

AGORA
PSYCHO-PRAGMATICA
SEMESTRIAL JOURNAL

•
PSYCHOLOGY
SOCIAL WORK

EDITORIAL BOARD

Editor-in-Chief

Olga Domnica Moldovan
“Aurel Vlaicu” University of Arad, Romania
od_moldovan@yahoo.com

Associate Editor-in-Chief, Psychology Section

Sonia Ignat
“Aurel Vlaicu” University of Arad, Romania
soniabudean@yahoo.com

Associate Editor-in-Chief, Social Work Section

Alina Costin
“Aurel Vlaicu” University of Arad, Romania
alinacostin@yahoo.com

Public relation manager

Mihaela Gavrilă-Ardelean
“Aurel Vlaicu” University of Arad, Romania
miha.gavril@yahoo.com

Managing Editor

Mirela Ciolac
“Aurel Vlaicu” University of Arad, Romania
ciolac_mirela@yahoo.com

Scientific director

Evelina Balaş

“Aurel Vlaicu” University of Arad, Romania
evelinabalas@yahoo.com

Executive Editor

Tiberiu Dughi
“Aurel Vlaicu” University of Arad, Romania
tibi_dughi@yahoo.com

Associate executive Editor

Alina Felicia Roman
romanalinafelicia@yahoo.com

ASSOCIATE EDITORS

Grozdanka Gojkov

University of Belgrad, Serbia
The High School of Varset
Member of Serbian Academy of Education Sciences

Lizica Mihuč

“Aurel Vlaicu” University of Arad, Romania
Member of Serbian Academy of Education Sciences

Zoltan Bogathy

Prof.univ. dr. emerit
West University of Timișoara, Romania

Catherine Sellenet

University of Nantes, France

Sabine Parmentier

DESS in clinical psychology of the University Paris III
Secretary of the Association of Psycho-analytic Formation and Freudian
Researches, Paris, France

Anton Ilica

“Aurel Vlaicu” University of Arad, Romania
Member of Serbian Academy of Education Sciences

Olivier Douville

University Paris X of Nanterre
Clinical Psychology Department

Viorel Ungureanu

West University of Timișoara, Romania

Onur Köksal

Assoc. Prof. PhD. Selcuk University

Necmettin Erbakan University Ahmet Kelesoglu, Turkey

Graphic design

Tudor Moldovan, Teodora Moldovan (Nebula FX – Image Agency)

Redaction Adress:

Str. Elena Drăgoi, nr.2, Arad, Romania

Tel: +40 (0257) 219 555

e-mail: agora.arad@gmail.com

Fax: +40 (0257) 219 555

ISSN 1842-6840

Agora (online) ISSN2247/2401

ISSN-L- 1842-6840

Index Coverage: Ulrich's,

EBSCO,

DOAJ,

Directory Research Journals Indexing

Index Copernicus

The full text is available for view/download in PDF format free of charge

CONTENTS

The impact of divorce on women	5
Olga Domnica Moldovan	
School climate and intercultural education	
Alina Felicia Roman	29
The correlations between the meaning of life, depression, stress and anxiety among university students	36
Veysi Bas, Erdal Hamarta, Onur Koksal	
Parental counseling and the education of children with special educational needs	51
Tiberiu Dughi, Dana Dughi, Maria Juncu	
International romanian students migration patterns - a social network analysis study	
Loredana Denisa Lăstun, Dan Aurel Banciu	64
The dynamic relationship between aging and job performance – a case study	75
Dana Bălaș-Timar	
Factors that influence the commitment of military students to profession	90
Crenguța Mihaela Macovei	
Aggressivity and its specific forms in adolescence	103
Mirela Ciolac	
Aspects of social inclusion of young people leaving the child protection institutions	123
Floare Chipea, Cristina Marc, Claudia Oșvat	
Ergonomics, an important role in the safety and health at work	140
Emil Vancu	

THE IMPACT OF DIVORCE ON WOMEN

O.D. Moldovan

Olga Domnica MOLDOVAN,
PhD, Professor
Aurel Vlaicu University, Arad, Romania

Abstract: The families in contemporary societies have undergone profound changes in recent decades. The changes that have occurred within them are so important, that the term family has become increasingly ambiguous, it tends to cover today different realities from those characteristic of previous generations. Family is the most accurate owner of the traditions and national values. It is one of the most conservative (in a good way) segments of society. Contrary to this idea, the family has become increasingly sensitive to all changes occurring in society.

We started our research in the following hypothesis: divorce deeply affects a person's ability of relationship, emotional maturity and self-esteem in females who have gone through such a process.

As a result of our research appears that divorced women need to be included in psychotherapy programs (cognitive behavioral psychotherapy, supportive psychotherapy) and advisory services to improve networking capacity, to increase self-esteem and learn marital conflict management.

Keywords: divorce, self-esteem, interpersonal relationships, psychological and emotional maturation.

Divorce is one of the serious problems of society, which retain the attention of world public opinion. Many experts were concerned about the causes and reasons that generate this phenomenon. In this respect it was concluded that marital life and work is strongly affected by a variety

of socio-economic and political factors which create uncertainty conditions for their functioning.

In general, in divorce situations partners indicate psychological and psychosocial reasons such as mismatch of character, incompatibility of reporting to different values, unable to establish a common view in relation to a particular benchmark.

Mitrofan (2002) showed that couples functionality depends not only on economic and social factors, but also on the compatibility of the *patterns* of the partners' personality.

Closely related to divorce is, unfortunately, a number of consequences (direct and indirect) which strongly affects both partners of the couple and their children that will resulting from the union. These consequences can occur both in the pre-divorce and after divorce and can be, as mentioned above immediate (direct) and indirect (not immediately perceived and appear in time).

Of all the immediate and direct aftermath need to mention a few (after Mitrofan, 1998):

- The psychotrauma of the partners after protracted wrangling prior to divorce;
- The psychotrauma of the children who are assisting and are strongly marked by disagreements between parents; they can be asked function of their age to express opinion for a parent;
- Separation of some common goods, which had a certain emotional and affective resonance.

Besides this track, not very serious, there are a number of indirect consequences that are not seen immediately but leave deep scars on the psychology of partners and especially on their children. Among these the most important are the effects on children.

Effects on children

- *The deviant behavior of children* - the researchers who studied juvenile delinquency showed that largely dysfunctional family atmosphere, lack of paternal authority, control and authority following the divorce of parents determined the children to commit antisocial acts. Divorce therefore can outline serious emotional and behavioral disorders. The results of investigations on child offenders shows that, in many cases, offenders behavior is determined by the disruption of family life as a result of divorce (Ciofu , 1989) ;

- *Aversion toward the opposite sex and the family life* - it was found that the tense and conflictual atmosphere in dysfunctional families deeply affects the psychology and behavior of children that they get to consider in a wrong way the place and role of marriage in their lives. In this sense, for them the marriage and the family become prolonged torment places, the bickering, the violation of dignity, and their conception of life and family are deeply changed with negative aspect (Ciuperca, 2000) ;

- *The case of multiple parents* - following successive divorces some children may be raised and educated by more mothers or more fathers as a result of the marriage game endlessly, in the hands of people who replace both natural parents (Mitrofan, 2002);

- *The installation at the adulthood period of a continuous trend to divorce* - is sufficiently known the idea that man is profoundly influenced by the environment in which he lives and which almost definitely leaves its mark on him and that what he sees will imitate. In this context it is understandable that children from families that have gone through a divorce when you get in a position to marry tend to divorce, more precisely follow the pattern seen in the family who originated.

Because of these children grow and develop in a family devoid of harmony, divided and it will be difficult for them to maintain a favorable and harmonious climate, in their own family, deeply marked by the prototype of the family of origin. Therefore a great danger of marital instability is the ability to repeat these things in the next generation (Rudica, 1990).

The popular idea claiming that divorce is just a passing phase in a child's life was ruled by psychologists. They now believe that parental anger during a divorce is the most critical factor, but rather the post-divorce years, combined with feelings of stress and anxiety. These negative feelings are at their best in cases where divorce is prolonged, difficult, and with an intense battle for the custody of children.

In most cases children come to blame themselves for the divorce or loss of a parent. We present some of the most frequent and serious **effects that divorce can have on children:**

Stress and behavioral problems at home

Children are usually sensitive and, therefore, more susceptible to emotional damage than adults. Since parents are stressed by divorce and, most likely, no longer show the child the same tolerance and affection that they showed him once, children express these frustrations in different ways: anger, directed both on others and on themselves; inability to take responsibility; a sense of guilt; frequent violation of the rules; drug or alcohol abuse; destructive and defiant behavior; isolation or withdrawal to friends and family; suicidal or violent thoughts; increased or early sexual activity.

A younger child may start to present enuresis and suffer from sleep disorders. He may negatively feel the absence of the other parent, and can not understand the permanence of this situation.

Teenagers may show violent behavior, accompanied by depressive episodes. Sometimes it happens that an older child may need to take care of a younger brother and take responsibility for him, which can result in resentment among brothers (Schiopu, Green, 1995).

Problems at school

Divorce can have the effect of distancing the child not only from the parents, but also from the friends and schoolmates. In most cases their academic results suffer from the inability to concentrate on his studies at home. Parents are usually too busy to help with homework.

Studies have shown that students who come from broken homes are more likely to leave school before graduating from high school and are less likely to attend university. In addition, they have relationship problems with other colleagues and can reach up to breaking the rules at school.

It was noted that young adults whose parents divorced during childhood, are suffering from low self-esteem and have themselves, difficulties in relations (Rime, 2008).

Effects on partners

The main issues involved in the divorce are emotional stress, the custody and care of children, the division of property. Legal custody of children after dissolution of marriage was made traditionally in the favour of the mother. But, in recent decades, there have been pressures from men to change this discriminatory law. The number of fathers who were entrusted with children increased in most societies. It also increased the number of cases in which children were entrusted both parents.

Psychosociology researches show that although this variant is preferred by a growing number of couples who divorce, the effects on children can often be negative. Most divorce regulations establish the

obligation of both parents to contribute to childcare. Typically, this is done by paying alimony. The refuse to help cover childcare costs is punishable by law.

Most marriages are based on community of goods. During divorce law decide on the division of assets; the house, usually is given to the parent to whom are assigned the children.

Divorce involves major changes in all family functions. The economic, solidarity and social functions know a destructuring, or in couples with children, a resizing of mostly negative. Divorce has as a first effect the family loss of psychoaffective function, weakening or breaking formal and informal relationships between partners (Iluț, 2005).

Another effect caused by divorce is the fact that parental responsibilities are redistributed and taken entirely by the partner to whom was entrusted the minor. Although the divorce has negative effects on children, there are situations where the negative effects on the minors are offset by beneficial effects (eg in situations where a parent is aggressive, alcoholic etc.).

Some authors make an association between divorce and the pain that it implies it. Losing a partner through divorce was often compared to loss through death. The pain that accompanies divorce can lead to depression and prolonged anomie in which life seems pointless and everyday tasks become meaningless. It captures the similarity between the feelings of divorcees and widows, although the fact that the partner went willingly will leave some people more humble and divorced more bitterness than support generally the widows. The divorced are often younger than those widowed, but rehabilitation is complicated in both cases, when strong feelings of anger rejection or guilt persist. (Mitrofan, I., 2003).

At the same time, divorce can have a positive side, which means the release of unhappy or restrictive relationships and thus enabling the individual to build a new life, either alone or with a partner. Whatever the pain felt by one partner, it is appropriate to express freely and escape from oppression, using one of the manifestations of pain: anger, crying etc. An incomplete expression of personal pain can delay rehabilitation and may cause difficulties in relations underlying it.

In the two partners, the consequences of divorce depend on several factors: whether there are children, investment in marriage, by whom and why the divorce was filed, the value of the partners on erotic and marital market, network density of relatives and friends of both spouses. Usually by divorce the children stay with the mother, the material costs are higher for the woman, while psychological costs are higher for male (those who have a high moral sense) (Peretti, Legrand, Boniface, 2001).

According to Offer and VanderStoep (1986) women left alone with children after divorce economic decay, for the following reasons:

- Less ability to gain (during marriage she worked less), and now must deal with children and what will not allow her to engage in two jobs;
- Lack of support from her former husband (many former partner fails to pay the obligations on the growth and childcare);
- Inadequate help from the state, the society as a whole.

Mother feels, almost always, full of responsibilities, because its social role prescribed by the society, is to be the first person to give an account of education and good behavior of the children. Interestingly, in the same register of collective mentality, the father seems to have not too many responsibilities, so long as it is recognized that alimony (how much

there is in relation to the minimum wage) is sufficient to compensate for damages (Vrasmas, 2002).

Researches have found a standard behavior of parents: the mother sacrificing her and the father go to the next family life; mother has no choice, father almost always choose freedom.

Divorce has generally negative consequences also on the divorced parents because it disrupts grandparents - grandchildren relationships, relationships in which has been invested much affection. In addition, the parents of the partners are subjects of the psychological pressure of relatives and acquaintances.

Partners need to understand that although separated, they have debts both to society and to the young offspring, as they normally grow so they can build themselves a normal society.

As support A.Giddens (2001) is extremely difficult to draw a line between social benefits and costs of the high level of divorce. More tolerant attitude means that some couples may end a relationship without face unsatisfactory social ostracism. On the other hand, dissolution of marriage is almost always accompanied by emotional stress and creates financial hardship for one or both sides.

Loss of the marriage would cause difficulties to anyone, even the most powerful man, because it is associated with feelings of failure of desires and expectations taken at the beginning marriage. Bypassing the trauma of divorce can take several months or, in most cases, healing is achieved over several years.

The period of separation (when one partner leaves the family home) and the effective divorce, is marked by the reorganization of the house, one parent must share tasks so to fill the lack of partner and children go through confused, and do not know which is their role in the

family, feel guilty for their parents' divorce, become aggressive with others and with oneself. All these elements are a real challenge for the single parent, especially when he has to solve personal problems caused by divorce (Mitrofan, Ciuperca, 1997).

Another challenge that characterize changes in a family after divorce, are changes in financial status; although specialized studies show that mothers are more likely to go through post-divorce financial crisis, fathers also, sometimes, faced with these financial problems, but are less common, primarily because men scarcely remain child custody and later because all studies show that, in general, men are paid more than women.

There are neglected workplace issues and even living conditions - aspects which amplifies the discomfort of parents and children. Partners who have just come out of a divorce experience negative emotions: anger, anxiety, depression, impulsive behavior, alienation from friends and family group, lower self-esteem (Ghebrea, 2003).

Often, the effects of divorce on parents themselves may take the form of somatic manifestations by problems in the immune system and the resurgence of old diseases.

The general objective that we have proposed has been to detect the mental disorders that appear in order to elucidate the general objective we started from the following *hypothesis*: divorce relationship deeply affects a person's ability of relationship, emotional maturity and self esteem in females who have gone through such a process.

The studied samples

Verification of the hypothesis stated above, imposed choice of two groups of subjects: married women (group FC) and divorced women (group FD) between which to make the necessary comparisons.

Lot FC was composed of 30 married women, aged between 20 and 30 years of Arad. FD Lot included 30 divorced women, aged 20-30 years and having the same area of origin.

Research methodology

To achieve the objectives set and verify the hypothesis we used several scales on self-esteem, marital conflict, emotional maturity and type of relationship.

Kansas Marital Conflict Scale (KMCS)

Was built by K. Eggerman, V. Moxley and WR Schumn and includes three subscales designed to measure the steps of the marital conflict. The first subscale refers to the construction program and has 11 items; the second relates to the dispute or controversy and has 5 items and the third scale refers to the negotiation and has 11 items. In total KMCS has a number of 27 items.

Rosenberg self-esteem scale

This scale was developed initially to measure the overall feeling of personal worth and selfacceptation. The scale includes 10 items with four response options from strongly disagree (1 point) and totally agree (4 points). Items 2, 5, 6, 8, 9 are listed vice versa. The scores may be between 10 and 40; high scores indicate low self-esteem.

Emotional maturity questionnaire Friedman

It was built by Friedman, to measure a person's emotional maturation. The questionnaire contains a number of 25 items, to which the subject must answer yes or no depending on how the statement fits or not stated how he sees things.

Multidimensional questionnaire for relationship

It was developed by Suell (MSQ, 1993) and includes 60 items. This test was developed and validated as a measure of psychological tendencies associated with intimate relationships. The results of this test indicate that the subscale are highly relevant, and are easily reproducible. In addition, it was found that a standardized measurement can be performed on relationship satisfaction, using test subscales. The test has 60 fear, grouped into five 12 subscales, each targeting a particular sector in determining and living an intimate relationship. This addressed issues such as respect for the relationship, concern for the internal control of the relationship, its awareness, motivation to have a relationship, fear of relationships, anxiety associated with involvement in a relationship, assertiveness, depression, monitoring, relationship satisfaction etc.

In the context of psychological measurement Cronbach alpha coefficient is an index that indicates whether the measurement is reliable and whether the scores reflect more true or are related to some errors. A defining feature of the coefficient of consistency is that representing a proportion of the variance, should, in theory, to be between 0 and 1. But in practice may appear true or false scores unobservable and therefore our attempt estimate internal consistenc, to produce unexpected results. "In practice, consistency estimate possible values can be located between minus infinity to 1, rather than 0 to 1" (Nichols, 1999 cited by Popa, 2008).

Table 1
Statistic indices and alpha coefficients for the whole group (N = 60)

	Val. min	Val. max	Average	stand. dev.	Alpha
MSQ	93	174	142.45	15.55	.771
Relation respect	5	16	11.39	2.15	.318
Concern over relationship	4	16	11.97	2.61	.580

Int. Control of the relation	4	16	10.59	2.52	.459
Consciousness of relation	4	16	10.31	2.78	.619
Motivation relationship	4	16	11.78	2.53	.520
Anxiety about the relation	4	16	11.15	2.92	.662
Assertiveness of the relation	4	16	11.76	2.79	.644
Depression	5	16	11.02	2.73	.372
Ext control of the relation	4	16	9.31	2.71	.561
Monitoring the relation	4	16	9.88	2.60	.503
Fear of relation	4	16	10.31	2.55	.410
Satisfaction in the intimate relation	4	16	8.93	2.74	.568
SCALA KANSAS	48	91	67.64	8.08	.652
construction program	8	51	24.10	5.89	.399
dispute	4	16	12.27	3.31	.786
negotiation	14	39	26.18	4.53	.241
ROSENBERG SELF ESTEEM SCALE	14	38	28,87	5,16	.430
EMOTIONAL MATURITY QUESTIONNAIRE FRIEDMAN	4	25	19.40	5.26	.396

In our table we have a good consistency at the relational multidimensional questionnaire ($\alpha = .771$), Scale Kansas measuring marital conflict ($\alpha = .652$), Rosenberg self-esteem Scale ($\alpha = .786$). For questionnaire of emotional maturity Cronbach alpha coefficient is lower ($\alpha = .396$) as the measure of this issue occur some errors. This we interpret as relating to the definition of the term itself and retrieving his emotional maturity in everyday life. Defining emotional maturity differs from one society to another and within the same society from a historical period to another. It could also have occurred errors in translating and adapting the test for a population with Romanian language.

For Kansas Scale measuring marital conflict, internal consistency coefficient obtained from sheep ($\alpha = .652$) falls within the limits specified in the literature (ranging between .64 and .96).

The hypothesis made by us was that divorce deeply affects a person's relationship ability, emotional maturity and self-esteem in females who have gone through such a process.

The averages at the applied scales and the differences between them, with the significance of these differences are shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Statistic indices, differences between averages and their significance in the tests applied to the two groups (CF , N = 30 and FD , N = 30)

	FC				FD				t	p
	min	max	a.s.	Aver.	min	max	a.s.	Aver.		
MSQ	96	174	16.06	141.69	93	173	15.09	143.1	.80	ns
Rel. respect	6	16	2.14	10.95	5	16	2.08	11.81	3.48	.0
Rel preocc.	4	16	2.71	11.34	5	16	2.37	12.56	4.11	.0
Int.control	4	16	2.74	10.58	5	16	2.30	10.60	.67	ns
Conscious.	4	16	3.01	10.28	4	16	2.55	10.34	.193	ns
Motivation	4	16	2.39	11.70	4	16	2.66	11.86	.511	ns
Assertiveness	4	16	2.56	11.08	4	16	3.23	11.21	.381	ns
Anxiety	4	16	2.99	10.59	5	16	2.09	12.84	7.57	.00
Depression	5	16	2.63	10.44	5	16	2.73	11.54	3.51	.00
Ext.control	5	16	2.45	10.32	4	16	2.60	8.39	6.52	.00
Monitoring	4	15	2.34	10.27	4	16	2.78	9.52	2.47	.01
Fear	4	16	2.80	10.40	4	16	2.31	10.64	2.54	.01
satisfaction	4	16	2.75	10.17	4	15	2.19	7.79	8.21	.0
SCALA KANSAS	48	84	8.51	65.95	51	91	7.35	69.21	3.52	.0
Program	8	37	6.86	24.02	13	51	4.85	24.17	.22	ns
Dispute	4	16	3.00	11.34	4	16	3.36	13.13	4.80	.0
Negociation	14	39	5.03	27.12	15	36	3.82	25.32	3.48	.0
SELF EST. SCALE	17	40	5.40	29.99	14	43	.71	7.84	3.62	.0
MATURITY SCALE	12	25	5.19	14.73	4	25	5.33	14.09	1.05	ns

The multidimensional relationship Scale

Although multidimensional relationship scale presents no significant differences between the two groups, however, has some subscales which present differences highly significant. Thus the relationship respect and concern for the relationship differences between the two groups are highly significant at $p = .00$ threshold. This shows that divorced women show greater respect to the relationship, accompanied by a greater concern for their relationships. We interpret this because of the psychotrauma they went through during the relationship. Given these psychotrauma, they are more careful and more concerned with the relationships that they will establish based on respect.

Internal Control subscales relationship, relationship awareness, motivation and assertiveness relationship does not differ significantly between the two groups. This suggests that subjects from the two lots have the same degree of internal control of the relationship and the motivations underlying the relationship are approximately similar. Both are about equally aware of the relationship and the degree of assertiveness in conducting relationship is also similar.

In exchange for anxiety and depression subscales relationship related quotas obtained by divorced women are significantly higher than those of married women (differences significant at $p = .00$ threshold). Divorced women are depressed after breaking a relationship that had a special significance for them at a time. Anxiety can be interpreted in two ways: on the one hand anxiety related to the relationship which was dissolved, and on the other anxiety related to any future relationship that could end up like the first one.

External control and monitoring of the relationship are significantly higher in married women. They fail (probably with external

help, friends, family) to keep the relationship under control and to monitor better than divorced women. These relying only on themselves, they do not look after support in the opinions of people outside who are not really emotionally involved; they analyze the situation more objectively. They have, therefore, a deficit in monitoring the relationship, which gets out of control. Fear subscale relationship, presents significant differences between the two groups (at a threshold of $p = .01$). This fear higher in divorced women we interpreted it on the one hand that as fear resulting from the relationship ended, and on the other hand that fear of any future relationship, at least for a certain period of time. Finally, the last subscale is related to satisfaction in intimate relationships and presents significant differences ($p = .00$) between married and divorced women. The average obtained by divorced women is obviously smaller than that from the other lot as a clear reflection of the lack of satisfaction with family relationships. For a better visualization of differences between the two groups at subscale of multidimensional relationship questionnaire, I played comparative weight averages of the two groups in Figure 1.

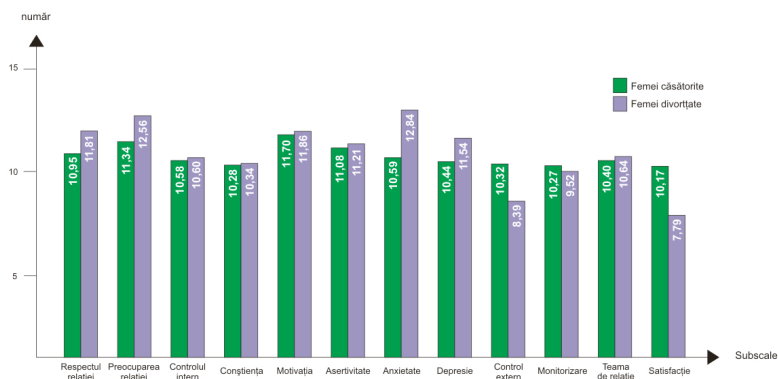


Figure 1 Comparative share of the two sample averages at multidimensional relational questionnaire

Kansas scale measuring marital conflict

This scale presents significant differences between the two groups of subjects, proving that women divorced marital conflict level is significantly higher than for married women.

Not only the overall scale is significant at a significance level of $p = 0.01$, but also two of its subscales namely dispute and negotiation.

Divorced women have a greater share in the dispute and a smaller one at negociere. This fact is a concrete proof that they are involved in several disputes, of higher intensity without the ability to negotiate disputes and conflicts.

Instead, building the program does not differ significantly between the two groups, as a consequence of the fact that in this domain the subjects use similar methods and techniques.

For a better visualization of the results obtained by the two groups in Kansas Scale measuring marital conflict, their configuration is presented graphically in Figure 2.

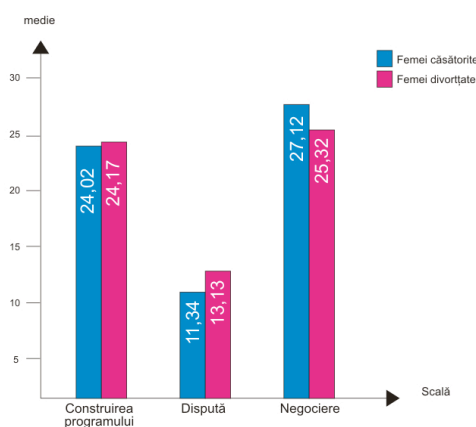


Figure 2 Comparative weight averages of the two groups in Kansas measuring scale marital conflict

Rosenberg self-esteem scale

The scale presents significant differences between the means of the two groups at a significance level $p = .00$, being a reflection of the lower self-esteem of divorced women.

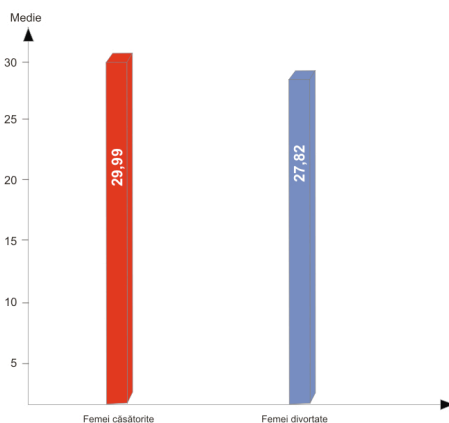


Figure 3 Share of comparative averages of the two samples at Rosenberg self-esteem scale

The reason that divorced women show lower self-esteem than those who are married may arise for several reasons. We must observe the general opinion of society, which still, disregard divorced women. It is normal in this social context, that divorced women feel less self esteem and their accomplishments. The fact that parted partners leads them to believe they are not good enough for them, hence the lower self-esteem. Finally, compared with the ideals and the projects they have proposed themselves from the marriage, now they find that some are not feasible or that have failed all along the line, so lowers self- esteem.

Yet even in the case of divorced women, as an exception, we can meet women who had high self-esteem.

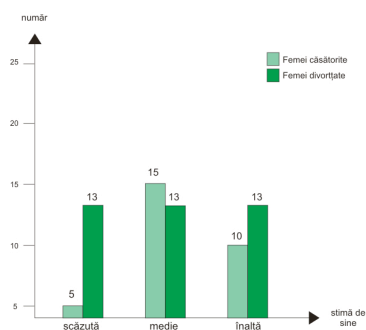


Figure 4. The degree of self-esteem in the two groups (Rosenberg self-esteem scale).

From the figure it is very clear that the majority of women in both groups is in the middle category in terms of self-esteem, that they mean to esteem their own person. However, divorced women presents a greater number of subjects with low self-esteem (11 cases compared to 4 in the case of married women) and a smaller number of subjects with high self esteem (3 cases compared to 8 in the group of married women).

This representation supports, once again, the results of our research, namely that, in general, divorced women have a low self esteem.

Emotional maturity questionnaire

It is the only test that showed no significant differences between the means of the two groups .

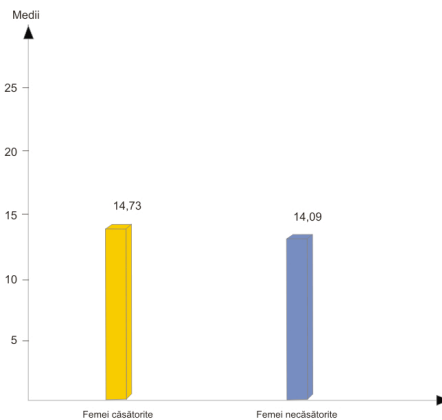


Figure 5 Comparative weight averages of the two groups in emotional maturity questionnaire

The lack of significance of difference between means can be attributed, to the emotional maturity approximately equal to this age group. Do not forget that our subjects were part of the age group 20-30 years, and the way in which the society determine and influence the maturation of young people in this period is approximately the same. Thus is refuted the idea, sometimes circulated in the literature, that divorce is a consequence of lack of emotional maturity. We believe as being more real to establish a causality of a lack of assertive communication.

Correlations

The internal consistency scores in our research indicate relatively small measurement errors. A high internal consistency automatically implies high validity of the instrument. We can say, based on these results that the tests used by us and proved their validity in their application on the groups of subjects studied (this aspect was one of the specific objectives of our research). Finally, high internal consistency indicates that the items are strongly correlated positively with each other,

so the scores refer to one and the same variable (which is affected by the respective scale or subscale).

Table 3

The correlation matrix between the test applied to the FD group (N = 30)

Corelations	Relationship	Kansas Scale	Self esteem	Maturity
Relationship	1.00	.187*	.429**	.135
Kansas Scale		1.00	.290**	.033
Self Esteem			1.00	.081
Maturity				1.00

** p < .01

* p < .05

The evaluation of internal consistency gives us a picture of the size of the sample correlation that it has with other evidence. Any tool is used it can not have a higher correlation with another test that indicated by its own internal consistency. This follows from the matrix of intercorrelations of evidence applied to both groups.

For divorced women group (FD) highly significant correlations were obtained between multidimensional relational scale and self-esteem Rosenberg scale ($r = .429$ at $p < .01$). We must not lose sight of the fact that self-esteem is largely a reflection of the esteem of others to that person, and this depends, in turn, in the ability of the person to relate to the others.

A similar significant correlation has relational multidimensional questionnaire and Kansas measuring scale marital conflict ($r = .187$ at $p < .05$). Interpersonal conflict of any kind, affects the interpersonal relationships. Increased conflictuality of the marital relations for divorced women is closely related to relationship difficulties that they present.

Finally one last significant correlation occurs in the relationship between self-esteem and marital conflict measurements ($r = .290$ at $p < .01$). It seems that the intensity and frequency of marital conflict is directly proportional to lower self-esteem subjects. No wonder, if we think that conflicts are often accompanied by many aftershocks verbal and annoying, derogatory or minimizing the opponent.

Women (in case of divorce) are often made reproaches, in general, on the model: " you are good for nothing ", " you know nothing ", " you do not do anything right ," " you're not able to take something out" etc. Heard daily and repeatedly, these assessments (although inconsistent with reality) get to put their mark on the self-image of the subject and to influence downward toward self esteem.

Conclusions

The maximum number of divorced women is between 22.5 and 27.5 years (22 of the 30 cases studied). Under this age the number of divorced women is lower, probably because the number of marriages at a younger age in the general population is low. Women trying to make a career and profession are postponing marriage date until university graduation.

The number of divorced women dose not present significant differences in the level of schooling. This suggests divorce occurs regardless of the level of education of the partner. In exchange among people with higher education the number of married women is significantly higher than among those with secondary education. This can be interpreted as meaning that, once she completed studies she seeks to achieve the second objective, namely her family foundation, which intends to make it last.

For the subscales respect and concern for the relationship within Multidimensional relation Questionnaire, the differences between the two groups are highly significant at $p = .00$ threshold. This shows that divorced women show greater respect to relationship, accompanied by a greater concern for their relationships.

At the anxiety and depression subscales related to relationship quotas obtained by divorced women are significantly higher than those of married women (differences significant at $p = .00$ threshold). Divorced women are depressed after breaking a relationship that had a special significance for them at a time. Anxiety can be interpreted in two ways: on the one hand anxiety related to the relationship dissolved, and on the other anxiety related to any future relationship that could end up like the first one.

External control and monitoring of the relationship are significantly higher in married women. They fail (probably with external help, friends, family) to keep the relationship under control and to monitor better than divorced women. These relying only on themselves, they do not look after support in the opinions of people outside who are not emotionally involved; they analyze the situation more objectively. They have, therefore, a deficit in monitoring the relationship, which gets out of control.

Kansas scale measuring marital conflict presents significantly differences between the two groups of subjects, proving that in the case of divorced women the marital conflict level is significantly higher than for married women.

Divorced women have a greater share in the dispute and a smaller one at negociere. This fact is a concrete proof that they are

involved in several disputes, of higher intensity, without the ability to negotiate disputes and conflicts.

Rosenberg self-esteem scale presents significant differences between the means of the two groups at a significance level $p = .00$, being a reflection of the lower self-esteem of divorcees women.

The reason that divorced women show lower self-esteem compared to those married can arise for several reasons. One must also consider the general view of society, which still more disregards divorced women. It is normal in this social context, that divorced women feel less esteem for themselves and their accomplishments. In addition, the fact that the partners parted leads them to believe they are not good enough for them, hence the lower self-esteem. Finally, compared with the ideals and the projects they have proposed marriage, now finds that none are achievable, that have failed all along the line, so decreases self esteem.

Emotional maturity questionnaire is the only sample that showed no significant differences between the two groups in average, showing that in our samples, emotional maturity is not related to the effects of divorce on women.

The results recorded in the two groups as the analysis and interpretation of research proved us the utility of the research made. There are significant differences between divorced and married women in terms of self-esteem, marital conflict and ways of relating.

As a result of our research appears that divorced women need to be included in programs of psychotherapy (cognitive behavioral psychotherapy, supportive psychotherapy) and counseling to improve relationship capacity, to increase self-esteem and learn marital conflict management.

Bibliography:

- Ciofu, C., (1989), *Interacțiunea părinți - copii*, Editura Științifică și Enciclopedică, București
- Ciuperca C. (2000), *Cuplul modern: între emancipare și disoluție*, Editura Aramis, București
- Ghebreă, G., (2003), *Regim politic și viață privată (familia și politica familială în România)*, Editura Universitară, București
- Gidens, A., (2001), *Sociologie*, Editura All Beck, București
- Iluț. P., (2005), *Sociopsihologia și antropologia familiei*, Editura Polirom, Iași
- Mitrofan , I., (2002), *Psihologia și terapia cuplului*, Editura Sper, București
- Mitrofan I. (1998), *Cuplul conjugal-armonie și dizarmonie*, Editura All Beck, București
- Mitrofan, I., (coord.), (2003), *Cursa cu obstacole a dezvoltării umane - psihologie, psihopatologie și psihoterapie a copilului și familiei*, Editura Polirom, Iași
- Mitrofan, I., Ciupercă, C., (1997), *Incursiune în psihosociologia și psihosexologia cuplului și a familiei*, Editura Șansa, București
- Offer, D., VanderStoep, E.,(1986), *Indications and Contraindications for Family Therapy*, în Sugar, M., *The Adolescent in Group and Family Therapy*, The University of Chicago Press, pp 145-159.
- Peretti, A. De, Legrand, J.A., Boniface, J., (2001), *Tehnici de comunicare*, Editura Polirom, Iași
- Rime, B., (2008), *Comunicarea socială a emoțiilor*, Editura Trei, București
- Rudică, T., (1990), *Maturizarea personalității*, Editura Junimea, Iași
- Șchiopu, U., Verza, E., (1995), *Psihologia vârstelor (Ciclurile vieții)*, Editura Didactică și Pedagogică, București
- Vrășmaș, E.A., (2002), *Consilierea și educația părinților*, Aramis, București

SCHOOL CLIMATE AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

A.F. Roman

Alina-Felicia ROMAN,

PhD, Professor

“Aurel Vlaicu” University, Arad, Romania

Abstract: The present paper looks at the individual and contextual school related factors that have an influence on the level of tolerance toward ethnic minorities of the Romanian adolescents. The analysis is focusing on the data collected in Arad only, the discussion of the multilevel modelling is describing and bounding the characteristics of individual and school level that shape the level of tolerance of Romanian adolescents. Some of the hindering factors obstructing a true open and inclusive educational system in Romania are discussed. Based on these findings we formulate the implications for the educational policies aimed at increasing intercultural education in Romanian educational system.

Key words: school climate, tolerance, intolerance, intercultural education.

Intercultural attitude and tolerance

Diversity is a fundamental aspect of all societies - it refers to differences that exist between people as individuals but also between different groups. Entering and experiencing intercultural interactions is inevitable. More, this kind of interaction can bring an added value to knowledge and cultural enrichments. Without mutual understanding, differences can generate conflicts that can degenerate into violations of human rights. Thus, intercultural education in particular and school, in general is expected to have an important role in shaping the attitudes of students in order to correctly perceive diversity. In its content,

intercultural education refers to themes as “accepting and participation” and “learning to live together” and how to avoid “stereotypes and prejudices” Also, it seeks to propose solutions for promoting democratic values within the students. Due to the social importance of the abilities to coexist peacefully it is easy to see why intercultural attitude and intercultural education is an important theme, situated at the core of educational policies. Its importance is also reflected in the fact that several European institutions are promoting interculturality, for example, 2008 was the European Year of Intercultural Dialogue – “Together in diversity” in a joint action of the Council of Europe and European Commissions. Thus, research that come to describe the level of interculturality within a society, the facilitating and hindering factors as well as the specific actors that determine a particular situation are very important both for the policy agenda but also for the general public.

Our analyses come to add new evidence in this research field. The added value to the previous research consists in testing if school have a role in shaping the attitudes of students, thus promoting intercultural values. By doing this the intention is to contribute to better understanding the link between school contribution and individual characteristics in shaping individuals attitudes. Not lastly, by disentangling the individual and school influences on students’ attitudes, our analysis offers important evidence in support of effective educational policies promoting intercultural education. Self-knowledge is particularly important in educational and vocational guidance document, assuming self-identification of the following elements of personality: deciphering self-image, identify skills, abilities and skills, interests and motivation. (Costin, 2014, pp.76-82).

In this article we will focus on the role of formal education in shaping the attitudes of students. We ask if schools indeed do have an important role in shaping students attitudes toward other social groups or these attitudes are mainly explained by individual / personal characteristics. In order to answer this question we proceed by restricting the aspects of interculturality by focusing on a single dimension: tolerance or acceptance of the ethnic groups. Our choice is sustained by reports that suggest that in Europe for instance “resistance to multicultural society is shared by an over time rather stable minority of about a quarter of the Europeans, whereas more and more Europeans perceive that the limits to multicultural society have been reached” (Coenders, Lubbers and Scheepers, 2003).

Hypothesis

Formal education is considered is one of the factors that contribute essentially to shaping one’s attitudes (Kalmijn and Kraaykamp, 2007). In the case of teenagers this influence might be even more important since they are enrolled in some form of formal education. However, in the case of teenagers there are no results on how large this influence on their attitudes is. Thus our hypothesis is: do the variation of students attitude toward ethnic groups is explained both by individual characteristics and school ones? If our first hypothesis is confirmed we argue that the difference between schools in shaping students attitudes resides in their capacity to transmit civic and democratic values. We base this argument on previous findings that show a positive relation between class climate and civic knowledge of students (attributes and result of the school environment and participation) to attitudes toward immigrants (Torney-Purta and Winkelfeld, 2008) Consequently we hypothesize that in schools that are perceived as transmitting more effectively democratic

and citizenship values students will have significantly more tolerant attitudes toward ethnic groups.

Methods of study of society fall within the essential paradigm which seeks discovery or share power education personality development (Roman and Dughi, 2007, p.27) which transposes typically defining style and identity or which seeks genuine understanding rational aspects, however, and irrational (Vilfredo Pareto) of human actions.

Data and methods

To test our hypotheses we use the data collected as part of the Civic Education Study of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) (Schulz and Sibberns 2004).

Dependent variable

The dependent variable is the student attitude toward other ethnic groups. This concept was operationalized with a set of items that are summarised:

Attitudes toward other ethnic groups

1. All ethnic groups should have equal chances to get a good education in this country.
2. All ethnic groups should have equal chances to get good jobs in this country.
3. Schools should teach students to respect members of all ethnic groups.
4. Members of all ethnic groups should be encouraged to run in elections for political office.

The measurement scale for the items ranges from 1 to 4, where the 1 value means “strongly disagree” and 4 means “strongly agree”. The factor analysis we performed extracted one factor with eigenvalue higher than 1, and subsequent reliability analysis resulted in an Cronbach alpha

of 0.626. Thus, we computed individual scores for each individual by averaging the scores for the four items, conditioning for at least three of them to have valid values.

Independent variables – school level

We hypothesized that the **values transmitted in school** will shape the attitudes of their students. We mainly referred to civic and democratic values that are a goal in itself of the educational process. These values were measured by a scale composed of the following items:

In this section we would like to know what you have learned in school:

- In school I have learned to understand people who have different ideas.
- In school I have learned to co-operate [work together] in groups with other students.
- In school I have learned to contribute to solving problems in the community [society].
- In school I have learned to be a patriotic and loyal [committed] citizen of my country.
- In school I have learned how to act to protect the environment.
- In school I have learned to be concerned about what happens in other countries.
- In school I have learned about the importance of voting in national and local elections.

Factor analysis performed on these items resulted in one factor extracted, and also the reliability test resulted in a value for Cronbach alpha of 0.772. In order to obtain the school values, we computed the individual scores by averaging the items values for individuals, and then we aggregated these values at each school values, using again the mean.

Our hypotheses imply that the variation in the students attitudes is explained both by individual and contextual factors. Thus, the appropriate method to analyze the data is hierarchical multilevel analysis, which takes into account the nested character of the data: students, who are at the first level of the analysis, are nested in schools, which constitute the second level.

Conclusions

Our analyses have as the most important finding the fact that school is of major importance in shaping students tolerant attitudes. Our arguments in this sense are based on the calculation of the proportional error reduction at individual level and at school level. This measure is similar to R in linear regression - it expresses the proportional error reduction between a certain model and a null one. A higher value indicates that the model explains more of the variation of the independent variable. Our calculation shows that the proportional error reduction between model 5 and null model at individual level is only 6%. However the proportional error reduction at school level is of 30%. Thus we draw two conclusions: on one hand *at individual level there are other relevant variables that can better explain the variation of students' attitudes toward ethnic groups, while at school level we have identified one of the most important characteristics.*

Another conclusion is that the most powerful effects on the variation of students' attitudes toward ethnic groups are *school characteristics and ethnicity*. The rest of the predictors have only moderate / low effects. A surprising result is that students that have parents with university education level prove to be more intolerant than the students with parents with no education. This effect was hypothesised

to be in the opposite direction, and in accordance with a positive effect of educational aspirations of the students.

These main conclusions have an optimistic message for the education policies. On one hand we showed that school can have a significant role in shaping the students tolerant attitudes. But, this capacity is dependent by school's capacity to promote values of citizenship and democracy. Thus, an important accent has to be placed on civic and intercultural education in the school environment. Another positive message that we derive is that when we encountered a negative effect encouraging intolerant attitudes and coming from parents' education level, the educational aspirations of the students can compensate and hinder this influence. Thus it is of equally importance for educational policies to promote educational aspirations, to encourage and sustain high educational attainment among the students.

Bibliography:

- Coenders, M., Scheepers, P., (2003), The Effect of Education on Nationalism and Ethnic Exclusionism: an International comparison, *Political Psychology* 24(2): 313 - 343.
- Costin, A., (2014), *Aspecte privind protecția copilului în regim rezidențial*, Editura Pro Universitară, București
- Du Bois, W. E. B. and B. Hayes Edwards (2007), *The Souls of Black Folk*. Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Hello, E., P. Scheepers, et al. (2006), Why the more educated are less inclined to keep ethnic distance: An empirical test of four explanations, *Ethnic and Racial Studies* 29(5): 959-985.
- Kalmijn, M. and G. Kraaykamp (2007), Social stratification and attitudes: a comparative analysis of the effects of class and education in Europe, *British Journal of Sociology* 58(4): 547-576.
- Roman, A., Dughi, T., (2007), *Elemente de psihologia educației*, Editura Universității Aurel Vlaicu, Arad.
- Schulz, W. and Sibberns, H. (2004) *IEA Civic Study Technical Report*, Amsterdam: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement

THE CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE MEANING OF LIFE, DEPRESSION, STRESS AND ANXIETY AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

V. Bas, E. Hamarta, O. Koksal

Veysi BAS,

Res. Assist,

Necmettin Erbakan University Ahmet Kelesoglu, Turkey

Erdal HAMARTA,

PhD, Assoc. Prof.

Necmettin Erbakan University Ahmet Kelesoglu, Turkey

Onur KOKSAL

PhD, Assist. Prof

Necmettin Erbakan University Ahmet Kelesoglu, Turkey

Abstract: The purpose of the present research is determining whether the meaning of life, depression, stress, and anxiety among university students are correlated; and whether the meaning of life predicts depression, stress, and anxiety. The universe of the present research is the students of Necmettin Erbakan University, Ahmet Kelesoglu Faculty of Education. The work group is 320 students selected among the universe via random cluster sampling method. As data collection tools, Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS) developed by Lovibond and Lovibond (1995), and adapted to Turkish by Akin and Cetin (2007); “The Meaning in Life Questionnaire” (MLQ) developed by Steger et al. and adapted to Turkish by Akin and Tas (2011); and information form developed by the researchers were used. The transfer of the data into computer is on-going; and correlation and regression analyses were used in data analysis. We found a significant correlation between meaning of life, and depression, anxiety, and stress among the university students in the work group. The meaning of life of university students in the work group predicts depression, anxiety, and stress at a significant level.

Key Words: Meaning of Life, Depression, Stress, Anxiety

Introduction:

There are many definitions of the meaning of life in the literature (Yalom, 2001; Quinn, 2002; Eaglaton, 2007; Arda, 2011; Frankl, 2012; Goka, 2013). However, finding a common agreement on the definition of the meaning of life doesn't seem possible. It is possible to claim that the number of the definitions of the meaning of life is equal to the number of people on the earth. Because, even though religions-beliefs, ideologies, movements etc. present common grounds related to the meaning of life in general, each person experiences these common grounds individually basically. This experience is private and subjective (Bas, 2014). Therefore, even presenting an objective meaning of life seem possible notionally; it is not possible in practice. "A satisfactory written answer to the question of meaning of life has achieved to flee from the understanding of the all great philosophers" (Yalom, 2001: 661). Still, there are many explanations on how to define the meaning of life in the literature. The meaning of life is maybe not a purpose went after or a pile of reality scanned through; it is the thing that finds noise in the exact acquisition of living or a certain life style. Consequently, the meaning of a narration is not just the end or purpose of it, but the own process of narration (Eaglaton, 2007: 50).

Life has not one but many meanings including the private and unique meanings in my own life. There is no constant meaning in life; the meaning can always change, but never disappears. According to Frankl's understanding, the real meaning of life is not within the individual, but in the outer world. People need to exceed themselves, be in search to find the meaning; and they already have the appropriate structure (Goka, 2013: 114-128).

According to Mckenzie, making of a meaning to life is an interpretative approach that determines an individual's attitude towards their existence and reality in the world. Someone who determines their attitude towards this reality will pursue their life in this direction. They will shape their lives and behaviours, and determine their principles accordingly. Therefore, making of a meaning for life includes the values that are the primary principles that direct their behaviours and belief related confirmations (Cited in: Akıncı, 2005: 11). The meaning of life changes from person to person constantly. For this reason, defining the meaning of life via general terms is impossible. Questions related to the meaning of life related cannot be answered with general expressions. The meaning of life varies from person to person, from day to day, from hour to hour. What is important therefore is not the meaning of life in general, but the special meaning of the life of a person in a certain time (Frankl, 2012: 93-122-123).

According to Yalom (2001: 664), there are two types of meaning of life.

- *The cosmic meaning of life;* is said to be in western Jewish-Christian religious tradition that, it is based on a comprehensive meaning schema in which the world and human life are a part of plan ordered by the God, human life should be devoted to the effort to resemble the God, the God represents the perfect, and therefore, the purpose of life is struggling for perfection.
- *The terrestrial meaning of life;* Yalom mentions some factors that will make life meaningful (except for the religion) instead of a certain definition, while he tells us about the terrestrial meaning of life. These are altruism, devotion to a cause, creativity, and self-actualization (explanation related to these concepts will be

provided in the section on the sources that give meaning to life). Giving meaning to life refers to finding satisfactory answers to the questions related to the world an individual lives in and the creation around them (Akinici, 2005: 7).

Finding meaning in life is correlated negatively or positively with mental health in the general sense, and depression, anxiety, and stress in the specific sense, which has been revealed by many researches. In general terms, the existence of a meaning in life is an important factor for the positive mental states of humans such as; hope and satisfaction with life (Ryff, 1989), psychological well-being (De Klerk et al. 2009), positive mental health (Zika and Chamberlain, 1992). Additionally, there are many researches that found negative correlations between the existence of the meaning with depression and anxiety (Ryff, 1989; Zika and Chamberlain, 1992; Mascaro and Rosen, 2005), depression (Zika and Chamberlain, 1992; Mascaro and Rosen, 2005), depression and psychopathological tendencies (Arda, 2011).

Previous researches have found correlations between the absence of meaning in life and stress, burnout, and suicidal ideation (Harlow, Newcomb and Bentler, 1986), neuroticism (Jaarsma et al., 2007), self-alienation and openness to external effects (Akin and Tas, 2011), alcoholism, substance dependence, and neuroticism (Jaarsma et al., 2007), and pathology and anxiety (Zika and Chamberlain, 1992).

Depression is a condition that reveals with some emotional, mental, behavioural, and physical symptoms. The most prominent symptom is collapsed mood, and apparent decrease of interest and pleasure. A depressed individual is unhappy, pessimistic, and hopeless sensually. They cannot even enjoy what they used to love. Depression is a psychological disorder, which is common among

children, adolescents, adults, and old. It occurs as a combination of worry, loneliness, anger, insignificance, hopelessness, nervousness, and guilt along with some physical symptoms (Sharp and Lipsky, 2002). Anxiety and depression have some common symptoms, and they differ with specific features. General restlessness, and negative affection are common symptoms of anxiety and depression, but over-stimulation physiologically is specific to anxiety, while absence of positive affection is specific to depression (Brown, Chorpita, Korotitsch and Barlow, 1997). Depression is one of the most common psychological disorders among young people, that causes serious disorders in psycho-social and academic functions, and prevents overcoming developmental problems. Depression can occur among adolescents in the same way with adults, or it can be masked by period-specific problems such as anti-social behaviours and learning disability (Kaya, Genc, Kaya, Pehlivan, 2007).

Anxiety is a warning for 'being alert'. It is a reaction to an inner, uncertain or based on an inner conflict threat. Anxiety is a feeling of fear or worry that is difficult to define. This feeling can be accompanied by a number of sensations in the body. Sensations such as the sense of chest tightness, heartthrob, sweating, headache, hollow feeling in the stomach and immediate need to go to toilet can be examples. Restlessness and need to wander around are also among the most common symptoms of anxiety. Experiencing of anxiety without the existence of a concrete threat in a frequent and immense manner, and its affecting the daily of the individual indicate the anxiety disorder (Turkcapar, 2004). Anxiety is mentioned in psychoanalysis as the most excruciating feeling that an individual can experience and the function of ego. According to Freud, anxiety contributes the functions of warning individuals against the

threats from the physical or social environment, necessary adaptation, and maintaining life. On the other hand, like neurotic anxiety, anxiety loses the function of helping adaptation if it turns out to insubstantial and illogical; and becomes the source of abnormal behaviours (Gectan, 2008). The anxiety experienced occasionally by everyone in daily life is realistic anxiety. It is equal to the sense of fear. It differs from neurotic anxiety by being rational and understandable. On the other hand, neurotic anxiety, without a reason as a phobic reaction to a harmless object is always irrational. In general, anxiety is a common symptom of both anxiety disorders and depressive disorders (Chorpita and Barlow, 1998).

Stress is the condition of nuisance and uneasiness that is felt as a result of events encountered in daily life and the pressure in human relations. Even stress can have positive features in such that individuals feel excited rather than nervous, and perceive it a problem that needs to be solved; it is defined as a threat against physical and psychological wellbeing and life quality. Stress is a complicated issue, but it is generally defined as a physical, mental or emotional reaction caused by the reactions of individuals to environmental tensions, conflicts, pressures and similar stimulants (Newbury-Birch and Kamali, 2001). According to Lazarus, stress occurs when individuals understand that they cannot cope with the requirements of an external condition (Cassim, 2013). Stress is defined as a bodily reaction to a nonexclusive volition loaded on the body. Stress may cause us experience positive or negative feelings. Stress is a concept that has affects individuals, and their behaviours and relations with other individuals. Stress is not a condition that occurs for no reason or spontaneously. Stress occurs when the changes in the environment affect the individuals (Guclu, 2001).

Stress is a concept that includes both stimulant, and behaviour, and the interaction between these two. Additionally, stress is an adaptive behaviour presented via individual differences and/or psychological process, and occurs as a result of the reaction on the organism of an environmental act, condition or event that creates a psychological and/or physical over pressure. The evaluation of human perceptions and experiences underline the stress, and giving meaning to, evaluating and leading experiences are the main factors in increasing or decreasing stress (Kaya, Genc, Kaya, Pehlivan, 2007). Stress is frequently associated with feelings of anger, anxiety, and depression.

The purpose of the present research is examining the correlations between the meaning of life and depression, anxiety and stress among university students, revealing the predictor correlations between the meaning in life (the Presence of Meaning in Life, and the Search for Meaning in Life), and depression, anxiety, and stress, and examining whether meaning in life, depression, anxiety and stress varies by gender.

1-Is there a significant correlation between meaning in life (presence, search), and depression, anxiety, and stress among university students?

2- Does meaning in life (presence, search) among university students predict depression, anxiety, and stress at a significant level?

Method

Participants

The present research adopted relational screening model. Work group of the research is formed by 237 female, 83 male; a total of 320 university students (age average: 20.75) who were selected via random cluster sampling method among students who study in the province of Konya and voluntarily participated in the research. The data of the present research were collected in October, 2013.

Data Collection Tools

1. Personal Information Form

Personal Information Form used in the present research was developed by the researchers in order to collect information on the socio-demographic features of the participants.

2- The Meaning in Life Questionnaire (MLQ)

MLQ was developed by Steger et al. (2006) and adapted to Turkish by Akin and Tas (2011). The questionnaire consists of 10 items and two sub-dimensions. Internal consistency reliability coefficients of MLQ were calculated as .77 for the Presence of Meaning in Life sub-scale, .83 for the Search for Meaning in Life sub-scale, and .81 for the whole scale. Test-retest reliability coefficients obtained with a 4-week interval were calculated as .89 for the Presence of Meaning in Life sub-scale, .92 for the Search for Meaning in Life sub-scale, and .94 for the whole scale. These findings indicate that Turkish version of MLQ is a valid and reliable measurement tool (Tas, 2011).

3- Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS)

DASS was developed by Lovibond and Lovibond (1995), and adapted to Turkish by Akin and Cetin (2007). The scale consists of 42 items and three sub-dimensions (depression, anxiety, and stress).

The adaptation study was conducted on 590 university students, 121 teachers of English, and 136 individuals who had applied to clinics and psychological counselling centres because of emotional problems. Factor analysis resulted in that scale consisted of three factors as the original form, and factor loads ranged between .39 and .88. Discriminant validity results showed that scale discriminates between clinical and normal sample. Concordance validity scores of DASS respectively were .87 and

.84. Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficient of the scale was calculated as .89; and item total correlations were found to be between .51 and .75. Test-retest reliability score, and split-half reliability score of the scale were found as .99 and .96. These findings show that, DASS is a highly reliable and valid scale (Akin and Cetin, 2007).

Data Analysis

Pearson product moment multiplication correlation coefficient was calculated in order to determine whether the correlation between meaning in life (presence-search) and depression, anxiety, and stress was significant; and multiple regression analysis was conducted in order to determine whether meaning in life predicted depression, stress, and anxiety.

Findings

Table 1

The Correlation between the meaning in Life (Presence-Search) Depression, Anxiety, and Stress.

	Depression	Anxiety	Stress
Presence of Meaning	-.498 (**)	-.272(**)	-.317(**)
Search for Meaning	.126(*)	.131(*)	.122(*)

****.** $p < .01$, ***** $p < .05$

There are medium level negative significant correlations between *presence of meaning in life*, and depression and stress; and there is low level negative significant correlation between *presence of meaning in life*, and anxiety ($p < .01$).

There are low level positive significant correlations between *search for meaning in life* and depression, anxiety, and stress ($p < .05$).

Table 2

Regression Analysis Results Related to the Meaning in Life's
(Presence-Search) Strength of Predicting Depression

	R	R ²	R ² _{ch}	F	β	t
Presence	.510(a)	0.260	0.255	55.625	-0.494	-10.221
Search					0.109	2.245

The regression analysis conducted for the meaning of life (presence-search) predicting depression revealed that, meaning of life is correlated with depression ($R=.510$, $F=55.625$, $p<.05$) and the meaning in life (presence-search) can explain the 26% of the variance in depression, and presence of meaning ($\beta= -0.494$), and search for meaning ($\beta= 0.109$) are important indicators of depression.

Table 3

Regression Analysis Results Related to the Meaning in Life's
(Presence-Search) Strength of Predicting Anxiety

	R	R ²	R ² _{ch}	F	β	t
Presence	.297(a)	0.088	0.083	15.383	-0.267	-4.984
Search					0.121	2.259

The regression analysis conducted for the meaning of life (presence-search) predicting anxiety revealed that, meaning of life is correlated with anxiety ($R=.297$, $F=15.383$, $p<.05$) and the meaning in life (presence-search) can explain the 8% of the variance in anxiety, and presence of meaning ($\beta= -0.267$) and search for meaning ($\beta= 0.121$) are important indicators of anxiety.

Table 4

Regression Analysis Results Related to the Meaning in Life's
(Presence-Search) Strength of Predicting Stress

	R	R ²	R ² _{ch}	F	β	t
Presence	.336(a)	0.113	0.108	20.230	-0.314	-5.924
Search					0.112	2.108

The regression analysis conducted for the meaning of life (presence-search) predicting stress revealed that, meaning of life is correlated with stress ($R=.336$, $F=20.230$, $p<.05$) and the meaning in life (presence-search) can explain the 11% of the variance in stress, and presence of meaning ($\beta= -0.314$) and search for meaning ($\beta= 0.112$) are important indicators of stress.

Discussion

The present research found significant negative correlations between presence of meaning in life and depression, stress, and anxiety. In other words, the presence of meaning lowers depression, stress and anxiety levels. Findings obtained in the present research are in agreement with the findings of the similar researches in the literature. These researches found positive significant correlations between presence of meaning in life and many different conditions/variables such as; hope and satisfaction with life (Ryff, 1989), life satisfaction (Tas, 2011), psychological wellbeing (De Klerk et al. 2009), positive mental health (Zika and Chamberlain, 1992), problem oriented overcoming, life quality (Arda, 2011), two sub-dimensions of indomitableness; personal strengths on resilience and positive self-evaluation (Demirbas, 2010), psychological wellbeing, positive personality features such as

extroversion, adaptability, honesty (Jaarsma et al. 2007), authentic life (Akin and Tas, 2011), and job satisfaction (Bektas, 2012).

The findings of the present research presented positive significant correlations between search for meaning in life and depression, stress, and anxiety. Similarly, the previous researches in the literature found correlations between absence of meaning in life and many conditions/variables. These researches found negative correlations between absence of meaning in life and stress, burnout and suicidal ideation (Harlow, Newcomb and Bentler, 1986), neuroticism (Jaarsma et al., 2007), self-alienation and openness to external effects (Akin and Taş, 2011), alcoholism, substance dependence, and neuroticism (Jaarsma et al., 2007), and pathology and anxiety (Zika and Chamberlain, 1992). Many researches have been conducted that found negative correlations between meaning in life and many conditions/variables. According to these researches, meaning in life is negatively correlated with depression and anxiety (Ryff, 1989; Zika and Chamberlain, 1992; Mascaro and Rosen, 2005), depression (Zika and Chamberlain, 1992; Mascaro and Rosen, 2005), and depression and psycho-pathological tendencies (Arda, 2011).

The presence of meaning in lives of individuals is closely related with overcoming psychological problems such as depression, stress and anxiety; and in general terms, psychological wellbeing. Presence of factors that give meaning to life enables individuals to overcome problems such as depression, stress, and anxiety.

Conclusion and Suggestions

The present research found that meaning in lives of the university students in the work group is correlated with depression, anxiety, and stress at a significant level. The meaning in lives of the university

students in the work group predicts depression, anxiety, and stress at a significant level.

Considering the correlation between meaning of life and depression, anxiety and stress, educational activities and programs can be organized in order to increase the present meaning in life.

The present research is limited to university students. Further researches on the subject matter can be conducted on different and larger groups.

Bibliography:

- Akın, A., Taş, İ. (2011), The validity and reliability of the Turkish Version of the Meaning in Life Questionnaire. Paper presented at *the 3rd International Congress of Educational Research*, May, 4-7, Antalya, Turkey.
- Akıncı, A., (2005), Hayata anlam vermede dinî değerlerin ve din öğretiminin rolü, *Değerler Eğitimi Dergisi*, 3 (9), 7-24.
- Arda, Ş., (2011), *Kanser Hastalarında Yaşamda Anlamın İncelenmesi*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İstanbul Üniversitesi, İstanbul.
- Baş, V (2014) *Üniversite Öğrencilerinde Değerler ve Yaşamın Anlamı Arasındaki İlişki*, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Necmettin Erbakan Üniversitesi, Konya.
- Bektaş, A. (2012). *Yöneticilerin İş Tatmini ve Motivasyon Düzeylerinin Yaşam Anlamı Düzeyi Üzerindeki Etkisi*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Maltepe Üniversitesi, İstanbul.
- Brown, T. A. , Chorpita, B. F., Korotitsch, W., Barlow, D. H. (1997). Psychometric Properties of The Depression Anxiety Stress Scales (DASS) In Clinical Samples. *Behav. Res. Ter.*, Vol. 35, No. 1, pp. 79-89, 1997.
- Cassım, L. (2013). Optimal Health and Postgraduate Study: A Focus on Wellness, Stress Management and Pharmaceutical Services. *Second National Postgrad Development İmbizo*, Ppt.
- Chorpita, B. F. , Barlow, D. H., (1998), The Development of Anxiety: The Role of Control in the Early Environment. *Psychological Bulletin* 1998, Vol. 124, No. 1, 3-21.

- De Klerk, J.J., Boshoff, A.B. ve Wyk, R.V., (2009), Measuring Meaning in Life in South Africa: Validation of an Instrument Developed in the USA. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 39 (3), 314-325.
- Demirbaş, N.,(2010), *Yaşamda Anlam ve Yılmazlık*, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Ankara.
- Eaglaton, T., (2007), *The Meaning of Life a Very Short Introduction*. Oxford University Press.
- Frankl, V. E., (2012), *İnsanın Anlam Arayışı (7.Baskı)*. İstanbul: Okuyanus.
- Geçtan, E., (2002), *Psikanaliz ve Sonrası* , Metis Yayınları, 2008, On Üçüncü Basım, İstanbul.
- Göka, E., (2013), *Hayatın Anlamı Var mı?* İstanbul: Timaş Yayınları.
- Güçlü, N., (2001), Stres Yönetimi. G.Ü. Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi Cilt 21, Sayı 1 (2001) 91-109.
- Harlow LL, Newcomb MD, Bentler PM. (1986) Depression, self-derogation, substance use, and suicide ideation: lack of purpose in life as a mediational factor. *Journal of Clinical Psychology* 42(1):5-21.
- Jaarsma, T. A., Pool, G., Ranchor, A. V. ve Sanderma, R. (2007) The Concept and Measurement of Meaning in Life in Dutch Cancer Patients. *Psycho-Oncology*, 16, 241-248.
- Kaya, M. , Genç, M. , Kaya, B. , Pehlivan, E. (2007). *Tıp Fakültesi ve Sağlık Yüksekokulu Öğrencilerinde Depresif Belirti Yaygınlığı, Stresle Başa Çıkma Tarzları ve Etkileyen Faktörler*. Türk Psikiyatri Dergisi 2007; 18(2): 137-146
- Mascaro, N. ve Rosen, D.H. (2005) Existential Meaning's Role in the Enhancement of Hope and Prevention of Depressive Symptoms. *Journal of Personality*, 73, (4), 1467-1494.
- Newbury-Birch, D., Kamali F., (2001), Psychological stress, anxiety, depression, job satisfaction, and personality characteristics in preregistration house officers. *Postgrad Med J* 2001;77:109–111.
- Quinn, P. L., (2002), *Dünya Dinlerinde Hayatın Anlamı* (Der. Runzo, Joseph, Nancy, Martin M., Çev. Gamze Varım). İstanbul: Say Yayınları.
- Ryff, C. D. (1989) Happiness is everything, or is It? Explorations on The Meaning of Psychological Well Being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57, 1069-1081.
- Sharp, L. K. Ve Lipsky, M. S. (2002). Screening for Depression across the Lifespan: A Review of Measures for use in Primary Care Settings. *Am Fam Physician* 2002, Vol. 66, No. 6, 1001-1008.
- Taş, İ. (2011), *Öğretmenlerde Yaşamın Anlamı Yaşam Doyumu Sosyal Karşılaştırma ve İç-Dış Kontrol Odağının Çeşitli Değişkenler*

- Açısından İncelenmesi*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Sakarya Üniversitesi, Sakarya.
- Türkçapar, H., (2004), Anksiyete Bozukluğu ve Depresyonun Tanısal İlişkileri. *Klinik Psikiyatri 2004;Ek 4:12-16*.
- Yalom, I. (2001), *Varoluşçu Psikoterapi* (Çeviri: Zeliha İyidoğan Babayiğit), İstanbul: Kabalcı Yayınevi.
- Zika, S. ve Chamberlain, K. (1992), On The Relation Between Meaning in Life And Psychological Well-Being. *British Journal of Psychology*, 83, 133-145.

PARENTAL COUNSELING AND THE EDUCATION OF CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

T.Dughi, D., Dughi, M. Juncu

Tiberiu DUGHI,

PhD, Assoc. prof.

“Aurel Vlaicu” University Arad

Dana DUGHI,

PhD student,

“Sfânta Maria” Special High School Arad

Maria JUNCU,

teacher,

“Aurel Vlaicu” Technical High School, Arad.

Abstract: The education of children with SEN requires a multidisciplinary as well as a multidirectional response, the independence at various levels can only be achieved under these conditions. Family involvement in this process is essential. Therefore we believe that attending a counseling program, parents of children with SEN will get efficient attitudes and educational skills, related to the needs of their children. The study made on a group of 30 parents of enrolled children in a special school, highlights both the children educational needs and changes in parents educational conduct.

Key words: parental counseling, children with special educational needs, education, autonomy

1.1. Introduction

Given the complex reality of the education of children with SEN, a reality that requires not only providing information and acquiring skills, but also needs specialized involvement in order to acquire autonomy, it is required that parents should be involved in this process. As a

consequence of this situation, they also need counseling. The premises of this counseling approach are the following (Dughi, T. 2014) :

- the relationship between counseling members - counselor and counselee (which can be an individual, a dyad, a small group or a large group) - a relationship that aims to identify and mobilize the resources of the counselee, with respect to the development of autonomy in adaptation and integration; the basic feature of the relationship is the alliance and collaboration;

- the counseling content - troublesome situations - given the fact that we define the problem as a conflicting situation caused by the difference between what somebody can or thinks she/he can to achieve and what is required to achieve; the answer will lead to self-discovery, self-awareness, balance, acceptance, development, self-determination;

- the dynamic nature of counseling – the relation is dynamic, goal-oriented and purposeful active, both the counselor and the counselee should have proactive behavior, to use all their resources and bear personal responsibility for their own actions.

1.2. Defining the terms

The concept of “special educational needs” intends to overcome the traditional classification of children into different categories of disabilities/ handicap, using a “no-category” approach for all children. This collocation outlines a sequel of special problems in the educational system, from serious disabilities to mild learning disabilities /disorders. Disabled/Handicapped children have the same basic needs as all the other children: they need affection and security, self-confidence, responsibility and independence, etc. However, they have at the same time, some particular, special needs. Another synonymous expression used for

"special educational needs" is "special requirements / special needs", a collocation which has an extensive meaning, including not only children with learning disabilities or disorders, but also children coming from different social classes and unprivileged families, delinquent children or sometimes children coming from certain ethnic groups. (Dughi, T., Roman, A., 2008)

The modern use of counseling and guidance cannot ignore parents and family involvement. The family along with school plays a key role in developing and maintaining the wellbeing and the bio-psycho-social balance, so necessary to any human being. In most situations, the family is the major landmark in shaping a certain career option for children. Parents are children's primary and most powerful source of learning, emotional support and security. Family may be or may become for a child, an element in developing the personality, a role model to imitate, a stronghold or a battlefield, an area of aggressive narrow-mindedness, stubbornness and monarchy (M. Jigău, 2001).

The major role of school is to support families, so that they trust their own resources and deal with the difficulties they face. The family involvement in improving the education of children with SEN has led to many positive changes, often in radical approaches. In Romania, the families and associations of persons or parents of children with disabilities have contributed substantially, especially after 1990, to the enactment of some actions aimed to improve the quality of schooling for children with SEN. One of the most important tasks of the counselor is to liaise the school - family relation. This requires the existence of a strong relation, based on trust and mutual respect, honesty and good communication.

Parental counseling activities will result in a better understanding and knowledge of the child; in building and developing a positive perception of the personality traits of the child, a perception based on a more efficient apprehension and understanding of the child's behavior; in acquiring educational skills to stimulate the ability to socialize of the child; in getting a good balance between parental educational tasks and looking after the child; in using non-violent strategies to manage the conflicts that may appear; in increasing the children's learning performance; in reducing school absences; in improving child school adjustment; in reducing the risk of having bad behavior. (Dughi, T. 2014)

These aspects will be achieved if parents will manage to acquire minimum of criteria concerning the child, for example: a child needs as much affection, confidence and mental stimulation for his/her psychological development, as he/she needs food for the body; a child has certain rights which should be accepted and respected by society and by parents; a child is a person with special, different character traits in agreement with the age-related development; to educate children means to acquire autonomous behavior, in compliance with the living rules and at the same time personal assertion.

1.3. Objectives and hypotheses of the study

The main objective of the study is to highlight the role of counseling the parents, in order to improve their attitude to educational activity of children with SEN. In this regard, it was designed and implemented an effective counseling working with children program, in order to improve family relationship and the quality of parental educational activity. The objectives of the study are:

- To define the parental involvement in educational activities of a child with SEN;

- To develop and implement an effective counseling program for parents of the children with special educational needs;
- To identify the impact that this program has on the parental educational conduct.

The hypothesis that we relied on is the following: psycho-pedagogical activities of the parents of children with special educational needs, leads to training, improving and developing the best educational behaviors of children with special educational needs.

1.4. Sampling

The target group of this research was composed of 30 adults, fifth grader's parents, children with special educational needs, attending **"Sfânta Maria" Special High School Arad**. The parents come from various social and professional backgrounds and their children have various behavioral traits. In this respect some have mental deficiencies, some have behavioral disorders.

1.5. Case study research instruments

In order to accomplish the study, we applied a 15 items questionnaire (including both closed and open questions) related to the degree of involvement and ways of participation in specific educational activities of children and relationships they develop, as well as and a counseling program for families with children with special educational needs. The program consisted of eight group meetings with parents, during which were applied questionnaires and were performed activities, having topics such as: emotional and intellectual needs of the children, ways to encourage learning, leisure with children, limits and opportunities in the collaborating with school.

1.6. Presenting the results

The questionnaires were applied in two phases, in order to accomplish the case study, before and after attending the program of psycho-pedagogical guidance for parents. The program lasted two months, the second semester of 2013 – 2014 school year. The results presented here are a selection of the data obtained and refers to the attitude of parents towards school and extracurricular learning activities of the child.

How often do you meet the teacher during the school year?

The second question of the questionnaire was aimed to capture how is the parent - teacher relationship, specifically whether there is interest in the activities of the child, the problems that arise during the school year and the needs the child has.

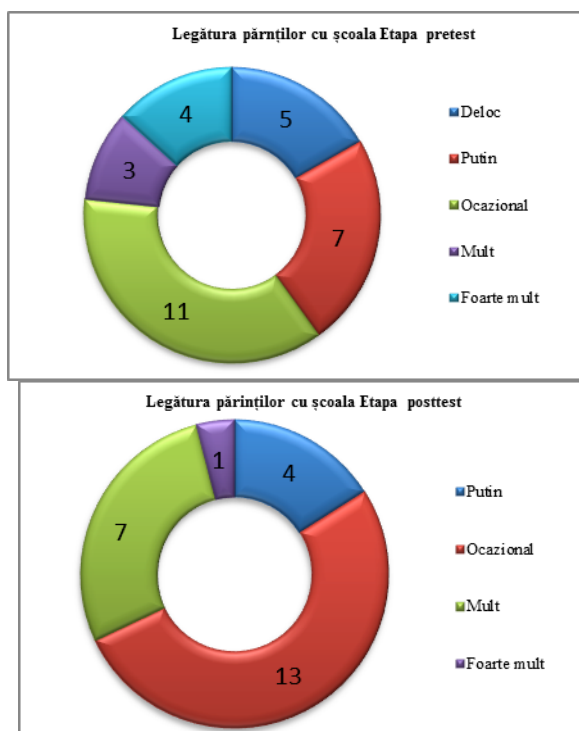


Fig. 1. Charts concerning the frequency of school meetings among parents during the two phases

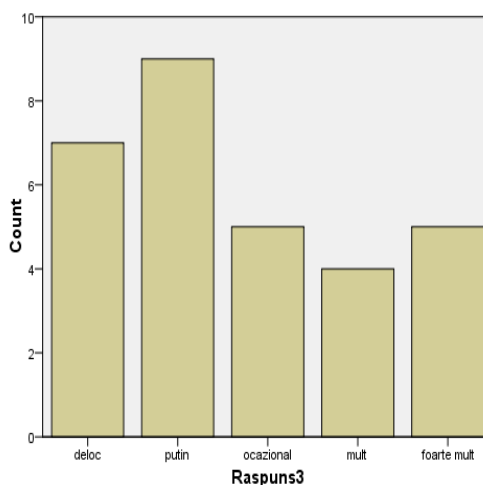
There is a big difference between the answers given before and after the attendance to the pedagogical and counseling program;

First of all, the "*not at all*" answer, wasn't chosen any more after the second phase, which means the parents had changed their attitude towards the child and began to show a greater interest towards the teacher in charge with the child with special educational needs.

The increasing number of "*sometimes*" and "*a lot/ much*" answers suggests a growing interest in the parent – teacher relationship, compared with the answers in the first phase.

Are you interested in your child school activities?

The third question seeks to determine the extent to which the parent is interested in the child's school activities; this is a multiple choice question, with possible five answers: *not at all- little- sometimes- a lot/much-very much*.



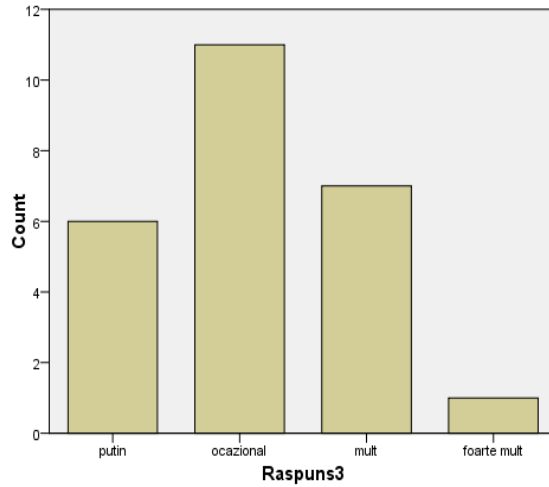
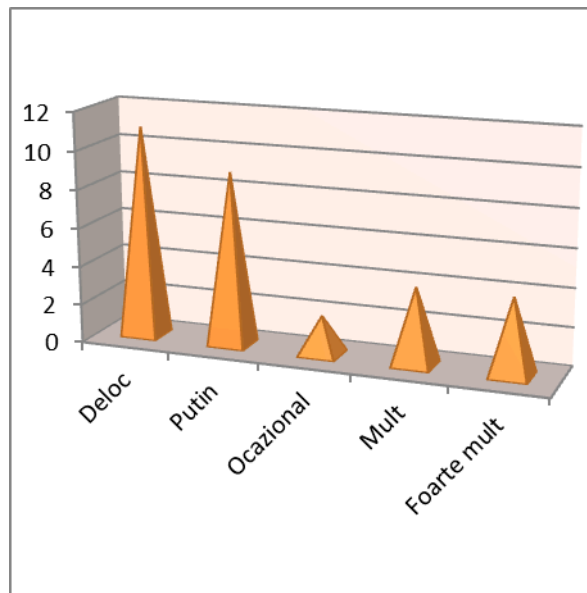


Fig. 2. Comparison charts concerning the parent interest in school activities (before and after the test)

As a result of different answers during the two phases of the research, there is a change of level four. It should be mentioned, that after attending the counseling program, the "not at all" answers was not selected by any of the parents, which shows an improvement of their interest in the activities carried out by the child at the school.

Do you get involved in your child extracurricular activities?



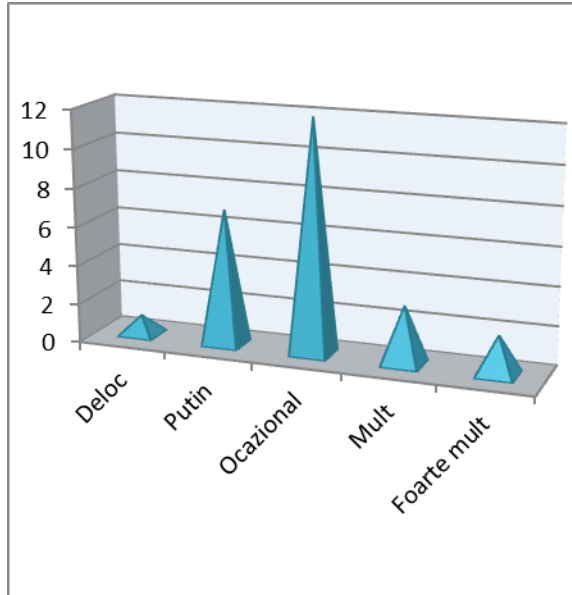


Fig. 3. Comparison charts concerning the parent interest in extracurricular activities (before and after the test)

Comparing the answers during the two phases of the research, there is a big increase, from a low involvement of parents in child school activities, giving the *"not at all"* answer, to choosing, in the second phase, the *"sometimes"* answer; this is just one result of parent participation at the counseling program, which led to a greater concern about the child's extracurricular activities and an improvement of parent-child relationship.

List three of your child's activities in which you have actively involved in.

This is an open question, so the parent could choose the answer; if during the first stage of the research, just a few parents could list three activities of the children, during the second phase the situation changed and each of the respondents listed three activities .

Most parents actively involved in activities celebrating Mother's Day, carnival, open lessons, First of June, special occasions parties

(Christmas party, Easter etc .), doors open Day, they got involved in organizing trips and also in children's recreational activities (games, walks in the park, hiking in nature).

Which are the qualities of your child?

The question allows the parent to say what best fits the child. Parents have described the child as being "good", "obedient", "sociable", "funny", "sensitive", "clever", "generous", "hardworking", "loving", "friendly" "generous", "beautiful". Noteworthy is that, if in the first phase there were three parents stating that the child had no quality, during the second phase there weren't such answers, all parents describing children with affection and warmth; it can be seen an improved parent - child relationship.

What do you expect from your child's teachers? Write them in order of your priorities.

This question intends to outline the essential features that a teacher must possess; it is an open question, to which each parent has the freedom to give the answer considered appropriate.

There were various answers, ranging from focusing on child activities, teaching him/her intellectual skills such as: writing, reading, calculating, playing with him, the teacher should be fair and punctual, should take care of the child, understand his/her affection, should teach only basic skills, should not to be aggressive and establish a friendly relationship, should be communicative.

Most answers have emphasized three key features that teachers should have: understanding, patience, having the ability to educate each child.

Does the child want to perform activities together with the parent?

The question aims to surprise the bond between the child and parent; it also aims to find out to what extent there is a connection and how much the child wants to perform activities with the parent.

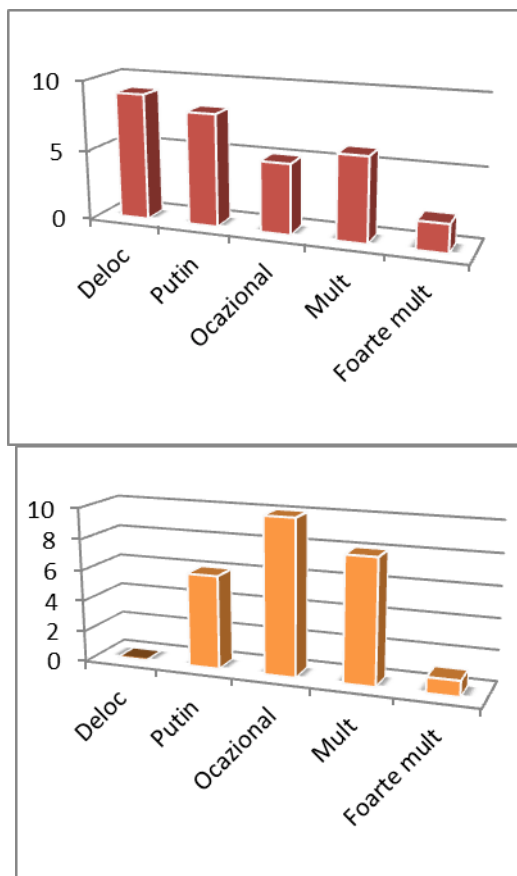


Fig. 4. Comparison charts concerning the child - parent common school activities (before and after the test)

If during the first phase of the research there were "not at all" answers, during the second, this answer was no longer chosen by any parent, which suggest the desire of the child to perform activities together with his/her parent; "sometimes" answer is chosen by many parents in the second phase of the study

Conclusions

Getting the parent more responsible and involved in curricular activities designed to optimize and increase the quality of educational and therapeutic process is necessary and important, both for the child and the teacher. After centralizing and analyzing the data in the questionnaires there were drawn a number of conclusions, all proving the need to implement counseling programs for parents of children with special needs in kindergartens and schools.

The findings show that after taking part in the counseling program, there is an improvement in the parent – child relationship and parent – teacher relationship; the parent has now a close emotional attachment to his/ her child, keeps in touch with teachers, is concerned about evolving capacities of the child, he/she gets involved in school and extracurricular activities of the child; there is a better understanding of the child, the parent's feelings are of warmth, love and friendship.

The counseling situations have made easier the self-knowledge and interrelationship processes, each person enjoying the new relationships established within the group, getting support from the others, taking notice of the favorable, open environment, the trustful climate. These have led to active involvement, exchange of experience and personal sharing. Since the first meeting, it has been taken notice of the effectiveness of these meetings, each member having the feeling that she/he is understood, has felt secure and valued. Now, they feel more confident in relation with the child, they know better his abilities and desires and have learned new ways to overcome certain life situations.

Bibliography:

Dughi, T., (2014), *Consiliere educațională. Abordări aplicative*, Editura Eikon, Cluj-Napoca

Dughi, T, Roman, A., (2008), *Dimensiuni psihologice ale învățării*, Editura Universității Aurel Vlaicu Arad

Jigău, M., (2001), *Consilierea carierei*, Editura Sigma, București

INTERNATIONAL ROMANIAN STUDENTS MIGRATION PATTERNS - A SOCIAL NETWORK ANALYSIS STUDY

L.D.Lăstun, D.A.Banciu

Loredana Denisa LASTUN

Ph.D. student

University of Oradea, Romania

Dan Aurel BANCIU

PhD, Associate professor

Aurel Vlaicu University Arad, Romania

Abstract: Although it is not a new phenomenon, study migration in Romania has been until recent out of the focus of social researcher's interest. Before the revolution of 1989, the direction of study migration was from other countries to Romania, as the Romanian faculties, especially the medicine ones; international students, mainly from Arabic countries appreciated the education offered in Romania. After the revolution, study migration patterns changed and new relations emerged.

Our article main goal is to present a situation of the international Romanian students, according to the European statistics and the official Erasmus programme statistics.

Using Social Network Analysis, we are building maps to study migration patterns, from 2008 until 2013, in an attempt to understand what lies beyond the motivation of Romanian students when they choose a certain country to study abroad.

The results of our study show that there is a clear trend for Romanian students to choose some countries to study in; results that partially confirm the theory behind the study migration, but more research needs to be done and Romanian statistics need to be updated in order to offer a real perspective of this phenomenon.

Key words: international students, mobility, networks

1. General context of the higher education institutions internationalization (HEI's)

In the 21st century, international students' mobility can and must be a main factor in the development of internationalization of the higher education institutions. Beginning from Marshal McLuhan (McLuhan, 1989) idea of a global village, we are now facing the challenges of the world becoming small. As traveling distances became smaller and smaller and technology allows us to minimize distances between people, a new trend emerges to appear people travel farther in pursuing their dreams. Higher education institutions, today, are forced to become aware of their role and identity in the global context, as they are no longer an isolated entity. Challenges of adapting the new education market create an appearance of brittleness through which these institutions can survive only if they manage to develop coherent long time policies.

Over the last fifty years, society's transformation has benefited by the expansion of the educational process. Castles (Castles, 2003) shows that if higher and secondary education were, in 1961, a privilege, today, majority of people graduate high school and one out of three adults has a university diploma. Even more in some countries there are discussions regarding a 50 percent population that might obtain a university diploma.

Following the student's mobility phenomena is not an easy task, as until late 90s there was no standard methodology for collecting data. In order to be able to offer a true overview of these movements consistent data are required.

The 80s represent a moment of change in the history of higher education, as many researchers became interested in the topic and specialty literature began to emerge dealing with different areas of interest, from higher

education system management to the financing of higher education institutions. (Marginson, 2006).

Starting from here, higher education institutions become very important social actors and were investigated from two different points of view: either as international institutions where cosmopolitan values are promoted and mobility and cooperation are encouraged, or as national institutions that create the future national officials. The main idea is that also the whole discourse was about universities, centers of internationalization, international activities were peripheral, higher education institutions needed to form individuals capable to respond to the urgent requests of the society.

2. Internationalization of higher educational institutions

According to Jane Knight's definition, internationalization represents „the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension, in the purposes, functions, or delivery of higher educational services.” More clearly, inserting an international dimension in teaching and researching activities as well as in the functionality of universities is the way internationalization needs to be. (Knight, 1994)

Same author said that an international dimension is, in fact, an overview, an activity, a perspective that inserts an international attitude in higher education institution's activities, but at the same time, she expresses her doubts regarding the long time utility of internationalization if universities tend to consider this as a caprice.

At international level, there is a certain concern regarding the policies that have to be promoted in order to keep the interest for internationalization and to create a culture of internationalization.

Although student's mobility was the focus of internationalization, lately the attention of officials has commute to new strategies that involve personal development, research, curriculum change, quality assurance in higher education.

In our opinion, the main purpose of internationalization is to help the development of individuals capable to evolve and face the challenges of living in a world that is both local and global.

As the globalization accelerates, the internationalization of higher education institutions is a "key" for the formation of individuals capable to understand the complexity of social changes, the accelerate rhythm of this phenomenon and, in the same time, to handle opportunities offered by technology spread.

The renaissance savant Erasmus, whose name is use for the well-known mobility program of the European Union, represents the tradition of studying abroad in Europe, Asia and in The Middle East.

Experiencing a rapid growth, students mobility is a phenomenon that shows people wish to study, to travel, to gain access to knowledge that are beyond their geographical limitation. There were always individuals that pursued their dream of studying in a prestigious university in an attempt of enlarging their education and cultural horizons.

The analysis of statistics and literature shows us that as new countries become interested in the international student's mobility, the dynamic of this phenomenon changes. If in the beginning of international exchanges, it was all about students from countries that do not have strong educational systems migrating to better study opportunities and countries with tradition in higher education simply changing students among them, the direction of migration is now switching to a more equilibrate image.

In the beginning of the twenties century, the countries that attracted the most students around the world were United States of America, United Kingdom, France and Germany, all countries with a long tradition in receiving international students. The landscape is now transforming as new players (like Singapore and Malaysia) emerged on the educational market, offering study opportunities adapted to students and labor market requests. Not being, under these circumstances, constraint to choose only between few prestigious institutions, students forced universities to develop new strategies of attracting them. Countries that were usually receiving destinations for international students are now open to receive students and they are applying new marketing strategies to keep up with the development of new out comers.

Countries that were usually providers of students are becoming slowly destination countries for international students and have to face challenges in order to optimize their educational system to be able to deal with the their own educational needs and international students requests. The development of mobility depends on factors like international prestige of an institution, financial support or the difference between educational systems. In the same time, there are factors that slow mobility, the most important being, in our opinion, the living cost, which in some countries is excessively high for non-residential students. Some states, for reducing the impact of living costs offer financial support, either on limited period of time (one semester) or the whole period of study.

3. International Romanian student's mobility

After the fall of the communist regime, Romania entered in a complex process of transformation, a process that affected every aspect

of the society. As changes begun to occur at all levels, social, economical, political and cultural, the changes in higher educational systems appeared naturally as the society needed individuals capable to think different. It was then obviously that the system needed to change completely. The renew of the educational network had two phases, or better said, people first focused on the elimination of old organizations and contents, considered obsolete and second objective was the construction of a new legal framework capable to offer to young Romanians a better higher educational system. This framework has to respond to the requests of the knowledge society, the European Higher Educational Area (EHEA) and the European Research Area (ERA).

Romanian higher educational institutions try to adapt and fulfill European requests and have developed different strategies in order to align European regulations, such as international students' exchanges, the acceptance of European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), academic staff mobility, etc. Romanian higher education institutions have been, starting with 1991, actively involved in all international exchange programs (TEMPUS, SOCRATES, LEONARDO da VINCI, CEEPUS, etc.).

Interestingly in recent years there has been a dramatic change in Romanian student mobility. In 1998 there were more foreign students enrolled in Romanian universities (13,279) than Romanian students studying abroad (9,247). Since then the number of students coming to Romania has declined slightly before returning to 13,857 in 2008 but the number of students leaving Romania has increased to 24,597.

Romania has become a sending country of international students.¹ Incoming Erasmus students make up a very small 0.1% of all students in Romania, significantly down on the 0.7% European average; incoming

¹ Mapping mobility in European Higher Education, volume 2, 2012

Europe 32 students of all types make up just 0.15% of the student population. By contrast, the outgoing rate of 2.7% of the total number of students is much closer to the European average².

Figure 1 and figure 2 allow us to see the differences between the number of outgoing Romanian students and the number of incoming international students to Romania.³

Figure 1. Number of outgoing Romanian students from 2000 to 2011

Figure 2. Number of international students coming to Romania between 2000 - 2011

2 Ibid

3 Data used in this article were retrieved from the European Union official statistics pages <http://www.statisticsforall.eu/maps-erasmus-students.php>

Looking at this graphics we can see that Romania is mainly a provider of international students for countries with, we can assume, more mature educational systems and better funding opportunities. Using Gephi programme (Bastian, Heymann, & Jacomy, 2009), designed for network visualization and Google Earth we managed to obtain ego - networks of Romanian international students' movements from 2007 to 2013, as those were the years that offered the data we needed.

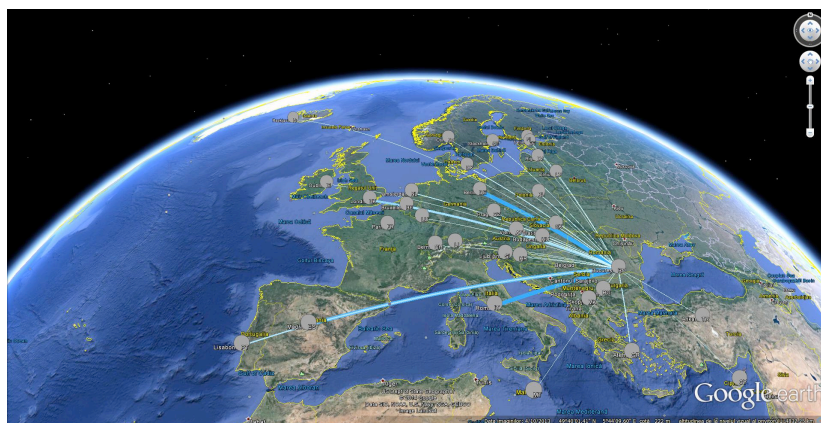


Figure 3. International Romanian student's movements 2007 - 2008

We have created similar maps for each academic year starting with 2007 until 2013, but in order to make our data more clear we have decided to use, in this paper, maps that show only the destination country and the number of students that went in that country.



Figure 4. International Romanian student's movements 2008 - 2009

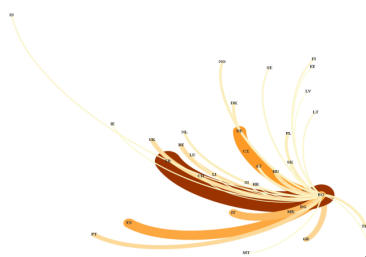


Figure 5. International Romanian student's movements 2009 - 2010

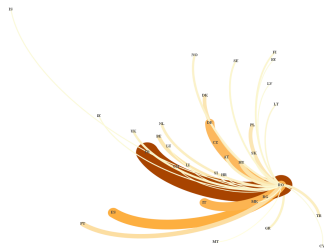


Figure 6. International Romanian student's movements 2010 - 2011

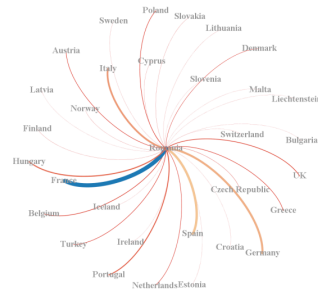


Figure 7. International Romanian student's movements 2011 - 2013



Figure 8. International Romanian student's movements 2012 - 2013

After seeing the resulting maps, it was clear that Romanian students have no restrictions regarding distances they have to go for study. In the academic year 2007 - 2008, main destinations for Romanian students were France (1020 students), Germany (604), Italy (564). In 2008 - 2009, the situation changed a little as a new country appeared as a favorite destination for study Spain (423 students), but main destinations remain unmodified France (1100 students), Germany (478

students), Italy (423 students). For the next four academic years, the situation shows the following:

5. 2009 - 2010 France (1094 students), Germany (532students) and Spain (460 students);
6. 2010 - 2011 France (940 students), Spain (436 students) and Italy (394 students);
7. 2011 - 2012 France (1094 students), Spain (606 students) and Germany (529 students);
8. 2012 - 2013 France (1020 students), Italy (604 students), Germany (564 students) and Spain (563 students).

When it comes to countries that were less attractive for international Romanian students, Liechtenstein had six Romanian students over the period covered by our study, Latvia and Luxembourg; both had only one Romanian student.

When we review our data together with the visualization of networks, a certain pattern begun to emerge, international Romanian students prefer to go study in France, Spain, Italy and Germany. This pattern might be explained by two situations: Italy, France and Spain are Latin countries and languages are similar to Romanian language situation that would help students to cross the language barrier easier; Germany on the other hand, represents a special situation as in Romania there is a large community of German ethnics.

The motivations beyond Romanian international study migration are diverse. Latest research in the field identifies, that the most important factors are academic environment that offers a good educational process and international recognition, better perspectives in finding a job, superior financial stimulation, etc., but in order to have a clear view of this phenomenon, more research is required.

This paper is made and published under the aegis of the Research Institute for Quality of Life, Romanian Academy as a part of programme co-funded by the European Union within the Operational Sectorial Programme for Human Resources Development through the project for Pluri and interdisciplinary in doctoral and post-doctoral programmes Project Code: POSDRU/159/1.5/S/141086

Bibliography:

Bastian, M., Heymann, S., & Jacomy, M. (2009). Gephi: an open source software for exploring and manipulating networks. *ICWSM*, 8, 361-362.

Castles, S. (2003). Towards a sociology of forced migration and social transformation. *Sociology*, 37(1), 13-34.

Knight, J. (1994). *Internationalization: Elements and checkpoints*: Canadian Bureau for International Education Research.

Marginson, S. (2006). Dynamics of national and global competition in higher education. *Higher Education*, 52(1), 1-39.

McLuhan, M. (1989). *The global village: Transformations in world life and media in the 21st century*: Oxford University Press.

<https://erasmusplus.org.uk/llp-and-youth-in-action/erasmus> accessed on 17.11.2014

Mapping mobility in European Higher Education, volume 2, A study produced for the Directorate General for Education and Culture (DG EAC), of the European Commission 2012, available at <http://www.acup.cat/sites/default/files/teichlerferenczwaechtermappingmobilityineuropeanhighereducation.pdf>

THE DYNAMIC RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AGING AND JOB PERFORMANCE – A CASE STUDY

D. Bălaș-Timar

Dana BĂLAȘ-TIMAR,

PhD student, assistant

Aurel Vlaicu University of Arad, Romania

Abstract: Organizational psychologists are striving to create global models that can explain and predict organizational behaviour. In this quest, there have been elaborated many meta-analyses that gather relevant findings in order to create a conceptual framework of understanding human performance. This paper presents arguments for sustaining the curvilinear relationship hypothesis that occur between aging and job performance in an organizational context research. Conclusions set up a new conceptualization of the variable dynamic relationship inferences in Psychology.

Key words: organizational psychology, dynamic system, human performance, organizational context.

1. Dynamic systems in organizational psychology

Organizational and industrial psychologists have focused on linear explanations, where the output of a system is proportional to its inputs. This type of relationship assumes a simple system, whose processes can be measured and understood, but most systems in nature are nonlinear, outputs in this case are not proportional to inputs. A small input to a complex system can produce a small, moderate or even large effect. The processing taking place in these systems is intricate and difficult to explain.

In the classical view, parts of a system are in many cases assumed to be independent. Independence assumes that a part of the system is compartmentalized, insulated from the rest of the system to which it belongs. The cognitive science postulation of separate modules

in the brain that are dedicated to processing specific information is an example of independence. The outcome can always be predicted, regardless of the overall state of the system.

The dynamical systems view can account for complex interactions between modules, because it sees the parts of a system as interdependent. In this case, a part of the system's performance is dependent on the state of the entire system; how it operates in one state is different from how it might operate when the system is in another state, thus the system is analytically understood.

Researchers in organizational and industrial psychology that examine the behavior of the different pieces of a system and then put these separate descriptions together to explain the behavior of the whole are acting in a manner of reductionist approach. When systems resist reductionist explanations and cannot be broken down into pieces, they function in a holistic manner. Every piece relies on the parts around it to function properly as described by the gestalt psychologists, "the whole is greater than the sum of its parts". Emergence is a property of these kinds of holistic systems.

Instead, the dynamical systems approach sees the systems as open that cannot be considered independent of its surroundings. The employee is part of an organization that is in turn part of the world and treating them as an open system means taking into account "external" factors such as social and personal factors, thus employees influence organizations and organizations influence employees.

The independence traditional approach has a linear view of causality, where variables affect others in a sequential manner. The best way to visualize this is as a chain of arrows where variable A affects B, which then affects variable C. The dynamical systems approach is that

variables can have all sorts of causal relations that act concurrently, as the result of feedback, where a variable's output at one point in time can alter the future activity of both itself and many other related variables.

Thus, dynamical systems takes a long-term view of system action, since feedback can alter not just what happens in the immediate moment following a cause, but over the entire future course of the system's behavior. Feedback mechanisms can promote the maintenance of homeostasis, but they more often produce increases, decreases, oscillations, fluctuations, and other sorts of dynamic processes that change with time. So while the traditional view sees short term immediate effects, the dynamical systems view sees long-term dynamical effects (Friedenberg, J., 2009).

The classical view in all sciences was that the world is operating according to deterministic rules and if we know these laws/rules and we have sufficient information as to the state of a system, then we can predict with accuracy how the system will behave in a long-term perspective and most of all we can control the system.

Dynamical systems theory also acknowledges that there are deterministic rules that govern a system's behavior, but these knowledge of starting conditions are not sufficient to allow complete long-term prediction. Even if we have exhaustive knowledge of a system's starting state and we are able to predict its future behavior, over time though, the behavior will diverge from our prediction no matter how accurate our starting observations are. Thus, dynamical systems allow only for partial understanding and control.

If the traditional systems would not allowed sudden changes, only gradually and slowly over long periods of time, the dynamical systems perspective allows for such sudden and rapid change, when

system's arrival at a critical point. This critical point is represented by the conditions under which a system surpasses a complete and decisive change. As we will further see in the result of our research, the relationship between job performance and aging cannot steadily, continuously and linearly behave over time.

Thus, shortly defined a dynamic system represents a system of elements that change over time. All dynamic systems share common several properties, such as: self-organization, hierarchical organization of nested structure, reciprocal and circular cause, non-linear dynamics, perturbation, the process of a phase transition. Thus, the individual employee cannot be isolated from work environment, nor can the constituent elements be neglected (Bălaş-Timar, D., 2014).

Referring to research in organizational psychology, there has been evidence that employee well-being is a dynamic process that undergoes continuous changes. As employees go through positive and negative experiences, they are continuously shifting from positive to negative states of consciousness (Beal and Ghandour, 2010; Heller, Watson and Ilies, 2006). When employee well-being is studied longitudinally over short periods of time, it shows continuous fluctuations and changes across time (Ilies, Dimotakis and De Pater, 2010; Sonnentag, 2003; Ilies, Schwind, & Heller, 2007; Bakker, 2005; Demerouti, 2006). Several researchers have found that employee flourishing tends to behave in a nonlinear way (Ceja and Navarro, 2009, 2011; Guastello and Liebovitch, 2009; Losada and Heaphy, 2004).

Organizational researchers are following a nonlinear dynamical systems approach, which considers nonlinearity and discontinuous change, to study employee happiness and well-being (Ceja and Navarro, 2009, 2011; Guastello, 2002; Karanika-Murray and Cox, 2010).

Although there has been found evidence that employee well-being presents continuous changes over time, there is still a need to model these fluctuating dynamics. Catastrophe theory can offer an accurate approximation for understanding these dynamical changes (Ceja and Navarro, 2009). Catastrophe theory has provided successful approximations for other organizational processes, such as work motivation (Guastello, 1995), employee turnover (Sheridan, 1985; Sheridan and Abelson, 1983), decision making (Wright, 1983), personnel selection (Guastello, 1995), organizational change (Bigelow, 1982), and competitive dynamics (Kauffman and Oliva, 1994). However, it is difficult to test such models directly in work environments.

While there is evidence that work-related flow is highly dynamic and presents nonlinear changes, most research on flow in the workplace has been based on traditional between-variance models (Bakker, 2005; Demerouti, 2006; Eisenberger, Jones, Stinglhamber, Shanock and Randall, 2005; Salanova, Bakker and Llorens, 2006) and techniques based on linear model (Fullagar and Kelloway, 2009; Makikangas, Bakker, Aunola, Demerouti, 2010).

As we have seen, non-linearity allows for the occurrence of radical phenomena, such as sudden phase shifts as a function of continuous changes in independent variables, deterministic but unpredictable chaotic behavior and self-organization or improbable spontaneous coherent behavior.

2. Aging and job performance – a literature review

Current workforce participation trends suggest that the mean age of the workforce is increasing in industrialized countries. Americans who are 55 and older will comprise 25% of the US workforce by the year

2020 (Toossi, 2009, 2012); similar trends have been observed in the UK (Taylor & Urwin, 1999) and other European countries as well (Anxo, Ericson, & Jolivet, 2012). These conclusions triggered increased academic research on the effects of age on job performance. While previous reviews have identified group differences in job performance between older and younger workers (McEvoy & Cascio, 1989; Ng & Feldman, 2008; Sturman, 2003; Waldman & Avolio, 1986), the present review addresses the role age plays, in organizational life.

In an article written about the effect age has on performance in the workplace Mumtaz (2010) explains reasons why employers think that older workers are lower workplace performance. Mumtaz describes how resistance to new technology is causing less flexibility in new working conditions. Citizenship behavior also decreases as age increases because older employees feel like they need to spend more time worrying about their own work to make sure their employers don't think their performance is decreasing rather than are willing to assist new workers who need help. Conducting a study using over 100 groups of individuals with ages between 18 to 74, Mumtaz aimed measuring how work performance is affected by experience compared to age. Supervisors were asked to fill out a questionnaire, which rated employee performance. In this study they were able to conclude that the correlations between age and performance drops significantly when experience was controlled. This means that once experience is added into the equation performance is dependent upon how much experience the employee has. Avolio (1990) also explains how the length of experience that the employee has represents a better predictor of work performance than age.

In the most recent review of age differences in job performance, Ng and Feldman (2008) observed that there are not significant age

differences between younger and older workers in terms of core task performance. The current review extends to locate the sources of those differences and to explain how age can contribute to job performance beyond the execution of core task duties. This perspective redresses some of the imbalance in previous research which has tended to ignore the effects of within-person changes related to aging on performance.

Ng and Feldman's (2008) review found that age was not significantly related to core task performance but was related positively to citizenship behavior and negatively to counterproductive work behavior. In the case of core task performance, authors suggest that declines in information-processing speed are frequently counteracted by increases in experience-based judgment, resulting in smaller and less consistent decrements in core task performance over time.

3. A case study on aging and job performance relationship

Archival data from 51 current employees who completed tests as part of the employment selection process are included in this study. Data was gathered for job applicants being hired between 18.05.2010 and 16.09.2013. These archival data were collected in March 2014. The archival data include demographic information and organizational data. Of the participants, 56.9% are male. Regarding the hiring year 5.9% became employees in 2010, 19.6% became employees in 2011, 33% became employees in 2012 and 41.2 % became employees in 2013. Employees are aged between 25 and 39. The range of incomes varies from 1.800 Ron (Young graduate) to 37.957 Ron (Production Manager).

Job performance regards the appreciated performance on a 1 to 5 scale (where 1 stands for - does not meet standards and 5 for - exceeds standards) for the following aspects: 1) job specific knowledge, 2)

quality/quantity of work, 3) communications, 4) interpersonal skills, 5) organization, planning and process thinking, 6) judgment and decision making, 7) customer satisfaction, 8) teamwork, 9) adaptability to change, 10) management of human resources (not required for non-supervisory associates) and 11) performance against objectives (optional – attach performance objectives).

For example, *Specific knowledge work context related* was defined as the ability to understand, use and demonstrate technical concepts effectively, meet operating procedures and legal requirements in all aspects; keeping abreast of current developments and trends in area of expertise. Assessors (direct hierarchical supervisor) have ranked this performance criterion by using behavioral anchored scales:

1. *Regularly make mistakes because of wrong knowledge on certain standards in complex aspects of the job; shows few signs of improvement, despite previous advice.*

2. *Holds technical information and/or operating on some standard issues (may be defective occasionally, leading to poor performance) may not be versed in all aspects of the complex processes. Would not normally expect other people to go to this person for technical or operational information because these knowledge gaps. This person should go to others for information rather than perform inadequately due to gaps.*

3. *General knowledge about all aspects of owning and operating the technical standard of their own job. Would be expected occasionally to double check procedures with others on the most complex tasks.*

4. *Holds general knowledge of technical and operating procedures for all aspects of their own job and those who are in close contact with it. If you need a person to know both the standard and*

alternative procedures for carrying out any aspect of this job, you can think of that person as a source.

5. Display specific knowledge and innovative capacity of technical concepts and operating procedures for even the most complex tasks. Most people in the department consider this person an expert on a variety of specific jobs department.

Testing for normal distribution of data, for job performance variable, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov coefficient is significant at a p value $p > .05$ which indicates normal distribution.

The main purpose of current study is to highlight the relationship between job performance and aging inside an industrial multinational company from Arad (51 technical and administrative staff). The present study takes the position that job performance – age relationship is a dynamic one, these considerations leading to **Hypothesis: Job performance and aging are in a dynamic relationship.**

In curvilinear relationships variables grow together until they reach a certain point (positive relationship) and then one of them increases while the other decreases (negative relationship) or vice versa (Aron et al, 2011; Jackson, 2006). This relationship can be easily identified graphically by a Scatterplot, choosing additional two representations of the regression line: Linear and Quadratic model.

The Scatterplot diagram presented in Figure 1, demonstrates curvilinear relationship between employee's age on the horizontal axis and job performance, represented on the vertical axis. The sample consists of 51 employees, aged between 25 and 39 years.

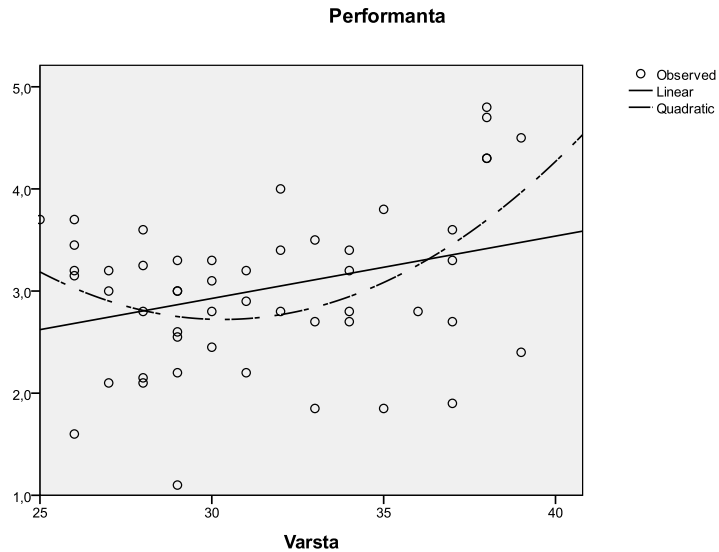


Figure 1 – The curvilinear relationship between age (varsta) and job performance (performanta)

In order to demonstrate this relationship, we have introduced in the hierarchical regression analysis model job performance as the dependent variable. In step 1, we have entered employees’ age, and in step 2 we have introduced a newly created variable, squared age.

Table 1 – Regression analysis of aging and job performance

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Job performance	3,020	,7865	51
Age	31,51	4,120	51
Sqared age	1009,5098	265,47304	51

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	,320 ^a	,102	,084	,7527	,102	5,588	1	49	,022
2	,446 ^b	,199	,166	,7184	,097	5,803	1	48	,020

a. Predictors: (Constant), Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Age, Squared age

ANOVA^c

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3,166	1	3,166	5,588	,022^a
	Residual	27,764	49	,567		
	Total	30,930	50			
2	Regression	6,161	2	3,080	5,969	,005^b
	Residual	24,770	48	,516		
	Total	30,930	50			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Age, Squared age

c. Dependent Variable: Job performance

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	1,095	,821		1,334	,188			
	Age	,061	,026	,320	2,364	,022	,320	,320	,320
2	(Constant)	17,877	7,010		2,550	,014			
	Age	-1,000	,441	-5,237	-2,267	,028	,320	-,311	-,293
	Age Squared	,016	,007	5,566	2,409	,020	,337	,328	,311

a. Dependent Variable: Job performance

Excluded Variables^b

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	Age Squared	5,566 ^a	2,409	,020	,328	,003	320,028	,003

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Age

b. Dependent Variable: Job performance

We note that for both steps coefficients are statistically significant at $p < 0,02$, $F = 5,588$ for step 1 and $F = 5,969$ for step 2,

which provides consistency. Although the data clearly demonstrate collinearity, the tolerance threshold is well below the permissible limit, this result is somewhat expected, given the almost perfect correlation between age and squared age.

What actually demonstrates curvilinear relationship between age and job performance is the changing sign in step 2 of Beta coefficient in the linear regression model. Beta coefficient for age changes from $-5,237$ into $5,566$ when age is squared, both coefficients being statistically significant at $p < 0,02$. In our case study, according to this curvilinear relationship, employees aged 25 are associated with above average job performance (3 on a scale from 1 to 5) then there is an immediate decrease in job performance to around 2,5 which actually represents the average performance. This situation is highlighted in Figure 1, when studying job performance's behavior around the age of 31. Job performance starts to grow after the age of 31, slowly at first, then obviously at the age of 39, when it still increases, according to estimates.

One limit of this study is that age interval of employees stretches from 25 to 39. It would be interesting to study how the relationship between age and job performance behaves afterwards.

4. Conclusions and implications

Given the dominant role that older workers currently play in the labor market it is important that we understand how to shape employment relationships.

Generally, age effects are small and non-linear, but are likely masked by the fact that most researchers have yet to sample truly older (i.e., 50 years plus) workers. Most likely, an inverted U-shaped relationship exists between age and job performance (McDaniel, M.A.,

Pesta, B.J. & Banks, G.C. 2012). As authors suggest, the effects might probably be moderated by job complexity and whether experience with specific job content can buffer against expected age-related physical and cognitive decline.

Bibliography:

- Anxo, D., Ericson, T., Jolivet, A. (2012), Working longer in European countries: underestimated and unexpected effects, *International Journal of Manpower*, Vol. 33 Iss: 6 pp. 612 – 628.
- Avolio, B. J., Waldman, D. A., & McDaniel, M. A. (1990), Age and work performance in nonmanagerial jobs: The effects. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(2), 407-407. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/199827143?accountid=12924>
- Bakker, A. B. (2005), Flow among music teachers and their students: The crossover of peak experiences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66, 26–44.
- Bălaş-Timar, D. (2014), Is it psychology about linear or dynamic systems? SEA - Practical Application of Science, Volume II, Issue 2 (4) /2014):189-196, published under the 6th Conference of the SEA events (Share. Empower. Awareness.)
- Beal, D. J., & Ghandour, L. (2010). Stability, change, and the stability of change in daily workplace affect. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* (advance online publication). DOI: 10.1002/job.713.
- Bigelow, J. (1982), A catastrophe model of organizational change. *Syst. Res.*, 27: 26–42. doi: 10.1002/bs.3830270104
- Ceja, L., & Navarro, J. (2009), Dynamics of flow: A nonlinear perspective. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 10, 665–684.
- Demerouti, E. (2006), Job characteristics, flow, and performance: The moderating role of conscientiousness. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 11, 266–280.
- Demerouti, E. (2006), Job characteristics, flow, and performance: The moderating role of conscientiousness. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 11, 266–280.
- Eisenberger, R., Jones, J. R., Stinglhamber, F., Shanock, L., & Randall, A. T. (2005), Flow experiences at work: For high need achievers alone? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 755–775.
- Friedenberg, J. (2009), *Dynamical Psychology. Complexity, Self-organization and the mind*, ISCE Publishing

- Fullagar, C. J., & Kelloway, K. (2009), 'Flow' at work: An experience sampling approach. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 82, 595–615.
- Guastello, S. J. (1995), *Chaos, catastrophe, and human affairs: Applications of nonlinear dynamics to work, organizations, and social evolution*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Guastello, S. J. (2002), *Managing emergent phenomena: Nonlinear dynamics in work organizations*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Guastello, S. J., & Liebovitch, L. S. (2009), Introduction to nonlinear dynamics and complexity. In S. J. Guastello, M. Koopmans, & D. Pincus (Eds.), *Chaos and complexity in psychology. The theory of nonlinear dynamical systems* (pp. 1–40). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Heller, D., Watson, D., & Ilies, R. (2006), The dynamic process of life satisfaction. *Journal of Personality*, 74, 1421–1450.
- Ilies, R., Dimotakis, N., & De Pater, I. E. (2010), Psychological and physiological reactions to high workloads: Implications for well-being. *Personnel Psychology*, 63, 407–436.
- Ilies, R., Schwind, K., & Heller, D. (2007), Employee well-being: A multi-level model linking work and non-work domains. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 16, 326–341.
- Karanika-Murray, M., and Cox, T. (2010), The use of artificial neural networks and multiple linear regression in modelling work–health relationships: Translating theory into analytical practice. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 19, 461–486.
- Kauffman, R.G. and Oliva, T.A. (1994), Multivariate catastrophe model estimation: method and application. *Academy of Management Journal* 37: 206–221.
- Losada, M., & Heaphy, E. (2004), The role of positivity and connectivity in the performance of business teams. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 47, 740–765.
- Mäkikangas, A., Bakker, A.B., Aunola, K. & Demerouti, E. (2010), Job resources and flow at work : modeling the relationship via latent growth curve and mixture model methodology. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83(3), 795–814.
- McDaniel, M.A., Pesta, B.J. & Banks, G.C. (2012). Job Performance and the Aging Worker, *The Oxford Handbook of Work and Aging*, Edited by Walter C. Borman and Jerry W. Hedge, DOI: 10.1093/oxfordhb/9780195385052.013.0100

- McEvoy, G. M., & Cascio, W. F. (1989), Cumulative evidence of the relationship between employee age and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74, 11-17.
- Mumtaz, S. (2010), Does Age have an effect on the performance at workplace? *Articlesbase*. Retrieved March 13, 2013, from <http://www.articlesbase.com/self-help-articles/does-age-have-an-effect-on-the-performance-at-workplace-2588059.html>
- Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2008), The relationship of age to ten dimensions of job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93, 392-423.
- Salanova, M., Bakker, A. B., & Llorens, S. (2006), Flow at work: Evidence for an upward spiral of personal resources and organizational resources. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 7, 1-22.
- Sheridan, J. E. (1985), A catastrophe model of employee withdrawal leading to low job performance, high absenteeism, and job turnover during the first year of employment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 28, 88-109.
- Sheridan, J. E., & Abelson, M. A. (1983), Cusp Catastrophe Model of employee turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26, 418-436.
- Sonnentag, S. (2003), Recovery, work engagement, and proactive behaviour: A new look at the interface between work and nonwork. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 518-528.
- Sturman, M. C. (2003), Searching for the inverted U-shaped relationship between time and performance: Meta-analyses of the experience/performance, tenure/performance, and age/performance relationships. *Journal of Management*, 29, 609-640.
- Taylor, P.E. and Urwin, P. (1999), "Recent trends in the labour force participation of older people in the UK", *The Geneva Papers on Risk and Insurance*, Vol. 24, No.4, Oct; pp 551-579.
- Waldman, D. A., & Avolio, B. J. (1986). A meta-analysis of age differences in job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 33-38.
- Wright, G., (1983), Probabilistic Forecasts. In *Foundations of Risk and Utility Theory with Applications*. Stigum, B.P. & Wenstop, F. Dordrecht: Reidel. 217-232.

FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE COMMITMENT OF MILITARY STUDENTS TO PROFESSION

C.M. Macovei

Crenguța Mihaela MACOVEI,
PhD
Land Forces Academy, Sibiu, Romania

Abstract. The process of professionalizing the Romanian army reflected, at institutional level, on all aspects in the human resource field: recruitment, career management, conversion and retaining. Under the conditions of Romanian population decrease and in strong competitiveness from the labour market, the army sought efficient means to ensure effective loyalty of the persons recruited. However, as public institution, the army may have a major impact on objective factors that influence the loyalty of its employees and that can meet the subjective factors related to each individual. The concern for the retention of recruits begins, of course, ever since the military training base, in academies of the kind in the country. To identify the factors influencing the level of commitment of students to the military profession we have built a questionnaire that lists 40 significant features of the latter. Students were asked to evaluate the importance of these features for their commitment to the military profession. The factor analysis had as result the detaining of six factors with a significant impact.

Keywords: military profession, commitment, retention

Introduction

The professionalization process of the Romanian Army had a remarkable impact on this institution and on the Romanian society as a

whole. As shown by Duțu (2007) at army level the impact was felt at several levels:

- At the institutional level, all aspects related to human resources (recruitment, the career management mode, conversion and retention) have changed;

- At the organizational level, the fundamental characteristics of military units and the organization of the defense unit on the national territory have changed; now the focus is on the modularity of military structures, on their flexibility and inter-arms character;

- At the level of identity, aspects regarding the development of the military profession, the nature of its mission and the place it has in the Romanian state have been redefined; therefore, in addition to traditional, historical missions (defense of sovereignty, independence, unity and national territorial integrity of the country and of the Romanian citizens) currently, the Romanian army is running a series of new missions (what we call stability and support operations: mission maintaining, restoring or peace enforcement, humanitarian missions, missions to combat international terrorism);

- At the operational level, the increase in the operational capacity of the military in order to support the wide range of international missions, simultaneously with task accomplishment on the national territory was pursued.

Therefore, in the last decade, the Romanian army went through an extensive process of restructuring in which it had to maintain operational capability, which made the process itself to be quite difficult and delicate. Military professionalization occurred in the conditions of significant budgetary constraints (especially in the last five years) and a resistance to serious change come from within the system, especially at

the beginning of the process. But it is evident that the whole approach, no matter how difficult, was successful.

After all these changes, the image of the military in Romanian society and relations with it have changed significantly. During the communist period and the first years after the revolution, the military profession had a very clear representation in the population due to the participation of young adults, by conscription, to specific training. Any family who had boys - sons, nephews, cousins - knew what was happening to them in the period they were incorporated, they were aware of the functioning and life events in the army and supported its activities morally supporting their offsprings through difficult times. The military training of boys was a real rite of passage with a high level of popularity among the population. Conscription was abandoned in 2007 and caused a progressive occultation of the profession which, we are sure, is not so clear as it used to be to the country's elderly population.

As shown by Duțu (2007), the link between the military and the Romanian society had to be redefined. This was achieved by formulating a doctrine that clearly stated the national army position in the country and the world, its role in national defense and security and its tasks within NATO.

The transition from the mixed army to the professional army posed the question of ensuring human resources: recruitment, retention and conversion of the military, especially of those employed on contract.

In terms of recruitment, the military currently faces two problems: the decline of Romanian population and competitiveness in the labor market. The decrease in population is closely related to declining birth rates, accentuated aging and the exodus of Romanians abroad. This latter aspect is also related to the competition in the labor market because many

Romanians go elsewhere to work. Also, even in the labor market in Romania, wage offers and wage earning opportunities in other fields make a serious competition for the army. Therefore, in order to counteract the effects of these two problems, the Army has modified some of the selection criteria for recruitment to incorporate staff and the share of people employed on a contract basis increased.

Regarding the retention of recruited people, keeping them for as long as possible after the first contract expired is influenced by a number of objective and subjective factors. The army seeks to provide its staff conditions to become factors of commitment to the profession and military organization: satisfactory remuneration, competitive, clear and motivating career prospects, conversion possibilities adapted to each category of military life and working conditions appropriate to modern society.

The fact that the army has remained one of the institutions that Romanians trust most - as evidenced by numerous sociological surveys conducted in the country in the last 25 years - shows that the process of redefining its relationship with the Romanian society delivered the expected results. The army has a good image even among young people and this is due to family influences that transmit attitudes and values favorable to this profession. The adult population of the country continues to cherish military system specific values - honor, duty, discipline, loyalty etc. - especially in the midst of social, political and economic unrest through which the country passes since communism has been removed. Moreover, in the midst of these troubles, the military remains a successful model: an old school (and unfashionable) who succeeded in a relatively short time to modernize itself in line with the

requirements of allies and trends of national, regional and global security environment evolution.

In all these, the military organization must take into account the practices of market economy: analysis of costs and gains, not only in financial terms but also psychosocial. The effects in the psychosocial plan of military professionalization are significant. The military professional is an expert who will compare himself systematically with trained civilian specialists having a similar activity and the findings of these comparisons are often negative: being trained and having similar experience or even superior, military specialists are paid less and have worse working conditions. The military organization must counteract this negative aspect by strengthening group cohesion, optimization of the psychosocial climate by improving interpersonal communication and within groups, reducing maladaptive events, enhancing the effectiveness of military groups etc.

The military profession

The military profession is a "permanent occupation held in the military environment, exercised by a person who has graduated from a military educational institution or who concluded a contract of employment with the military institution" (Duțu, Moștofleu, Sarcinschi, 2003, p .5). Characteristics and peculiarities of developed activities, of the environment in which these are in practice and their finalities, make this profession a special form of social activity.

The professional military is "a highly qualified person, characterized by *competence, responsibility and esprit de corps*. He is an expert with specialized knowledge and skills in a significant range of human activities. His ability is the result of appropriate theoretical

expertise in different specialized institutions and a long experience in the field. In other words, the professional is a recognized authority in its field". (Duțu, Moștofleu, Sarcinschi, 2003, p.6).

The professional military acquires his *competence* through theoretical and practical training in specialized institutions and complements it with the experience gained from practicing his profession. He proves his *responsibility* by the proper application and at the highest possible level of his capabilities, knowledge and experience in the tasks and missions he receives. In what the *esprit de corps* is concerned, it is specific to the military professional group and requires a specific internalization of values: pride, loyalty, trust, honesty, dignity, honor, discipline, devotion, solidarity, etc., values that are part of the military ethos.

The Romanian Army had no problems in recruiting staff in the years since the revolution, despite the changes that it had to face. According to The Human Resources Management Direction, military schools and foremen schools and NCOs had more than enough candidates in each session of admission. This was reflected positively on the selection criteria and practices which have remained at a high quality level, allowing the recruitment of those young people who cumulatively meet all the criteria required by the profession. Duțu, Moștofleu and Sarcinschi (2003) list the main reasons why the army has such a privileged position in the perception of Romanian society:

- The favorable image that the public has about the military profession, associated with a high social prestige;
- Job security;
- The opportunity to participate in various missions abroad,
- Salary safety, even if it is not at the desired level;

- The prospect of a secure and lasting career;
- The presence of advantages when leaving the system (compensation, retirement, retraining, etc.).

The three authors show that the number of employment requests as military based on contract remains at a high level, exceeding the needs of the army and its financial possibilities. The causes of this situation are: jobs in the army are secure and stable, ensuring a decent and stable income, enables missions abroad, allowing continuous transition among military personnel (provided additional specialty training) and provides the chance of qualification in employment on the labour market.

Regarding the payroll of the army, the three authors mentioned above take the 2003 information data bank of Sociological Investigations Department of the Army that although the organization has a social positive image, the profession itself occupies only the sixth place among the top ten professions appreciated in Romania in terms of financial and social prestige.

Methodology

Ten years after the conduct of the surveys mentioned above, we aimed to identify those factors that influence the strength of commitment of the students in the Land Forces Academy of Sibiu – the military educational institution with the highest number of students in the country – to the chosen profession. We assumed from the outset that these factors are unchanged, given the apparent stability and high social performance of the military social organization. Therefore, we constructed a questionnaire in which we listed 40 aspects of the military profession with a possible impact on the commitment of those who have chosen it.

Students were asked to evaluate the subjective importance of each of the aspects in terms of their level of commitment to the military

profession, by using a Likert scale with values from 1 to 5, where 1 means "not at all important" and 5 means "extremely important". The questionnaire was anonymous and it was applied to a total of 200 students from the Land Forces Academy in Sibiu. Within this sample there were summarized 44 girls (22%) and 156 men (78%), aged 20 to 23 years old, meaning an average age of 21.7.

In the next step we applied KMO and Bartlett's Test. The result is shown in Table 1. The value of these coefficients indicates that our data is suitable for factor analysis.

Table no.1. KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,911
	Approx. Chi-Square	8052,968
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	528
	Sig.	,000

The protocol adopted here for factor analysis was to use default settings initially (Principal Axis Factor - PAF) and to rotate the matrix of loadings to obtain orthogonal (independent) factors (Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization). The prime goal of factor analysis is to identify simple items loadings (>0.40) on factors that are interpretable, assuming that items are factorable.

In the next step, there were identified variables that explain to satisfaction the factors extracted from the analysis. Items that had communality less than 0.3 were eliminated.

Table no. 2. Factorial Structure - Rotated Factor Matrix

Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	Communality
It is closest to my ideal profession	,750						,751
I believe in the military organization goals	,733						,722
It brings me maximum satisfaction	,671						,713
It allows me to serve my country	,497						,522
It brings me social prestige		,662					,652
it brings me a satisfactory social status		,639					,646
It brings me respect in society		,598					,613
It gives me a sense of pride		,430					,518
It allows me to develop my practical sense			,691				,629
It allows me to develop my creativity and originality			,603				,566
It satisfies my need for variety			,470				,458
It allows me to connect with many people			,405				,389
It allows me to assimilate knowledge useful in civilian life				,688			,573
It allows me to develop my intellectual abilities				,604			,635
Career advancement is certain				,540			,447
It gives me financial				,507			,536

security and stability							
It allows me to take parte in decision making				,404			,514
I have all the qualities required of this profession					,703		,647
This profession meets my desire for adventure and risk					,574		,516
I am simply made for this profession					,543		,584
My personal values are very similar to those of the profession					,513		,606
It allows me ti influence people and events						,599	,434
It allows me to help other people						,499	,424
It allows me to work in a team						,485	,504
It allows me to command						,443	,415
Eigenvalue	11,68	2,170	1,69	1,54	1,37	1,24	
Percentage of total variance	35,41	6,576	5,13	4,69	4,17	3,77	

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 17 iterations.

Discussions

Factor analysis revealed the presence of six main factors which have a significant impact on the commitment of our students to the military profession. These factors include 24 characteristics of the profession and explain 60.74% of the total variance.

The first factor is loaded with four items referring to the correlation between personal aspirations and goals of the military profession: the military profession is the closest to professional ideal of subjects, brings maximum satisfaction and enables them to serve the country; also, the subjects cherish the goals of the military organization. We call this factor "correlation person-profession". This factor explains 35.4% of the total variance.

The second factor is loaded with items that relate to the social benefits the military profession brings: social prestige, high social status, respect in society and a personal sense of pride. We call this factor "social benefits". It explains 6.57% of the total variance.

The third factor contains items that refer to those aspects of the profession that facilitate personal development: subjects consider that the profession develops practical spirit, creativity, originality and the ability to relate to many people; it also satisfies the need for variety. We call this factor "personal development". It explains 5.13% of the total variance.

It is interesting that the factor which refers to the development of creativity and originality is present in this item: subjects surveyed feel that they develop these qualities in a job that is socially perceived as one of the most rigid and uncreative.

The fourth factor is loaded with items that relate to the subject's personal gain: the assimilation of knowledge useful in civilian life, developing intellectual skills, safety, career advancement and financial stability, the opportunity to participate in decision making. We call this factor "personal advantage". It is responsible for 4.69% of personal variables.

The items that were grouped in this factor appear to be part of two different categories. On the one hand it is about developing intellectual

skills and assimilating useful knowledge for civilian life; these issues could be included in a category that might be called "intellectual development". On the other hand, it talks about the attributes of the profession: financial stability, safety, career advancement, the ability to make decisions in professional activities, elements that seem to belong in another category that might be called "professional stability". The subjects investigated made the connection between these two subcategories; identifying the reason could be the purpose of another study.

The fifth factor is loaded with items that relate to the correlation between the internal structure of the subjects investigated and requirements specific to the profession: subjects believe they have all the necessary qualities and are simply made for the military profession, they think their values are very similar to those of profession and that they satisfy their own desire for adventure and risk. We call this factor "correlation person-requirements". It explains 6.57% of the total variance.

The sixth factor is loaded with items that relate to the possibilities of relating to others: thus, the military profession allows them to influence people and events, to help others, to work in teams and to command to others. We call this factor "social influence". It explains 3.77% of the total variance.

Conclusions

For students enrolled in our sample, the correlation between personal aspirations and characteristics of the profession seems to be the factor with the greatest impact on their commitment to the military profession. This is the closest to their ideal professional, gives a state of maximum satisfaction and enables them to serve the country. Subjects

believe in the goals of the organization and that trust is the basis for the internalisation of organizational values, the more so since their values are very similar to those of the profession. Social benefits (prestige, satisfactory social status, respect in society and a sense of pride for their chosen profession) and personal benefits (stable career, safety and financial stability) continue to be strong cases for an increased commitment to the profession.

Students appreciate intellectual and personal development opportunities as well, offered by the profession, the variety that this entails, the adventure and risk associated with it, perhaps having the prospect of possible future missions. The opportunity to meet and interact in various ways with many people is also appreciated.

The variety of aspects specific to the military profession chosen by students and how they are grouped into factors brings to mind the thesis institutional versus occupational proposed by C. Moskos. This author believes that military academies represent an extreme case of institutional socialization in the armed forces. He presents the experience of W. Clover and T.M. McCloy, commanders of the US Air Force Academy who have seen the type of institutional versus organizational conflicts in military academies. These conflicts are caused by the opposition of the institutional side of academic life that focuses on character building, sports and spiritual aspects and occupational trends which are reflected in the curriculum and the marketing strategies of these academies, which increasingly resemble more than those of civilian institutions of higher education. According to these two commanders, in the initial period of training, cadets cling to institutional values but they slowly detach as their training in the academy continues, the trend being weaker in female cadets who stay institutionally oriented for a longer time.

The presence of such conflicts in the Romanian military academies has not been substantiated with evidence; the thesis institutional/occupational has been very poorly studied in the Romanian military context. However, we cannot ignore the fact that the military academies have been for years in the situation described by the two commanders. We can say, from our experience, that the institutional-occupational opposition signs have been manifesting in the Romanian military organization, in general and military academies, in particular. Such statement requires demonstration, of course, be it by longitudinal studies that highlight changes in attitudes and cadet behaviors during their training, or through comparative studies showing the differences between cadets according to the year of study in which they are enrolled. Certainly, in time, the presence of such opposition would alter the way the military profession is perceived by those who choose it and the changes in this perception would have a significant impact on their commitment to the profession.

Bibliography:

- Duțu, P. (2007). *Perspective în evoluția armatelor naționale*, Editura Universității Naționale de Apărare „Carol I” București,
- Duțu, P., Moștoflei, C., Sarcinschi, A. (2003) – *Profesionalizarea Armatei României în contextul integrării în NATO*, Centrul de Studii Strategice de Apărare și Securitate București, http://cssas.unap.ro/ro/pdf_studii/profesionalizarea_armatei.pdf
- Moskos, Ch. (2005) – *Armata, mai mult decât o ocupație?*, Editura Ziua, București
[http:// www. mapn. ro.](http://www.mapn.ro)

AGGRESSIVITY AND ITS SPECIFIC FORMS IN ADOLESCENCE

M.Ciolac

Mirela CIOLAC

PhD., lecturer

Aurel Vlaicu University, Arad, Romania

Abstract: The aggressivity is a very big problem of our contemporary society. For the adolescents the main cause of death is violence and not cancer or heart diseases. We consider aggression as being any conduct intentionally directed towards objects, people or by it, to produce some damages, of injuries, destruction and prejudice. The paper presents the results of a research made on 39 subjects to establish the link between verbal aggression, physical aggression, anger and hostility; the link between aggression and the specific forms of aggression and the subjects' gender; the degree of association between self-esteem and aggression among students. The results of this study should be seen as a warning. Aggressiveness, whatever form it may take, is present to the high school adolescents. It must be found solutions; it must be identified factors that are responsible for the emergence of maladaptive manifestations.

Key words: aggressivity, self-esteem, adolescents, gender, forms of aggressivity – verbal, physical, anger and hostility

Theoretical frame

Delinquency and crime are the peak forms of the manifestation of aggression, and the statistics compiled in different countries show a worrying increase in rates of this "scourge". The President of the International Association of Social psychiatry, Sorel E. (1999) shows that the late thrilling twentieth century has seen an extraordinary

intolerance of an unheard and incredible violence. The main cause of death of young people between 15 and 24 years is violence and not cancer or heart diseases.

Regarding the aggressive behavior with antisocial echo (Dragomirescu, 1990), some authors distinguish several types, such as:

1. Indiscriminate aggression, occasional, without necessarily antisocial echo;
2. Aggressive behavior itself multiforme and chronic, which includes criminal behavior;
3. Aggressive behavior as an integral expression, direct of a pathological condition or a condition subsequent to a neuropsychological preexisting trouble or an acquired one.

The aggressive behavior is oriented not only off topic, but on self. And here we must distinguish between acts of self-destructive behavior; suicide is the most serious form, and behavioral acts that may endanger the health and balance of the body (smoking, alcohol, drugs). The essential element of differentiation it is, of course, the presence of self-destructive intent.

So in summary, we consider aggression as being any conduct intentionally directed towards objects, people or by it, to produce some damages, of injuries, destruction and prejudice.

Are men are more aggressive than women? All crime statistics provide a positive answer to this question. From such records, authors such as AH Eagly and VJ Steffen (1986) concluded that, indeed, it is more likely than men to be more employed than women in open aggression. But the size of this difference appears to be quite small. Moreover, it may be wider in some contexts than in others. For example, sex differences on the adoption of aggressive behavior were found to be

higher in studies involving non-physical forms of aggression (verbal aggression, others negative ranking after some indicators etc.). Similarly, larger differences were found in situations where aggression seems to be required (for example, certain social roles). In addition, men and women seem to differ to some extent on their attitudes against bullying. And finally, the legislature found that both sexes are addressed more aggressively against male targets than against women.

Starting from these types of studies, R.A. Baron and D. Byrne (1991) draw attention to the fact that gender differences on aggressive behavior depend largely on the sex roles and socialization practices. For example, if the traditional stereotype of masculinity and femininity continues to decrease, gender differences on aggression may decrease. Conversely, if such stereotypes can persist or even strengthen, the gender differences on aggression, is expected to widen.

The psychological profile of the deviant adolescent

Perception - From 15 years teen acquires full capacity of discrimination of details. Originality crisis will push the teenager insecure, unprepared and chasing to thrill, to shock, causing in turn similar sensations entourage and parents.

Language - The deviant adolescent is hostile to dialogue, vague and incomplete answers communicate difficult and monosyllabic, slang language to adhere to conceal poor verbal skills.

Thinking - The deviant adolescent presents abstract combinatorics failure, low capacity of analysis and synthesis, no can critically interpret the reality only partially; being aware of the great importance of the spheres of life and social activities, he can make explicit questions about

the place and the meaning of his own existence, self-reflexiveness and introspection are distorted.

Imagination - The deviant adolescent has an overflowing fantasy, fictions and prolonged reveries, hides frequently using lie imagination to express an ego ideal.

Memory - Strong colored emotionally; the affective memory is more developed than the verbal and motor ones; perceptual partial and temporal disturbances cause an incorrect recording and fixing of the spatio-temporal dimensions.

Learning - The deviant adolescent learn by copying the negative behaviors of those around him, records poor performance in the theoretical fields.

Motivation and will - The motivational conflicts determines the lie justification (unmotivattion, defense, vanity) the aspiration level is low, he deceives himself, is stubborn, weak voluntary control, which leads to cowardice, obfuscation, tendency to drug and alcohol abuse, amusement to which he cannot resist, false worship heroes.

Skills and habits - Usually do not have hygienic habits of civilized behavior, planning their activities, socio -emotional relationship have tics, difficulty in perceiving and rapid differentiation of colors, smells, tastes.

Affective processes and sexuality - Emotional deviance is the normality of adolescents. Interest in the opposite sex teen govern all actions, stimulating efforts in other areas, often justifying deviations from moral or legal norms.

Intelligence - Deviants' teenagers present either limit intellect or one of higher level, also show profound cognitive dissonance. Little or no skills are cultivated, often deviant adolescents have athletic abilities,

artistic or integration ones. As often lacked of guidance, of educational and vocational counseling, the adolescent does not realize its aptitudes and possibilities.

Character - The picture of deviant adolescent attitudes (towards himself, the people, the work, the social assessments) reflects a characterological immaturity: self- sufficient, impulsivity, aggression, antisocial acts committed underestimation, indolence, disdain for work, rejecting society as a whole, difficulty in social integration, indifference or aversion to school, lying, neglection, disorientation, confusion of the social values , desire for adventure, lack of ideals, educational frustration, opposition to the adult world.

The body's neurochemical system sensitizes in certain circumstances individual triggers aggressive behavior, makes them more frequently adopt this behavior. We studied the relationship of sex hormones which influence aggressive behavior in two ways. A first series of research allowed positive correlation of testosterone, the primary male hormone, with aggressive behavior. Some theorists argue that the testosterone level can be placed in relation to the disposition to aggress, but he alone, in the absence of other triggering conditions is not enough. In addition, they find a positive correlation between testosterone levels for frustration. On the other hand, if the study of the influence of testosterone on aggressive behavior was done by correlating its level with the number of aggressive acts and scores to various aggression self-assessment questionnaires the findings were different. Administration of progestin to the future mothers (synthetic horinon administered - in pregnancy troubles) demonstrated masculizante effects on female foetuses which showed a significantly higher predisposition toward

violent actions than their brothers during childhood (Reinisch, 1981, as cited. L. Berkowitz, 1993).

What should be noted is that - in the current state of the research - these biochemical agents are not the direct causes of aggressive behavior, but they make the person more sensitive to external stimuli, producing the aggressive reaction, or may exacerbate the intensity of this response (Berkowitz, 1993).

Study objectives:

1. Highlighting the link between verbal aggression, physical aggression, anger and hostility.
2. Highlighting the link between aggression and the specific forms of aggression and the subjects' gender.
3. Highlighting the degree of association between self-esteem and aggression among students.

Hypothesis:

1. There is a significant relationship between verbal aggression, physical aggression, anger and hostility. In the sense that the verbal aggression, the physical aggression, the anger and the hostility are positive correlated.
2. The aggression and the specific forms of aggression record significant differences by gender.
3. The self-esteem of adolescents has as lower level as the level of aggressivity increases.

Research methodology - experimental design

The research involved 39 subjects; adolescents aged 16 and 18, students at the "Vasile Juncu" Highschool of Miniş Arad County. The analyzed group consists of 21 subjects male and 18 female, 17 students of

class X, 8 female and 9 male and 22 students of class XI, 10 female and 12 male.

Table no. 1

Frequency distribution / gender

		gen			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Masculin	21	53.8	53.8	53.8
	Feminin	18	46.2	46.2	100.0
	Total	39	100.0	100.0	

Table no. 2

Frequency distribution / class

		clasa			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	a X a	17	43.6	43.6	43.6
	a XI a	22	56.4	56.4	100.0
	Total	39	100.0	100.0	

The instruments used

In the study herein the following tools were used

- Aggression Assessment Questionnaire (AQ), Buss & Perry, 1998
- Rosenberg questionnaire to measure self-esteem.

Buss & Perry Aggression Questionnaire, 1998, was used for evaluating general aggressiveness and to identify the types of aggression: physical aggression (AF), verbal aggression (AV), anger (F), hostility (A). AQ is composed of 29 items organized in four scales, corresponding to the four specific forms of aggression, the evaluation being made on a

point Likert scale with values from 1 to 5, and 1 = not at all; 2 = small extent, 3 = medium. 4 = to a great extent, 5 = highly agree.

To measure the level of self-esteem, we used a self-assessment tool based on a questionnaire consisting ie Rosenberg scale to assess self-esteem. Rosenberg test consists of 10 items and the assessment is made on a Likert scale with values from 0 to 3 and 0 = strongly against, 1 = against, 2 = disagree, 3 = strongly agree.

Organizing and conducting the research

During the testing session, participants were initially administered the paper and pencil version of the questionnaire of assessing self-esteem Rosenberg and AQ questionnaire - the test of aggression. These instruments were administered in group, without time limit. Participants were instructed to quantify each item honestly, specifying that there is no good or bad answer.

Presentation and analysis of data

Hypothesis 1. There is a significant relationship between verbal aggression, physical aggression, anger and hostility. In the sense that verbal aggression, physical aggression, anger and hostility are positive correlated.

Values obtained for AQ subscales

Table no. 3

Descriptive Statistics Aggression Questionnaire (AQ)

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
AF	39	11	37	21.95	7.026
AV	39	10	25	15.59	3.958
F	39	9	30	18.10	4.633
O	39	14	35	23.79	5.535
AG	39	54	113	79.44	16.401
Valid N (listwise)	39				

For Aggression subscale General (AG) values average scores was $m = 79.44$ (max.145) showing higher mean values for overall aggressiveness.

For Physical Aggression subscale (AF) values average scores was $m = 21.95$ (max. 45) showing small to medium values of physical aggression.

For Verbal Aggression subscale (AV) average values for scores was $m = 15.59$ (max. 25) showing the predominance of high values.

For Anger subscale (F) average values for scores was $m = 18.10$ (max. 35) showing the predominance of high values.

For Hostility subscale (A) the average of the scores was $m = 23.79$ (max. 40) showing the predominance of high values.

Results on AQ scales shows that the adolescents in the studied sample had a high general level of aggressiveness, the specific form of aggression was not the physical aggression, which has a low level. The forms of aggression that have experienced the highest level were the verbal aggression, the anger and the hostility.

According to the results obtained it appears that there is a significant correlation, positive and strong between the verbal aggression, the physical aggression level, the aggressiveness manifested by anger, the aggression manifested by hostility.

There is a significant positive correlation, between the verbal aggression and physical aggression level, meaning that if verbal aggression level is high then the physical aggression level is high, and vice versa, if the level is low on verbal aggression the physical aggression level is low.

There is a significant positive and strong correlation, between the physical aggression and the anger level, meaning that if physical aggression level is high then the level of anger is high, and vice versa, if the level of anger is low then and physical aggression level is low.

There is a significant positive and strong correlation, between the verbal aggression and the anger level meaning that if verbal aggression level is high then the level of anger is high, and vice versa, if the level of verbal aggression is low then the anger level is low.

There is a significant positive correlation, between the anger and hostility level, meaning that if the anger is high then the level of hostility is high, and vice versa, if the level is low then the anger and hostility level is low.

Therefore, the data obtained by statistical processing allows support hypothesis 1 that, verbal aggression, physical aggression, the aggression manifested by anger and the aggression manifested by hostility are positive correlated.

Hypothesis 2:

The aggression and the specific forms of aggression record significant differences by gender.

Table no. 4
Correlation between aggression in general and specific forms of aggression for the masculine gender

Correlations						
		AF	AV	F	O	AG
AF	Pearson Correlation	1	0.527*	0.480*	0.179	0.717**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	0.014	0.028	0.438	0.000
	N	21	21	21	21	21
AV	Pearson Correlation	0.527*	1	0.777**	0.511*	0.871**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.014	.	0.000	0.018	0.000
	N	21	21	21	21	21

F	Pearson Correlation	0.480**	0.777**	1	0.542*	0.872**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.028	0.000	.	0.011	0.000
	N	21	21	21	21	21
O	Pearson Correlation	0.179	0.511*	0.542*	1	0.704**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.438	0.018	0.011	.	0.000
	N	21	21	21	21	21
AG	Pearson Correlation	0.717**	0.871**	0.872**	0.704**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	.
	N	21	21	21	21	21
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).						
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).						
a SEX = Masculin						

According to the table 4 the data shows that there is a significant positive and strong correlation, between the verbal aggression and physical aggression in the male gender in the sense that if verbal aggression level is high then the physical aggression level is high, and vice versa, if the level of verbal aggression is low then the we will have a low level of physical aggression.

There is a significant positive and strong correlation, between the level of anger and verbal aggressiveness in the sense that if the anger is high then the verbal aggression level is high, and vice versa, if the anger level is low then the verbal aggressiveness level is low.

There is a significant positive and strong correlation, between the level of hostility and the verbal aggression in the sense that if the hostility is high then the verbal aggression level is high, and vice versa, if the hostility level is low then the verbal aggression level is low.

Table no. 5
Correlation between aggression in general and specific forms of aggression for feminine gender

Correlations						
		AF	AV	F	O	AG
AF	Pearson Correlation	1	0.012	0.630**	0.092	0.634**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	0.961	0.005	0.718	0.005

	N	18	18	18	18	18
AV	Pearson Correlation	0.012	1	0.298	0.712**	0.692**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.961	.	0.230	0.001	0.001
	N	18	18	18	18	18
F	Pearson Correlation	0.630**	0.298	1	0.204	0.727**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.005	0.230	.	0.417	0.001
	N	18	18	18	18	18
O	Pearson Correlation	0.092	0.712**	0.204	1	0.745**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.718	0.001	0.417	.	0.000
	N	18	18	18	18	18
AG	Pearson Correlation	0.634**	0.692**	0.727**	0.745**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.005	0.001	0.001	0.000	.
	N	18	18	18	18	18
**	Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					
a	SEX = Feminin					

According to the table 5 we see that there is a significant positive and strong correlation, between the anger and physical aggression level, meaning that if the anger is high then the level of physical aggression is high, and vice versa if the anger is low then the aggressiveness individuals is low.

There is a significant positive and strong correlation, between the level of hostility and the verbal aggression in the sense that if the hostility is high then the verbal aggression level is high, and vice versa, if the hostility level is low then the verbal aggression level is low.

Analyzing the tables No.4 and No.5 results that anger, as character feature, in girls determines a physically aggressive behavior, unlike to the boys where is much smaller .

The girls' personality features increased anger and hostility causes a very high probability of discharge of an aggressive behavior

There are differences between the verbal aggressiveness in adolescent males compared to those of females. That means that the male

adolescents have a higher level of verbal aggression than female adolescents who have a lower level of verbal aggressiveness.

So the data obtained by statistical processing support the hypothesis no. 2 that there are differences in the aggression by gender in subjects.

Table no. 6
ANOVA gender - aggression

		ANOVA				
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
AF	Between Groups	746.786	1	746.786	24.472	.000
	Within Groups	1129.111	37	30.517		
	Total	1875.897	38			
AV	Between Groups	16.420	1	16.420	1.049	.312
	Within Groups	579.016	37	15.649		
	Total	595.436	38			
F	Between Groups	98.169	1	98.169	5.063	.030
	Within Groups	717.421	37	19.390		
	Total	815.590	38			
O	Between Groups	56.049	1	56.049	1.871	.180
	Within Groups	1108.310	37	29.954		
	Total	1164.359	38			

The relationship between aggression and sex factor was studied by calculating the coefficient varied using One Way ANOVA. The results show a significant relationship between the sex of subjects and the values of physical aggression (AF) , F = 24.47 and sig. .000 and anger (F) = 5.06 and sig. 0.30.

Hypothesis no. 3

The self-esteem of adolescents has as lower level as the level of aggressivity increases.

Table no. 7
Descriptive statistics for the test Rosenberg

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
stimadesine	39	12	23	17.05	2.655
Valid N (listwise)	39				

Table no. 8
Correlation between self-esteem and aggression

Correlations							
		AF	AV	F	O	AG	STIMA.SI NE
AF	Pearson Correlation	1	.373*	.604**	.247	.772**	-.041
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.019	.000	.130	.000	.806
	N	39	39	39	39	39	39
AV	Pearson Correlation	.373*	1	.634**	.599**	.782**	-.148
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.019		.000	.000	.000	.368
	N	39	39	39	39	39	39
F	Pearson Correlation	.604**	.634**	1	.450**	.846**	-.224
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.004	.000	.170
	N	39	39	39	39	39	39
O	Pearson Correlation	.247	.599**	.450**	1	.715**	-.246
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.130	.000	.004		.000	.131
	N	39	39	39	39	39	39
AG	Pearson Correlation	.772**	.782**	.846**	.715**	1	-.200
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.223

N	39	39	39	39	39	39
STIMA.SI Pearson NE Correlation	-.041	-.148	-.224	-.246	-.200	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	.806	.368	.170	.131	.223	
N	39	39	39	39	39	40

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

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

It can be seen from the Table 8 by that what I have tried to demonstrate, by the hypothesis no. 3 is partially confirmed. The correlation between self-esteem and aggression was not statistically significant. Among the self-esteem of adolescents and aggression are a very weak negative correlation, such as the self-esteem is lower the odds of aggression are higher, but in a lesser extent strength.

The manifested aggressiveness in any form expresses the inner state of man. When articulated language communication ability is blocked, sometimes it is replaced by the physical aggressive behaviors. In fact, aggression means a communication failure on the human level, it represents a regression to lower states of human.

Punches or insults, defamation are forms of compensation of those who have no other means of communication. Subcultural individual is expressed predominantly by gesture, by bodily attitudes. With a vocabulary too limited, it limits his ability to communicate through language. Physical strength assures subsistence and gives a value in front of the others. So this method is best suited as an argument in a dispute.

The aggressive act is an expression of the personality. But we must not generalize because there are random acts of aggressive behavior in situations where they're in need of defense, survival. Most often, these acts do not define a personality if not constant over time, specifically if you are not a characteristic of a person. Psychology, using objective

methods had made an inventory behavior; it ranked them and measured them statistically. Thus it could be achieved on the one hand to identify and differentiate the types of behavior, and on the other hand in the context of psychophysical features in which they become more frequent, which led to the establishment of forms of human personality structure that presents an increased risk of aggressivity.

Conclusions

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the link between aggression in general and its specific forms: the verbal aggression, the physical aggression, the anger and the hostility. The second objective was to establish if the level of aggression (verbal aggression, physical aggression, aggression manifested by anger, aggression manifested by hostility) is influenced by the gender of the subjects. Another objective was to highlight the degree of association between the self-esteem and aggressivity among students.

Therefore the data obtained shows that the first hypothesis is confirmed, ie the verbal aggressions, the physical aggression, the aggression manifested by anger, the aggression manifested by hostility are positive correlated.

Regarding the second hypothesis, that aggression recorded differences according to the gender of the subjects, there are differences between the verbal aggressiveness in adolescent male to female ones, meaning that male adolescents have a higher level of verbal aggression than female adolescents who have a lower level of verbal aggressiveness. Anger, as character feature in girls determines a physically aggressive behavior, unlike to the boys, to which is much smaller. The girls'

personality traits - anger and hostility increased - cause a very high probability of discharge of aggressive behavior.

Hypothesis 3 is partially supported: the correlation between self-esteem and aggression was not statistically significant. Among the self-esteem of adolescents and aggression are a very weak negative correlation - the higher self-esteem is low so rates are higher aggression but to a very small extent. It is possible that this result may be due to the fact that self-esteem is not an independent variable, and in the future other studies, will able to be used it as a mediating variable.

The experimental approaches that assessed aggression were and continue to be very numerous. In this purpose were used different methodologies, different conceptual approaches and perspectives. Given that some of these research results have been interpreted, sometimes contradictory, there were some criticisms of them.

Numerous authors have attempted an "accounting" of the results of these researches in order to formulate clear conclusions as though they are not widely accepted. Period characterized by a series of evolutionary changes, highly nuanced, such as bio - psycho - social, the adolescence, is the most complex stage of development of the young man on his way to adulthood. This step seems to pose the greatest difficulties to the educational process because of the frequent disruption of the physiological troubles, emotional imbalances, deviations of character and conduct disorder accompanying, often the maturing.

The literature speaks in this respect of a true "crisis" of adolescence, consisting of multiple internal and external conflicts, expressed hostility towards parents, rebellion against the educational prohibitions, the rejection of the cultural patterns and moral norms proposed by the adult, adult seen as authority.

The teenager, who is in the process of searching for his own identity, building of a self-image, to establish a future direction of development is perceived as being overwhelmed by parents who have certain expectations regarding his behavior, teachers with the same expectations, the representatives of social control. Most often, as a result of the presence of factors that promote aggression, he become to commit aggressive acts sometimes carried to extremes.

Without finding complete and definitive answers to the questions above, the main conclusion of this research is that there is a significant relationship between the verbal aggression, the physical aggression, the anger and the hostility, in the sense that verbal aggression, physical aggression, anger and hostility are positive correlated. And aggression and its specific forms of aggression recorded differences by gender.

The results of this study should be seen as a warning. Aggressiveness, whatever form it may take, is present to the high school adolescents. It must be find solutions; it must be identified factors that are responsible for the emergence of maladaptive manifestations.

It is necessary to build external support networks, by building more counseling and training centers with qualified personnel to provide expert advice in every school. Making "workshop" meetings with the subject, in which to analyze the results, the problems encountered and the solutions proposed. It will be necessary the validation of some intervention programs for specific bullying issues in schools in our country and promoting educational programs on the prevention of violence in schools.

Bibliography:

Baron, R.A., Byrne, D., (1991), *Social Psychology Understanding Human Interaction*, Boston: Allyn and Bacon

- Berkowitz, L., (1993). *Aggression: its causes, consequences, and control*. Temple University Press, Philadelphia
- Buss, A.H., Perry, M., (1992). The Aggression Questionnaire. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 63, 452-459.
- Dragomirescu, T.V., (1990), *Determinism și reactivitate umană*, Editura Științifică, București
- Eagly, A.H., Steffen, V.J., (1986), *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 100. No.3, pp. 309-330, <http://saylor.org/site/wp-content/uploads/2011/07/psych406-7.2.pdf>

ASPECTS OF SOCIAL INCLUSION OF YOUNG PEOPLE LEAVING THE CHILD PROTECTION INSTITUTIONS

F.Chipea, C. Marc, C. Oşvat

Floare CHIPEA

PhD, Professor

University of Oradea, Romania

Cristiana Marc

PhD,

University of Oradea, Romania

Claudia Oşvat,

PhD, Assoc. Prof.

University of Oradea, Romania

Abstract: The issue of social inclusion of young people who come from child protection system in Romania was and still is at the center of concerns of decision-makers in the system, especially due to the fact that much of the effort focused in the last 25 years on this effect, apparently produced no substantial changes in terms of integration into society of the category of young people leaving the child protection system. In post-communist Romania, the legal framework that is governing the creation and diversification of services oriented to preparing young people for independent living has developed. How these regulations are implemented depend upon the concerns of the social actors invested with responsibilities in this field locally. This paper aims, on the one hand, to highlight the specific problems faced by this group of young people and, on the other hand, to capture specific aspects of life strategies adopted by individuals in this category, as reactions to the measures taken by social actors invested with specific responsibilities. The study was conducted in Oradea, including both young people from the protection system and professionals who interact with them.

Keywords: post-institutionalized young people, social inclusion, dependency, subculture of reliance on institutions.

Introduction

Institutionalized young people who leave orphanages at the age of 18 years are a vulnerable group with the greatest risk of social exclusion, meaning that they face scarcity of financial resources, they have high chances of negative socialization, by association, at early ages with young people who have dealt with crime, with poor housing conditions, who experience the situation of marginalization and stigmatization from other members of society, young people who face difficulty entering the labor market, all these features preventing their minimal participation in the social, cultural and political community (Zamfir, Preda, Dan, 2004; Becker, 1963; Sutherland, Cressey, 1966). The success of social inclusion of young people in this category "depends on the involvement of all the factors that influence child welfare in general, it depends on the existence of family support, the support of a social worker / educator in the initiation of independent living, the formation of skills necessary for independent existence of alternatives offered by the society in terms of finding a job and housing" (Alexandru, 2013, p. 219).

In practice, it is emphasized that "there aren't enough solutions to offer real protection to this group". It is believed that problems persist due to insufficient support on leaving the institution, this adding to the problems that already exist due to institutionalization (Dărăbuș et al, 2006, p. 14).

Social inclusion and professional integration of young people has been and remains a topic of interest for the decision makers in our country. Through social policies adopted in regard to this problem (e.g.: National Strategy for the protection and promotion of children's rights 2008 - 2013) it was intended to develop a legal framework to govern the

creation and diversification of services aimed at preparing young people for independent living, the formation of skills and abilities according to society's expectations in relation to them.

This paper captures, firstly, the specific problems of this category, highlighted by research conducted in the field, making particular reference to studies in Bihor County. The second part of the paper gives the results of a qualitative study conducted in Oradea which aims to highlight specific aspects regarding some mechanisms of social exclusion of people from the social security institutions in the process of their integration into the community.

Theoretical background

Studies on young people who come from residential institutions reveal that they exhibit a social behavior specific to subclass (Murray) and "that adults have a difficulty in establishing social relationships and exercising parental roles, affecting all their family and social life" (Luduşan, 2007, p. 401).

Regarding the emotional affective, personality or behavior disorders, studies show that they originate in the socialization process, conducted in the institutions of social protection, in which methods of discipline prevailed by punishments, threats, insults because of low increase of affective-emotional behaviour, hostile and cold emotional contacts, and because of the accumulation of various affective deficiencies over time (Brătianu, Roşca, 2005).

Also, another feature may be the lack of attachment or disoriented attachment to which children are exposed in institutions (Bolbay, 1994). This development of disoriented attachment overlaps personality structure characterized by affective and emotional immaturity, which

induces a low development in feelings and being unable to develop affective relationships, showing isolation, withdrawal or rejection.

A study undertaken in Bihor County in 2006 on a sample of 90 subjects (Onica-Chipea, 2007) sought to identify personal and group characteristics, and factors that influenced the social integration of young people from child protection institutions. The data reveal some features: poor preparation for life offered in institutions, the structuring of relations of friendship and mutual help that remain after deinstitutionalization, promiscuous sexual life, homosexuality, deviant behavior formed in institutions and further developed (theft became an occupation and a way of life for a large proportion of the subjects). Regarding their exclusion from the labor market (a situation encountered in most of the subjects), the explanations are different: young people mentioned negative attitudes and reluctance of employers to hire people from the child protection system; the employers who were interviewed cited poor training of young people for work, lack of a responsible attitude in relation to an organized work program and tasks involved in holding a job.

Another study, conducted between October 2007 and January 2008 by University of Oradea, Department of Sociology and Social-Assistance included 206 young people in Bihor and highlighted the following: people with the lowest chance of social-professional integration come from those who spent more time in social protection institutions; young people who did not receive support from society, didn't develop relationships of attachment to a reference person who could be for them a positive role model, those who don't have permanent employment practice, a community lifestyle, developing the same type of life and group behavior, "the gang"; the majority believes that their shortcomings are due to the protection system which abandoned them at

the age of 18 and the society who labeled and rejected them; young women usually do what their parents did, they breed their behavior, giving birth to a large number of children, and even if they agree to raise them (often alone) they don't have the skills to look after the children; the biggest problems of raising children and care for the families were invoked by people in Oradea and Beius, facing the greatest financial difficulties and quality of housing (Chipea, 2010).

A 2011 study that targeted beneficiaries of the project "Young People for Society" of Felix Family Foundation (Sava and Szabo, 2011) revealed the following: most young people interviewed are prone to inclusion within closed subcultures, with a small social capital; social integration is regarded as desirable, "a good thing", the main elements of integration are represented by the possibility of holding on to a job and housing, but without knowing or being interested in the means to achieve these objectives; reference people, those who are perceived as having an important role in the development of young people are "parents" from the home, "sponsors" abroad, or colleagues at work.

The results obtained in a survey conducted in 2012 (Oşvat and Marc, 2013) indicate the need for emotional support, communication and development of self-confidence of young people and it confirms the significant role of NGOs (Christian foundations from Oradea) in the integration of young people, the importance of education and support provided by peers, professionals, close people.

Study on the social inclusion of young people from child protection institutions

Objectives.

This study aimed to talk about specific issues regarding the integration in the community of young people from the protection system. The specific objectives were: to highlight the difficulties faced by

young people from institutions in socio-professional integration and outlining some proposals on how to support this vulnerable group.

Methodology.

For the study we used the sociological inquiry based on individual semi-structured interview. Interviews were conducted with young people from institutions (12 subjects) and experts in the field (3 respondents). Note that most subjects were part of the research sample taken in 2006 by Lavinia Onica-Chipea, allowing a longitudinal analysis approach on the process of social inclusion of subjects, of the changes compared to the situation in 2006. To supplement the information we have included in the investigated population the informal leader of the group of subjects. The study did not include beneficiaries of services provided by non-governmental organizations working in the field, in Oradea.

The interview guide included questions for young people on personal life (present situation, problems and ways of solving, family relationships, friendships, support network) and employment (employment, labor relations). The interview guide included questions addressed to specialists on the difficulties in work done with post-institutionalized young people, ways of solving the problems encountered, suggestions on how to support the target category.

The data collection was conducted in October - November 2014 and was held in Oradea. The sampling is theoretical and considers the relevance of research investigation units. The number of interviews considered reaching theoretical saturation. Participants in the study were informed about how the data provided are going to be used and were assured of the confidentiality; they expressed verbal consent to be involved in this type of activity.

The analysis and interpretation of results.

data obtained from the survey shows that, of the 90 subjects included in the sample in 2006, 15 have died, 22 are in prison, 10 have no shelter (are homeless), 43 people living in housing assigned by Oradea City Hall. To this, there are added another 50 people who came out of system after the study in 2006, of which 5 are in prison, 10 living on the streets and 35 were eligible for social housing, distributed by Oradea City Hall. The places where you can find young people living on the street are the train station and two of the parks in the city center.

Housing for deinstitutionalized people are most of the times old, have a poor state in terms of space and utilities, providing unsuitable living conditions.

“The house is old, I don’t have heat... In the winter I wear thick clothes and I sit under the blanket...”(V.M - subject).

Of these, 16 have minor children who are socialized in the same subculture of predominantly negative attitude to work, on learning, on social life. Most children attend school, mainly to procure basic food offered by the "Milk and cracknel" (noting that if their colleagues refused food this would be offered to them, thereby supplementing the family food), and obtain benefits from the social assistance system. For reasons of insecurity, material and financial resources, two of the families have recently abandoned their children in institutions. *"The problem is their behavior. Women have one night stands to have a place to stay, the baby is born, they receive state allowance, this is what they are interested in, they don't do very well, many are single mothers, the man is in jail ... (specialist).*

From the analysis we saw only two cases (families) who have managed to integrate into the local community. In both cases, the partners

of the couple are employed in a permanent job, are interested in an equipped living space with necessary facilities for a decent living, they have children attending school and avoid to have relationships with members of the deinstitutionalized group. Instead they try to relate to coworkers, striving to be accepted in the work group and neighborhood, avoiding undesirable behaviors specific to the group of which they were part of. Interviews have reiterated that a predictor of social inclusion of young deinstitutionalized group members could be their chance to attach people significant to them to provide positive examples of inclusion. *"I was fortunate to be helped by one of the carers who took me home on holidays and weekends, checking homework and buying me books that I read with pleasure"* (R.N. subject).

Regarding employment, the data reveals that only members of the two families have stable jobs, unlike the rest of them who are employed for short periods of time, unable to keep a job or never had a job. The latter situation is applicable to the young people who have mental deficiency and / or psychiatric disorders, who do not qualify for either distribution built homes for the homeless. Many who do not have jobs get their income from begging, stealing and prostitution.

Interestingly, those who rent housing / social housing prefer, or are tolerated by neighbors that have the same standard of living characterized by poverty, sharing their goods with them and consider themselves stigmatized and discriminated against those with higher living standards than their own. All people living in houses provided by the Municipality, coexist in the same yard with members of their own group or family who have the same social and educational characteristics, risk of social exclusion.

"I sit in the yard with poor neighbors, like me, living from day to day ... When they don't have enough to eat I give them, and then they give to me. I like them because we are the same ... I sat close to others and I didn't like them " (C.S. group leader).

Young people say that they and their children are reluctant to provide information on their background so they won't be offended and stigmatized. This lack of adaptation may be due to lack of confidence in themselves and in others, negative labeling and negative differentiation in relation to those outside the group. For them the positive attitude discrimination from others are perceived as rejection, degradation, exclusion. *"I worked for some ... they made fun of me, they were shouting: ragsthey gave me food and were offensive, I left ... "* (R.S. subject).

Most behavioral traits highlighted are negative consequences of socialization made in institutions, the system consists of dependency, lack of independent living skills, respect for work, discipline and organization, not assuming the responsibilities of a program of work and work tasks, the trend to live with those who come from the same environment and reproduce abuse and aggressive attitudes to which they were exposed. It is done as a process of self-education through continuous interaction between group members, the strongest managed to dominate the weak, imposing strong informal leaders in positions that require others own rules, behaviors, interests. Interviews reaffirmed the idea that social environment of institutions, although there are improvement in policies applied, it reiterates abuses of various forms (most commonly physical and sexual abuse). *"If there is a clean girl who learns and tries to be different than others is sexually abused, humiliated in front of all by the most powerful leader to show that she is submitted, being debased"* (C.S. group leader). The same opinion is shared by the

experts surveyed who believe that major problems are fostering of reliance on protection system and subculture that perpetuates further reducing the chances of integration into society.

Acquired behavior from institutions persists in setting up of family relationships, often emphasizing the relationship with partner or children, leading to domestic violence. Most often, children internalize subcultural norms and values described above, practice deviant behavior, committing physical assaults, offenses of theft, deception, which is why they are not accepted at work or school, and still being at risk of exclusion .

"Sometimes, the spouse / life partner of the woman is also the pimp ... whenever they have no money" (specialist).

"Children steal, because that is what they saw. If they see a phone that belongs to a colleague, left on a desk, they will steal it, because they want one too... "(specialist).

The success of those who have managed to integrate is explained by distancing themselves from the rest of the group, rare contacts with former colleagues from institutions and support provided by work colleagues, neighbors or other relevant people in the community.

"Those who come to work and to break away from the traumatic past have an extra chance. In fact, their chance to integrate is to separate from the others, it is essential "(specialist).

The answers reveal that the group manifests attitudes of group solidarity, "the gang", manifested by dividing goods with other members, aid provided in difficult situations, including those in prison. *"I give to them, because I know how it feels not to have food, we lived the same, we know each other ..." (S.M. subject).*

The results show that one of the reasons why some of the post-institutionalized young people become homeless is not accepting rules imposed in the services that can be provided to them, the fact that they don't want to be integrated into a workplace or fail to maintain a place of work, only for very brief periods of time, which deprives them of income and therefore places them unable to pay the rent (modest as is). There are people who believe that one should not pay rent, on the one hand because they do not agree to allocate a portion of their own money for this purpose, and secondly because the institutions created the reliance mentality on the institutions claiming that "they must be helped" and "they don't have to do anything".

"Some young assisted by the foundations have refused to live in an environment where there is discipline and rules and prefer to live on the street ..." (specialist).

Regarding labor integration, the specialists that were interviewed believe that there is a reluctance of employers about institutionalized young people, based precisely on the difficulties of young people to follow a work program, to perform assigned tasks and to accommodate in a group. Not even the benefits granted by Law 250/2013 for insertion employers appear to be attractive.

"Another reality that I noticed is that employers give up the facilities of the law, just so that they don't have to deal with people who are so difficult to integrate, with low efficiency ..." (specialist).

A relevant aspect stressed by experts was the need to increase involvement on employment services to help young people through information, advice and training.

"The intention is good but the implementation is difficult ... How to get young people to be informed? ... to benefit from these services ... there is

a missing link, the responsibilities should be specifically presented ..."
(specialist).

The proposals indicated by interviewees that help optimize social inclusion of young people leaving child protection system are: assigning housing, "their place", avoiding the perpetuation of specific subculture lifestyle in socialized people in institutions, in the vicinity of community members, which interact in the sense of taking over positive models of social life; ongoing assistance / support from specialists trained in social work, at least until the corresponding integration and acquiring life skills and property management in social housing; providing opportunities for learning trades within social economy initiatives, under specialist supervision; development of trust and attachment to the reference person entourage (e.g. workplace colleagues, professionals); stimulating public-private partnership in providing services to this vulnerable group; incentives for those who engage in work activities, valuation, leading to increased self-esteem; inclusion in collective labor / support groups to give them individual sense of belonging to a group or community and loyalty.

Experts interviewed have outlined a profile of the young person who is more likely to socio-professional integration:

"Greater chances for integration has the one who spent his/her early years in the family, entered the protection system, in the institution, later, the one who is healthy, had good results at school, was taken in by foundations ... " (specialist).

Conclusions

Studies, including the current one, points out that although during the postcomunist time, in Romania, there were adopted policies centered

on the young people group who were socialized in child protection institutions, their social inclusion target was achieved only partially. The formulated idea is supported by the low percentage of those who, after leaving the institutions fail to be included in optimal conditions in the community. The longitudinal study shows that about the same subjects who in 2006 were living on the street or in unsuitable homes offered by the Municipality can be found in the present difficult situation. Moreover, their children, even if they remain in their own families or entrusted in child protection institutions reproduce the same type of culture and practice similar behavior. Therefore the chance of reproducing the reliance culture on aid from institutions and deviant subculture character shared by group members is very high.

The intervention of the state or civil society for social inclusion of vulnerable group consists of people who at the age of 18 years old leaving the protection system, is focused mainly on two areas: providing housing and providing support for employment .

Failure in both directions is motivated, according to research conducted in poor socialization of the child protection system, which, in essence, failed to develop the skills necessary for independent living, has not developed a sense of responsibility towards work, family and to his own life. Furthermore, negative socialization, mainly driven by the daily interactions between group members without close supervision from staff and responsible institutions generates a type of deviant subculture, values and norms promoted by the repetition of deviant behavior, reinforced by informal control group leaders recruited from the strongest individuals who exercise discretionary dominion over group members. Reliance on the group thus formed is so strong that even after leaving the institution, they are following the group leader who exercises rough abuse, they are

the only ones who ensure the protection they need in relation to other members of society, which often stigmatizes them and rejects them.

The study revealed that the main solution approached aims to change the way of achieving socialization in child protection institutions, through their involvement in a greater extent in the training of life skills and developing self-esteem, by using to a higher extent case management rather than treating the children undifferentiated. The same approach would be required to be operated in the case of adults in this category, both for training and resource management skills to own property and to develop skills for inclusion in work groups.

"The answer of protection system to these problems is, however, one often inadequate." Motivation for this is understaffing, the intervention which is most often not being one custom made to the needs and peculiarities of the psycho-intellectual of the individual (Câmpan et al, 2010, pp. 8-9).

The main limitation of the current research is that individuals with higher education level weren't included in the study. This limit can be overcome by conducting a research on the category mentioned, which will enable comparisons based on social inclusion depending on accumulated cultural capital.

In summary, we believe that the main predictors of social inclusion of people socialized in child protection institutions are: the period in which they were subjected to socialization in institutions; the size of the group they belong to and the characteristics of the informal leader of the group; the implementation of measures of social inclusion post-institutionalization to avoid the perpetuation of life and culture in the deviant subclass, which consists of people undergoing socialization in

institutions; providing social and emotional support in a differentiated way, for those who need support.

Bibliography:

- Alexandru, M. (2013). Tinerii care provin din centrele de plasament (Young People Who Come From Placement Center) in D. Buzducea (coord.), *Economia socială a grupurilor vulnerabile (Social Economy of Vulnerable Groups)*, Polirom Publishing House, Iași;
- Brătianu, I., Roșca, C., (2005). *Copilul instituționalizat între protecție și abuz (Institutionalized Child Between Protection and Abuse)*, Lumen Publishing House, Iași;
- Becker, H.S. (1963). *Outsiders: Studies in the Sociology of Deviance*. New York: Free Press
- Bowlby, J., (1944). *Attachement and loss, Vol I ;I și Vol. II*, Penguin Books, London;
- Chipea, F., (2010). *Dezvoltare socială teritorială: premise conceptuale și date empirice (Territorial Social development: conceptual and empirical premises)*, Oradea University Publishing House, Oradea;
- Câmpean, C., Constantin, P., Mihalache, E., (2010). Resurse și nevoi de suport în integrarea socială a copiilor și tinerilor protejați în servicii rezidențiale de protecție a copilului. Raport de cercetare, Fondul Român de Dezvoltare Socială (FRDS), în cadrul proiectului "ACTIN" – proiect pilot de cercetare și formare pentru integrarea socială activă a tinerilor din sistemul de protecție a copilului" finanțat de Uniunea Europeană în cadrul Programului „Facilitatea de Tranziție 2007/19343.03.03 - Integrarea în societate a tinerilor aparținând minorităților și grupurilor dezavantajate (Resources and support needs of social integration of children and protected young people in residential child protection services. Research Report, Romanian Social Development Fund, within the "ACTIN ' project - pilot project research and training for active social integration of young people in the child protection system" financed by the European Union under the "Transition Facility 2007 / 19343.03.03 - Integration into society of young minorities and disadvantaged groups ") available at <http://www.crips.ro/doc/rfactin.pdf>, accessed at 11.11.2014;
- Dărăbuș, Ș, Alexandrescu, G., Potter, M.J., Cruceru, I., (coord.) (2006). *Manual de proceduri privind inserția socio-profesională a*

- tinerilor care părăsesc sistemul de protecție a copilului* (A Guide for procedures regarding socio-professional insertion of young people leaving child protection system), EurPrint Publishing House, Baia-Mare;
- Ludușan M., (2007), Aspecte privind procesul de integrare în viața de familie și societate a tinerilor instituționalizați (Aspects of integration in family life and society of institutionalized young people) in F. Chișea, I. Cioară, A. Hatos, M. Marian și C. Sas (coord.), *Cultură, dezvoltare, identitate: perspective actuale* (Culture, Development, Identity: Current perspectives), Expert Publishing House, București;
- Onica-Chișea, L., (2007). *Aspecte socio-juridice privind protecția drepturilor copilului: studiu de caz în județul Bihor* (Socio-legal protection of children's rights: a case study in Bihor county), Expert Publishing House, București
- Oșvat C., Marc C., 2013, Placement at Professional Foster Caregiver – Protection Measure for the Child in Difficulty, *Revista de Asistență Socială* (Social Work Review) Issue no.2/2013, pp. 59-68;
- Sava S., Szabo M., (2011). Integrarea socială a tinerilor ieșiți din centre de plasament (Social integration of young people leaving foster care) in S. Popoviciu (ed. coord.), *Perspective teoretice și practice asupra asistenței sociale a familiei și copilului* (Theoretical and practical perspectives on family and child welfare), Emanuel University Publishing House, Oradea
- Sutherland, E., Cressey, D.R., (1966). *Principii de criminologie* (Principles of Criminology), Cujas Publishing House, Paris;
- Zamfir, E., Preda, M., Dan, A., (coord.), Surse ale excluziunii sociale în România (Sources of social exclusion in Romania), in *Revista de Asistență Socială* (Social Work Review) Issue 2-3/ 2004, Polirom Publishing House, p. 3-57;
- *** Legea nr. 250/2013 pentru modificarea și completarea Legii nr. 76/2002 privind sistemul asigurărilor pentru șomaj și stimularea ocupării forței de muncă și pentru modificarea Legii nr. 116/2002 privind prevenirea și combaterea marginalizării sociale, publicată în Monitorul Oficial, Partea I, nr. 457, din 24 iulie 2013 (Law no. 250/2013 for amending and supplementing Law no. 76/2002 regarding the unemployment insurance system and employment stimulation and to amend Law no. 116/2002 on preventing and fighting social exclusion, published in Official Monitor, Part I, no. 457, from 24 July 2013)

*** Strategia Națională în domeniul protecției și promovării drepturilor copilului 2008-2013 (The National Strategy for the Protection and Promoting of Child's Rights 2008-2013), available at <http://www.copii.ro/Files/Strategia%20Nationala%20in%20domeniul%20protectiei%20dreptu.pdf>, accesed at 11.11.2014.

ERGONOMICS, AN IMPORTANT ROLE IN THE SAFETY AND HEALTH AT WORK

E. Vancu

Emil VANCU

PhD, MD, Assoc.prof.

"Aurel Vlaicu" University of Arad, Romania

Abstract: The ergonomics in our days tries to solve a multitude of problems that appear in the field of occupational work. There are many factors which can improve the work performances. The author presents the result of his research made in trying to introduce the SOBANE Strategy for management of occupational risks. So, this study brings a correlation of the musculoskeletal hyper solicitation aspects of the employees related to age, working age and of the vicious positions earned with the goal of reducing the professional risk and of improving the health of the employees.

Key words: SOBANE, ergonomics, musculoskeletal solicitation, workplace, work organization.

Purpose of the research

The purpose of this research was to introduce the SOBANE STRATEGY for management of occupational risks.

SOBANE is the first step to prevention. SOBANE means: Screening-Observation-Analysis-Expertise. The SOBANE STRATEGY is a modern application in ergonomics. The ergonomics is often used as a synonym for preventing musculoskeletal diseases.

Material and methods:

The study has been done on 113 employees in a confection production unit and on 34 employees in a VDU Workstation for 3 years.

The analyzed factors were: the ergonomics of the work places, to prove the existence of a multidisciplinary teamwork, the solicitation of the musculoskeletal system through posture, during activity time, following the SOBANE STRATEGY- Screening-Observation-Analysis-Expertise. All of this is a result of a work of occupational health specialist, psychologist, social worker, safety engineers and human resource manager.

Discussion and results:

Ergonomics should be centered on the creation of comfort and safety for all workers.

For the employees in a VDU Workstation and in a textile unit a good posture is for preventing musculoskeletal disorders of the hand and wrist, of the elbow and shoulder of the back, neck and torso.

The 34 employees in a VDU Workstation are young with an age between 20-35 years. The fluctuation at this work place is high. Only 34 are stable on the same workplace.

After three years 27% present symptoms of musculoskeletal disorders: discomfort, pain, redness, swelling, reduced range of motion.

Two persons developed spondylosis.

Considering training, 83% of the employees worked only as confectioners, obtaining an experience in this field over the years.

The age of the employees represents a stability factor but also a high risk considering the musculoskeletal disorders. 78% are aged between 35 and 45, and the rest between 45 and 58.

Generally they are working in only one shift but in certain situations, when the workload is bigger, they commute to a higher work. 86% of the employees have accepted this work regime.

70% of the employees have their residence in an urban environment, the rest are commuting from the surrounding areas.

11 employees were hired suffering from an extended form of spinal column spondylosis, following a periodic physiotherapeutic treatment.

2 employees had developed a disc hernia which has lead to the greatest time of working incapacity.

28% of the employees are known with clinical spinal column spondylosis signs, and have been put to record.

At the last medical checkup, an increase of 12% of the musculoskeletal disorders was observed.

Together with the decision factors from the production unit we have redesigned some of the working places on a new ergonomically reevaluation. We pledged the employees to change their stance every time they need to, and to take seriously into account every factor that determines musculoskeletal hyper solicitations, like the long orthostatic and the vicious positions.

Conclusion:

1. The main factors of high health risk due to ergonomic hazards are: wrong design of work places; machines or tools; deficient task organization; vicious posture; location lighting; type of activity; age; working age.
2. Main points for a good posture: adjustable seat back; good lumbar support; adjustable seat height; no excess pressure under things; space

under table; upper arms vertical, forearms horizontal; comfortable head position

The SOBANE STRATEGY supports the ergonomics intervention in a better functionary organization and better competitiveness.

Ergonomics draws on many disciplines such as psychology, sociology, social work, physics, engineering, and occupational health specialist. Ergonomics is a matter of multidisciplinary team work.

Ergonomics should be a tool of creation of comfort, safety and ability for all workers. Ergonomics is good for all business and can be applied to all human activities on and off the job.

Bibliography:

Monod, H., Kapitaniak, B., (1999, 2003), *Ergonomie*, Editura Masson, Paris

Tefas, L., Pop, L., (2004), *Bolile profesionale ale sistemului muscolo scheletar*, Editura Medicala universitara "Iuliu Hateieganu", Cluj Napoca 2004

Vancu, E., Vancu, R., Roman, C., Roman, T., (2008), Particularitățile pozițiilor vicioase la confecționare, în volumul *Conferința națională Ergonomia în practica medicinei muncii*, Editura RIK, pp. 128-140, ISBN (13) 978-973-87909-8-8 și ISBN (10) 973-87909-8-0;

Bridger, R.S., (2003), *Introduction to ergonomics*, 2nd ed., „Taylor & Francis” USA

Malchaire, J., (2014), *The SOBANE strategy*, www.deparisnet.be

