лаборатория прилага на практика един много интересен подход за лечение на наркозависимостта. Нека разгледаме един пример за да открием в какво се състои неговият подход. Карън - жизнена и интелигентна жена и на петдесет години е запазила младежката си енергия. Била е пристрастена към кокаина повече от две десетилетия и разказва, че дрогата е съсипала живота ѝ. Види ли дрога непосредствено пред себе си, тя просто няма друг избор, освен да я вземе. При настоящите експерименти в неговата лаборатория те слагат Карън в мозъчен скенер (апарат за функционален ядреномагнитен резонанс, или фЯМР). Показват ѝ изображения на крек (кокаин) и ѝ казват да го пожелае. За нея това е

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION

съвсем лесно и то активира определени области в мозъка ѝ, които екипът му обобщено нарича жадуващата мрежа. После ѝ казват да потисне желанието си. Казват ѝ да се замисли за цената, която крекът е имал за нея – като финанси, взаимоотношения, работа. Това активира друга група мозъчни области, които обобщено наричат потискащата мрежа. Жадуващата и потискащата мрежа неспирно се борят за върховенство и онази, която побеждава в момента, определя какво ще направи Карън, когато ѝ бъде предложен крек. С помощта на бързи изчислителни методи в скенера те могат да измерят коя мрежа надделява – краткосрочното мислене на жадуващата мрежа или дългосрочното мислене на контрола на импулсите, тоест потискащата мрежа. Невроучените дават на Карън зрителна обратна връзка в реално време под формата на скоростомер, така че тя може да види как върви битката. Когато желанието ѝ за дрога надделява, стрелката е в червената зона; когато Карън съумее успешно да го потисне, стрелката се премества в синята зона. Тогава Карън може да използва различни подходи, за да открие какво действа при накланянето на везните между тези мрежи. Упражнявайки се отново и отново, Карън започва да разбира все по-добре какво трябва да направи, за да премести стрелката. Независимо дали осъзнава, или не осъзнава как го прави, чрез многократни упражнения тя може да укрепи невронните схеми, които ѝ дават възможност да потисне желанието си. Този метод е все още в прощъпулник, но надеждата е, че когато следващия път на Карън бъде предложен крек, тя ще има когнитивните инструменти да превъзмогне моментните си желания, ако поиска. (Igalman, 2017). Тези упражнения не карат Карън да се държи по някакъв определен начин – те просто ѝ създават когнитивните умения да контролира по-добре избора си, вместо да робува на импулсите си.

Важно е да се отбележи, че представената информация не обхваща в цялост комплексния подход който се използва при лечението на наркоманиите. Изброени са само най-честите методи прилагани сред психотерапевтичната общност, както и най-базисните насоки за започване на психотерапевтична работа. Сложността на протичането на терапевтичните сеанси не позволява простото им изброяване по фазовост, честота и качество на провеждане на този тип психоинтервенции. Целта бе да се посочи, че има достатъчно алтернативни методи за превенция или предотвратяване на вече съществуваща наркозависимост, за разлика от миналото, когато този проблем е бил “естествена част от човешката история и култура”. (вж. Увод в проблематиката “зависимо поведение” – историческа справка).

Заклучение

Теоретичният анализ, заедно с разгледаните примери от практиката на специалисти, пряко занимаващи се с изследвания в областта на адиктивното поведение и наркозависимостта ни показва, че наркоманията като сложен социален, биологичен и психологичен феномен е била и ще бъде по-скоро контролирана от “културните” и моралните ценности и неформалните социални схващания, отколкото от Политиките на публичните регулаторни системи. Също така, този анализ допринася за по-добро разбиране връзката между наркоманията, личностните разстройства и контекста на културното влияние и насочва вниманието на изследователите и лечебните заведения за наркомани към специфичностите на адиктивното поведение което има огромна медицинска, социална и културна значимост. Обсъдихме и предлагането на психотерапевтична помощ за противодействие на наркоманията и психотерапевтичната работа срещу адиктивното поведение. Цитирахме няколко експерименти свързани с въздействието на наркотичните вещества за да покажем какви последици оказват те върху биологията и психологията на наркозависимите, но и техните близки. Далеч не са изчерпани всички направени изследвания в тази често тъмна и неосветлена част в научните води, но едно е сигурно, че доколкото изследванията на адиктивното поведение отсъстват от статистиките на психолози, клиницисти и държавните институции, дотолкова все по-размита ще става връзката между психопатологията, културата и наркозависимостта. Затова, отворен стои въпросът: в чие чекмедже събира прах уредбата за адекватна политика за лечение и профилактика, извън кабинетите на психотерапевтите, лечебните заведения и специалистите по превенция на наркозависимостта?

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL DISORDERS, SOCIOCULTURE AND DRUG ADDICTION

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Research article

RESULTS OF INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDENTITY, SELF-ESTEEM AND SOCIAL ANXIETY: GREEK AND CYPRIOT ADOLESCENT STUDENTS

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Abstract

This article aims to present a relatively recent study conducted by me on a sample of 149 Greek and Cypriot adolescent students of the six classes of high school, which involved 82 girls and 67 boys, ranging in age from 13 to 18 years. The research was conducted in April and May 2021, amid of the existing ‘ebullition’ due to the prevailing pandemic of Covid-19, thing which held back, to a large extent, the manner of the conduct of research among the students. The pursuit of the above study is the reference to the existing interrelationships between identity, self-perception, self-esteem and social anxiety between the adolescent students above, and its main purpose is to investigate the self-esteem and social anxiety in these students, in relation to their gender and age group. The conclusions reached are useful and generally expected, but they are not generalizable due to the small number of participating students but also, the small dispersion of their population.

Key words: Interrelationship, Identity, Self-perception, Self-esteem, Social anxiety, Adolescent students.

When a child leaves childhood and goes to adolescence, that is, essentially follows the path of adulthood, then this has the effect of putting him/her in a period of rapid change where mental and physical balance are disturbed and characterized by constant fluidity. Nevertheless, at this developmental stage it has been observed that the adolescent gradually stabilizes and develops his/her self-perception and also the physical, cognitive and emotional development. At the same time, he/she improves the logic and sense of self, and tries to discover and stabilize his/her identity. Still, the period of adolescence is an important developmental stage that includes emotional, cognitive, biological and social changes, which the adolescent experiences and deals with in his/her daily life. Cognitively, in this period, the capacity for abstract thinking is developed and in relation to his/her social and emotional

development the adolescent is in constant search of identity, while he/she is also concerned with issues of self-confidence, autonomy and independence (Sawyer, 2012).

Boys and girls, during adolescence, experience significant changes in their mental world that, at times, can lead to actions that will mark the next years of their lives. According to Lynne et al. (2007), boys who grow faster are accepted by their peers to a greater extent. However, this is also accompanied by the disadvantage that there is a high probability that, at some point, they will be more easily led to antisocial or delinquent behavior. In girls, the perception of acquiring of the premature maturity fills them with anxiety, especially when they receive harassment or attacks from their peers (Mendle et al., 2007). Ge et al. (1996) found that girls were more likely to develop emotional problems and low self-esteem, as well as higher rates of depression, anxiety and eating disorders, than their peer boys.

It is a fact that adolescence greatly influences the psychosynthesis and the formation of the adolescent's identity, through the acquired experience and his/her mental and social balance (Becht et al., 2016). And as Meeus et al. (2005) argue, during this period adolescents want to function autonomously and independently of their parents and also seek, increasingly, closer contacts with their peers. However, these interesting contacts and attachments of adolescents with peers, make them more and more distant from their parents and also converge more and more towards their peers or classmates (Harris, 1998). But perhaps the most important social task for an adolescent is the constant search and consolidation of a stable identity. And at this stage of the search between many types of identities, there is a risk for the adolescent to experience the 'confusion of roles', with a high probability that will lead him/her to choose a negative or unwanted identity, while sometimes can be disappointed and temporarily to abandon his/her attempt for the identity search.

Regarding the social anxiety observed in adolescents, Aron et al. (2005) found that this is indeed a serious problem and therefore, effective interventions and treatments are constantly sought by researchers; and as shown by the international literature, there is a strong research interest, especially in recent decades (Crome et al., 2015). Also, the severity of social anxiety disorder is evidenced by the fact that it has been ranked first, with prevalence rates of 12-13%, among all anxiety disorders and it is the third most common mental disorder after depression and alcohol dependence. Estimates of the general prevalence of social anxiety in childhood and adolescence, where rates reach up to 9% (Merikangas et al., 2010) in Europe and America, are estimated to be lower than those of adults. More specifically, it affects 3-4% of children and 9% of those in adolescence (Burstein et al., 2011).

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDENTITY, SELF-ESTEEM AND SOCIAL ANXIETY: GREEK AND CYPRIOT ADOLESCENT STUDENTS

The way in which the interrelationships between identity, self-esteem and social anxiety during the adolescence are involved, need further and in-depth study. These, however, seem to be involved, either individually or as a cause of triggering behaviors or character formation, which in turn create a vicious circle between cause and effect. The degree of difficulty becomes even greater, when the investigation of all these factors is to be done, depending on gender and age group, in Greek and Cypriot adolescent students, when in fact there are no large-scale analogue previous studies.

It is therefore a complex and multidimensional process of investigation, in which various functional, social, physical and psychological factors contribute, which influence and shape the character, identity, functionality and, in general, the life of the adolescent. The conclusions drawn from the present study are useful, but without the possibility of generalization due to the various existing constraints in research. According to the main research hypotheses, the adolescents are expected to face: (1) Social anxiety problems, (2) Self-esteem problems, and (3) Communication problems. Also, there is difference in the level of social anxiety between boys and girls, with the girls leading the way. And finally, girls have lower self-esteem than boys.

Research Method

Research sample

In the research, which was conducted by me in April and May of the year 2021, involved a total of 149 high school (gymnasium and lyceum) students that were housed in 20 and now different cities and villages of Greece and Cyprus. The students were aged from 13 to 18 years, of whom 82 were girls and 67 were boys, and they were divided into two (2) groups (Table 1):

- Group A where were joined the gymnasium students (total 55 students - 22 boys and 33 girls)
- Group B where were joined the lyceum students (total 94 students - 45 boys and 49 girls)

Groups: A and B	Frequency	Percent (%)
Group A (Gymnasium)	55 (22 B - 33 G)	36,91% (40,00% B – 60,00% G)
Group B (Lyceum)	94 (45 B - 49 G)	63,09% (47,87% B - 52,13% G)
Total	149 (67 B - 82 G)	100% (44,97% B - 55,03% G)

Table 1: *Group A: Students in Gymnasium and Group B: Students in Lyceum*

Schools from different parts of the two countries were represented, as far as possible, due to the existing Covid-19 pandemic that was on the rise during this research. And, to a large extent, a special effort has been made so that they can be widely represented the diverse socio-economic population groups and geographical areas. Finally, in order to facilitate the processing of the research results then, became, in retrospect, some omissions of queries or statistics that were deemed would adversely affect the later processing.

Sampling technique

According to the rules of research ethics and personal data legislation, students, their parents and teachers were aware of the characteristics of this research, the security of personal data, as well as, the ensuring the anonymity of students. The participation of the latter in the research was voluntary, and the questionnaires were given to the participating underage students, only after their parents' consent. The whole of the research program was adequately explained to every one of the above, as well as what its goals were.

The sampling technique used to collect data in the present study, due to Covid-19, had some peculiarities. So, this was performed electronically, that is, through the emails of students or their parents, but also, through various educational/student groups in facebook. A total of 40 questionnaires were forwarded to the participants, via email, and 32 questionnaires with complete answers were sent back (80% response rate). The result of receiving the answers via facebook was quite satisfactory, and so were received 117 fully completed questionnaires. Thus, a total of 32+117=149 completed questionnaires have been received from the students.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDENTITY, SELF-ESTEEM AND SOCIAL ANXIETY: GREEK AND CYPRIOT ADOLESCENT STUDENTS

Experimental design - Means of data collection

This study, after the in-depth and extensive evaluation of the various factors that affect it and the existing peculiarities, was carried out using quantitative experimental methods. Also, the demographic variables of students and their parents (gender, age, school, educational level and occupation of parents) were surveyed and recorded through improvised questionnaires.

The key questionnaires used in this study, are widely used with high validity and reliability, and are as follows along with their key features:

- 1) **'State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI)' by Spielberger et al. (1983)**: It is used for evaluating the occasional anxiety and its purpose is to measure the anxiety of the participant at the moment 'state anxiety' is considered; also, it has and a second section that looks at anxiety as 'personality trait'. Consists from 40 phrases, of which, the first 20 refer to state anxiety, while the other 20 refer to anxiety trait.
- 2) **'How I Perceive Myself - III (PATEM-III)'**: It is used for students aged 13 to 15 years and is a psychometric tool for assessment students' self-esteem and individual self-perceptions. There is the Greek version from the corresponding 'Self-Perception Profile - SPP' for children by Harter (1985), and the weighting of the test in the Greek high school student population, carried out by Makri-Mpotsari (2001). PATEM-III includes 55 questions divided into ten scales, nine of which attribute an equal number of sub-domains of self-perception and one that assesses self-esteem.
- 3) **'How I perceive myself - IV (PATEM-IV)'**: It is used for students aged 16 to 18 years and is a psychometric tool for assessment students' self-esteem and individual self-perceptions. It is the Greek version of the 'Self-Perception for Adolescents Questionnaire' by Harter (1988). The PATEM IV questionnaire, as described by Makri-Mpotsari (2013), includes twelve scales, eleven of which reflect an equal number of individual areas of self-perception and one which assesses self-esteem.
- 4) **'Beck Youth Inventories (BYI)' by Beck et al. (2005)**: Consists from 5 self-report scales that may be used separately or in combination in order to assess a child's (7-18 years) experience of: Depression, Anxiety, Anger, Disruptive behaviour, and Self-concept. Each inventory contains 20 questions about thoughts, feelings and behaviors associated with emotional and social impairment and children describe how frequently a statement has been true for them over the past two weeks. In the present research have been used the following 2 from the 5 BYI's scales: 1) 'Beck Self-Concept Inventory for Youth (BSCI-Y)' and 2) 'Beck Anxiety Inventory for Youth (BAI-Y)'. The remaining 3 self-report scales, which have not been used here, are: 1) 'Beck Depression Inventory for Youth (BDI-

Y)', 2) 'Beck Anger Inventory for Youth (BANI-Y)' and 3) 'Beck Disruptive Behavior Inventory for Youth (BDBI-Y)'.

Discussion

The main purpose of this research, that is the study of the existing relationship between identity, self-esteem and social anxiety, in a sample of adolescent students (13-18 years old) from Greece and Cyprus, was satisfactorily fulfilled, both in terms of research hypotheses, as well as in terms of objectives. The results of the present study, which I conducted with enough difficulty, are in line with many of the findings and conclusions of previous researches, in terms of relationship and interaction between the three (3) aforementioned factors, in early and late adolescence. But also, the results of this research are in complete harmony with the basic research hypotheses as were formulated, that is, the adolescents indeed face problems of social anxiety, self-esteem and communication, which affect their school life, but also the relationships between them. Also, that adolescent girls have higher levels of anxiety than the boys of the same age, but lower levels of self-esteem than boys.

As mentioned also before, the research sample of this study consisted of 149 adolescent students (82 girls and 67 boys), who were separated, for the best service of the research process, into two (2) groups:

- Group A included the early adolescents (55 students in total - 22 boys and 33 girls - attended in gymnasium), and
- Group B included the late adolescents (94 students in total - 45 boys and 49 girls - attended in lyceum).

The main objective of this study was to determine the role of gender and age in the onset of symptoms of social anxiety and also, how they are associated with low self-esteem. To better serve this objective, four (4) appropriate questionnaires were used, which were directly related to the rationale and objectives of the research. Each of them could investigate in depth and reliably the specific areas of personality traits of the participating adolescent students.

Confirmation or not of the initial research hypotheses

For the confirmation or not of the initial research hypotheses that were made in this study, in combination with the results that emerged from conducting this research, are then made the reports in detail:

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDENTITY, SELF-ESTEEM AND SOCIAL ANXIETY: GREEK AND CYPRIOT ADOLESCENT STUDENTS

‘Spielberger State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI)’ questionnaire

1st research hypothesis: The adolescent girls, according to the realized measurements of this research, would show higher levels of anxiety.

Research result: From the ‘Spielberger State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI)’ questionnaire, the following emerged:

- a) In this test (Table 2), there are no significant differences between the mean scores of Group A (38,0909) and Group B (38,3936). So, the mean scores of Groups A and B, and also the total mean score (38,2819), place them in the category of ‘Moderate anxiety’ (38 - 44).

group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Group A	55	38.0909	10.74670	21.00	70.00
Group B	94	38.3936	12.04045	21.00	78.00
Total	149	38.2819	11.54374	21.00	78.00

Table 2: Scores for the variables ‘Group A’ and ‘Group B’

- b) In this test (Table 3), there are some significant differences regarding mean scores, for the two genders (boys & girls). The mean score for the girls is 39,5488 and for boys 36,7313, with a total mean score of 38,2819. These scores place the girls in the category of ‘Moderate anxiety’ (38 - 44), while boys in the category of ‘No or low anxiety’ (20 - 37).

gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
girl	82	39.5488	12.30994	22.00	72.00
boy	67	36.7313	10.41209	21.00	78.00
Total	149	38.2819	11.54374	21.00	78.00

Table 3: Scores for the variables ‘Girl’ and ‘Boy’

c) In the next Table 4, that mentions about crosstab between the anxiety level (‘No or low anxiety’ or ‘Moderate anxiety’ or ‘High anxiety’) and the Groups A and B, we can observe that: Within the group A, about the 1/3 of the sample (18,2%+12,7%=30,9%) appears to have some kind of anxiety of the three levels above. Within the Group B, also about the 1/3 of the sample (18,1%+12,8%=30,9%) show also to have some kind of anxiety as before.

		Crosstab				
		anxiety_level			Total	
		No or Low Anxiety	Moderate Anxiety	High Anxiety		
group	Group A	Count	38	10	7	55
		% within group	69.1%	18.2%	12.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	25.5%	6.7%	4.7%	36.9%
	Group B	Count	65	17	12	94
		% within group	69.1%	18.1%	12.8%	100.0%
		% of Total	43.6%	11.4%	8.1%	63.1%
Total	Count	103	27	19	149	
	% within group	69.1%	18.1%	12.8%	100.0%	

Table 4: Anxiety level for two (2) Groups (A & B) of students

d) Table 5 below is a crosstab table between the anxiety level and the two (2) genders. In girls, a 20,7% and a 15,9% show respectively ‘Moderate Anxiety’ or ‘High Anxiety’. So, more than the 1/3 of the girls sample (20,7%+15,9%=36,6%) appear to have some kind of anxiety. In boys, a 14,9% show ‘Moderate Anxiety’ and a 9% ‘High Anxiety’. So, less than the 1/3 of the boys sample (14,9%+9%=23,9%) appear to have some kind of anxiety. The results above show that some kind of anxiety is more highly to appear in adolescent girls (36,6%) than in adolescent boys (23,9%), thing which means that 1 out to 3 adolescents will appear some kind of anxiety.

		Crosstab				
		anxiety_level			Total	
		No or Low Anxiety	Moderate Anxiety	High Anxiety		
gender	girl	Count	52	17	13	82
		% within gender	63.4%	20.7%	15.9%	100.0%
		% of Total	34.9%	11.4%	8.7%	55.0%
	boy	Count	51	10	6	67
		% within gender	76.1%	14.9%	9.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	34.2%	6.7%	4.0%	45.0%
Total	Count	103	27	19	149	
	% within gender	69.1%	18.1%	12.8%	100.0%	
	% of Total	69.1%	18.1%	12.8%	100.0%	

Table 5: Anxiety level for two (2) Genders (Boys & Girls)

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDENTITY, SELF-ESTEEM AND SOCIAL ANXIETY:
GREEK AND CYPRIOT ADOLESCENT STUDENTS

‘How I Perceive Myself - III (PATEM-III)’ questionnaire (Group A)

Other research hypotheses and research results (for Group A): Regarding the ‘How I Perceive Myself - III (PATEM-III)’ questionnaire given to Group A (students 13-15 years old) was emerged the following as it seems from the data in the Table 6 below: In most cases, we can see that the averages of the self-perception and self-esteem scores are higher than the average test score, which is 2,50. There is only one (1) exception for boys in the ‘Ability in language lessons’, where there is an average score 2,380. And also, appear three (3) exceptions for the girls as follows: in ‘Athletic ability’ (average score 2,400), in ‘Natural appearance’ (average score 2,302), and in ‘Self-esteem’ (average score 2,420). From the comparison of average scores between boys and girls, we can observe that there is a big difference in ‘Athletic ability’, with the boys to have the score 3,050 and girls 2,400 (lower than the average test score 2,50). Also, in favor of boys are the following 7 of the total 10 scales: ‘Relationships with parents’, ‘Ability in mathematics’, ‘Athletic ability’, ‘Natural appearance’, ‘Behavior’, ‘Close friends’ and ‘Self-esteem’. In favor of girls are only the following 3 of the total 10 scales: ‘General school competence’, ‘Relationships with peers’ and ‘Ability in language lessons’. Finally, taking under consideration the initial research hypotheses we have made and the results of this test, we are guided to the following main conclusions (Table 6):

scale	boys	girls	Average
General School Competence	2.765	2.810	2.79
Relationships with peers	2.658	2.704	2.68
Relationships with parents	2.975	2.735	2.86
Ability in mathematics	2.773	2.543	2.66
Athletic ability	3.050	2.400	2.72
Natural appearance	2.795	2.302	2.55
Ability in language lessons	2.380	2.652	2.52
Behavior	2.880	2.635	2.76
Close friends	3.110	2.822	2.97
Self Esteem	2.725	2.420	2.57

Table 6: Average scores for Self-perception and Self-esteem by Gender (for Group A)

2nd research hypothesis: It was about the 'General school competence', assuming that both boys and girls would have similar scores.

Research result: The boys have a score of 2,765 and girls a score quite similar, 2,810. That is, the initial hypothesis was verified.

3rd research hypothesis: It was about the 'Relationships with peers', assuming that both boys and girls would have the same degree of self-perception

Research result: In this case, the results confirmed the initial hypothesis, as boys have an average of 2,658 and girls of 2,704.

4th research hypothesis: It was about the 'Relationships with parents', assuming that boys would have a better score than girls.

Research result: In this case the difference in results between boys and girls was small, with the boys to be slightly ahead.

5th research hypothesis: It was about the 'Ability in mathematics', assuming that boys would have a higher degree of self-conception for maths than girls.

Research result: The hypothesis was confirmed and boys had a better score (2,773) than girls (2,543).

6th research hypothesis: It concerned the 'Athletic ability', assuming that boys and girls would had no difference in the degree of self-perception for this case.

Research result: The results didn't confirm this hypothesis, with the boys (3,050) to have a big difference in the score with girls (2,400).

7th research hypothesis: It concerned the area of 'Natural appearance', assuming that boys would have a higher degree of self-perception than girls.

Research result: It seems to be confirmed, with the boys (2,795) to have a big difference in the score with girls (2,302).

8th research hypothesis: It concerned the area of 'Ability in language lessons', assuming that girls would have a higher degree of self-awareness than boys.

Research result: This was verified as the degree of self-awareness for boys was 2,380 and for girls 2,652.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDENTITY, SELF-ESTEEM AND SOCIAL ANXIETY: GREEK AND CYPRIOT ADOLESCENT STUDENTS

9th research hypothesis: It concerned the area of 'Behavior' scale, assuming that boys would have a higher degree of self-perception than girls.

Research result: The results confirmed the initial hypothesis with boys having a score of 2,880 and girls 2,635.

10th research hypothesis: It concerned the area of 'Close friends' scale, assuming that boys would have a higher degree of self-perception than girls.

Research result: Results show that boys really have a higher self-perception, with score to be 3,110, than girls who have a score of 2,822.

11th research hypothesis: It concerned the general degree of 'Self-esteem', assuming that boys would have a higher degree than girls.

Research result: The initial hypothesis was confirmed by the result, as boys have a high average with a grade of 2,725, and girls had a low average of, that is 2,420.

‘How I Perceive Myself - IV (PATEM-IV)’ questionnaire (Group B)

Other research hypotheses and research results (for Group B): Regarding the ‘How I Perceive Myself - IV (PATEM-IV)’ questionnaire given to Group B (students 16-18 years old) was emerged the following as it seems from the data in the Table 7 below:

In general, Table 7 show that all the averages for the self-perception and self-esteem scores of boys and girls are higher than the average of the four-point grading scale, which is 2.50. Except the ‘Ability in language lessons’ (2,215) for boys and the ‘Ability in mathematics’ (2,482), ‘Athletic ability’ (2,235) and ‘Natural appearance’ (2,435) for the girls.

In the same Table 7 we can observe that there are differences in averages for the self-perception and self-esteem scores between boys and girls, in all the twelve (12) scales. These are in favor of boys in the fields of: ‘Relationships with peers’, ‘Relationships with parents’, ‘Ability in mathematics’, ‘Athletic ability’, ‘Natural appearance’, ‘Close friends’ and ‘Self-esteem’. And also, in favor of girls in the fields of: ‘General school competence’, ‘Working ability’, ‘Ability in languages lessons’,

‘Emotional - interracial relationships’ and ‘Behavior’. Finally, the only scale that is under 2.50, is the ‘Ability in language lessons’ with score of 2.47.

scale	boys	girls	Average
General School Competence	2.813	2.822	2.82
Relationships with peers	2.895	2.882	2.89
Relationships with parents	2.881	2.664	2.77
Ability in mathematics	2.883	2.482	2.68
Athletic ability	3.092	2.235	2.66
Natural appearance	2.741	2.435	2.59
Working ability	2.902	3.135	3.02
Ability in language lessons	2.215	2.723	2.47
Emotional - interracial relations	2.665	2.885	2.78
Behavior	2.525	2.798	2.66
Close friends	3.315	2.717	3.02
Self Esteem	3.045	2.801	2.92

Table 7: Average scores for Self-perception and Self-esteem by Gender (for Group B)

Making exactly the same thoughts and calculations with the previous chapter 3.1.2., which refers to the questionnaire ‘How I Perceive Myself - III (PATEM-III)’ that is about the Group A (students 13-15 years old), in combination with the ‘Research hypotheses’ and ‘Research results’, but also analyzing the data of the research carried out, we come to the following brief conclusions, always based on the interpretation of the results:

Hypotheses which confirmed through the research:

- 1) Girls and boys have the same degree of self-perception.
- 2) In relationships with peers there are not differences between boys and girls.
- 3) In the relationships with parents, there is a small difference in favor of boys against girls.
- 4) In math skills boys have a greater degree of self-awareness than girls.
- 5) In the area of self-perception of physical appearance boys have a greater degree on it than girls.
- 6) For the job readiness area the girls perform higher than boys.
- 7) In the area of language skills, the girls have a greater degree of self-awareness than boys.
- 8) In the field of self-perception behavior boys have a lower grade than that of girls.
- 9) In the degree of self-perception close friends, boys have a higher degree of it than girls.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDENTITY, SELF-ESTEEM AND SOCIAL ANXIETY: GREEK AND CYPRIOT ADOLESCENT STUDENTS

10) In the general degree of self-esteem boys have a higher degree than girls.

Hypotheses which didn't confirm through the research:

- 1) The hypothesis that there would be no difference in the degree of self-perception between boys and girls in the athletic ability.
- 2) The hypothesis that there would be no difference in the degree of self-perception between boys and girls in the emotional-interracial relationships.

3.1.4. Comparing the results of PATEM-III and PATEM-IV

Comparing the results of the PATEM-III and PATEM-IV questionnaires (Table 6 and Table 7 above), we discover the following important findings:

- 1) Adolescent students in Group A (13-15 years old) have quite lower 'Self-Esteem' than adolescents in Group B (16-18 years old). The corresponding averages in the scores are 2.57 (Group A) and 2.92 (Group B).
- 2) Boys in Group A have a higher 'Self-Esteem' towards girls. The average scores are 2,725 (boys) and 2,420 (girls - less than 2,500) respectively. The same goes for Group B, where boys are ahead of girls with a score of 3,045 versus 2,801.
- 3) About the unity 'Behavior', the boys of the Group A have a higher grade than the girls (2,880 versus 2,835), while on the contrary, the girls of the Group B are those who have a higher grade in the unity 'Behavior' (2,798 versus 2,525).
- 4) Comparing the last 2 columns 'Average' of the Table 6 and Table 7, we observe that in Table 6 (valid for the Group A) there is no score less than 2,500. However, in the Table 7 there is the score of 2,470, which is less than 2,500, and regards the scale 'Ability in language lessons'.

'Beck Anxiety Inventory for Youth (BAI-Y)'

BAI-Y, through 20 questions about thoughts, feelings and behaviors, assesses a child's (7-18 years) experience of Anxiety. Children describe in it, how frequently a statement has been true for them over the past two weeks. According to BAI-Y, the T-Scores for anxiety are analyzed as follows:

55 or less = Average, 55-59 = Mildly elevate, 60-69 = Moderately elevated, 70+ =Extremely elevated.

Report			
score			
Group	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Group A	56,1636	55	6,62141
Group B	58,1809	94	7,82876
Total	57,4362	149	7,44740

Table 8: Analysis for the variable ‘Score’ in Group A and Group B

Table 8 above, on the BAI-Y test of 149 adolescent students, analyzes the variable ‘Score’ to the variable ‘Group’, which consists of the Group A (55 students aged 13-15 years) and Group B (94 students aged 16-18 years). In this Table we can observe some differences in ‘Mean’ scores, between the Group A (56,1636) and Group B (58,1809), with Group B to be slightly higher. Also, the ‘Total Mean’ score is 57,4362 and both Groups and ‘Total Mean’ are placed in the ‘Mildly elevated’ anxiety level (55-59 = Mildly elevate).

Report			
gender		Group	score
girl	Mean	1,5976	58,4634
	N	82	82
	Std. Deviation	,49341	7,58034
boy	Mean	1,6716	56,1791
	N	67	67
	Std. Deviation	,47316	7,13703
Total	Mean	1,6309	57,4362
	N	149	149
	Std. Deviation	,48420	7,44740

Table 9: Analysis for the variable ‘Gender’ in Group A and Group B

Table 9 analyzes the variable ‘Gender’ to the variable score for Group A (55 students) and Group B (94 students). In this Table, we can see that exist some differences regarding the ‘Mean scores’ of the BAI-Y test, between the Genders of the two (2) Groups A and B. So, Girls’ ‘Mean Score’ is 58,4634,

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDENTITY, SELF-ESTEEM AND SOCIAL ANXIETY:
GREEK AND CYPRIOT ADOLESCENT STUDENTS

Boys is 56,1791, with a total of 57,4362. As it seems Girls' 'Mean Score' is slightly higher, and both Boys and Girls and also, the 'Total Mean' are placed in the 'Mildly elevated' anxiety level (55-59 = Mildly elevate).

'Beck Self-Concept Inventory for Youth (BSCI-Y)'

BSCI-Y, through 20 questions about thoughts, feelings and behaviors, assesses a child's (7-18 years) experience of Self-concept. Children describe in it, how frequently a statement has been true for them over the past two weeks. According to BAI-Y, the T-Scores for anxiety are analyzed as follows: 55 or less = Average, 55-59 = Mildly elevate, 60-69 = Moderately elevated, 70+ = Extremely elevated.

Report			
score			
Group	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Group A	45,4364	55	8,46729
Group B	47,6383	94	8,87288
Total	46,8255	149	8,76166

Table 10: Analysis for the variable 'Score' to the variables Group A & Group B

Table 10 above analyzes the variable 'Score' to the variables Group A (55 students aged 13-15 years) and Group B (94 students aged 16-18 years). As we can see on the BSCI-Y test (Table 10) there are some not significant differences between the two (2) Groups A (45,4364) and Group B (47,6383) regarding the 'Mean scores'. The Group B seems to be slightly higher than Group A, and the 'Total mean score' is 46,8255. Group A, Group B and the 'Total Mean' are placed in the 'Average' Self-conception level (55 or less = Average).

Report			
score			
gender	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
girl	45,5976	82	8,31904
boy	48,3284	67	9,11274
Total	46,8255	149	8,76166

Table 11: Analysis for the variable 'Gender' to the variable 'Score' for Group A & Group B

Table 11 above analyzes the variable ‘Gender’ to the variable ‘Score’ for the Group A and Group B. According to this Table, there are some differences between genders of the two groups regarding mean scores on the BSCI-Y test, with the girl’s ‘Mean Score’ to be slightly lower. The ‘Mean Score’ for Girls is 45,5976, for Boys 48,3284 and the total mean score is 46,8255. Boys, Girls and the ‘Total Mean’ score are placed in the ‘Average’ self-conception level (55 or less = Average). In the BSCI-Y test, lower score means lower self-esteem.

Report				
score				
Group	gender	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Group A	girl	43,5455	33	7,56675
	boy	48,2727	22	9,11400
	Total	45,4364	55	8,46729
Group B	girl	46,9796	49	8,58897
	boy	48,3556	45	9,21500
	Total	47,6383	94	8,87288
Total	girl	45,5976	82	8,31904
	boy	48,3284	67	9,11274
	Total	46,8255	149	8,76166

Table 12: Analysis of the variable ‘Score’ to the variable ‘Group’ and ‘Gender’

Table 12 above analyzes the variable ‘Score’ to the variable ‘Group’ and ‘Gender’. According to this Table, there are some important differences between the ‘Gender’ into Group A (students aged 13-15 years), regarding the ‘Mean scores’ on the BSCI-Y test. While there are no significant differences between the ‘Gender’ for Group B (students aged 16-18 years). Analytically for Group A, the ‘Mean Score’ for the Girls is 43,5455, for Boys 48,2727 and the ‘Total mean score’ is 45,4364. Boys, Girls and the ‘Total Mean’ are placed in the ‘Average’ Self-conception level (55 or less = Average) with the girls to have lower score, thing which means lower Self-esteem. It should be noted that girls have lower scores in both groups and analytically for the Group B, proportionally and in essence, applies the same things as with the Group A.

Conclusions

The most important external factors for balancing and developing of an adolescent’s self-esteem, in addition to his/her temperament and personality, are the parents, peers and in general the environment in

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDENTITY, SELF-ESTEEM AND SOCIAL ANXIETY: GREEK AND CYPRIOT ADOLESCENT STUDENTS

which he/she grows up. High self-esteem helps the adolescent to gain new experiences, take initiatives, take risks, solve problems, become independent and also, be trained in enduring frustrations, but also in managing success. In contrast, adolescents with low self-esteem cannot easily manage everyday issues and, usually, try to avoid situations that pose a risk of failure, embarrassment or error. And the developmental course of an adolescent with low self-esteem, if not treated in time, is specified ominous and is sure to cause him/her problems in relationships, feelings of sadness and shame, communication anxiety, dependence on alcohol or drugs, and even self-harms.

The most important factors that greatly affect an adolescent's self-esteem are the satisfaction with physical appearance, social acceptance by peers, school performance and/or athletic performance, as well as the stability or not of self-esteem during adolescence. The, so far, existing research but also as found through this study, adolescent boys and girls are not a homogeneous group in terms of their self-esteem and social anxiety. And these differences depend on both the age and the gender of the adolescent. It was also observed that in boys' self-esteem and social anxiety seem to be increased during the first period of adolescence, while in girls of the same age the opposite happens. And when an adolescent's age increases, then his/her self-esteem is evolving with a positive pace.

The findings of this study emerged from the investigation of the relationships between the identity, self-esteem and social anxiety of adolescents, as recorded by dividing the adolescents into two groups, that is, those who belong in early (Group A) or in late (Group B) adolescence:

- Group A consisted of 55 (22 boys and 33 girls) Greek and Cypriot students (13-15 years old), who attended the first 3 grades (gymnasium) of high school.
- Group B consisted of 94 students (45 boys and 49 girls) aged 16 to 18 years, who attended the last 3 grades (lyceum) of high school.

According to the above mentioned and in relation to the main aim of this study which was, the investigation of self-esteem and social anxiety in adolescent students in Greece and Cyprus in relation to gender and their age group, emerged, after the processing of the research data, the following most important conclusions:

- 1) Adolescent boys converge more with each other than with girls, in terms of how they perceive themselves; a finding that is obviously related to the general characteristics of gender.

- 2) Boys seem to be more stable in their positions and have a more positive evaluation of themselves, more self-confidence, and absolute choices and without intermediate gradations.
- 3) According to the 'State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI)' questionnaire, social anxiety in adolescent girls is increased by more than 50% compared to that of boys.
- 4) The 'PATEM-III' and 'PATEM-IV' questionnaires showed that the differences in self-perception and self-esteem, between Group A (boys and girls 13-15 years old in gymnasium) and Group B (boys and girls 16-18 years old in lyceum), are almost negligible, but Group B is slightly ahead.
- 5) Research shows that adolescent boys' and girls' ability to respond to their various school responsibilities is at the same level, and also boys and girls have the same degree of self-perception in their relationships with peers.
- 6) Boys score better than girls in terms of relationships with parents, close friends' self-perception, physical appearance, self-esteem, and finally in their ability in mathematics and sports.
- 7) However, the girls' score is higher in terms of their self-knowledge in language lessons and in the behavioral scale.

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDENTITY, SELF-ESTEEM AND SOCIAL ANXIETY: GREEK AND CYPRIOT ADOLESCENT STUDENTS

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Research article

AN INVESTIGATION OF JOB SATISFACTION IN GREEK PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN RELATION TO DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

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Abstract

In the Greek domain, there has been a lack of studies regarding the job satisfaction of primary school teachers since the economic crisis of 2008. The findings concerning satisfaction with demographic variables are contradictory in the international literature. We believe it is of value to explore the current levels of satisfaction among Greek teachers and the effects of demographic variables. Out of the seven demographic factors examined, only two seemed to have a statistically significant impact on different dimensions of satisfaction: school size seemed to affect wage satisfaction, and area of work seemed to affect satisfaction with the nature of the job. Implications are made concerning the causes of these associations and proposals for a more effective investigation of job satisfaction.

Key words: job satisfaction, primary school, teachers, demographic effects, Greece.

A significant number of studies have sought to investigate several aspects of the teaching profession. It is one of the most commonly met globally, and its educators have influenced most people. Notably, the teacher has a dual role in primary and secondary education, transmitting knowledge and a social and moral skillset. It is proposed that it is one of the professions with the highest probability of experiencing burnout (Blandford, 2000). Teachers seem to be more prone to stress than the general population (Karagianni, 2018). Chronic experience of occupational stress often results in "burnout

syndrome," which can severely affect employees' personal lives and their effectiveness in the workplace, hence on their students.

Concerning the sources of occupational stress, researchers in the past have proposed a few models, such as the individual models, that mainly focus on the characteristics of the employee (Meier, 1983; 1984), but also the dynamic models that view occupational stress as a result of the emotional reaction between working conditions and individual characteristics (Buunk & Schaufeli, 1993; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Leiter, 1991).

However, Chang (2009) proposes that teacher burnout in specific seems to be a result of the interaction between individual factors, organizational factors as well as a "trading factor," which refers to the association of those with social factors, such as the attitude of teachers' towards learning difficulties, their perception of management style, etc. (Charalampous, 2012; Koudigkeli, 2017). We believe that this interaction between organizational and individual factors is the key to understanding the relationship of teachers with their work.

We propose that to untangle part of this relationship, it is of value to investigate the interaction between demographic factors (individual characteristics) and overall job satisfaction (organizational factors) since it can do viewed as a multidimensional concept, descriptive of the relationship of the employee with their place of work. Smith (1969) proposed that it can do parcellate in six dimensions: a) the conditions at the place of work, b) the salary, c) promotion opportunities, d) nature of the job, e) relationship with the boss, f) organization of the working place as a whole. Notably, past research has reported an association between low levels of job satisfaction and higher levels of psychological disorders among teachers who experiences stress (Hammen & deMayo, 1982; Finlay-Jones, 1986)

In the international literature, job satisfaction seems to be associated with many factors. For example, Reyes & Shin (1995) mention psychological factors, such as commitment to the profession. Others have investigated individual factors. For instance, Chapman & Lowther (1982) suggest that significant differences accompany gender. Saiti (2007) also discovered associations with demographic characteristics different from those we propose. Sim (1990) proposes that age and level of education positively correlate to job satisfaction, a finding rather unexpected since it proposes that wage (which depends on education level) does not affect job satisfaction. Opposite results have to do obtained by Kim & Loadman (1994). On the other hand, Gesinde & Adejumo (2012) found no statistically significant differences based on gender, qualifications, or age. Also, organizational characteristics have

JOB SATISFACTION IN GREEK PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN RELATION TO DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

been mentioned as predictors of job satisfaction, such as ambiguity/conflict of the role and leadership support (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Glisson & Durick, 1988)

In the Greek domain, several studies have investigated job satisfaction in other sectors of work, such as the labor market in general (Demoussis & Giannakopoulos, 2007), medical professions (see Antoniou et al., 2003; Iliopoulou & While, 2010), and the police force (Alexopoulos et al., 2014). Saiti & Papadopoulou (2015) investigated job satisfaction about personal characteristics but found no statistically significant correlations regarding the teaching profession. Opposed to that, Koustelios (2001) found some significant correlations of different satisfaction dimensions with demographics. More specifically, gender correlated with working conditions (female participants seemed to be more satisfied with working conditions). Moreover, previous experience correlated positively with promotion and supervision satisfaction. Koustelios & Kousteliou (1998) explored the association with organizational factors such as role ambiguity and conflict. In contrast, other studies, such as the one by Platsidou (2010), have investigated job satisfaction of special education teachers about trait characteristics, such as emotional intelligence, and stated that EI is associated with satisfaction with the nature of the job itself.

The specific characteristics and conditions prevailing within schools and educational systems influence how occupational stress does experience. Thus, the experience may differ between countries or within them at different times (Kyriacou, 2001). Earlier research suggests that Greek teachers are not as exhausted as teachers in other European countries (Kantas & Vassiliaki, 1997). However, we believe that this must have shifted due to the significant changes that the government has been through after the economic crisis of 2008.

We believe that a more generalized and temporary investigation of job satisfaction among primary school teachers is necessary before diving into different associations. This study aims to investigate a) the current levels of job satisfaction among primary school teachers in Greece and b) to explore any possible relationship between job satisfaction and demographic characteristics. Future research can correlate these findings with other job-related experiences, such as stress and burnout, trait characteristics, and so on.

We propose the demographic factors: age, gender, years of previous work experience, education level, size of the school unit, place of work (city or province), and employment relationship (hourly

wage, deputy, permanent). According to our knowledge, the last three factors have not correlated to job satisfaction so far.

Research aims

The current study aims to investigate the job satisfaction levels of primary school teachers in Greece, and to explore any possible relationship between demographic characteristics of primary school teachers and job satisfaction dimensions, as measured by the Registration Questionnaire Employee Satisfaction - ESI of Koustelios (1991) and Koustelios and Bagiatis (1997).

Methods

The study involved 161 teachers (134 female) from various primary schools from all over Greece. The questionnaire used for the survey was distributed online through the Google Forms platform in October and November 2021, as imposed by the Covid-19 pandemic. It was completed anonymously.

The research questionnaire consists of 31 questions, divided into two sections. The first section of the questionnaire concerns the demographic characteristics of the participants, and consists of seven closed-ended questions, regarding their age, gender, years of work experience, the employment relationship (hourly, substitute, permanent), primary and additional qualifications, and the number of students in the school unit in which they work. The second part of the questionnaire was the Employment Satisfaction Inventory by Koustelios (1991) and Koustelios and Bagiatis (1997). This scale was developed by the theory of Smith et al, (1969), which advocates the multidimensional nature of job satisfaction and includes 24 Likert questions on a five-point scale (1 = strongly disagree up to 5 = strongly agree) and is analyzed in six dimensions. Satisfaction from a) the conditions which include five questions, b) the salary that includes four questions, c) the promotion that includes three questions, d) the nature of the job that includes four questions, e) the boss that includes four questions and f) the organization as a whole that includes four questions (Koutes, 2019, 2020; Xarmada, 2017). The ESI was developed in Greece and has so far been used in several studies, which proves its validity and reliability (Koustelios & Bagiatis, 1997; Koustelios & Kousteliou, 1998). The short time it needs to be completed, its simplicity, and the fact that it needs no sensitive personal data made it possible to collect a large number of questionnaires in a short period of time. The reliability of the questionnaire was satisfactory, as shown in the table below (Table 1).

JOB SATISFACTION IN GREEK PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN RELATION TO DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Table 1. Employment Satisfaction inventory reliability by dimension.

Dimension	Number of Questions	Cronbach's α
Conditions	5	0.767
Wage	4	0.699
Promotion	3	0.698
Nature of work	4	0.782
Supervisor	4	0.853
Organisation as a whole	4	0.757
Total	24	0.747

All statistical analyses were performed with SPSS v.26. To investigate the influence of demographics on job satisfaction, we used independent samples t-test (for cases where the independent Variable had only two factors – choices) and the one-factor ANOVA (for cases where the independent Variable had more than two factors – choices). In the latter case, the post hoc LSD test was performed in order to accurately identify the statistically significant differences. The significance level was set to be $\alpha = 0.05$.

Demographics of the sample

The following table (2) presents the demographic data of the sample of Greek primary school teachers that we collected (N=161).

Table 2. Demographics of the sample.

Characteristics (N=161)	N	%
Gender		
Male	27	16,8
Female	134	83,2
Age		
Up to 32	70	43,5
Up to 42	61	37,9
Up to 52	19	11,8
Over 52	11	6,8
Employment relationship		
Hourly Wage	15	9,3
Deputy	81	50,3
Permanent	65	40,4
Previous experience		
Up to 10 years	101	62,7
Up to 20 years	41	25,5
Up to 30 years	13	8,1
More than 30 years	6	3,7
Education level		
BSc	55	34,2
MSc	97	60,2
PhD	9	5,6
Number of students in the school unit		
Up to 100	85	52,8
Up to 200	52	32,3
Up to 300	24	14,9
Place of work		
City	109	67,7
Province	52	32,3

Results

The current section provides the descriptive results of respondents' on the dimensions of job satisfaction (Table 3). It is noted that the final score for the satisfaction dimensions came after the reversal of specific questions, as presented in the previous chapter. Based on the data in the table below, but also based on the information on the mean scores of each individual question of the inventory, the levels of job satisfaction dimensions are formulated as follows:

JOB SATISFACTION IN GREEK PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN RELATION TO DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

- Conditions (5 questions): moderate level of satisfaction
- Wage (4 questions): moderate level of satisfaction
- Promotion (3 questions): low level of satisfaction
- Nature of work (4 questions): high level of satisfaction
- Supervisor (4 questions): high level of satisfaction
- Organization as a whole (4 questions): moderate level of satisfaction
- total satisfaction (24 questions): moderate level of satisfaction

It is noted that the final score for the satisfaction dimensions came after the reversal of specific questions, as presented in the previous chapter.

Table 3. Dimensions of job satisfaction mean.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Conditions (5 questions)	161	16,66	3,90
Wage (4 questions)	161	10,83	2,08
Promotion (3 questions)	161	7,29	2,48
Nature of work (4 questions)	161	15,59	2,92
Supervisor (4 questions)	161	14,58	3,27
Organisation as a whole (4 questions)	161	11,75	3,03
Total satisfaction (24 questions)	161	76,70	11,39

The six dimensions of job satisfaction seemed to be correlated in a statistically significant way with each other, with moderate or strong intensity. (For a detailed table of the correlations, see Appendix A).

Concerning satisfaction with the working conditions, the highest score was observed at the sentence "My workplace is enjoyable" ($M = 3.52$, $S.D = 1.0$) and the lowest at the sentence "The lighting

is not enough in my workplace" ($M = .236$, $S.D = 1.1$) and with the sentence "Working conditions are dangerous to my health" ($M = 2.63$, $S.D = 1.1$).

In the set of questions related to wage satisfaction, the respondents agreed more with the sentence "I get paid less than I deserve" ($M = 3.71$, $S.D = 1.1$) and less with the sentence "I get paid enough for the job I offer" ($M = 2.35$, $S.D = 1.0$).

Regarding promotion opportunities, the respondents agreed more with the sentence "The prospects for promotion are very limited" ($M = 3.65$, $S.D = 1.0$) and less with the sentence "There are many opportunities for promotion" ($M = 2.23$, $S.D = 1.0$).

The analysis on the dimensions of satisfaction with the nature of the job showed that the respondents mostly agree with the sentence "My work is worthwhile" ($M = 4.06$, $S.D = 0.9$) and agree less with the sentence "My job is boring" ($M = 1.99$, $S.D = 0.9$).

In the questions that concerned satisfaction with the supervisor, the item with the highest score was "My boss supports me when I need him" ($M = 3.51$, $S.D = 0.95$). The item with the lowest score was "My boss is rude" ($M = 2.12$, $S.D = 1.0$).

Lastly, concerning satisfaction with organization as a whole, the respondents agree more with the sentence "There is favoritism (lack of meritocracy) in the service" ($M = 3.10$, $S.D = 1.0$) and agree less with the sentence "The service takes care of its employees" ($M = 2.88$, $S.D = 1.0$).

An analytic presentation of the mean scores on each question is included in Appendix B.

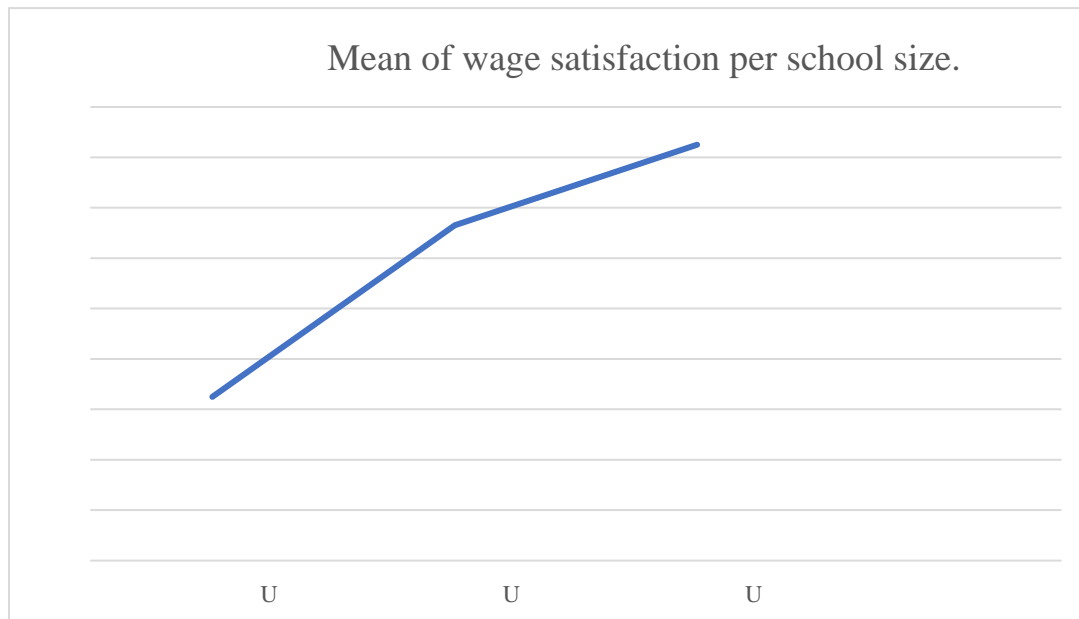
Effects of demographics

Out of the seven demographic factors that were examined, the only ones who seemed to have an effect on dimensions of job satisfaction were the number of students per school unit and the place of work (city or province). More specifically, people employed in schools with less than 100 people are less satisfied with their wage, compared to people employed in schools with up to 300 people, $F(2,158) = 3.089$, $p = 0,048 < 0,05$. (see Table 4 & Graph 1).

JOB SATISFACTION IN GREEK PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN RELATION TO DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Table 4. Wage satisfaction per school size.

Wage satisfaction			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Up to 100	85	10,4588	1,94295
Up to 200	52	11,1346	2,44170
Up to 300	24	11,4583	1,38247



Graph 1. Wage satisfaction per school size

The Post hoc LSD analyses shown below (Table 5) clearly indicate that people working in schools with up to 300 people are more satisfied with their wages than are people who work in schools with up to 100 students. People working in schools with up to 200 students don't seem to have statistically significant differences with either of the other two groups.

Table 5. Post hoc comparisons for wage satisfaction per school size. **Multiple Comparisons.**
Dependent Variable: wage satisfaction.

(I) Number of students in a school unit	(J) Number of students in a school unit	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Up per Bound
Up to 100	Up to 200	-,67579	36122	,063	-1,3892	,0376
	Up to 300	-,99951 *	47426	,037	-1,9362	-,0628
Up to 200	Up to 100	,67579	36122	,063	-,0376	1,3892
	Up to 300	-,32372	50632	,524	-1,3237	,6763
Up to 300	Up to 100	,99951 *	47426	,037	,0628	1,9362
	Up to 200	,32372	,50632	,524	-,6763	1,3237

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Also, as shown in the table below (Table 6), people working in cities are more satisfied with the nature of their work ($p=0.039$) than are people who work in the province.

Table 6. Nature of work satisfaction by place of work.

	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig.
City	109	15,9174	2.083	0.039
Town	52	14,9038		

Discussion

Our sample indicates that the levels of general job satisfaction are moderate among primary school teachers in Greece. The dimensions which showed the highest levels of satisfaction were the nature of the work and the relationship with the supervisor. Opposed to that, the dimension which showed the lowest levels of satisfaction was that referring to promotion opportunities (as shown in Table 3). Furthermore, out of the seven demographic factors examined, only two seem to have a statistically significant effect on respondents' answers. More specifically, it seems that people working in smaller school units are less satisfied with their wages compared to people who work in bigger school units.

JOB SATISFACTION IN GREEK PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN RELATION TO DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Also, people who work in cities are more satisfied with the nature of their job, compared to people who live in the province.

It seems that all the other demographic factors which we examined (age, gender, previous experience, qualifications, wage) do not have a statistically significant effect on any of the dimensions of job satisfaction. On the one hand, this comes in contradiction to previous research (Chapman & Lowther, 1982; Saiti, 2007; Sim, 1990), but on the other hand, it partly confirms results obtained by Gesinde & Adejumo (2012).

The fact that school size seems to affect wage satisfaction could be attributed to the fact that often, smaller schools might have a lack of available personnel; hence the teachers employed might have to fill in for coworkers more often than employees in larger schools. Also, this lack of personnel could result in classrooms with a bigger number of students since it is impossible to split the classroom in two smaller groups. This way, even though the total number of students might be smaller, there may be fewer groups available for every class, hence resulting in a bigger number of students per class. Additionally, we could only hypothesize that tension among coworkers appears more often in smaller schools, resulting in less overall satisfaction. However, the questionnaire used did not investigate the status of coworker relationships. We propose that future tools measuring job satisfaction should also include regarding items.

Our analysis also showed that people who work in cities are more satisfied with the nature of their job compared to people who live in the province. This dimension also correlated significantly with the mean scores in dimensions such as satisfaction with the boss and the organization of the unit as a whole. We could thus hypothesize that schools in cities have a better organization than schools in the province. This could psychologically affect the working experience positively. Also, headteachers in the cities might have a bigger experience in supporting and understanding the problems of their employees due to greater exposure to a variety of conditions. However, we did not witness any direct effect of the place of work on satisfaction with the boss, so the above speculation remains under question. The dimension under examination (nature of the job) is explored with items such as "my work is worthwhile" and "my job satisfies me." Since it is rather often that schools in the province might have a lack of infrastructure, we speculate that teachers are provided with less opportunities to make good use of their ideas and creativity. It is a common experience that teachers and students in the province have to be limited to very basic tools, thus not having the opportunities that schools in the cities provide,

whether that concerns arts, experimental equipment, or physical education equipment. It is common in the Greek domain that the serious lack of infrastructure in schools leads to deprivations in the spiritual cultivation of students and the inability of teachers to utilize their talents.

In conclusion, it seems that primary school teachers in Greece experience moderate levels of job satisfaction, with the nature of the job and relationship with the boss being the dimensions with the highest mean scores. The dimension regarding promotion opportunities showed the lowest levels of satisfaction, followed by wage and organizational satisfaction. Regarding demographic factors, the only ones that seemed to affect job satisfaction were the size of the school unit and the place of work (city or province). We propose that tools used to measure job satisfaction should also include the relationships among coworkers, as according to our hypotheses, it could play an intermediating role in the way that social factors react with job satisfaction. Also, we speculate that the severe lack of equipment and infrastructure of schools in the Greek province results not only in the deprivation of students from stimuli important for their cognitive maturation but also in a less satisfactory experience for the employed teachers, which could affect their performance and relationship with the school.

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Research article

AN INVESTIGATION OF DEMOGRAPHIC FACTOR EFFECTS ON BURNOUT SYNDROME IN PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN GREECE

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Abstract

Several studies have examined occupational stress in primary school teachers. The focus on specific research comes from its high ranking among some of the most stressful professions. The chronic state of occupational stress does recognize as "burnout syndrome," a condition of emotional exhaustion with severe psychological and behavioral symptoms. So far, occupational stress among teachers has been attributed to organizational factors, individual factors, and combinations of the two. However, as conditions in countries and education systems change over the years, sources of stress tend to change. There is a lack of research on this phenomenon in the Greek field, which has led us to study the effects coming from major demographic factors such as age, education, previous experience, school unit size, employment relationship, place of work, and gender. Our results showed that of the seven demographic factors studied, only the employment relationship (substitute, permanent, hourly pay) affects the results of teachers' burnout. Not all spectactors have statistically significant effects on combustion results. We suggest that the future investigation examines the relationship between wage status and the dimensions of burnout in more detail and combination with other possible intermediate factors, such as coping mechanisms and overall job satisfaction.

Key words: primary school teachers, occupational stress, burnout syndrome, employment relationship

According to Kyriacou & Sutcliffe (1979), “teacher stress” refers to a negative emotional experience of anxiety, tension, anger, frustration depression etc., caused by teachers’ perception that their professional status is a threat to their self-esteem or their mental health (Kyriacou, 2001; Karagianni, 2018).

Betoret (2009) claims that there is no consensus on primary sources of occupational stress in teachers because stressors are not static variables but dynamic and depend highly on the changes in the educational system and school context (Giannakidou 2014; Koudigkeli, 2017). Earlier researchers attempted to classify stress factors of the teaching profession. For example, Blase (1982) talked about a) *first-order stressors*, which affect the teachers’ physical effort (i.e., student, discipline, reduced participation, invasive school management e.t.c) directly and b) *second-order stressors*, which indirectly affect the teachers’ effort (i.e., low salary, the social perception of their role e.t.c). Earlier than that, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1977) proposed some sources of teacher dissatisfaction that were considered conceptually similar to the ones mentioned above.

Other studies have proposed different sources of stress in primary school teachers, such as workload, relationships in the workplace (Karadimas et al., 2004), factors inherent in the workplace place (e.g. conditions, hours, e.t.c.), the ambiguity of the educational role, conflicts, organizational structure (Travers & Cooper, 1996), lack of logistical infrastructure, problematic housing, poor lighting, and low salaries (Koudigkeli, 2017).

The distinction between burnout syndrome and stress is difficult, but Maslach and Schaufeli (1993) state that they 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 the general adaptive syndrome, which constitutes of three phases: alertness, resistance, and exhaustion. In the last stage after long-term exposure to stress, there is a depletion of psychological resources, detrimental to the organism. Finally, there is a difference between exhaustion and stress, as exhaustion refers to the possibility of a body deteriorating or failing to adapt without external assistance or environmental adjustments (Charalampous, 2012; Koudigkeli, 2017)

The teaching profession has been a focus of many studies because it is one of the most common professions in the world. Also, because of the dual role a teacher must fulfill, i.e., the transmission of

AN INVESTIGATION OF DEMOGRAPHIC FACTOR EFFECTS ON BURNOUT SYNDROME IN PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN GREECE

knowledge and social and moral values and skills. Worldwide research has pointed out the severe effects of burnout syndrome on the individual's well-being and performance as teachers (Karagianni, 2018). Blandford (2000) states that teachers who belong to one professional group are most likely to experience burnout or quit permanently after a few years. Respectively, it is estimated that 15-25% of primary and secondary school teachers in the US experience burnout during their careers (Farber, 1991). According to Karagianni (2018), surveys conducted in Australia and New Zealand have shown that teachers are more prone to stress and burnout than the general population, whereas special education teachers had even higher levels of burnout than available education teachers (Kyriacou, 1987; O'Driscoll & Cooper, 2002).

Concerning the factors causing burnout, researchers have proposed that both individual and organizational factors are important. Personal factors include demographic characteristics and personality traits such as age, gender, years of teaching experience, personality, and more (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Chang, 2009). Importantly, however, gender has been a diverse topic of discussion. It has been shown that men experience work stress more than women and have difficulty adopting appropriate stress management strategies compared to women, who manage work stress more effectively. On the other hand, Bayern & Furnham reach the opposite results, arguing that women experience more stress than male teachers (Leontari, Kiridis, & Gialamas, 2000; Chatzichristou, 2005; Koudigkeli, 2017). Organizational factors include the institutional and professional characteristics such as socio-economic level, support from the administration, and more (Maslach et al., 2001; Chang 2009; Koudigkeli, 2017).

Chang (2009) states that many studies on teacher burnout have shown that it comes as a result of interaction between individual and organizational factors and based on the transaction model proposed by Lazarus and Folkman in 1984, she named the third factor "a trading factor," which refers to the interactions of individual elements with organizational or even some social factors, such as teachers' attitude to student disorder, teachers' perceptions of management style, and so on (Charalampous, 2012; Koudigkeli, 2017).

Brock and Grady (2002) attempted to summate burnout factors in teachers. They proposed the following categories: a) Individual factors (personality-education-personal life), b) Organizational factors (leadership-organization-culture), c) Professional factors (teaching duties, leadership), d) Social factors (expectations – parents' attitudes – public criticism).

The physical, psychological, and behavioral symptoms of burnout could be detrimental to the individual who experiences it and the students depending on the teacher's well-being for their future academic accomplishment, social skills development, and social perception. Physical symptoms include typical manifestations of stress and anxiety, such as difficulty in sleeping, eating disorders, headaches, gastrointestinal problems, musculoskeletal pain, cardiovascular disease, stomach ulcers, and generally significant physical fatigue (Burke, Greenglass, & Schwarzer, 1996; Tyler & Cushway, 1998; Karagianni, 2018). Psychologically, individuals experience intense stress, dementia-like symptoms, and irritability. In addition, they might develop a cynical attitude, show a low concentration on their work, lack of enthusiasm, as well as feelings of dissatisfaction (Karagianni, 2018; Hogan & McKnight, 2007). Behaviorally, an employee's personal and social life is affected, as an employee transfers the problems of the working place to their family and their social environment. Thus, there are increasing tensions in relationships with other people and reduced interest in socializing. Importantly, burnout is likely to affect a person's daily presence and performance. It is worth noting that people who experience exhaustion show reduced productivity, frequent absences, gradual resignation, and possibly resignation from their profession. Behavioral symptoms include the appearance of bad habits for an individual, such as increased smoking and overconsumption of coffee and alcohol. According to research, the signs of burnout seem to be persistent (Maslach et al., 2001; Karagianni, 2018).

According to a study conducted in the Hellenic Republic by Mancheva, Nikolova & Nerantzi (2021), working in a situation of epidemiological conditions in children with special educational needs is not a predictor of the development of burnout syndrome. Some of the syndrome's characteristics are exacerbated in teachers working in schools with more students (over 100). They increase the experience of depersonalization. In addition, younger teachers with little teaching experience show higher emotional exhaustion and depersonalization levels than teachers with more experience. Knowledge of personal achievements in the situation decreases.

As mentioned above, stressors in the teaching profession are influenced by the characteristics of national education systems and the conditions prevailing in schools. They may thus differ between countries or within countries at different time points (Kyriacou, 2001). Earlier studies in Greece propose that Greek teachers are less exhausted than teachers in other European countries (Kantas & Vassiliaki, 1997). However, the huge changes that the country has been through after the economic crisis, which manifested itself in 2008, must have indeed affected this balance. The first clue of this can be seen in later studies in the Greek domain, which has proposed additional stress sources such as the curriculum, the lack of knowledge on how to handle learning / behavioral problems, the delays in sending books, the

AN INVESTIGATION OF DEMOGRAPHIC FACTOR EFFECTS ON BURNOUT SYNDROME IN PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN GREECE

substitutes, the hourly wages, teaching different subjects, and the untimely placement of seconded (Mouzoura, 2005; Giannakidou, 2014).

Therefore, we believe it is of value to investigate the factors leading to stress and burnout about the specific conditions met in the country. We propose an investigation of essential demographic factors that may relate to burnout. The clear objective of this study is to investigate any possible correlation between demographics and burnout in primary school teachers in the Greek domain. Future studies can focus on the specific interrelations between burnout and other variables such as job satisfaction.

Research aims

The current study investigates any possible relationship between the demographic characteristics of primary school teachers in Greece and dimensions of burnout syndrome, as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Moreover, as sizes of burnout are calculated separately, we would like to explore whether they correlate with each other in the specific population, which will help us better interpret our results.

Research hypothesis

We predict that the dimensions of depersonalization and occupational exhaustion will correlate significantly, whereas personal achievement assessment will correlate negatively with both of the two different sizes.

We also predict that correlations between demographic factors and dimensions of burnout will also abide by the correlations *within* burnout dimensions, i.e., demographic factors correlating with a given size of burnout will also connect in the same manner with any other burnout dimension related to the first one.

Methods

The study involved 161 teachers (134 female) from various primary schools from all over Greece. The questionnaire used for the survey was distributed online through the Google Forms platform in October and November 2021, as imposed by the Covid-19 pandemic. It was completed anonymously.

The research questionnaire consists of 29 questions, divided into two sections. The first section of the questionnaire concerns the demographic characteristics of the participants, and consists of seven

closed-ended questions, regarding their age, gender, years of work experience, the employment relationship (hourly, substitute, permanent), primary and additional qualifications, and the number of students in the school unit in which they work.

The second part of the questionnaire was the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) – Education Survey. Initially, it was developed by Maslach C., Jackson S.E, and Leiter M.P. It consists of 22 self-reported sentences, which construct three subscales: a) occupational exhaustion (9 sentences), b) depersonalization (5 sentences), c) personal achievement (8 sentences). The answers are reported on a 7-point scale (0= never, 6= every day). It was adapted by Kokkinos K. in Greek, based on 430 primary school teachers from Greece and 771 primary school teachers from Cyprus. The score is calculated separately for each of the subscales and not in total by summing the responses of the statements corresponding to each subscale. A high score on the occupational exhaustion and depersonalization scale and a low score on the personal achievement scale indicate burnout.

The validity of the questionnaire was assured through an exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, which showed that the questionnaire was consistent with the original. The reliability of the Greek questionnaire was entirely satisfactory and was calculated at $\alpha = 0.80$ for occupational exhaustion, $\alpha = 0.68$ for depersonalization, and $\alpha = 0.90$ for personal achievement.

All statistical analyses were performed with SPSS v.26. To investigate the influence of demographics on burnout, we used independent samples t-test (for cases where the independent variable had only two factors – choices) and the one-factor ANOVA (for patients where the independent variable had more than two factors – choices). The post hoc LSD test also accurately identified the statistically significant differences in the latter case. The significance level was set to be $\alpha = 0.05$.

Demographics of the sample

The following table presents the demographic data from the sample of 161 primary school teachers that was collected.

AN INVESTIGATION OF DEMOGRAPHIC FACTOR EFFECTS ON BURNOUT SYNDROME IN PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN GREECE

Table1. Demographics of the sample.

Characteristics (N=161)	N	%
Gender		
Male	27	16.8
Female	134	83.2
Age		
Up to 32	70	43,5
Up to 42	61	37,9
Up to 52	19	11,8
Over 52	11	6,8
Employment relationship		
Hourly Wage	15	9,3
Deputy	81	50,3
Permanent	65	40,4
Previous experience		
Up to 10 years	101	62,7
Up to 20 years	41	25,5
Up to 30 years	13	8,1
More than 30 years	6	3,7
Education level		
BSc	55	34,2
MSc	97	60,2
PhD	9	5,6
Number of students in the school unit		
Up to 100	85	52,8%
Up to 200	52	32,3%
Up to 300	24	14,9%
Place of work		
City	109	67,7
Province	52	32,3

Results

A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the linear relationship between the three dimensions of burnout. There was a moderate positive correlation between the dimensions of occupational exhaustion and depersonalization, $r(161) = .58, p = .000$, as expected. The correlation of

personal accomplishment assessment with the other two dimensions was expected to be negative. Indeed, our results showed a negative correlation with both dimensions, however it was very low with occupational exhaustion, $r(161) = -.276, p = .000$, but moderate with depersonalization, $r(161) = -.477, p = .000$.

Table 2. Correlations between the dimensions of burnout.

Dimensions	Occupational exhaustion	Depersonalization	Personal accomplishment assessment
Occupational Exhaustion			
Pearson Correlation	1		
Sig. (2-tailed)			
N	161		
Depersonalization			
Pearson Correlation	.582**	1	
Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		
N	161	161	
Personal accomplishment assessment			
Pearson Correlation	-.276**	-.477**	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	
N	161	161	161

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

Demographic factors effects

From the demographic factors examined, the only one with a significant effect on the dimensions of burnout was the respondents' professional relationship, $F(2,158) = 4.789, p = 0,010$ (See table 3 for means.). Post hoc LSD analysis showed that hourly wage earners have higher levels of Depersonalization than those who work as deputies ($p = 0.007$) and those who work as permanent employees ($p = 0.002$) (See table 4.)

Table 3. Depersonalization by the employment relationship.

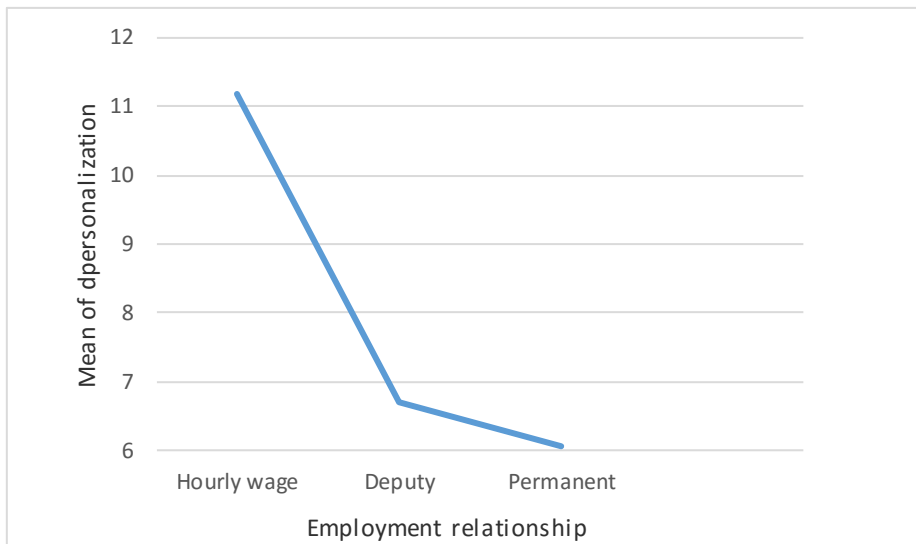
Depersonalization	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Hourly wage	15	11,2000	7,99285
Deputy	81	6,7037	5,64456
Permanent	65	6,0615	5,49681

AN INVESTIGATION OF DEMOGRAPHIC FACTOR EFFECTS ON BURNOUT SYNDROME IN PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN GREECE

Table 4. Multiple comparisons for employment relationships.

Multiple Comparisons						
Dependent Variable: Depersonalization						
LSD						
(I) Employment relationship	(J) Employment relationship	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Hourly wage	Deputy	4,49630*	1,63980	,007	1,2575	7,7351
	Permanent	5,13846*	1,67104	,002	1,8380	8,4389
Deputy	Hourly wage	-4,49630*	1,63980	,007	-7,7351	-1,2575
	Permanent	,64217	,97145	,510	-1,2765	2,5609
Permanent	Hourly wage	-5,13846*	1,67104	,002	-8,4389	-1,8380
	Deputy	-,64217	,97145	,510	-2,5609	1,2765

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.



Graph 1. Schematic representation of depersonalization – employment relationship correlation.

Discussion

In the present study, we sought to investigate possible correlations between demographic factors and the dimensions of burnout in a Greek sample of primary school teachers. Our results showed that the dimensions of burnout correlated with each other as expected. Depersonalization and occupational exhaustion correlated positively with each other negatively correlated with personal achievement assessment. From the seven demographic factors examined, only one had a statistically significant effect

on a dimension of burnout: Employment relationship seems to affect depersonalization, as hourly wage earners have higher levels of depersonalization than those who work as deputies and those who work as permanent employees.

Although depersonalization and occupational exhaustion positively correlate as burnout dimensions, the demographic factor of the employment relationship didn't seem to affect both. We speculate that the association between the employment relationship and depersonalization might be intermediated by a third variable, not met in the association between the employment relationship and occupational exhaustion, or vice versa.

As mentioned above, occupational exhaustion correlated very low with personal accomplishment assessment. There seemed to be no effect of the employment relationship, meaning that the experience of occupational fatigue cannot be attributed to the way one assesses their accomplishments or employment status. Opposite to that, depersonalization correlated negatively with personal accomplishment assessment. There seemed to be an effect of employment status, meaning that the experience of depersonalization can be at least partly attributed to those factors.

Taken together, these results indicate that depersonalization is associated with the factors mentioned above, but occupational exhaustion is not. This implies that there might be an intermediating variable. The employment relationship is, of course, directly related to the wage a person earns. The effect of wage on occupational stress is mentioned in other studies, such as in Mouzoura (2005) and Giannakidou (2014). However, more factors accompany employment relationships and their effects, such as general job satisfaction. We propose that it is of value to investigate the overall job satisfaction level of primary school teachers and how this may affect the dimensions of burnout. This could provide a clearer picture of the conditions resulting in people experiencing occupational exhaustion and depersonalization.

Lastly, we propose that the disengagement of depersonalization and occupational exhaustion regarding employment relationships could be investigated in coping strategies. It may be possible that people under different employment relationships may utilize coping strategies that prevent occupational fatigue but result in high feelings of depersonalization, meaning that these two dimensions are associated with each other under certain circumstances are not considered in the present investigation.

As Chang (2009) mentioned, burnout comes from the interaction of organizational and individual factors. It seems only logical that these interactions have to be illuminated. There is an evident lack of

AN INVESTIGATION OF DEMOGRAPHIC FACTOR EFFECTS ON BURNOUT SYNDROME IN PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN GREECE

surveys concerning models to overcome Burnout Syndrome and strategies to overcome Occupational Stress in the Greek domain. In any case, future studies should make more apparent the variables that intermediate the dimensions of burnout, such as job satisfaction and coping strategies. The enlightenment of those interrelationships can provide us with valuable tools in proposing working and education plans to alleviate the quality of education systems for the teachers and the benefited students.

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AN INVESTIGATION OF DEMOGRAPHIC FACTOR EFFECTS ON BURNOUT SYNDROME IN PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN GREECE

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Research article

STUDY OF SELF-ASSESSMENT AND THE NEEDS FOR ACHIEVEMENT, FOR SAFETY, AND FOR SEX IN MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS

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Abstract

This article aims to establish the relationship between self-assessment and the need for achievement, the need for safety as a tendency to avoid physical injury, and the need for sex in male and female students. The focus of the study is also to take into account which of these needs are more pronounced in male and female students and the level of self-assessment in both sexes.

Key words: gender, needs, self-assessment, students

Self-assessment expresses a sense of personal value and competence. Above all, it is the way a person feels about himself and the degree to which he feels self-respect and self-acceptance. Self-esteem is a person's idea of his contribution to society and evaluation of his qualities and feelings; strengths and weaknesses, expressing them in a strictly individual way. (Borozdina, 2011; Coopersmith, 1967; Maslow, A., 2010).

Karen Horney defines self-assessment as a specific personality entity that belongs to the fundamental features of personality. It reflects a person's knowledge of himself and others, the activity he manifests, and directs to the awareness of their actions and personal qualities (Horney, 1996).

Self-assessment reflects the value of personality (Coopersmith, 1967). S. Coopersmith calls self-esteem the attitude of the individual to himself, which is formed gradually and takes on a habitual character; it manifests itself as approval or disapproval, the degree of which determines the individual's belief in its value, significance (according to Zakharova & Andrushchenko, 1980).

Properly constructed self-esteem is perceived as a condition for establishing self-esteem, self-confidence, satisfaction, emotional well-being and self-confidence. Self-esteem is "seeing and respecting one's own value among others with the resulting self-acceptance and degree of self-esteem" (Ivanov, 2010, p. 58).

The very formation of self-esteem is carried out inactivity and interpersonal interaction. Society significantly influences the formation of self-esteem. To become sustainable, self-esteem is difficult to change, but it can vary by changing the attitude of the environment (Ivanov, 2010; Kon, 1967; Petrova, 2015).

Whether it is based on one's judgments about oneself or the interpretation of other people's judgments, individual ideals, or culturally set standards, self-esteem is always subjective (Borozdina, 1992).

The built self-assessment in a specific system of communication and different social relations is a natural regulator of the activity and behavior of the individual in this system (Mavrodiiev, 2015, p. 92). The peculiarities of self-assessment affect both the emotional state and the degree of satisfaction with their work, study, life, relationships with others.

Self-assessment itself depends on the factors described above. The formation of the individual's personality and its structural components, particularly self-esteem, cannot be considered in isolation from communication, from the systems of relationships in which a person is involved. Self-esteem is an essential component of the overall self-consciousness of the individual, a condition for harmonious human relationships, both with himself and with other people with whom he communicates and interacts (Lipkina & Rybak, 1968).

The person feels successful when the performance reaches or exceeds the level of the goal. Success is associated with the desire to prove and acknowledge others, asserting themselves in the desired position. While in victory, a person experiences a high peak of positive emotions, in failure, it is the opposite, where loss and falling into one's own eyes leads to shame, embarrassment, anxiety, feelings of inferiority. The expression of confidence, insecurity, and self-confidence also reflects how a person is evaluated, particularly his abilities (Cherneva, 2005). A person's natural desire to present himself in the best possible way, especially to others, is the assurance that he will be accepted and appreciated by them, which marks the direction of interpersonal relationships.

Self-esteem plays a direct part in regulating human behavior and activity as an autonomous personality trait, reflecting the ability to build inner peace. The personal development of self-esteem plays a significant role in personality formation - opportunities, directions, activity, social significance.

SELF-ASSESSMENT AND THE NEEDS FOR ACHIEVEMENT, FOR SAFETY, AND FOR SEX IN MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS

Established personal values constitute the core of self-esteem, which determines the specifics of its functioning as a mechanism of self-regulation and improvement of personality (Baklushinsky, 1996, p. 119). Self-esteem is given fundamental importance for the regulation and development of nature as a prerequisite for mental balance and self-actualization.

As a factor determining the satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the activity performed by the person, the level of claims is essential for success and avoiding failure. Significant changes in self-esteem occur if a person attributes it to the lack of necessary abilities in the presence of loss. That is why self-esteem and self-confidence in the mental life of the individual become internal regulators of human activity and behavior (Adler, 2007; Dzhonev, 1996; Mincheva, 2000). Self-esteem is an essential property of the individual, which plays the role of a regulator of human behavior, thus creating the best conditions for its adaptation to ever-changing living conditions (Chesnokova, 1977; Lipkina, & Rybak, 1968; Spirkin, 1972).

The need appears as an echo of disturbed balance, expressed in an intense and long-term state of tension (Cameron, 1947). Need is the apperception of an obstacle, deficit, or harm that leads to desire; it may be mild or severe; short-term or long-term; it activates the personality to seek or avoid specific encounters and carries within it a certain feeling or emotion (Murray, 1938, p. 153). The need arises when reporting a particular deficit in a given situation (Oblukhovski, 1981, p. 83).

A detailed classification of needs, according to H. Murray, is the basis of the questionnaire measuring needs and aspirations, created by G. Stern (according to Ivanov, 1999, pp. 12-25; Stern, 1958; Stern, 1966). For this study, we will consider the needs directly related to its implementation.

The need for achievement - reflects the desire to take concrete action in the fastest and best possible way, overcoming all difficulties and obstacles in achieving the goal. The characteristic feature of this need is related to achieving high goals that exceed the current capabilities of man. This need is also related to the level of claims. It has a severe attitude to maintaining the process of goal formation and is the basis of voluntary quality persistence, which is manifested in overcoming barriers and difficulties in conquering the desired result (according to Desev, 2006, pp. 382). The need for achievement distinguishes the individual with ambition, inspiration, and high aspirations, in which self-esteem increases with the development of their abilities. Characteristic of this need is the long, intense, repetitive efforts in dealing with a difficult task that requires serious mobilization of the will (according to Ivanov, 1999; Murray, 1938). Usually, the need for achievements is compatible with any other condition whose content could be the subject of accomplishments.

On the other hand, this need often confronts the needs of retreat, of avoiding reproach, of avoiding physical trauma, of falling into one's own eyes, of entertainment (play), of affiliation, of ostentation (according to Ivanov, 1999; Murray, 1938). Achievement appreciation can be a socially approved transformation of aggression (Schwartz, 2011, p.311). Thus the need for accomplishment and the need for attack are related.

Need for safety as a tendency to avoid physical injuries. The need for protection as a tendency to avoid physical trauma is a desire to avoid physical pain and the feeling of fear of it. In the foreground, fear and anxiety are distinguished as characteristic feelings. This need is expressed in reactions and behavior such as fear, exaggerated caution, planning of all activities, and avoiding unforeseen situations. A person with this intense need usually gives in to difficult and dangerous situations, hides from people hostile to him, stays away from events. (according to Ivanov, 1999; Murray, 1938).

Need for sex. The need for sex reflects the tendency to create erotic and sexual relationships and contacts. It is characterized by selective association with men or women, discussion of sexual problematic issues, search for erotic adventures, flirting, dancing, the desire to live together with a particular chosen person of the opposite sex. Working together, entertainment, solitude from others, intimate conversations, striving for kisses, caresses, hugs, flirting, expressing sympathy. Characteristic feelings about the need for sex are love, sexual attraction, lust (according to Ivanov, 1999; Murray, 1938).

Research method

The number of surveyed students is 566 students, 182 men (32.2%) and 381 women (67.3%). The study was conducted in Blagoevgrad, in SWU "Neofit Rilski" among students from 26 specialties aged 19-46 years.

For the present study, we used two questionnaires - Questionnaire for the study of global self-evaluation of M. Rosenberg (the title is by Paunov, 2001), published in Bulgaria by Angelova and Krastev (1997), Paunov (2001), Peneva and Stoyanova (2011), Dilova, Papazova & Koralov (2017), and adapted for Bulgarian students by Peneva and Stoyanova (2011). The other questionnaire is "Self-portrait - needs and aspirations," published in Bulgaria by Ivanov (1999), a modification of G. Stern's questionnaire "Activities Index" (Activities Index) (Stern, 1958).

Purpose of the study

SELF-ASSESSMENT AND THE NEEDS FOR ACHIEVEMENT, FOR SAFETY, AND FOR SEX IN MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS

The present study aims to establish the relationship between self-assessment and the need for achievement, safety, a tendency to avoid physical trauma, and the need for sex. In the course of the research, we want to find out which of these needs are more pronounced in male students and female students and the level of self-evaluation in both sexes.

Hypotheses

We assume a relationship between self-assessment and the need for achievement, the need for safety, a tendency to avoid physical trauma, and the need for sex.

1. We assume that male students have a higher level of self-assessment and self-esteem and a lower level of self-underestimation than female students;
2. We assume that men have a greater need for achievement and a need for sex than women, for whom we also take that the need for safety dominates (as a tendency to avoid physical trauma).

Research results

To determine the strength of the linear relationship between needs on the one hand and self-assessment, on the other hand, a correlation analysis is applied, which we use to test the primary hypothesis.

The results of the correlation analysis showed only statistical significance; whereas the self-assessment score increases, the need for achievement increases (Spearman's $Rho = 0.301$; $p < 0.001$; $N = 566$). In support of this, other authors have also found a directly proportional relationship between self-assessment and the need for achievement in Bulgarians (Dilova, Papazova & Koralov, 2017, p.133).

As with increasing self-assessment score, the need for safety decreases (reprimand avoidance) ($r = -0.302$; $p < 0.001$; $N = 239$).

Based on these results, the central hypothesis in the present study was partially confirmed, where we assume that there is a relationship between self-esteem and the need for achievement, the need for safety, a tendency to avoid physical trauma, and the need for sex. The obtained data showed the presence of such a statistically significant correlation, but only in the market for achievement, which falls into the focus of our study, i.e. as the self-assessment score increases, the need for achievement increases (Spearman's $Rho = 0.301$; $p < 0.001$; $N = 566$).

Gender differences in self-assessment, self-esteem and self-underestimation of the surveyed students, the data from the study show that men have lower self-underestimation, higher self-esteem, and higher self-assessment than women (see Table 1).

Table 1. Significant gender differences in terms of the studied variables

I stage at the end of the school year	sex	N	M	SD	Medium rank	Mann-Whitney U	p	Effect size r
self-underestimation	male	182	15,456	2,889	313,02	28843,000	0,001	0,135, i.e. small
	female	380	14,705	2,668	266,40			
self-esteem	male	182	17,033	2,415	309,68	29633,500	0,005	0,119, i.e. small
	female	381	16,530	2,182	268,78			
self-assessment	male	182	32,489	4,391	316,07	28470,000	0,001	0,145, i.e. small
	female	381	31,197	4,161	265,72			

Note: N is the number of subjects; M is the value of the arithmetic mean; SD - the importance of standard deviation; Mann-Whitney U - practical value of the Mann-Whitney test; p - level of significance of the Mann-Whitney test.

The study results confirmed the second hypothesis. We assume that male students have a higher degree of self-assessment and self-esteem and a lower degree of self-underestimation than female students.

Personality traits are determined by several factors that have occupied scientists since ancient times. There is no unique personality model, given the variety of biological and social influences that form the unique structure of each individual. However, demographic factors undoubtedly reflect specific differences between groups, the main one being gender.

In terms of gender differences, about the needs of male and female students, the results show the following (Table 2):

Table 2. Significant gender differences in terms of the studied needs of students

SELF-ASSESSMENT AND THE NEEDS FOR ACHIEVEMENT, FOR SAFETY, AND FOR SEX IN MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS

Indicator	sex	N	M	SD	t	df	p	Effect
								size r
								Cohen's d
Need for achievements	male	182	5,71	1,188	4,728	561	<0,001	0,427, , i.e. small
	female	381	5,14	1,385				
Need for security (avoidance of reproach)	male	182	3,52	1,835	2,401	560	0,017	0,217, , i.e. small
	female	380	3,91	1,739				
Need for safety (avoiding physical injuries)	male	182	3,51	1,865	4,890	560	< 0,001	0,442, , i.e. small
	female	380	4,29	1,727				
Need for acquisition	male	181	5,15	1,576	3,881	560	< 0,001	0,351, , i.e. small
	female	381	4,57	1,701				
Need to avoid failure and fall in your eyes	male	182	3,42	1,584	2,364	560	0,018	0,213, , i.e. small
	female	380	3,77	1,620				
Need for sex	male	182	5,97	1,281	8,615	444 ¹	< 0,001	0,780, , i.e. small
	female	375	4,88	1,628				
Need for aggression	male	182	4,29	1,795	6,114	559	< 0,001	0,552, , i.e. small
	female	379	3,35	1,660				
Need for dominance	male	182	4,33	1,679	4,112	558	< 0,001	0,372, , i.e. small
	femail	378	3,71	1,649				
Need for ostentation	male	182	4,61	1,710	2,658	557	0,008	0,240, , i.e. small
	femae	377	4,21	1,632				
Need for compensation	male	181	5,71	1,302	2,881	558	0,004	0,261, i.e. small
	female	379	5,39	1,221				

Note: N is the number of subjects; M is the value of the arithmetic mean; SD - the value of standard deviation; t - the practical importance of t - Student's test; df - degree of freedom of data distribution; p - level of significance of Student's t-test.

Conclusion

The data from the study supported the results we expected and the studies cited above in this regard.

The data showed statistically significant gender differences between men and women, where men have lower self-underestimation, higher self-esteem, and higher self-assessment than women, respectively, and more pronounced needs for achievement and sex, unlike women, which reported a more substantial need for security.

In conclusion, higher self-assessment predicts a more substantial need for achievement and sex (male students). Lower self-esteem is a predictor of a more vital need for safety (female students).

HADZHIEVA, TSVETELINA

Gender differences have both a biological and a social basis. They have manifested in the peculiarities of body structure, physiological and psychological signs.

Among the main personality traits of men are more pronounced aggression, motivation for achievement, emotional stability, and in women - social orientation (Shtekin, 2004).

Gender differences also exist in the field of physical and mental health.

Many psychologists studying the relationships between biological, social, and mental gender differences have concluded that physical gender differences do not explain mental ones. However, society overcomes biological differences and controls gender differences that manifest in mental characteristics (Craighead, & Nemeroff, 2008).

Undoubtedly, gender differences have a differentiating effect on the overall behavior of men and women as a prerequisite for the identification of distinct gender characteristics that dominate their attitudes and behavior.

SELF-ASSESSMENT AND THE NEEDS FOR ACHIEVEMENT, FOR SAFETY, AND FOR SEX IN MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS

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Theoretical article

ПСИХОДИНАМИЧНА ИНТЕРПРЕТАЦИЯ НА ЕЛЕКТОРАЛНОТО ПОВЕДЕНИЕ PSYCHODYNAMIC INTERPRETATION OF ELECTORAL BEHAVIOR

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Резюме

В настоящата статия фокусът на внимание е съсредоточен върху психодинамичната перспектива на електоралното поведение на личността, като комбинация от несъзнаваната мотивация и влиянието на социалните, икономическите и политическите сили в обществото. Дефинирането на особеностите на електоралното поведение обхваща аналитичните му корени, неговата съвременна релевантност, като преход от „ориентираност към институциите“ към „ориентираност към хората“, концепции, включващи ключови понятия като електорална идентичност, личностни особености, индивидуална мотивация и емоционални модели. Обсъждат се уникалните методологични предизвикателства в процеса на анализиране на подсъзнателните феномени на електоралното поведение и изборния вот.

Ключови думи: електорално поведение, личност, идентичност, емоции

Abstract

In the present article, the focus of attention is on the psychodynamic perspective of the individual electoral behavior, as a combination of unconscious motivation and the influence of social, economic and political forces in society. Defining the features of electoral behavior covers its analytical roots and its contemporary relevance, such as the transition from "institution-oriented" to "people-oriented" concepts, including key concepts such as electoral identity, personality traits, individual motivation and emotional patterns. The unique methodological challenges in the process of analyzing the subconscious phenomena of electoral behavior and the electoral vote are discussed.

Key words: electoral behavior, personality, identity, emotions

1. Въведение

Особеностите на електоралното поведение се базират на общата психология, за обяснение на всеки изборен вот или резултат на индивидуално или групово равнище.

Психологията на електоралното поведение може да бъде бекграунд на важни аспекти на вота и да допълни методологиите на основните социални науки със свои собствени специфични методологични подходи и да докаже ролята на подсъзнателния компонент на вота и фината природа на психологическите процеси, определящи електоралния опит и начина, по който той прониква в мислите и живота на гражданите. Изследователите все повече осъзнават, че моделите, които се прилагат в голяма част от съществуващите изследвания, не могат да обяснят зачестилите електорални парадокси. Индивидуалната и колективната психология на съвременните демократични гласоподаватели, в цялото разнообразие от политически партии, трябва да бъдат интегрирани, за да се разберат настоящите изборни реалности.

Същността на електоралното поведение може да се разкрие, чрез основните психологически модели, където индивидуалният вот или резултатът от изборния процес, могат ясно да се обяснят, в контекста на личностните характеристики, когнитивните способности, емоциите, идентичността и нагласите. Следователно природата на електоралното поведение и изборните резултати изисква задълбочен анализ на: индивидуалното участие, общата избирателна активност, изборния процес, природата и конотациите на обществения вот (кога, как, за кого и с каква педиспозиция хората гласуват), генерализираните електорални нагласи (оптимизъм, надежда или негативни очаквания), възприятия за изборната атмосфера, индивидуални интерпретации на контекста, предизборните прогнози и процеси на вземане на решения, включително стабилност и прозрачност на изборния процес. Обобщавайки, може да се твърди, че електоралното поведение е отражение на индивидуалното поведение, в контекста на обществения вот и съставлява изборната организация и нейния социален и политически характер.

Отвъд уникалната гама от въпроси, които психологията на електоралното поведение разглежда, самото естество на моделите, които тества, кара учените в тази област да допълнят основните методологии на социалните науки със свои собствени специфични методологични подходи, за да уловят подсъзнателния компонент на вота и фината природа на психологическите процеси, които определят електоралното поведение и начина, по който то формира нагласите на гражданите. Тези методи варират от дневници и панелни изследвания, до визуални, физиологични и полеви експерименти.

Многобройните препратки към психологията на гласоподавателите и нейната комплексна природа, подчертават ролята на личността, емоциите и изборната организация, позовавайки се на автори, които до голяма степен дефинират областта на електоралното поведение, фокусирайки се върху психодинамичните и аналитичните интерпретации на особеностите на личността и обществото, в контекста на съвременните социално-икономически и политически условия.

2. Психодинамиката като инструмент за обяснение на електоралното поведение

В свят на непрекъснато нарастваща политическа несигурност и градиращо недоволство, въпросът какво означава гласуването за гражданите и какви емоции изпитват хората в момента, в който упражняват правото си на глас, е може би по-важен от всякога. В изследванията на електоралното поведение се оценява актът на гласуване, като уникален момент на гражданско отношение между личността и политическата система и се проследява дългосрочното развитие на идентичността на избирателя и начинът, по който тя придобива последователност и логика през целия живот. Един от парадоксите на електоралното поведение в настоящия контекст е, че повечето

PSYCHODYNAMIC INTERPRETATION OF ELECTORAL BEHAVIOR

съществуващи социално-икономически модели, обикновено обясняват защо различни индивиди подкрепят една или друга партия, а това от своя страна предполага, че гражданите се определят от електоралния избор. Съвременното изследване предполага, че 20% до 30% решават или променят мнението си в рамките на една седмица след изборите и че 29% от американците и 40% от френските избиратели са променили решението си в деня на изборите (Bruter & Harrison, 2020). Следователно динамиката на електоралното поведение и вземането на решения изисква да се преразгледа начина, по който разбираме съзнанието на избирателя.

Все по-ярко се осъзнава необходимостта от разбиране на психологическите механизми зад нагласите на гласоподавателите и се отделя пропорционално повече внимание на подходите на политическата психология и на изборния контекст, отколкото на социологическите анализи на вота. През 50-те години Lane, 1955 изтъква ролята на индивидуалната личност при гласуването, защото разбирането ни за психологическите модели на вота, е нещо повече от обективните социологически и икономически алтернативи. За разлика от тях, чрез психологическия подход се очертава основният лайтмотив зад електоралното поведение на гражданите. Когнитивните и емоционални процеси в основата на гласуването, често, парадоксално се пренебрегват, в сравнение със социалния и демографския детерминизъм или рационалните политически предпочитания. Централното място на партийната идентификация в психологическите модели на политическото поведение се доказва в лонгитюден план с изследвания, които прилагат Мичиганския модел на социализация, среда и електорална промяна (Butler & Stokes, 1969; Franklin & Mackie, 1992; Dalton, 1996).

Аналитичните психолози смятат, че степента на задоволяване на потребностите зависи от социално-икономическата структура на обществото. По-специално, сравнително негъвкавото задоволяване на нуждите за самосъхранение, е пряко свързано с начините на икономическо производство и социална организация. Дори индивидуалните нужди също са ограничени от обществото, което не може да позволи безпрепятствено, неприемливото поведение да се намеси в изискванията на икономическата производствена система. Тъй като структурата на обществото се характеризира с рязко икономическо неравенство между собствениците на средствата за производство и работническите класи, следва последната класа да има по-малко възможности за задоволяване на потребностите, за разлика от първата. Следователно пролетариатът е принуден да потиска своите нужди и желания много повече от управляващата класа.

Ако индивидът е воден от лични мотиви, но живее в общество, което не може да задоволи всичките му потребности и възможностите за това са доста неравномерно разпределени, то възниква въпросът как този индивид се справя с потиснатите потребности и как се поддържа обществената структура, въпреки острата класова дихотомия. Всички психодинамични и аналитични психолози посочват семейството като основна контролираща институция, свързваща развитието на детето с развитието на обществото като цяло.

От една страна, семейството е средството, чрез което обществото внушава своята специфична икономическа структура на детето и в следствие го формира като възрастен човек (Fromm, 2005, 2021). От друга страна, семейството създава психологическите предпоставки за съществуването на икономическата структура, т.е. психологическите връзки, които свързват управляваното мнозинство с управляващото малцинство. Властта на последния над първия е продължение на властта на родителите

над техните деца, по-специално властта на бащата над неговия син. Чрез идентификация с бащата и интернализиране на неговите заповеди и желания, Суперегото на сина се развива чрез бащиното Его, защото това му осигурява морална сила. В хода на развитието на личността, протича процес на обратна идентификация, при който, Суперегото проектира своята морална сила върху тези авторитети, които наследяваме от родителите (въобще учители, политически и икономически лидери и т.н.) и които по този начин поемат моралното качество на родители (Fromm, 2003, 2005).

Структурата на семейството се определя пряко от социално-икономическата структура, а авторитетът на бащата е производна на структурата на авторитета на обществото. От своя страна обществените авторитети заместват фигурата на бащата и се трансформират в значими авторитети за семейството. Следователно, формирането на Егото и Суперегото се определя съвместно, от структурата на властта на обществото като цяло и от преобладаващите социално-икономически условия, отразяващи се от обществото (Fromm, 2005).

Психодинамичните психолози възприемат този процес на формиране по следния начин. Според Фройд (Freud, 1991) основната функция на Егото е координацията между вътрешните нагони и външния свят, която функция позволява на човека да действа и да контролира своята среда. Когато обаче обществената структура забранява задоволяването на много нужди и нагони, развиващото се Его все още не е в състояние да контролира тези неустойчиви желания, за което се нуждае от помощта на Суперегото. Тъй като Суперегото представлява емоционалната връзка с родителите (в социума - отношението към обществените власти), влиянието му е много силно, а неудовлетвореното желание е крайно забранено от съзнанието и се потиска. Потиснатите нужди и желания обаче остават активни в безсъзнателното и продължават да настояват за задоволяване. Те принуждават Егото към непрекъснато отклоняване на енергия за тяхното потискане: колкото по-силно се потискат тези желания, толкова повече енергия на Егото ще отнеме тяхното потискане. Помощта на Егото се заплаща с висока цена, защото „борбата“ за надмощие между Суперегото и Ид е непрестанна (Freud 1991). Това поле на противопоставящи се сили, според аналитичните психолози, провокира формиране на авторитарно-мазохистичен характер у личността. Слабо развитото Его и силното, екстернализирано Суперего водят до прекомерна зависимост от властта и до дълбоко вкоренена нужда човек да се подчинява и угодничи на властите. Терминът мазохизъм (използван тук в непатологичен смисъл) показва, че авторитарният характер открива „похотта“ в своето подчинение, което се крие в освобождаване от безпокойство чрез защита от мощен авторитет и в задоволяване на собствения копнеж за власт, чрез пълно идентифициране с лицата, които притежават власт (Fromm, 2021). С мазохизма обаче върви садизмът: те са част от една и съща структура на характера, при което втората черта компенсира първата. Враждебността, която авторитарният човек изпитва към властите (респективно родителите си), се потиска и измества върху по-малко мощни групи или лица, които авторитарният човек презира и мрази. Следователно, ако обществото е структурирано по такъв начин, че авторитарните личности да могат да се подчиняват на по-висша власт и в същото време да наложат садистичните си тенденции върху определени външни групи и малцинства, структурата на обществената власт ще остане непокътната. Садо-мазохистичният характер е „психологическото лепило“, което свързва управляваните маси с управляващата машина и което поддържа неравнопоставената социално-икономическа структура в обществото (Fromm, 2003; Adler, 2004; Maslow, 2010).

PSYCHODYNAMIC INTERPRETATION OF ELECTORAL BEHAVIOR

Структурата на личността и идеологията на индивида, в голяма степен са определящи за готовността да се извършат определени действия. Авторитарната структура на характера може да се обобщи с десет взаимосвързани диспозиции. Силно авторитарните личности твърдо се придържат към ценностите на средната класа (конвенционализъм); изпитват емоционална потребност да се подчинят (авторитарно подчинение), при което враждебността към родителите и авторитетите се измества върху външни лица (авторитарна агресия); те отхвърлят свободния емоционален живот, прехвърлят отговорността за живота си към външни, мистични сили (суеверие) и мислят в твърди, черно-бели категории (стереотипи). Те проявяват противоречиви тенденции към властта, като в същото време търсят и се страхуват от нея (власт и мислене). Авторитарните личности рационализират съзнателната си агресия, като я приписват на всички хора (деструктивност и цинизъм), защото са склонни да проектират потиснатите си импулси върху външни групи, за които се смята, че участват в зли заговори, конспирации и социални ексцесии (проективност). Не на последно място, те показват силни задръжки в сексуалната сфера, показвайки силно морално възмущение от сексуалното поведение на другите (загриженост за секса). В допълнение, авторитарният човек често е преживял трудно детство, характеризиращо се с възпитание от педантични родители, грубо налагане от тяхна страна на правила и настояване за тотално подчинение на детето спрямо конвенционалните ценности на семейната среда (Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswick, Levinson, & Sanford, 1950).

Авторитарната структура на личността предполага висока степен на готовност за участие в екстремистки действия, но въпросът дали и как наистина ще се случи такова действие, зависи от икономическите интереси и актуалната ситуация, т.е. от въпроса дали те виждат използването на антидемократична пропаганда като необходимо средство за поддържане на доминиращия им статус (Altemeyer, 1988).

3. Връзка на миналия опит с бъдещото електорално поведение

Известни изследвания доказват, че паметта и идентичността също могат да оформят бъдещото електорално поведение. Тези изследвания показват как паметта е устроена и управлявайки постъпващата информация е способна да повлияе на човешкото поведение на съзнателно, но и на подсъзнателно равнище. Моделът на Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968 предполага, че преработката на информация от паметта постъпва от три различни типа сетивни регистри: зрителни, слухови и хаптични (Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968). Следователно, помним нещата, които виждаме, чуваме и казваме, или „докосваме“ (физически опит). Това разграничение е важно за разбирането на потенциалните източници на електорална памет. В краткосрочната памет, спомените се съхраняват, преминавайки през процесите: постъпване, кодиране, запаметяване и извличане, преди потенциално да бъдат прехвърлени в дългосрочната памет. Дългосрочната памет може да бъде изразена или по декларативен (експлицитен), или по недеklarативен (имплицитен) начин (Squire, 1992). Първият разчита на запомняне на факти и събития, докато вторият е свързан с усвояването на умения и навици, първични афекти, класическо обуславяне и неасоциативно обучение. Следователно, избирателно, ние разграничаваме явните спомени (какво си спомнят избирателите от миналото) и имплицитните механизми (несъзнателни навици и условия, които избирателите възпроизвеждат). Подчертават се трите процеса на паметта: кодирането (регистрирането) на информацията, нейното съхранение (поддържане във времето) и нейното извличане (достъп чрез разпознаване, извикване или имплицитно възпроизвеждане) (Bayliss, Jarrold, Baddeley & Gunn, 2005). Тези проучвания успешно могат да илюстрират на психологически език сложния път на

формиране на една изборна представа, а именно: от преживяване, към паметова следа и обобщена информация, до извличане на решение за потенциален бъдещ краен избор.

Исторически погледнато, експертите които се фокусират върху спомените за електоралния вот, доказват че от 10% до 20% от респондентите съобщават погрешно своя избор (Himmelweit, Biberian, Stockdale, 1978; Granberg & Holmberg, 1986; Shachar & Shamir, 1996). Погрешното представяне и рационализирането въз основа на очакваното бъдещо гласуване всъщност е много по-често (Price & Tewksbury, 1997). Спомените за минали явления и връзката им с действителността съществуват, ако са изявени, но не и когато спомените и образите са потънали в подсъзнанието. Нещо повече, визуалната памет за предизборни реклами или такива в изборната нощ, слуховата памет за дискусии или спорове и хаптичните спомени за опита от избирателната секция, могат да съществуват едновременно. Следователно, миналият опит от участието в избори, не трябва да се ограничава до изучаването на изборния вот, по-скоро трябва да включва и разбирането на ритуалите, чувствата и взаимодействията, които също характеризират този специфичен акт на общуване с политическата конюнктура.

Налице са някои интересни констатации относно електоралната памет на гражданите. Някои спомени от изборите са много ярки, като въздействието на местоположението на изборната секция или атмосферата по време на кампанията в изборния ден, или дори в изборната нощ. Например 79% от гражданите на САЩ помнят изображения от изборната нощ. Гражданите често си припомнят конкретни избори, позовавайки се на скандали или неочаквани резултати (Bruter & Harrison, 2020). Други спомени често са индивидуализирани, например лични дискусии и дори спорове относно изборите, с приятели или членове на семейството. Спомените от предходни изборни преживявания също са изключително важни, като 82% от американците, си спомнят за първите избори, когато са имали право на глас, а 70%, си спомнят избори през детските си години. Това отразява уникалната природа на електоралната психология на младите хора (Harrison, 2018), но и ролята на подсъзнателната обработка на информацията.

Спомените от изборите са много важни за активното участие на младите граждани, защото ранното участие в изборния процес, значително увеличава склонността за участие на избори в бъдеще. В САЩ, 48% от гражданите, които си спомнят, че в детството си са придружили родителите до избирателната секция, след пълнолетието си и понастоящем са активни гласоподаватели, докато само 30% от тези, без такива спомени отиват до избирателните урни. Освен това, младите хора, които не упражняват правото си на вот при първите две изборни кампании, на които имат право да гласуват, в зряла възраст попадат в групата на доброволно отказващите се от правото си на вот (Bruter & Harrison, 2020).

4. Избори и емоционален отговор

Значителни са усилията на анализаторите по посока включване на емоциите в политическия анализ и изследването на връзката им с изборите (Marcus, Neuman, MacKuen, Crigler, 2000; Rosema, 2004). Емоционалната природа на политическия опит и поведение се подчертава и от проучвания, които показват, че идентичността и отъждествяването с определена партия са пряко свързани с емоциите в предизборните кампании и политическа комуникация (Britt, 2000; Bruter, 2005). Докато емоциите и разумът често се описват като сърцето и главата на гласоподавателя, то последните изследвания се отдалечават от възприемането на емоцията като чисто афективна и предполагат, че вместо това има последователно взаимодействие между емоция и размисъл (Brader, 2006). Специфични емоции, като надежда, гордост, съчувствие,

PSYCHODYNAMIC INTERPRETATION OF ELECTORAL BEHAVIOR

отвращение, гняв и страх се използват, за да се оцени отношението на респондентите към характеристиките на кандидатите за президент на САЩ (Kinder & Peters, 1980). По подобен начин Lazarus, 1991 се фокусира върху следните шест основни емоции: гняв, вина, страх (безпокойство), тъга, надежда и щастие и подчертава решаващата роля на емоциите като съществен компонент от процеса на вземане на решение. Изследователи успяват да ги „уловят“ в различните етапи на изборния процес и констатират, че изборите обикновено са много по-емоционални за повечето граждани, отколкото се предполага, включително за тези, които не се интересуват от политика (Bruter & Harrison, 2020). Проучванията показват, че изборите могат да бъдат емоционално натоварено преживяване за много граждани, където при 25% от американците се е случвало да плачат, заради избори, а 63% споделят, че преживяват изборната нощ твърде емоционално. Проучвания, посветени на електоралното поведение при различни видове избори (Президентски; Парламентарни, избори за местна власт), свидетелстват за значима емоционална компонента, проявяваща се в изборния ден: 60% от избирателите споделят, че са се чувствали развълнувани пред избирателната урна, 74% от анкетираните са се чувствали горди, докато 53% споделят, че са изпитвали известно притеснение. Тези данни, потвърждават особената яркост на емоцията сред избирателите (Harrison, 2018).

В резултат на това, емоциите не могат да се възприемат като екзогенни причини за електоралното поведение, но могат да се интерпретират като присъщи компоненти на електоралния опит. По този начин, да се чувстваш щастлив, развълнуван, емоционален или притеснен по време на изборите, е част от самото изборно преживяване, резултат от демократичния процес, който вероятно ще се оформи и ще бъде повлиян от електоралното поведение и изборните резултати. Тези контекстуализирани емоции се разглеждат като резултат от идентичността, паметта и личността на избирателя, както и от изборната организация и атмосфера.

5. Заключение

Природата на зависимите променливи, представляващи интерес за анализа на електоралното поведение, създава необходимост от разбиране на сложната динамична причинно-следствена връзка и изучаване на много по-широка мрежа от емоции, преживявания и поведение, обхващащи множеството аспекти на изборния цикъл и многопластови слоеве на реципрочност и последващи ефекти. Това предполага наслагване на краткосрочни, срочни и дългосрочни механизми, които често изискват сложно теоретично моделиране на динамичната причинно-следствена връзка между политическите модели и индивидуалното електорално поведение.

Съдържателният обхват на психодинамичната интерпретация на електоралното поведение предполага специфични и сложни методологически предизвикателства, които често надхвърлят основните аспекти на психологическата наука като цяло и в частност, променливи като личностни характеристики, спомени от предходни ситуации, идентичност и изборна атмосфера. Психоаналитичната перспектива е в подкрепа на виждането, че разчитането на електоралния опит и поведение се подчиняват до голяма степен на подсъзнателни механизми и индивидуалната подсъзнателна логика. Доказва се огромното преобладаване (над 90%) на подсъзнателните ефекти в политическата комуникация, както и в човешкото поведение като цяло (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003). В допълнение, многобройни неврологични проучвания показват, че над 95% от решенията ни са на подсъзнателно равнище и следователно безрезервното приемане на отговорите от самооценъчните скали на гласоподавателите, може да се окаже проблематично при

оценка на електоралното им поведение (Dewey, 2002), за разлика от психодинамичната интерпретация.

Необходимо е в политическите анализи на изборния процес да се включват и психологическите теории, обясняващи подсъзнателните компоненти и механизмите на електорално поведение на всички равнища на съзнанието, защото хората никога напълно не осъзнават пряко собствената личност, нито значението на спомените и миналия опит, нито преднамерено отключват емоциите си (Bruter & Harrison, 2020). Това е респектираща област, защото нейните цели и методологични изисквания, са се доказали в продължение на десетилетия изборни проучвания, които са развили у демократичните граждани силно усещане за това как резултатите от анкетите се тълкуват и влияят на поведението на елита и още по-конкретно на тяхната консистентност и последователност във времето. При изследването на електоралното поведение, без включване на психодинамична техника, рискът от съзнателно изкривяване е особено висок, дори в контекста на изборни проучвания, измерващи предпочитанията на гражданите и прогнозиращи изборните резултати.

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Theoretical article

РЕЗИЛИАНС И КОНСТРУКТНО СХОДНИ ФЕНОМЕНИ

RESILIENCE AND STRUCTURALLY SIMILAR PHENOMENA

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Резюме

В статията се представя теоретична разработка и съотнасяне на конструкта „резилианс“ с различни, но сходни категории (издръжливост, емоционална стабилност, толерантност, устойчивост на стрес и др.). Резилянсът е по-обхватно понятие, чието проявление касае в еднаква степен личното и социалното функциониране на личността. Поради факта, че в българската психологична наука все още има недостиг на теоретико-емпирични модели и теории по отношение на резилянса, в статията са разгледани теории на чуждестранни автори. В руската литература резилянсът се разглежда като цялостно свойство на личността, като нейна характеристика. Западноевропейските и американски автори разглеждат резилянса като съвкупност от редица свойства. Те акцентират върху частни случаи при прояви на резилянс в личностно значими ситуации, и най-вече в контекста на травма от психологична гледна точка. Разглежда се ключовата роля на резилянса в емоционалната сфера и емоционално реактивните личностни характеристики в значими ситуации. Акцентира се върху опити за разработване на структурни модели на резилянса и неговите съставляващи. Разглеждат се основните предпоставки на резилянса (собствени личностни качества, наличието на топла връзка с роднина/и или приятел, приемането на социална подкрепа) и неговите характерни съставляващи (резерв; лимит; изменчивост). Обръща се внимание и на съотношението на резилянса и противоположните му личностно-поведенчески проявления – консерватизъм, ригидност, неуравновесеност, инертност, консерватизъм. Ключови думи: резилянс, издръжливост, емоционална устойчивост, психологическа травма, стресоустойчивост

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Abstract

The article presents a theoretical development and correlation of the construct "resilience" with different but similar categories (endurance, emotional stability, tolerance, resistance to stress, etc.). Resilience is a more comprehensive concept, the manifestation of which concerns the individual's personal and social functioning equally. Due to the fact that there is still a lack of theoretical-empirical models and theories regarding resilience in Bulgarian psychological science, the article examines theories of foreign authors. In Russian literature, resilience is considered as an overall property of the personality, as its characteristic. Western European and American authors consider resilience as a set of a number of properties. They emphasize particular cases of resilience in personally significant situations, and especially in the context of trauma from a psychological point of view. The key role of resilience in the emotional sphere and emotionally reactive personality characteristics in meaningful situations are examined. Emphasis is placed on attempts to develop structural models of resilience and its constituents. The main prerequisites of resilience (own personal qualities, the presence of a warm relationship with a relative/s or friend, the acceptance of social support) and its characteristic constituents (reserve; limit; variability) are examined. Attention is also paid to the ratio of resilience and its opposite personality-behavioral manifestations - conservatism, rigidity, imbalance, inertia, conservatism.

RESILIENCE AND STRUCTURALLY SIMILAR PHENOMENA

Keywords: resilience, endurance, emotional resistance, psychological trauma, stress resistance

Понастоящем теоретико-методологичният анализ и емпиричното изследване на психичния стабилитет са изключително актуални, поради наличието на няколко фактора. Първо, съвременната реалност е пряко свързана с преживяване на различни стресови събития (политическа и икономическа криза, постпандемична ситуация, войната в Украйна и др.) и висок емоционален стрес, който провокира появата на психосоматични заболявания, психични и поведенчески разстройства. Второ, досега остава нерешен проблемът с дефинирането на конструкта „резилианс“ и връзката му с конструктно сходни феномени. Сред термините, споменати в научната психологична литература в подходящия контекст, се срещат следните: стабилност, самоконтрол, толерантност към фрустрация, устойчивост на стрес, устойчивост на травматични ситуации, устойчивост на несигурност, устойчивост на нарушаване на норми и граници, устойчивост на конфликти и други (Fagaranova, 2007). Срещат се препратки към лични, социални, емоционални, конфликтни и много други видове устойчивост. Наличието на впечатляващ списък от термини, които често се използват като синоними, допълнително усложнява не само сравнението на резултатите от емпирични изследвания на различни изследователски екипи, но дори възпрепятства правилното идентифициране на същността на определено явление. Освен това всеки конструкт, споменат по-горе, предполага използването на независими психодиагностични инструменти. Ситуацията се усложнява допълнително от факта, че за разбирането на конструкта „резилианс“ съществуват редица независими подходи.

Психологичната концепция за "резилианс" е заимствана от техническата литература. Основният критерий за резилианс в техническите науки е способността на дадена система да устоява на външни въздействия без да се разруши. Това състояние е приложимо за различни ситуации, чиито обекти са подчинени на общия научен принцип за последователност. Тук стабилността се противопоставя на хаотичните модели на поведение, които са неадекватни на конкретни обстоятелства.

Един от най-често срещаните конкуриращи се термини е "емоционална стабилност", идентифициран за първи път в трудовете на Eysenck. Според предложението от него трикомпонентен модел на личността, емоционалната стабилност е „характерност, която изразява запазването на организираното поведение, ситуационната насоченост в нормални и стресови ситуации” (Frager & Feidiman, 2001, p. 57). Логично е да се предположи, че липсата на напрежение и тревожност у индивида, общителността и успешната адаптация могат да се разглеждат като поведенчески корелати на емоционалната стабилност. На свой ред Eysenck признава невротизма като основна проява на емоционална нестабилност, характеризирайки го като дисбаланс в процесите на възбуждане и инхибиране (Shirokostupova, 2016). При описание на емоционалната сфера и особеностите на емоционалната реакция в личностно значими ситуации, аспектът на стабилността играе една от ключовите роли.

В руската психология изследвания в областта на емоционалната стабилност работят автори като L.M. Abolin, M.Y. Dyachenko, L.A. Kitaev-Smik, V.L. Marie Pike, V.A. Ponomarenko и други (Abolin, 1987). L.M. Abolin разпознава емоционалната стабилност като свойство, характеризиращо индивида в хода на дейност, която изисква напрежение, във връзка с което взаимодействат отделните емоционални процеси помежду си и позволяват постигане на поставената цел. (Abolin, 1989). Все още психологичната и емоционалната стабилност често се разглеждат във връзка с професионалната дейност на субекта. Самият L.M. Abolin разглежда устойчивостта в контекста на спорта и дейностите.

Такива изследвания несъмнено са от голямо теоретично и приложно значение, но от това не следва да се ограничават само до критериите за успех и ефективност в професионална или друга обществено значима дейност.

Емоционалната устойчивост е антоним на термина "напрежение", което от своя страна би могло да се тълкува като нарушение в стабилността на психичните и психомоторните процеси, както и намаляване на производителността на човешката дейност при влиянието на стресови фактори и във връзка с проявата на силни емоции., Е.Р. Пуин специално обръща внимание на факта, че психичната устойчивост към различни емоционални фактори ще бъде различна. Оттук следва, че емоционалната стабилност трябва да се разбира като устойчивост на конкретни стресогенни фактори.

Резилиансът често се свързва с толерантност, в смисъл на отслабването или липса на реакция на неблагоприятни фактори, в резултат на намаляване на чувствителността към техните ефекти (Puin, 2001). В този контекст толерантността се разглежда като една от страните с ниски психологични показатели за нейната тежест и при наличие на изразеността ѝ, може да говори и за намалени нива на резилианс.

Наред с „резилианс“ се използва и терминът „стресоустойчивост“. G. Selye (Selye, 2001) и G. Lazarus (Lazarus, 1970) определят устойчивостта на стрес като издръжливост и устойчивост. В този смисъл устойчивостта често се разглежда като основния показател, който характеризира процеса на намиране на правилно решение за излизане от кризисна ситуация, както и адекватното усещане за заплаха на целостта на личността. Както устойчивостта на стрес, така и резилиансът се характеризира с адекватно, предвидимо, балансирано поведение на човек, неговата оптимална активност. Важна роля в това играе самоконтролът. A.S. Masten (Masten, 2009) определя резилианса като характеристика на личността, която се проявява в степента на устойчивост на стресови натоварвания, което доближава тази категория до концепцията за устойчивост на стрес. M. Ungar и E. Werner поясняват, че резилиансът представлява специален маркер за комплексни и сложни способности, противостоящи на сблъсъка с внезапни, психотравматични обстоятелства (Ungar, 2004; Werner, 1995).

Някои автори отъждествяват резилианса със саморегулацията, която се характеризира с използването на психични способности за рефлексия, моделиране и въздействие върху себе си (Dukhnovsky & Bryuzgin, 2008). Саморегулацията предполага състояние на хармония между съществуващите вътрешните нужди и изискванията на външната среда. В себе си тя включва и средствата за постигане на това състояние.

V.S. Berdnikov и E.S. Kazurova разглеждат резилианса като по-интегрална концепция, чиито прояви засягат както личностното, така и социалното функциониране. Към разновидностите на резилианса те включват устойчивост на стрес, устойчивост на несигурност и травматични ситуации и др. (Berdnikov & Kazurova, 2004).

В опит да се систематизират идеите на различни автори за конструкта „резилианс“, J. Neill откроява основните ключови думи, които определят темите на съответните изследователски работи: (1) адаптивно справяне; (2) емоционална интелигентност; (3) издръжливост; (4) „заучен“ оптимизъм; (5) "усвоена" находчивост; (6) самолечение на личността (Neill, 2021).

Darwish установява, че резилиансът се проявява в способността да се „реагира по определен начин на външни влияния, избирателно отнасяйки се до външни въздействия, сравнявайки мненията и действията на други хора, а също и със собствените действия, със заучени норми и принципи, и в резултат да се очертае и реализира определена линия на поведение“ (Darwish, 2008, p. 368).

RESILIENCE AND STRUCTURALLY SIMILAR PHENOMENA

Един от основателите на Център за изследване на резилианса М. Ungar, дава следното определение: „в контекста на съществуващите рискове от бедствия, устойчивост е както способността на индивида да се ориентира по пътя си към психологическите, социалните, културните и физическите ресурси, които поддържат неговото благополучие, така и способността за индивидуално и колективно договаряне за предоставяне на тези ресурси по културно значими начини“ (Ungar, 2006, p. 219). Важното тук е да се отбележи акцентът върху прилагането на резилианса директно в контекста на социалното функциониране на субекта.

J. Neill предлага резилиансът да се разглежда като индивидуална способност за издръжливост на стресови натоварвания и развиване на психични разстройства. Според него доминиращият подход в американската психология в началото на 21-ви век е разбирането за резилианс в контекста на способността на индивида да избягва психопатологични последици, дори при наличието на сериозни психо-травматични обстоятелства. Сред рисковите фактори той изброява: загуба на любим човек; хронично заболяване, нарушение на целостта на собственото тяло; физическо, сексуално, психично насилие; бедност и безработица (Neill, 2021).

В разработките на Kulikov се казва, че резилиансът се определя от аспекти като: издръжливост, баланс и устойчивост. Такава комбинация позволява на индивида да устоява на трудности и неблагоприятен натиск на различни обстоятелства (Kulikov, 2001).

Според V.V. Nechiporenko, V.M. Lytkin и A.G. Senichenko, в качеството си на структурни за резилианса компоненти встъпват емоционални, волеви и интелектуални. В зависимост от характера на дейността, извършвана от субекта, компоненти на психологическата стабилност са емоционални, волеви и интелектуални. В зависимост от характера на дейността, извършвана от субекта, и особеностите на външните причини, тези компоненти могат да се ранжират по различен начин (Nechiporenko et al., 2004, pp. 22-26).

Редица автори (К.А. Albukhanova-Slavskaya и др.), предлагат за разглеждане трифакторен модел на резилианс, който се основава на субектно-дейностния подход. Тук резилиансът се разглежда като комбинация от биологични, психични и социални фактори. Тази комбинация позволява да се продължи работата върху биологичното, психичното и социално ниво както в рамките на нормата за стабилност, така и извън нея (Kazankov, 2010, p. 65-76):

1. Биологични фактори - потенциалът на организма, в частност - нервната система (сила, подвижност, баланс на процесите на нервната система).
2. Психични фактори – възможностите на психиката (познавателни, емоционални и волеви психични процеси); способността на субекта на дейността да поддържа ефективността на когнитивните, емоционалните и волевите процеси в границите на умствените стандарти за устойчивост.
3. Социални фактори - способността на субекта на дейността да поддържа обществено полезна работоспособност.

Тези фактори са както статични, така и динамични: статичността се изразява в наличието на вътрешна организирана система, динамизъм се изявява във вероятността да се реализира постоянна промяна, съгласно закона на еволюцията. Те са тясно свързани помежду си и взаимно си оказват влияние.

A.S. Masten и J. Obradovic правят опит да визуализират структурата на резилианса. Според тях тя е организирана около две измерения: характеристики на риска или пряко възникнали лично значими събития; възможни положителни последици. Акцентът върху

избора на път към позитивната адаптация доближава този подход до концепцията за посттравматичен растеж (Masten & Obradovic, 2006).

A.S. Masten, K.M. Best и N. Garmezy дават следното описание на факторите на резилианс: „... признаци и умения, които описват способността на човек да се адаптира адекватно дори при неблагоприятни или застрашаващи обстоятелства“ (Masten et al., 1990, pp. 425-444) . E.E. Werner добавя, че факторите за устойчивост имат поведенчески корелати, които стимулират положителни взаимодействия между индивида и средата. Те включват например общителност, уравновесеност и независимост, комуникативни умения и умения за решаване на проблеми. Според E.E. Werner, прогнозата за наличието на резилианс се основава на такива групи фактори като:

1. Лични качества (положително отношение към себе си, стабилни параметри на когнитивната и емоционалната сфера);
2. Наличие на доверителни отношения с някой от роднините и приятелите;
3. Наличие на социална подкрепа (Werner, 1995, pp. 81-85).

Kazankov въвежда понятията "лимит", "резерв" и "променливост" по отношение на резилианса (Kazankov, 2010, pp. 65-76) :лимитът на стабилност характеризира крайните граници на нормата на стабилност, при достигане на които субектът на дейност започва прехода към състоянието на дестабилизирател, като не може да се върне в стабилно състояние;

- под резерв се визират наличните ресурси и потенциали на субекта, които са достатъчни за работоспособността в границите на нормата за устойчивост;
- променливост – промяна в резерва за устойчивост на субекта на дейността, в границите на нормата за устойчивост.

Kobasa S.C. описва резилианса, използва следните индикатори, за да покаже доколко индивидът има ресурс да се противопостави на сетивните влияния:

- усещане за контрол на собствения живот;
- състоянието на ангажираност в дейности, взаимоотношения с други хора и със себе си;
- оценяване на промените в живота като предизвикателство, а не като заплаха (Kobasa, 1979, pp. 1-11).

V.S. Ageev поставя на едно ниво понятието "резилианс", "твърдост", "инертност" и "консерватизъм". Според него това са явления от един и същ порядък, които свидетелстват за способността на индивида да се съпротивлява на всяка информация, която е насочена към промяна в съответната система (Ageev, 1990, pp. 222-226). Различна позиция поддържа N.D. Levitov. Ригидността той описва като неразумно постоянство, което се основава на упоритост, характеризиращо се с тясна и неразумна мотивация (Levitov, 1969). Г.В. Zalevsky посочва, че хипертрофирана резистентност може постепенно да се трансформира в ригидност (Zalevsky, 2007).

Резилиансът се проявява особено ярко и става достъпен за анализ в ситуация на психологическа травма (Faustova & Mertsalov, 2013). Тук, сред другите теории изпъква концепцията за психологическа травма от R. Janoff-Bulman. Според този подход, под влияние на психотравматични обстоятелства, непродуктивните основни вярвания, които се отнасят до положителния „аз-образ“ на индивида, благосклонността на околния свят и формирането на илюзията за лична неуязвимост, водят до дезинтеграция. Резилиансът тук е свързана с липсата на дезорганизация на поведението, запазването на мотивацията, рационалното мислене и реализацията на целите. Освен това той се отразява в дейността на индивида, приспособяването му към заобикалящите условия (Janoff-Bulman, 1992).

RESILIENCE AND STRUCTURALLY SIMILAR PHENOMENA

M. Rutter пише за резиланс в резултат на „посттравматичния растеж“, когато опитът от преживяване на психотравматични обстоятелства мобилизира индивида и води до по-ефективно функциониране по-късно. В този случай е адекватно по-скоро да се говори за резиланс не като способност или характеристика на човек, а като резултат от активен процес – процесът на справяне (Rutter, 1987, pp. 316-331). A.J. Zautra, J.S. Hall и K.E. Mugaу уточняват, че резилансът като положителен резултат от преодоляването на трудна житейска ситуация, може да се наблюдава главно при индивиди, които са в състояние активно да взаимодействат с околната среда и да активират собствените си ресурси, необходими за подобряване на субективното благополучие и защита от рискови фактори (Zautra et al., 2010). Динамичният процес на формиране и поведенческа реализация на резиланса е предимно вътре личностен, култивиращ различни прояви на емоционално и ценностно отношение към собственото „Аз“.

Този подход към разбирането на резиланса корелира с парадигмата на хуманистичната психология: психологически стабилните индивиди притежават не толкова способността да издържат на стрес, но владеят способността да използват негативната енергия на психологичната травма като източник на посттравматичен растеж.

В психологията са се развили различни традиции на методологически анализ на категорията „резиланс“. В руската психологична наука резилансът се разглежда преди всичко като свойство на индивида, негова интегрална характеристика, която позволява на човешката психика да намери продуктивен изход от стресова ситуация. Западните и американските автори разбират резиланса по-скоро като комбинация от няколко свойства. Има аналогия с такива понятия като „съпротивляемост“, „баланс“/„уравновесеност“ и „пропорционалност“.

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RESILIENCE AND STRUCTURALLY SIMILAR PHENOMENA

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Theoretical article

ПСИХИЧНИ КОРЕЛАТИ НА МОТИВАЦИЯТА ЗА ПОСТИЖЕНИЯ

PSYCHICS CORRELATES OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

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Резюме

В статията е представен обзор на теоретични възгледи за развитието и концептуализацията на мотивацията за постижение. Разглеждат се психологични проучвания и идеи, свързани с позицията на феномена в личностната структура и съотнасянето му към личностно – структурни блокове. Обръща се внимание на психологични теории, търсещи корелации между мотивацията за постижение и различни личностни характеристики и черти.

Ключови думи: мотивация за постижения, страх от неуспех, корелати, личностни характеристики.

Abstract

The article presents an overview of theoretical views on the development and conceptualization of achievement motivation. Psychological studies and ideas related to the position of the phenomenon in the personal structure and its relation to personal-structural blocks are considered. Attention is paid to psychological theories looking for correlations between achievement motivation and various personality characteristics and traits.

Keywords: achievement motivation, fear of failure, correlates, personality characteristics.

Конструктът „Мотивация за постижение“

Концепцията за „потребност от постижение“ се появява за първи път в класификацията на Муграу през 1938 г., който изолира мотивацията за постижения като една от 20-те потребности, но в същото време в по-нататъшни изследвания (главно в трудовете на J. Atkinson, D. McClelland, X. Heckhausen) тя получава сериозно внимание. Мъри разбира разглежданата диспозиция, като стабилна „потребност от постигане на резултати в работата, като желание да се направи нещо бързо и добре, да се достигне определено ниво във всеки бизнес“ (Gordeeva, 2006, p. 295). Според Муграу тази потребност има обобщен характер и се проявява във всяка ситуация, независимо от нейното конкретно съдържание.

В школата на Lewin се появяват понятия, които по-късно активно се използват от изследователи в областта на мотивацията за постижения. В работата на Норре за "успех и провал", концепцията за нивото на претенциите е зела важно място в изследването на мотивацията. Heckhausen (Heckhausen, 2001) посочва, че понятието „ниво на претенциите“ означава, първо, „... целевата настройка по отношение на вече познатия, повече или по-малко овладян и отново решен проблем, а самата тази настройка (цел) е вътрешно приета от субекта“ (както го разбира Норре), и второ, „... стабилно свойство, качество на индивида, което играе решаваща роля при самооценката на съществуващите способности и постигнатите резултати“ (Heckhausen, 2001, p. 118).

За обяснение на тенденцията за нарастване на исканията, Норре въвежда понятието "Аз-ниво", което означава желанието да се поддържа самосъзнанието на възможно най-високо ниво с помощта на висок личен стандарт на постижения. По-късно тази концепция започва да се нарича концепцията за мотивация за

PSYCHICS CORRELATES OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

постижения, дефинирана като „опит за повишаване или поддържане на възможно най-високи способности на човек за всички видове дейности, към които могат да се прилагат критериите за успех и където изпълнението на подобни активности може, следователно, да доведе до успех или неуспех” (Heckhausen, 2001, с. 21).

Една от първите концепции за мотивация за постижения е модел за избор на риск, формулиран от J. Atkinson на базата на модела „личност и среда”, предложен от Kurt Lewin, който включва разглеждане на взаимодействието между индивида и обществото (Atkinson, 1964).

Според D. McClelland мотивът за постижение предполага че определена дейност се извършва по-добре заради вътрешното удоволствие от подобряването на собственото представяне. Мотивацията за постижение – това е задействащ се в конкретен момент от време мотив за постижение, който се актуализира при определени условия, под въздействието на мотиватор за постижение. Мотиваторът за постижения е този стимул, който позволява на човек да извлече удовлетворение от успешна дейност заради самата себе си или от демонстриране на другите способността, че може да направи нещо дори по-добре (McClelland, 1958).

Психични корелати на мотивацията за постижение

В края на XX и началото на XXI в. се провеждат множество изследвания, насочени към намиране на психичните корелати на мотивацията за постижения. Първоначално мотивацията за постижения се изучава във връзка със степента на проявление на противоположното по значение свойство – избягване на неуспехи и съответно нивото на тревожност, което от своя страна се разглежда като вътрешноличностен предиктор на мотивацията за избягване на неуспехите (McClelland, 2007, pp. 220-375).

Повечето автори разглеждат *мотивацията за постижения и мотивация за избягване на неуспехи като противоположни диспозиции*, които са в отрицателна корелация: лицата с изразена мотивация за постижения имат ниско ниво на мотивация за избягване на неуспехи и обратно (Rean, 2008; Kuhl, 2001, p. 239-268). Тази традиция се връща и към класическите изследвания на J. Atkinson, в които се споменава диспозиционната мотивация за постижение (needachievement – „потребност от постижения“). От тази гледна точка мотивацията за постижения и мотивацията за избягване на неуспех действат като противоположни характеристики: „Според Atkinson, човек с подчертан страх от провал може да има само ниско ниво на нужда от постижения“ (McClelland, 2007, p. 426).

Според J. Ray (Ray, 1990, pp. 91-93), експерименталните данни на различни автори се оказват доста противоречиви: понякога мотивацията за избягване на неуспех и мотивацията за постижение са с отрицателни корелации и не разкриват никаква връзка. J. J. Ray предполага, че подобно несъответствие в получените данни се дължи на факта, че мотивацията за постижение и мотивацията за избягване на неуспех са в ортогонални връзки и са независими една от друга характеристики.

Съвременните изследователи са склонни да разглеждат феномените „*мотивация за постижения*“ и „*избягване на неуспех*“ като отделни, независими една от друга, характеристики. Например, N. A. Abidenova разглежда тези явления в структурата на хипотетичния конструкт на "личностно значение" в различни блокове от свойства на личността: мотивационни (мотивация за постижения, потребност от знания) и емоционално-оценъчни (страх от отхвърляне, вина и срам, избягване на провал) (Abidenova, 2008).

В литературата съществуват и противоречиви данни за *връзката между мотивация за постижения и нивата на тревожност и невротизъм*. В този проблем могат да се разграничат две области на изследване: в рамките на първата област се изследва тестовата (ситуационна, реактивна) тревожност във връзка с необходимостта от постижение (по J. Atkinson) (McClelland, 2007, p. 426), а в рамките на втората - личностна тревожност и невротизъм във връзката с мотивация за постижения като устойчива личностна диспозиция. Първоначално Дж. Аткинсън говори за отрицателна корелация на тестовата тревожност с потребността от постижения въз основа на позицията, че високата тестова тревожност е характерна за хората с високи нива по скалата за страх от неуспех (като диспозиционна характеристика), което от своя страна е в негативна релация с потребността от постижение (McClelland, 2007, p. 487).

По-късно J. Ray си задава въпроса дали *мотивацията за постижения може да се разглежда като личностна черта*: ако мотивацията за постижения е стабилна личностна черта, тогава какво място заема тя в триизмерния модел на Eysenck (Ray, 1990, p. 183-193). Той провежда независимо проучване и стига до заключението, че мотивацията за постижения не е свързана с нивото на невротизъм, т.е., тези характеристики са в ортогонални отношения (Rean, 2008, pp. 151-167).

В литературата съществуват данни за *връзката на мотивацията постижения с други основни свойства, свързани с темперамента*. Според E. V. Vorobiyeva изразеността на мотивацията за постижения е в пряка връзка с такива индивидуални типологични свойства като обща и социална енергичност,

пластичност, общо и социално темпо и в обратна връзка с общата и социална емоционалност (Vorobiyeva, 2007, pp. 59-71).

Някои автори се интересуват от *локуса на контрол като предиктор на мотивацията за постижения*. Според J. Rotter екстремните стойности по отношение на интерналност или екстерналност са нежелателни: твърде високото ниво на външен контрол може да бъде свързано с апатия и отчаяние (когато човек вярва, че няма власт над живота си), а твърде високият вътрешен контрол може да бъде свързан с прекомерно поемане на отговорност не само за успехите, но и за възникнали инциденти, неприятности, неуспехи (Frager & Feidiman, 2001, p. 753).

Sh. Bansal и сътрудници доказват, че мотивацията за постижения има нелинейна връзка с локуса на контрола, а именно: *интерналността е свързана с умерени показатели за мотивация за постижения* (изследването е проведено върху извадка от студенти с високо академично представяне) (Bansal et al., 2006, pp. 253-257.).

Редица автори свързват *мотивацията за постижения с такова лично разположение като съперничеството*. Е. В. Kuznetsova, изучавайки този феномен, посочва, че един от елементите, които определят съперничеството като поведенчески компонент на структурата на личността, е такава стабилна личностна диспозиция като мотивацията за постижения (Abidenova, 2008, p. 12).

Според Heaven *доминантността е свързана в голяма степен с мотивацията за постижения* (Heaven, 1987, pp. 331-337). Според McClelland и J. Ray, връзката между мотивацията за постижение и доминантността е културно обусловена и се проявява по различен начин в различните култури. D. McClelland посочва например, че тази връзка е типична за американската култура, но не се проявява в италианската култура, където доминантността се свързва с висока принадлежност (McClelland, 2007, p. 220; Ray, 1990, pp. 91-93).

Според някои автори *склонността към риск е в стабилна корелация с мотивацията за постижения*. В същото време се посочва, че лицата, мотивирани за постижения, поемат премерени рискове, т.е. предпочитат умерен риск (McClelland, 2007, p. 493). Heckhausen смята, че изборът на умерено трудни задачи се дължи на факта, че успехът и неуспехът са почти еднакво вероятни, т.е. резултатът зависи в голяма степен от собствени усилия (Lang & Heckhausen, 2001, pp. 509-523). Уейнър смята, че именно ориентацията към собствени усилия (а не на външна подкрепа) е важен предиктор на мотивацията за постижения (Gordeeva, 2006, p. 201).

Повечето въпросници за мотивация за постижения притежават айтеми, свързани с темата за умереното предпочитание към риска (това е особено ясно обяснено във въпросника на А. Mehrabian), въпреки че много съвременни автори посочват, че изследванията не винаги потвърждават връзката между мотивацията за постижения и умереното предпочитание към риска. Например в трудовете на J. Ray са представени експериментални данни, според които умереният риск и изборът на задачи със средна трудност са характерни за повечето хора, независимо от тяхното ниво на мотивация за постижения (Ray, 1982, pp. 255-261; Ray, 1990, pp. 91-93).

Много автори разглеждат мотивацията за постижения във връзка с психологичния феномен „самореализация“. Процесът на самореализация се разглежда като реализация на себе си в живота и ежедневните дейности. М. В. Вуянова смята, че фокусирането върху себе си, върху вътрешните нужди и желания в повечето случаи осигурява актуализация на мотивационната тенденция за постигане на успех (Вуянова, 2004). I. V. Grigoricheva разглежда *мотивацията за постижения (МП) като един от детерминантите на самореализацията* (Grigoricheva, 2003). По нейни данни за студентите с изразена мотивация за постижение е характерно активно търсене на жизнени сфери, в които най-успешно могат да се реализират действителните крайни стойности (Grigoricheva, 2004, p. 87).

Връзката между мотивацията за постижение и производителността на умствената дейност е посочена от редица автори (Sternberg, 2000, pp. 47-78; Gordeeva, 2006, pp. 387-388; Druzhinin, 2007, pp. 59-90). Редица автори посочват, че диагностиката на интелигентността и способностите е невъзможна без отчитане на мотивационните характеристики на субектите. Двама души с еднакво ниво на интелигентност, но с различни нива на мотивация за постижения, ще покажат различни резултати (Dweck et al., 1995, pp. 267-285).

E.V. Vorobiyeva посочва връзката между интелекта и мотивацията за постижения. Според нейните данни тази връзка е взаимно допълваща се и се проявява в различна степен в зависимост от нивото на интелект: при високи нива на интелект корелацията с мотивация за постижения е положителна, а при ниска - отрицателна. При високи показатели за интелигентност подобряването на интелектуалната производителност се постига чрез актуализиране на мотивацията за постижения и как колкото е по-високо, толкова по-високи ще бъдат реалните постижения на индивида. При хора с ниска интелектуална

PSYCHICS CORRELATES OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

производителност подобряването ѝ се постига чрез актуализиране на мотивацията за избягване на неуспех и колкото по-изразена е мотивацията за избягване на неуспех, толкова по-висока интелектуалната производителност може да бъде постигната (Vorobiyeva, 2007, pp. 62-71).

В литературата съществуват известни *противоречиви данни относно връзката между мотивацията за постижения и креативността*. D. B. Vогоyavlenskaya счита, че колкото по-високо е нивото на мотивация за постижения, толкова повече когнитивната активност се инхибира в ситуация на съперничество. „Мотивацията за постижения, която се превръща в спътник на развиващата се личност, се превръща в пречка, когато е необходимо да се прояви креативност“ (Kurkina, 2004, p. 7). Според M. V. Kurkina мотивът за постижение „не само не е условие за творчество, но, напротив, го погасява“ (Kurkina, 2004, p. 11)

A.V. Leybina твърди, че мотивацията за постижения тясно корелира с креативността, но това е вярно само за вътрешната мотивация за „постигания (Leybina, 2007, pp. 108-112). Авторът използва методи, които позволяват изследването на мотивационната сфера като цяло: освен мотивацията за постижения, се измерва и изразеността на други мотиви, като принадлежност, безопасност, комфорт и др. Според получените данни, креативността е значително свързана с много мотиви, включително мотива за постижение. Въпреки това се оказва, че креативността не е свързана с външна положителна мотивация, както и с постоянно желание за престиж. Получените данни не противоречат на резултатите на Kurkina, а само ги допълват (Kurkina, 2004, p. 11). Ако мотивацията за постижения се разглежда като комплексно явление, което има както външна, така и вътрешна детерминираност в своята структура, тогава става ясно, че вътрешната мотивация за постижения е свързана с творчеството, докато външната мотивация не е свързана с него.

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NIKOLOVA-HRISTAKOVA, BORYANA

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Theoretical article

АСЕРТИВНО ПОВЕДЕНИЕ И ФОРМИРАНЕ В ДЕТСКА ВЪЗРАСТ

ASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR AND FORMATION IN CHILDHOOD AGE

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Резюме

В статията е предложен теоретико – обзорен преглед и концептуализация на асертивността и асертивното поведение. Разглежда се и формирането на асертивно поведение в детска възраст, в качеството му на опосредстващ аспект за развитие на асертивност. Представена е и информация от проведени тренинги и изследвания на чуждестранни автори, свързани с формиране и развитие на асертивност в детска възраст.

Ключови думи: асертивно поведение, асертивност, неасертивност, детска възраст, формиране, развитие.

Abstract

The article offers a theoretical overview and conceptualization of the assertiveness and the assertive behavior. The forming of assertive behavior in childhood age is also examined, as a mediating aspect for the development of assertiveness. Information from conducted trainings and research by foreign authors related to the formation and development of assertiveness in childhood is also presented.

Keywords: assertive behavior, assertiveness, non-assertiveness, childhood age, forming, development.

Асертивност

Интересът към личностното развитие, мотивацията и целеполагането се засилва с появата на хуманистичното направление в психологията. Способността за себеусъвършенстване и самоактуализация се явяват ракурс за изучаване на личността. Тук се корени и причината за повишаване на интереса към асертивността през 80-те и 90-те години на двадесети век и, по-конкретно, нейната репрезентация като средство за активизиране на човешкия потенциал и за постигане на максимална личностна реализация. Терминът „асертивност“ произлиза от „assertive“ (от англ. упорит, настоятелен). Анализът на дефинициите за асертивност и асертивно поведение, предложени от различни автори, отразява развитието на възгледите за природата на тези конструкции (Peneva & Krastev, 2014, pp. 111-127).

Andrew Salter (Salter, 1949), а по-късно Vera Karoni и Tomash Novak (Karoni & Novak, 1994; Karoni & Novak, 1995), разглеждат асертивността като характеристика на личността. Те определят асертивността като автономност, независимост от външни влияния и способност за саморегулация на поведението. Al. Bandura (Bandura, 1969) смята, че основните прояви на асертивност са чувството за собствено достойнство, желанието да се вземат индивидуални решения в живота и да се поема отговорност за тях.

Lazarus (Lazarus, 1973) пръв определя асертивността като способност за казване на „не“, за открито заявяване и демонстриране: на собствените искания, позитивни и негативни емоции, за установяване на контакти, за стартиране и приключване на разговори.

Под „асертивност“ Rich & Schroeder разбират когнитивни, емоционални и поведенчески реакции, които максимално повишават потенциала на индивида за постигане на лични цели и получаване на социално одобрение (Rich & Schroeder, 1976).

Ясно се очертава тенденцията, че по-ранните изследователи на асертивността и асертивното поведение разглеждат основно отношението на асертивния индивид към самия себе си. Концепцията за асертивност започва да се допълва с включване на връзката на индивида с другите. Според P. Jakubowski и A. Lange, асертивността включва защита на личните права, изразяване на мисли, емоции и мнения директно, честно и честно, без да се нарушават правата на другите (Jakubowski & Lange, 1976).

Анализирайки същността на тези права, Jakubowski-Spector дефинира асертивността като защита на собствените права, без нарушаване на правата на другите (Jakubowski-Spector, 1973).

Развивайки тази идея, Martin Smith предлага „кодекс от 10 права“ на асертивния човек: правото на индивида да оценява собственото си поведение, мисли и емоции, правото да бъде независим от мненията на другите, правото да прави грешки и т.н. (Smith, 1975).

Според R. Fritchie асертивният човек е отговорен за поведението си, демонстрира уважение към другите и се стреми към компромис (Fritchie, 1990).

Alho изразява мнение, че асертивността означава разумен баланс между индивидуализъм и колективизъм (Alho, 2006).

Поддръжниците на петфакторния модел на личността (екстраверсия, добронамереност, добросъвестност, невротизъм и отвореност към опита) – P. T. Costa & R. McCrae (Costa & McCrae, 1992), смятат, че асертивността е един от аспектите на екстраверсията.

Sue Bishop разглежда асертивността като предпоставка за поведение, основано на лична отговорност и зачитане правата на другите (Bishop, 2006). Според автора, асертивността е оптималният и най-конструктивен подход в междуличностните отношения, основан на принципите на хуманизма, при който манипулацията на други хора, както и насилието и агресията спрямо тях са недопустими., т.е, отрича се посегателството върху правата на взаимодействащите страни.

Alberti и Emmons въвеждат понятието „неасертивност“ като противостоящо на понятието „асертивност“. Тъй като асертивността включва себеизразяване и ненарушаване на правата на другите, тогава неасертивността може да приеме една от двете форми: агресивност или подчинение (Alberti & Emmons, 1971).

Интерес представлява развиването на тезата на Alberti и Emmons от V. Sheinov: „...в допълнение към тези, посочени от R. Alberti и M. Emmons, съществува такава форма на неасертивност като манипулация. Така се формира класификация на видовете поведение: пасивно (подчинено) - асертивно - манипулативно - агресивно.“ (Sheinov, 2015, p. 29). При тези форми само асертивното поведение е релевантно на интересите на самия индивид и на взаимодействащите с него. С пасивно поведение индивидът не може да защити своите интереси. Използвайки агресивно поведение – нарушава правата на другите и провокира конфликти. Манипулирайки, човек накърнява и правата на другите, което рано или късно ги кара да осъзнаят това и ще доведе до отчуждаването му (Sheinov, 2015, p. 29-30).

Този акцент върху изследването на асертивността е предпоставка конструктът дълго време да се изследва основно във връзка с поведенческата терапия (Rimm & Masters, 1974; Schroeder et al., 1983; Wolpe, 1973; Wolpe & Lazarus, 1966 и др.). Началото дават A. Salter (Salter, 1949) и J. Wolpe (Wolpe, 1958) в трудовете си.

Асертивно поведение

Alberti и Emmons предлагат следното определение: „Асертивното поведение е поведение, което насърчава равенството в човешките отношения, позволява ви да действате в собствените си

ASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR AND FORMATION IN CHILDHOOD AGE

интереси, да се защитавате без излишно безпокойство, да изразявате искрени чувства, да упражнявате лични права, без да отричате правата на другите” (Alberti & Emmons, 1971, p. 7).

Lazarus идентифицира четири категории поведенчески реакции, които се отнасят до асертивното поведение: (a) отказ на искане или изискване, (b) отправяне на изисквания, (c) изразяване на чувства и (d) инициатива в началото, поддържането и края на разговора (Lazarus, 1973, p. 697-699).

Асертивното поведение също се определя като „собствено изразяване на каквато и да е емоция, а не загриженост за друг човек“ (Wolpe, 1973, p. 81); като „действие, насочено към изразяване на нечии намерения, изявления за това кой съм, какво мисля и чувствам“ (Fensterheim, 1972, p. 161); като ефективно социално поведение, насочено към решаване на проблеми (Goldfried & Goldfried, 1975, p. 212); като пряко, невраждебно, непринудително изразяване на мисли, чувства, мнения и желания (Alberti & Emmons, 1971; Jakubowski-Spector, 1973, pp. 75-86; Deluty, 1979, pp. 1061-1071).

Според Римм и Мастърс асертивното поведение включва честно и директно изразяване на мисли и чувства, приемливи за обществото, както и отчитане на чувствата и интересите на другите хора (Rimm & Masters, 1974).

Някои автори смятат „функционалния” резултат за определящ фактор в асертивното поведение (Christoff, 1982; Norton-Ford & Hogan, 1980, pp. 1085-1086; Rakos, 1991). Резултатът е функционален, ако отговорът на партньора в комуникацията създава подсилващ ефект (резултат). Например, човек моли пушач в стая за непущачи, да загаси цигарата си; това "асертивно" твърдение става функционално, когато резултатът е положителен, т.е. пушачът загаси цигарата (подсилващ резултат).

Но „асертивното“ изискване не винаги дава желания резултат. Въпреки това някои автори смятат, че е важно да се демонстрира асертивно поведение, дори само за да се повиши самоефективността (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976).

Анализът на горепосочените възгледи дава основание за извода, че определение за конструктите „асертивност“ и „асертивно поведение“, най-всеобхватно, а в същото време и конкретно синтезирано, е посочено в Большой психологический словарь (Big psychological dictionary, 2004, p. 40), а именно: „Асертивността е способността на човек да защитава правата си уверено и достойно, без да нарушава правата на другите. Асертивното поведение е директно, открито поведение, което няма за цел да навреди на други хора.“

Формиране в детска възраст

Деца често участват в ситуации, които ги учат да използват асертивно поведение. Важно е да знаят как да реагират, когато бъдат нападнати от друго дете или тормозени от възрастни, как да помолят другите за помощ или да бъдат приети в играта и т.н.

Развитието на асертивността може да се обясни с помощта на теорията за социалното учене (Bandura, 1969; Galassi & Galassi J, 1978). Уменията за асертивно или неасертивно поведение се придобиват от ранна възраст в процеса на наблюдение на значимите възрастни в живота на индивида (модел), а не в резултат на преживяно безпокойство (Galassi & Galassi, 1978). Оттук следва, че развитието на уменията за асертивно поведение се възпрепятства в резултат на възприеманото наказание на „модела“ за неговото асертивно поведение. Ако детето види, че асертивното поведение на „модела“ е възнаградено, неговите собствени асертивни умения се развиват (Rich & Schroeder, 1976).

Rich и Schroeder показват, че обучение чрез специални програми и дейности оказва влияние върху развитието на асертивно поведение сред деца в предучилищна възраст. Обучението за асертивност, което се фокусира предимно върху овладяването на сложни реакции към случващото се в настоящето, за разлика от техниките за намаляване на тревожността, се основават главно на принципите за моделиране на поведението. За придобиване на асертивни умения е необходимо наличието на компетентни модели (чиято асертивност се възнаграждава), упражнения

на подходящи навици, както и насърчаване на асертивното поведение на детето (Rich & Schroeder, 1976).

В допълнение към ученето са открити и други фактори, които допринасят за привикването на асертивно поведение. A. Erbash (Erbash, 2000) установява, че ученици от 3-ти клас, които посещават класове с по-малко ученици, са по-асертивни от тези, които посещават пренаселени класове. Децата, чиито майки работят и са образовани, както и единствените деца в семейството, които имат собствена стая, са по-асертивни (Erbash, 2000).

Y. Görüş (Görüş Y, 1999) изследва връзката между преживения стрес и асертивното поведение на ученици от средно училище. Той открива значима многопосочна връзка между асертивното поведение и стратегиите, използвани при стресови събития като решаване на проблеми, самообвинения и избягване.

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Theoretical article

ПСИХОЛОГИЧНИ ЛИЧНОСТОВИ КОМПОНЕНТИ НА ДИМЕНСИЯ ТОЛЕРАНТНОСТ-НЕТОЛЕРАНТНОСТ КЪМ НЕОПРЕДЕЛЕНОСТ.

PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSONALITY COMPONENTS OF THE TOLERANCE-INTOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY DIMENSION.

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Резюме:

Настоящата статия представя понятията толерантност и нетолерантност към неопределеността и разглежда някои съществени техни аспекти. Популярността на темата „неопределеност“ расте в световен мащаб особено в последните няколко години. Това предизвиква необходимостта да бъдат проучени, онагледени и анализирани, множество международни и български изследвания. В публикацията се разглежда взаимовръзката между личностовите детерминанти и дименсията толерантност/нетолерантност към неопределеност. Акцентира се върху действията на личността обуславяни от начина, по който човекът възприема и преживява срещата с неопределеността. Толерантните интегрират вътрешната и външна реалност в психичния свят владеейки по-гъвкава адаптация към променящата се среда. По-добре структурират и артикулират своето перцептивно и когнитивно поле. Формират по-сложни, многомерни и интегрирани познавателни схеми. Генерират дивергентно мислене, чрез нелинеен, флуиден и спонтанен мисловен подход. Функционират посредством андрогинен еталон. Създават условия за резултативни постижения. Ограничените познавателни способности и умения насочват индивидуалното поведение към избягване на неопределеността. Нетолерантните се отличават със стремеж към систематичност и подреденост. Едномерно класифициране в типове и категории. Преждевременно категоризиране на обекти и явления. Склонност към консерватизъм, свръхгенерализация, повърхностност и липса на пластичност в мисловните нагласи. Имат по-висока склонност към авторитаризъм и етноцентризъм. Факторите на тревожната и неуверена личност, догматичност и ригидност, възпрепятстват адаптацията към условията на неопределеност.

Ключови думи: толерантност, неопределеност, интелигентност, догматичност, ригидност, тревожност.

Abstract:

This article introduces the concepts of ambiguity tolerance and intolerance and examines some essential technical aspects. The popularity of the topic "ambiguity" has been growing in the world last list in several years. This is the need to study, visualize and analyze many international and Bulgarian studies. The publication examines the interrelationships between personality determinants and the dimension of tolerance/intolerance to ambiguity. It focuses on the action of the personality conditioned by the way in which the person perceives and experiences the encounter with ambiguity. The tolerant integrate the inner and outer reality in the mental world, mastering a more flexible adaptation to the changing environment. Better structure and articulate their perceptual and cognitive field. They form more complex, multidimensional and integrated cognitive schemes. They generate divergent thinking.

PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSONALITY COMPONENTS OF THE TOLERANCE-INTOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY DIMENSION.

through a non-linear, fluid and spontaneous thinking approach. They function by means of an androgynous standard. They create conditions for effective achievements. Limited cognitive abilities and skills direct individual behavior toward uncertainty avoidance. Intolerant people are distinguished by a desire for systematicity and order. One-dimensional classification into types and categories. Premature categorization of objects and phenomena. Tendency to conservatism, overgeneralization, superficiality and lack of plasticity in mental attitudes. They have a higher tendency towards authoritarianism and ethnocentrism. The factors of anxious and insecure personality, dogmatism and rigidity, hinder adaptation to conditions of ambiguity.

Keywords: *tolerance, indeterminacy, intelligence, dogmatism, rigidity, anxiety.*

Увод в проблематиката и дефиниране на понятието толерантност към неопределеност.

Човешкият разум счита неяснотата за заплаха и се опитва да ни защити, като намалява способността ни да се концентрираме върху каквото и да било друго, освен върху създаването на сигурност. Макар еволюцията да ни е подготвила да се съпротивляваме на несигурността, може би би било удачно да се научим да живеем с неяснотата, да я осъзнаем и приемем. По време на невероятни ситуации, като пандемия и война, които изненадаха дори и най-добре подготвените ни планове, наблюдаваме сериозна, а в някои случаи драстична промяна на ежедневиия начин на живот доближаващо се до произведенията на Крис Картър (Carter, 2022). Живеем в напрегнати, комплицирани, а донякъде объркващи или озадачаващи времена, периодът е труден и изпълнен с предизвикателства. Вероятно реалността предизвиква съпротиви, но дали това ще помогне да се възобновим, и чрез трансформация да израстем и усъвършенстваме, за да се чувстваме по-добре или съпротивлението ще разтегне и протрахира във времето недоволството и огорчението от трудностите, които изпитваме неясното бъдеще ще разкрие. Търсейки алтернатива може да се опита да заменим съпротивата с приемане. Психологично проучване проведено от Кристин Неф (Neff & Pommier, 2013) и екип показва, че приемането и по-точно самоприемането е противоинтуитивна енигма към благополучието. Приемането допуска да съзрем обстоятелствата в текущата реалност, а това освобождава динамиката на разгръщане на прогреса, в замяна на това да останем в ступор, ригидни от сблъсъка с несигурността или страха. Когато приемем се отказваме от съпротивление към проблемна ситуация ведно със съпътстващите я емоции. Приемането на определена ситуация не иска да каже, че нещата ще замръзнат неизменни безкрайно дълго и в никакъв случай няма да се подобрят. Допуска се единствено и само това, което се случва в момента. Практикуването на приемане и самоприемане в състояния на изпитания и критичност е болезнено и мъчително, но също така най-ефективният начин да се продължи напред.

Неопределеността е иманентно присъща на човешкия живот и както индивидите, така и обществото като цяло са изправени пред необходимостта да се справят с неопределеността и несигурността на своето съществуване. Различните хора, както и различните култури правят това по различен начин. Д-р Герт Хофстеде (Hofstede, 1980) е сред 100-те най-цитирани автори и неговите статии са публикувани в списания за социални науки по целия свят. В книгата си "Последиците от културата" сравнява ценности, поведения, институции и организации в различните нации. Индивидуалните различия са свързани с начина, по който хората възприемат и интерпретират неясна, непълна, нова, непозната или противоречива информация, и се проявяват в социалните ориентации, когнитивните процеси, възприятията и емоционалните преживявания на индивида. Психологията обозначава тази дименсия на индивидуални различия с понятието

толерантност към неопределеност, предложено и дефинирано от Елзе Френкел-Брунсуик (Frenkel-Brunswik, 1948; 1949). Тя разглежда личностовата дименсия толерантност към неопределеност (ТН) - нетолерантност към неопределеност (НеТН) като общата основа на многообразието от наблюдавани различия на човешкото поведение. Проф. Стойчева (Stoicheva, 2003) описва неопределеността във всички сфери на човешкият живот – в дома, във всекидневието, във връзките и общуването с другите, в трудовата ангажираност, в близост и контакт с институциите, със социалните групи. Поведението на личността в неопределена, неясна, несигурна и дори двусмислена ситуация психологията охарактеризира с термина толерантност към неопределеност. Реакцията на поведението в ситуация на неопределеност е различна, независимо от еднаквостта на стимула. Някои би могло да възприемат неопределеността като опасност и гибел и да я изтласкат, отричат или игнорират, сякаш си затварят очите. Общоприетите ценности, ясните и недвусмислени критерии и ситуации, утвърдените правила и норми, познатите неща тласкат еволюцията на личността към зоната на комфорт и сигурност, респективно към нетолерантност към неопределеността. Съществува и вариант човек да намери за уместно и да оформи становище да приеме дързостта да съжителства, общува и да бъде активен в условия на неопределеност. Близостта и съприкосновението с неопределеността е призив, устремен от действителността към креативната, съзидателна природа на индивида, която разгръща жизнения мироглед и дълбините на вътрешният свят, като съзира и реализира нови благоприятни условия за живот, надделявайки и доминирайки опасността на несигурността в съвременни и непопулярни проявления. Именно така човек съдейства на сътворението на действителността, както на своя, така и на живота на бъдещите поколения, усъвършенства себе си и света. Математика Джон Алън Паулос (Paulos, 2001) казва: "Несигурността е единствената сигурност, която съществува, и знанието как да живееш с несигурност е единствената сигурност." това понятие може да е малко тревожно, но може да внесе и известно успокоение.

ТН се разглежда в контекста на взаимодействието на индивида (вътрешни фактори) и средата (външни или ситуативни фактори). Това води до последствия от субективен или обективен характер, а именно как индивидът възприема и преживява дадената ситуация и какво прави в тази ситуация. Една ситуация е неопределена поради липса на информация или липса на смисъл. Неопределеността, следователно, вероятно се дължи на неясна информация (смътни, непълни, частични, фрагментарни стимули) или на неразбираеми стимули (които не могат да бъдат ясно дефинирани или разбрани). Това се дължи: на наличието на множество непослователна, несъгласуваща се информация, позволяваща множество интерпретации или на наличието на контрастни, противоречиви признаци, които говорят за конфликт или амбивалентност на ситуацията. Непредсказуемостта на отделна ситуация или непредвидимостта също могат да я трансформират в неопределена ситуация и в този смисъл несигурността е компонент на неопределеността (Norton, 1975).

Една ситуация може да се характеризира с обективна неопределеност, но трябва да бъде възприета като такава в противен случай това не е ситуация на неопределеност за този индивид. Човек може да не възприеме дадена ситуация като ситуация на неопределеност поради недостиг на знания или поради неспособност за преработка на информацията. Например възрастен, който тъкмо започва изучаване на непознат език, може и да не схване двусмислието в изречението, което чува на непознатият език, поради това, че не знае различните значения на съответните думи в тази реч. Сходен процес се наблюдава и при малкото дете, което не може да долови преструвката или иронията, вложени в едно изказване, поради все още недостатъчно развити когнитивни

PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSONALITY COMPONENTS OF THE TOLERANCE-INTOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY DIMENSION.

способности. В тези случаи една ситуация на обективна неопределеност не се явява ситуация на неопределеност в субективния, вътрешен план на индивида. В подобни ситуации ТН като индивидуална характеристика няма отношение към поведението на индивида. Обективната неопределеност трябва да стане елемент на субективното преживяване на индивида, за да може да провокира реакции на толерантност или нетолерантност.

Такива ситуации се срещат във всички сфери на нашия живот в ежедневието ни, у дома, на работа, със социалните групи, във взаимоотношенията с другите, с институциите. Можем да говорим за перцептивна неопределеност идваща от липсата на яснота във възприятието или за лингвистична неопределеност от двусмислени думи, трудни за разбиране изречения или противоречие между невербалното поведение на събеседника и вербалното съдържание на това, което чуваме. Като потребители често не получаваме пълна и ясна информация за стоките, които ни интересуват. Филмите с открит край и произведенията на съвременната живопис също ни провокират със своята неопределеност. При срещата на различни култури винаги има голяма доза неопределеност. Неопределеността в сферата на дейност и социална ангажираност често е обект на специално внимание в организациите, а при вземането на решения се сблъскваме с необходимостта от оценка на вероятностите, риска и несигурността. Неопределеността съпътства микропроцесите в индивидуалния ни живот като среща с непознати състояния и обстоятелства, както и макропроцесите на социална трансформация, които пораждат хаос и аномия в обществото и провокират реакции на нетолерантност у индивидите и групите. Толерантност по отношение на неопределеността означава нагласа да живееш с неопределеността и готовност да действаш и взаимодействаш с неопределеността. Толерантността често се съпоставя на нетолерантността, като между тези две крайности се разкриват индивидуалните различия по дименсията толерантност към неопределеност. ТН-НеТН се проявява по метода, по който хората възприемат, интерпретират и реагират на неопределената ситуация. Индивидуалните различия са свързани с интензивността и пластичността на реакциите на индивида спрямо неопределената ситуация. Слаба до умерена реакция, съчетана с голямо разнообразие на последващите действия, характеризират толерантните индивиди, докато хора, които са нетолерантни към неопределеността, проявяват непоносимост, реагират много силно дори и на сравнителна ниска степен на неопределеност и се окачествяват с ниска пластичност на поведенческите си отговори.

Следователно ТН не се характеризира с харесване на неопределеността или пък с търсенето ѝ. Подобно поведение може да бъде характерно за някои толерантни индивиди, но то се описва чрез други личностни променливи (търсене на усещания), а не чрез дименсията на ТН. Толерантността към неопределеност се отнася до приомите, по които хората преодоляват неопределеността в своя живот, а не до това дали предпочитат неопределеността и целенасочено я търсят, дори когато това е характерно за някои толерантни индивиди. Живите организми са по-малко приспособими, ако не могат да толерират определени състояния, провокирани от външни въздействия. Тъй като и най малката промяна може да застраши живота на подобен организъм, когато няма достатъчно толерантност той е по-малко приспособим. Обратно, ТН може да доведе до по добра приспособимост, защото човек разполага с по-широк набор от реакции, които му позволяват да прояви по-висока резистентност и акомодация към въздействието на външните дразнителни.

Разгръщането на индивидуалните различия по оста ТН-НеТН се наблюдава в хода на възприемането на неопределеността, когнитивната и афективна оценка на ситуацията и избора на

реакция в тази ситуация. Необходимо е да съществуват възприятия за ситуацията на неопределеност, за да може да се говори за толерантност или нетолерантност към неопределеността. Възможно е възприятието на индивида за дадена ситуация да изключва неопределеността именно като знак на нетолерантност, т. е. субектът редуцира неопределеността от своето възприятие за дадената ситуация, понеже е нетолерантен към нея. Това се наблюдава в случаите, когато човек по свои лични причини игнорира противоречивата информация. В тези ситуации той е напълно способен да възприеме неопределеността, но предпочита да я игнорира, за да избегне необходимостта да се справя с нея. Следователно, игнорирането на неопределеността в една ситуация е проява на нетолерантността към неопределеност.

Оценката за възприетата неопределеност може да бъде позитивна или негативна от емоционална гледна точка и неадекватна (изкривена) или адекватна (реалистична) от познавателна гледна точка. Негативната оценка поражда напрежение и безпокойство, както и чувство на несигурност и дискомфорт. От друга страна, позитивната оценка дава възможност на индивида да продължи своето взаимодействие със средата и да поддържа своето безпокойство и несигурност на ниво, което може да толерира, както и стимулира неговото любопитство и мотивация да продължи нататък. При HeTH наблюдаваме нереалистична, повърхностна или изкривена представа за ситуацията, често с негативно съдържание. На полюса на TH индивидите си изграждат по-сложен, комплексен и диференциран образ за ситуацията, който направлява действията им, променя се и се адаптира към техните резултати. В ситуация на неопределеност индивидът може да избира между различни поведенчески стратегии. Може да се опита да избегне неопределеността като редуцира ситуацията до нещо друго, което да елиминира неопределеността, съдържаща се в нея. Друга възможност е просто да се игнорира присъствието на неопределеността и да се действа, като че ли тя не съществува. Или пък да отвърне на неопределеността в стимула с ригидно, стереотипно поведение и просто да продължи да прави това, което е правел досега, което си реши да прави или това, което обикновено си прави. Възможно е също така да се направи нещо, което да изведе човека от напругата ситуация по най-бързия и лесен възможен начин - бързо да излезе от ситуацията и така психологически и/или фактически да се освободи от нея. Бързото, незабавно действие може да не е оптималното възможно действие в дадената ситуация, но може и да се окаже толкова ефективно, колкото и поведение, избрано след продължително обмисляне и преценяване на ситуацията.

Всички описани досега реакции имат нещо общо помежду си - това, че те всъщност блокират, прекъсват по един или друг начин по-нататъшното взаимодействие на индивида с неопределената ситуацията. На полюса на TH обаче хората действат по различен начин - индивидът може да тръгне по по-дългия път и да продължи да живее с неопределеността, докато търси потенциално добро решение и изход от нея. Ще продължи диалектичното си взаимодействие със ситуацията, балансирайки между редуцирането на напрежението и търсенето на информация, която да му помогне да намери по-добро решение в тази ситуация.

HeTH играе ролята на „късо съединение“, което прекъсва процеса на взаимодействие на индивида със ситуацията на неопределеност. Това „късо съединение“ може да се наблюдава на различни етапи на процеса на взаимодействие. Първо може да се избегне каквато и да било несигурност като се елиминира възприемането на неопределеността - ако няма неопределеност, няма необходимост да се реагира на нея по какъвто и да било начин. Второ чрез бързо разпознаване, дефиниране на ситуацията въз основа на някои частични, открояващи белези или детайли или чрез отхвърляне на онези характеристики, които не са ясни (липсват или не пасват). И

PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSONALITY COMPONENTS OF THE TOLERANCE-INTOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY DIMENSION.

последно, чрез съотнасянето на ситуацията с добре познати, обичайни и ясни типове ситуации, които индуцират добре овладени поведенчески модели. В този смисъл HeTH се явява преждевременно приключване или завършване на взаимодействието на индивида със ситуацията, в която се намира.

TH човек може да отложи, да отсрочи приключването на своето взаимодействие със ситуацията както по отношение на определянето на ситуацията, така и по отношение на избора на поведенчески отговор в нея. Ще продължава взаимодействието адаптирайки своето възприятие, оценки и действия към динамичния характер на връзките ѝ. Нетолерантният индивид сменя неопределеността, като я отхвърля и излиза от ситуацията на неопределеност на феноменологично или операционално ниво. Толерантният индивид сменя (разрешава) неопределеността чрез приемането ѝ, като се ангажира с процеса на дефиниране и рedefиниране на ситуацията и адаптиране и реорганизиране на поведението си.

Неопределеността сама по себе си не е непременно заплаха. Експериментите на Даниел Берлайн (Berlyne, 1957) за оценка на предпочитания към зрителни образци показват, че хората предпочитат да наблюдават и наблюдават по-дълго време сложните картини (комплексни изображения). Подобна тенденция се наблюдава и в изследвания на Уелдън Гарнър (Garner, 1962), върху предпочитанията към поредици от светлини - изследваните лица предпочитали по-сложните и по-малко предвидими последователности от светлини.

В ситуации, в които неопределеността е обект на наблюдение или съзерцание, тя е по-скоро източник на удоволствие, отколкото на дискомфорт. Когато обаче личността е поставена в ситуация, изискваща да реагира по някакъв начин на неопределеността, тогава неопределеността на стимула се превръща в бариера за разгръщане на активността на личността. В този случай-неопределената ситуация става причина за психологически дискомфорт, който индивидът трябва да преодолява и който той умее да толерира или не. Възприятието за неопределеност е негативно субективно преживяване тогава, когато индивидът трябва да реагира с психологическо или физическо действие в дадената ситуация. Неяснотата на стимула възпира разгръщането на обичайните поведенчески стратегии, поражда несигурност относно това, кой е най-подходящият начин на действие в тази ситуация и може да провокира колебливост относно самата способност на личността да регулира ефективно собственото си поведение и взаимодействието със средата. В такива ситуации дименсията на TH е релевантна на психологическа реалност.

Пример с експеримент на Даниел Праг (Pratt, 1972), относно ефекти от дивергентна и конвергентна структура, върху задача за проучване и откриване. Ученици от последния клас на средното училище гледат авангарден филм, който експерти предварително са оценили като много неопределен. След запознаване с филма те са помолени да изброят и оценят всички теми, идеи и проблеми, които според тях присъстват във филма. Част от учениците получават предварителна инструкция, която ги въвежда в проблематиката на филма, а другата част - не. В групата на учениците, които гледат филма без предварителна инструкция, TH индивиди имат по-високи резултати от нетолерантните. Между отговорите на TH и HeTH ученици, които гледат филма с предварителна инструкция, няма значими различия. Неопределеният стимул е един и същ за всички участници, но определеният, чрез инструкцията начин на действие сменя неопределеността на ситуацията за част от тях. Тогава, когато взаимодействието на индивида с

неопределеността се свежда до наблюдаване на неопределеността, и ситуацията не изисква той да действа въз основа на неопределеността, ТН не е психологически релевантна. Тази психологическа дименсия се появява на сцената тогава, когато ситуацията предизвиква индивида да интегрира неопределеността в своето поведение, да взема решение относно смисъла и значението на ситуацията, да ѝ откликва емоционално, когнитивно и поведенчески. Индивидът може да допусне неопределеността като опасност и да я отблъсне или игнорира. Той обаче може и да приеме предизвикателството на неопределеността и да тръгне по пътя на изследването на своите възможности и на възможностите на средата.

Описание на личностови компоненти в различните психологически сфери ТН- НеТН.

Изследванията върху авторитарната личност на Теодор Адорно, Елзе Френкел-Брунсуик, Даниел Левинсън и Невит Санфорд, (Adorno et al, 1950), която дефинира и категоризира личностните черти във всеки даден човек, и анализите на Елзе Френкел Брунсуик (Frenkel-Brunswik, 1948; 1949; 1951) дават богато описание на проявите на ТН-НеТН, което се опира на емпирични данни от психологически експерименти, социалнопсихологически скали и личностови въпросници, проективни методи и клинични интервюта с възрастни и деца. Многообразието от прояви на ТН-НеТН в различни сфери на психичното функциониране на личността дава основание да се говори за поведенчески синдром при описанието на проявите на толерантност-нетолерантност към неопределеността. Авторката разглежда дименсията ТН-НеТН като основна личностова характеристика, която намира израз в специфични проявления на социално-афективните и когнитивно-перцептивни компоненти.

1. Емоционалност

ТН е свързана с готовността да се приеме емоционалната амбивалентност както по отношение на другите (които имат както положителни, така и отрицателни черти), така и по отношение на собствените си импулси, желания и преживявания. Тя се проявява в способността на индивида да разпознава и да приема, без повишена тревожност, безпокойство и вътрешен конфликт, съ-съществуването на противоречиви чувства на любов и омраза към другите, както и на противоположни хубави и лоши качества в другите. НеТН индивид е склонен към ясно, недвусмислено и абсолютно, пълно приемане или пълно отхвърляне на себе си и на другите хора. Той по-често прибегва до черно-бели квалификации, избързва с преценките и формулира крайни оценъчни съждения, пренебрегвайки сложната и многообразна реалност. Тези хора разцепват своите преживявания, като изключват от съзнанието си неприемливи тенденции като агресия към авторитета, слабост, страх от импулсите и влеченията и не са свободни в изявата на враждебни, противоречиви или неприемливи чувства. Личностните защити на НеТН индивид се характеризират с ригидност, отричане на неприемливите тенденции, стесняване на егото. В самоописанията и описанията на другите, които НеТН хора правят, се наблюдава по-голяма категоричност, едноизмерност и липса на количествена градация на значението. В изказванията на ТН индивиди по-често се наблюдават многозначни и нюансирани езикови изрази, многопластови символи, метафори и образи.

2. Социални ориентации

НеТН индивиди се придържат към статуквото, към установените правила и норми и конвенционални ценности. Те държат за стриктното, неотклонно спазване на правилата, привързани са към идеята за стабилен и устойчив (т.е. ригиден, външен, наложен) ред и дисциплина и се съпротивяват на промяната. Те са склонни да игнорират противоречащата информация и факти при формиране на мнение и преценки за социалните феномени, което на свой

PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSONALITY COMPONENTS OF THE TOLERANCE-INTOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY DIMENSION.

ред води до по-голям авторитаризъм, етноцентризъм и стереотипизация на нагласите и убежденията. Тяхна отличителна черта е възприемането на оценъчни, полярни, взаимно изключващи се, йерархични социални категории (сила - слабост, власт - подчинение, чисто - мръсно, морално - неморално, конформност - различаване) и прилагането им по отношение на половите роли, социални, расови и етнически групи, отношения в семейството, морални ценности и самите тях. Те вярват, че съществува демаркационна линия между добро и зло. ТН е свързана с едно по-индивидуализирано, многопланово отношение към другите, разграничаване на индивидуалните различия в поведението и нагласите и стремеж към равнопоставеност в третирането на ролите в семейството и на хората в различно положение. ТН хора се опитват да преценяват всички аспекти на социалната ситуация и подкрепят разбирания за човека и обществото, които включват, а не изключват, различаващите се групи и лица.

3. Особености на възприятието.

След като разпознаят първоначалното изображение, НеТН индивиди по-дълго се придържат към тази интерпретация на фигурата и по-бавно реагират на промяната на стимулния материал (например при показването на фигура на куче, която постепенно преминава в котка). Когато все пак регистрират настъпилата промяна в изображението, те или напосоки гадаят и предлагат случайни, несвързани отговори, или блокират и не могат нищо да отговорят. При тях също се наблюдават неадаптивност на възприятията и по-груба диференциация на различните степени на интензивност на възприятията.

Бъднър (Budner, 1962) диференцира ТН-НеТН като многомерен конструктор. склонност да се възприемат неопределените ситуации като желани или като източник на заплахата. Той разграничава три типа ситуации на неопределеност, които не могат да бъдат адекватно структурирани или категоризирани от индивида, защото:

1. са нови и непознати.
2. по-сложни от обичайното.
3. субективно или обективно се възприемат като противоречиви и нерешими, трудни за разбиране или контролиране. Това са ситуации, в които можем само да се досещаме или да предполагаме, но не разполагаме с достатъчно информация, за да сме сигурни в изводите си, или пък ситуацията е твърде многозначна.

Хората реагират по различен начин на ситуации с неясни причини и следствия, които дават възможност за много различни и дори противоположни гледни точки, или пък когато липсва яснота за вътрешната структура и развитието на нещата. Нетолерантността на индивида към такива ситуации може да се проявява на феноменологично и на поведенческо ниво, както в неговите възприятия, чувства и оценки, така и във външното му поведение спрямо природни и социални обекти. На заплахата може да се реагира чрез:

- а) смиряване пред съществуващата неизбежност и подчиняване на това, което не може да се промени.
- б) се прибегва до механизма на отричането, отхвърлянето, като чрез някакво реално или символно действие на индивида обективната реалност се променя според желанията на възприемащия.

Така че са възможни четири типа НеТН поведение:

1. феноменологично отричане (потискане и отричане).

2. феноменологично подчиняване (тревожност и дискомфорт).
3. оперативно отричане (деструктивно поведение или реконструиране на ситуацията).
4. оперативно подчиняване (поведение на избягване).

Според МакДоналд (MacDonald, 1970) индивидите с висока ТН:

1. търсят такива ситуации.
2. преживяват удоволствие от тях.
3. постигат по-високи резултати при решаване на сложни, отворени и амбивалентни задачи.

Те са по-склонни към индивидуалистично поведение и нестандартен избор на професия, докато индивидите с ниска ТН са по-догматични, ригидни, с позитивно отношение към авторитаризма и конвенционалността в обществените и междуличностни отношения.

Нортън (Norton, 1975) анализира психологическата литература върху ТН и обобщава най-често срещаните значения на термина “неопределеност” в осем групи:

- 1) Многозначност на стимула и възможните му интерпретации.
- 2) Незавършеност, фрагментарност на стимула, който е неясен.
- 3) Вероятностен характер на процесите, които правят изхода от ситуацията несигурен, променлив и/или трудно предвидим.
- 4) Неструктурираност на стимула.
- 5) Липса на информация в дадена ситуация.
- 6) Несигурността като състояние на ума, породено от нови, непознати или амбивалентни ситуации, събития или взаимодействия.
- 7) Субективно или обективно нерешими ситуации поради несъгласуваност, непоследователност и противоречивост.
- 8) Неяснота на стимула, съждение, изображение.

Бокнър (Bochner, 1965) описва първичните и вторични характеристики на ТН, които извежда от дефиницията на Френкел-Брунсуик. Първичните характеристики дефинират самото понятие, а вторичните съотнасят тази дименсия към други личностови характеристики и позволяват тя да се включи в по-общ клъстер или семейство от личностови измерения.

Първичните проявления на НеТН са свързани с: ригидно дихотомизиране чрез фиксирани категории или потребност от категоризация; търсене на сигурност и избягване на неопределеността или потребност от сигурност; неспособността да приемеш съ-съществуването на позитивни и негативни характеристики в един и същи обект (например добри и лоши черти в един човек); възприемането на вярвания и разбирания, представляващи ригидно, черно-бяло виждане за света; предпочитане към познатото пред непознатото и отхвърляне на различното или необичайното; съпротива при реверсиране на видимо флукутиращи стимули; ранното избиране и поддържането на едно решение в перцептивно неопределена среда; преждевременно завършване.

Вторичните характеристики на НеТН са проявяват в авторитарност, догматичност, ригидност на индивида, който може да бъде с етнически предразсъдъци, некреативен, тревожен, екстрапунитивен или агресивен.

Съществуват различни виждания за връзката между толерантността към неопределеност и ригидност. Френкел-Брунсуик (Frenkel-Brunswik, 1949) обозначава с ригидност реакцията на съпротива на промяната и я отнася към проявленията на НеТН. Повечето автори обаче (Budner, 1962; MacDonald, 1970) са склонни да разглеждат двата конструкта като различни, макар и

PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSONALITY COMPONENTS OF THE TOLERANCE-INTOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY DIMENSION.

взаимосвързани: ТН се интерпретира като съдържателна характеристика на личността, която се проявява в нагласата да се възприемат, интерпретират и оценяват определени явления по определен начин, докато ригидността е по-скоро по-обща, формално-динамична характеристика на личността, доколкото тя описва поведенчески репертоар, който се активира независимо от съдържанието на явленията. Андерсен и Шварц (Andersen, Schwartz, 1992) разглеждат ТН като когнитивен буфер срещу депресивността, докато НеТН е един от факторите, които подтикват индивида да генерализира случилите се тук и сега единични негативни събития в обобщено заключение от типа "Никога нищо хубаво вече няма да ми се случи" или "Най-лошото е неизбежно". Толерантността към неопределеност като характеристика на личността се изследва във връзка със социалните нагласи, когнитивните процеси, емоционалните процеси, професионалните и естетически предпочитания на индивида. Редица изследователи анализират връзката на ТН с етническите предразсъдъци, консервативните разбирания и възгледи и догматичните нагласи. Хората с ниска ТН са по-догматични, ригидни и консервативни (Budner, 1962) и имат по-висока склонност към авторитаризъм и етноцентризъм. В две проучвания П. С. Раджу (Raju, 1980), изследвайки връзките между оптимално ниво на стимулация (OSL), избрани личностни черти, изследвано поведение и демографски променливи, установява че високата ТН е свързана с предпочитание към по-високо равнище на стимулация. Обосновката на този резултат е със склонността на НеТН хора да избягват неясни, неопределени стимули.

4. Когнитивни процеси

НеТН лица или прибегват до прекалено груби, общи категоризации, или се фиксират върху конкретността, специфичността на отделен детайл или несъществена подробност в ситуацията. При този подход обектът се възприема по-скоро като механичен сбор от отделни елементи, отколкото като вътрешно организирано, динамично цяло. Нетолерантните индивиди проявяват ригидност при решаването на проблеми и предпочитат бързото действие, което води до реални (осезаеми) конкретни резултати. Те са склонни механично да повтарят грешни подходи, а когато ситуацията стане твърде трудна, те или хаотично се втурват в ненасочени проби и грешки, или се отказват. В подобна ситуация ТН хора са по-склонни да спрат и да почакат с решението, за да помислят и да преразгледат проблема. НеТН се отличават със стремеж към систематичност и подреденост, едномерно класифициране в типове и категории, преждевременно категоризиране на обекти и явления, склонност към свръхгенерализация, повърхностност и липса на пластичност в мисловните нагласи. Когато възпроизвеждат чут разказ, НеТН деца си спомнят повече нежелателни, отколкото желателни индивидуални характеристики и поведения. При тях се наблюдава и сравнително по-грубо усилване на негативните елементи (например враждебност в междуличностните отношения) и склонност към „катастрофалност“ на представите. В техните спомени историята е или опростена или разказана по-еднообразно. При ТН деца съотношението между възпроизведени желателни/позитивни и нежелателни/негативни характеристики е по-близко до реалното им съотношение в разказа и в този смисъл те са „по-близко“ до реалността. НеТН изкривяване на реалността на когнитивно ниво би могло да се прояви също така във фиксация към стимула чрез стесняването му до описание на единични детайли или пък в пълното пренебрегване, откъсване от стимула в полза на изграждането на чисто субективни фантазии.

Личностови предпоставки за ТН

Ще разгледаме и очертаем кръга от когнитивни, афективни и поведенчески характеристики на личността, с които са свързани индивидуалните различия в ТН-HeТН. Когнитивните характеристики са от сферата на способностите (равнище на интелектуален потенциал), уменията (творческо мислене) и когнитивния стил (независимост от полето и когнитивна сложност). Способността на личността да открива връзки и зависимости и да се обучава, уменията ѝ за откриване, генериране и опериране със смисъла и значението на ситуацията, както и диференцирането на фигурата от фона и предпочитанието към преработка на комплексна, многомерна и разнообразна информация, допринасят за толерантността ѝ към неопределеността. Това са качества, които помагат на личността да преодолява неопределеността, докато по-ниските познавателни способности и умения насочват индивидуалното поведение по-скоро по посока на избягване на неопределеността. Афективните предпоставки на нетолерантността са свързани с тревожността. Тревожната и неуверена в себе си личност е по-податлива на несигурността и чувството за безпокойство в неопределени ситуации. Най-накрая, комплексни характеристики като догматичността и ригидността могат да възпрепятстват реорганизацията на поведението на личността и гъвкавата ѝ и ефикасна адаптация към условията на неопределеността.

1. Интелигентност.

Между интелигентността и ТН се наблюдава позитивна връзка, както показват емпиричните данни, получени при деца, юноши и възрастни.

Фреда Бланчър-Фийлдс и Лиза Норрис (Blanchard-Fields & Norris, 1994), констатираат категорична зависимост между интелигентността и ТН разглеждайки събития, вариращи по степен на информационна неопределеност изследвайки лица от юношеството до късна зряла възраст. Триста шейсет и девет мъже и жени на възраст 13–86 години оценяват степента на неопределеност, в която причината за дадено събитие е функция на основното обстоятелство, ситуация или комбинация от тях. Резултатите показват, че по-възрастните възрастови групи са направили по-интерактивни, атрибутивни оценки, отколкото по-младите възрастови групи за въпросните събития. При сравнение на жените от късна и средна зряла възраст, тези жени от късна зрялост демонстрират спад в диалектичното мислене. Нивото на интелигентност, толерантността към неопределеност и вербалната способност предсказва наличие на философска, интегрална далновидност независимо от ефектите на възрастта. Моделите на традиционните семейни ценности по отношение на взаимоотношенията са изследвани в проучване на Бланчър-Фийлдс, Херцог, Щайн и Пак (Blanchard-Fields et al, 2001) състоящо се от две извадки: студенти и възрастни на различна възраст (23–86 години). Зависимите променливи включват вербални способности, нужда от познание, нужда от интроспекция, нетолерантност към неопределеност, религиозност и полова ориентация. Моделите отчитат значителна дисперсия на традиционните семейни ценности (64% за учениците и 63% за възрастните). Резултатите доказват необходимостта от идентифициране на множество механизми, чрез които лични характеристики влияят върху традиционализма в системите от социални вярвания и се противопоставят на разчитането на независими променливи като възраст и пол.

Проведено лонгитюдно проучване на развитието на егото на Дейвид Харигтън, Жана Блок и Джак Блок (Harrington et al, 1978) свидетелства, че устойчиви индивидуални различия в ТН могат да се наблюдават още в предучилищна възраст. Проведени са 3 експеримента при които са приложени множество измервания на 3, 4, 5, 6 или 7-годишна възраст, като е получена и информация за родителите и взаимодействията между родителите и децата. Деца, които на 3,5 години са оценени като HeТН от техните възпитатели в яслите, се описват и оценяват по сходен

PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSONALITY COMPONENTS OF THE TOLERANCE-INTOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY DIMENSION.

начин и на 4,5 години от учителите им в детската градина и на 7 години от учителите в началното училище. На 4,5 години НeТН деца се характеризират като проявяващи в по-голяма степен боязливост и тревожност, особено в неструктурирана среда, неадекватни емоционални реакции, с повече телесни симптоми на напрежение и вътрешен конфликт, специфични маниеризми или поведенчески ритуали. Те по-често търсят подкрепа от другите и са по-склонни да се безпокоят и да се отдават на мрачни размисли. Когато изпаднат в стрес, те по-често ригидно повтарят действията си, блокират или се връщат се към незрели форми на поведение. От друга страна, ТН деца се проявяват като по-любопитни и инициативни в изследователското си поведение, имат повече ресурси за инициране на различни дейности. Оценката за НeТН на 7 годишните момчета и момичета корелира отрицателно с характеристики като: проява на увереност, инициативност за започване на различни дейности, креативност във възприятията, мислите, работа или играта, висок интелектуален капацитет. Тази оценка също така корелира положително с характеристики като: свит и потиснат, таи мислите и чувствата си. Бащите на НeТН момчетата се описват като относително дистанцирани, авторитарни, нетърпеливи, критични и по-малко изобретателни, при общуването със синовете си. Майките на НeТН момичетата се описват като възпитаващи и емоционално подкрепящи и структуриращи.

Проучване на Буднер (Budner, 1962) е проведено, за да се установи как множествената интелигентност на учениците е свързана с толерантността им към неопределеност и владенето на английски език. Изследваните лица са 173 студенти изучаващи английски език в частен университет в Северен Тайван, от които 49 мъже и 124 жени. Тествани с въпросници за множествена интелигентност (MI) Howard Gardner и скала за толерантност към неопределеност към втори език (SLTAS) (Ely, 1995), като за нивото на владене на английски език са използвани оценките и нивата на владене от изпита за кандидатстване в колежа. Резултатите показват, че съществува зависимост между множествената интелигентност на учениците, толерантността към неопределеност и владенето на английски език. Освен това, чрез използване на t-тест, резултатите показват, че полът корелира с изследваните величини.

В родно изследване на Катя Стойчева (Stoicheva, 1993) личностовите особености на юноши с висока и ниска ТН, подкрепят този извод. Ученици на възраст от 14 до 18 години са попълнили българската адаптация на скалата за ТН на Нортън МАТ-50/БВ-3 (Stoicheva et al, 1998) и свободния от културни влияния тест за интелигентност на Кетел (Paspalanova & Shtetinski, 1984). От тях 155 са момчета и 237 са момичета, учат в IX, X и XI клас на две училища в столицата и едно извън нея. От тази извадка са подбрани две контрастни групи, - група с висока ТН и група с ниска ТН, на базата на техните индивидуални резултати по показателя ТН. Стига се до заключението, че между оценките за ТН в групата с ниска и висока стойности има статистически значима разлика. Сравняването на постиженията на групите с висока и с ниска ТН показва, че юношите с висока ТН получават значимо по-високи резултати по теста за интелигентност на Кетел в сравнение с техните връстници с ниска ТН. Използвайки българските норми за тази възраст, участниците в изследването са категоризирани като лица с ниска, средна и висока интелигентност. Резултатите показват, че в двете групи има сходен брой юноши с висока интелигентност, като различието идва главно от по-високия процент лица с ниска интелигентност в групата с ниска ТН - 25% срещу само 2% в групата с висока ТН.

ТН е свързана с индивидуалните различия в интелигентността, но високата интелигентност не води автоматично до по-висока ТН. Какви други когнитивни особености на личността биха

могли да влияят позитивно върху ТН и да допринасят за развитието ѝ? Емпиричните данни и резултати за ТН насочват към търсене на отговор на този въпрос в областта на творческото мислене и когнитивния стил на личността.

2. Способности за творческо мислене

Международните тенденции в изследването на творчеството в много отношения се подкрепят от резултатите на извършените световни проучвания. Емпиричните изследвания на креативността при ученици и студенти като цяло очертават положителна връзка между ТН и способностите за творческо мислене. Прегледът на научна литературата показва дефицит на изследвания, аргументи и съждения в областта въздействието на игрите, подражанието, имитацията и репликирането върху личните характеристики на участниците. В експеримент на Крис Петерсен, Джон Глоувър, Дан и Патриша Ромеро (Petersen et al, 1978), 76 студенти участват в межкултурната симулация "BaFa BaFa" подготвяща за живот и работа в друга култура, работа с хора от други отдели, дисциплини, пол, раса и възраст. Това е изпитана във времето симулационна програма за обучение лице в лице, която постига резултати със запомнящи се преживявания. Като зависими променливи са използвани толерантност към неопределеност и догматизъм, а независими променливи са нивата на творческите способности, средният успех и полът. Тристранният дисперсионен анализ на промяната в оценките за догматизъм показва значителна обусловеност с творческите способности. По подобен начин оценките за толерантност към неопределеност разкриват значителна каузалност между творческите способности и пола.

Друго проучвателно изследване на Артър Ричардсън (Richardson, 1985), има за цел да изследва личностните корелати на творчеството сред извадка от 275 ямайски юноши, избрани на случаен принцип от петите класове на осем гимназии. На тази извадка е приложена батерия от 19 показателя - 8 за креативност и 11 за личност. Корелационният анализ показва редица значими връзки между творческите и личностните променливи за цялата извадка и несъществени разлики при сравненията между половете.

Така например при интелектуално надарени ученици от IV-VI клас ТН е свързана с продуктивността при генериране на идеи и решения на проблеми, без да е свързана с лекота при генерирането на думи, синоними и изречения. На осемдесет интелектуално надарени четвъртокласници, петокласници и шестокласници в изследване на Джон Хауц, Робърт Дания, Силвия Розенфийлд и Тоби Тетенбаум (Houtz et al, 1980), са дадени задачи за дивергентно мислене и решаване на проблеми, както и тестове за толерантност към неопределеност, локус на контрол и самооценка. Разделени са на четири групи за сравнение: (1) по-висок дар слово и по-висок коефициент на интелигентност; (2) по-висок дар слово, но по-нисък коефициент на интелигентност; (3) по-нисък дар слово, но по-висок коефициент на интелигентност; и (4) по-нисък дар слово и по-нисък коефициент на интелигентност. Децата с по-висока плавност, гладкост и лекота на говор са по-толерантни към неопределеност, вътрешно ориентирани, с положителна самооценка, по-добре решават проблеми и постигат успехи в училище. Тези резултати подчертават последователността, която може да се открие между когнитивните и афективните измерения, свързани с дивергентното или творческото мислене.

Сходно проучване на Джон Хауц и Тоби Тетенбаум (Tetenbaum & Houtz, 1978) върху 127 надарени деца от 4-6 клас от нийоркско училище е приложено тестване за решаване на проблеми и творчество, като е направен опит тези когнитивни променливи да се свържат с афективните характеристики на локус на контрол, самооценка и толерантност към неопределеност. Корелационният анализ показва една значима стойност ($p < .05$), а след извършен факторен анализ

PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSONALITY COMPONENTS OF THE TOLERANCE-INTOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY DIMENSION.

на задачите за творчество и решаване на проблеми се очертават два фактора: "гладкост при общуване" и "систематизиране". Факторните оценки са използвани за анализ на различията по пол и класове, като при афективните задачи не са установени различия по пол, но са установени по толерантност към неопределеност. Учениците от 4 клас се различават значително от учениците от 6 клас само по фактора "систематизиране".

Също така студенти, които генерират повече идеи при брейнсторминг, са с по-висока ТН. Марк Комадена (Comadena, 1984), изследва представянето на лица в групите за брейнсторминг с равнопоставеност между всички участници в процеса и определя връзките между способността за комуникация, толерантността към неопределеност, възприятията за интерес към задачата и индивидуалния идеен резултат. Резултатите от стъпаловидния множествен линеен дискриминационен анализ (LDA) показват, че лицата, които са високопроизводителни по отношение на идеите, възприемат задачата за брейнсторминг като по-привлекателна, имат ниско ниво на притеснение от общуване и по-висока толерантност към неопределеност в сравнение с лицата с ниска идейна продуктивност.

В изследване на Стойчева (Stoicheva, 1998) две групи юноши - с висока и с ниска ТН, решават вербални и графични задачи от тестовете за творческо мислене на Торанс. Вербалните задачи изискват от изследваното лице да измисли колкото може повече, по-разнообразни, интересни и оригинални идеи и предложения за решаване на типични за творчеството проблемни ситуации, като усъвършенстване на съществуващо изделие, необичайна употреба на обичайни, добре познати предмети или задаване на въпроси за откриване на необикновени аспекти на една обикновена ситуация. Учениците с висока ТН имат по-високи постижения по всички вербални индикатори за креативност, но само различията по показателя оригиналност достигат статистическа значимост. Юношите с висока ТН генерират по-оригинални, нетривиални и нестандартни идеи при решаването на вербални задачи от открит тип.

3. Когнитивен стил

ТН подкрепена от емпиричните изследвания показва, че е свързана със стилови характеристики на познавателните процеси, като независимост от полето и когнитивната сложност.

Опит за потвърждаване на хипотезата за психологическа интеграция, чрез сравняване на нивата на психологическо функциониране е направена от Албърт Нед и Никълас Марш (Nedd & Marsh, 1980) при изследване на 218 мъже началници от първо ниво от 5 промишлени предприятия в Нова Зеландия, които принадлежат към една от 4 културни групи: имигранти или местни полинезийци и имигранти или местни европейци. Попълнени са различни въпросници, включително тест за вградени фигури, за измерване на зависимостта от полето - независимост, толерантност към неопределеност (афективна стилова променлива) и макиавелизъм (индекс на стилова ориентация в междуличностните отношения). Резултатите потвърждават не само хипотезата за личностна интеграция, но и хипотезата за личностна диференциация.

Наоми Г. Ротър и Агнес Н. О'Конъл (Rotter & O'Connell, 1982) изследват връзките между полово-ролевата ориентация, когнитивната сложност и толерантността към неопределеност. Двеста и четири студентки и осемдесет и седем студенти попълнили тест на Шрьодер и Щроферт за когнитивна сложност и модел за обработка на информация, скалата за толерантност към неопределеност на Буднър и инвентаризацията на сексуалните роли на Бем (BSRI), който има диференцирана способност да предсказва когнитивната сложност в зависимост от пола на субекта. Изказана е хипотезата, че лицата, класифицирани като андрогинни и като смесени, ще бъдат по-

сложни в когнитивно отношение и по-толерантни към неопределеността, отколкото лицата, класифицирани като андрогинни или недиференцирани по пол, а когнитивната сложност и нетолерантността към неопределеност ще бъдат отрицателно свързани. Данните показват, че мъжете и жените, които са андрогинни и смесени, са по-толерантни към неопределеност, отколкото субектите с различен пол и са когнитивно по-сложни, отколкото недиференцираните субекти. Субектите с кръстосан пол са по-сложни в когнитивно отношение от субектите с различен пол, а когнитивната сложност и нетолерантността към неопределеност са отрицателно свързани.

Проучване Уилям Питърси и Бети Амбърджи (Peters & Amburgey, 1982) е успешно продължение на предишни изследвания върху ефекта на една характеристика на учителя - предпочитание към сложността и толерантност към неопределеност, измерени чрез скалата "Ко" на Омнибус за инвентаризацията на личността. Очаквано е, че ако резултатите от обучението на учениците са свързани с учители с висока степен на далновидност, то черта като толерантност към неопределеност и предпочитание към сложността ще се свърже с когнитивните вербални реакции, които учителят създава в класната стая. Очакванията се потвърждават, което показва, че лицата с висока степен на сложност поддържат значително повече вербални отговори на по-високите нива на познание, отколкото лицата с ниска степен на ерудиция.

Индивидите с висока ТН по-добре структурират и артикулират своето перцептивно и когнитивно поле, диференцират по-добре своите възприятия и образи и са по-устойчиви на разсейващото влияние на дифузната среда. Техният начин на мислене е по-нюансиран, релативен и независещ от външни опори, което им позволява да формират по-сложни, многомерни и интегрирани познавателни схеми.

4. Тревожност

Повишената тревожност, чувството за безпокойство и преживяването на дискомфорт са част от реакциите на личността, в които се проявява нейната нетолерантност спрямо неопределеността. Тук обаче става дума за тревожността като една по-обща, устойчива характеристика на личността и нейната връзка с ТН-НеТН. Според изследване Стойчева (Stoicheva, 2003), юношите с ниска ТН имат по-висока тревожност в сравнение с връстниците си с висока ТН. Тази разлика е по-силно изразена при личностовата тревожност, където достига статистическа значимост. Аналогични данни получава и Каган (Kagan, 1987) при студенти, чиито оценки за ТН показват незначима отрицателна корелация със ситуативната тревожност и значима отрицателна корелация с личностовата тревожност. Изследвана е връзката на тревожността с ригидността при решаване на проблеми измежду 51 студенти от мъжки пол и 153 студентки попълнили тестове за толерантност към неопределеност и когнитивна ригидност. Корелационните модели показват, че тревожността е по-разпространен, значим и монолитен фактор при жените, отколкото при мъжете. Възможно е да се заключи, че жените са особено чувствителни към оценъчни ситуации.

По-високата тревожност прави индивида по-склонен да реагира защитно на неопределеността и да избягва ситуации на неопределеност, а по-ниската тревожност му позволява да проявява по-голяма поносимост и търпимост в такива ситуации. Интересно е да се отбележи, че ТН не е значимо свързана с невротизма. Това показват коефициентите на корелация, получени в извадки от френски и български студенти. Франк Зенасни и Тод Любърт (Zenasni & Lubart, 2001) изследват психометричните свойства на френската версия на теста за измерване на толерантността към неопределеност МАТ (Norton, 1975). Участвали са 153 френски студенти и студентки на възраст 20-36 години. Резултатите показват, че психометричните свойства на френската адаптация

PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSONALITY COMPONENTS OF THE TOLERANCE-INTOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY DIMENSION.

на МАТ са задоволителни.

В изследване на Сойчева (Stoicheva, 1997) индивидите с ниска ТН имат значимо по-висока личностова тревожност, но не се различават значимо от толерантните към неопределеност по отношение на ситуативната тревожност, измерени чрез българска адаптация на скалата на Спилбъргър (Stetinski & Pospalanov, 1989).

Значимите връзки с тревожността и незначимият ефект на невротизма още веднъж показват, че не толкова емоционалната нестабилност и уязвимост на индивида, колкото безпокойството, напрежението и несигурността на личността придават непоносимост на срещата ѝ с неопределеността.

5. Ригидност

Разграничението между тревожността като емоционална реакция в неопределени ситуации и тревожността като характеристика на личността се отнася и до ригидността. Още Френкел-Брунсуик (Frenkel-Brunswik, 1949) описва ригидното поведение в ситуации на неопределеност като една от проявите на НЕТН. Разглежда се личностовата ригидност като една по-обща, устойчива характеристика на личността, която описва съпротивата на личността към реална или евентуална, наложена или избрана смяна в нейното поведение и нагласи. Ригидността корелира значимо с НЕТН, а получените с различни методики в различни изследвания, коефициенти на корелация варират от 0,27 до 0,60 (Bhushan & Amal, 1986; Budner, 1962; Joffe & Naditch, 1977; Kirton, 1981; MacDonald, 1970; Ruch & Hehl, 1983).

Съдържанието на проучваните личностни конструкти толерантност към неопределеност и ригидност е причина да очакваме хората с по-висока ригидност да бъдат по-нетолерантни към неопределеност. Ригидността, като израз на противодействие на личността срещу промяна в поведението, вярванията и нагласите, затруднява адаптивното, гъвкаво поведение, каквото се изисква пред лицето на неопределеността. От друга страна ригидното поведение при срещата с неопределеността, конвенционалността и придържането към консервативните нагласи и разбирания са проява на нетолерантност към неопределеност.

Значими връзки между НЕТН и ригидността са получени и в български извадки (Stoicheva, 1993; 1994). На ригидния човек му е по-трудно да промени своя начин на мислене и действие, а точно това неопределената ситуация изисква от личността, ето защо по-високата ригидност води до по-голяма нетолерантност към неопределеността.

6. Догматизъм

Догматизмът характеризира системата от убеждения на индивида (в какво вярва и в какво не вярва) и нейната организация. Милтън Рокич (Rokeach, 1960), в книгата си "Отвореният и затворен ум" демонстрира връзките между моделите на вярвания на индивида и основната му личностна структура. В центъра ѝ са познанията за физическия свят, за себе си и за другите, следвани от разбиранията за природата на авторитета, и в периферията ѝ се разполагат убеждения, произтичащи от авторитета. Системата от убеждения е отворена (нисък догматизъм), когато реалността не е заплаха за индивида и у него доминира потребността да знае и да разбира, което му позволява да реагира на обективната реалност и да я оценява. Този човек не разчита на авторитети, не приема или отхвърля хората според тяхното съгласие или несъгласие с авторитета и е отворен за рационални доводи.

Когато реалността е заплаха за индивида и неговата потребност да знае и да разбира е слаба, системата от убеждения е затворена (висок догматизъм). В резултат на това индивидът не

може да разграничи достойнствата на информацията от значимостта на източника ѝ, идентифицира се с абсолютен авторитет или кауза. Догматичните хора имат установени, безкомпромисни разбирания за повечето неща и са склонни енергично и дори яростно да ги бранят (Eysenck, Wilson, 1975). Емпиричните данни показват, че догматизмът, измерен чрез скалата на Рокич (Vacchiano, 1977), корелира значимо с оценките за ТН (Chabassol & Thomas, 1975; Kirton, 1981; MacDonald, 1970). Аналогични резултати са получени и при използването на други скали за догматизъм. Хората с висок догматизъм са по-склонни да проявяват нетолерантност към неопределеността.

В проучване на Рина Бхаттачаря и Гопа Бхардвадж (Bhattacharya & Bhardwaj, 1983) се изследва влиянието на екологията и пола върху мотивацията за постижения, тревожността за постижения, догматизма и толерантността към неопределеност при 160 ученици на възраст 17-18 г. Учениците са разделени на 2 групи въз основа на пола и на интервюта, проведени за оценка на ориентацията към околната среда (отворена/затворена). Резултатите показват значителни разлики по отношение на екологията и пола за всички измервани променливи. Като цяло, независимо от средата, в която живеят, мъжете са по-ориентирани към постиженията, имат по-висока потребност от тях и са по-малко догматични и нетолерантни към неопределеност, отколкото жените. Твърди се, че нерестриктивната среда допринася за психологическото развитие.

Индивидуалните различия в ТН зависят от когнитивните, афективните и поведенческите особености на личността.

Заклучение:

В заключение можем да обобщим, че индивидуалните различия в ТН се проявяват в начина, по който човек възприема неопределеността и реагира на нея. Различията в поведението на хората с ниска и с висока ТН са провокирани от неопределеността на външните стимули, които пораждаат повече или по-малко напрежение и вътрешен дискомфорт, а тревожността и безпокойството в една или друга степен препятстват адекватното възприемане, интерпретиране и реагиране на ситуацията. ТН хора могат да интегрират по-голяма част от вътрешната и външната реалност в психичния си свят и имат по-гъвкава адаптация към променящата се среда. По-голямото психично напрежение и емоционален дискомфорт у НеТН хора ги подтиква към търсене на неоправдана сигурност в техните мисли, чувства и действия, което води до неадекватни на реалността реакции от тяхна страна. Те прибегват до крайни (полярни) съждения и оценки, изграждат свръхконкретни или свръхгенерализирани представи, а възприятието им за ситуацията може да се фиксира върху някакъв детайл от реалността или да бъде напълно субективно и откъснато от реалността. В поведението си НеТН лица проявяват липса на пластичност и скованост или действат хаотично и наслуки.

Както видяхме, толерантността или нетолерантността на индивида към неопределени ситуации се проявява и на феноменологично, и на поведенческо ниво. ТН-НеТН се проявява както в мислите, чувствата и възприятията, така и в поведението на индивида. НеТН реакции са крайни, много интензивни и ригидни, докато ТН реакции са балансирани, по-умерени и пластични. НеТН може да се прояви в смиряване пред неизбежността на неопределеността и подчиняване на това, което съществува и не може да се промени. В този случай безпокойството, напрежението и тревожността намират израз в поведение на избягване на неопределеността. НеТН може да се прояви и в отричане, отхвърляне на неопределеността, при което индивидът променя или видоизменя реалността чрез някакво свое реално или символно действие. ТН човек, от своя страна, приема неопределеността и търси адекватни на действителността начини за

PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSONALITY COMPONENTS OF THE TOLERANCE-INTOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY DIMENSION.

взаимодействие със ситуацията. Също така толерантността към неопределеност като личностова характеристика се допълва от съответните нагласи и ценностно отношения в диспозиционната структура на личността. Индивидуалните различия в ТН зависят от когнитивните, афективните и поведенческите особености на личността. Способността на личността да открива връзки и зависимости и да се обучава, уменията ѝ за откриване, генериране и опериране със смисъла и значението на ситуацията, както и диференцирането на фигурата от фона и предпочитанието към преработка на комплексна, многомерна и разнообразна информация, допринасят за толерантността ѝ към неопределеност. Това са качества, които помагат на личността да се справя с неопределеността, докато по-ниските познавателни способности и умения насочват индивидуалното поведение по-скоро по посока на избягване на неопределеността. Афективните предпоставки на нетолерантността са свързани с тревожността. Тревожната и неуверена в себе си личност е по-податлива на несигурността и чувството за безпокойство в неопределени ситуации. Най-накрая, комплексни характеристики като догматичността и ригидността могат да възпрепятстват реорганизацията на поведението на личността и гъвкавата ѝ и ефикасна адаптация към условията на неопределеността.

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VELKOV, KIRIL

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Theoretical article

ДИФЕРЕНЦИАЛНА ПСИХОФИЗИОЛОГИЯ И ПСИХОПАТОЛОГИЯ НА ТРУДОВАТА ДЕЙНОСТ И ПСИХОТРАВМИТЕ В НЕЯ – ОБЩИ ТЕОРЕТИЧНИ ПОЛОЖЕНИЯ, ПРАКТИКО-ПРИЛОЖНИ АСПЕКТИ И СОЦИОМЕДИЦИНСКА ЗНАЧИМОСТ

DIFFERENTIAL PSYCHOPHYSIOLOGY AND PSYCHOPATHOLOGY OF WORK ACTIVITY AND PSYCHOTRAUMA IN IT - GENERAL THEORETICAL POSITIONS, PRACTICAL-APPLIED ASPECTS AND SOCIO-MEDICAL SIGNIFICANCE

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Резюме В статията се анализират психотравмите в процеса на трудова дейност. В контекста на диференциалната психофизиология на труда се представя психологичната страна на трудовия процес и връзката между организационното здраве и психотравмените преживявания. Разгледани са примери от гледна точка на биопсихосоциалния обяснителен модел, предложен от Джордж Енгел, които представляват различни подходи към разбирането на етиопатогенезата на определени заболявания, както и на психотравмите и психотравмените преживявания. Акцентира се върху теорията за салутогенезата на Арон Антоновски и теорията на Пол Сивадон в трудовата психопатология за неврозите и психичните разстройства в процеса на трудовата дейност. Разглеждат се и половите различия в психичните състояния и връзката им с трудовата дейност. Дават се практични съвети за подобряване на психическото състояние на служителите и за намаляване на честотата на проява на психотравмените преживявания в процеса на трудова дейност.

Ключови думи: диференциална психофизиология, психопатология, трудова дейност, психотравма

Abstract

The article analyzes psychotraumas in the process of work. In the context of the differential psychophysiology of work, the psychological side of the work process and the

DIFFERENTIAL PSYCHOPHYSIOLOGY AND PSYCHOPATHOLOGY OF WORK ACTIVITY AND PSYCHOTRAUMA IN IT - GENERAL THEORETICAL POSITIONS, PRACTICAL-APPLIED ASPECTS AND SOCIO-MEDICAL SIGNIFICANCE

relationship between organizational health and psychotraumatic experiences are presented. Examples are examined from the perspective of the biopsychosocial explanatory model proposed by George Engel, which represent different approaches to understanding the etiopathogenesis of certain diseases, as well as psychotraumata and psychotraumatic experiences. Emphasis is placed on Aaron Antonovsky's theory of salutogenesis and Paul Sivadon's theory in psychopathology of work for neuroses and mental disorders in the process of work. Gender differences in mental states and their relationship with work activity are also examined. Practical advice is given to improve the mental state of employees and to reduce the frequency of manifestation of psycho-traumatic experiences in the process of work.

Key words: differential psychophysiology, psychopathology, work activity, psychotrauma

1. Увод в диференциалната психофизиология на трудовата дейност

1.1. Понятието “диференциална психофизиология” в психологията

Представата за индивидуалните различия между хората се появява на базата на наблюдаемите и видими условия на всекидневния живот (храна и размножаване), специфични дейности, търговия, война, преселване и др. Етолозите са първите, които правят вътревидови и междувидови сравнения. **Етология** (от гръцки etos - нагласа, характер, начин на поведение; logos - учение) - наука за биологията на поведението, общобиологичната основа и закономерностите на поведението (Mayasova, T. V., 2012). В резултат на подобни сравнения изследователите обръщат внимание на общото между всички хора и частното, специфичното и дори уникалното; вроденото и придобитото. Следователно, от една страна, новото научно направление идентифицира моделите на формиране на свойства, черти и признаци, общи за хората, а от друга, става необходимо да се изследва променливостта на човешките психични прояви. Всичко това води до появата на диференциалната психофизиология. **Диференциалната психофизиология може да се определи като клон на психофизиологията, която изучава биологичните основи и предпоставки за индивидуалните различия в човешката психика и поведение** (пак там).

Две важни понятия са необходими за разбирането същността и мястото на психофизиологията в психологията на труда. Това са физиология на труда и психология на труда.

Физиология на труда е раздел от физиологията, който изучава закономерностите на протичането на физиологичните процеси и техните особености важни за регулиране в трудовата дейност на човека, тоест трудовия процес в неговите физиологични прояви (Lobach, I. I. et al., 2017). Физиологията на труда решава две основни задачи: определя оптималните характеристики на работния процес, които позволяват постигане на висока производителност и ефективност на труда, и разработва методи, които предпазват човек от неблагоприятното въздействие на определени фактори. Въз основа на тези задачи физиологията на труда обосновава режимите на труд и почивка в зависимост от интензивността, екстензивността, сложността и значимостта на трудовата дейност; открива оптималните и ограничаващи човешки възможности за получаване,

ZARLEVSKI, KIRIL

обработка, даване на информация и др. (пак там). Физиологията на труда определя, оценява и прогнозира функционалното състояние на човек преди, по време и след трудова дейност; разработва методи и начини на обучение и възпитание; обосновава мерки за рационализиране на труда, водещи до повишаване на работоспособността на човека и запазване на здравето му. Разработването на методи, които позволяват измерване на умората и степента на намаляване на ефективността, доближава физиологията на труда до психологията на труда, а изследването на влиянието на външната среда върху тялото - с професионалното здраве (пак там).

Психология на труда изучава психологическите закономерности, психичните процеси и личностните черти във връзка с предмета и оръдията на труда, физическата и социалната среда (Lobach, I. I. et al., 2017). Такова разбиране за предмета на психологията на труда, което подчертава системата от възможности за изследвания на вътрешни и външни аспекти на обектите, възниква в резултат на реструктурирането на психологията, основано на систематичен подход. Предмет на психологията на труда са психологическите компоненти, които предизвикват, насочват и регулират трудовата дейност на субекта и я осъществяват при извършване на действия, както и личностните черти, чрез които се осъществява тази дейност. Психологията на труда е само част от разнообразните познания за него. Психологията сама по себе си не е в състояние да разбере напълно този глобален феномен на културата. Оттук възниква проблемът за интегрирането на знанията от различни науки за труда. (пак там).

Важно понятие за разбиране на психопатологичните прояви в трудовата дейност е **диапазон на реакция, широта** - степен на вариация в проявлението на даден индивидуален признак, ограничена от действието на постоянни вътрешни фактори (наследственост, фиксирани структури), придобит жизнен опит и т.н.) (Mayasova, T. V., 2012).

Задачите на съвременната диференциална психофизиология са:

- извличане на параметри за оценка на индивидуалните различия;
- идентифициране на параметри, които могат да варират в определени граници и да създават диапазон от индивидуални различия в дадена популация;
- разбиране на биологичната и социалната същност на структурата и характеристиката на качествата, които пораждат индивидуалните различия. (пак там.)

Световно проучване на трудовите ценности, проведено в повече от тридесет държави, устоновява някои специфични особености на трансформацията на отношението на руснаците към труда в резултат на социално-културни фактори. Руснаците (както и други етнически групи) вече смятат работата за втората по важност сфера в живота след семейството. Съществува обаче голяма разлика между субективното значение на семейството и работата и приоритета на високите духовни ценности и безкористната отдаденост (пак там.).

Професионалното развитие в трудовата дейност като психофизиологичен проблем включва професионално ориентиране и подбор, професионално обучение, адаптиране към дадена професия и рационална организация на работата. Изпълнението на всички тези задачи изисква да се вземат предвид *типологичните характеристики на индивида*. Още през XVI в. Франсис Бейкън казва, че щастливи са тези, чиято природа е в хармония с професията им (Piin, E. P., 2001). Тази позиция е отразена и във възгледите на психотехниците през 20-те години на XX век. Така например видният психотехник О. Липман свързва избора на професия с типа темперамент. Не по-малко известният психотехник Е. Клапаред също е смятал, че някои професии подхождат на хора с жив темперамент, а други - на хора със спокоен темперамент. Редица изследователи свързват злополуките на работното място с психологически характеристики. Оттук и връзката на

DIFFERENTIAL PSYCHOPHYSIOLOGY AND PSYCHOPATHOLOGY OF WORK ACTIVITY AND PSYCHOTRAUMA IN IT - GENERAL THEORETICAL POSITIONS, PRACTICAL-APPLIED ASPECTS AND SOCIO-MEDICAL SIGNIFICANCE

диференциалната психофизиология с проблемът за различните видове професионална и трудова дейност.

Както посочва К. М. Гуревич (1974 г., пак там.), всеки може да усвои всяка професия, но всичко зависи от това колко време и усилия ще му бъдат необходими. Периодът на трудова активност в живота на човека е ограничен (особено за балетистите, църковите артисти, спортистите), а непродуктивната дейност е не само лично нещастие, тя засяга цялото общество. Следователно в някои случаи диференциалната професионална психофизиология би трябвало да помогне да се намерят най-кратките и най-ефективни пътища за формиране на професионални умения на дадено лице, а в други - да предотврати евентуални грешки при избора на професионална дейност (пак там.)

1.2. Категорията “трудова дейност” – теоретични основи

За да разберем понятието трудова дейност, най-напред трябва да дефинираме какво е труд и какво е дейност. За да направим връзка между тези две категории в психологията, ще си позволим да цитираме няколко определения от психологическата литература, известни от столетия назад.

Съществуват много дефиниции относно понятието **труд**. За нашата цел ще се придържаме само към психологическото тълкуване на този термин, тъй като всяка област от научното познание дава своя дефиниция за това какво е труд. Например, Н. П. Лукашевич, И. В. Сингаевская и Е. И. Бондарчук (2004) определят труда като явление, преди всичко социално-икономическо, с което се поставя въпросът за неговото фундаментално научно разбиране, планиране и организация на ниво национална икономика, индустрия, предприятия, въпросът за неговото отчитане и заплащане. Това съответства на философски, социологически и икономически подходи към разбирането на труда. Е. А. Иванова разглежда труда изключително в контекста на понятието „дейност“: „основният вид човешка дейност е социално обусловен, съзнателен, целенасочен труд, чиито основни характеристики са присъщи и на професионалната (предметна) дейност“ (Vorobyeva M.A., 2015).

Трудът заема особено място в системата на човешката дейност. Това е основната и исторически първичен вид дейност. Благодарение на труда човекът е изградил модерно общество, създал е предмети от материално и духовно естество, преобразил е условията на своя живот по такъв начин, че на практика да се развиват неограничено. На първо място, създаването и усъвършенстването на инструменти на труда е свързано със самия труд. Те от своя страна се превръщат във фактор за повишаване на производителността на труда, развитието на науката, промишленото производство, техническото и художественото творчество (Lobach, I. I. et al., 2017).

Трудът, както е известно, е този, който действа като решаващ фактор, под влиянието на който възниква и се формира съвременният човек като особено биологично и социално същество. С помощта на труда човек задоволява своите материални и духовни потребности, научава и променя света около себе си, създава всички необходими предпоставки за съществуването и развитието на човешкото общество. В процеса на труда се формира и личността на самия работник. Създавайки ценностите на социалния живот, човек в същото време развива собствените си сили и способности и се формира като личност. Добре организираният

ZARLEVSKI, KIRIL

труд в нормални производствени и обществени условия има привлекателна сила за човека - той може да бъде увлечен от него и да прояви своята творческа активност, да изпита чувство на радост и интерес и да получи естетическо удовлетворение. Трудът е процес, който свързва човека с природата, процесът на влиянието на човека върху природата. Производството, използването и съхраняването на инструменти на труда, различните видове труд допринасят за развитието на абстрактното мислене, речта, езика, социално-историческите отношения между хората (пак там.)

Дейността е начин на отношение към света, чиято същност е преобразуването и подчиняването на материалния свят на човешките цели, мотиви и воля, тоест всичко, което съставя духовната страна на човешкото същество и действа като творческо отношение към околната среда, създаването на ново, всичко, което не е произведено от природата. Дейността по своето съдържание не е нищо повече от производство на материални и духовни ценности, различни форми на общуване между хората, трансформация на социалните условия и взаимоотношения, както и развитието на самия човек, неговите способности, умения и знания (Vorobyeva M.A., 2015).

Психологическите теории за дейността са разработени от водещи автори като: Лев С. Виготски, А. Леонтиев, А. Лурия, П. Галперин, Д. Елконин, В. Давидов и др. Рубинщайн отбелязва, че под дейност се разбира такъв процес, чрез който се реализира едно или друго отношение на човека към света, към другите хора, към задачите, които му поставя животът. (Mavrodiev, S., 2019). Според Леонтиев дейността е единица на живота, която ориентира човека в предметния свят. Тя не е реакция или съвкупност от реакции, а система, имаща структура и свое развитие. На тази основа той я разглежда като съвкупност от специфични процеси, които осъществяват едно или друго жизнено отношение на субекта към заобикалящата го среда. (пак там). За А. Петровски дейността е основният тип, единственият ефективен способ да бъдеш личност. Активността е максимално обща категория, описва цялата съвкупност от форми на взаимодействие на човека със средата. Дейността е свързана с активността на субекта, насочена към изменение на света, към производството на продукти от материалната и духовна култура. В такъв случай, дейността може да се определи като форма на активно отношение на субекта към действителността, насочена към достигане на съзнателно поставени цели и свързана със създаване на обществено значими ценности или усвояване на социалния опит (V. D. Shadrikov, пак там.).

Психологичната същност на трудовата дейност се състои в изискванията на професията, която изпълнява индивида, относно психичните свойства, състояния и процеси. За успешното изпълнение на трудовата дейност са необходими различни характеристики на личността на работника: неговия опит, характер, психическо състояние, състоянието на процесите: внимание, възприятие, памет, мислене, емоционалност, психомоторни умения, които определят способността да се извършва тази дейност (Lukashevich, N. P. et al., 2004).

От психологическа гледна точка труда има три компонента: **когнитивен** (познаване на средствата на труда), **оперативен** (притежание на и владене със средствата на труда) и **афективен** (съответно емоционални преживявания, състояния). Труда като психологически конструкт с неговите когнитивни и афективни компоненти е от съществено значение за придобиване на познания относно междуличностните отношения и емоционалните състояния в трудовата дейност. В контекста на трудовата психология според концепцията на Е. А. Климов, труда се разглежда като функционална психологическа система, характеризираща се с четирите характеристики - **съзнателно очакване на обществено ценен резултат** (съзнание за фиксирана социална цел), **съзнателен избор** (приложение), **усъвършенстване** (създаване на инструменти

DIFFERENTIAL PSYCHOPHYSIOLOGY AND PSYCHOPATHOLOGY OF WORK ACTIVITY AND PSYCHOTRAUMA IN IT - GENERAL THEORETICAL POSITIONS, PRACTICAL-APPLIED ASPECTS AND SOCIO-MEDICAL SIGNIFICANCE

(средства за дейност)) и **осъзнаване на междуличностни, производствени зависимости, взаимоотношения** (живи и материализирани). Ако липсва поне един признак, тогава тази дейност все още не е труд в психологическия смисъл на думата (пак там.)

В основата на всяка професия стои трудовата дейност. Тя е една от най- активните форми на взаимодействие между човека (като субект на дейността) и машини или хора (като обекти на труда). Според дейността подход в психологията, всяка отделна възраст спомага за усвояване на определени умения, в това число и професионални, на базата на актуалната за нея дейност (игра, учение и труд) (Mancheva, R., 2020). Още в началото на XX век, в научното общество тази идея е оценена положително и се превръща в основа за търсене на взаимовръзка между трудовата активност и нейното отражение в личността, която я реализира. Това е една нова възможност да се анализира професията, чрез активността на човека, а не само на базата на производствената ефективност и количествени резултати. Обосновава се идеята, че личностните характеристики и условията на труда, в които те се разкриват, обособяват „психичното“ в професията. От този момент тази връзка се развива чрез множество изследванията, които се правят за трудовата активност на хората и психологичната основа, чрез която тя се обяснява (пак там.).

За трудовата дейност е характерно:

- използването и производството на инструменти, тяхното запазване за последваща употреба;
- производителен характер и целенасоченост на трудовите процеси;
- зависимост на труда от продуктите на дейността - целта на труда, която като закон определя естеството и метода на трудовите действия;
- социалният характер на труда, неговото прилагане в условията на съвместна дейност;
- дейността е насочена към трансформиране на външния свят (Lobach, I. I. et al., 2017).

Трудовата дейност методологично се възприема като човешка активност, насочена към създаване на материални или духовни продукти. Като такава тя силно се влияе от начина по който се извършват действията и операциите, както и методите за постигане на целта от всеки работник (Mancheva, R., 2016).

2. Психопатология и психотравми в процеса на трудовата дейност

2.1. Психотравми и психотравмени преживявания в трудовата дейност

От гръцки в буквален превод думата психотравма означава “рана на душата”. Терминът е общо название за отрицателни жизненни влияния, които се оказват болестотворни и предизвикват различни психични и соматични разстройства (Boncheva, I., 2013).

Психотравмата е преживяване на събитие с неблагоприятен характер, адаптирането към което надхвърля възможностите на личността. Всяко негативно афективно преживяване със значимо въздействие, провокирано от силни, неадекватни за личността дразнители, надхвърлящи многократно обичайните й способности за справяне, се определя като психотравмено. Последствията от психотравмите могат да засегнат социалната сфера на личността, емоционален срив, емоционален блокаж, психофизиологична капсулация, малоценностни преживявания, нарушаване в стереотипите и др (Boncheva, I., 2013).

ZARLEVSKI, KIRIL

Приетото в психологичното консултиране и психотерапия определение за травматично събитие е дадено от психоанализата. Всяко събитие, което много надвишава потенциала на индивида за справяне и когато околната среда не подпомага процеса на справяне, се превръща в психотравма. Дали едно събитие ще бъде психотравма за индивида зависи от неговата личностова предиспозиция: натрупан житейски опит и ефективни стратегии за справяне спрямо проблемните събития; нива на устойчивост и издръжливост. Психотравмата може да нанесе тежки увреждания на индивида както на физическо, така и на психично ниво. Психотравмата може да блокира или разруши, т.е. по психопатологичен вариант да стопира развитието и социалното функциониране на индивида. Психотравмата може да остави тежки „белези“ в психичните преживявания, възприемането, преживяването и оценяването на житейските проблеми и стратегии за справяне (Ivanov, K., 2012).

Нека сега обърнем внимание на една друга противоположност. Съществува понятието *организационно здраве*, което пък подчертава значението на здравето, а не на психопатологията, в процеса на трудова дейност и влиянието му върху ефективността от тази дейност (Piieva & Naydenova, 2016). Моделът за организационно здраве (Hart & Cooper, 2001, пак там.) включва на първо място взаимодействие между индивидуалните характеристики като мотиви, способности, компетентност, личностни особености, от една страна, и организационните характеристики, като например структура, условия на труд, системи на възнаграждения, политика на организацията, от друга страна. Т. е., от психологическа гледна точка е важно не толкова наличието на определени фактор и на средата, колкото тяхното възприемане и интерпретиране от страна на работниците и служителите. В резултат на взаимодействието на индивидуалните и организационните характеристики се очаква да се създадат условия за благополучие на служителите. Следствие от преживяването на благополучие от страна на служителите е организационното изпълнение и ефективност (пак там.).

Психотравмените преживявания, характеризиращи се с неблагоприятен и негативно-афективен характер, са от голямо значение за качествено изпълнение на работните задачи в процеса на трудова дейност, както и за ефективните резултати от този процес. Трудностите, които възникват при служителите и работниците, изпитващи постоянно психотравмени преживявания, са налични през по-голямата част от активната им трудова дейност. Това на свой ред създава неприятни усещания, чувства и дори промени в поведението – както на индивидуално, така и на междуличностно ниво.

За щастие, през последните десетилетия се наблюдава едно цялостно научно преобръщане на традиционното дефиниране и разбиране на здравето, което добива все по-голямо влияние в областта на медицината, здравните науки, организационната психология и здравния мениджмънт. Решаващата роля в преосмисляне на възгледите за здравето има Арон Антоновски със своята теория за салутогенезата (Antonovsky, 1987, 1997; Beck, 2003; по Piieva & Naydenova, 2016). Той поставя акцента не върху патогенезата или болестта, както традиционно се прави, а върху наличието на здраве или т.нар. салутогенеза.

Концепцията обръща внимание върху специфичните ресурси, които съхраняват здравето на индивидите, за разлика от властващата десетилетия патогенна перспектива, която се интересува само от последствията на влошеното здраве, от болестта. В основата на неговата теория са факторите, които помагат да се справяме в стресови ситуации и ни поддържат здрави, независимо от обстоятелствата и условията на средата. За да бъдат определени тези фактори, са проведени множество социално-медицински изследвания на хора, които са успели да оцелеят физически и психически при особено рискови условия, запазвайки своите съпротивителни

DIFFERENTIAL PSYCHOPHYSIOLOGY AND PSYCHOPATHOLOGY OF WORK ACTIVITY AND PSYCHOTRAUMA IN IT - GENERAL THEORETICAL POSITIONS, PRACTICAL-APPLIED ASPECTS AND SOCIO-MEDICAL SIGNIFICANCE

ресурси. За целта са изследвани например жени, оцелели от концентрационни лагери, преживели изключително тежък травматичен опит, но които се запазват без значими психологически или социални травми. Основният изследователски въпрос е: “Какви са способностите, които притежават тези жени, за да се справят и запазят след тази криза за разлика от другите индивиди, попаднали в същата ситуация?” Така се заражда предложението на Антоновски здравето и болестта да бъдат представени като двете крайни точки на един континиум, между които индивидът се движи по време на целия си живот. Научният интерес се насочва към определянето на тази способност, която ни “придвижва” в посока на здравето. Постепенно се налага убеждението, че тези салутогенни способности се дължат на така нареченото “чувство на кохерентност” (Pleeva & Naydenova, 2016).

С “намесването” на клиничната психология, която не е ориентирана само и единствено към психопатологията и анормалността, а обръща внимание и на психологията на здравето – превенция, здравно поведение и рехабилитация на психичното здраве (Zarlevski, K., 2022) специалистите по трудова психопатология биха могли да си взимат някои практики за психопрофилактика и психохигиена, които предлага клиничната психология, и да ги използват при подобряването на условията на труд на работното място. Въпреки че салутогенезата (възникването на здравето) е противоположен модел на патогенезата (възникването на болестите), клиничната психология решава въпросите за поддържането на психохигиена и психопрофилактика на психичното здраве, а не само на болестите и тяхната етиопатогенеза (Zarlevski, K., 2022), с което би могло да се “фузира” познанията относно здравето и болестта от клинична гледна точка с познанието на трудовата психология относно организационното здраве на работниците. С това смятаме, че трудовата психопатология може да използва практико-приложните инструменти от другите области на науката и чрез практикуването и прилагането на знанията да създаде своя система от методически инструментариум, която система ще служи за подобряване на психическото състояние на служителите и за намаляване на честотата на проява на психотравмените преживявания.

2.2. Психопатологични прояви на травмите в процеса на трудовата дейност - теоретични положения и социомедицинска значимост

Патопсихологията и медицинската психология имат специфични гранични проблеми, общи с психологията на труда, свързани с психологическото изследване на трудоспособността на хора с увредено здраве (психично или телесно) (Vorobyeva M.A., 2015).

Диагностичният и статистически наръчник, 5-то издание (публикуван през 2013 година (DSM-5)), заявява:

„Психично разстройство е синдром, характеризиращ се с клинично значимо нарушение на когницията, емоционалната регулация или на процесите на развитие, в основата на психичното функциониране на индивида. Психичните разстройства обикновено се свързват със значителен дистрес или инвалидизация в социални, трудови и други важни дейности.” (Pridmor, S., 2016).

За психопатологията на трудовата дейност се пише много малко и това е факт, който ни показва, че науката все още не е открила пътят, по който се развиват психичните разстройства в процеса на трудовата дейност. Все пак съществуват данни, че има връзка между трудовата

ZARLEVSKI, KIRIL

дейност и психопатологичните прояви – психотравми, психични смущения, психични разстройства и т.н. Погледнато исторически назад (Brandão G. R., Lima, M. E., 2019), може да се каже, че от раждането си във Франция, в периода непосредствено след края на Втората световна война, психопатологията на труда е изправена пред два основни проблема: установяването на връзката между психичните разстройства и работата и развитието на форми на интервенция, които правят възможно предотвратяването на тези нарушения или намаляване на техните последици и въздействия.

Въпреки че и двата проблема са от решаващо значение за нейното консолидиране като дисциплина, способна да предложи ефективни отговори на здравни проблеми в работния контекст, основният фокус на изследването е търсенето на решения на първия от тях, оставяйки интервенционните действия на заден план. Трябва да се отбележи, че причинно-следствените връзки са резултат от необходимостта да се намерят отговори на два съществени въпроса: възможно ли е да се припише на работата произхода, развитието или влошаването на определени психични разстройства? И ако това се окаже вярно, как може да се демонстрира такава връзка? Изследванията, проведени около тези въпроси, позволяват значителен напредък в дисциплината, което прави легитимна областта сред трудовите психолози и психопатолозите. Възможно е обаче да се докаже и това, че в търсенето на тези отговори, психопатологията на труда не успява да напредне в разработването на методи, благоприятни за насърчаване на здравето в работни условия.

За първи път терминът **трудова психопатология** се споменава в статия, публикувана от Пол Сивадон през 1952 год. (Brandão G. R., Lima, M. E., 2019), в която френският теоретик не само назовава новата дисциплина, но и акцентира върху важни елементи за връзката между психичното здраве и работата. Още от този период възниква въпроса възможно ли е работата и труда да причиняват психични разстройства? Според създателя на трудовата психопатология факта, че неврозите сред населението са разпределени по неравномерен начин (повече сред хората, живеещи в градовете, а по-малко сред живеещите в селата и по-очевидни в индустриалната, отколкото в занаятчийската среда) ни говори, че това разпределение не е случайно. Louis Le Guillant е този, който прави решаващ принос към диагностицирането на психичните разстройства в процеса на трудовата дейност (пак там.).

Лекарите често са изложени на медицински нежелани събития, като животозастрашаващи ситуации, заболявания, скръб, смърт и насилие и агресия на пациентите. Справянето с подобни събития прави медицинската професия такава с рискове за професионалното здраве, сравнима с пожарникарите, спасителните работници, военните и полицейските служители. Подкрепата за лекарите обаче е слабо развита в повечето области на медицинската професия в сравнение с други професии. Обикновено се приема, че доставчиците на здравни услуги разполагат с адекватни механизми за справяне с такива стресови фактори в работата. Въпреки това, адекватните механизми за справяне не гарантират успешно справяне с тежки потенциални травматични събития (PTE). Холандски гинеколози съобщават, че разработването на стратегии за справяне със стресови фактори, свързани с работата, не се преподават нито по време на бакалавърското обучение, нито в специализираното обучение (Scheepstra, K. W. et al., 2020).

Много важен аспект от разбирането на психотравмите в трудовата дейност е имплантирането на социомедицинската значимост на справянето с психотравмите на работното място в биопсихосоциалния подход към работниците и служителите. Биопсихосоциалния модел е понятие, въведено от George Engel (1913-1999) като алтернатива на преобладаващия в медицинските среди биомедицински модел, т.е. болестта е резултат от биологично нарушение

DIFFERENTIAL PSYCHOPHYSIOLOGY AND PSYCHOPATHOLOGY OF WORK ACTIVITY AND PSYCHOTRAUMA IN IT - GENERAL THEORETICAL POSITIONS, PRACTICAL-APPLIED ASPECTS AND SOCIO-MEDICAL SIGNIFICANCE

в дейността на орган или система, в резултат на настъпили патофизиологични процеси (Pridmor, S., 2016). **Биопсихосоциалният модел** застъпва тезата, че психосоциалните фактори участват в етиологията и патогенезата на всички заболявания (соматични и психични) едновременно и заедно с биологичните. Те си взаимодействат и потенцират. Този подход намира все повече поддръжници и формира в голяма степен понятието „интегративна медицина“, която по същество е психосоматична медицина или психосоматичен подход. Те като научна теория и практика съчетават в себе си компонентите на биологичното, психичното и социалното, с което предлагат и комплексен терапевтичен подход при всички заболявания (пак там).

Например, терапевтичният принцип, който изисква медицинският персонал да е усвоил уменията да поставя физическите и психическите потребности на болния пред своите собствени (пак там.) според нас може в определени случаи да доведе до психотравмиране на психиатричната медицинска сестра например, заради невъзможността да отстои собствените си лични права вследствие етичния кодекс на професията, която упражнява. Например: сестрата може да има личната потребност да отстоява себе си, като повишава тон, сърди се или говори грубо. Ролята ѝ на представител на медицинския персонал я задължава да изгражда емпатийно поведение, да приема болния с неговите капризи и да го съпровожда в справяне с негативните чувства. Тук не визираме, че медицинския персонал непременно трябва да изразява своите гневни и агресивни подбуди по най-грубия начин, а идеята е, че в същото време сестрата трябва да съумее терапевтично (без излишно провокиране на нови негативни емоции) да отстоява медицинските предписания на лекаря. Подобно поведение изисква усвояване на унифицирана за съответната практика форма на терапевтична връзка (по подобие на медицинското облекло), зад което обгрижващият персонал да съхрани своите лични преживявания (пак там.). Ако по някакви причини нормалната реакция е блокирана – в случая заради етичните правила – мозъкът продължава да отделя свързани със стреса вещества и електрическите му вериги продължават да се активират напразно. Дълго след като реалното събитие е отминало, мозъкът може да продължи да изпраща сигнали към тялото да избегне опасност, която вече не съществува. Поне от 1899 г. насам, когато френският психолог Пиер Жане публикува първия научен доклад за травматичния стрес, се знае, че преживелите травма са предразположени да “продължават действието, или по-скоро (напразния) опит за действие, започнало по време на случая” (Kolk, B., 2018). Затова не е изненадващо, че срещаме толкова често изнервени медицински сестри или лекари по коридорите на държавните болници и медицинските им кабинети. Нека се замислиме и малко върху понятието междуличностна невробиология.

Много известен факт е, че японците са едни от най-натоварените с работа хора (Takahashi, M., 2019). Хората в Япония умират или се разболяват от пренатоварване. Подобни данни са докладвани и в съседните страни, включително Южна Корея, Тайван и Китай. Освен това дългото работно време и други стресови фактори на работното място са посочени като критични опасности за здравето и благосъстоянието на работниците в европейските страни и Съединените щати. Изследователи твърдят, че драматичната промяна в Япония е настъпила през ноември 2014 г., когато правителството наложи закона, насочен към предотвратяване на смъртни

ZARLEVSKI, KIRIL

случаи и разстройства, свързани с прекомерна работа. Този напредък ясно показва, че управлението и предотвратяването на неблагоприятни събития сред работниците, изложени на продължително работно време и лоши психосоциални фактори на работното място, е като национална отговорност (пак там.).

Законодателството си поставя четири цели:

- (1) провеждане на изследвания за разбиране на условията, водещи до смърт и разстройства, свързани с прекомерна работа,
- (2) повишаване на осведомеността за проблемите, пред които са изправени работниците,
- (3) създаване на консултантски услуги и
- (4) подкрепа на неправителствени организации за работници и техните семейства, които изпитват проблеми, свързани с прекомерната работа.

Изследователският център за разстройства, свързани с претоварване (RECORDS), новоразработен в Националния институт по безопасност и здраве при работа, Япония (JNIOSH), през ноември 2014 г., отговаря за първата цел. По-конкретно, Центърът извършва анализ на искове за обезщетение на работниците за мозъчно-съдови и сърдечно-съдови заболявания, свързани с прекомерна работа, както и психични разстройства (пак там).

3. Връзката между пола и психичните състояния в трудовата дейност

3.1. Полова диференциация, психични състояния и връзката им с трудовата дейност

Най-напред би следвало да разгледаме понятията пол, полова диференциация и психични състояния.

Понятието “пол” се използва от различните автори с различен смисъл. Когато се говори за биологични различия между мъжете и жените като индивиди, то се използва термина “**пол, полов диморфизъм**”, в англоезичната литература се използва понятието “**секс**”. Когато се говори за психосоциални, социокултурни роли или личностни роли, то най-често се нарича **джендър, джендърни различия** (Lynn, E. P., 2002). Следователно, термина “пол” следва да се използва като описание на демографските категории. Когато описанието се отнася до природата на мъжествеността и женствеността, следва да се използва термина “**джендър**” (пак там.). Понятието пол включва в себе си черти, непосредствено обусловени от биологичния пол, докато под “джендър” се подразбират тези аспекти на мъжкото и женското, които причини за възникването им все още са непознати.

Други автори разсъждават по следния начин: половата диференциация характеризира наличието на първични и вторични полови белези при мъжките и женските индивиди, респ. при мъжа и жената. Етимологията на понятието пол, респективно секс, произлиза от глагола разполовявам, разделям (seco), т.е. разделянето на индивидите от един вид в две групи (два пола). Въпреки синонимното значение на понятията пол и секс, са налице и някои разлики. Под пол се разбират различията между индивидите, свързани с размножаването, т.е. първичното, биологичното, основата на половото поведение (Ivanov, R., 2007), пол (секс) като анатомични и физиологични аспекти на телата и мозъка – биологичен пол (Ovcharov, V., 2020), или половата принадлежност се дефинира като генетично определена и се определя от наличието на XX хромозоми при женските индивиди и XY хромозоми при мъжките (Piyova, B., 2011). Съгласно подхода за полова диморфизъм, **половата диференциация** е универсален биологически процес, който културата оформя и разбира само с определени вариации. Този подход, пише И. С. Клецина (пак там.), продължава сякаш отдолу. „Неговата отправна точка е биологичният полов диморфизъм, който се допълва от система от психични различия, проявяващи се в определен

DIFFERENTIAL PSYCHOPHYSIOLOGY AND PSYCHOPATHOLOGY OF WORK ACTIVITY AND PSYCHOTRAUMA IN IT - GENERAL THEORETICAL POSITIONS, PRACTICAL-APPLIED ASPECTS AND SOCIO-MEDICAL SIGNIFICANCE

набор от индивидуални различия в психофизиологичните реакции, когнитивните процеси, мотивацията, способностите и интересите на мъжете и жените.

Понятието “състояние” е достатъчно точно определено. То е характеристика на реален обект в определен момент от време. При прибавянето към него на понятието “психично” понятието “състояние” може да се тълкува като характеристика на психичните параметри на даден човек в определен период от време (Rusinova & Gurbalov, 1978). В. А. Мясищев разбира психичните състояния като общ, функционален уровень, на фона на който протичат психичните процеси. От физиологична гледна точка Ковальов свежда психичните състояния до процес на възбуждане или задържане или до мозайка от двата процеса в рамките на отделни анализаторни системи или на цялата кора (пак там.). В периода на вработване се извършва функционално адаптиране към даден вид дейност. Това състояние има твърде големи индивидуални различия. Би могло да се характеризира както с недостатъчна активност, така и с превъзбуда в зависимост от мотивационната нагласа и предишния опит на индивида с дейността. При всички случаи обаче е налице непълна адаптация към работата, а оттам по-слаба производителност (пак там.).

Психичните състояния на личността представляват психическата характеристика на определен индивид в конкретен момент или за по-продължителен период от време (Angelova, N., 2018). Повечето психични състояния се характеризират с това, че могат да се разглеждат като прояви на психичните процеси или психичните свойства, а също и това, че е трудно да бъдат класифицирани в самостоятелна категория, тъй като са проучвани винаги във връзка с процесите или свойствата на личността.

З. Б. Иванова прави следната класификация на **психичните състояния при трудовата дейност**:

- психични състояния, определящи оптимална готовност за работа
- психични състояния, свързани с повишено напрежение
- психични състояния на волево-емоционалната нестабилност
- психично състояние на отегчение и монотонност (Ivanova Z. B., 1972, p. 124-129)

Разглеждането на причините за възникването на психичните състояния не трябва да бъде отделено от мотивационната и емоционалната сфера на личността. От значение е оценъчното отношение към дадения дразнител. Състоянието на психическа готовност, свързано с напрежение пред състезание например, е различно у един спортист, ако той желае да се класира добре на състезанието или ако неговото отношение към състезанието е негативно и той не разчита на особен успех (Rusinova & Gurbalov, 1978).

Практико-приложният аспект на качеството и количеството извършвана дейност и връзката на тези параметри с психичните състояния се състои в това, че повишаването на ефективността на труда може да променя състоянията, които се появяват под въздействието на различна по сила мотивация при извършването на дадена дейност. За постигане на най-добрата ефективност е необходима средна по сила мотивация. Голямото повишаване на степента на мотивацията в края на краищата води до влошаване на ефективността.

Доказано е, в определени ситуации най-висока ефективност на дейността достига този, за когото крайният резултат не е “всичко в живота”. Този извод не само е експериментално доказан, но лесно може да бъде забелязан и при наблюдение на случаи от практиката. На изпит тези,

ZARLEVSKI, KIRIL

които са в най-голямо напрежение в резултат на желанието или на необходимостта да се представят блестящо и при отлична подготовка, успяват да покажат само част от своите знания. Подобен е случаят и с някои спортисти, които на тренировка дават по-добри резултати, отколкото на състезание именно поради премотивираност да се представят добре и непременно да спечелят (Rusinova & Gurbalov, 1978).

Психичните състояния зависят от условията на труд, от цялостната организация на трудовия процес, от работния режим, от характера на натоварването. Затова психичното състояние на работещия се разглежда като важен показател за преценка отражението на режима на работа на характера на труда и на работната среда върху динамиката на работоспособността.

В условията на съвременното автоматизирано производство на преден план изпъкват управляващите и контролиращи функции на работника. В резултат на натоварването, т.е. активирането на когнитивната и социалната компетентност на човека, в зависимост от индивидуалното възприемане на обективните изисквания на работната среда и личностните предпоставки за постижение, наред с резултата от труда се наблюдават както положителни, така и отрицателни следствия (Rusinova, V., 1994).

Разликите между половете в професионалната ориентация, пише Б. Г. Ананиев (1986), се забелязват още в ранните етапи на детското развитие. Дори на възраст от 24 седмици, когато влиянието на околната среда все още е едва забележимо, момчетата се интересуват много повече от снимки на човешко лице, отколкото от предмети. Момчетата на тази възраст се интересуват повече от геометрични форми, отколкото от човешки лица (Puin, E. P., 2002).

Общоприето е, че има хоризонтална професионална сегрегация в сферата на заетостта, т.е. асиметрично разположение на мъжете и жените в професионалната структура: редица професии на практика са или мъжки, или женски (Puin, E. P., 2002). Трябва да се отбележи, че разпределението на мъжете и жените в различни професии до голяма степен се определя от традициите и икономическата ситуация, които са се развили в определена страна. В Русия по-голямата част от зъболекарите са жени, в Северна Америка - мъже (84%). В Дания по-голямата част от зъболекарите са жени, докато в САЩ и Канада мнозинството са мъже (пак там.). И все пак, въпреки факта, че през последните десетилетия половото разделение на труда е загубило предишната си твърдост и броят на изключително мъжките и изключително женските професии рязко е намалял, преобладаването на мъжете или жените в редица професии остава и има очевидно основателни причини за това. Като тези причини някои автори виждат само социалните фактори, други виждат и социалните, и биологичните фактори (пак там.).

4. Заключение

Мъжете и жените имат различни изисквания към трудовата дейност, но и обратното – професиите имат различни изисквания за ефективното и пълноценното им упражняване. Хората възприемат професията и трудовата дейност като източник на задоволяване на различни потребности. Диференциалната психофизиология има важно място в организацията на трудовата дейност, профилактиката и прогнозата на психотравмите в трудовия процес. Също така оказва съществено влияние върху разбирането на важноста на пола и психичните състояния на работниците. Трудовата дейност е комплексен процес, който заема огромна част от живота на хората. Това до голяма степен предопределя начина на живот, но съществува и обратната тенденция – начина на живот предопределя количеството и качеството на трудовата дейност. Това се свързва с анализирани понятия “организационно здраве” и “салутогенеза”, които са част от биопсихосоциалните аспекти на трудовата дейност. Психотравмите и психичните

DIFFERENTIAL PSYCHOPHYSIOLOGY AND PSYCHOPATHOLOGY OF WORK ACTIVITY AND PSYCHOTRAUMA IN IT - GENERAL THEORETICAL POSITIONS, PRACTICAL-APPLIED ASPECTS AND SOCIO-MEDICAL SIGNIFICANCE

разстройства са още един пункт, който оставя зад себе си много нерешени въпроси в областта на трудовата психология и трудовата психопатология. Целта на тази теоретична разработка бе да представи само част от проблемите, свързани с диференциалната психофизиология на пола, психичните състояния и психотравмите с изпълнението на трудовата дейност и резултатите от нея.

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ZARLEVSKI, KIRIL

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Theoretical article

INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION IN THE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES: GREECE, FRANCE, GERMANY AND GREAT BRITAIN. THE MODEL OF IMMIGRANT INTEGRATION DURING THE PANDEMIC PERIOD

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Abstract

Modern society is faced with a number of challenges, part of which is the education and integration, in the wider social and economic life, of people who come from other countries. The societies of all European countries are now multicultural. The coexistence of different cultures is a consequence of population movements due to political, social and economic needs. The evolution of monocultural communities into multicultural communities leads to educational needs, which intercultural education seeks to meet. The aim of intercultural education is readiness to accept the foreign and different. Yet another challenge has been added to the pandemic period with the mass closure of schools, when some other problems came to the surface which had to be solved immediately.

Intercultural education was developed by multinational countries such as Canada and the USA. In Europe, it started in the last several decades, following the failure of the policy of integrating the children of immigrants into the educational systems of the host countries. The integration models of Great Britain, France and Germany are described, as well as how each of these countries is dealing with the new school reality. The models of intercultural education that have been proposed may refer to the situation in Greece, which is a multicultural community and a place of arrival for many people.

Key words: Covid 19, integration, intercultural education, migration, multiculturalism

Introduction

In recent years, more and more countries have integrated people from different countries with different languages and cultures into their educational community. Among them is the Greek society which is characterized by multiculturalism. Thus, over the years, some significant changes have taken place in the level of economy, society, and cultural life of the country. Intercultural education aims to prepare the students as citizens of a multicultural society that respects their fellow human beings and has equal opportunities for all. Multiculturalism as a philosophical position and state policy encourages diversity in the society, cultural plurality, cross-cultural understanding and intercultural dialogue, valuing equality, keeping own identity, being proud in own ancestry, having a sense of belonging as an expression of the cultural embeddedness of human beings (Race, 2011).

Many countries have tried to find the right intercultural education programme that responds to people's identity. Particular emphasis was placed on integrating the immigrants without losing their personal identity. In Greece, one model of education succeeded another

until the right one was found. Intercultural education is a challenge for society to make the right changes in all schools to enable them to face the multicultural challenge of modern society.

The sudden appearance of Covid19

In the last fifteen years the European Union has been faced with large refugee/migration flows (Anagnou, 2020). Since 2011 due to interstate and civil wars the increase of these flows is a fact. The wars in Libya and Syria, the unstable situation in Iraq and the recent war in Ukraine have created a new migratory exodus of local populations (Anagnou, 2020). After the EU-Turkey joint statement (March 2016) on border control (European Council Press release, 2016), the situation in European states changed. Many refugees were stranded on the islands of Greece and gradually moved inland (Pazianou, 2018). In 2020, Covid19 came to discredit this difficult situation. Within a short period of time, thousands of members of the educational community began to teach in front of a computer screen while their students had to stay at home and attend classes via the Internet. Around the world, the schools were closed in Africa, Asia, Europe, the Middle East, North America, and the South (Spotlight, 2020; Teach Online, 2020; UNESCO, 2020). This brought great changes both in the educational process and in the students' lives. The agencies of each state partnered with international organizations and private businesses to ensure that learning continued (Reimers et al., 2020).

Creation of intercultural education in Europe

The course of intercultural education in Europe is the product of long processes and transformations involving cultural, but also political and economic aspects, the result of events and upheavals that have forced us in some way to think about the dimension of diversity and dialogue. It is necessary to explore the early theories from which intercultural education is developed and shaped, in order to be able to better understand the pathways that have led to the current concepts and attempts made on interculturality.

The first attempts to defend and strengthen the dimensions of cultural pluralism and to promote rights for all came from North America. The term "intercultural education" first appears in the United States around the 1920s (Banks & Banks, 2003). This concept was used in the Intergroup Education movement, which attempted, albeit with African and cultural shifts, to address forms of discrimination and racism (Banks & Banks, 2003). In the 1960s and 1970s, in North America, especially in Canada, a series of movements were born which sought to strengthen the reading of ethnic minorities in order to achieve cultural pluralism (Susi, 2008). Canada was the first country to adopt a multicultural policy and formally committed itself through a multicultural approach to promoting and enhancing the cultural, linguistic and religious background of its inhabitants (Jedwab, 2011).

Many interpretations have been given to the term multicultural education, which has been particularly studied in the writings of Banks (1993, 2000, 2014), who defines it as education for students that can promote active and conscious participation and build citizens who know how to appreciate pluralism and all plurilingualism. Over the years, multicultural education broadens its vision, and acquires an approach capable of addressing and being interested in issues not only educational, but also social and political (Catarci & Fiorucci, 2015). The term "pluriculturalism" highlights and emphasizes the coexistence of a cultural plurality and identification with two or more languages and groups using these languages, while interculturalism emphasizes the dimension of interaction and dialogue between diversity, i.e., interaction between people of different other languages and cultures (Barrett, 2013, p.138). In this light, the term multiculturalism is mostly used to describe the pluralistic reality of the

INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION IN THE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES: GREECE, FRANCE, GERMANY AND GREAT BRITAIN. THE MODEL OF IMMIGRANT INTEGRATION DURING THE PANDEMIC PERIOD

modern society, while the term interculturalism indicates the educational approach and strategy applied in this context (Alleman-Ghionda, 2009; Gundara, 1986).

The history of societies is characterized by the movements of large human flows, which determined and shaped economic, cultural and political developments. The collapse of the borders of countries has forced us to discuss the new needs of an increasingly globalized and transnational reality.

Integration and intercultural models of countries: France, Great Britain and Germany, and the educational process in the midst of a pandemic.

Suddenly new conditions had to be created not only for the living of these people but also for an effective educational process. Some indicative instructions given to all the countries of the European Union are the following (Abdrasheva et al., 2022):

1. Emergency preparedness plans are in place for sudden problems. Millions of students' classes will be online and will need to be supported by computer servers which may not be able to serve all users and there may be some problems.
2. Refugee students already face language problems, now they will have another major problem - learning new technology. The teaching content should be done in smaller classes so that they can gradually assimilate all the new information provided to them without stress.

France experienced a significant increase in population due to immigration in the post-war period, composed first of flows from Southern European countries and then from former colonies, in particular Algeria and Morocco, experimented with a model of hospitality and integration defined in the literature as Afro-European migration (Castagnone, 2011). The principles of universality and the popular character of this country have led to the creation of a model of hospitality and integration considering equality as a superior right to particularity and difference. In France, access to citizenship for the second generations is almost immediate, which is officially guaranteed.

Focusing mainly on the linguistic difficulties of foreign minors, the French intercultural proposal was built through the flattening of diversity and particularity, which was only later adopted, but very often ended up in what has been defined as a pedagogy of *cous-cous* (Santarone, 2012, p.28) and in the populism of cultures. Intercultural education, over the years, has focused on addressing some social and educational issues, and then it has focused more on combating domestic violence (Preteceille, 2015). As such, it approached a conceptualization of social interest, with reference to the issue of equal opportunities and citizenship.

Great Britain, in comparison with the aforementioned France, has experienced a purely post-colonial migration, and has been confronted with a significant number of people from other regions, certainly adopting a different attitude from that experimented with in France, but one that can be partly understood. A model of integration that could be defined as multicultural, focusing on the coexistence of diversity without the effective search for spaces for comparison, exchange and real interaction (Gundara, 1986). A kind of confrontation of values, cultures, languages, which guarantees a certain autonomy to different communities without seeking to share and relate to otherness. The result is partial integration, only within the united communities of birth/belonging, without promoting a broader sense of recognition of the community, like the community in which one lives. Such a model of admission and integration

produces separate communities that do not endorse each other. This model has been translated in the context of education and training into a focus on the linguistic aspects and the proposal to offer English language learning for all, without any attention to the language or cultural background of the people concerned. After this initial phase, multicultural curricula were developed in the British school system, transforming intercultural education into anti-racist education (Gundara, 1986).

A recent report by Lucas, Nelson & Sims (2020) is based on the results of a national survey conducted in the UK to assess the barriers that the students faced, the support they received from school, and parental involvement. A total number of 1,233 head teachers and 1,821 teachers from public primary and secondary schools participated in the survey (Lucas et al., 2020). According to the findings of the survey, 90% of the participants believed that students did less work than under normal circumstances (Lucas et al., 2020). Regular contacts with the teachers reached 60% of students, while less than half of students (42%) consistently met their obligations; this percentage appears to be 13 percentage points lower in schools located in areas with low socio-economic and cultural levels (Lucas et al., 2020).

Germany also followed a similar path in different phases of an economic migration involving the so-called Gastarbeiter, or guest workers (Martin, 2002). In Germany, there was applied a model of integration and workability (Martin, 2002). This means that the attention paid to immigrant communities focused on some aspects that were useful and functional for their proper integration into the labour market. The integration pathways only included certain aspects of the lives of these people, allowing access to certain rights and denying others, within a vision of the migrant person defined by the status of the worker. A slow process of rethinking the methods and pathways of importing and receiving foreign communities over time began, in view of the different nature of migrant flows and the phenomenon of the Second Generation (Martin, 2002).

Greece as a multicultural community, a country of transit, arrivals and departures

Greece has also experienced the migrant flows of the workers like Germany from the 1980s onwards, as well as the flows of refugees, carriers of linguistic, cultural and religious diversity (Kapsalis, Levanti, & Vlassopoulos, 2021), besides of those who are defined as ethnic, born in Greece but who have emigrated and returned. The process leading to real integration and admission in the educational and school sector is experiencing truly different stages, as are the migratory flows over time, describing a process of integration that affects Greek culture and language, and tries to promote dialogue and acceptance of diversity, but without defining the appropriate way to train teachers in this direction (Palaiologou & Faas, 2012). An example of this process is represented by the intercultural schools for the promotion of linguistic, cultural and religious diversity, but somehow dedicated only to foreign students, depriving the Greek intercultural proposal of the dimension of universality and diversity. In terms of educational and integration policies aimed at an intercultural perspective, the path followed by Greece seems to be still under construction, both from the point of view of teacher training and from the point of view of common educational approaches that aim to promote forms of respect, equality and democracy (Mokias, 2019). The actions undertaken so far certainly represent a wealth of important practices and have supported a change in outlook and the building of a culture of tolerance and exchange, which is often in danger of being masked by some forms of racism and nationalism that are returning not only to politics and governments around the world, but also to the common sentiment of society as a whole.

INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION IN THE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES: GREECE, FRANCE, GERMANY AND GREAT BRITAIN. THE MODEL OF IMMIGRANT INTEGRATION DURING THE PANDEMIC PERIOD

The models of intercultural education in Greece

The increased migration of people to Greece has made it necessary for the country to wake up not only to the issues of settlement and feeding of these people but also to the education of their children. Many governments accepted the fact of the permanent settlement of immigrants and tried to introduce substantial reforms in order to enable their right to education in practice. The first discussions on multicultural or intercultural education began as early as the 1970s (Govaris, 2004). However, in order to arrive at what is now called 'intercultural education', the education reform has undergone several changes depending on perceptions and the current reality. The concise presentation of the models followed is intended to show the relationship between education policy and the maturation of local communities in terms of immigrants' rights.

1. The melting pot phenomenon happened in the 1950s, when the migrant groups lost their own cultural elements and mixed with the local population (Palaiologou & Evangelou, 2003). In general, the term 'assimilation' refers to the process through which people of different ethnic or racial origins interact and participate in the daily life of a community without regard to their background (Berry, 2006).

2. The model of integration: in the late 1960s, the school failure of immigrant children, the reactions of organized groups of immigrants who were trapped for a long time in the host country and the perception of the value of immigrant human potential led to the recognition of cultural diversity (Katsikas & Politou, 2005). The integration model recognizes that each individual carries elements of his or her own culture which in the new country are an integral part of their new identity. This is why, respect for cultural diversity is recommended without any risk to the cultural principles of the dominant country (Nikolaou, 2011). In education, the specificity of the pupil is recognized and respect for his or her language, religion and customs is recommended. However, the student who belongs to a different culture is asked to change and adapt to the new educational reality, which the educational system itself does not attempt to do.

3. The Multicultural Model: In the 1970s in the USA, Canada and some European countries of immigrant residence, it became apparent that assimilation and integration did not provide substantial solutions to the problems of immigrants at school, but instead contributed to the reproduction of socio-cultural inequalities and ethnic segregation (Georgogiannis, 1999). In this period, the view that cultural cohesion is promoted by recognizing the cultural specificities of the ethnic groups is supported. This is the idea of 'Pluralist Culture' which recognizes diverse migrant groups as bearers of different cultural identities who claim respect for their cultural differences and their place in an alternative multicultural cultural model (Govaris, 2004). At the level of educational policy, it is understood that the practices of the dominant group, not the minority group, need to change. The mother tongue and the culture of foreign pupils are accepted in the school community, co-existing alongside and on an equal footing with the language and culture of the host country. Programmes are set up to foster respect and tolerance for people of different ethnic, political and religious backgrounds. In short, the need for children to be aware of their national culture and traditions is recognized in order to improve their school performance and to ensure equal educational opportunities for all children (Georgogiannis, 1999).

4. The Anti-Racist Model: in the mid-80s it emerged in America and Great Britain mainly as a reaction to the multicultural model (Govaris, 2004). It focuses on the institutions and structures of society. This model was criticized as simplistic by Nikolaou (2011), who argues that it stands only for the ethnological dimension of the term 'culture' and highlights only the 'surrender' aspect of the cultural system. This model focuses mainly on the cultural forces that reinforce institutional racism rather than on individual attitudes and cultural factors such as the multicultural model. According to Georgogiannis (1999), the main objectives are equality of opportunity and access to education for all children regardless of their linguistic and cultural background, fair treatment by the state and freedom from racist norms.

5. The Intercultural Model addresses the people living in a particular community and it requires deeper changes to make the school in the community more inclusive and to make the issue of equal opportunities for all students a reality (Govaris, 2004). The intercultural approach permeates the general education provided by the school and it is a response to the reality of linguistic and cultural pluralism taking into account the cultural identity and educational capital of each pupil (Govaris, 2004). Its main flaw is that it is essentially an ideal that sees cultures as systems that can be intertwined and it sees the relations between them as interdependent, and the neutrality and objectivity of educational system as the field of their interpenetration (Katsikas & Politou, 2005).

Conclusions

The result of all the above is that we can define some pillars that are able to provide coordinates for the debate that is always very hot and lively regarding integration and intercultural education in Europe. The educational concerns on the issues related to diversity and the claim of minority rights contribute to the definition of the theoretical framework of intercultural education that is being officially introduced in the old continent to meet the specific needs of immigrant children. Over time, the developments of an intercultural approach committed to understanding and managing the plurality, in the sense of respect for the rights of all, have been linked to the paths of integration, support and assistance in language learning for foreign students. This may limit intercultural education to specific educational interventions, with the aim of understanding linguistic and cultural diversity or compensatory strategies for learning. As it emerges from the various studies presented, the theoretical developments are often not followed by so many 'practical revolutions' in educational systems, resulting in 'even more major discrepancies between European and national discourses and practices' (Allemann-Ghionda, 2009, p.140). Generally speaking, it can be said that intercultural education, despite the fact that it is an aspect of great interest and that it should be given the right space for reflection and common use, it must be considered as a matter of great importance, challenged and acted upon within the present educational reality, in order to determine the future of education.

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INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION IN THE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES: GREECE, FRANCE, GERMANY AND GREAT BRITAIN. THE MODEL OF IMMIGRANT INTEGRATION DURING THE PADEMIC PERIOD

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Theoretical article

РАЗВИТИЕ НА ЕМОЦИОНАЛНАТА ИНТЕЛИГЕНТНОСТ

DEVELOPMENT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

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Резюме

Настоящата статия има за цел очертае спецификата на проявление и развитие на емоционалната интелигентност у личността. Проследено е структурно-съдържателното състояние на емоционалната интелигентност, което обяснява нейния функционален процес и формиране на определени качества и умения у личността, необходими за нейното ефективно вграждане в социалната среда. В статията е разгледана и теорията за множествената интелигентност, според която всяка личност се ражда със заложен в себе си модел за множествената интелигентност, която може да се развива през целия жизнен път на личността.

Ключови думи: емоции, емоционална интелигентност, качества, умения.

Abstract

The purpose of this article is to outline the specifics of the manifestation and development of emotional intelligence in a person. The structural-content state of emotional intelligence has been traced, which explains its functional process and the formation of certain qualities and skills in the personality, necessary for its effective integration into the social environment. The article also examines the theory of multiple intelligences, according to which each person is born with a built-in model of multiple intelligences that can develop throughout the person's life path.

Keywords: emotions, emotional intelligence, qualities, skills.

“Уменията и възможността да мотивираш себе си, да проявяваш постоянство в трудни моменти, да контролираш импулсите си и да отлагаши възнаграждението за усилията си, да регулираш настроенятията си и да не позволяваш тревогата да пречи на мисленето, да проявяваш съпричастност и да живееш с надежда.”

Даниел Годмън

Емоциите и чувствата съпътстват човека от неговото изначално сътворение, будейки любопитство за причините за тяхното проявление, разбиране и изучаване по пътя на

HADZHIEVA, TSVETELINA

еволуционното развитие. Емоционалните процеси винаги са вълнували както самия човек, търсейки отговор за своето лично поведение, така и науката, опитвайки се да даде по-конкретен, категоричен и научно обоснован отговор, относно същността на емоциите, обхващайки тяхното многообразие, динамика и съществено значение за човешкото поведение, продължавайки да бъдат на фокуса на научното търсене (Hadzhieva, 2017).

Емоциите са относително краткотрайни процеси и състояния, свързани с дадено положително или отрицателно преживяване, съпровождащи всяка проява на действие (подтици) от страна на личността (Golman, 2011). Емоционалното проявление на чувствата дава своето отражение върху психо-соматичното състояние на личността, което така да се каже се отразява на лицето и безпогрешно се улавя от околните, тъй като се съпътства от органични изменения и физиологични прояви (Levenson, Ekman, Friesen, 1990).

Емоциите съпътстват непрестанно ежедневието ни, участвайки във вътрешната регулация на поведението. Наситената емоционална палитра е в основата на междуличностното общуване, което само по себе си е сериозно предизвикателство за разгръщане на потенциалните възможности за умело общуване и обогатяване на духовния живот на човек. Емоциите са спонтанни и безпогрешно регистрират моментното състояние, оказвайки съществено влияние върху дейността и поведението на личността (Hadzhieva, 2017).

Едуард де Боно преплита емоциите и чувствата с мисленето, където в основата на тази взаимозависимост стои мисленето, за да можем да прилагаме емоцията по-ефективно (Boho, 2001).

Емоциите са основният компонент на емоционалната интелигентност. Ролята, която положителните и отрицателните емоции играят в живота на личността, е от фундаментално значение за разбирането на емоционалната интелигентност. Въпреки, че детството е критичният период за формиране ѝ, емоционалната интелигентност може да бъде развивана през целия жизнен път на личността. Процесът на развитие преминава през значително себепознание (Gardner & Hatch, 1989).

През 1995 г. се въвежда за първи път понятието емоционална интелигентност от Питър Саловей от Харвардския университет и Джон Майер от Университета в Ню Хемпшир, за да се опишат емоционалните качества, необходими за постигане на успех. По-късно Даниел Голман прави едно изключително задълбочено обследване на този феномен, където излага неподозирани за мнозина факти, свързани с емоционалната интелигентност (Golman, 2011).

Емоционалната интелигентност е сред ключовите умения на XXI век., която носи в себе си редица качества и умения за по-ефективно личностно вграждане и функциониране като субект на психо-емоционалното взаимодействие.

Емоционалната интелигентност не се отнася само и единствено до собственото емоционално познание, но и до умението да се разпознават и отчитат емоционалните реакции и на останалите. Тя предполага по-особена сензитивност, насочена едновременно към себе си и останалите. Това означава себеусещането да е еквивалентно и на усещането за другите, т.е. отчитане на тяхната реакция и последващото емоционално отражение върху тях самите. Емоционалната интелигентност е своеобразен „четец“ на емоционалното настроение и на себе си и на останалите, давайки си рационално обяснение за съответната емоционална реакция.

Емоционалната интелигентност е практически насочена, т.е. личността да приложи това знание, за да може да контролира поведението си и да управлява взаимоотношенията си с другите, за да постигне целите си (Bariso, 2021).

DEVELOPMENT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Емоционалната интелигентност е умението да разбираме и управляваме емоциите си, за да работят в наша полза, т.е. за нас, а не срещу нас.

Емоционалната интелигентност се свежда до умението да:

- Възприемаме емоциите;
- Разбираме емоциите;
- Използваме емоциите;
- Управляваме емоциите.

Осъзнаването и прилагането на тези умения ни помага да насочваме и отработваме емоциите си по начин, който би могъл да бъде в наша полза. Ето защо, емоциите, с които не се работи, разстройват ума и тялото, докато онези емоции, които се трансформират в способности, осигуряват по-добра производителност, по-висока удовлетвореност, произтичаща от ежедневните дейности и положителни междуличностни отношения, те спомагат за поемането на отговорност, както и за укрепване на самоконтрола, наред и с много други фактори (Danciu, 2010).

Оказва се, обаче, че понятието емоционална интелигентност е доста широко и относително, и до този извод стига американския учен Хауърд Гарднър още през миналия век след проведено мащабно изследване, целящо проучването на човешкия потенциал.

Теорията за множествената интелигентност е предложена за първи път от Хауърд Гарднър в книгата му „Рамки на ума“ от 1983 г., където той разширява определението за интелигентност и очертава няколко различни типа интелектуални компетенции.

Преди да дефинира различните видове интелигентност, Гарднър извежда три компонента: умения, позволяващи на личността да се справя с ежедневните затруднения; способността да създава нов продукт или услуга с обществено значима полза; способност да поставя пред себе си предизвикателства за които да намира решения, което да доведе до натрупване на нови знания.

От откритието на Гарднър става ясно, че интелигентността не е строга формула, която я фиксира като числова стойност, обратното, тя е трудно измерима и подлежи на развитие във всеки един възрастов етап (Gardner & Hatch, 1989).

В таблица 1 са представени дефинираните емоционални интелигентности от Гарднър:

Таблица 1. Модела за множествената интелигентност (Gardner) (in Borioper, dio Alban, 2019, p. 13).

Интелигентност

Способност

HADZHIEVA, TSVETELINA

Музикално-ритмична	Чувствителност към звуците, ритмичните и музикалните структури, към мелодиите, към акустиката.
Телесно-кинетична	Да се използва с лекота тялото, сърчност, чувствителност при допир.
Вербално-лингвистична	Да се облича мисълта в думи, умение за изразяване, умело служене с езика и думите.
Визуално-пространствена	Създаване на умствена представа, притежание на правилна визия за пространството, чувствителност към цветовете и визуалната хармония.
Логическо-математическа	Логично разсъждаване, умело боравене с цифрите и смятането.
Междоличностна	Изграждане на взаимоотношения с другите, приемане и разбиране на техните чувства, техните емоции, очаквания; откриване на собственото място в групата, умение за работа в екип.
Вътреличностна	Себепознание, авторефлексия, обективно целеполагане, учене от опита.
Натуралистична	Чувствителност към природата-познаване и разбиране, изследване, наблюдение.

Както физическото, така и психо-емоционалното развитие на всяко дете е различно. Ето защо, според редица автори трябва да се взема под внимание тази индивидуалност, за да се насочва и стимулира детето към развитие на силните страни, които проявява (Gardner & Hatch, 1989; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sternberg, 2000; Salovey & Mayer, 2004; *Borioper, dio Alban*, 2019).

И още, според Гарднър (1989) всяка личност се ражда със заложен в себе си модел за множествената интелигентност, като някои интелигентности са по-силно изразени, но пък това не означава, че другите не биха могли да се развият. Именно затова авторът твърди, че емоционалната интелигентност може да се развива през целия жизнен цикъл (Gardner & Hatch, 1989).

Заклучение

Емоционалната интелигентност сама по себе си представлява дълбоко себепознание и познание на другите. Тя е психологически конструкт, който позволява на личността да разбира наред със своите, и емоциите на другите. Това ѝ дава възможност да подхожда проактивно в различни ситуации и да си дава ясна и обективна сметка за своето поведение. Всеки от нас се ражда с определена емоционална интелигентност, която при адекватни обстоятелства и осъзнатост може да се надгражда и развива. Най-сензитивният период за нейното развитие и

DEVELOPMENT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

утвърждаване като процес е детството. Това именно е и най-благоприятният период за поставянето ѝ като елемент във възпитателния процес. За нейното разгръщане е необходимо на детето да му се предостави благоприятна среда, в която да намира разбиране, подкрепа и мотивация.

Емоционалната интелигентност още може да се разглежда и като перспектива за бъдещето, където могат да се усвояват, утвърждават и надграждат социални умения и компетентности за по-ефективно вграждане и приспособяване в социалните взаимодействия.

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Theoretical article

TERRORISM AND GEOPOLITICS. RELATIONS IN THE ANALYSIS. PSYCHOLOGY AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH ON TERRORISM. ASPECTS AND TRANSCENDENCE OF TERRORIST PERSONALITIES

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Abstract

The article discusses the theoretical versions of the conscious negative changes in the of the personality, summarized in the specifics of transcendence of extremist and terrorist personalities in the conditions of dramatic geopolitical or strategic force majeure dynamics. In scientific psychological plan, this is an attempt of developing the ideas on transcendence of the American psychologist Abraham Maslow.

Key words: *geopolitics, terrorism, extremism, transcendence, extremist personality*

Introduction

The glory of the terroristic Islamic State belongs to the past. Just like the glory of the Third Reich, Al-Qaeda, Red Brigades, Frontline, Black Hand, Direct Action, Grey Wolves, and other terrorist organizations, which have drowned the world with blood and have brought unbearable suffering to mankind, has remained somewhere in the past. The memories about them come flooding back from the past with the faces of the old torn posters of the time, with the worn-out faces of Al-Baghdadi, Osama Bin Laden, Nathuram Gotse, Velichko Kerin, Yigar Amir, Khalid al-Islambouli, James Earl Ray, Beant Singh, Ağca, Basayev, Breivik, and thousands of others. Yet, the memory about them and their example crawls towards the consciousness of many people. And these images find their home in some of them.

This is helped by the large geopolitical cataclysms and dynamics.

Moreover, the historical stage of the new terrorist glory of anti-heroes and the new devastating events is free. The world has held its breath with the alarm about the upcoming terroristic violence.

However, before this time comes, an attempt has to be made to minimize the approaching new wave of terrorism. The first step (from psychological point of view) to provide greater security is, above all, the study of terrorist and extremist personalities – the creators of the modern political Frankenstein – any kind of terrorism.

Terrorism and Geopolitics. Realities and Relations

Even ordinary statistics shows that in the years of war and after it, there is usually an impetuous growth of the cases of terrorism, but not only within the borders of the theatre of operations, but also on all the adjacent territories. Not only in geographical, but mainly in geopolitical sense.

TERRORISM AND GEOPOLITICS. RELATIONS IN THE ANALYSIS. PSYCHOLOGY AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH ON TERRORISM. ASPECTS AND TRANSCENDENCE OF TERRORIST PERSONALITIES

If we consider each war a geostrategic, extreme effort (Nai, 1998) for the state participants in it and study terrorism, we are simply obliged to look for relations between the two realities. Besides, this is not done for the purposes of connecting them into made-up bonds, but to refer to them from the point of view of objective realities for analysis, as well as like conditions affected by each other. Within this sense and logic, here I will try to mark some realities of the first option and to offer a new interpretation of the psychological result of the new conditions – modern extremist and terrorist personalities.

Even today, talking about terrorism means studying and thinking over an indisputably hot topic, which destiny and history is a paradox, to a great extent. Certainly, this does not refer only to studying terrorism. There are a number of other hot topics which are in such a state and conditions.

Generally speaking, the paradox is in the fact that regardless of the real presence of terrorism in the lives of the human communities, it has been reality for the science for centuries, covered in the clouds of blurred images. In addition, the study of terrorism so far has not been unambiguously accepted as a subject matter of any conventional widely recognized science, regardless of the efforts of the researchers. The attempts to analyze the objective presence of terrorism in the different societies, without relying on general planetary criteria, has naturally led to suspicions for the objectivity and is not accepted by the diverse and different world. In order to reduce the paradox of scientific research on the study and opposition to terrorism, the basic issue before the scientific society has always been to adopt as more widely recognized criteria for assessment as possible, as well as clearly marked lines between terrorism and other realities, subject matter of the scientific research and the practical attitude.

Actually, this situation is not an exception. There is also another example, in which each party or group of allied states construct a well-built system of those opinions, conditions, methods for their realization, and principles of strategic behaviour based on the constructed scientific system of studies, summaries, experience analysis, strategic conclusions, opinions, and principles of behaviour in the international relations and their observation. This is geopolitics, indeed.

Regardless of the exceptional meaning of geopolitical scientific system for the management and existence of the states and societies, regardless of the fact that the national states which usually absolutely follow it and present it briefly, yet like a thesis, in the form of doctrines of national security, geopolitics is not accepted in the family of conventionally widely recognized sciences. Practically, geopolitics and terrorism are two of the multiple scientific spaces which have not been analyzed enough, not dissected, or understood in their nature and consequences, and which are with open borders.

What's more, they have an effect on each other and are even predestined in some spaces. This is a rather hot topic today, when the first of the new wars is storming in Europe.

There is a confirmation for this rule and for its relation in studying terrorism even in Bulgaria. This confirmation seems indirect, yet, it is a fact. It has not been forgotten that a number of the modern attempts of studying modern terrorism are done by scientists and researchers who are geopoliticians, as well.

This is also part of the reason to leave the questions about the nature of terrorism without an answer or to reject the responses beyond geopolitical analyses. There are also some objective reasons. Terrorism has always been connected to a political reaction, motivation, or explanation. I personally believe that, even for that, there is a predetermining psychological

ROUSSEV, ROUMIAN

fact, which comes first. In the clinical personality, it is not the political credo which specifies psychological reaction (Holmes, 2003), but the opposite. This is the reason why Eysenck's three-factor model, which is successfully applied for analyzing a criminal personality, is not applicable for the analysis of a terrorist personality. This is also the chance for the creation of a separate test system for analyzing terrorist personalities, which system is to report the difference between «Islamic», right-wing or left-wing, as well. Yet, this is a topic of another conversation, in another article or section from the new monograph.

But let us go back to the logic of our topic.

Beyond these examples, researchers who concentrated on separate parts of the manifestation of terrorism, have achieved some success in the clarification of some of its parts.

All the other attempts for the creation of a universal definition, regardless of the sensational titles of the issued works, led at least to the disappointment of the expectations and were forgotten. This may be, to some extent, connected to some Bulgarian national peculiarities (Holmes, 2003), but it is a fact.

The only serious results have been achieved by scientists and researchers who concentrated on the basic laws of terrorism.

In spite of these differences, the numerous attempts for analyzing terrorism have led to a partially positive result for the creation of a huge, general, incomplete image of the problem called modern terrorism, as a modern challenge, threat, and reality.

The scientific research of terrorism has not led to any recognized, more serious results, of global nature. In my opinion, the reason for this originates from the discrepancy of the historical circumstances (Habermas, 1998), the lack of natural characteristics accepted by everyone, as well as any borders in the assessment of events, the close bonds of the studies with the actual politics held by the state, the internal problems of the authorities, the inertias (Foucault, 1992) from dominant or dominated ideologies, the obsolete legislation, and the free use of the terminology of terrorism, without the presence of serious reasons for that. This reality, for example, has led to the introduction of a regime for the separate assessment of each event of terrorism by the UN. Even the United Nations does not have a common criterion and assesses and announces each discussed case separately. And the mechanism of taking such a decision is the same as the one for the issuance of other resolutions. Slow and difficult. This is a reality which has not changed since the times of the first resolution about terrorism at the beginning of the 1930s, which does not prove a consensus on the topic.

Even in these alarming times of clear tendencies of escalation of the drastic presence of terrorism in the life of our planet and the hazard from its turning into a dominant instrument in geopolitics, the things connected to the above issue have not changed.

Anyway, the scientific research of terrorism as well as the geopolitical one, still exist and gradually gain some recognition and matching status.

I think that there are at least two topical categorical statistical facts connected to the reviewed issue. The first one is the cyclic character of the peaks of terrorism in the world, as usually they are with the graphics of a sharp sinusoidal wave. The second one is the abrupt increase of the cases of terrorism after regional or global military conflicts, with a plateau in the graphics. For me, the plateau in the graphics is explained with the performance of following military operations and acts of terrorism connected to people whose mentalities are struck by the war itself. The more furious and cruel the war is, the more continuous the plateau of the graphics. What's more, the war creates injured personalities (Zhelev, 1990) who conscientiously want and change themselves towards terrorism.

TERRORISM AND GEOPOLITICS. RELATIONS IN THE ANALYSIS. PSYCHOLOGY AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH ON TERRORISM. ASPECTS AND TRANSCENDENCE OF TERRORIST PERSONALITIES

It is highly possible that the war between Russia and Ukraine and the boom of the regional and adjacent terrorism connected to it coincide with the upcoming cyclic peak of global terrorism. This means that we are going to go through new extreme levels of increased terrorism. If we use an allegory from the weathermen, we are at the threshold of a huge terroristic «storm».

In these circumstances, the analyses and studies of terrorism are of priority, and in the space and instruments of specific sciences they are of extreme necessity.

The conclusions from the space of the psychology for the peculiarities and transcendence of terrorist personalities, shared for the first time, are of this nature.

Transcendence As an Issue from the Psychology of Extremist and Terrorist Personalities

The issues for the different meanings of transcendence have been spatially discussed by a number of scientists as well, starting back from the neoplastic Dionysius the Areopagite and Thomas Aquinas, Immanuel Kant (Kant, 2013), the Swiss psychologist Carl Jung (Jung, 1999), but also Heidegger and Hegel, till present days, to the unsurpassable Abraham Maslow – the creator of the theory of self-actualization of the personality and the humanistic psychology.

It is undisputable that for Maslow, the basic research in the meaning and use of the term *transcendence* is in a positive plan. However, here we are looking for an analysis of another psychological model, specified by the characteristics and the psychodynamics of extremist and terrorist personalities.

In connection to this, probably it is necessary to agree that just like the positive transcendence, there is also another direction of conscientious changes of personality. Undoubtedly, Maslow believes it too, as he repeatedly highlights that his theory of self-actualization of the personality refers only for «.....(mentally healthy) people...» (Maslow, 1999, c. 9). These and other arguments make me think that there are such transcendent processes in the extremist and terrorist personalities, but in reverse order. And these processes are predetermined by their complex clinical constructs. But they are also, to some psychological sense, systemically conditioned, natural for the sphere of manifestation, consequentially connected, and objectivized. Moreover, they are objectivized to such an extent that they can be found with the instruments of psychological analysis.

If this statement is accepted, then we will not only have another objective thesis of the psychology of terrorism, but more timely psychological analysis will be applied for the prevention of the problem, and the methods of psychological studies of terrorist personalities will be completed.

Indisputably, such a psychological approach demands chronological observance of a specific hierarchy and arrangement of the steps. As usual, the first thing is the finding of the main psychological characteristics of terrorist personality. If this is sufficiently achieved, the natural result is the possibility for the differentiation of the different types of extremist and terrorist personalities. And this is achieved to some extent (Roussev, 2020).

Based on these conclusions, it is possible to continue the psychological analysis on this type of personalities and to create conditions for more efficient psychological preventive methods of terrorism. Certainly, we are absolutely aware that we are at the beginning of the studies of transcendence observed in extremist and terrorist personalities.

My experience so far allows me to specify the following types of transcendence in the abovementioned personalities:

1. Transcendence to the Extent of Self-Oblivion

On 27 December 2003, Bulgaria's India Military Base in Karbala, Afghanistan, was attacked. The cameras and the accounts of the witnesses describing the behaviour of the driver of the bomb truck which crashed into the portal of the Bulgarian Base show extreme transcendence, to the extent of self-oblivion, in the behaviour of the assassins. It is not only accompanied by an extremely focused attention, but also by the ability for concentration on different activities, and also only on the main goal – the attack of the portal of India Base. In fact, before activating the cistern bomb, both terrorists in the cabin started shooting the block post at the portal of the Base, repeatedly shouting «Allahu Akbar» in a loud voice. (*I am going to go back to this episode because, from psychological point of view, this is highly indicative and expresses another transcendence typical for this model. This is the «Self» interpreted in the Islamic exclusiveness*).

In the case commented above, there is presence of a focus only on the preliminary chosen goal and the behaviour and activities connected to this. The fact that, practically, the attackers revealed themselves by starting shooting with firearms even before the car-bomb came immediately close to the portal does not compromise my statement, as this is also an activity directed straight to attacking the Base. Here, this is an addition which does not refer to the psychological analysis of the activities of the attackers, but this activity gives the machine gunner guarding the portal the chance to liquidate them and the car-bomb was activated before approaching immediately close to the portal. If the attackers had not started shooting the block post, no one would have stopped the car-bomb, as this was a cistern which had been coming to the Base every day. So, both victims and damage would have been even more dramatic. Thus, and thanks only to the psychological characteristics of the personality of the attackers who found themselves in the condition of the last phase before the realization of an assassination, when the adopted goal is absolutely dominating and all the other processes allowing appropriate corrections of the behaviour are suppressed, such a 'zombie' behaviour is observed. The behaviour of the second assassin who, after the first one was shot, replaced him and drove the car until he was shot, is even more typical. It is very likely that there was a third assassin in the cabin, lying on the floor and controlling the pedals, as obviously, after the driver was shot, the other assassin on his right started driving the car-cistern himself.

We do not have any observation which allows us to measure how long before the attack the driver of the car-bomb had fallen into this condition, just because there was no such an observation, but the results we have are enough to report such type of transcendence. The psychological analysis of the personality in other similar cases and on this stage of studying terrorist personality, gives me a reason to think that in the above condition, the terrorist personality enters into the moment of visualization of the goal chosen for the attack.

These examples are not the only ones, though. In the conditions of the Soviet occupation in Afghanistan and the opposition against it has a number of similar examples, but one of them is about an attack over a passenger train with the use of another locomotive. The case was narrated by the locomotive driver who was kidnapped by the «Islamic» terrorist and who stopped the locomotive directed towards the passenger train after the first driver was shot. The driver narrated what he had seen. After the assassin neutralized him, he fell into a state which excluded him from the whole environment and concentrated only onto the approaching goal he had chosen – the passenger train composition. As a matter of fact, this led to his liquidation and prevented the assassination. This case also talks about transcendence to the extent of not just oblivion, but to such which reaches to the extent of ignorance of the environment even when it is a threat for the life of the terrorist himself.

TERRORISM AND GEOPOLITICS. RELATIONS IN THE ANALYSIS. PSYCHOLOGY AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH ON TERRORISM. ASPECTS AND TRANSCENDENCE OF TERRORIST PERSONALITIES

On 21 March 2022, the mass media spread announcements and images about the plane crash of a Chinese airliner in which all the passengers died. At this stage, there has not been a formal announcement about the reasons of the crash yet. But the description of the last phase of the flight of the plane as well as the observation of witnesses presume human interference in changing the trajectory of the flight, which led to abrupt lowering of the aircraft from around 8 000 m to an impact with the ground for around 3 minutes. If these suspicions are confirmed, the personality who caused the crash must have fallen into the mental condition from the abovementioned cases. Definitely, this does not still mean that the crash was caused by a terrorist personality.

2. Transcendence of death and pain is reached by a terrorist personality back in the stage of his/her preparation to reach a state of readiness for the performance of a suicidal assassination. This is because such an assassination is considered beforehand. As a rule, a ritual of the experience of transcendence of death and pain is performed in the eve of the act of terrorism, but it is practiced relatively frequently on the places of preparation, as well as independently – this is a state close to a trance, most often with the use of narcotic substances. Yet, not always. In Afghanistan, states of transcendence before the act of terrorism have been observed, achieved mainly through suggestions of religious nature. We have at least one case in which the person preparing for the suicidal assassination, while falling into this state of transcendence, throws him/herself off a cliff and kills him/herself before performing the planned assassination.

This type of transcendence is witnessed or observed in almost all the cases of analyzed «Islamic» terrorist personalities. From the other analyzed terrorist personalities, such a transcendence is seen only as an exception in the right-wing terrorist personalities, in the context of an armed conflict (*And this is different*).

3. For the «Islamic» terrorist personality, **transcendence as a mystic experience** is created at an early stage of the formation of terrorist personality. This experience is often accumulated back in the stage of the formation of «Islamic» terrorist personality. The psychological nature of transcendence as a mystic experience is the experience of merging the extremist or terrorist personality with **the image** of divinity. What this image has in common with God is another question, which answer is NOTHING, but we discuss the transcendence of personalities with clinical conditions. There is something much more different from Maslow's model, for example, and from all who discuss healthy personality and features from the point of view of its self-actualization.

4. Transcendence of the «we – they» polarity is basic and initial, to some extent, in the formation of extremist and terrorist personality. Such transcendence is observed in all the three basic analyzed terrorist personality: «Islamic», right-wing, and left-wing.

5. «SELF», egoism, egocentrism, etc. transcendence. This transcendence is observed especially with the right-wing extremist and right-wing terrorist personalities and more often with the «Islamic» ones.

While discussing transcendence to the extent of self-oblivion (point 1), I mentioned that we were going to come back to the discussed example, which seems appropriate for another type of transcendence, as well. The type of extreme egocentrism, the Self which received the interpretation with the Islamic exclusiveness. I have been observing the behaviour of the people who did not make any difference with the mass in their societies and countries, and who found themselves on the territory of the Islamic State with incredible efforts, and not only there. Finding themselves in the middle of legitimate extremism and terrorism, they experienced

ROUSSEV, ROUMIAN

genuine metamorphosis. They behaved like psychological subjects who found the best possible environment for themselves and for their own expression. They demonstrated extreme superiority, frequently talked to the others, especially before a camera and in formal places, with a finger pointing above and emphasizing on what they were saying. Not only did they behave like preachers, but also like heralds of the final truth and they impersonated the image of their own superiority. The creation of such an opinion and image of superiority needs a long period of time. Everyone who has been in conservative Islamic societies in the seemingly worldly countries in Africa, for example, and has visited ordinary schools, has seen how the boys in the crowded classrooms sit on desks and the girls sit on the ground in class. Moreover, in the breaks, they clean the yard and the rooms, like servants. I think that not only the raised superiority of the sex, but the acceptance of women like secondary creatures and of the people of different religion like «faithless» is a part of the nature of the constructed self-image of for the Islamic superiority, which is predetermining in the construct of the Self.

In the Islamic extremist and terrorist personalities, the Islamic superiority is personified in **personal excessive superiority**, up to the level of an image of divinity.

Regardless of the fact that the «Islamic» and the right-wing terrorist and extremist personalities are different, in the case with the transcendence, the «SELF», egocentrism, and egoism are fixed.

6. «Godman» transcendence. (*Only in the Islamic terrorist personality.*) There is a very appropriate example illustrating such a type of transcendence of an Islamic terrorist personality. During the preparation of one of the acts of terrorism in Spain in 2017, on the day before the assassination, one of the Islamic terrorists literally stated: «I did not know I was God until yesterday.». What other strong example can be given for the clinical transcendence of the terrorist Islamic personality who is convinced that he/she has reached to the equality with God?

7. «Superman» transcendence. (*Only for the right-wing terrorist personality.*) Such transcendence is reported in all the analyzed cases of the right-wing terrorist personality. Indisputably, there are a number of examples connected to this. Probably it is appropriate to start with the example of the life of one of the most typical right-wing extremist personality – Adolf Hitler. In a letter to a friend before the start of the World War II, he wrote that he had dreamed of the new Aryan and «He stood there strong, determined, and cruel...», so that even Hitler himself was «frightened by him». In the present times, the Norwegian right-wing terrorist Breivik, during his long psychological analysis performed after his arrest, stated that after he had been familiarized with the examples of the Nazis and had realized who he actually was, he felt powerful and unbeatable. This transcendence stands behind the Fascist greeting he congratulated the judges of the proceedings with, as well as behind his affirmation that he was ‘the White Mandela’.

8. Transcendence of merging with «the great» to the extent of depersonalization. (*Mainly for the left-wing terrorist personality.*) This psychological transformation is observed with priority with the left-wing extremist and the left-wing terrorist personality and is a part of its characteristics. It is also seen in the separatist terrorist personalities, but not with all of them. I would like to choose a common example among the numerous existing ones or such who is the closest to the Bulgarian readers, and so I am going to tell the story of one of the executors of hostages during the terror after the attempt on Lenin by esera Kaplan. Latsis ordered the organs of the revolution to shoot every seventh person from the tens of thousands of gathered hostages at the nights after the assassination and from the ones in the prisons before that. One of the arrested and liquidated hostages was the hero from the wars of the national unity of Bulgaria, 1912-1913, the legendary Radko Dimitriev, General-Lieutenant. Later, in the years of Stalin’s

TERRORISM AND GEOPOLITICS. RELATIONS IN THE ANALYSIS. PSYCHOLOGY AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH ON TERRORISM. ASPECTS AND TRANSCENDENCE OF TERRORIST PERSONALITIES

Great Purge, he shot people explaining that the manslaughter was not done by him, but by «the Party».

It is indisputable that when analyzing extremist and terrorist personalities, there are also other transcendences described in the monograph (Roussev, 2021), but the above are the most summarizing ones.

Conclusions

In conclusion, I express my belief that the hazard of a new wave of terrorism in the next years is so huge that if we continue to calm ourselves down with the generally recognized images of the remoteness of the problem and of any pre-existing criteria of threat assessment, this would be rather adventurous.

Studying, analysis, and assessment of the psychological factors connected to terrorism will be significantly more useful if the ideological influence and even the culturally conditioned emotional and moral inertias are reduced, as they seem only as a conditioned political and cultural cartography, which is not essential for the psychology of terrorism and because only this way we may come closer to a significant result in the prevention and management of the problem.

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Theoretical article

ОСОБЕНОСТИ В ПОВЕДЕНИЕТО НА ОСИНОВЕНОТО ДЕТЕ И РОДИТЕЛИТЕ В ПЪРВОНАЧАЛНИЯ ПЕРИОД НА АДАПТАЦИЯ В СЕМЕЙСТВОТО

SOME PECULIARITIES OF BEHAVIOUR OF ADOPTED CHILD AND PARENTS IN THE INITIAL STAGE OF ADAPTATION IN THE FAMILY

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Резюме

Резюме: При осиновяването на дете родителите и детето взаимно се адаптират един към друг, което понякога се съпровожда от трудности поради нереалистични очаквания, недостатъчна подготовка, чувствителност, притеснения и тревога. В статията се описват възможни прояви в поведението на осиновени новородени и бебета, на по-големи деца, някои възможни реакции на осиновители, както и са дават препоръки за оптимални стратегии на поведение за преодоляване на възможните реакции в първоначалния адаптационен период.

Ключови думи: адаптация, осиновено дете, осиновяване, родител, стратегии на поведение

Abstract

When adopting a child, the parents and the child mutually adapt to each other, which is sometimes accompanied by some difficulties due to unrealistic expectations, insufficient preparation, sensitivity, worries and anxiety. This article describes some possible behavioural manifestations of adopted new-borns and infants, of older children, some possible reactions of adoptive parents, as well as some recommendations are given for optimal behavioural strategies to overcome possible reactions in the initial adaptation period.

Key words: adaptation, adopted child, adoption, parent, behavioural strateg

Живеем във време, в което осиновяването вече не е тема - табу. Все повече двойки, които не могат да имат биологични деца, изпълняват мисията си на родители, като осиновяват деца. Осиновяването е процес, в който двете дълбоки загуби - загубата на майката, защото тя не може да роди собственото си дете, и осиновеното дете, което е изоставено от майката, която го е родила се срещат с цялата си сила (Verrier, 2005, p.42) Осиновяването често се възприема от обществото като акт на доброта и добронамереност, но може да бъде изключително травматично преживяване за дете без биологични родители, независимо на колко години е, когато е изоставено. Каквато и да е причината, жената, която го е родила, да го напусне, то гледа на раздялата с биологичната си майка като на изоставяне и я преживява като смърт.

В световен мащаб има много изследвания върху психологическите характеристики на осиновените деца. Изследванията показват, че те се различават по

SOME PECULIARITIES OF BEHAVIOUR OF ADOPTED CHILD AND PARENTS IN THE INITIAL STAGE OF ADAPTATION IN THE FAMILY

емоционално, социално, поведенческо и когнитивно функциониране в сравнение с техните връстници, които са израснали в тяхното биологично семейство (Brodzinsky et al., 1987; Verhulst et al., 1990)

Значително внимание в емпиричната литература е насочено към повишения риск на осиновените деца от емоционални и поведенчески проблеми в резултат на преждевременно изоставяне, травматична загуба в ранна възраст, трудни времена в приюти и последиците от тях (Goldberg & Wolkind, 1992; Brinich & Brinich, 1982; Goodman et al., 1963; Kim et al., 1988).

Осиновяването е процес, който често води до силна привързаност между осиновителите и осиновеното дете. Въпреки че новият член на семейството става част от него, той все още се нуждае от известно време, за да се адаптира към новата среда. През този период, който е около месец, месец и половина, родителите е необходимо да са подготвени, че детето им се нуждае от допълнителна любов и внимание. Когато осиновяват дете, осиновителите трябва да помнят, че не е лесно детето да се приспособи в нова среда - децата имат различни нужди и поведение от тези на възрастните.

Ранните етапи на адаптация към осиновяването могат да бъдат трудни, както за осиновените деца, така и за родителите - осиновители. Първите седмици на адаптиране към осиновяването са пълни с изненади и за двете страни. За да се подготвят емоционално за тези изненади, осиновителите трябва да помнят, че - емоционално - това е също толкова трудно за техните деца, колкото и за тях.

Адаптацията понякога се оказва по-трудна, отколкото човек първоначално очаква - независимо дали се адаптира към нова семейна среда, или се справя с чувствата си относно миналия си живот. И в двата случая припомнянето на миналото ни помага да разберем по-добре настоящите обстоятелства; но оставане отворен към промяна и растеж от ден на ден също помага на човек да се справи конструктивно с настоящите предизвикателства.

Осиновяването – другият начин, по който едно дете влиза в семейството, поставя родителите му в коренно различни условия от тези на родители с биологично родено дете, което от своя страна води до затруднения и кризи в адаптацията и на детето, и на осиновителите. Особено ярко изразени са те в първоначалния адаптационен период, след пристигането на детето в семейството. Детето влиза в осиновителското семейство, поведението му се променя, тревожно е, мълчи или внезапно се вълнува... защо? Ясно е, че новата среда и непознатите лица могат да доведат до чувство на несигурност, което е маскирано като прекомерна плахост. Детето се чувства тревожно и притеснено, когато навлиза в нова социална общност, където формира разнообразни взаимоотношения, придобива нови комуникативни умения и разширява своя социален опит.

Децата се различават по характер, темперамент, настроение, опит, реакции и поведението, което проявяват пред осиновителите, е типично за тях. Това поведение се е появило и формирало много преди появата на осиновителите и не е поведението, демонстриращо отношението на неадаптираното дете към родителите. Децата също така проявяват реакциите към ситуацията (Todorova-Lipcheva, 2003), тъй като детето заменя познатата среда, обичайния ред и рутина, с нова, различна и непозната среда, нови изисквания, заповеди и очаквания. По време на първоначалната адаптация осиновените деца се нуждаят от време, за да разберат и да се приспособят към тази нова среда, време да я видят като нова, различна, но сигурна и постоянна среда, време да се научат да разбират осиновителите си, тяхното поведение, нагласи и реакции.

Опознавателният месец преди същинското осиновяване, в много случаи е недостатъчен, но с течение на седмиците родителите и детето се научават да се свързват чрез споделени преживявания. За трудностите, които могат да възникнат при отглеждането на осиновено дете, се изискват голямо родителско търпение и чувствителност към преживяванията (Valkov et al., 2006, p.97), както и силно развита родителска способност - доколко родителите могат да се справят в подобни ситуации.

Във времето на първоначалното приспособяване се обособяват някои особености в поведението на осиновено дете и на неговите родители. При децата възможните особени прояви в поведението условно могат да се разделят на две групи спрямо възрастта:

При новородени и бебета:

- Отказ от храна, връщане на храна или разстройство;
- Безразличие към играчки и храна;
- Трудно заспиване, скъсен или неспокоен сън;
- Алергични реакции;
- Възможна е обща раздразнителност;
- Липса на зрителен контакт;
- Липса на реакции към различни стимули /липса на плач, смях/;
- Автостимулиращи движения /клатене на тялото, смукане, най-често на палеца или друг пръст на ръката/;
- Стръскане от резки движения на хората около тях или от внезапната им поява. При деца, отглеждани в среда, в която е липсвала мъжка фигура, е възможна и реакция на страх от присъствието и първоначално емоционално отхвърляне на мъжката фигура в семейството.
- Отказ от общуване.

Важно е да се отбележи, че в много от случаите при осиновяване присъстват няколко от изброените прояви, които впоследствие намаляват и по-често отшумяват.

Какви са оптималните стратегии за преодоляване на възможните реакции в първоначалния адаптационен период?

- Намаляване до минимум на резките шумове и движения;
- Подходящ физически контакт и допир;
- Максимално възпроизвеждане на ежедневиения ритъм и условията от живота на детето до пристигане в семейството;
- Тихо говорене и максимално общуване в ежедневиения ритъм.

При деца:

- Желание да докоснат и видят всичко от заобикалящата ги среда;
- Страх от допир до хора и предмети;
- Криене на вещи или храна на тайно място;
- Усилено желание за поемане на храна;
- Поява на нощно напикаване;
- Изявено предпочитание към един от двамата родители;
- Отказ от комуникация или прекалено засилена комуникация;
- Засилена тревожност.

Преодоляване – примерни стратегии:

- Подробно запознаване със заобикалящата детето среда;
- Плавно (постепенно и бавно) запознаване с нови хора;

SOME PECULIARITIES OF BEHAVIOUR OF ADOPTED CHILD AND PARENTS IN THE INITIAL STAGE OF ADAPTATION IN THE FAMILY

- Възможно най-често общуване чрез съвместни игри;
- Подходящ физически контакт и допир;
- Максимално изслушване без оценки и критики.

Всички действия е необходимо да са насочени към това детето да се почувства в безопасност възможно най-скоро, че то се явява част от новото му семейство.

Множество автори, които са изследвали различията между родителите-осиновители и родителите с биологично родени деца, регистрират тези различия, като дават описателни характеристики на осиновителите като по-тревожни, по-неуверени в изпълнението на родителската си роля и по-често проявяващи гневни епизоди и такива на скръб (Brodzinsky & Huffman, 1988; Helwig & Ruthven, 1990; Winkler et al., 1988). Тези специфични характеристики на родителите, осиновили дете, могат да са предпоставки за повишаване на преживявания стрес, особено при ежедневни прояви на гореописаните особености в поведението на осиновеното дете.

При родителите всяка особеност в поведението на детето им влияе и обратно, всяка особеност на родителското поведение се отразява на детето. Следователно стресът, тревожността пряко отразяват нивото на взаимодействие, удовлетворение и пълноценност във връзката родител-дете. Когато нещо се обърка във връзката родител-дете, това пряко засяга преживяването на осиновителите като родители, защото в предосиновителния период, те са били оценявани и в много редки случаи в обучителния период се запознават какво биха могли да очакват в първите няколко дни и седмици след осиновяването.

Много осиновители очакват и си представят, че щом детето вече е в семейството, всичко ще е перфектно и те ще изпитват радост от всеки момент на родителството. Реалностите могат да варират и е нормално да се срещнат затруднения на различни етапи (Bulgarian Association Adopted and Adopters – ВААА, 2016, р.5). Затрудненията най-често произтичат от невъзможността на родителите, осиновили дете, да се справят с емоциите си. Някои осиновители усещат ефектите от този физически и емоционален стрес, като дори могат да влошат собственото си здраве, да изживеят периоди на депресия и провал, а други се страхуват да споделят чувствата си. Тези реакции са напълно естествени и е необходимо време, за да започнат и родителите да се адаптират към родителската роля.

Някои възможни реакции на родители, осиновили дете, в първоначалния период на адаптация са:

- Нарушения в съня;
- Нарушения в храненето;
- Редуциране на тегло;
- Проява на паник-атаки;
- Отказ от комуникация и общуване между двамата родители;
- Поява на депресивни моменти;
- Влошаване на семейните или партньорските взаимоотношения;
- Отказ от родителстване.

И родителите имат нужда от подкрепа, защото в повечето случаи те са емоционално и физически изтощени - от преодоляването на невъзможността за свое биологично дете и дългия процес на осиновяване, а впоследствие и на адаптиране. Като че ли семейната система е подкопана и те имат нужда от подкрепа в обществото, семейството и партньорските взаимоотношения. Като че ли трудностите изглеждат по-големи, защото осиновителите смятат, че ресурсите им много

бързо се изчерпват. За да бъдат възстановени тези ресурси, възниква необходимостта от помощ и подкрепа:

- Помощ в преодоляване на неизстраданата загуба от невъзможността за собствено родено дете.
- Подкрепа в овладяване стремежа на родителя да бъде „свършеният родител”.
- Обяснение и информация за различните типове несигурна привързаност, наблюдаваща се при децата.
- Преодоляване на трудностите, свързани с разминаването между очаквания и реалност.
- Подкрепа за снижаване на силната амбивалентност и базисното недоверие на детето, които рефлектират и върху родителите.
- Преодоляване на негативната цикличност “страх от доверие – контрол и манипулиране”.
- Изключително добро разяснение и обяснение, че родителите се адаптират към детето и занижаване нивото на нереалистични очаквания.

За семействата, които са осиновили дете, затрудненията и предизвикателствата, свързани с адаптацията на всеки един участник един към друг, представляват специфични явления, които е необходимо да бъдат взети под внимание при цялостния осиновителен процес.

Хубаво би било, родителите, които са осиновили дете, да бъдат по-щадящи, ако детето не се повлиява и не придобива умения с темповете, с които би им се искало. За придобиване на нови умения и навици е необходимо достатъчно време и подкрепа. И при осиновителите, и при осиновеното дете тези процеси се случват съвместно и в движение, до пълната адаптация и на двете страни. Това може да се онагледи като танго, на което и двете страни не знаят стъпките и е необходимо едновременно да се координират и напаснат, докато усвоят всички аспекти на тангото. Процесът е бавен, с много съвместни усилия и наблюдение, но затова пък е споделен в съвместните мигове, докато стане естествен и неподправен.

Въоръжете се с търпение както към себе си, така и към детето, докато бавно усвоявате новите стъпки. Поздравявайте се дори и с малките успехи и се радвайте на всекидневната магия на осиновяването в семейството. „Поздравете се, че имате куража и сърцето да донесете изцеление и обич на дете, което толкова много се нуждае от Вас“ (Purvis et al., 2018, p.273).

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SOME PECULIARITIES OF BEHAVIOUR OF ADOPTED CHILD AND PARENTS IN THE INITIAL STAGE OF ADAPTATION IN THE FAMILY

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Theoretical article

THE STAFF OF SPECIAL EDUCATION SCHOOL UNITS AND TRAINING: THE RELATIONSHIP OF BURNOUT WITH THE PHYSICAL CONDITION OF THE INDIVIDUAL

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Abstract

In the working environment of special education school units and training, the staff members may present burnout syndrome due to the particular difficulties and increased demands of teaching and therapeutic interventions. Observing this, the scientific community, for several years, considered it necessary to investigate in depth the levels of Burnout of teachers, special education staff, and special support staff of the above special schools, as well as the dynamic of relationships that are developed between Burnout and various other factors, such as the physical activities and exercise.

The research conducted so far has shown that the aforementioned staff of these special schools experience moderate levels of Burnout since average values were recorded in their emotional exhaustion and personal achievement, while they did not show any significant depersonalization. It is important. However, that differences were found in the level of Burnout with the demographic characteristics of the staff of the above schools, such as gender, marital status, and level of education. Research has also shown how positive and beneficial the effects of regular physical activity and exercise are and how well these two help keeps Burnout at a lower level.

Key words: *Burnout, Special education, Staff, Physical condition, Relationship.*

Introduction

Special education teachers and special education and support staff perform a great but also difficult task, as they are in charge with many powers and responsibilities due to the special needs of students. Daily, their profession is characterized by routine, responsibilities, stressful situations, little control over decisions and educational policy, and little or no positive feedback. Many times, too, they need to apologize and work with parents who are tired, exhausted, or feeling frustrated. All of the above make teachers vulnerable to Burnout, with adverse consequences for both their physical and mental health and the effectiveness of the educational process. Usually, this Burnout is described as a problem that involves physical and emotional exhaustion in employees. Maslach and Jackson (1981) defined Burnout as a syndrome characterized by three key characteristics: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal achievement.

Reduced energy levels and extreme fatigue characterize teachers' emotional exhaustion. Depersonalization is characterized by unpleasant emotional states and negative attitudes towards

THE STAFF OF SPECIAL EDUCATION SCHOOL UNITS AND TRAINING: THE RELATIONSHIP OF BURNOUT WITH THE PHYSICAL CONDITION OF THE INDIVIDUAL

learners and colleagues, while reduced personal achievement is described by the tendency of teachers not to have a positive self-evaluation and to show a reduced sense of personal fulfillment (Maslach & Jackson, 1996). Helleoy, Gronhaug, and Kvitastein (2000) presented burnout syndrome as a consequence of employees' constant work stress and negatively impacting the work, family sector, and their quality of life in general. Furthermore, research has shown that demographic characteristics of professionals, such as gender, age, marital status, education, and work experience, are associated with work stress and the appearance of Burnout (Vachon, 1987).

Employees who experience Burnout have reduced levels of self-confidence, disturbed sleep, and show mental deficits and impairment in their cognitive functions. They complain about lack of concentration and memory problems in their daily activities. And they also offer reduced ability to work and are at greater risk of developing cardiovascular disease (Naczenski et al., 2017). These indications indicate the need to find strategies to prevent and reduce Burnout and anxiety. This would prevent the adverse symptoms for each employee individually and benefit the education system.

Physical activity and planned participation in various types of sports activities are closely linked to the health of the body but also of the soul. It is now widely accepted that exercise and physical activity are associated with better cognitive performance, reduced anxiety and depression, and increased positive mood and self-esteem (Theodorakis, 2017). Regular physical exercise can increase people's self-efficacy, and this can be 'transferred' to the workplace, with the immediate consequence that employees feel able to perform their duties. In addition, the exercises activate psychological mechanisms of distraction from work pressure and Burnout (Naczenski et al., 2017).

Special Education and Duties of Special Schools' Staff

Special education: Content and legal framework in Greece

The term 'Special education' declares the "specially designed teaching that can be supported by special support programs and can be carried out in properly designed and equipped areas, using specialized means and tools that can largely meet the special needs of children" (Mpitiou, 2017). Special Education has been mainly developing in recent years in Greece, and the legal framework that governs it, as basically formulated by law 3699/2008, has become more modern and is in line with European policy to eliminate social exclusion and the inclusion of students with special educational needs in general schools.

According to the above law and other laws, presidential decrees, and circulars, the education of students with special educational needs is offered in the school units of primary and secondary education. For this reason, the state has taken care the establishment of several different school structures related to special education, such as:

Schools of Special Education and Training (SMEAE), which include people with reduced learning and functional abilities,

Integration Departments that operate within the joint school, as well as the institution of 'parallel support-co-education' within the General Schools,

Special Vocational Education and Training Laboratories (EEEEK), and

Technical Vocational Schools (TEE) of special education.

Particular duties for the staff working in special schools

In general, the specific responsibilities of special education teachers are defined and specialized following Ministerial Decision 27922/Γ6/3.4.2007 and are briefly described as follows:

For the teaching staff, who serve in the SMEAs of primary and secondary education but also in various special education programs, the following particular duties are defined:

Organize, compile and implement the individualized educational programs of the students.

Guide parents in matters of education and help at home.

Collaborate with the special teaching staff.

KOUMOUTSOU, MARIA-SARA

They are informed about the rehabilitation programs of their students and collaborate with specialist scientists.

For the special education who serve in the SMEs of primary and secondary education, the following particular tasks are defined:

Participates equally in the activities & procedures of the staff association of the school unit.

Collaborates with teachers, other school staff, and parents.

Systematically updates the individual file of each student.

For the special support staff serving in the SMEs, the following particular tasks are defined:

They help students with their basic needs.

Collaborate with classroom teachers and engage students creatively.

Assist in disembarking and boarding students on school buses.

Communicate with parents and inform them about student living issues at school.

Burnout: Definitions, Causes, Components, Impacts, and Symptoms

Definitions and chronology of Burnout

Burnout syndrome has been the subject of research both in Greece and abroad, while it has been recognized by the World Health Organization (WHO) as a medical disorder and as a problem related to the profession. According to the 11th revision of the International Classification of Diseases (ICD11), Burnout refers to specific phenomena that relate exclusively to the workplace context and should not be used to describe situations in different aspects of life (Pellerone et al., 2020). The global burden due to Burnout (reduced productivity, absence of employees, and compensation costs) exceeds \$ 300 billion a year. It is therefore predicted that the WHO will characterize Burnout as a global pandemic within the next decade (Bretland & Thorsteinsson, 2015).

The most common and accepted definition of Burnout is that of Maslach and Jackson (1996), which defines the phenomenon as: "an evolutionary process in which the worker experiences physical, mental and emotional exhaustion, which is caused by long-term exposure and involvement in situations that have emotional demands, and in which he/she loses the interest and positive feelings he/she had for patients/clients, ceases to be satisfied with his/her work and performance and develops a negative self-image." The burnout phenomenon is more common in people who, due to their profession, come in contact with people (Salman & Platsidou, 2011).

According to Hakanen and Bakker (2017), Burnout is the phenomenon during which a decrease in energy and work capacity occurs due to the demanding work environment. Over time, the professional feels intense physical, emotional, and mental fatigue, which he cannot overcome. Pines and Aronson (1988) also define Burnout as: "a state of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion, which is caused by long-term exposure to emotionally demanding conditions."

Sturgess and Poulsen (1983) defined Burnout as: "the gradual loss of idealism, energy, and purpose which is experienced by employees in professions of an offer, as a result of their work." Cherniss, in 1980, described Burnout as the "disease of the over-devoted" (Daniilidou, 2013). Burke and Richardsen in 1996 and Hughes in 2001 described burnout syndrome as: "a kind of human defense manifested by apathy, arrogance and emotional distancing" (Daniilidou, 2013).

Finally, the German Society for Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Psychosomatics and Neurology (DGPPN) describes Burnout as: "a syndrome of exhaustion and overload, which is a risk factor for the subsequent onset of some psychiatric or physical illness" (DGPPN, 2017).

In 1969, Bradley first referred to Burnout as a psychological phenomenon and proposed a new organizational structure in order to address the Burnout of court clerks (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Also, the American psychiatrist Freudenberger is considered the first to describe burnout syndrome in 1974 as a social phenomenon. At the health service where he worked, he noticed that some volunteer workers showed gradual emotional exhaustion. This emotional state of the workers was the result of a process that lasted almost a year, and he described it with the term ' Burnout,' which until then was used to describe the effects of prolonged and chronic drug use. According to his studies, employees who feel both an internal pressure to offer and an external pressure to perform are more vulnerable to Burnout (Freudenberger, 1974).

THE STAFF OF SPECIAL EDUCATION SCHOOL UNITS AND TRAINING: THE RELATIONSHIP OF BURNOUT WITH THE PHYSICAL CONDITION OF THE INDIVIDUAL

Almost simultaneously, in 1976, Maslach mainly studied the health professionals, such as doctors, nurses, psychiatrists, and mental health counselors. From her research, she came to three conclusions (Schaufeli, Leiter & Maslach, 2009):

- 1) The first was that employees felt emotionally exhausted and 'drained' of emotions,
- 2) The second was that they developed negative feelings for their patients, and
- 3) The third was that they lost their professional interest, and their performance at work was affected.

Since then, the field of research on Burnout has grown extremely fast, and every year many articles are published in journals on various aspects of it.

Components of Burnout

Usually, a syndrome is a problem that arises from good intentions because it occurs when people try to achieve unrealistic goals and end up exhausting their energy and not communicating with themselves and those around them (Zhang et al., 2014). According to Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001), Burnout is a three-dimensional syndrome that includes:

Emotional exhaustion: Of the three dimensions, emotional exhaustion represents the main interpersonal dimension of burnout anxiety and is the most intense and often the main symptom (Maslach et al., 2001). Describes the exhaustion of an employee's mental reserves and is described by statements such as "I feel emotionally drained of my work and exhausted at the end of the working day." Emotional exhaustion enhances Burnout, and through various mechanisms, the emotionally exhausted person is led to the other parameters of Burnout, depersonalization, and reduced personal achievement (Bretland & Thorsteinsson, 2015). Teachers' emotional exhaustion refers to reduced levels of action and extreme fatigue (Maslach & Jackson, 1996).

Depersonalization: This component represents the interpersonal dimension of Burnout. It is characterized by the treatment of customers as objects and not as human beings (Maslach et al., 2001). Teachers' depersonalization is characterized by a negative approach and treatment of learners and colleagues (Maslach & Jackson, 1996). Depersonalization can be seen as an obstacle where the emotionally exhausted worker keeps an emotional and cognitive distance between him/herself and the situation in which he/she has found him/herself in an attempt to cope with the workload. This protects the individual from emotional pressure but results in a negative perception of others about the individual. As a result, the individual is strongly indifferent not only to the needs and feelings of customers but also to the professional space to which he/she belongs (Bretland & Thorsteinsson, 2015).

Personal achievement: As emotional exhaustion and depersonalization develop, the person experiences feelings of guilt and inadequacy, resulting from being led in a reduced sense of personal fulfillment. The person no longer feels that he has the ability to do anything worthwhile and does not feel useful for anything (Bretland & Thorsteinsson, 2015). The decreased sense of self-fulfillment or reduced achievement or reduced personal achievement or self-efficacy represents the self-assessment dimension of Burnout and refers to feelings of helplessness and lack of achievement and productivity at work (Zhang et al., 2014). It is characterized by the tendency of teachers to have negative self-assessment and a lack of sense of personal fulfillment (Maslach & Jackson, 1996). Teachers often find a large gap between idealized expectations and reality, which leads to a reduced sense of personal achievement (Zhang et al., 2014).

Causes of Burnout

It has been shown from the literature that burnout syndrome is a phenomenon of international scope that often occurs in teachers (Pellerone et al., 2020), and especially in special education teachers.

KOUMOUTSOU, MARIA-SARA

However, there are ambiguous opinions among researchers about the causes that cause the phenomenon of Burnout. Maslach believed that the source of the syndrome for professionals in the humanitarian profession is the constant communication with people and the adversities they face (Maslach et al., 2001).

LeBlanc (2009) considers Burnout as a result of continuous and prolonged exposure to stress, especially work anxiety, which is a predominant problem in the workplace and affects employee performance and personal health. According to Zhang and his associates (2014), "there is a correlation between mental health and burnout and anxiety and embodied disorders favor burnout." Elliott also argued that Burnout stems from job discomfort due to chronic stress and mainly affects people dedicated to providing assistance (Pellerone et al., 2020).

Some researchers blame endogenous or personal factors for burnout syndrome (such as gender, age, marital status, years of service, educational level, personality, and the professional expectations of each individual). In contrast, some others attribute it to external factors or factors of work, such as space and working conditions, teacher-principal relations of the school unit, teacher-colleagues, teacher-students, teacher-parents relations, the assignment of courses, lack of material resources, and others.

Also, Barth 1992 categorized indicatively the factors that cause burnout syndrome and divided them into five areas:

The individual,
interpersonal relations,
working environment,
organizational framework,
social conditions, and time.

Chang, in 2009, distinguished the causes of occurrence of burnout syndrome in three categories as follows:

Individual factors: They answer the question: "which teachers are vulnerable to burnout?" This category includes the demographic characteristics (gender, age, marital status, educational background, previous service) but also personality characteristics of the individual.

Organizational factors: They answer the question: "which is the cause it brings the burnout?" This category concerns elements related to the 'narrow' working environment and the wider socio-economic and cultural context.

Transaction factors: In this case, it is about the interaction of the previous two categories and gives an answer to the question: "which individuals become exhausted professionally and under what conditions?"

Analyzing even more the above three categories that Chang (2009) distinguished and which concerned the causes of burnout syndrome, the following could be said:

Individual factors: Maslach, Leiter, and Schaufeli (2001) found that gender is not strongly associated with burnout syndrome, younger workers are more prone to Burnout, and, finally, unmarried people experience higher levels of occupational Burnout compared to married people. In addition to the above findings, the educational level is related to the appearance of the syndrome, with those with a higher level of education being ahead and thus displaying a higher level of Burnout.

From a recent study by Greek researchers Kamtsios and Lolis (2016) conducted on Greek teachers, the following useful conclusions emerged:

Teachers who have 11 to 30 years of service show higher levels of emotional exhaustion compared to teachers with more or less experience. Teachers with less than ten years of experience have higher scores in the depersonalization dimension, but the same does not happen with the dimension of personal achievement.

The older the chronological age of teachers, the higher the sense of personal achievement, while teachers aged 31-40 are more prone to depersonalization than teachers of other ages.

Male teachers experience more intense depersonalization and reduced personal achievement than women. In addition, married teachers are distinguished by a higher sense of personal achievement, while unmarried teachers have higher rates of depersonalization.

THE STAFF OF SPECIAL EDUCATION SCHOOL UNITS AND TRAINING: THE RELATIONSHIP OF BURNOUT WITH THE PHYSICAL CONDITION OF THE INDIVIDUAL

In another 12-year study on medical graduates in the United Kingdom was found that each person's personality is a significant factor in stress and possible future Burnout (Mustafa, 2015). Similarly, McCranie et al. (1986) from a study conducted on physicians showed a high correlation between low self-esteem, feelings of inadequacy, discomfort, excessive concern, passivity, social anxiety, isolation from others, and a high risk of Burnout.

Characteristics of the individual temperament, such as emotional reactions, persistence, and extroversion, increase the chances of developing the syndrome of Burnout. Personal motivation for choosing the profession of teacher also plays an important role in the occurrence of Burnout (Li et al., 2020). In particular, the teaching profession requires a high level of academic knowledge and exemplary behavior, which can easily lead to perfectionism and compulsion, and so this can favor the onset of the syndrome burnout (Zhang et al., 2014).

Organizational factors: Risk factors such as high demands, high workload, low pay, and job insecurity increase the incidence of Burnout (Arvidsson et al., 2019), as well as the working conditions such as role conflict and ambiguity, low predictability, lack of participation in decisions, as well as the injustice experienced by employees (Peterson et al., 2008). Other causes may be the ambiguity in the role of the teacher, student disorders, large bureaucracy, a sense of social isolation, lack of control, and finally, the lack of expediency (Burke, 1996).

Transaction factors: In addition, adverse working conditions, lack of social support, and interpersonal conflicts are factors associated with teacher burnout (Li et al., 2020). Other research shows that 70% of teachers are driven to Burnout due to the intense stress they experience due to students' discipline problems (Burke, Greenglass & Schwarzer, 1996). It has also been argued that primary sources of teachers' educational anxiety are the pressure exerted by the principals and students' parents (Rana & Soodan, 2019).

Impacts and symptoms of Burnout

Burnout has not been recognized as a disease with specific symptomatology. It thus is difficult to identify, mainly by its effects in specific areas, but also by attitudes and behaviors of professionals who regularly show symptoms of reduced well-being. According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), the syndrome has consequences:

In the individual: The individual effects of Burnout, according to Don Unger, "are categorized into physical, psychological and behavioral symptoms" (Unger, 1980). The most commonly reported symptom is excessive, persistent, or even chronic physical and mental fatigue. Studies show that the symptoms of the syndrome and the likelihood of developing cardiovascular disease are interdependent (Ochentel et al., 2018). Symptoms are also common: back pain, nausea, difficulty breathing, dizziness, loss of appetite, muscle spasms, insomnia, and headache (Barzoki et al., 2018), as well as neck and waist pain (Peterson, 2008). In terms of psychological dimensions, there is a significant correlation between high levels of Burnout and anxiety, reduced life satisfaction, sleep quality, mental exhaustion, and depressive symptoms (Unger, 1980). Also, Burnout has been found to be involved in extreme health-damaging behaviors, such as drug use and suicidal tendencies. The effects of stress due to Burnout can also lead to destructive behaviors such as dishonesty, lack of empathy, and disturbing moral behaviors (Mustafa, 2015).

In the professional organization: Burnout has effects in the professional field, especially in the field of education, and can affect both the teaching objectives and the wider educational environment, leading to severe problems. Negative consequences of the syndrome in teachers include poor performance at work, health issues, and negative student outcomes. The syndrome is associated with an increased number of absences, quitting work, and a feeling of wear and tear. However, for teaching staff still working in the school, Burnout leads to reduced work efficiency and productivity.

In interpersonal relationships: Regarding the workplace, there are disturbances and conflicts in relationships with colleagues and employers, which are difficult to overcome. This fact reinforces social

KOUMOUTSOU, MARIA-SARA

isolation and conflicts inside and outside the workplace. Also, professionals - who experience Burnout - are often aggressive or violent and show outbursts of anger, resulting in interpersonal conflicts, both in and out of the workplace. This leads the professionally exhausted employees to physical and mental isolation from their colleagues and employers. At the same time, their personal and social life is affected outside the workplace, in the family environment, with their partners, or with their children, as professionals who experience the syndrome transfer the problem of their work to the family and their social environment.

Benefits of Exercise and Physical Activity

According to Theodorakis (2017), "exercise and participation in physical activities are related to physical, psychological and social benefits." So, analyzing these three (3) benefits of exercise and physical activities, the following could be said:

Physical benefits: Physical activity protects, prevents, and improves diseases related to the heart, hypertension, osteoporosis, diabetes, musculoskeletal problems of the waist, back, and more. It also positively affects various respiratory, metabolic, and neurological disorders. The physically active person has greater physical endurance, strength, and elasticity and does not get tired easily. Exercise reduces people's health problems in old age, while life expectancy increases.

Psychological benefits: Physically active people, thanks to exercise, have a good mood and vitality, feel joy and pleasure, and have better mental performance. The activity also reduces stress and depression and increases positive attitude and self-esteem. The benefits are included improved mental well-being and improved cognitive function.

Social benefits: Through exercise and physical activity, the individual develops social relationships and positive attitudes towards others, shares responsibilities and actions with family or friends, and is in the mood for teamwork and collaboration.

Researches on the Correlation of Burnout with Physical Activity

International research

There are not many studies in the international arena that have investigated the relationship between Burnout of teachers, especially those in special education, and physical activity. However, many studies have been conducted on the correlation between Burnout and physical activity in other occupational groups, and some of these studies are presented below:

A study of the effect of physical activity in leisure time on reducing the symptoms of Burnout in a sample of 306 Swiss workers showed that those who participated more frequently in physical activity showed fewer symptoms of Burnout (Gerber et al., 2018).

Another Bretland and Thorsteinsson (2015) study compared the effectiveness of cardiovascular exercise and resistance training on the effect of anxiety and Burnout on 49 participants who were previously physically inactive. The results showed that after four weeks of exercise, participants felt more well-being and personal fulfillment and, at the same time, less stress and emotional exhaustion. Cardiovascular exercise increased well-being and reduced stress and emotional fatigue, while resistance exercise significantly increased personal achievement and reduced anxiety. The present study, therefore, led to the conclusion that exercise can be an effective treatment to reduce the phenomenon of Burnout (Bretland & Thorsteinsson, 2015).

In another study, adherence to recommendations and physical activity in initially physically inactive patients clinically diagnosed with emotional exhaustion associated with stress was associated with reduced levels of Burnout and depression (Lindgard et al., 2015). An online study of University of Minnesota physicians who followed physical activity guidelines found that physical activity was inversely related to Burnout (Olson et al., 2014). In contrast, a recent meta-analysis, which took place by Ochentel et al. (2018), regarding the positive effect of exercise on burnout workers, does not support the widespread hypothesis that exercise is a successful means of relieving the symptoms of Burnout.

Greek research

THE STAFF OF SPECIAL EDUCATION SCHOOL UNITS AND TRAINING: THE RELATIONSHIP OF BURNOUT WITH THE PHYSICAL CONDITION OF THE INDIVIDUAL

As far as we know, no similar study has been conducted in Greece which studies the correlation between Burnout of teachers or special education teachers and physical activity.

Papadimitriou and his associates (2008) studied Burnout in relation to the physical activity of workers in the sector of mental health, while Stylianou and associates (2013) studied Burnout in relation to physical activity of workers in alcohol and drug abuse addiction units. In both surveys, workers did not show high levels of Burnout, and the latter was not statistically significantly associated with physical activity.

In the dissertation by Anastasopoulou (2011) entitled "burnout syndrome and physical activity," it emerged that "the average of health professionals had the syndrome to a moderate degree." It was also found that "occupation, level of education and physical activity were significantly associated with burnout." In contrast, "gender, age, marital status, military rank and years of service were not significantly associated with burnout" (Anastasopoulou, 2011).

According to the research of the postgraduate dissertation of Konstanta Irimi (2020), whose main purpose was to investigate the presence or absence of burnout syndrome and also to identify the levels of experience of this syndrome in special education teachers, special education staff, and special support staff of primary and secondary education in a specific region of Greece, the following important conclusions have emerged:

No, statistically significant differences were observed between the above three categories of employees in terms of Burnout, while all three categories experience Burnout, which is moderate. These results are in line with the study of Crane and Iwanicki (1986), while they contradict the results of the research of Daniilidou (2013).

The levels of emotional exhaustion and personal achievement were moderate, and no statistically significant differences were observed between the two sexes. In addition, both sexes showed low depersonalization, with men outperforming women. Yavuz (2009) came to the same conclusion, while the results of this study contradict the research of Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001). They point out that there are differences between the sexes, with women having higher levels of emotional exhaustion.

Regarding the previous service of the participating in this research special education staff, there were no statistically significant differences between the years of the last service for the three components of Burnout, i.e., emotional exhaustion, personal achievement, and depersonalization.

It found that the more intense the participants took part in the exercise, the less emotional exhaustion and higher personal achievement they experienced.

Participants in this study who had a high level of physical activity showed a low level of Burnout. Therefore, physical activity can help prevent and treat this syndrome.

Conclusions

As seen from the above, the schools of special education and training and all the staff working there present many sensitivities, difficulties, and particularities. At the same time, the demands for teaching and therapeutic interventions in these areas are particularly high. Therefore, it is very likely that this demanding 'climate' will create increased anxiety and stress for the staff and constant exhaustion in all categories of employees who serve in such school units. Many persons from the staff can also be led to burnout syndrome. Research has found that the correlation between Burnout and a person's physical condition is inversely proportional and that exercise and physical activity help reduce Burnout.

Of course, the existing research so far is very limited in this specific and special direction, especially for the Greek territory, the research samples are relatively small, and the geographical distribution of teachers is not particularly large. A large-scale survey is therefore required, both in the number of participants and in the geographical distribution of employees. And this is so that the

KOUMOUTSOU, MARIA-SARA

conclusions that will emerge can be more objective and reliable, but also so that there is the possibility of their generalization.

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THE STAFF OF SPECIAL EDUCATION SCHOOL UNITS AND TRAINING: THE RELATIONSHIP OF BURNOUT WITH THE PHYSICAL CONDITION OF THE INDIVIDUAL

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Theoretical article

PROFESSIONAL BURNOUT AND MENTAL RESILIENCE AMONG TEACHERS IN THE REPUBLIC OF GREECE

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Abstract

Studies on the dimensions of professional burnout in teachers are the starting point of this article. Behavior and psychological state of educators affect the educational context in relation to students, as they are intertwined with various sources of stress. Phenomenon of mental resilience and its relation with the educational environment is examined.

Keywords: teachers, burnout, mental resilience, education, Greece

Резюме

Проучвания върху измеренията на професионално прегаряне при учители са отправна точка в настоящата статия. Поведението и психологическото състояние на педагозите повлияват образователния контекст по отношение на учениците, тъй като са преплетени с различни източници на стрес. Разгледан е феноменът психическа устойчивост и неговата връзка с образователната среда.

Ключови думи: учители, бърнаут, психическа устойчивост, образование, Гърция

Introduction

The teacher's profession belongs to those considered vulnerable to occupational burnout as it is one of 'working with people', as Maslach (1978) states. The teacher should be able to cope with various difficulties involving working conditions or his / her relationship with students, parents, and colleagues. This project often fails, leading to frustration, emotional exhaustion, and occupational burnout. Several studies have been conducted to investigate teachers' occupational burnout, which seems to be an issue that has been increasingly studied in recent years.

One of these studies, conducted by Antoniou et al., 2006, concluded that the sources of work stress for teachers are the problematic interaction with their students, the large number of students in the classroom, the indifference of the students, the lack of educational tools and the lack of recognition of their work by parents and their relationships with their colleagues. According to gender, it was found that occupational burnout was higher in women. Finally, it was found that younger teachers had higher levels of occupational burnout in two (Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization) of the three dimensions of MBI (Maslach Burnout Inventory) (Antoniou, Polychroni, Vlachakis, 2006).

PROFESSIONAL BURNOUT AND MENTAL RESILIENCE AMONG TEACHERS IN THE REPUBLIC OF GREECE

Several studies in Greece show low levels of occupational burnout among Greek teachers. One of these studies is the one conducted by Kantas (1996) whose findings showed low levels of depersonalization and low levels of personal achievement while high levels of emotional exhaustion occurred in 17% of primary education teachers and 25% of secondary education teachers. Koustelios and Kousteliou (2001) in a sample of 100 primary and secondary teachers, found lower levels of occupational burnout than teachers in the USA. Furthermore, job satisfaction is needed to foresee occupational burnout sufficiently.

In a study conducted by Moutavellis (2015), levels of occupational burnout were investigated using Maslach & Jackson's (1981) model between School Counselors of Special Education and Training and other teachers. The sample consisted of 12 School Counselors of Special Education and Training in a total population of 16 School Counselors of Special Education and Training and 231 Teachers of Special Education and Training. From the analysis of the results concluded that School Counselors show higher levels of occupational burnout, which their workload can explain as they are responsible for many school units from which are called upon to handle difficult situations in order to provide services to people without often having support. Moreover, according to Moutavelis (2012) there needs to be a centralized organization as legislation on Special Education issues is incomplete, making School Counselors' work difficult and making them more vulnerable to occupational burnout. The offsetting role in the level of occupational burnout of the School Counselors may have played a role in the fact that they were older, more experienced, and more scientifically qualified. The fact that they combined expertise with science contributed to the fact that higher levels of occupational burnout were not observed.

Platsidou & Agaliotis (2008) surveyed 127 Greek special education teachers to investigate work stress and occupational burnout levels. Occupational burnout levels were found to be quite low in the dimensions of depersonalization and in the dimension of personal achievement while was slightly higher in emotional exhaustion. This, as pointed out by the researchers, should be noticed as emotional exhaustion is the key to occupational burnout. As regards gender, no significant difference was found. Finally, older teachers appeared to have higher levels of personal achievement than younger ones. The results of this research on low levels of occupational burnout in Greek special education teachers agree with the research by Motti-Stephanides (2000). Through these two surveys, levels of burnout among Greek teachers are lower than those in North America and Northern Europe (as cited in Platsidou & Agaliotis, 2008).

Another study that agrees with the above is the one of Kantas & Vassilaki (1997), which was conducted on 220 primary and secondary teachers. In this research appeared that Greek teachers had lower levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization compared to their colleagues from other countries. According to researchers, this seems to be justified by the fact that Greek teachers have more flexible working hours and more vacation time. Another finding from this study was is that younger teachers have higher levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization compared to older adults, perhaps because they have higher expectations which cannot be complete so they become disappointed and frustrated. In addition, it appears that secondary education teachers have higher rates of depersonalization and less sense of personal achievement compared to primary teachers, which is justified by the researchers' finding that they have to work harder.

Panagopoulos, Anastasiou & Goloni (2014) conducted research in order to study the levels of occupational burnout and occupational satisfaction in 132 primary and secondary education physical education teachers. Occupational burnout was found to have high levels of emotional exhaustion and low levels of depersonalization and personal achievement. In terms of job satisfaction, they appeared to be happy with the nature of their work, their relationships

with their colleagues, and working conditions, while dissatisfied with their hours of work, salary, and low work prospects.

A recent study by Kamtsiou & Loli (2016) contradicts all the above studies, and show low or moderate levels of occupational burnout. The sample was 1447 primary and secondary teachers from all the 53 prefectures of Greece. Results ranged from middle to high, with emotional exhaustion at almost 56%, depersonalization at 53%, and nearly 37% experiencing low levels of personal achievement. In terms of educational grade (primary vs. secondary education), it appeared that secondary education teachers presented the highest levels of depersonalization and the lowest in personal achievement. In terms of years of service, it was found that teachers with the most years experienced had higher levels of emotional exhaustion but low levels of personal achievement, while younger teachers had higher levels of depersonalization. Regarding gender, there was a statistically significant difference in depersonalization and personal achievement with men having higher rates (Kamtsios & Lolis, 2016).

International Research

Research conducted in Australia attempted to investigate the levels of occupational burnout in Australian teachers, comparing the results with those in Canada and the USA. Teachers in Australia were found to have lower levels of emotional exhaustion and slightly higher levels of depersonalization. The most significant difference was in the third dimension of Maslach Burnout Inventory in the sense of personal achievement, as the sample from Australia appeared to be significantly less than the teachers in Canada and America. This is attributed, according to researchers, to the differences of the education system and the different cultures of each country. In Canada and America, teachers can choose the workplace and there are many prospects for development and progress contrary to Australia (Sarros & Sarros, 1990).

Chan & Hui (1995) conducted research in China to identify the levels of occupational burnout in secondary education teachers and the strategies that they use to cope with work stress. The findings showed low levels of self-esteem, slightly higher for men, moderate levels of emotional exhaustion, and high levels of personal achievement. Regarding occupational burnout management strategies, male teachers seem to hold back on expressing their feelings, while women are more likely to seek social support. Management strategies were directly related to the dimensions of occupational burnout. Men teachers, who prefer avoidance strategies and do not seek as much support from the social environment for coping with work stress, exhibit increased levels of depersonalization contrary to women teachers.

In the USA, more than 25% of new entry teachers had quit their job before the three years of teaching, while 40% quit within the first five years (Milner & Woolfolk Hoy, 2003). Teachers who, although occupationally exhausted, remain in the profession have been found to have a negative effect in the classroom and in school in general (Olivier & Venter, 2003). In the UK, the number of teachers leaving the profession is greater than the number of teachers remaining until retirement (Macdonald, 1999).

From the above research findings, it is clear that occupational burnout is a concept that concerns the international scientific community as several researchers are investigating it. It is important to emphasize the factors that can play a protective role in the emergence of occupational burnout, one of which is mental resilience, a concept that will be discussed in the following chapter.

Mental Resilience

History Context and Definitions of Mental Resilience

The interest of teachers and psychologists is often driven by the behavior of children who, despite living in adverse and stressful conditions, are adequately functioning, have good

PROFESSIONAL BURNOUT AND MENTAL RESILIENCE AMONG TEACHERS IN THE REPUBLIC OF GREECE

social adjustment, and do not have particular psychological problems. Already, since the 1970s, research has been conducted that has uncovered such findings.

The pioneer was the researcher Norman Garmezy who in 1974 conducted a study using a sample of children whose parents had schizophrenia. He found that despite the parents' difficulties, the children appeared to be in good shape and were psychologically sufficient. A similar sample was taken by researcher James Anthony (1974), who called these children "invulnerable" because they had managed to maintain emotional attachment to their parents without being adversely affected by their mental illness.

Werner & Smith (1982) conducted a survey using a sample of infants from Kauai Island, Hawaii, and observed that all of these infants living in poverty and experiencing prenatal problems were in the high-risk group with problems in their psychosocial adjustment. However, it was found that when there were environmental factors, such as close emotional attachment to the family and support of the family by informal social networks, and some individual characteristics, such as sociality, the children did not present a serious psychosocial adjustment problem; rather they were psychologically sufficient (Motti-Stefanidis, 2006).

The above studies are considered as highly pioneering and have introduced the concept of mental resilience without, however, a precise definition.

Many studies have followed and a lot of importance was given to this concept because it appeared that its research could have significant results. These results are related to the etiology of various forms of psychopathology, to the reduction of the negative effects of stress factors on one's mental health and the promotion of one's psychological well-being (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). Furthermore, the research and the understanding of mental resilience enable the development of primary programs and interventions in the general population targeting at preventing and coping with significant children's difficulties (Masten & Reed, 2002)

Richardson and his colleagues (1990) have described mental resilience as the process of dealing with adverse and anxious events or situations that provoke the endurance of individuals in a way that gives the individual additional protective mechanisms and anxious coping skills from those people had before these adverse events. Wolins (1993) defines mental resilience as the ability of a person to recover, withstand difficulties, and to rebuild himself.

Rirkin & Hooperman (1991) gave a definition that was useful in studying the concept of mental resilience. They focused on students and teachers and defined mental resilience as the ability of a person to regenerate and develop social, academic, and professional competence despite exposure to stressful situations. According to Higgins (1994), mental resilience is a process of personal recovery and development. The mentally damaged person builds healthy relationships, pursues social change, sets goals, has a keen interest in life, believes that through every difficulty in life he / she derives something good and overcomes every problem by looking at the positive side.

Another important element from Gu & Day (2007) is that mental resilience is determined by the interaction between the individual's particular characteristics and the environment in which they live and grow. For this reason, mental resilience depends on the conditions a person will encounter and his or her ability to manage them successfully.

The American Psychological Association (2014) defines mental resilience as the process of adapting well to adversity, traumatic experiences, or even major sources of stress, such as family problems or relationship problems, serious health problems, stressful work and financial situations. "It means "bouncing back" from difficult experiences".

A person is considered as mentally resilient when, despite living under adverse and stressful conditions, which endanger his or her psychological well-being and social adjustment, he / she manages to adapt smoothly to his / her environment and to be

psychologically sufficient (Luthar et al., 2000, Masten, 2001, Rutter, 2006). As can be seen from the above definition, there are some factors, such as adverse and stressful conditions, which endanger the condition of the individual and are therefore called risk factors. However, when a person is able to overcome these factors and adjust to be psychologically sufficient, it indicates that some other factors have a balancing effect and protect the individual from the negative effects of these difficulties. These factors can be either individual or environmental and are known in the international literature as protective factors (Glantz & Johnson, 1999; Masten & Powell, 2003).

Dimensions and Characteristics of Mental Resilience

The concept of mental resilience involves the evaluation of two important dimensions. As for the first dimension, it refers to whether a person is doing well in his/her life mainly in relation to a set of expected behaviors and developmental achievements. The second dimension relates to the exposure of the individual to difficult conditions, either in present or in the past, which may jeopardize the smooth development of the individual. Therefore, a prerequisite for the study of mental resilience is a clear definition of expected achievements at developmental stages and a definition of the criteria that assess risk conditions (Masten & Curtis, 2000).

Essentially, in order a person to be mentally resilient must be under bad, stressful conditions that are risk factors, to have a positive adjustment despite being under these conditions, and to have protective factors that appear in order to protect the individual from the adverse effects of risk factors (Masten & Powell, 2003).

Positive adaptation in many studies is considered as a key factor for mental resilience, according to Masten et al. All positive adaptation refers to the effective adaptation of the child to his or her environment, which results from the way he or she has previously dealt with and continues to meet the demands of the various developmental stages as defined in the specific cultural and historical context in which lives in (Masten et al., 2006).

The fundamental key indicators of a child's or adolescent's positive adjustment are the quality of their relationships with other children, their school performance, peer acceptance, friendship, self-esteem, positive affective mood, lack of behavioral problems, and participation in appropriate activities depending on the stage of development (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998; Masten & Reed, 2002).

A risk factor is any stressful experience or negative situation that significantly increases the likelihood of the child or adolescent and causing difficulties in psychosocial adjustment or psychological problems (Masten, 2001). Risk factors can be found in the community, in school, in peer relationships, in family etc. A problematic family environment can lead to emotional and behavioral problems in the individual (Cicchetti & Carlson, 1989). Peer rejection and victimization can also negatively affect one's school adjustment and sense of achievement (Kochenderfer & Ladd, 1996).

Other risk factors that mentioned in the literature are premature birth, severe conflict divorce, abuse, illness or psychopathology in parents, poverty, puberty, war trauma, or natural disasters. In addition, degraded school environments are now considered as a risk factor as they appear to be associated with poor performance, school dropout, behavioral problems, substance use, etc. (Reddy, Rhodes, & Mulhall, 2003; Rutter & Maughan, 2002).

Studies on mental resilience often examine the cumulative presence of various negative states and events and the effect of cumulative risk on a child's psychological well-being. Often a person is asked to deal with more than one risk factor, which increases the risk of a negative outcome, such as emotional disturbances, behavioral and interpersonal problems, school failure, etc. (Sameroff et al., 2003).

Factors that strengthen mental resilience and reduce the likelihood of problems are called protective factors and can be either endogenous or environmental. These factors are

PROFESSIONAL BURNOUT AND MENTAL RESILIENCE AMONG TEACHERS IN THE REPUBLIC OF GREECE

found in the individual (student, teacher), family, school, peer relationships, and community (Hatzichristou et al., 2014).

The protective factors encountered in the individual include a positive temperament of the individual, high self-esteem, high mental capacity, internal control center and a sense of optimism for the future. Other characteristics of the person who appear to play a significant role in enhancing mental resilience are high academic ability, sense of humor, problem-solving ability, good cognitive function, ability to regulate emotions and behavior, sociability and creating healthy interpersonal skills - relationships (Noltemeyer & Bush, 2013.).

At the family level, the role of the parents is very important in promoting children's mental resilience (Hatzichristou, 2014). The influence of the family, which is closer to the child than anyone else in their environment and has a long-lasting relationship with them, is important and powerful, and is difficult to overcome by others, whether personal or environmental (Luthar & Zelazo, 2003). One of the most important protective factors is the supportive-positive family climate and the warm relationships among the members.

According to Gladstone & Beardslee (2002) a good relationship with even one parent can play a protective role for children whose other parent is suffering from mental illness. According to Klein & Forehand, (2000) a good and supportive relationship between mother and child is associated with less depressive mood and less behavioral problems in the child when the child is living in poverty (Motte-Stefanidis, 2006) . Other factors in the family that can play a positive role in children's mental resilience are parental education, an organized environment, high and realistic expectations from parents, parental involvement in learning and a good socio-economic level. (Garmezy, 1991., Hawkins et al., 1992)

Furthermore, the school plays a key role in promoting one's mental resilience. School is not only a source of knowledge and information for students but is also a source of creation for close interpersonal relationships and is an important protective factor and a prerequisite for the promotion of mental resilience (Hatzichristou and et al., 2014). School needs to prepare students in such a way in order to adapt positively to the environment and to have good mental health and adulthood regardless of the risk factors that children bring with them to class (Esquivel et. al., 2011).

A protective role in enhancing school-based mental resilience can be the positive classroom climate, a supportive relationship with the teacher, an active student engagement in the school community, a sense of belonging, enabling classroom participation and rewarding - focusing on the development of academic and social skills (Garmezy 1991). Hetherington & Elmore (2003) emphasize on the positive relationship between peers and argue that a good and supportive relationship with another child can be protective when the child has to deal with the separation or divorce of his or her parents.

Concerning the community, protective factors related to the existence of support networks and the organization-cohesion of the neighborhood where the child lives. In particular, safety, low levels of violence, a sense of belonging to the community, access to services, and job opportunities play an important role (Wright, et al., 2005).

Finally, some researchers have begun to consider the contribution of various biological factors to the phenomenon of mental resilience. They consider that there is a two-way relationship between biology and psychology. Biological factors influence psychological processes, which, together with one's experiences, affect gene - expression, brain structure, function, and organization (Curtis & Cicchetti, 2003). The same researchers believe that the hypothesis that stressful stimuli may trigger different areas of the brain of psychologically sufficient or inadequate children should be examined, as well as that mentally retarded and mentally vulnerable children have different forms of brain structure and function.

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Theoretical article

УДОВОЛЕТВОРЕНОСТ ОТ РАБОТА ПРИ УЧИТЕЛИ ОТ РЕПУБЛИКА ГЪРЦИЯ

WORK SATISFACTION OF TEACHERS FROM THE REPUBLIC OF GREECE

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Abstract:

This article presents a functional definition of job satisfaction that includes the employee's assessment of work space and conditions, pay, opportunities and prospects in the workplace, nature of work, understanding, support and assistance in solving problems from the employer and existence of a meritocratic system. Special attention is paid to emotions in the workplace as well as factors related to work satisfaction.

Keywords: work satisfaction, emotions, teachers

Резюме:

Тази статия разглежда функционална дефиниция на удовлетвореността от работата, която включва оценката на служителя за работното пространство и условията, заплащането, възможностите и перспективите на работното място, естеството на работата, разбирането, подкрепата и съдействието при решаване на проблеми от работодателя и наличието на меритократична система. Обърнато е специално внимание на емоциите в работното поле, както и на фактори свързани с удовлетворението от работата.

Ключови думи: удовлетвореност от работа, емоции, учители

Introduction

An employment relationship or employment relationship is the relationship that is born I mentioned to the worker who sells his labor power and to the employer - owner of the means of production. It is, therefore, a productive and social relationship between atoms, which is formed in the process of producing products or services, and from the moment this relationship becomes an object of mental regulation and settlement, it is also transformed into a mental relationship.

Labor relations are the sum of the effective relations and the conditions of those who govern and shape the content of wage employment, reflecting the effect of the understanding of the productive wealth between capital and labor and recording their likeness.

Labor relations in Greece follow the general trend process of deregulation of labor and the welfare state in the rest of Europe. At a time when labor relations in Europe serve competitiveness and employment policies, with a focus on reducing and reducing labor costs, Greece has traditionally adopted a productive model based on low labor costs, low wages and high wages. This tradition leading to further deterioration of labor relations. Today, the need for an alternative becomes imperative

Productive model in which the qualitative factors that have always been on the fringes of the dominant options (e.g. innovation, new technologies, training of employees, organizational modernization of businesses) will be at the forefront, and its upgrading

Labor will be a key factor in increased productivity in its economic and social dimension.

1.1 Historical retrospective of work satisfaction

Before we move on to the semantic explanation of positive emotions, consider it important to refer to some elements of historical retroactivity in relation to energy satisfaction, an element that helps us to understand more deeply the meaning of it. One of the biggest proponents of the job satisfaction study is the Hawthorne study. These studies (1924-1933), originally commissioned by Harvard Business School's Elton Mayo, sought to find the effects of different conditions on the productivity of workers.

These studies, in the end, showed that the initial changes in the functional cells temporarily increase the productivity (known as Hawthorne effect). Later it was found that this increase (of productivity) came from any new additions but from the observation that they observed the workers. This finding provides strong evidence that people are working for others for a fee, which has paved the way for researchers to look for others. This book has contributed to the creation of changes in the philosophies of industrial production, causing a shift in the specialized process for a more modern approach to centralized lines and hourly wages.

1.2. Factors for business satisfaction

Scientific management also had a huge impact on the study of job satisfaction. Frederick's booklet Winslow Taylor (1911), *The Principles of Scientific Management*, states that there is only one best way to return a normal work process. This book has contributed to the creation of changes in the philosophies of industrial production, causing a shift in the specialized process for a more modern approach to centralized lines and hourly wages. The initial use of scientific management by industries increased productivity because those who were forced to work worked in a hurry. However, the employees were exhausted and satisfied, leaving such researchers with no questions and answers regarding the relevant commercial satisfaction.

Some argue that, in the end, Maslow's disengagement of forces, which is a theory of motives, set the stage for the creation of a theory of procedural satisfaction. Maslow's theory states that human beings are in need when they are arranged in order for each year to be satisfied. It divides the needs into two categories, the needs of lack and the needs of development. The former include three needs: physiological needs, security needs, and social needs. Needs for review include two types of needs, respect for self-esteem, and self-realization? The need to address these issues alone does not mean that there is a need for development. The hierarchy is referred to as a whole scale. Every necessary part of the scale, regardless of the absolute priority, is opposed to a need that is higher in the hierarchy.

WORK SATISFACTION OF TEACHERS FROM THE REPUBLIC OF GREECE

Maslow's self-modeling was the culmination of what researchers were able to develop various theories of labor satisfaction.

We note from all the above that the initial interest in the concept of job satisfaction takes place in the early 20th century and continues to this day. In essence, it signals the shift in research thinking from the concept of maximizing productivity and treating the employee as a tool and object, to raising awareness of the issues that concern the legalization and psychological balance of work. In other words, the person being treated is also confronted with a bearer of work efficiency but also a psycho-social identity, that is, a more humane look and vision, which is the goal of the research of Thelotos.

Processing, in this way, is not only a means of survival and attainment of practical gain but also an element of self-realization, social development and adaptation. What is extremely interesting, of course, and which we will deal with later, is the negligence of job satisfaction and the application of its results in the work context has brought about changes in terms of employee satisfaction and efficiency.

1.3. Emotions in the workplace

The effect of functional satisfaction and emotions (which are a priority and an integral part of human expression, behavior, and personality) is illuminated and further understood by the actions performed in the study of the emotional and emotional actions. Besides the same understanding of the procedural satisfaction, which, as we have seen, refers to many cases as well as emotional response, reaction and pleasure in the psychological state (even in the case of the procedural legalization, is determined by the situation and again the meaning and the emotional component) the element of emotion.

An employee, with in this way, which is occupied by Positive emotions are very likely to be felt in a way that is satisfactorily and vice versa. Review of bibliography dealing with emotions in the workplace will be a valuable guide to further learning the relationship between emotions and functional satisfaction.

1.3.1. Emotions and moods in the workplace

The study of emotions in the workplace was oriented in the direction of clarifying and separating the meanings of moods and emotions. But what is the difference between the two? Moods are thought to be generalized emotional states that are not identified with a particular stimulus and are not sufficiently intense to interrupt or mediate current thought processes (Clark & Isen 1982, Thayer 1989).

Abstintently, emotions are related to specific events in the event and have such tensions that intervene in thought processes. In addition, while frequencies are often described in terms of basic dimensions (e.g. positive and negative), emotions, which, of course, can be classified as positive and negative categories, we tend to be specific, specific, specific, 2002, and manage. The calculations of basic emotional feelings are usually made up of fifteen other emotions such as fear, desire, sadness, disgust, pleasure and affection, while the emotional emotions involved include, in fact, 2000 (hundreds of feelings).

A categorization of emotions in activity comes from Lazarus and Lazarus (1994), who suggest five categories of emotions. The first category includes what they call "disliked" emotions, which are jealousy, envy and desire. The second category contains the so-called existential emotions, i.e. anxiety, or guilt. Research on labor stress and the mechanisms of dealing with it reveals the emotions associated with it. In the third category are the emotions that are caused by the extravagant additions of life such as relief, hope, depression and

depression. The result of the loss of a process, which is personally experienced by others, distracts from these feelings. The fourth category consists of emotions that are called positive and imaginary life additions such as pleasure, pride and love. Finally, there are empathetic emotions such as sympathy and cognition.

1.3.2. Historical retrospective of the research study of emotion in the workplace

Organizations, in which people work, affect their thoughts, emotions and actions in the context of the workings of the space as well as away from it. But this promise is reciprocal. Metaphors, and people, affect the work environment through thoughts, feelings, behaviors, and reactions. Organizational behavior deals with the above-mentioned effects: the functional contexts of individuals and individuals. At the hospital, we deal with our emotions in the workplace, because our research provides valuable information for interpretive and characteristics of the work performed, but also because they are closely related to the meaning of the work satisfaction. It is interesting to note that in this research and in the workplace, it is possible to focus on a person-centered but also humanitarian effort to approach the work, which should be done in a way that is very effective and very effective. The study and interest in the scientific study of emotion in activity appeared in the 1930s, mainly in the United States. A roadblock to this method has been opened for more recent discoveries, which have been justified philosophically in the application of scientific principles for the study of social phenomena, and has been enriched by appropriate methodological tools to assist in extraction. An element that we share in this direction is the desire, but also the need, to understand the emotions of those who worked for them.

Typical examples of this period of study focused on both emotional and professional satisfaction are Fisher & Hanna's *The Dissatisfied Worker* (1931), *Employee attitudes; suggestion from a study in a factory*” by Kornhauser & Sharp (1932), *Workers' emotions in shop and home: a study of individual worker from the psychological and physiological standpoint of Hersey* (1932), *Hoppock's“ job satisfaction ”*(1935) and *Roethlisberger & Dickson's Management and the Worker* (1939). The 1930s were a fertile ground for the study of emotion and were characterized by innovation and discovery as well as the diversity of ideas and methods. In the mid-1980s and 1990s, organizational researchers rediscovered emotion in the workplace as well as interest in moods and emotions. A booklet that marks the beginning of a modern study of the emotions of organisms comes from the sociologist Hochschild (1983) on emotional fatigue with the title: *The Managed Heart*. Indicatively, we mention two more studies that deal with pure emotion in work. Early research by Saavedr and Kwun, entitled *"Affective States in Job Characteristics Theory"*, states that the characteristics of the process are reliably linked to the modern disposition of any process. An All-Critical Fitness Title *“Anger in the Workplace: An Emotional Script Approach to Angerological information between Superiors, Coworkers, and Subordinates”*presents an analysis of the main factors that call for immediate cooperation, as they are called on both sides of the participants. It is worth noting that different factors contribute to the willingness of different people to work. Thus, the supervisors are often annoyed by the maintenance of the rules and by the ability of some of the existing ones. On the contrary, the existing ones are annoyed by the re-treatment of "strong others". But managing and responding willingly is different in different hierarchical positions. The antecedents are treated in the target audience, while the existing ones are withdrawn and avoid confrontation (Fisher, C., & 2000).

1.4. International Research

In the last three decades, the professional satisfaction of teachers has been explored systematically in the international space and many other studies have tried to identify and

WORK SATISFACTION OF TEACHERS FROM THE REPUBLIC OF GREECE

identify the ways in which education, education, education and higher education have improved. In most of these studies, it is suggested that teacher satisfaction is clearly related to internal motives associated with the income in the profession and the love of teachers and children. Teachers, on the other hand, express satisfaction with the workload, low pay, and the way they are treated in this society. In general, studies have shown that the levels of professional satisfaction of teachers vary depending on individual, social and cultural characteristics of schools (Spear, Gould & Lee, 2000).

Vocational training of teachers depends on, and factors such as: developing essential relationships with students, developing social relationships with colleagues, participating in decision-making processes, the ability to apply new ideas, autonomy, independence and independence and opportunities for opportunities.

In contrast, according to Nias (1989, 1996) and Hargreaves (1994), a number of factors undermine teachers' job satisfaction, are associated with feelings of loss and negative self-esteem and result from students' lack of discipline, monotony, and lack of monotony in daily routine (Papanastasiou, 2006). Teachers are likely to want to change schooling, but they are not satisfied with the working conditions, they do not support their work and if they are not encouraged to do their best in the classroom (Perie et al., 1997). Erotokritou (1996) in a study conducted in Cyprus by teachers and lawyers attempted to establish the degree of professional satisfaction with the corresponding degree of satisfaction of European colleagues. The results of the research showed that adulthood and hierarchical superiority play a significant role in the professional satisfaction of the subjects of the research, in contrast to the genitalia that play a drying role. In addition, Cypriot teachers have a lower level of professional satisfaction than their European colleagues as a whole. In their research, Wright & Custer (1998) conclude that the professional satisfaction of teachers affects the progress of students and vice versa. Despite the professional satisfaction of teachers, it is a complex phenomenon and there is no need to pay attention to the research and how much it affects the progress of students. Therefore, the importance of research for the professional satisfaction of teachers is highlighted. Also according to Spear, Gould & Lee (2000), an increasing number of indications indicate that most teachers feel good about their work, then they improve and the achievements of their students.

Evans (1998) recorded a professional period of research and development in the field of research, personalization of people who are associated with self-education, from professions in general, and more specifically in relation to specific aspects of it. Evans distinguishes between those conditions and conditions that are satisfactory (i.e. those with which the individual is satisfied, such as receptions) and those that cause satisfaction (such as recognition of the most successful) and the feeling.

In fact, he aptly calls the first "non-comfort" factors and the second "job fulfillment factors". At the same time, Dinham & Scott (1998) presented a three-part model of teacher satisfaction after researching them in public school teachers in Australia. According to the model, the professional satisfaction of teachers was structured in three areas: a) in factors related to the core teaching 'core business of teaching-factors': student performance and personal professional development, b) in relational factors at school level: school infrastructure, school leadership climate, decision making, reputation of the school and c) in a system of relations related to level, social status and meritocracy: workload, social status and number of teachers, meritocratic promotions.

The biggest satisfaction they were asked about was the factors in the performance of students and personal and professional development. The smallest consolidation that was

undertaken was the factors that contributed to the workload, socialization, the prestige of teachers and meritocratic promotions. Also important factors for the professional satisfaction of teachers are leadership, communication and the way decisions are made. Research by Spear, Gould, and Lee (2000) has shown that in order to achieve high professional satisfaction for teachers, you need a spiritual challenge, autonomy, good relationships with colleagues, a willingness to work together as a social worker during work and activity.

Factors that reduce occupational satisfaction, but bring higher levels of professional satisfaction are: the increase in wages, the improved environment, the lower the demand for the workforce and the fewer the trade-offs with the trade-offs education. The research showed that there is a positive correlation between the conditions of the workplace and the professional satisfaction of teachers, with the most important being the control of the administration, in the continuity of the teacher's educational ability and finally the organizational service of the culture. Thus, teachers who have good relations with the school administration indicate higher satisfaction. Those who have the best teaching ability and those who work in a positive school culture also have greater satisfaction.

In addition, the whole school administration is trying to satisfy the teachers. Conceptual perception of the teacher in relation to the management can minimize the importance of not justifying among teachers with different teaching experience and highlighting the negative impact of different levels of professional experience.

This finding is particularly important for less experienced teachers who often find themselves in extreme numbers, worrying about their education and struggling to integrate into school life. Researcher Davis & Wilson (2000) investigated the efforts of principals to weaken the mobilization of the teaching staff and the professional satisfaction. 44 principals and 660 teachers were involved in the research.

The findings show that the mobilization of the teacher is linked to the mobilization. That is, the higher the internal mobilization of the teacher, the more specialized the work. An additional study of professional satisfaction among Americans in the National Educational Association (2003) showed that the factors that forced teachers to quit their jobs were unpaid wages and working conditions (Eliophotou-Menon et al. 2008). Rhodes, Nevill & Allan (2004) investigated occupational satisfaction and teacher satisfaction in Primary and Secondary Education.

The results show that the factors that cause great satisfaction are: relationships with colleagues, the process of achieving certain goals, the ability to exchange experiences with colleagues, the overall degree of success and success that prevails.

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Factors that make these teachers extremely attractive are: the workload, the increased amount of time that teachers spend on school administration, the difficulty of balancing personal and professional life, and the point of view of social education. Also, the most important factors that are considered in education are the fact that they remain active for the next five years.

Finally, the most important factors that teachers may abandon in their careers for the next five years are: increasing supervision by the administration, increasing the workload, disciplining the principles of life skills, or treating students with behavioral problems.

WORK SATISFACTION OF TEACHERS FROM THE REPUBLIC OF GREECE

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Zembylas & Papanastasiou (2004) in a study of 461 teachers in Cyprus, among other findings found that the most satisfied are teachers in the workplace and relationships with the greatest satisfaction of their work.

In general, it is found that external factors (salary, working conditions, employment, etc.) affect the satisfaction of teachers in their work, while they have little effect on endogenous factors.

The empirical research on the Cypriot education system is important as it refers to a country in which language, habits, habits and cultural characteristics are the same or similar in Greece.

Eliophotou-Menon, Papanastasiou & Zempylas (2008) in order to gather data on the professional satisfaction of teachers in Cyprus used a questionnaire developed and used by Dinham & Scott (1996, 1998, 2000, 2002), adapted to its educational and cultural context. Cyprus and was awarded to teachers of kindergartens, Primary and Secondary Education.

According to the findings, four variables were found to have a significant effect on teacher satisfaction. These were: a) gender, men were more satisfied than women, b) school level, teachers who worked at lower levels of education reported greater satisfaction than employees at higher levels of education, c) report greater relative professional satisfaction. In the present case, educational attachments are associated with increased satisfaction work.

There are also opportunities for leadership throughout the school and opportunities to participate in decision-making that do not have a significant impact on professional satisfaction. Against Perie, et. al. (1997) teachers of primary education show greater satisfaction with such secondary school students. However, studies have found differences in the levels of professional satisfaction of teachers, which are defined in certain social and political characteristics of schools (Spear, Gould & Lee, 2000)

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Theoretical article

EFFECTS OF PARENTING STYLES ON ADOLESCENT OUTCOMES: SOME RECENT RESEARCH FINDINGS

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***Abstract:** The article reviews some recent studies' results with regard to the impact of different parenting styles on adolescent outcomes, as well as suggestions and conclusions made on their basis.*

***Keywords:** parenting styles, adolescence, adolescent outcomes.*

Parenting is a complex phenomenon depending on a number of genetic and non-genetic factors (Grusec, 2011). Some studies' findings suggested that parenting can have a powerful impact on behavior of a child (Lau et al., 2006).

Lots of researchers consider parenting styles as a factor that impacts child development and child outcome. In fact, in the 80s of last century began the purposeful study of the parental styles and their influence on development and outcomes in childhood and adolescence (Smokowski et al., 2015).

Over the last few decades, empirical evidence has been obtained on the association between psychological well-being of children and adolescents and control and acceptance as basic characteristics of parenting. Generally, studies' results has found that each of the following parental practices are relevant to socially desirable outcomes of child development: acceptance, inductive discipline, nonpunitive punishment practices, and consistency in childrearing are each (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). In fact, this constellation of parenting practices reflects the authoritative parenting style that was identified in research of Baumrind (1967, 1971).

Many recent studies aiming to exam the effects of parenting styles that adolescents with authoritative parents demonstrate better developmental outcomes in comparison to their peers whose parents have non-authoritative parenting style. Being highly responsible and having high demands, authoritative parents raise children, who demonstrate better school performance, fewer behavioral problems, and better emotional development and regulation than children of nonauthoritative parents (Lamborn et al., 1991; Martínez & García, 2007; Piotrowski et al., 2013; Pong et al., 2010).

Lamborn et al. (1991), based on the adolescents' ratings, assessed the parenting styles of the two parents of 4100 adolescents (14-18 year old) and reported the following findings: adolescents with authoritative parents displayed highest levels of psychosocial competence and lowest levels of emotional and behavioral dysfunction compared to their peers; adolescents with neglectful parents displayed lowest levels of psychosocial competence and highest levels of emotional and behavioral dysfunction compared to all their other peers; adolescents with authoritarian parents demonstrated obedience and conformity that are relevant to the parent criteria, but poorer self-conceptions compared with the rest their other peers; and, adolescents with indulgent parents demonstrated the highest self-confidence, higher incidence of substance abuse, poor school behavior and less engagement in school activities in comparison to other adolescents.

EFFECTS OF PARENTING STYLES ON ADOLESCENT OUTCOMES: SOME RECENT RESEARCH FINDINGS

Several years later, Gray and Steinberg (1999) examined the effects of the three basic parameters of authoritative parenting (together and separately), namely, involvement-acceptance, supervision-strictness, and psychological granting-autonomy, on adolescent adaptation in social environment, assessing a representative adolescent sample. The results revealed stronger relationship between adolescent behavior dysfunctions and parent behavioral control than between adolescent behavior dysfunctions and parent psychological autonomy granting. Further, stronger associations between adolescent internal distress and psychosocial development and parent acceptance-involvement and psychological autonomy granting than between adolescent internal distress and psychosocial development and parent behavioral control were found. Finally, adolescent academic competence was significantly related to all three parenting variables.

Martínez and García (2007) compared values and social, family-related, emotional, physical, and academic self-esteem among adolescents of parents with different parenting styles and revealed that adolescents whose parents prefer indulgent parenting style display the same or better outcomes compared to adolescents whose parents prefer authoritative parenting style. In addition, adolescents with indulgent parents show highest scores in all five types of assessed self-esteems and adolescents with parents having authoritarian parenting style demonstrated the lowest ones.

No differences in conservation and self-transcendence conservation values were found between adolescents with parents who prefer indulgent parenting style and adolescents with parents who prefer authoritative parenting style were found, but it was found that adolescents whose parents preferred neglectful or authoritarian parenting styles ranked these values as the least important. Martínez and García also revealed a positive relation between poor self-esteem and inability for decision making in adolescents with authoritarian parents, as well as a positive relation between strict parental punishments and rules and rebellion against authoritative figures in childhood.

Morris et al. (2007) conducted a review of previous studies' findings aiming to investigate the relationships between elements of the family context and children and adolescents' emotion regulation, on the basis of which a model containing the following three elements has emerged: first part - children's ability to emotionally regulate their behavior develops on the basis of observational learning, social referencing and modeling; second part – children's emotional regulation is significantly affected by parenting practices; third part – all the variables related to the emotional climate in a family, namely, marital relationship, parenting style, attachment relationship, and family expressiveness have effects on the child's ability for emotional regulation.

Masud et al. (2019) commented that children whose parents have authoritarian parenting style tend to demonstrate the best behavior, probably due to their awareness of the consequences of misbehaving. Moreover, compared to other children, these children are more likely to follow the precise instructions when pursuing a goal. Finally, children of authoritarian parents can be aggressive, but they can also be shy, hesitant, and socially inept.

Examining the relation between parenting style and school outcomes among Asian students Pong, Johnston and Chen (2010) revealed that students' school outcomes negatively correlated with authoritarian parenting style and positively correlated with authoritative parenting style. The researchers pointed out that their results are consistent with those of previous studies conducted in the USA with samples consisting of European-American students.

Lopez et al. (2018) conducted a study aiming to investigate the relation between parenting styles and parenting practices related to nutrition and food quality, as well as the effect of these parenting practices on the relationships between parenting styles and the quality of children's nutrition and dietary. Their results revealed that mothers' authoritative style was associated with higher mealtime structure which in turn tends to be related to higher dietary quality in children. On the contrary, mothers' permissive and authoritarian styles were associated with lower mealtime structure which in turn tends to be related to lower dietary quality in children. Lopez and co-workers concluded that mothers' parenting styles that are related to fewer rules concerning their children's

behavior in general, may result in children unhealthy eating habits, and, consequently – in high risks for obesity and other health problems in the later stages of life.

Langer et al. (2014) designed a study aiming to investigate the combined effect of parenting practices and parenting styles on child physical activity and screen time, and found that children of permissive or authoritarian parents spend more time in front of a screen.

Leeman et al (2014) examined how adolescents perceive their parents' permissiveness to risky behaviors such as gambling, substance use, and other. Their findings confirmed the existence of a relationship between parental permissiveness and all these socially unacceptable behaviors in adolescence, and found that these risky behaviors are less common among adolescents with less permissive parents. Based on the results the researchers concluded that parental external control may have highly protective role for adolescents with tendency to self-control dysfunctions, for example those with high sensation-seeking.

Piotrowski et al. (2013) found evidence for the existence of a strong association between parenting style and children self-regulation. Their results showed that children of authoritative parents demonstrated better skills for self-regulation; children of authoritarian parents demonstrated weaker skills for self-regulation; and children of permissive parents tended to have considerable regulatory deficits.

In an interesting study aimed to examine the effects of parenting style on both the experience and expression of homesickness and coping with these feelings, Nijhof and Engels (2007) found that students whose parents prefer authoritative or permissive styles more often experienced homesickness with stronger feelings of homesickness in comparison to students with parents endorsing an uninvolved or authoritarian parenting styles. Moreover, when students with parents endorsing an authoritative or permissive style applied effective coping strategies to deal with homesickness and related feelings, they usually did not react with emotional or behavioral problems. In contrast, students whose parents demonstrated an authoritarian or uninvolved parenting style use less effective coping strategies and exhibited more emotional and behavioral problems as a result of the feeling of homesickness.

Examining the combined effect of different styles of the two parents on their child' development, Simons and Conger (2007) conducted a study in which they addressed this issue. First, the researchers compared the fourth parenting styles of the two parents, then constructed a typology of family parenting styles including all possible combinations of mother and father parenting styles. After that the researchers assessed the frequency of each parenting style combination. Finally, Simons and Conger investigated and compared the extent of the effects to which various two parents' parenting styles combination are related to adolescents' outcomes. The results showed that with highest frequency were those family parenting styles where the two parents have the same parenting style. Adolescents with two authoritative parents demonstrated the most positive outcomes following by adolescents who had one authoritative parent. The most valuable finding in the Simons and Conger' study (2007) was that having an authoritative parent may act as a buffer for a child from negative consequences related to less effective parenting styles.

Bronte-Tinkew, Moore, and Carrano (2006) examined the relations between fathers and their children as well as father's parenting style as predictors of substance use and first delinquency in adolescents. The researchers found a negative correlation between positive father-child relationships and risk of engagement in multiple first risky behaviors. The results showed that adolescents with authoritarian fathers were in higher risk of participating in delinquent activities and substance use, but the positive father-adolescent relationship decreased the negative effect of authoritarian parenting. Also, permissive parenting style combined with positive father-child relationship also predicted less risky behavior among adolescents. Another important finding was that the positive effect of father-child relationships on risky behaviors was stronger for boys than girls.

EFFECTS OF PARENTING STYLES ON ADOLESCENT OUTCOMES: SOME RECENT RESEARCH FINDINGS

Examining mothers' and fathers' parenting styles among adolescents from United States and the effect of their combinations on adolescent well-being, Milevsky et al. (2008) found that the most common pattern of maternal and paternal style constellation was the combination of two neglectful parents. Adolescents who had two authoritative parents or at least an authoritative mother demonstrated higher well-being compared to adolescents with no authoritative parent; adolescents without permissive parent or only mother permissive had reduced self-esteem in comparison to adolescents with only father permissive; adolescents with one or two neglectful parents demonstrated lower self-esteem in comparison to adolescent with no neglectful parent.

Summarizing the above-discussed, we may conclude that the effects of parenting on adolescent outcomes has been extensively studied. Generally, studies' results on this issue have shown that adolescents of parents with positive parenting styles demonstrate optimism, high self-esteem, good social-emotional development, and good academic achievements, and in contrast, negative parenting styles are often related to emotional and behavioral problems and disorders. In general, authoritative parenting is related to lots of positive outcomes in children and adolescents including secure parent-child attachment, fewer behavior problems, more prosocial behaviors, more positive peer relationships, and better academic competence; authoritarian parenting is linked to poor decision-making and low self-esteem, poor social skills and academic competence, low creativity level, and mental problems such as depression and behavioral issues, fear of failure, emotional suppression, and, difficulty in handling negative emotions; permissive parenting is often associated with a lack of self-control and development of egocentric behavior; neglectful parenting often leads to more antisocial behavior in childhood and adolescence (for a review see Bahrami, 2018; Hoskins, 2014).

Obviously, effects of parents on adolescent behavior are multidimensional and need to be studied systematically. For this reason, in future researchers should take into account the role of different contextual, social and family-related factors when examining parent-adolescent relationships.

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Theoretical article

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTS' PERSONALITY AND PARENTING STYLES: A LITERATURE REVIEW

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***Abstract:** The article reviews previous studies' results aiming to examine the relationship between personality of parents and their parenting styles.*

***Keywords:** parenting styles, parents' personality.*

Nowadays many researchers agree with the Bronfenbrenner and Morris' statement (2006) that the factors related to the personality of parents are person "force characteristics" that most probably have effects on a child development. However, it is impressive that despite obvious influence of parental personality on children's development and adjustment, its impact on the quality of parenting has insufficiently been studied (Bahrami et al., 2018). In addition, results from previous studies, aiming to investigate the associations between personality of parents and their parenting styles although scarce, are also inconsistent.

More than 3 decades ago Belsky (1984) proposed a process model for studying variables that describe parenting, according to which, parental personality emerges as the most theoretically influential determinant of parenting due to its capacity to impact parents' behavior both directly and indirectly. Based on the Belsky' model, Sevigny and Loutzenhiser (2010) found that parenting behavior depends on the interactions between three different spheres: parents' personality characteristics, children' personal characteristics, and the social contextual factors (such as social support, marital satisfaction). Moreover, the authors confirmed that personality was conceptualized to be the most powerful among these three factors because it has a direct effect on parenting and because modulates a number of factors of the social context which in turn impact parenting.

Reviewing relevant literature Vafaenejad et al. (2019) pointed several personality characteristics as related to parenting styles, namely, responsiveness, sensitivity, reciprocity, affect, involvement, negativity, and harsh discipline.

Assuming the importance of personality of parents in their behaviors, Huver et al. (2010) studied the relation between parent personality (assessed by the Big Five personality Inventory) and parenting style among representative sample of Dutch parents of adolescents. The results showed that parents with authoritative parenting style with authoritative parenting style scored significantly higher on scales extraversion, agreeableness, and lower on scale emotional stability.

Conducting a study, aiming to examine the differences in personality characteristics personality among mothers with different parenting styles, Bahrami (2018) received results revealing significant differences between authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive mothers in personality traits extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, and openness to experience. The author concluded that study's finding strongly supported the view of the significant influence of personality on the parenting style.

Sahithya and Raman (2021) also found significant associations between parenting styles, parental personality, and temperament of children with anxiety disorders. Their results showed that the frequency of anxiety disorders was highest among children with permissive fathers and lowest

among children with authoritative mothers. Also, the incidence of anxiety disorders was higher among less sociable children.

Vafaenejad et al. (2020: 1) also conducted a study in order to shed more clarity on the relation “parent personality – parenting styles”. The results they received showed that “(a) in mothers and fathers with increasing the personality traits such as emotional stability, and openness to experience, authoritarianism was decreased and authoritativeness was increased, (b) when mothers and fathers have more conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience, permissiveness was decreased, (c) when fathers have more extraversion, and conscientiousness, authoritarianism, and authoritativeness were increased respectively, (d) in mothers with agreeableness and conscientiousness, authoritativeness was shown, (e) in mothers with increasing openness to experience, permissiveness was decreased.” The authors pointed out that their results revealed differences between personality characteristics of mothers and fathers which in turn lead to differences in typology of their parenting styles. Based on this pattern of the results Vafaenejad and co-workers made a recommendation for future research that it would be essential when studying individual differences in parental personality to take into account the evaluation of parenting styles, and conversely, when studying personality of parents to take into account their parenting styles also.

Abdi et al. (2010) also found high correlation between big five personality traits and parenting styles of parents of delinquency and nondelinquency adolescents. Their results revealed a significantly higher incidence of neuroticism among parents of delinquent adolescents, and a significantly higher incidence of agreeableness, openness extroversion, and conscientiousness among parents of nondelinquent adolescents. Based on this pattern of results, the researchers concluded that neuroticism is significantly related to delinquent behavior among adolescents, and that neurotic parents typically demonstrate permissive or authoritarian parenting styles.

Dickson, Agyemang and Afful (2014) examining the relation between personality characteristics and parenting styles of a representative parent sample revealed no differences between agreeable parents and those with other personality characteristics with regard to the preferred use of the permissive parenting style. Also, significantly higher incidence of conscious parents than agreeable or extroverted ones, but not than neurotic parents or parents with openness were found among the parents who showed a preferred use of the authoritative parenting style. Another two important findings were that fathers were more authoritarian than mothers in the couple, and that no significant differences were found between parents on permissive parenting style preference depending on the number of children in the family (single child, or two or more children).

Maddahi et al. (2012) explored the relation between the four parenting styles and the big five personality traits and found a direct and significant correlation only between parental openness and authoritative parenting style, namely parents with authoritative parenting style have significantly better developed openness trait.

Aval, Tahmasebi and Maleki (2016) have received similar finding. Examining the effects of parent mental health and parent big five personality traits on the preferred parenting styles, the researchers reported the following significant correlations: parent neuroticism positively correlated with authoritarian and permissive parenting styles, but negatively correlated with authoritative parenting style; parent extraversion and passionate personality positively correlated with permissive and authoritative parenting styles, but negatively correlated with authoritarian parenting style; parent agreeableness positively correlated with authoritative style, but negatively correlated with the rest parenting styles; parent responsibility correlated with all three parenting styles; parent mental health positively correlated with permissive and authoritative parenting styles, but negatively correlated with authoritarian style; parent mental health and neuroticism a negatively correlated with passionate personality traits, but positively correlated with the rest of the studied personality

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTS' PERSONALITY AND PARENTING STYLES: A LITERATURE REVIEW

traits. Based on pattern of the results received the researchers concluded that parent healthy personality and mental health had strong impact on authoritative parenting style.

Krupić, Ručević and Vučković (2020) examined the relations between parent personality (assessed by the Big Five Inventory), parenting styles and problem behaviors in preschool children and found a complex relationship between the three variables: parental personality had impact on permissive and authoritarian parenting styles; these two parenting styles had significant impact on the manifestation of psychopathic signs in children. Presented in more detail, their results showed that psychopathic behaviors in children were both directly and indirectly negatively related to personality trait agreeableness of their parents, directly negatively related to parent openness, but positively directly related to parent extraversion and to parent neuroticism, but in the second case through the authoritarian and permissive parenting styles.

Schofield and co-workers (2012) studied a representative sample of teenagers and their parents and found that emotionally stable, conscientious and agreeable mothers and fathers tended to demonstrate positive parenting styles that are characterized by support and warmth.

Obviously, research should focus on investigation of associations between variations in parents' personality and variations in parenting (Bahrami et al., 2018).

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Research article

АГРЕСИЯ И САМОУВАЖЕНИЕ ПРИ ЮНОШИ

AGGRESSION AND SELF-ESTEEM IN ADOLESCENTS

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Резюме

Изследванията на агресивността в юношеска възраст от една страна на мотивите, нивата и формите на агресия, а от друга, на социалните и индивидуални предиктори на агресия информират практиката на педагози и психолози. В юношеска извадка е извършена оценка на типовете агресия (*A. Buss & A. Darkee Aggression Test*) и на самоуважението (*Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale*). Установени са статистически значими межуполови различия по всички компоненти на агресия с изключение на *Вина след агресия*, както и в нивата на самоуважение. Самоуважението корелира значимо с всички типове агресия. Доказана е връзката между тези феномени.

Ключови думи: агресия, агресивно поведение, самооценка, юношество, самоуважение

Abstract

The studies of aggressiveness in adolescence, on the one hand, on the motives, levels and forms of aggression, and on the other, the social and individual predictors of aggression inform the practice of educators and psychologists. In an adolescent sample, the types of aggression (*A. Buss and A. Darkee Aggression Test*) and self-esteem (*Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale*) were assessed. Statistically significant gender differences were found in all components of aggression except Guilt after aggression. Statistically significant gender differences were found in the levels of self-esteem. Self-esteem correlated significantly with all types of aggression. The correlation between these phenomena has been proven.

Keywords: aggression, aggressive behavior, self-esteem, adolescence, self-respect

Агресията е психологически феномен на еволюцията, социалното функциониране и междуличностните отношения. Агресивността в юношеска възраст е показател за нарасналата вероятност тя да се съхрани като личностна характеристика. Периодът на юношеството се отличава с тенденция за анатомо-физиологичен и социално-психичен стабилитет. В общото развитие на юношите изпъква интелектуално-познавателния ръст. Възрастовите граници на този период са гъвкави, тъй като зависят от социално-културния и исторически дискурс и мястото на юношите в обществените отношения (образователна система, социални функции на епохата на подрастващите). Юношеството е и стадий на духовно развитие, диференциран според особеностите на пола. Приема се, че обхваща възрастта от 13 до 19 години при момичетата, и от 14 до 22 години при

AGGRESSION AND SELF-ESTEEM IN ADOLESCENTS

момчетата като се разграничават две отделни фази в него. Възрастта от 14 до 17 години се характеризира с кризисно състояние в резултат от преодоляването на отношенията на детската зависимост. Възрастта от 17 до 21 години също се интерпретира като криза, но основно свързана с изолация и чувство за самота (Енева, 1994). В този смисъл агресивността в тази деликатна и критична възраст изисква деликатен и критичен анализ.

В наши дни се наблюдава прогресивен ръст на агресивността сред децата и младежите. В представително изследване на агресивното и предизвикателно поведение на ученици в гимназиална възраст са докладвани следните резултати: 64 % от анкетираните ученици имат спомен, че са чупели нещо в момент на яд; 57 % от тях твърдят, че могат да ударят някого, ако са ядосани; 93% от тях отбелязват НЕ срещу съждението:“ От време на време не мога да се справя с желанието да причиня вреда на другите“, което според авторите показва, че агресията и злонамереността не е неумишлена; 85 % от тях споделят, че имат съученици, демонстриращи грубо отношение, блъскат, удрят, ритат останалите; 73 % отговарят, че има съученици, които разпространяват клюки, слухове, обиди, снимки или клипове в социалните мрежи, което съответства на вербалната агресия. Най-често учениците имат проблеми с родители, приятели, учители. По отношение на техния отговор на агресивен акт 41 % избягват съответната ситуация, а 34 % отвърщат със същото. Като причини за конфликт между тях и учителите те посочват слаби оценки, отсъствия, липса на уважение. Само двама от респондентите споделят за агресивно поведение между техните родители. 60 % от учениците смятат, че насилието над учители е престъпен акт, а 40 % от тях не са съгласни с това (Сиракова, 2016).

Агресията при децата и юношите се проявява като възрастова норма. Разнообразните форми на това поведение се открояват умерено при по-голямата част от представители от едно и също поколение. Една част от подрастващите се отклоняват от тази линия на нормално развитие и демонстрират устойчиво високи равнища на агресивност, които са неприемливи като възрастова норма (Матанова, 2003; Moffitt, 2007). В началото на юношеството агресивното поведение променя силата и формите си на проявление. Те добиват по-висока степен на обществена опасност поради усъвършенстваните и в същото време незрели социални умения, придружени от засилен стремеж към автономия и самоутвърждаване. Най-същественото изменение в характеристиката на агресивното поведение, реализиращо се в периода на юношеството, се изразява в тенденциозно по-високото ниво на социална организация на този тип прояви (Marcus, 2007).

В социално-психологически план агресивното и асоциално поведение у подрастващите произтича от неблагоприятия процес на социализация, в комбинация с някои конституционални и психофизически особености. В своите проучвания върху взаимодействията между рисковете, детерминирани от социалните условия и генетичните потенциали при анормалното развитие, Т. Мофит създава теорията за двете линии във формирането на девиантното поведение, включително проявите на екстремна агресия и насилие. Според тази концепция агресорите с асоциално поведение са два

типа. За първия тип са характерни асоциални прояви, лимитирани в юношеството. Вторият тип има устойчиво асоциално и криминално поведение през целия си жизнен цикъл. Двоичната таксономия за тенденциите в развитието на девиациите обяснява факта, че количеството на асоциалните прояви рязко се повишава през юношеството и в много по-малки размери се съхранява устойчиво през целия живот. Според теорията на Т. Мофит, устойчивите антисоциални тенденции се дължат на взаимодействия между невропсихологическите проблеми на децата и криминогенни условия на социалната среда. Тяхното влияние е кумулативно и достига своя пик в патологични личностови изменения. Ограниченото в юношеството асоциално поведение е свързано с временни възрастови затруднения по пътя към съзряването, които стимулират личността да завоалира асоциалните си импулси по социално приемлив начин. Юношите се научават да използват модели и стратегии, които са агресивни по съдържание, но се вписват в допустимите граници на социалните норми и се трансформират в социално приемливи (Moffitt, 2007).

В изследванията се очертава двойствена тенденция в развитието на юношеската агресия. Първата е свързана с постоянно нарастване на относителния дял на агресивните прояви във възрастта 12-17 години. Успоредно на общото нарастване, агресивните прояви се диференцират по форма и болезненост на последствията от тях. В дългосрочна перспектива най-динамично се увеличава относителния дял на по-малко деструктивните форми за сметка на физическите нападки, злонамерения тормоз и откритото насилие. В течение на юношеството развитието на социалните умения и самоконтрола водят до преструктуриране на агресивното поведение –увеличава се относителното тегло на социално приемливите форми с по-ниска тежест на причинената вреда. Смисълът на това е, че по-голяма част от юношите се научават да осъществяват агресивните си цели в рамките на утвърдените норми, избягвайки възможните санкции на откритата злонамереност със значими болезнени последствия. Усъвършенстваните умения за самоконтрол придават повече инструментален и релационен характер на агресивните действия като възрастова норма. Агресията се използва приоритетно като способ за контрол и регулиране на взаимоотношенията, отколкото като инструмент за пряко персонално засягане на съперника или жертвата (Loeber, Hay, 1997; Loeber, Stouthamer-Loeber, 1998; Karriker-Jaffe et al., 2008).

Психологическият конструкт самооценка в съвременната психология е свързан с възгледа, че човек има единно цялостно оценъчно-емоционално отношение към себе си. То е сходно с представата, че хората имат определено ниво на ниско или високо самочувствие. Приема се, че общата самооценка се формира чрез имплицитен когнитивен процес, който синтезира оценките, които индивидът прави на отделни свои прояви и характеристики. Утвърдено е схващането за общата себеоценка като личностна черта. Съвременни проучвания потвърждават, че то е основателно. Стабилността на самооценката варира в различните възрастови периоди, но е съпоставима с устойчивостта на личностните черти (по Дилова, Папазова, Коралов, 2017). Началото на развитието на самооценката идва със способността „да видя себе си, както другият ме

AGGRESSION AND SELF-ESTEEM IN ADOLESCENTS

вижда, да видя как другите ме виждат“ и с преживяването на собствената тъждественост (Стаматов, 2000: 269). Самооценката е глобална, но детето изгражда много различни и конкретни самооценки. Глобалните съждения за себеуважението изразяват различията между претенциите и компетентността в определени области (спорт, учене, постижения) и влияят върху самооценката и оценката на другите. Отделните области са различно значими и именно значимостта им се отразява на самоуважението. Родителите, връстниците и приятели също са значими за оформянето на самооценката. Отношението към себеуважението е кохерентно на афективните образувания, мотивите и емоциите. Така например ниската самооценка е свързана с настроения на разочарование, безпокойство, депресия, угнетеност, а високата, респективно самоуважението, с позитивни преживявания. Ниската самооценка се дължи на: 1) повече реализъм спрямо собствения Аз, 2) промяна в критериите на оценяването, преминаване към вътрешни стандарти в оценката на себе си, интегриране на представите за онова, което е значимо, или смисловоцентриран характер на самооценяването и 3) на способност за включване на реалния Аз образ в плана на бъдещето, постигане на очакванията на бъдещето (Rosenberg, 1965).

През юношеството самооценката се характеризира с амбивалентност на емоциите и нагласите към себе си. Променливото настроение на юношите варира от нереалистична тревожност до много по-нереалистична самоувереност. Това се обяснява със силно несъответствие между потребностите и възможностите на юношите, което е причина за непрекъснати вътрешни конфликти и радикални промени в настроението. За преодоляване на тревожността, чувството на неадекватност и малоценност, депресията, юношите използват груб език, участват във вандалски прояви, бягат от училище, употребяват наркотици и алкохол. Това поведение се асоциира с ниска самооценка, поради което е обект на особено внимание. Прояви на ниска самооценка се припознават и в правонарушенията, ниския академичен успех, безразборния секс, суицидните мисли в етапа на юношеството. Високата самооценка е свързана с висок академичен успех, леко протичаща социална адаптация, постигната Его-идентичност и Аз-концепция. Въпреки многото показатели за ниска или висока самооценка в тази възраст, глобалната самооценка е стабилна величина. Множество изследвания по полов признак при юноши констатира, че момичетата са по-уязвими в своята самооценка. Те имат по-негативно отношение към себе си и по-ниска самооценка. Приема се, че момчетата са по-независими спрямо чуждото мнение, а момичетата са по-конформни (по Папазова, 2006: 47-48).

Цел

Целта е да се установят нивата и характеристиките на агресивното поведение и връзката със самоуважението при юноши на възраст от 15 до 18 години.

Хипотези

Агресивното поведение на юношите е свързано със степента на тяхното самоуважение.

1. Съществуват полово-диференцирани различия в проявите на агресивното поведение при юношите и според нивото им на самоуважение;
2. Момчетата в по-голяма степен от момичетата проявява телесна агресия, агресивна раздразнителност и опозиционно поведение;
3. Момичетата в по-голяма степен от момчетата проявяват вербална агресия, индиректна агресия, агресивно недоверие и социална желателност;
4. Зависимостта между агресивното поведение и самоуважението е негативна, или обратнопропорционална.

Методология

Изследването е реализирано с информирано съгласие на директора на училището и родителите. Проведено е доброволно и анонимно с участието на 52 деца (28 момичета и 24 момчета) на възраст между 15 и 18 години по метода на случайния подбор. Използвани са два психологически въпросника:

- Тест за измерване на агресивността на А. Buss и А. Darkee. Въпросникът е създаден за изследване на личностни характеристики, разкриващи агресивността като елемент от човешкото поведение. То се разглежда като ситуативно проявление на личността, а не като нейна устойчива черта. Отговорите представляват самооценъчни скали (по Манчева).
- Скала за самоуважение на Розенберг (Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale). Въпросникът измерва два независими фактора: *самоунижение* и *самоуважение* (по-силната изразеност на единия съответства на по-слаба изразеност на другия) (стандартизирана скала по Дилова, М., Папазова, Е., Коралов, М).

Резултати

На таблица 1 са представени резултатите от статистическа процедура Т-тест за две независими извадки (*Independent samples T-test*) за установяване на статистически значими междуполови различия по отношение на видовете агресивност.

Таблица 1. Междуполови различия по скалите на агресия по А. Buss и А. Darkee за цялата извадка (N=52)

Тип агресия	Пол	M	SD	t	p
Телесна агресия	момичета	23,09	14,891	7,153 ₍₅₂₎	0,000
	момчета	54,60	27,819		
Вербална агресия	момичета	33,74	18,481	5,164 ₍₅₂₎	0,000
	момчета	55,67	23,678		
Индиректна агресия	момичета	24,24	12,846	4,125 ₍₅₂₎	0,000
	момчета	37,86	24,121		
Опозиционно поведение	момичета	42,91	25,068	2,377 ₍₅₂₎	0,019
	момчета	54,40	28,769		

AGGRESSION AND SELF-ESTEEM IN ADOLESCENTS

Агресивна раздразнителност	момичета	36,20	20,062	2,872 ₍₅₂₎	0,005
	момчета	48,00	25,167		
Агресивно недоверие	момичета	46,55	19,834	2,298 ₍₅₂₎	0,023
	момчета	54,79	20,359		
Ревност и омраза	момичета	29,29	23,350	3,664 ₍₅₂₎	0,000
	момчета	45,16	25,075		
Вина след агресия	момичета	57,57	22,840	1,094 ₍₅₂₎	0,265
	момчета	62,08	23,398		
Социална желателност	момичета	56,23	18,489	2,409 ₍₅₂₎	0,017
	момчета	48,36	18,367		

Установяват се статистически значими различия по всички компоненти на агресия с изключение на скала *Вина след агресия*. Резултатите показват значимо различие по скала *вербална агресия*, която е по-силно изразена при момчетата ($M=55,67$; $SD=23,678$), отколкото при момичетата ($M=33,74$; $SD=18,481$). Установява се значимо различие в проявите на *телесна агресия*, отново в по-голяма степен при момчетата ($M=54,60$; $SD=27,819$), отколкото при момичетата ($M=23,09$; $SD=14,891$). Установява се статистически значимо различие в *индиректната агресия*, отново по-силно изразена при момчетата ($M=37,86$; $SD=24,121$) в сравнение с момичетата ($M=24, 24$; $SD=12,846$). Статистически значимо е различието между половете по отношение на *опозиционното поведение* в аспекта на агресия като при момчетата то е по-силно проявено ($M=54,40$; $SD=28,769$) в сравнение с момичетата ($M=42,91$; $SD=25,068$). Установява се статистическа значимост при *агресивната раздразнителност* отново по-силно присъща на момчетата ($M=48,00$; $SD=25,167$), отколкото на момичетата ($M=36, 20$; $SD=20,062$). Значимо различие се установява и по скала *агресивно недоверие*, по-високо при момчетата ($M=54,79$; $SD=20,359$) спрямо момичетата ($M=46,55$; $SD=19,834$). Значимо е различието по скала *ревност и омраза* отново по-изразено на момчетата ($M=45,16$; $SD=20,075$) в сравнение с момичетата ($M=29,29$; $SD=23,350$).

Прояви на *социална желателност* статистически значимо в по-висока степен проявяват момичетата ($M=56,23$; $SD=18,489$) от момчетата ($M=48,36$; $SD=18,367$)

След прилагане на статистическата процедура Т-тест за две независими извадки (*Independent samples T-test*) за установяване на статистически значими междуполови различия по отношение самоуважението при юношите се установи, че при момчетата то е в по-висока степен ($M=34,58$; $SD=10,520$), отколкото е при момичетата ($M=26,16$; $SD=9,995$) (Таблица 2).

Таблица 2. Междуполови различия по скала за самоуважение на Розенберг (Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale) (N=52)

Показател	Пол	M	SD	t	p
Самоуважение	момичета	26,16	9,995	7,153 ₍₅₂₎	0,001
	момчета	34,58	10,520		

След анализ на резултатите от статистическа процедура Корелационен анализ по Пиърсън (Pearson's correlation) се установяват умерени правопрпорционални и негативни статистически значими зависимости между всички компоненти на агресията и самоуважението при юношите (Таблица 3).

Таблица 3. Резултати от корелационен анализ (Pearson's correlation) за установяване на връзката между агресивността и самоуважението при юношите (N=52)

Тип агресия	Самоуважение
Телесна агресия	-,299 ,003
Вербална агресия	,455 ,000
Индиректна агресия	,277 ,001
Опозиционно поведение	,375 ,000
Агресивна раздразнителност	-,285 ,001
Агресивно недоверие	,201 ,022
Ревност и омраза	-,333 ,000
Вина след агресия	-,363 ,000
Социална желателност	-,403 ,000

* 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

AGGRESSION AND SELF-ESTEEM IN ADOLESCENTS

Значими и правопрпорционални са корелационните връзки между самоуважението и: вербалната агресия ($r=0,455$; $p<0,000$); индиректната агресия ($r=0,277$; $p<0,001$); опозиционно поведение ($r=0,375$; $p<0,000$); агресивно недоверие ($r=0,201$; $p<0,022$). Нарастването на проявите на тези типове агресия при юношите са свързани с нарастване на самоуважението.

Установени са значими и негативни корелационни връзки между самоуважението и: телесна агресия ($r=-0,299$; $p<0,003$); агресивна раздразнителност ($r=-0,285$; $p<0,001$); ревност и омраза ($r=-0,333$; $p<0,000$); вина след агресия ($r=-0,363$; $p<0,000$); социална желателност ($r=-0,403$; $p<0,000$). Заниженото самочувствие, или ниската самооценка при юношите, в конкретната извадка, е свързано с нарастване на агресивни прояви като прилагане на физическа сила, раздразнителност, която се отключва при нисък толеранс от минимална емоционална възбуда, с гняв, ярост, обидчивост, автоагресия, социално-желателно поведение.

Тези резултати доказват основната хипотеза. Втора и трета хипотеза се доказват частично от корелационните връзки между самоуважението и опозиционното поведение, и самоуважението и социалната желателност, при които стойностите на корелационния коефициент са над 0.3 (Стоянова, Пенева, 2014: 77).

Обобщение

Резултатите потвърждават презумпцията и основната хипотеза, че съществува връзка между агресивното поведение и степента на самоуважение на юношите (15-18 годишни).

Установяват се статистически значими междуполови различия по всички типове агресия, с изключение на вина след агресия. Момчетата в по-голяма степен проявяват измерваните агресивни форми (телесна, вербална, индиректна агресия, опозиционно поведение, агресивна раздразнителност, агресивно недоверие, ревност и омраза) без една – социалната желателност. Тя е значимо и приоритетно прилагана от момичетата.

В репертоара на агресивността при момчетата преобладават вербална агресия (16%), телесна (12%), индиректна агресия (11%) и опозиционно поведение (9%). В момичешкия репертоар доминират социална желателност (18%), агресивно недоверие (14%), вина след агресия (12%) и индиректна агресия (11%).

По отношение на взаимната връзка между самоуважението и агресивността установихме наличие на умерени правопрпорционални корелационни връзки между самоуважението и вербална, индиректната агресия, опозиционно поведение и агресивно недоверие. Това може да се обясни с по-високата степен на обществена агресия в тази възраст, която се вписва в границите на социалните норми, съгласно теорията на Moffitt (2007). Юношите прилагат стратегии и модели на агресивно по съдържанието си поведение като по този начин завоалират антисоциалните си импулси по социално приемлив начин.

Установи се и обратнопропорционални корелационни връзки между самоуважението и телесната агресия, агресивната раздразнителност, ревността и

омразата, вината след агресия и социалната желателност. Тези зависимости разгръщат нездравото проявление на агресия най-малко поради деструктивното измерение на физическата агресия и след това заради автоагресията и конформизма, които предполагат. Самооценката е компенсаторно свързана с насилието, а агресията е средство за усиление на самооценката и самочувствието (Baumaster, Smart & Boden, 1996). Освен това агресията е свързана с висока самооценка тогава, когато съществува разминаване в оценките, които си поставя Аза и които получава отвън като заплаха за егото. Преувеличената, основана на нарцистичното за себе си самооценка, предполага агресия (Стаматов, 2008: 125). Самооценката на юношите е амбивалентна в аспекта на емоции и нагласи към себе си – променливото настроение, вариращо от нереалистична тревожност до нереалистична самоувереност. Изследванията по пол при юноши констатира, че момчетата са по-уязвими в своята самооценка, имат по-негативно отношение към себе си, по-ниска самооценка, по-конформни са, докато момчетата са по-независими от чуждо мнение (по Папазова, 2006: 47-48). Резултатите от нашето проучване потвърждават тези данни.

Заклучение

В настоящото емпирично изследване се доказва връзката между самоуважението и агресивността при юноши на възраст между 15 и 18 годишна възраст. На групово ниво преобладаващите агресивни прояви са в нормата с изключение на вината след агресия и социалната желателност. В този смисъл резултатите са задоволителни в психо-социалния план на тяхното развитие и социална адаптация.

По-детайлният анализ на формите на агресивност и полово-диференциалните различия очертават вече познати на науката зависимости между изследваните феномени. Нарастващото самочувствие, или формираща се самооценка, допуска агресията да бъде изразявана социално приемливо – за юношите това са вербална, индиректна агресивност, агресивно недоверие, опозиционно поведение. С други думи те изразяват агресия чрез определени процеси на потискане и задържане, каквито присъстват в семейното възпитание, в групата на връстниците, в училищната институция, в културата. От друга страна отчетохме статистически значимо наличие на нездраво изразяване на агресия с установяването на обратнопропорционална връзка между самоуважението и телесна агресия, агресивна раздразнителност, ревност и омраза, вина след агресия, социална желателност. В характеристиката на този резултат се откриват автоагресия и стремеж към одобрение, податливост и подчинение на груповия натиск. Това поведение също се придобива в микросредите на семейството, връстниците и училището в качеството им на социални детерминанти на агресия. Тук акцент заслужава фактът, че това поведение е психологически нездраво и предполага ниска самооценка.

На основание на получените резултати могат да бъдат направени препоръки за психолози, учители и училищно управление, ориентирани към юноши, които имат деструктивни агресивни прояви и ниска самооценка.

AGGRESSION AND SELF-ESTEEM IN ADOLESCENTS

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NIKOLOVA, SIMONA

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Research article

ВЛИЯНИЕ НА МОТИВАЦИЯ ЗА ПОСТИЖЕНИЯ И РЕЗИЛИАНС ВЪРХУ АСЕРТИВНОСТТА В ПЕРИОДА НА МЛАДОСТТА (18 – 28 ГОДИНИ)

INFLUENCE OF THE ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND RESILIENCE ON THE ASSERTIVENESS DURING THE PERIOD OF YOUTH (18 – 28 YEARS)

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Резюме

Целта на проведеното психологично изследване е установяване наличието на влияние на мотивацията за постижение и резилианса върху асертивността в периода на младостта (18 – 28 години). Лицата, контингент на изследването, са избрани на случаен принцип от цялата страна. Като единствено ограничение се налага попадането им във възрастовия диапазон от 18 до 28 годишна възраст. Общият брой на изследваните лица е 336. Средната възраст на изследваните лица е 23 години ($M=23,12$; $SD=3,207$) – 14,6% от изследваните лица са на възраст 18 години, 12,5% - на 24 г., 11,9% - на 22 г., по 10,7% са дяловете на лицата на възраст 23 и 28 години, по 9,2% са дяловете на лицата на възраст 25 и 27 г., 6,8% е дялът на лицата на възраст 21 г., 6% - на лицата на 26 г. и по 4,2% са дяловете на лицата на възраст 19 и 20 г. 51,8% от изследваните лица не работят, докато 48,2% работят. По-големият брой (57,4%) изследвани лица са с до средно образование, докато дялът на изследваните лица с висше и по-високо образование съставлява 42,6%. 56% от изследваните лица са жени, докато дялът на изследваните мъже съставлява 44%. Резултатите от проведеното изследване сочат, че е налично статистически значимо влияние: от страна на мотивацията за постижения на изследваните лица върху нивата им на асертивност, както и от страна на резилианса на изследваните лица върху нивата им на асертивност.

Ключови думи: мотивация за постижение, резилианс, асертивност, влияние, младост.

Abstract

The article offers The purpose of the conducted psychological research is to establish the presence of the influence of achievement motivation and resilience on assertiveness in the period of youth (18-28 years). The subjects of the study were randomly selected from across the country. The only limitation is that they must be between the ages of 18 and 28. The total number of persons examined is 336. The average age of the persons examined is 23 years ($M=23.12$; $SD=3.207$) – 14.6% of the persons examined are 18 years old, 12.5% - 24 years old. , 11.9% - aged 22, 10.7% are the shares of persons aged 23 and 28, 9.2% are the shares of persons aged 25 and 27, 6.8% are the share for persons aged 21, 6% for persons aged 26 and 4.2% for persons aged 19 and 20. 51.8% of the surveyed persons do not work, while 48.2% work . The greater number (57.4%) of respondents have up to secondary education, while the share of respondents with university and higher education is 42.6%. 56% of the surveyed persons are women, while the proportion of surveyed men is 44%. The results of the conducted research indicate that there is a statistically significant influence: on the part of the motivation for achievements of the researched persons on their

levels of assertiveness, as well as on the part of the resilience of the researched persons on their levels of assertiveness.

Keywords: *achievement motivation, resilience, assertiveness, influence, youth.*

В ролята на отправна точка на проведеното психологично изследване встъпва резилиентно описателната фраза на Boris Cyrulnik: „Не става дума да отскочиш на същото място, сякаш нищо не се е случило, а малко встрани, за да продължиш напред...“ (Cyrulnik, 2016, p1 . 12). Авторът визира измеренията на съпротива и устойчивост, а именно личностната или социално-системната способност за позитивно и устойчиво развитие, въпреки затрудненията. Като фактор за изява на резилианса, интерес представлява мотивацията за постижения. Освен многобройните психологични трактовки на този конструкт, възможно е той да бъде очертан и като катализатор при развиването/изграждането на резилианс и асертивност у младата личност. Важно е да се отбележи, че в структурно отношение, мотивацията за постижение е притежание и на резилианса, и на асертивността. Ако хипотетично резилиентната съпротива се определи като изначална, основна за личността, а асертивността като висока степен на самоактуализация, то интерес представлява ролята на мотивацията за постижения в процеса „лично израстване“, във взаимодействието с асертивността и резилианса. Независимо от ракурса на интерпретация на гореизброените конструкти – като самостоятелно лично образование или част от системна структура, важно е да се има предвид, че всеки един от тях подлежи на осъзнато развиване с цел благополучие и израстване. Когато става въпрос за осъзнато надграждане, според хуманистичните представители на психологията, възрастта не се определя като фактор. Но от гледна точка на по-продължителен период на пълноценен и щастлив живот, като сензитивен период за овладяване и развиване на резилианс и асертивност, биха могли да встъпят юношеството и младостта. Причините за това ясно изпъкват във възгледите на Boris Minchev, според които „Младостта е сензитивен период на нравствено-лично развитие... През младостта индивидът придобива реална възможност да стане субект на собственото си развитие. В детството нещо в него се развива, то бива “претърпяно”, индивидът става “свидетел” на промените в своя живот, но рядко се преживява като техен “автор”. През юношеството, и още повече през младостта, се възприемат императивите “да вземеш своята съдба в ръцете си”, да започнеш реализацията на мащабен “жизнен план”.“ (Minchev, 2005, p. 64). И точно тук мотивацията за постижения се явява, от една страна като необходим за овладяване и развиване личностен конструкт, а от друга – като наличен ресурс и „стъпало“ за стартиране и надграждане на позитивна промяна у личността.

Мотивация за постижения

Множеството подходи към дефиницията на мотивацията могат да бъдат разделени на две области. В рамките на *структурния подход* мотивацията се разбира като съвкупност от фактори или мотиви, които насочват човешката дейност. В рамките на второто направление мотивацията се разглежда като *динамична формация, процес, механизъм*. Дори към настоящия момент границата между понятията „мотив“ и „мотивация“ се променя: понякога става много тънка, тоест понятията са практически идентични, използвани като синоними, понякога е много твърда, т.е. понятията са изпълнени с различни значения. Второто направление, от своя страна, също е разделено на две: някои автори разбират мотивацията като процес на актуализиране на мотива, в този случай мотивът се разбира като *статичен и завършен компонент* (Heckhausen, 2003, pp. 120 – 135; McClelland, 2007, pp. 145-156; Schuler et al., 2004, pp. 195-202); други автори разглеждат мотивацията като процес на формиране на мотив, като в този случай мотивът не се разглежда като нещо готово и устойчиво, а по-скоро като *компонент, формиращ се едновременно с процеса на мотивация* (Puin, 2006, pp. 52-135; Gordeeva, 2006, pp. 112-145).

Концепцията за „потребност от постижение“ се появява за първи път в класификацията на Г. Мъри през 1938 г., който изолира мотивацията за постижения като една от 20-те потребности,

INFLUENCE OF THE ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND RESILIENCE ON THE ASSERTIVENESS DURING THE PERIOD OF YOUTH (18 – 28 YEARS)

но в същото време в по-нататъшни изследвания (главно в трудовете на Дж. Аткинсън, D. McClelland, X. Heckhausen) тя получава сериозно внимание. Мургау разбира разглежданата диспозиция, като стабилна „потребност от постигане на резултати в работата, като желание да се направи нещо бързо и добре, да се достигне определено ниво във всеки бизнес“ (Gordeeva, 2006, p. 295). Според Мургау тази потребност има обобщен характер и се проявява във всяка ситуация, независимо от нейното конкретно съдържание.

В школата на Lewin се появяват понятия, които по-късно активно се използват от изследователи в областта на мотивацията за постижения. В работата на Норре за "успех и провал", концепцията за нивото на претенциите е зела важно място в изследването на мотивацията. Heckhausen посочва, че понятието „ниво на претенциите“ означава, първо, „... целевата настройка по отношение на вече познатия, повече или по-малко овладян и отново решен проблем, а самата тази настройка (цел) е вътрешно приета от субекта“ (както го разбира Норре), и второ, „... стабилно свойство, качество на индивида, което играе решаваща роля при самооценката на съществуващите способности и постигнатите резултати“ (Heckhausen, 2001, p. 118).

За обяснение на тенденцията за нарастване на исканията, Норре въвежда понятието "Аз-ниво", което означава желанието да се поддържа самосъзнанието на възможно най-високо ниво с помощта на висок личен стандарт на постижения. По-късно тази концепция започва да се нарича концепцията за мотивация за постижения, дефинирана като „опит за повишаване или поддържане на възможно най-високи способности на човек за всички видове дейности, към които могат да се прилагат критериите за успех и където изпълнението на подобни активности може, следователно, да доведе до успех или неуспех“ (Heckhausen, 2001, с. 21).

Една от първите концепции за мотивация за постижения е модел за избор на риск, формулиран от J. Atkinson на базата на модела „личност и среда“, предложен от Lewin, който включва разглеждане на взаимодействието между индивида и обществото (Atkinson, 1964).

Според D. D. McClelland мотивът за постижение предполага че определена дейност се извършва по-добре заради вътрешното удоволствие от подобряването на собственото представяне. Мотивацията за постижение – това е задействащ се в конкретен момент от време мотив за постижение, който се актуализира при определени условия, под въздействието на мотиватор за постижение. Мотиваторът за постижения е този стимул, който позволява на човек да извлече удовлетворение от успешна дейност заради самата себе си или от демонстриране на другите способността, че може да направи нещо дори по-добре (McClelland, 1958).

Резилианс

Като понятие терминът „резилианс“ (от лат. „resilio“ – „скачам назад“, „отскачам“) се въвежда и отнася към физичните науки и се характеризира с устойчивостта на удар върху тяло. В ролята на вероятно концептно определение резилиансът би могъл да се опише като „капацитетът на динамична система да се адаптира успешно към нарушения, които заплашват функционирането, жизнеността или развитието ѝ“ (Masten, 2014, p. 7), вземайки предвид обстоятелството, че концептният интерес към него се заражда по едно и също време и независимо в областта на екологията (Holling, 1973), психологията (Garmezy, 1971; Murphy & Moriarty, 1976), инженерните науки, управлението на човешките ресурси, компютърни науки, криминология и др. Важно е да се отчете фактът, че общата системна теория (von Bertalanffy, 1968) оказва влияние върху всички тези области.

Динамиката в развитието на теоретичните и емпиричните изследвания предполага различия по отношение дефинирането и операционализирането на концепта „резилианс“ (Kaplan, 1999; Olsson et al., 2003). Някои автори определят резилианса като индивидуално специфична личностна характеристика (Davidson et al., 2005), докато по-голямата част от учените го разглеждат като т.нар. „резилиентност“ – вродено динамично свойство, изразяващо се в способността за преодоляване неприятни житейски обстоятелства под променящото се

взаимодействие на факторите на уязвимост и защитните фактори през целия жизнен цикъл (Cicchetti & Garmezy, 1993; Masten, 1994; Masten & Coatsworth, 1998; Rutter, 1990).

От гледна точка на общото дефиниране, резилиансът се разглежда като адаптация и качествено справяне, въпреки преживяването на нещастие, трудност или травма. Способността за прогрес, независимо от наличието на негативни стресори, се отнася към понятието „издръжливост“ (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004, с. 320-333). Като характеристики на издръжливостта могат да се посочат:

- Способност за „отскок“ от емоционалните преживявания с негативен характер;
- Пластична адаптация към изменчивите изисквания на предизвикващите стрес обстоятелства.

Според Lazarus и Carver, ефективното „отскачане“ от травмиращите и стресиращи преживявания, на което са способни издръжливите индивиди, може да се сравни със свойството на някои метали, които не се чупят при огъване (Lazarus, 1993; Carver, 1998).

Американската психологична асоциация (APA) дава следното определение за резилианс: „процесът и резултатът на позитивна адаптация към трудни или предизвикателни житейски събития, основно чрез ментална, емоционална и поведенческа гъвкавост и приспособяване към вътрешни и външни изисквания. Множество фактори допринасят за това колко добре човек се адаптира към трудностите, като основните сред тях са:

- Начинът, по който индивидите гледат и се въвличат в света;
- Наличието и качеството на социалните ресурси;
- Специфични стратегии за справяне.“ (Association, A.P., 2007, p. 87).

Асертивност

Терминът „асертивност“ произлиза от „assertive“ (от англ. упорит, настоятелен). Анализът на дефинициите за асертивност и асертивно поведение, предложени от различни автори, отразява развитието на възгледите за природата на тези конструкти.

Andrew Salter (Salter, 1949), а по-късно Vera Karoni и Tomash Novak (Karoni & Novak, 1994; Karoni & Novak, 1995), разглеждат асертивността като характеристика на личността. Те определят асертивността като автономност, независимост от външни влияния и способност за саморегулация на поведението. Al. Bandura (Bandura, 1969) смята, че основните прояви на асертивност са чувството за собствено достойнство, желанието да се вземат индивидуални решения в живота и да се поема отговорност за тях.

Lazarus пръв определя асертивността като способност за казване на „не“, за открито заявяване и демонстриране: на собствените искания, позитивни и негативни емоции, за установяване на контакти, за стартиране и приключване на разговори (Lazarus, 1973).

Под „асертивност“ Rich и Schroeder разбират когнитивни, емоционални и поведенчески реакции, които максимално повишават потенциала на индивида за постигане на лични цели и получаване на социално одобрение (Rich & Schroeder, 1976).

Ясно се очертава тенденцията, че по-ранните изследователи на асертивността и асертивното поведение разглеждат основно отношението на асертивния индивид към самия себе си. Концепцията за асертивност започва да се допълва с включване на връзката на индивида с другите. Според P. Jakubowski и A. Lange, асертивността включва защита на личните права, изразяване на мисли, емоции и мнения директно, честно и честно, без да се нарушават правата на другите (Jakubowski & Lange, 1976).

Анализирайки същността на тези права, Jakubowski-Spector дефинира асертивността като защита на собствените права, без нарушаване на правата на другите (Jakubowski-Spector, 1973).

INFLUENCE OF THE ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND RESILIENCE ON THE ASSERTIVENESS DURING THE PERIOD OF YOUTH (18 – 28 YEARS)

Развивайки тази идея, Martin Smith предлага „кодекс от 10 права“ на асертивния човек: правото на индивида да оценява собственото си поведение, мисли и емоции, правото да бъде независим от мненията на другите, правото да прави грешки и т.н. (Smith, 1975).

Според R. Fritchie асертивният човек е отговорен за поведението си, демонстрира уважение към другите и се стреми към компромис (Fritchie, 1990).

Alho изразява мнение, че асертивността означава разумен баланс между индивидуализъм и колективизъм (Alho, 2006).

Поддръжниците на петфакторния модел на личността (екстраверсия, добронамереност, добросъвестност, невротизъм и отвореност към опита) – P. T. Costa & R. McCrae (Costa & McCrae, 1992), смятат, че асертивността е един от аспектите на екстраверсията.

Sue Bishop разглежда асертивността като предпоставка за поведение, основано на лична отговорност и зачитане правата на другите (Bishop, 2006). Според автора, асертивността е оптималният и най-конструктивен подход в междуличностните отношения, основан на принципите на хуманизма, при който манипулацията на други хора, както и насилието и агресията спрямо тях са недопустими., т.е. отрича се посегателството върху правата на взаимодействащите страни.

Alberti и Emmons въвеждат понятието „неасертивност“ като противостоящо на понятието „асертивност“. Тъй като асертивността включва себеизразяване и ненарушаване на правата на другите, тогава неасертивността може да приеме една от двете форми: агресивност или подчинение (Alberti & Emmons, 1971).

Интерес представлява развиването на тезата на Alberti и Emmons от V. Sheinov: „...в допълнение към тези, посочени от R. Alberti и M. Emmons, съществува такава форма на неасертивност като манипулация. Така се формира класификация на видовете поведение: пасивно (подчинено) - асертивно - манипулативно - агресивно.“ (Sheinov, 2015, p. 29). При тези форми само асертивното поведение е релевантно на интересите на самия индивид и на взаимодействащите с него. С пасивно поведение индивидът не може да защити своите интереси. Използвайки агресивно поведение – нарушава правата на другите и провокира конфликти. Манипулирайки, човек накърнява и правата на другите, което рано или късно ги кара да осъзнаят това и ще доведе до отчуждаването му (Sheinov, 2015, p. 29-30).

Този акцент върху изследването на асертивността е предпоставка конструктът дълго време да се изследва основно във връзка с поведенческата терапия (Rimm & Masters, 1974; Schroeder et al., 1983; Wolpe, 1973; Wolpe & Lazarus, 1966 и др.). Началото дават A. Salter (Salter, 1949) и J. Wolpe (Wolpe, 1958) в трудовете си.

Дизайн на психологичното изследване

Цел и задачи на изследването:

Цел на проведеното психологично изследване е установяване наличието на влияние на мотивацията за постижение и резилианса върху асертивността в периода на младостта (18 – 28 години). Във връзка с така формулираната цел се открийха 2 задачи:

1. Изследване на влиянието на мотивацията за постижения върху асертивността при изследваните лица.
2. Изследване на влиянието на резилианса върху асертивността при лицата от изследваната извадка.

Хипотези на изследването:

Хипотеза 1: Предполага се наличието на статистически значимо влияние от страна на *мотивацията за постижения* на изследваните лица върху нивата им на *асертивност*.

Хипотеза 2: Предполага се наличието на статистически значимо влияние от страна на *резилианса* на изследваните лица върху нивата им на *асертивност*.

Изследвани лица и организация на изследването

Лицата, контингент на изследването, са избрани на случаен принцип от цялата страна. Като единствено ограничение се налага попадането им във възрастовия диапазон от 18 до 28 годишна възраст. Общият брой на изследваните лица е 336. Изследването е проведено онлайн в периода от 1 септември 2021 г. до 31 март 2022 г., поради разпространенията се COVID – пандемия.

Броят на изследваните лица е ограничен, във връзка с обективна невъзможност за изследване на всички лица от генералната съвкупност. Средната възраст на изследваните лица е 23 години ($M=23,12$; $SD=3,207$). 14,6% от изследваните лица са на възраст 18 години, 12,5% - на 24 г., 11,9% - на 22 г., по 10,7% са дяловете на лицата на възраст 23 и 28 години, по 9,2% са дяловете на лицата на възраст 25 и 27 г., 6,8% е дялът на лицата на възраст 21 г., 6% - на лицата на 26 г. и по 4,2% са дяловете на лицата на възраст 19 и 20 г. Процентното разпределение на изследваните лица според заетостта им сочи, че 51,8% от изследваните лица не работят, докато 48,2% работят. 57,4% от изследваните лица са с до средно образование, докато дялът на изследваните лица с висше и по-високо образование съставлява 42,6%. По-голямата част (56%) от изследваните лица са жени, докато дялът на изследваните мъже съставлява 44%.

Методически инструментариум за провеждане и измерване на изследването

В съответствие с целта и задачите на проведеното изследване са използвани следните методики:

Въпросник за потребност от постижения на Ив. Паспаланов и Д. Щетински (МП-4)

Българската скала за потребност от постижения се състои 42 айтема, от които 16 фонове (Paspalanov & Shchetinsky, 1988, pp. 29-54), на които се отговаря с:

- а) "не",
- б) "не мога да преценя" и
- в) "да".

По-високият бал означава по-висока потребност от постижения (ПП).

Въпросник „State Trait Resilience Inventory“ (STRI-33) за изследване на резилианс

Въпросникът State Trait Resilience Inventory (STRI-33) е разработен от Chok Hiew (Hiew, Resilience: Development and Measurement, 1998) като модификация на Resilience Checklist на E. Grotberg, който измерва резилианса като черта и процес (Grotberg, 1995). State-Trait Resilience Inventory (STRI) разработен от K. Hiew (Hiew, 1998) обединява две форми - State Resilience Scale (SRC) and a Trait Resilience Scale (TRC). Въпросникът е адаптиран за България от R. Nedeva и се състои от 15 айтема, които се оценяват с Ликертова скала от 1 – „определено не съм съгласен“ до 5 – „определено съм съгласен“, като инструкцията към изследваното лице е да се оцени как се чувства в настоящия момент (Nedeva, 2019, p. 48; Nedeva & Stoyanov, 2019, pp. 428-435). Trait Resilience Scale (TRC) – се състои от 18 айтема, които изследваното лице оценява чрез Ликертова скала от 1 – „определено не съм съгласен“ до 5 – „определено съм съгласен“, като изследваното лице оценява айтемите от детството си до моментът на попълване. В българската адаптация на въпросника за ученици, посочените дименсии се изследват и като моментно състояние, и като черта на личността. Надеждността на използваната методика е висока $\alpha=0,892$, от данни на проведеното изследване. При адаптацията за лица над 18 години в първия фактор са изведени 2 фактора:

(1) Способност за саморегулация – с 21 айтема: включва самооценката на изследваното лице и оценката на околните за поведението му в стресови и ежедневни ситуации.

(2) Социална подкрепа – с 12 айтема, които изследват възможностите за подкрепа на личността от семейството и приятелите.

Личностна скала за изследване на асертивността

Скалата включва 38 айтема, от които 27 са значими за изследваната психична характеристика, а 11 са въпроси, предназначени за отклоняване вниманието на изследваните лица от предмета на изследване, с цел предпазване от манипулиране на резултатите. Скалата за отговори е 3 - степенна, със следните означения: 1 - „рядко“, 2 - „понякога“, 3 - „обикновено“ (Peneva, Kidikov & Yordzhev, 2014, pp. 36-49). При българската адаптация на меториката се установява, че същата е валидна и надеждна (с Алфа на Кронбах равна на 0,786). Средната

INFLUENCE OF THE ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND RESILIENCE ON THE ASSERTIVENESS DURING THE PERIOD OF YOUTH (18 – 28 YEARS)

аритметична стойност на общия бал на скалата е 57,83, а стандартното отклонение - 6,236, което според Peneva, Kidikov и Yordzhev означава, че резултати под 51,59 се приемат за ниски, а резултати над 64,07 - за високи нива на асертивност (Peneva, Kidikov & Yordzhev, 2014, pp. 36-49).

Етични проблеми

Етичните проблеми на всяко едно изследване са свързани с участието изследователя, който би могъл:

- 1) преднамерено или не, да изопачи резултата или да повлияе върху интерпретацията му;
- 2) да злоупотреби с лични данни на изследваните лица.

Счита се, че в настоящото изследване етичните принципи за работа с хора са в голяма степен съобразени, доколкото изследването е анонимно и възможността за допускане на грешки при въвеждането е сведена до минимум, чрез автоматично въведените ограничения на онлайн формата за събиране на данни.

Анализ на резултатите

За проверка на част от издигнатите хипотези, таблично са представени резултати от приложени статистически процедури на линеен регресионен анализ, метод: Enter.

Таблица № 1. *Резултати от статистическа процедура „Линеен регресионен анализ, метод: enter“, за установяване на влияние на мотивация за постижения върху асертивност при лица в периода на младостта. Зависима променлива: асертивност.*

Модел	Нестандартизирани коефициенти		Стандартизиран и коефициенти	t		95,0% CI за B	
	B	SE	β			Долна граница	Горна граница
(Константа)	51,603	1,080		47,767	,000	49,478	53,728
Мотивация за постижения	0,361	0,072	0,264	4,993	,000	0,218	0,503

Получените резултати от регресионния анализ (таблица № 1) сочат за статистически значимо влияние от страна на *мотивацията за постижения* на изследваните лица върху нивата им на *асертивност* ($F_{(1; 334)}=24,932$; $p<0,001$). Полученият резултат сочи и че едва 7% ($R^2=0,069$) от дисперсията на зависимата променлива (*асертивност*) може да се прогнозира от независимата променлива (*мотивация за постижения*) ($\beta=0,264$; $p<0,001$). Големината на ефекта е малка ($R=0,264$).

Резултатите от приложената статистическа процедура „Регресионен анализ“ (таблица № 2) изявяват, че е налично статистически значимо влияние от страна на *резилианса* (по STRI-33) на изследваните лица върху нивата им на *асертивност* ($F_{(1; 334)}=42,771$; $p<0,001$). Получените данни посочват също, че 11% ($R^2=0,114$) от дисперсията на зависимата променлива (*асертивност*) може да се прогнозира от независимата променлива (*резилианс* (по STRI-33)) ($\beta=0,337$; $p<0,001$). Големината на ефекта е малка ($R=0,337$).

Таблица № 2. *Резултати от статистическа процедура „Линеен регресионен анализ, метод: enter“, за установяване на влияние на резилианса (STRI-33) върху асертивността при лица в периода на младостта. Зависима променлива: асертивност*

Модел	Нестандартизирани коефициенти		Стандартизирани коефициенти	t	p	95,0% CI за B	
	B	SE	β			Долна граница	Горна граница
(Константа)	37,164	3,011		12,342	0,000	31,241	43,087
Резилианс (STRI-33)	0,145	0,022	0,337	6,540	0,000	0,101	0,189

Направените допускания в **първа и втора хипотеза**, а именно, че ще се установи значимо влияние на мотивацията за постижения и резилианса върху асертивността при изследваните лица, се потвърди.

Конкретните допускания се основават на предишни изследвания на учени (Z. Koohfini & M. Kheirabadi, 2020, pp. 110-119) и бяха очаквани. Учените установяват влияние на тренинга на резилиентността върху асертивността и самооценката. Докато друго изследване установява влияние на резилианса върху мотивацията (Kim & Kim, 2018), която от своя страна до голяма степен определя човешкото поведение.

В мотивационната система на McClelland се открояват четири елемента, един от които е изискванията на средата, а останалите три са мотиви: естествен (свързан с вродена потребност, например естествения мотив за новост), придобит (мотивационна диспозиция, например, мотив за постижение) и актуализиращи (например мотивация за постижения) – които ученият разглежда като ситуационни променливи. Според него мотивацията за постижение може да се разглежда задействащ се в конкретен момент от време мотив, който се актуализира при определени условия, под въздействието на мотиватор за постижение (McClelland, 1958). Именно тази теория би могла да обясни малката големина на ефекта на мотивацията за постижения върху асертивността в настоящото изследване. Според Murray обаче, потребността от постижения има обобщен характер и се проявява във всяка ситуация, независимо от нейното конкретно съдържание. Една от първите концепции за мотивация за постижения, както се изяснява в теоретичния преглед по-горе, е модел за избор на риск, формулиран от J. Atkinson на базата на модела „личност и среда”, предложен от Lewin, който включва разглеждане на взаимодействието между индивида и обществото (Atkinson, 1964).

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INFLUENCE OF THE ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND RESILIENCE ON THE ASSERTIVENESS DURING THE PERIOD OF YOUTH (18 – 28 YEARS)

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NIKOLOVA-HRISTAKOVA, BORYANA & MAVRODIEV, STOIL

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