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THE INFLUENCE OF SINGLE PARENTING ON THE PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT OF TEENAGERS*

O. D. Moldovan

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Abstract: We approached the development of personality traits and self-esteem during puberty and adolescence, to observe the influence of the variable "single parent" to these psychological dimensions. The motivation for this study is of scientific type, knowing the high incidence of divorce in Romania and the education problems of educating and forming the adolescents in families with single parents/mothers. It is known that because of the emotional load of puberty and adolescence can be caused anxiety and depressive states, resulting in a higher incidence of eating behavior disorders, drug abuse, suicide attempts. Early psychological evaluation, personal guidance of adolescents towards self-knowledge, to express appropriately explosive feelings, but also the intervention by counseling programs for optimizing the personality potential, the development of self-regulating communication purposes, become prime targets in this dimension of developmental psychology. The article presents the results of a study conducted on two samples of adolescents: with both parents and with a single parent regarding the development of some personality features.

Keywords: teenagers, self-esteem, personality features, single parent families, two parent families.

Theoretical framework

At the age of adolescence, the child belonging to modern family tends to behave in front of parents in two ways: against them or away from them. In the first case, he believes that parents do not understand him and decides to "fight", proving that they can succeed without their

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help, but applying a different mentality and a different scale of values. In the second case, the child does not fight, but builds a world of his own, isolates himself from the parents and accepts around him only those who understand him. From this perspective we can conclude that contemporary society is torn by interpersonal contradictions and this gives additional emphasis when it comes from different generations.

In this context, the teenager is forced to think about what kind of person wants to become, what would be the world and society in which he lives. With them, on the subjective, psychological plan, there is a process of changing of the self image, which falls in conjunction with the adolescent tendency to describe himself. This "creation" of a new identity occurs often in opposition to adult image and the adoption of social and group norms present to the others from the same young generation. Major changes occur in social plan: teenagers spend more time with others of the same age and spend much less time with the parents and the family than when they were children. However, adolescence is the period when are taken important decisions for the personal development and are made plans for the future.

In this study we shall see how are influenced the plans for the future, the social, body, emotional self-esteem of the adolescents by mono- or two parent family environment.

We resorted to this kind of research as increasingly often we hear couples in contemporary society, claiming to be on the brink of divorce. Whether it is a step unilaterally or bilaterally, in both cases produces a traumatic syndrome which, according to mental robustness of the people involved, can have major effects. Currently there is a trend of increasing divorce, for which is required a careful study of this phenomenon and of the factors which produced it (urbanization, changes in family functions, increasing emancipation of women, decreasing influence of religion and other related to tradition items, changes in people's attitudes towards marriage, increased length of marriage as a result of increasing life expectancy etc.).

Immediately after the divorce the child feels removed from the focus area of family interest, loses confidence in parents, feels deprived of the protection implicit afforded to him and sees himself as abandoned, weak and vulnerable in front of a life about which he is aware only by the dark side. Trauma of parents' divorce is broad and can develop unpredictably.

For the children come from families in which there are various forms of violence, the divorce is a release. Often from outside the separation is seen as a liberation but in children soul remains a bitter for life.

Living together in families with one parent - usually the mother - is considered a moment of crisis, the divorce and subsequent the obligations of a single parent bringing a new context for the normal development of children. But many families are recovering from the initial shock of divorce and resume their normal functioning in a few years, especially if the conflict and continues adversity do not continue. Although some children manifest disturbances in development, others show an increased resistance to shock, as additional competence, adaptive. In fact, not only that the negative effects of divorce can be avoided, but it is also possible to have some long-term positive effects of this difficult period. This is what is trying to find out the present research (Gavrila-Ardelean, 2014).

Taking into account the social values which are permanently changing, confusing the overall family environment, arbitrary political decisions in education, the adolescent will not have another alternative but to assimilate superior mechanisms for adaptation, the flexibility of thinking, the openness to social, to emotional, to self acceptance and tolerance, to ensure success, both academically and professionally and personally.

Thus the fact that a teenager lives in a family with one parent does not automatically mean that the child will have problems because many such children become successful adults. And the few studies on this subject had a number of positive aspects such as: adolescents from single parent families learn to take more responsibility, learn better take care of themselves, have a better understanding to their parents and even a much stronger relationship with the parent with whom they live. Also, these children feel valued in the family, are involved in daily household activities and receive appreciation for their help to the single parent.

Personality - definitions and explanatory theories

The personality psychology resorted to the use of descriptive thematic units of personality, describing the personality of the different categories of terms (features, factors, skills, motives, Self, roles, attitudes, constructs).

Each of these terms has generated a certain theory of personality, then depending on the degree of proximity and similarity were related to each other allowing us to build explanatory-interpretative models of personality which in turn have allowed wider various perspectives of approaching the personality. M. Zlate presents in his "Ego and personality" (2004) four perspectives of approaching the personality (atomistic, structural, systemic, psychosocial), while revealing their

theoretical and applied implications, first in a general context, then in a particular one.

From the systemic perspective "personality appears as the top integrative unit that serves as a frame of reference for the study and interpretation of various dimensions of the psychic system, as a superordinate system that can not be reduced nor confused with the various psychic processes and functions, which may not be claved to primary psychobehavioral biological structures or, finally, as a hipercomplex dynamic system involving a plurilevel hierarchical organization relative independent to the components etc. Since any system has input-state-output means that they will be found also at the personality level (Zlate, 2004).

The psychosocial perspective, on the other hand, is geared towards capturing of the concrete personality, as expressed in the particular social statements and conjectures, in the interrelations system and the collective psychology, depending on the psychosocial attributes of the human beings, namely the statutes and roles, by its levels of aspiration and expectation, by its skills structure and the structure his views. (Golu, Green, Zlate, 1995).

However, the interpretive-explanatory possibilities of the four perspectives approaches of personality are not considered equal by Zlate, and the author brings together the two perspectives into one, called systemic-psycho-social perspective, offering new explanatory-interpretative opportunities on it. The approach of personality gives us a contradictory aspect: there is no unanimity on the nature of its object of research, there is no single model of personality, but heterogeneous models, because the term personality has different meanings in different contexts. Multidisciplinary approach of personality leads to understand human life and complex knowledge of various human profiles. (Ilut, 2005)

The combination of these facets of personality, the interrelations between them will lead to structure different types of personalities or some functionality of interpersonal relations.

In the man total and integral personality, which we conceive in terms of philosophy, on the one hand, as a concrete personality and, on the other hand, as the ideal of achievement, the significance is not give by the qualities, "the configurations of features" the structures, the systems and subsystems of personality, but particular kind of integration and behavior using of them. Therefore, a great importance has what the man truly is, what he thinks he is, what he wants to be, what he thinks about others and believes that others think about him, his manifested behavior being in function of one or other of these elements or of the particular

mode of their integration and functioning. Thus, professor Zlate presents the following "multifaceted personality": real personality (PR) as it really is; self-assessed personality (PA) that is the image that the individual has about himself; ideal personality (PI) that is envisioned, desired, that to which the individual aspires and try to form; perceived personality (PP), individual image about others; projecting personality (PPro), what the individual believes that others are thinking of him; manifested personality (PM), that externalized, objectified in behavior. All these "facets" of personality do not have a value in themselves, but it appears in their interaction (Zlate, 2004, p. 50).

The *real personality* (PR) is constituted by all the processes, functions, tendencies, traits and psychological states that man has at one time and he can make anytime available, fact which ensures the identity and sustainability over time. In real personality the own individual experience, blends, harmonizes or differentiates, detaches from one and others experience; concepts, thoughts, attitudes and intimate opinions face with those of the other people, correcting and deeping themselves, the original psycho-individual attitudes and prejudices are reinforced or changed and psychosocial "demolished".

The *self-assessed personality* (AP) includes all representations, ideas, believes of the human being about his own individual personality, usually included in what is called self-image. It's the way in which the individual perceives himself, what he thinks about himself, the role that he assigns in relation to others.

Self-image represents an integrator and organizer of the psychic life of the individual, with a major role in the choice of values and goals (Zaharia, 2012). It is considered the central core of the personality, landmark, orientative constant, the defining element of social status and role.

The *ideal personality* (PI) is what the individual wants to obtain, what he would be, how he would like to be, it represents the personality projected in the future, the ideal to be achieved, the model that the individual proposes to build during his life. Having essentially a prospective character, the ideal personality has important forces and stimulating functions. She drives the individual to action, to search, detect and retaining the best and favorable informational content, actionable ways and means, forms psychobehavioral forms to ensure a swift and effective social adaptation to environmental demands.

The personality model has value of purpose and especially of guidance in relation to the actual conduct of the individual. It allows the purchase and anticipated commissioning of some behaviors.

Based on social learning the ideal personality can become real personality. From a psychotherapeutic and educational point of view, the essential question is the value of the person as a model of psychobehavioral traits and features of personality: the more they will be more "realistic", closer in agreement with the intrinsic nature of that person, the more likely their conversion will be higher in reality. But the discrepancy between real and desired, between potentialities and aspirations could lead to the installation of psycho-behavioral disorders and they have to be pursued also in the case teenagers and adolescents.

The *perceived personality* (PP) includes all representations, ideas, assessments on others. As individuals develop their self-image, so he formed a picture about others, who guides his behavior towards them. Image about each other and especially the correctness or incorrectness thereof are based, on the one hand, on the capacity of the person known to externalize, to leave known, and on the other hand, on the capacity of the knowing person to decipher the essential in the information that are offered.

The perception of another or the image of another register as an essential fact in individual personality, adjusting them directly his relationships with others. Although early in the interpersonal acts it is highly mobile, even fluctuating due to situational mobility and fluctuations of the relations and behaviors of people involved in relationships, over time, certain behavioral invariants of other people a crystallized and stable, giving it value of criterion in interpersonal behaviors (Gavrila-Ardelean, 2015).

The *projected personality* (PPro) includes all thoughts, feelings, liking that believes an individual that the other have, cherish, and do others on his own - what has been called "self-image attributed to the world" (Ceașu, 1983), ie what I think the other people think of me. Such an image sometimes appears as the expression of the inner most desired wishing of the individual to appear in the eyes of the other and sometimes as the immediate reflex of the others behavior towards him. In this case the individual develop and operate the conduct of waiting, expecting that the others behave towards him corresponding to the image that he believes they have about him. Self-image assigned to the world is veritable regulator of interpersonal behaviors, the two partners must consider and think how that is reflected in each other's eyes.

Last but not least, *the manifested personality* (PM) is represented by all the traits and qualities that find their expression in specific ways, in their own specific behavioral externalization and objectification. The manifested personality is the "intersection" between individual and social, between the psychic interiority of the individual and society

normativity. In such an intersection it can appear confluences, harmonization and dissociation, disagreements, which grants to the total personality of the individual a specific existential trajectory.

Analyzing the facets of personality, it is noted that these are not isolated, separated from each other, but rather intertwine, presuppose each other, intersect and convert into each other. Due to the relations of cooperation or conflict between them, extending some in others or their compensation, as the association or value disparity disjunction, human personality takes on a special "presentation" (Zlate, 2004).

In the present study, the personality theories and facets will be addressed exclusively from the point of view of the role and stage of forming of adolescents, based on the image and role in global personality development emerged from the relations and interrelations between its facets.

The present study aims to examine first whether teenagers are with single - divorced parents - have a level of self-esteem lower than those in two parent families and whether these adolescents present significant differences in the development of personality traits. Acquiring a realistic self-esteem is one of the basic needs of the child, and this is formed on the basis of personality traits formation of a complete and consistent representation of itself (with evaluative landmarks from families and school, with customized rules depending on each family).

In view of the above observations, we started from the assumption that adolescents reared in single-parent families will present self-esteem deficit and a difference in the development of personality traits, this being due primarily to lack of rigorous parental control, of satisfying some fundamental emotional needs from the parents part who themselves go through a period of crisis.

Research hypotheses

Based on observations in the literature, we assumed that:

H1: Teenagers coming from single parent families will get on average significantly lower scores on the overall amount of self-esteem scale test (ETES) compared with adolescents from families with both parents.

H2: Teenagers coming from single parent families will get on average significantly lower scores on self-esteem dimensions established by test-esteem Scale (ETES) compared with adolescents from families with both parents.

H3: Scores of teenagers coming from single parent families will differ significantly from personality factors established with HSPQ (Cattell personality questionnaire) compared to adolescents from families with both parents.

H4: We assume that adolescents from families with both parents present, on average, higher scores on emotional stability factors, expansion, maturity and emotional integration compared to the group of teenagers coming from single parent families.

H5: We assume that scores of teenagers from single parent families will have at the intelligence factor from the personality questionnaire scores significantly lower than those from families with both parents.

Subjects

In our research, we investigated two groups of teenagers, including 35 teenagers come from single-parent families (with single mothers - divorced) and 33 adolescents come from two parent families, all high school students. In total, they were investigated 78 adolescents (44 boys and 34 girls), aged between 15 and 19 years.

Among adolescents coming from single parent families, 18 were girls and 17 - boys, aged between 15 and 19 years. They lived with single mothers, divorced but was not determined the period of time passed from parents' divorce. In all cases the mother was engaged in the labor market and support themselves or with their parents help.

Among adolescents coming from two parent families, 11 were girls and 22 - boys. Their ages ranged between 16 and 19; all are students in classes IX-XII of high-school

Methods used

For data gathering regarding the self esteem and self-image, we applied two questionnaires:

- ETES esteem Scale (Echelle Toulousaine d'Estime de Soi) - pubertal and adolescents version (adapted on the population of adolescent by the psychologist Adriana Craciun 1998).

- Personality Questionnaire for teenagers of Cattell (HSPQ) - developed by Cattell and Sealy in 1966 based on research on the manifestation of personality questionnaire 16PF factors in adolescence.

The Self-esteem Scale Toulouse - ETES (Echelle Toulousaine d'Estime de Soi), was the first test instrument we used and was published in 1994, the authors being Nathalie Roussel-Oubrayrie, Claire Safont-Mottay and Myriam De Leonardis, of the University of Toulouse France.

Composed of 60 items, ETES determines the level of self-esteem, identifying areas of vulnerability revealed by self themselves in several aspects: emotional, physical, social, school and prospective. These aspects correspond to the five dimensions of self-esteem: Emotional Self - SE; School Self - SC; Social Self - SS; Physical Self - SP; Prospective Self - SF - Self person related to the project in the future.

The second tool of research, Personality Questionnaire for teenagers Cattell (HSPQ) provides a summary of data on the evolution of the personality factors established by the author in the 16 factors of personality Questionnaire in 1950 during the period between 11 and 18 years old, depending on age and gender criteria.

The inventory turns from 12 source traits defined by factor analysis, and the items are selected based on those factors saturation, without specifying how they were originally formulated or elected. The factors evaluated by factor analysis are bipolar constructs trying to contain the crowd of behavioral manifestations specific to the named dimension, gradually, from one of the poles thereof characterized by a maximum expression in the behavior of the dimension extreme, to the other, characterized by a maximum expression of the opposite (Minulescu, 2000).

Results and discussions

We compared the averages obtained by the group of teenagers coming from single parent families, at the questionnaire to assess self-esteem or certain personality factors established by Cattell personality questionnaire with the averages obtained by the lot of teenagers coming from two parent families.

Comparisons were performed using Student t-test for comparison of means of two independent samples, test that shows if confirmed or refuted hypothesis of the study and whether there are significant differences between statistical averages of groups of subjects. All processing was performed using SPSS 17.00 for Windows application options.

We will present the results of our research presenting the hypotheses as follows:

Hypothesis 1 - *Teenagers coming from single parent families will get on average significantly lower scores on the overall amount of self-esteem scale test (ETES) compared with adolescents from families with both parents.*

Using the "t" test for independent samples, for this hypothesis was concluded that the averages of the two samples differ significantly ($t = 3.457$, $p = 0.01$), but observations on media samples shows that the average scores of global self-esteem is higher for teenagers coming from single parent families than others (see table 1 and figure 1).

Table 1. Comparison between the averages between the two sample on the overall amount of self-esteem scale test

<i>SELF ESTEEM – GLOBAL VALUE</i>			
<i>Adolescents from single parents families (ASPF)</i>	Value of test „t” t = 3,457	Significance threshold p = 0,01	Average = 46,20
<i>Adolescents with both parents (ABP)</i>			Average = 41,09

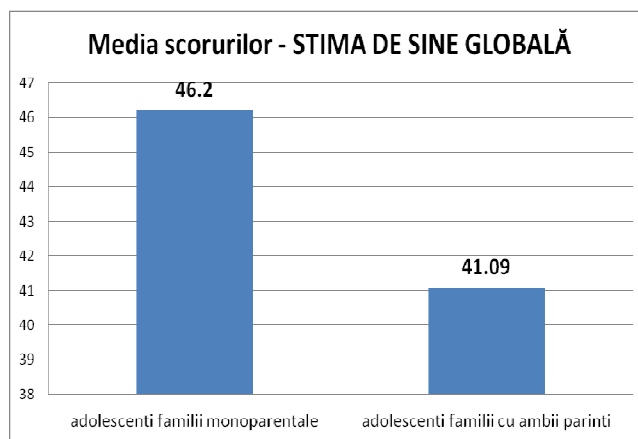


Figure 1. Comparison between the averages between the two sample on the overall amount of self-esteem scale test

Although social perception led us to assume that there will be an underestimation of the self from teenagers coming from single parent families, the study gave us the exact opposite: a higher level of self-esteem for these children and a lower level for those from families with both parents. According to Standard self-esteem Scale, worth over 48 points represent an overestimation of self-image, and scores between 22 to 28 points represents an medium level of self-esteem, a capacity for objective consideration of the teenagers. The significant difference

recorded for the overall self-esteem refers to a slight overestimation of the self (global value mean = 46.2) of the adolescents in single-parent families and a medium value (41.09) for the adolescents from two parent families.

So the first working hypothesis that single-parent family will negatively influence the self-esteem of adolescents raised by single mothers, is not confirmed, but the study will be much deeper and will detail the formation structure of self-esteem in adolescents and how this construct is influenced by variable "single parent" in analyzing the next hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2. *Teenagers coming from single parent families will get on average significantly lower scores on self-esteem dimensions established by test-esteem Scale (ETES) compared with adolescents from families with both parents.*

From the following table we can deduce that the size of the Self are not presenting significant differences between adolescents coming from single parent families and others, except the Self prospective which records significant differences between the two groups of subjects, but not to confirm the hypothesis. Thus, as with the global values of self-esteem, the average of subjects from families with both parents is lower than the average of adolescents from single parent families, contrary to the hypothesis formulated (see table 2)

Table 2. Self esteem Dimensions – comparison between the two samples

Self Esteem Dimensions	Test „t”	Significance threshold	ASPF	APB
			Average	Average
Physic Self	2.472	0.16 > 0.05	9.89	8.79
Emotional Self	2.527	0.14 > 0.05	9.4	8.33
School Self	2.291	0.25 > 0.05	7.94	6.61
Social Self	-0.09	0.99 > 0.05	9.57	9.58
Prospective Self	4.260	0.00 < 0.05	9.26	7.64

After statistical analysis of the values of the two samples we analyze the average values on each dimension of self-esteem, relating to the standard of the used scale (fig.2.).

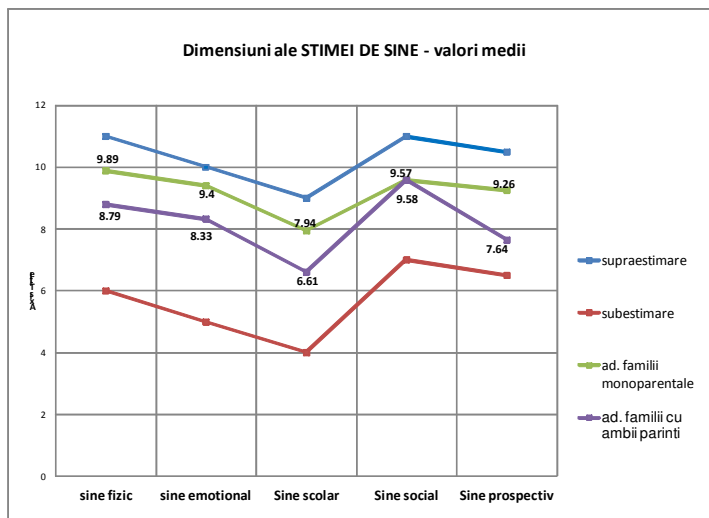


Figure 2. Values of the dimensions of Self-esteem

From the above chart we can observe the tendency of the adolescents from single parent families to overestimate themselves and to have a location around the average, so a more objective self-esteem, of adolescents from families with both parents.

In other words, adolescents with divorced parents, brought up by single mothers have a high appreciation over their bodily appearance (9.89), think they have a better control over emotions (9.4) have an objective view on school performance (7.94) have a tendency to overestimate the social, of their own skills of communication and adaptation in collective (9.57) and have a very good picture about their ability to integrate into the adult world, about the affirmation of self, or about their implication in building their future.

On the other hand, the adolescents from families with both parents have an objective picture about their physical appearance (8.79), have also objectivity regarding their capacity to control of emotions and impulsivity (8.33), are assessed correctly regarding school performance and their presentation to education (6.61). We record a trend of overestimation at this category of subjects in social self (9.58), thus overstating their social skills and perhaps how they are seen by others.

Still appears a statistically significant difference from the first group of subjects linked to the assessment of the ability to integrate into the adult world (7.74), and involvement in building their future.

Nor the second hypothesis of the study is not confirmed, meaning that, on the whole, the self-image of adolescents from single-parent families does not suffer nor in its structure constitutive - physical, emotional, educational, social or prospective.

The tendency to overestimate their self-image of adolescents coming from single parent families can be explained by lower parental control or emotional investment in high single mothers in the child that they grow. The adolescent forms his body image, and the emotional image both in relation to others, but especially by reporting him more or less conscious to the parent with whom he lives. If this parent invests affection, trying to compensate for the absence of the other parent with praise and valorisation of his own child, then the child develops this positive self-image.

We recall that parental divorce is a crisis for the family and for children who are in this situation, however, studies show that family environment recovers, takes a new structure more stable, less confrontational than the first and more proper to child development.

The present study confirms this effect of stability of single parents by the lack of differences in the self-esteem formation of adolescence raised by a single mother face to those raised by both parents. Easily supraestimative scores available to adolescents in single-parent families may be due to self-control or an image of " strong and responsible child, " that they are required to show.

On the other hand, the values of self-esteem recorded by teenagers from two parent families, slightly lower than the others show a higher parental control, strained relations between teens and parents (recognized by the literature), perhaps the effort of a greater opposition of the child to both parents and the recognition of its own status in the family and therefore its greatest fears regarding the image he has in front of their parents and those around him.

Hypothesis 3 – *The scores of teenagers coming from single parent families will differ significantly at personality factors tested with HSPQ Cattell personality questionnaire compared to adolescents from families with both parents.*

To check the differences between the groups means the standard notes of Personality Questionnaire for teenagers we have resorted to comparative statistical analysis of t-student type. The following table denoted t test values, the levels of its significance, and averages of the investigated subjects (see table 3).

Table 3. t test values, the levels of its significance, and averages of the investigated subjects for HSPQ

Personality factors	Test „t”	Significance threshold	<i>ASPF</i>	<i>ABP</i>
			Average	Average
A Factor, Schizotimie-cyclothymia	0.300	0.76 > 0.05	3.83	3.70
B Factor, intelligence	0.556	0.58 > 0.05	3.03	2.82
C Factor, ego strength	4.817	0.00 < 0.05	7.80	5.52
D Factor, phlegmatic-excitabile	-2.046	0.47 > 0.05	2.51	3.67
E Factor, submissive-dominant	-0.435	0.66 > 0.05	7.37	7.15
F Factor, taciturn-expansive	-1.858	0.70 > 0.05	4.97	5.76
G Factor, superego strength	5.087	0.00 < 0.05	7.80	5.45
H Factor, timidity - boldness	2.624	0.12 > 0.05	8.03	7.15
I Factor, hardness - sensitivity	-0.404	0.68 > 0.05	5.97	6.18
J Factor, collectivism - individualism	-4.405	0.00 > 0.05	3.77	4.97
O Factor, confidence - self-blame	0.542	0.59 > 0.05	2.71	2.45
Q2Factor, conventional- nonconformist	-4.477	0.00 < 0.05	1.54	3.48
Q3Factor, weak sense of self - strong sense of self	-3.439	0.01 < 0.05	3.60	5.18
Q4Factor, relaxation tension	-2.251	0.28 > 0.005	2.80	3.97

We note that adolescents from single-parent families do not present significant differences in personality factors "schizotimie-cyclothymia," "intelligence," "excitability" factor E "submissive-dominant" and factor F, "taciturn - expansive". Also, no significant differences are observed between adolescents from families with both

parents and those from single parent families in terms of "timidity - boldness" (factor H), the "hardness - sensitivity" (factor I), "self-confidence – self blame"(factor O) and factor Q4 - " relaxation - tension ".

On the other hand, t test shows scores with significant differences in terms of following factors: "Ego strength" (C), "superego strength" (G), "collectivism - individualism" (J), "conventional - nonconformist "(Q2) and 'weak sense of self - strong sense of self" (Q3).

From this point of view we can look at the averages of both groups of subjects after the chart below, which will provide both the previously statistically demonstrated differences and the personality development profile of the two groups of subjects (figure 3).

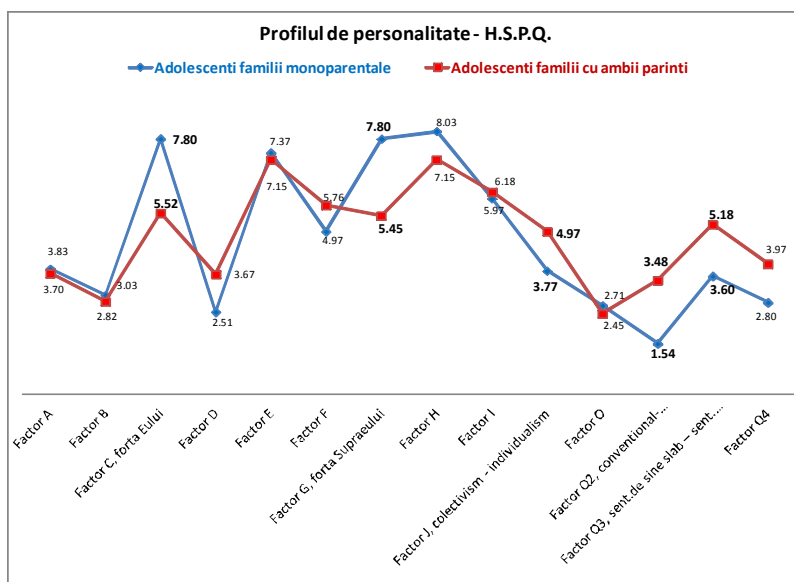


Figure 3. The statistically demonstrated differences and the personality development profile of the two groups of subjects

Imagining this personality profile of subjects samples, we see close to extreme note at the factors H, G and E (highs) and factors Q2, D, A and Q4 (notes low) to the adolescents come from single-parent families and to the factors E H (high notes with low influence on behavior, NS = 7.15) and for low notes to extreme at O and B factors in adolescents from families with both parents.

In other words, the teenagers come from single-parent families tend to be more adventurous, enterprising and sociable, with a rich emotional resonance, like teenagers from families with two parent, because in this case the two samples do not show statistically significant differences .

Factor G shows high values in adolescents coming from single parent families, they presenting themselves as conscientious, diligent, with the spirit of duty and responsibility versus their peers from families with both parents having a weaker development of the superego (NS = 5.45) but not in the extreme low. Analytically, we can only say that teenagers come from two parent families are less conscientious, with a much lower sense of duty and less preachy than others.

Both subjects samples are independent spirits, positives, sure of themselves, authoritarian, domineering and rather stubborn personality, the scale E of the HSPQ questionnaire is not registering significant differences between groups investigated (NS NS = 7.37 and = 7.15).

From the standpoint of ego strength (factor C), feature showing significant differences between the two samples, we see high values in adolescents from single parent families and medium grades from others. So the teenager raised by a single mother, divorcee is rather stable, with a good control of emotions, calm, realistic, with a strongly Self against adolescent from families with both parents having an emotional stability and a degree of realism more low. The self is not as strong and these children do not retain their composure as well as others.

Significant differences between samples was observed in J factor (collectivism vs. individualism) of the personality questionnaire, meaning greater influence of the group for adolescents from families with single parent (NS = 3.77) than those from families with both parents (NS = 4.97).

Another factor that showed significant differences was "conventionalism - nonconformity" (Q2) the averages of the lot of subjects from single parent families are at extreme low scale Q2 (NS = 1.54) compared to scores close to the average for others (NS = 3.48). Thus we can say that adolescents from single parent families are more dependent to the group without inner resources, distrustful of their own resources, compared to those in two parent families who are slightly more confident, rational, able to decide for themselves. But remember that Q2 factor relates mainly to career guidance and the less to the influence of the group, as is the case with factor J ("collectivism - individualism"). Data from the literature indicates correlation between low Q2 behavior with professions in the field of research, teaching leadership and decision generally with individuals who think more by themselves (Minulescu, 2007, p. 113).

Significant differences between the two groups of subjects appear to factor "weak sense of self vs. strong sense of self" (Q3). In this case, teenagers from families with both parents (NS = 5.18) are more controlled in terms of ethical norms accepted, wanting to do well, have

consideration for others, are cautious, and willing to control emotions expression. In literature researches, this factor presents a strong correlation with maintaining a proper self-image. We can interpret that teenagers coming from single parent families less respect the ethical standards and presents less considerate of others, notwithstanding their image to others (NS = 3.60).

Interpretive we can consider natural this location within ethical compliance and self control of the adolescents with both parents due to family structure and to a higher parental control for them. Problems that arises is whether this self-image suitable related to factor Q3 for the teenagers coming from two parent families and less appropriate for the others sample is "a mask" and whether this feature is more stable and real at the adolescents from single parent families and less stable and "extrinsic" to others.

Given that only at 5 of 14 factors are recorded significant differences between the two samples, we believe that the third hypothesis of the present research is not confirmed. So environment of single parent families do not differently influence the personality development of adolescents than for traits such as Ego strength, attachment to the group, the feeling of self-confidence and conformity to norms, factors at which teenagers coming from single parent families recorded higher scores.

Perhaps these higher scores on the factors referred above express just that "maturing", which is said in the common faith to be characteristic for the children from families with a single parent who rush the stabilization and the development of behavioral and personality traits to provide stability to the remaining parent or perhaps to create his self-control and to compensate for the lack of double parental control.

Hypothesis 4 – *We suppose that adolescents from families with both parents present, on average, higher scores on emotional stability factors, expansion, maturity and emotional integration compared to the group of teenagers coming from single parent families.*

Although discussed in the previous scenario we made also this assumption to maximum use of Cattell personality questionnaire for adolescents and the stability factors defined by it. Literature research tool recognizes HSPQ. with a strong internal consistency, each personality factor can be used as a research tool itself, choosing only the items featured in each hand.

This fourth hypothesis is partially confirmed. Between the two groups of subjects there are significant differences between the two factors contained by the hypothesis (emotional stability - C and integration - Q3) and significant differences between the other two

factors mentioned (expansiveness - F and emotional maturity - I). But higher scores for adolescents in families with both parents is recorded only in Q3 factor (mean = 5.18 to 3.60), which means a higher degree of formalism and conformism thereof.

These scores determine also the trend of a conflict with himself, negligence of the requirements of social life of adolescents coming from single-parent families, which explain, on the other hand the increased trend for manifestation of delinquent and antisocial behavior to them..

Hypothesis 5 – *We assume that scores of teenagers from families of parent intelligence factor personality questionnaire will be, on average, significantly lower than those from families with both parents.*

This hypothesis is not confirmed, meaning that the academic performance of adolescents from single parent families are not less than those from two parent families, the latter have not a higher level of intelligence. Both teenagers from single parent families (average factor B = 3.03) and those from families with both parents (mean factor B = 2.82) have concrete intelligence, similar to the stages of previous age, the preteen.

Characteristic of these low notes of factor B are "discreet" intelligence, a concrete thinking, the "spirit" slowness when it comes to understanding and learning, adolescents are "cumbersome" and inclined to a concrete and literal interpretation of the phenomena. This situation may be the reflection of inadequate training and education, says the literature ("R. B. Cattell personality test" – guid for users).

Interpretive we can say that teens in both groups investigated have not yet developed an ability to work with notions of increasingly abstract, to operate with symbols, to seize quickly the essential aspects of things and phenomena, to find solutions, that means an cognitive aptitude fully formed, they being in the process of acquiring this feature, a process that will last until the completion of compulsory education (up to support the baccalaureate, also known as "maturity test").

In conclusion, the first hypothesis of our study is not confirmed, meaning that teens come from single-parent families have a level of self-esteem lower compared with adolescents come from families with both parents, on the contrary, have a higher level of self-esteem.

On the other hand, the second hypothesis of the research, that the two categories of adolescents differ in the development of personality traits is half confirmed, registering five personality factors with statistically significant differences. In this case we can say that the variable "single parent" influence the development of personality traits in adolescents partly with reference to the ego force, moral integrity, the

ability to work in groups, preference for decisions taken collectively, dependence on social and the well known factor of neglecting the social norms (the tendency toward antisocial behavior often studied in the literature).

Conclusions

Our research aims to examine whether adolescents from single parent families have a level of self-esteem lower than those in two parent families and whether these adolescents show significant differences in the development of personality traits. Adolescent self-esteem forms the background of the formation of personality traits, of a complete and consistent self-representations, with values and criteria from the part of the school and family, with specific rules to the social environment, the historical context, etc.

In view of the above observations, we started from the assumption that adolescents reared in single-parent families will present self-esteem deficit and a difference in the development of personality traits, this being due primarily to lack of rigorous parental control of meeting some fundamental emotional needs from the parents part who themselves go through a period of crisis.

Overall, our study did not confirm the hypothesis set and the assumption that adolescents from single parent families will present a level of self-esteem lower or a level of emotional maturity, of expansivity and integration lower, proved to be false. But the premise of the study was both the social perception that these children from single parent families have to suffer in their psychological development, and the literature reporting delinquent behavior and negative personality traits in adolescents raised by single parents.

Following this analysis we conclude that single-parent family does not adversely affect self-esteem and the development of personality traits of adolescents and that the factors of developing behavioral or personality disorders should be find in other area of adolescent life. In fact, single-parent families in the world and in Romania brings less economic resources, limited material resources for these children; the geographical location in defamed areas of town or isolated areas in terms of schooling are elements that can combine a disharmonic development of adolescents.

The present study showed mean values of self-esteem higher in adolescents coming from single parent families and averages higher in terms of strength ego, and conscientiousness, perseverance, responsibility and a high dependency to collective norms groups in occurrence. The explanations in this case can be explained by the high efforts of children

and single mothers to send these kids to school, to integrate them socially, to stabilize the new family structure, contribution efforts with their child. The adolescent from single parent family is more accountable, is appreciated properly by the single parent, receive all the affection and trust of that parent, because both "have to survive." And from these elements the adolescent from the single parent family tend to be more entrepreneurial and more sociable, to have a richer emotional resonance, a higher sense of duty and self-assurance.

The only element identified as being different - positive for the teenagers in two parent families and slightly negative for adolescents from single parent families - was the higher degree of formalism and conformism of the first. In other words, adolescents in single-parent families show less respect for the rules, are slightly rebellious, which is supported also by the literature which reports delinquent behaviors in these adolescents.

Although the research hypotheses have been disproved by statistics, this study achieved its objectives, for the application of valid tools for investigating psychological self-esteem and personality traits and confirmation or refutation of allegations of scientific literature data.

We believe that such research on single parents, on the psychological characteristics of members of this family are extremely important and would represent translations of the psychological research in contemporary, a relation of the techniques with the trend of the times. Let us remember that the psychologist, counselor, the clinician has to work with subjects who live in a social environment, that come to counseling with a socio-occupational baggage, especially with a family luggage, transgenerational and depending on it he will develop plans for the psychological intervention for each case.

The low number of subjects is one of the limits of this research. A further study on the influence of single parents for teenager personality development is imposed on several levels: effects of single-parenting on the traits of personality of boys and girls, the correlation between parenting style adopted by a single mom and certain personality traits, beneficial or harmful relationship with the other parent in the extrafamilial environment on the adolescent's personality development.

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THE ROLE OF LEARNING STYLES OF STUDENTS IN ACADEMIC LEARNING AND SOLVING PROBLEMS

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Abstract: Experiential learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through direct experience. In this article we intend to identifying the predominant type of learning (visual, auditory, kinesthetic and its role in academic learning; analyzing the differences between the learning styles of students from Psychology and Economics universities and how they access their cerebral hemispheres. After analyzing the test subjects we found that they have different learning styles. Psychology students are auditory, tactile and kinesthetic style oriented and economics students focus primarily on visual style. This is explained by the fact that psychology students develop active listening skills through their professional activities that are done with people of different ages and from different social backgrounds.

Keywords: experiential learning, learning style, students

I. Introduction

Cognitive psychologists study the mental activity by which we process and communicate information. To think is to form concepts that organize our world, to solve problem and to make efficient decisions and judgements. One tribute to our rationality is our ability to form and use concepts. Another is our skill at solving problems as we cope with new situations. For other problems, we may follow an algorithm, a step by

step procedure that guarantees a solution. An algorithm is a methodical, logical rule or procedure that guarantees solving a particular problem. Contrasts with the usually speedier-but also more error-prone use of heuristics. Heuristic is a rule of thumb strategy that often allows us to make judgements and solve problems efficiently. The availability heuristic operates when we base our judgments on the availability of information in our memories.

Problem solving is a directed activity in which all steps are considered as they fit into the overall structure setup by the task. This structure is typically hierarchical, with goals, subordinate goals and so on. This hierarchical structure is not unique to problem solving of student, but may be a general characteristic of any directed activity.

In problem solving a goal is set that has to be reached by some as yet unknown means. The goals that constitute the problem can vary widely. Problem solving is not always successful. One reason may be a strong, interfering mental set, which makes the subject fixated and is especially hard to overcome under conditions of intense motivation.

Experiential learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through direct experience. (Itin, CM (1999). The experience can be based on a script or can be arbitrary. Since antiquity, Aristotle said: "The things that we must learn before we do them, we learn them by doing them." (Bynum, WF and Porter, R. (eds) (2005)

David A. Kolb helped popularize the idea of experiential learning by using the works of John Dewey, Kurt Lewin, and Jean Piaget. His work on experiential learning have contributed heavily to expand experiential education philosophy. Experiential learning is learning that takes place after reflection on what was done. Experiential learning is related to experiential education, learning through action, adventure, through free will, through cooperation and community service. Although there are connections and commonalities between these concepts, they should not be confused since they have different meanings.

Experiential learning emphasizes individual learning. Often used as a synonym for experiential education, though the latter include a wider spectrum of education. Thus, under the scope of experiential education fall issues such as the relationship between teacher and student, as well as broader topics such as the structure and objectives of education. (Itin, CM (1999). In college, working as an intern or job-shadowing in areas of interest for the student are valuable examples of experiential learning that contribute significantly to the overall understanding of the real environment. (McCarthy, PR , & McCarthy, HM (2006).

Kolb's proposed experiential learning model (ELM - Experiential Learning Model), is illustrated in Figure no.1.(<http://www.simplypsychology.org/learning-kolb.html>)

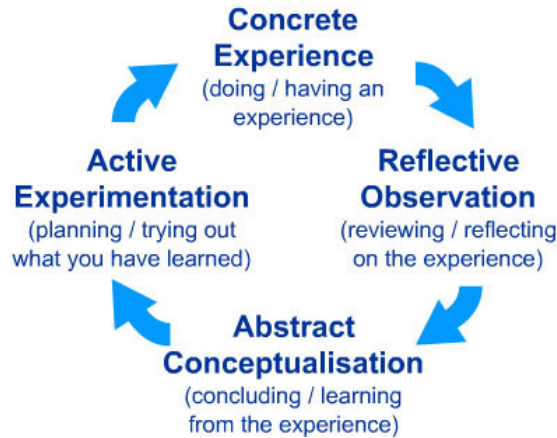


Figure no.1 Kolb's proposed experiential learning model

Experiential activities are among the most effective tools for teaching and learning. (McCarthy, P. R. & McCarthy, H. M. (2006). Experiential learning requires the student's initiative, an "intention of learning" and an "active learning phase". Experiential learning cycle developed by Kolb can be used for framing the stages involved.

Based on this cycle, Jennifer A. Moon, argued that *experiential learning is most effective if it involves:*

- 1) a phase of "reflective learning"
- 2) a learning phase resulting from the actions inherent to experiential learning and
- 3) "learning phase from feedback". (Moon, J. (2004).

This learning process can cause "changes in judgment, feelings or abilities" for the individual and can provide indications for "adoption of judgment as a guide in decision making and action." (Hutton, M. (1980)). Most teachers understand the role that experience plays in the learning process. The role of emotions and feelings in learning from experience was recognized as important in experiential learning. (Moon, J. (2004)). Although these factors may improve the likelihood that experiential learning takes place, learning can happen without them. In experiential learning, it is essential that the individual be encouraged to engage directly in experience, then to think about it, using their analytical skills, so that the knowledge is better understood and retained for a longer period.

Reflection plays a crucial role in experiential learning and as experiential learning itself, it can be facilitated or independent. Dewey wrote that "the successive sequences of reflective thinking develop from each other and reinforce each other", creating a scaffold for further learning and allowing for the continuity of experience and reflection. (Kompf, M., & Bond, R. (2001)) This reinforces the fact that experiential learning and reflective learning are iterative processes, and the learning is achieved through reflection and experience.

Facilitating experiential learning and reflection presents challenges but "a skillful teacher, using the correct questions and guiding the reflective conversation before, during and after the experience, can help open some significant ways of thinking and learning." (Jacobson, M. & Ruddy, M. (2004)).

Based on Kolb's "Model of experiential learning in 4 stages" and on Pfeiffer and Jones' "Cycle of experiential learning in 5 stages", Jacobson and Ruddy, took theoretical frameworks and created a model questionnaire simple and practical to be use in promoting critical reflection in the experiential learning. **Their model questionnaire "5 Questions" is as follows: Did you notice...?, Why did that happen?, Does that happen in life?, Why does that happen?, How can you use that?** (Jacobson, M. & Ruddy, M. (2004)). These questions are put after the experience have taken place and, gradually, they guide the group to reflect on their experience and to thinking towards an understanding of how they can apply what they have learned in their lives. Although the questions are simple, they allow the application of Kolb, Pfeiffer and Jones' theories, and deepen learning within the group.

David Kolb established the following principles of learning styles, conceptualizing them as a continuum:

- 1. Concrete experience - to be involved in a unique experiential situation**
- 2. Reflective observation - to observe others or oneself**
- 3. Abstract Conceptualization - creating theories to explain the observed things**
- 4. Active experimentation - using these theories to solve problems, make decisions**

The styles described by the author are:

Convergent learning style (pragmatic) - abstract conceptualization and active experimentation

- they accumulate knowledge through analysis and then they apply new ideas / concepts into practice
- the ability to apply new ideas is their strength
- they systematize information through hypothetical-deductive

reasoning

- they put particular emphasis on rational and concrete thinking, remaining relatively "cold"
- instead of "wasting" time with people, they prefer to meditate, to invent something.

Divergent Learning Style (reflective) - concrete experience and reflective observation:

- they accumulate knowledge using intuition
- they use at maximum their imagination and their ability to see complex situations from different perspectives to achieve through synergy a significant gestalt
- they also have the ability to effectively integrate information in a whole
- the divergers strength is their imaginative ability, being considered opposites of convergers
- the subjects are emotional and they excel in art and literature

Assimilating learning style (theoretical) - abstract conceptualization and reflective observation:

- the ability to create theoretical and rational-inductive models is their strength
- they learn through analysis, planning and reflection
- they don't focus on practical application, but they focuses on the development of theories, often ignoring the facts if they don't matched a theory.

Accommodative learning style (actives) - concrete experience and active experimentation:

- the style subjects excel in situations where they have to apply known theories to specific circumstances
- their strength is their ability to achieve something and to get involved in a new experience
- they address problems in an intuitive way, going via trial and error. They would rather obtain knowledge from other people than through their analytical skills
- the accommodators are risk takers

All our senses contribute to receiving and processing information from our environment. However, each individual tends to specialize a certain sense in receiving information from the environment. Which is why we develop a preference in this sense, and we are therefore developing a specific learning style based on that sense. When we want to learn something fast, efficient or at an accelerated pace, then that material must be submitted on the optimal path to the brain. Therefore there are four main learning styles: visual, auditory, tactile, kinesthetic.

Sensory data received by sight, sound, touch or through body muscles can go toward the left or right cerebral hemisphere. Each hemisphere processes and stores data in different way. Therefore the data processing can be either symbolic or sensory. Combining learning style with cerebral hemisphere preference promotes the development of accelerated learning skills.

Experiential learning can take place without a teacher based on acquiring knowledge from the direct experience of the individual. Although the accumulation of knowledge is inherently a process that occurs naturally for the authentic learning to take place certain conditions must be fulfilled. (Itin, CM (1999). According to David A. Kolb, an education theorist of American origin, the knowledge is constantly accumulate from both personal experience and the environment. Merriam, SB, Caffarella, RS, & Baumgartner, LM (2007). He says that it is necessary to fulfill certain conditions so that learning takes place:

- ***The student must be willing to play an active role in the experience;***
- ***The student must be capable of reflecting on the experience;***
- ***The student must have, and use, analytical skills to conceptualize the experience;***
- ***The student must have decision-making and problem solving skills, so he can use the new ideas acquired through experience.***

II. Experimental Research

a) Purpose of article. Research Objectives

O1: identifying the predominant type of learning (visual, auditory, kinesthetic and its role in academic learning;

O2: analyzing the differences between the learning styles of students from Psychology and Economics universities and how they access their cerebral hemispheres

b) Test subjects. It consists of two groups of students, years II and III at the universities of Psychology and Economics. Each group consists of 30 participants.

c) Methods:

1. Kolb learning styles test (1984)
2. Preference learning style questionnaire created by Ricki Linksman (1999)

d) Results of research. Hypothesis testing research

Hypothesis no. 1

After analyzing the test subjects we found that they have different learning styles. ***Psychology students are auditory, tactile and kinesthetic***

style oriented and economics students focus primarily on visual style.

This is explained by the fact that psychology students develop active listening skills through their professional activities that are done with people of different ages and from different social backgrounds. Active listening is a conversation technique which shows the other party the significance we attach to its message. It is very useful in solving ones interpersonal conflicts, and in conflict mediation. ***Active listening*** optimizes communication. It can be used for three purposes:

- Information (to get from the other party a clear picture of the problem that needs to be address, sometimes by correcting erroneous perception that the listener has of the conflict - this is needed to solve the conflict)
- Emotional support, counseling, reassuring the other party
- Response to verbal attacks, to the other's irritation

In the curriculum of Psychology specialization there is a class on communication psychology, here students learn to use a specific language to improve their empathy skills. They will use these skills later in the professional life in areas where they will work as psychologists: in clinical care, psychologist – client communication and educational, teacher - student communication. To optimize their professional behavior, we recommend the development of communication skills with customers for the students from Economics.

The visual learning style - corresponds to subjects who learn mainly by seeing. They have specialized functional neural pathways from the eye to the part of the brain that interprets visual stimuli.

The auditory learning style - corresponds to subjects who learn by listening to others or even to themselves while talking about the subject to be learned. These subjects have specialized neural pathways from the ear to the brain part that interprets the auditory stimuli.

The tactile learning style (technical, understanding the mechanics of "cause - effect") - corresponds to subjects who learn by touching, perceiving sensations of the skin, using their fingers and hands having the act of learning accompanied by the emotional-affective register. These subjects have neural pathways from the sensory neurons of the hands, fingers, skin, physical or neuro-vegetative reactions associated to emotions to the part of the brain that process sensory information.

The kinesthetic learning style - corresponds to subjects who learn by manipulating (in space) the main, most massive, muscle groups and who get involved in learning through simulation, transposition into the roles of others, exploration and participating in real life, practical experiential learning. This involves specialized neural pathways from the respective

muscles to the part of the brain which processes information coming from them.

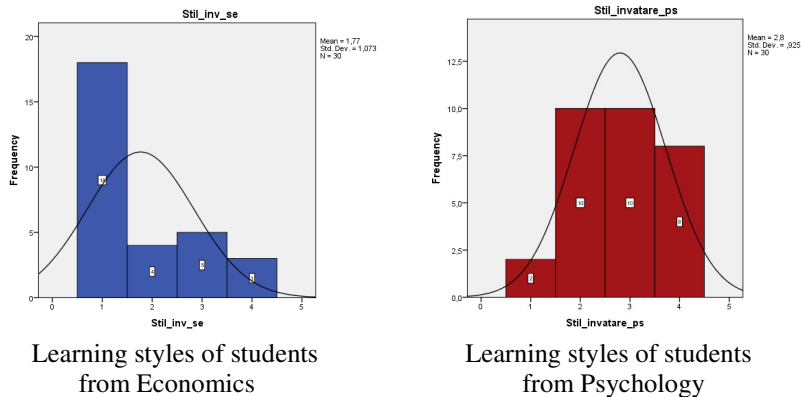


Figure 2. Learning styles of students participating in research: visual, auditory, tactile, kinesthetic

Hypothesis no. 2

In regard of experiential learning styles the research results revealed that there are significant differences between students. By applying inventory learning styles of Kolb, it showed that psychology students were predominantly convergent style while students of economics are more active accommodators style.

Students of psychology have a converging oriented style that involves:

- accumulate knowledge through analysis and then apply new ideas / concepts into practice
- the ability to apply new ideas is their strength
- systematize information through hypothetical-deductive reasoning
- they put particular emphasis on rational and concrete thinking, remaining relatively "cold"

Students of Economics have a more accomodating style which involves:

- they excels in situations where they have to apply known theories to specific circumstances
- their strength is the ability to achieve something and to get involved in a new experience
- address the problem in an intuitive way, going via trial and error. They obtain knowledge from other people than through their analytical skills
- the accommodators are risk takers

The data complies with the normality and homogeneity conditions which allowed us to apply the t-test for independent samples. After the calculations we observed significant differences in terms of learning style of students from psychology and economics as $t = -6.347$ at a significance level $p < 0.000$. Regarding the analysis of the brain hemisphere involved in learning we observed in the data analysis that students in Psychology use mainly the left hemisphere and those from economics are focused equally on using the right hemisphere and by using both brain hemispheres in solving problems. These data were obtained using inventory determining the cerebral hemispheres of Rick L. In the sample analyzed the results of the research show that:

- through specific activities that take place predominantly in the left hemisphere, students process the data as symbols in the form of letters, numbers, words and abstract ideas. Specialized studies confirm that for most people, the area responsible for language is in the left hemisphere.
- through specific activities that take place predominantly in the right hemisphere the students process the data globally, simultaneously. Analyzing the table above we notice that in this case too we have significant difference between samples with a threshold of significance level $p = 0.019$.

Findings and Conclusions

Experiential learning is most often compared to academic learning, the accumulation of knowledge through the study of the subject, without requiring direct sensory experience for the information to be transferred. While the experiential learning is done through analysis, initiative and immersion, academic learning is based on constructive learning and reproductive learning. (Stavenga de Jong, JA, Wierstra, RFA and Hermanussen, J. (2006))

Although both methods aim to train the students, academic learning is using more abstract methods, which are adapted for classrooms while experiential learning actively involves the student in concrete experience.

Our cognitive system receives, perceives and retrieves information, which we then use to think and communicate, sometimes wisely, sometimes foolishly. When faced with a novel situation for which well-learned response they do, students may use any of several strategies, such as trial and error, algorithms and rule-of-thumb heuristics. Sometimes the solution comes in a flash of insight. They do, however, face obstacles to successful problem solving. The experiential learning is useful in problem solving and in development students' creativity.

Only reflecting on their activities can teachers realize their strengths and weaknesses, can adjust their own teaching style in order to achieve their objectives. In doing so, teachers can lead their students to reflect on how they carry out the learning process so they can improve it and help them form and develop metacognitive skills over time.

The concept of "reflective teaching" derives from Dewey (1933, as cited. Pollard, 2008), which puts in opposition "the routine action" with "reflective action". Following Dewey's studies, many researchers were interested in the issue of "reflection" in the educational process. They made various approaches to this problem, as showed by the many terms used "reflective practice", "reflective teaching", "critical thinking", "reflective thinking" etc. The teacher's reflective practice represents a cognitive and metacognitive approach of deliberate examination of educational practices, which aims to gain a deep understanding of the entire educational process in order to optimize it. It involves the adoption of informed and logical decisions and analyzing the consequences of those decisions (Weir and Tilney, 2004).

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REDUCING THE STIGMA OF PEOPLE WITH MENTAL HANDICAP*

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Abstract: The article presents strategies and methods to reduce the stigma of people with mental handicap. These aspects were debated in the Pilot Seminar in the Project Public Health-Mental Health, Santé Publique - Santé Mentale (SPSM).

The project aims to train specialists in the professional insertion of mental handicap.

The aim of article is to describe a better method of reducing the stigma of persons with mental handicap. This method will be useful to elaborate mental health policies.

The method of research analyzes: literature, tools and practices of specialists in the field of mental handicap. In the project seminar, there were made exchange between specialists to ameliorate the work instruments and specific skills in order to find the best method to reduce stigma in this field. This method is adapted to the tendencies in European mental health needs. The conclusion of research is: the best way to reduce stigma in this area is employing persons with mental diseases.

Keywords: stigma, mental handicap, professional integration, specialists, project.

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Introduction

The dictionary of synonyms defines "the stigma of mental disorder" as a "mark of disgrace associated with a particular circumstance, quality, or person" (www.dictionary.com/stigma).

The disgrace comes by misunderstanding the person with mental health problems, because, otherwise, these individuals do not overlap by the social behavioral pattern.

The stigma stems from the lack of information. Lack of information creates prejudice. Prejudice creates negative attitudes. Negative attitudes create negative actions and these lead to discrimination. The discrimination leads to prejudice.

The effect of prejudice of stigma is the exclusion of people with mental diseases from access to employment and insurance.

One study which was made in 2006, by the CDC and Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services show that: 'only one-quarter of young adults between the ages of 18–24 believed that a person with mental illness can eventually recover' (Health Styles Survey, SAMSHA, 2007).

This study shows us that just 25% of adults with mental health diseases believed that people are caring and sympathetic to persons with mental illness.

This means that it is necessary to conduct prevention actions in order to reduce and combat stigma as a mental health priority (SAMSHA, 2007).

This is necessary in order to realize the inclusion of people with mental diseases. The reduction of stigma is useful to reduce mental handicap for persons with mental diseases.

Contemporary society uses the next conceptual analyze about people with mental handicap (De Backer, 2014):

- Exclusion;
- Segregation;
- Integration;
- Inclusion.

This model was extended to 5 steps by R. Aehnelt, as debated in a pedagogical way in *Projet de décret « inclusion »*. *Origines, philosophie, calendrier et implications*. B. De Backer CBCS, jan. 2014. This work presents the notion of extinction, which is the distinction between lives that are worth living and those that are not worth.

This is applicable in field of labor and employment of persons with mental diseases.

Exclusion is separation between those who are engaged in work and those who can not be employed.

Segregation of people with mental diseases means to separate and group them based on arrear psychic ability (protected workshops). Integration is when people with psychic problems are together in a common job and work place, collectively, together, side by side (social enterprises).

Inclusion is putting people with mental diseases in the same workplace with healthy people, all together (normal enterprises). This is the enterprise where the work places are adapted to worker needs.

This aspect is better illustrated in next picture (<https://www.diagram+exclusion-separation-integrationinclusion>), (figure 1).

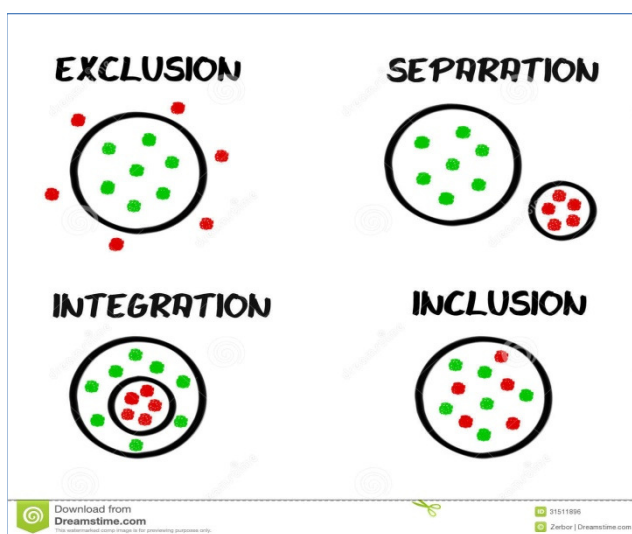


Figure 1. Diagram of Exclusion-Segregation-Integration-Inclusion (<https://www.diagram+exclusion-separation-integrationinclusion>).

The need of people with mental handicap is to educate the public opinion to support persons with mental diseases. The education of public opinion reduces stigma towards them.

SPSM Project trains specialists in professional insertion of mental handicap. It is an innovative research in Socio-professional Integration to reduce stigma in mental health problems. The project involves 5 countries: Switzerland, Luxembourg, Romania, France and Belgium. In the pilot seminar of SPSM Project which brings together specialists in health, psychology, pedagogy and sociology, were made classes about the methods to reduce the mental handicap stigma. These classes cover skill improvement of specialists to reduce stigma of people with mental

diseases (Gavrilă-Ardelean, 2016). This is useful to reduce the handicap of these people through good socio-professional insertion. This research project constitutes a social therapy.

Aims of Research

The article aims to describe a better method to reduce stigma of persons with mental handicap.

Research Method

The method of research analyzes: tools and the practices of specialists in the field of mental handicap. In the project seminar there were made exchanges between specialists to ameliorate work instruments and specific skills in order to find the best method to reduce stigma in this field. Everything is adapted to the tendencies in European mental health needs.

One of the classes trains to:

- ameliorate the skills of professional integration specialists in the field of stigma, in order to reduce mental handicap through better work integration;
- exchange the work tools related to socio-professional integration for people with mental handicap.

Results

The anti-stigma class of SPSM pilot seminar was made on Thursday, under the name: 'Factors of Inclusions' (table no. 1).

Table no.1. Training anti-stigma class of SPSM pilot seminar

Days	Thursday	Friday
Classes	Factors of inclusions	Tools

The Training anti-stigma class of pilot seminar aims to establish the best method for specialists to solve problem situations. Problem situations are stigma-obstacles in the process of professional integration. These classes have modules designed to ameliorate the skills and practice of professional integration specialists. The classes have practical exercises based on using competences in specific life stigmatization contexts. The threats and their solutions were analyzed in interactive modules.

The anti-stigma module includes the next points:

- mechanisms in perception of reality;
- social roles;

- stigmatizing elements;
- elements of inclusion;
- concept of recuperation (Gatens-Robinson, 1992);
- coaching;
- skills analyze;
- management of stress;
- communication.

These points were presented in terms of practical cases, in role play. To reduce the stigma of mental disease, we developed a prevention method based on information and education to population.

The reduction of stigma is realizable through:

- accompaniment;
- forming/informing;
- sensitization / training professionals of the insertion handicap (early prevention);
- amplification of ridicule and stereotypes induce humor (Grawez, Mercier, 2008).

This training ameliorated the competences of professional integration specialists, as studied by Gavrilă-Ardelean elsewhere (Gavrilă-Ardelean, 2015).

At the end of the seminar, the tools (questionnaires, tests) were collected in drop-box, in order to improve the insertion specialists' work in reducing the stigma.

The specialists' points of view were collected together with the tools in drop box. Here, they will be studied in future researchers.

Conclusion

The conclusion is: the knowledge about practical aspects, methods and tools for specialists is vital in order to employ the persons with mental handicap. Also, finding and helping to maintain in job the people with psychiatric diseases is the best method to reduce their handicap (Gavrilă-Ardelean, Gavrilă-Ardelean, 2016).

The results of pilot seminar of the project show:

- the functions of professional integration specialists who were trained in modules for reducing stigma (O'Hara, 2003);
- that the reduction of stigma will be a good factor of inclusion for people with psychiatric diseases (Goldman, 2013);
- the social inclusion, ameliorates psychical handicap by improving self esteem through socio-professional role (Gavrilă-Ardelean, Moldovan, 2014).

The goal to improve socio-occupational integration competences of specialists was achieved in the next fields of inclusion factors, good methods and new tools.

The steps of inclusion are represented in figure 2.

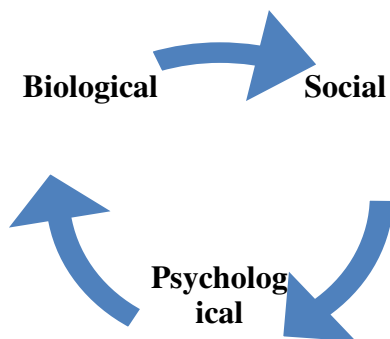


Figure 2. Steps of education for professional inclusion of people with mental diseases

The new concept of work integration for people with mental diseases is a road with a unique way from *Diversity* to *Inclusion* (figure 2).

All these concepts are debated in the SPSM Project.

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**EMOTIONAL MATURITY, SELF-ESTEEM AND
ATTACHMENT STYLES: PRELIMINARY
COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS BETWEEN
ADOLESCENTS WITH AND WITHOUT
DELINQUENT STATUS***

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Abstract : The current article is investigating the associations and differences between the attachment styles, emotional maturity and self-esteem of two adolescent groups from Romania: delinquents and non-delinquents, aiming to further identify the predictive value of these variables. For this purpose, the correlation indexes between the scores to the following instruments corresponding to the target-variables were calculated: Questionnaire for the assessment of the attachment style (Collins and Read, 1990), Survey for the evaluation of Emotional Maturity Friedman (questionnaire available online) and the Self-Esteem Rosenberg Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). At the same time, the mentioned dimensions were compared based on the personal status of the participants (delinquents and non-delinquents). The research was carried out on a sample of 117 adolescents from Romania (Arad), boys

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and girls, ages between 13 – 17 years, with the average age $m = 15.97$, and a standard deviation of $SD = 0.9$. The results indicated a series of correlations and significant differences between the target variables (attachment styles, the emotional maturity level and the self-esteem level) on the two groups of adolescents (delinquents and non-delinquents).

Our data revealed that the anxious-ambivalent attachment style was associated with a low self-esteem level, regardless of the adolescent's status (with or without delinquency). However, the non-delinquent adolescents with a high level of emotional maturity showed a higher level of self-esteem. Also, the comparison of the results between the two groups showed that non-delinquent adolescents had a higher level of emotional maturity and self-esteem than the delinquent adolescents.

Key words: juvenile delinquency, attachment, emotional maturity, self-esteem

I. Introduction

1.1 Juvenile delinquency

Juvenile delinquency represents an illegal behavior attributed to minors, i.e. individuals that are younger than the legal age of majority (Siegel & Welsh, 2011).

The juvenile delinquency in Romania is considered a major social problem that our society is confronting with, this being viewed as a component connected to the functioning mode of the society, including family, school, education, religion, interpersonal relationships, society's values and norms, chance deprivation, resource deprivation, marginalization and social anomie (Murzea, 2015; Rădulescu & Dâmboianu, 2003). Anomie is "a condition in which society does not offer enough moral guidance for individuals" (Gerber & Macionis, 2010).

Juvenile delinquency is a phenomenon which contemporary researchers are studying and trying to understand, but in order to have an in depth knowledge of the phenomenon, they have to take into consideration the biological, psychological and social dimensions associated with delinquency, as well as the predictors or triggers of this

phenomenon. In this work, the studied aspects of the delinquency are grounded in the psychological dimension of, as it follows: self-esteem (assessed with the Self-Esteem Evaluation Scale Rosenberg, 1965), emotional maturity (assessed with the Emotional Maturity Scale Friedman) and attachment styles (assessed with the Adult Attachment Scale, Collins & Read, 1990).

The delinquent act, as such, represents the expression of actions and behaviors that strongly contrast with the norms of cohabitation existent in families, institutions and society (Rădulescu & Banciu, 1996).

Seen from another perspective, delinquency appears as a disturbance of the structure of social relations of the individual, most probably because of the insufficiency of social maturity (Preda, 1998). Any delinquency-related behavior is generally considered as a result of the interactions of individual and bio-physiological factors with the social ones, that are being part of the environment in which the child grows and develops (Marica, 2007).

Merton (1957) suggests that social deviant behaviors usually result out of structural tensions and the break appears when society focuses upon desired and socially accepted goals, while at the same time it offers inadequate opportunities for the attainment of those goals. To sum it all up, the members of society that find themselves in a position of financial tension and want to obtain material success might rely on anti-social acts to attain the desired social objective. Agnew (1992) considers that this assumption is correct, although he also believes that, in relation to adolescents, there are also other factors that encourage criminal/ socially deviant behavior, such as negative experiences that could induce a high level of stress.

1.2. Self-esteem

In Allport's belief (1991), the ontogenetic basis for the formation of self-esteem are configured during early childhood, i.e. the beginning of this process is taking place around the age of two, at the same time with the autonomous exploration and with the manifestations of negativism of the child, which are manifested and perceived as an opposition, refusal and countering the efforts of adults to restrain their undesirable behaviors. Kohut (1971, 1977) considers that, in order to have a healthy evolution, the baby and child need ample experience to reflect the self and idealize it. The mirroring experiences of the self are those in which the child recognizes itself, feels appreciated and empathized by a person that represents the extension or a partial one of its own self (Kohut, 1971, 1977).

Băban (2001) considers that self-esteem is in a tight relationship with the self-image, being thus a fundamental dimension for every living being. This refers to the mode in which a person auto-evaluates itself and compares itself with its own expectations or of those of other people. Hence, self-esteem represents the evaluative and affective dimension of the self-image (Băban, 2001).

Bențea (2016) defines self-esteem as being an important dimension of personality of the affective-attitudinal manner. In this light, the self-assessing component of the self refers to opinions and feelings that we have towards our own person. It is also named self-appreciation, self-respect or self-acceptance and it denotes the way in which we assess ourselves, how much we value ourselves or how good (in terms of socially relevant aspects) we consider ourselves compared to others.

Crocker & Knight (2005) consider that high self-esteem is seen as a Holy Grail of psychological sanity and the key to happiness, success and popularity, while low self-esteem is at the same time blamed for socially related problems, varying from low school performances to alcohol and drug abuse.

Mayzer (2004) indicates that low self-esteem in adolescents exposed to risk factor can be associated with an aggressive behavioral escalation pattern and also with many other social issues. Studies on delinquency describe the adolescent that faces a large number of risk factors as being vulnerable to risky behavior (Ahem et al., 2008).

In the current study, the instrument used for assessing the self-esteem was conceived by Rosenberg (1965) and it consists of 10 items; the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Evaluation Scale became in time a reference point for the evaluation of self-esteem at the international level. The Rosenberg Scale was developed as an instrument of one-dimensional and global evaluation of self-esteem. Because of the very good psychometric properties of this scale, it is widely utilized in domains such as social psychology, work psychology, health psychology, clinical psychology, counseling etc. The scale possesses a good internal consistency, the α -Cronbach coefficient having a value of 0.89. Also the testing-retesting fidelity varies between 0.85 and 0.88 (Rosenberg, 1965).

1.3. Emotional maturity

The ambiguity around the term emotional maturity results out of the fact that although the term is being frequently used, a number of different connotations exist in the literature (Dwight, 1964). In psychology, maturity represents the ability of an individual to respond to the neighboring environment in an optimal way, which implies more than an instinctual response (Talukdar & Das, 2013). Also, maturity comprises

the awareness of the adequate time and space in which to enact a behavior and to take into account the appropriate time for action, depending on the surroundings and societal culture (Wechsler, 1950). For Shoben, 1957, (apud Allport, 1991), maturity means "*Self-control, personal responsibility, social responsibility, social-democratic interest and ideals*". Tillich, 1960, (apud Allport, 1991) also includes in the concept of maturity the gain of meaning and responsibility, as well as self-acceptance and "the daring to be".

Emotional maturity is generally defined in the literature as the abilities of an individual to optimally respond to situations, control the emotions and behave in a manner accordingly to the level of individual development (Srivastava, 2005).

Davidson & Gottlieb (1955) investigated the relation of the sexual maturation process and emotional maturity. The nature of this relationship is especially significant during adolescence, while at same time the physical development has such a direct impact upon the individuals' adjustment to the environmental stimuli, including the social norms. Taking this into account, adolescent females that experienced and those that have not experienced the menarche were compared in terms of emotional maturity. The results indicate that a higher level of emotional maturity is registered in the group of those female adolescents experiencing the menarche, compared to the group that did not experience the menarche having the same biological age. Jones & Bayley (1950) have discovered that adolescent boys that are physically more developed are considered to be more socially matured.

Another study has investigated if self-esteem is associated to emotional maturity, based on the correlation of obtained scores in the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Survey (Ryden, 1978) and the Washburne Social Adjustment Survey (Korzi, 1962), on a sample of 200 male and female college students. The results of the study indicate the fact that the students with a high level of self-esteem proved to be more emotionally mature compared to the students that had a low self-esteem level (Leung & Sand, 1981).

In our study, the instrument for the evaluation of emotional maturity was the Emotional Maturity Scale Friedman. Friedman scale is available online and it is composed out of 25 affirmations; for each one of these statements, the participants were asked to respond with either "Yes" or "No".

1.4. Attachment Styles

Bowlby (1969) defines the attachment as being a dynamic behavioral system, identifying the objectives and functions of the system in a natural

selection context; he observed the interdependence between the attachment system and the aspects related to the exploration and the origin of behavioral systems (Bowlby, 1969).

Bowlby's researches constituted the starting point for the studies conducted by other theorists, like Mary Ainsworth, a psychologist specialized in the developmental psychology, who analyzed the individual differences pertaining to the attachment patterns and maternal behaviors of the caretaker, in the child's first year. Ainsworth pointed out important aspects for the attachment theory research (Vaughn & Bost, 1999).

After studying the specialty literature, it was ascertained that one of the most appreciated methods for the evaluation of the attachment models is the Mary Ainsworth and Barbara Wittig's *Strange Situation* method (1969). The *Strange Situation* method is based on creating situations that are gradually more stressful, while the specialists observe and analyze the children's behavior towards their attendants. Following the analysis, three attachment patterns between child and caretaker were designed based on the information revealed by the Strange Situation method (Ainsworth et al., 1978), as it follows:

1. Children's secure attachment from the classification of the Strange Situation (1978) is characterized through the wish to interact with the caretaker, even if he or she is not nearby. In case the caretaker leaves the playground and the children become agitated because of it, their equilibrium will rapidly restore itself and they will be capable to come back to the initial exploration.
2. The avoidant attachment of the children from the classification of the Strange Situation (1978) is characterized by the refusal to interact with the caretaker, or, more than that, the children manifest indifference in the case of separation, ignoring the caretaker, looking in another direction and having the tendency to interact with strangers.
3. The resistant-anxious attachment towards strangers is characterized by the development of some fears regarding strangers, but keeping the exploratory behavior (Ainsworth et al., 1978). The children with this type of attachment have a particular complexity, because they have an ongoing wish to be near their caretaker, but this wish is combined with a furious resistance towards the closeness between the two, in terms that the children appear to be incapable of accepting affectivity coming from the caretaker.
4. After studying the specialty literature a disorganized category of attachment was introduced in the classification (Main & Solomon, 1990), that was based on the identification of wrong guidance,

stereotypes, insensitivity, contradictions and behavioral modifications in the Strange Situation method (Jacobvitz, 1999). The category of disoriented individuals is a combination of two types of behaviors described earlier, the avoidant one and the resistant one. This way, a confusion is made when it comes to the level of avoiding or approaching of the caretaker. The identified strategy in this case is too unclear and confusing to be able to cope with separation. In other words, the people from this category appear to be the most unsure ones, with a high pressure at the psychological level (Hertsgaard et al., 1995).

Suzuki & Tomoda (2015) demonstrates that the attachment style and self-esteem mediates the mental health aspects (e.g. depression in children), noticing a strong connection between an anxious attachment style and a low level of self-esteem. Other researchers (Mills & Frost, 2007) highlight the protective role of the secure attachment and that of self-esteem by offering opportunities to strengthen the social relations, which leads to an adaptive functioning.

In this study, the instrument with which the attachment style will be assessed is the Adult Attachment Scale (AAS), which was developed by Collins & Read (1990). AAS consist of 18 items, 6 for each attachment type: secure attachment, avoidant attachment and anxious-ambivalent attachment.

II. Methods

2.1 Study objective

This study aims to investigate the associations between attachment styles (secure attachment, avoidant attachment and anxious-ambivalent attachment), the level of emotional maturity and the level of self-esteem, as well as the differences regarding these target variables in two adolescent groups from Romania: delinquents and non-delinquents.

2.2 Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There will be associations between the individual values at the subscales for the attachment styles (secure attachment, avoidant attachment and anxious-ambivalent attachment), the emotional maturity level and the self-esteem level in the two adolescent groups: delinquents and non-delinquents.

Hypothesis 2: There will be differences between delinquent and non-delinquent adolescents pertaining to the categories of the three attachment styles (secure attachment, avoidant attachment and anxious-ambivalent attachment), emotional maturity level and self-esteem level.

2.3 Study design

For the first hypothesis (hypothesis 1) a correlational design was used, having as dependent variables the three categories of attachment styles (secure attachment, avoidant attachment and anxious-ambivalent attachment), the emotional maturity level and the self-esteem level.

For the second hypothesis (hypothesis 2) a comparative non-experimental design was used, having as independent variables: the personal status of the participants with 2 possibilities: 1. delinquents, 2. nondelinquents, and the three categories of attachment styles (secure attachment, avoidant attachment and anxious-ambivalent attachment), the emotional maturity level and the self-esteem level as dependent variables.

2.4 The presentation of the studied sample

117 adolescents from Romania (Arad county) participated in this study, with the ages between 13 and 17 years (average age = 15.97, SD = 0.9). 34,2% from the whole sample, (40 persons), were delinquents and 65,8%, (77 persons), were not delinquents. The delinquencies consisted of deviant behavior (37 participants), robbery (3 participants) and drug possession (1 participant). None of the delinquent adolescent was in detention at the moment of data collection.

2.5 Used instruments

- Rosenberg Self-Esteem Evaluation Scale (Rosenberg, 1965).
- Friedman Emotional Maturity Evaluation Scale (a scale available online for public usage).
- Adult Attachment Scale (Collins & Read, 1990).

2.6 Procedure

The scales for assessing the attachment styles, emotional maturity and self-esteem were introduced to the participants through pen and paper examination, while informing them that they are participating in a study about adolescents. The participants were also given a guarantee of the confidentiality of the data confidentiality, based on written informed consent. The participation was done on voluntary base.

III. Results

Hypothesis 1: There will be associations between the individual values at the subscales for the attachment styles (secure attachment, avoidant attachment and anxious-ambivalent attachment), the emotional maturity level and the self-esteem level in the two adolescent groups: delinquents and non-delinquents.

The correlation and determination indices were calculated between the score values on the following instruments corresponding to the target-variables (Table 1, Table 2): Adult Attachment Scale (Collins & Read, 1990), Friedman Emotional Maturity Scale and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Evaluation Scale (Rosenberg, 1965).

Table 1. The values of the correlations between the individual scores at the subscales for the attachment styles (secure attachment, avoidant attachment and ambivalent-anxious attachment), emotional maturity level and self-esteem level of the two adolescent categories: delinquents and non-delinquents.

D		A			N		A		
		SA	AA	AAA			SA	AA	AA A
EM	r	.191	.032	-.107	EM	r	.148	-.104	-.197
	p	.238	.844	.512		p	.200	.369	.085
	r ²	.036	.001	.011		r ²	.022	.011	.039
SE	r	.093	-.075	.332*	SE	r	-.210	.069	.290*
	p	.570	.647	.036		p	.066	.549	.011
	r ²	.009	.006	.110		r ²	.044	.005	.084

Note: D - delinquents, N - non-delinquents, A - attachment, SA - secure attachment, AA - avoidant attachment, AAA - ambivalent-anxious attachment, EM - emotional maturity, SE - self-esteem, r - correlation coefficient, p - signification threshold, the correlations are significant to $p \leq .05$, r² - determination coefficient

Table 2. Correlation values between the emotional maturity level and the self-esteem level of the two adolescent categories: delinquents and non-delinquents.

D		SE	N		SE
EM	r	-.193	EM	r	-.352**
	p	.232		p	.002
	r ²	.037		r ²	.124

Note: D - delinquents, N - non-delinquents, EM - emotional maturity, SE - self-esteem, r - correlation coefficient, p - signification threshold, the correlations are significant to $p \leq .05$, r² - determination coefficient

Table 1 indicates a positive and statistically significant correlation between the self-esteem level and the ambivalent-anxious attachment, with a coefficient of correlation $r = 0.332$ ($p < 0.05$) for delinquents, and a coefficient of correlation $r = 0.290$ ($p < 0.05$) for the non-delinquent adolescents. Among the non-delinquent adolescents (table 2), a negative correlation has been noticed between the level of emotional maturity and the self-esteem level with a correlation coefficient of -0.352 ($p < 0.05$). It is specified that a low score for the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Evaluation Scale (Rosenberg, 1965) represents a high level of self-esteem.

High values of the determination coefficient were obtained, indicating a high intensity of the association effect between variables and a high practical value of the study, as it follows: the anxiety attachment and the level of self-esteem for delinquent adolescents ($r^2 = 0.110$), the anxiety attachment and the level of self-esteem for non-delinquent adolescents ($r^2=0.084$), and the level of self-esteem and the level of emotional maturity for non-delinquent adolescents ($r^2=0.124$).

Hypothesis 2: There will be differences between delinquent and non-delinquent adolescents pertaining to the categories of the three attachment styles (secure attachment, avoidant attachment and anxious-ambivalent attachment), emotional maturity level and self-esteem level.

A series of descriptive and dispersing statistical indices have been calculated for the scores obtained in all the subscales of the instruments (table 3) for the two categories of adolescents (delinquent, non-delinquent), allowing for the comparison between the two categories of adolescents.

Table 3. Styles of attachment, emotional maturity and self-esteem: descriptive indices for the two categories of adolescents

	S	NR	M	SD
SA	D	40	19.32	3.92
	N	77	18.18	4.06
AA	D	40	19.25	8.59
	N	77	18.15	4.20
AAA	D	40	17.17	4.16
	N	77	18.11	4.74
EM	D	40	17.38	2.16
	N	77	18.32	2.25
SE	D	40	22.27	5.18
	N	77	18.72	4.66

Note: D - delinquents, N – non-delinquents, SA - secure attachment, AA - avoidant attachment,

AAA - ambivalent-anxious attachment, EM - emotional maturity, SE - self-esteem, S - status, NR - number of subjects, M = average, SD = standard deviation

In a brief examination of the average values obtained for the subscales, one can observe that there are tendencies towards differences of attachment styles between the two categories of adolescents (Table 3). Thus the delinquent adolescents have obtained higher scores at two of the three attachment styles: secure (MD = 19.32, MN = 18.18) and avoidant (MD = 19.25, MN = 18.15). On the other hand, the non-delinquent adolescents have obtained higher scores at the anxious-ambivalent attachment styles (MN = 18.11, MD = 17.17), at the emotional maturity level (MN = 18.32, MD = 17.38) and at the self-esteem level (MN = 18.72, MD = 22.27), with the specification that a low score at the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Evaluation Scale (1965) represents a level of high self-esteem.

Through the usage of inferential statistical analysis, it can be seen whether these differences are statistically significant or if they are only maintained at the studied sample's level. Therefore, a parametric inferential test was performed (t test for independent samples).

Table 4. Attachment styles, emotional maturity and self-esteem – comparisons between the two categories of adolescents

	t value	p	Effect size (Cohen's d)
SA	1.459	.147	.285
AA	.926	.356	.162
AAA	-1.061	.291	.210
EM	-2.159	.033	.426
SE	3.757	.000	.720

Note: SA - secure attachment, AA - avoidant attachment, AAA - ambivalent-anxious attachment, EM - emotional maturity, SE - self-esteem, t value - coefficient t for the differences of the averages, p - signification threshold, the averages' differences are significant at $p \leq .05$

The results of the inferential t test for the independent samples (table 4) demonstrates that the differences between delinquent and non-delinquent adolescents are statistically significant for the emotional maturity level with a coefficient $t = -2.159$ ($p < 0.05$), and for the self esteem level with a coefficient $t = 3.757$ ($p < 0.05$).

The average value (.04 - .07) of the determination coefficient for the statistically significant averages differences indicate a good practical value of the study.

IV. Discussions and conclusions

The present study aims to highlight the associations between the attachment styles, the emotional maturity level and the self-esteem level of two adolescent groups from Romania: delinquents and non-delinquents, as well as to identify differences for these dimensions between the two adolescent categories, in order to further explore their predictive values. Following the descriptive statistical and inferential analysis, a series of associations and significant differences between the attachment styles, emotional maturity level and the self-esteem level of the two studied adolescent groups were revealed.

Positive significant correlations were obtained from both adolescent categories (delinquent and non-delinquent), between the level of self-esteem and the ambivalent-anxious attachment style. On the non-delinquent category, a significant negative correlation between the emotional maturity level and the self-esteem level was observed. Also, the high values of the determination coefficient emphasizes a high intensity of the association effect between the variables. Consequently, the data analysis suggests the fact that an ambivalent-anxious attachment style is associated with a low level of self-esteem, regardless of the adolescent status (with or without delinquency). However, the non-delinquent adolescents with a high level of emotional maturity also manifested a higher level of self-esteem.

The attachment styles, emotional maturity and self esteem were compared based on the personal status of the participants (delinquents and non-delinquents). Following the inferential testing with the t test for independent samples, statistically significant differences for the emotional maturity level and the self-esteem level between the two groups were obtained. The results indicate that the non-delinquent adolescents had a higher level of emotional maturity and self-esteem compared to the delinquent adolescents. The effect size values (Cohen's d) support the differences between the two categories on the above mentioned aspects and offer a good practical value to our study. Also, a close examination of the obtained averages shows that the delinquent adolescents obtained higher scores on two out of the three attachment styles: secure and avoidant, but the differences were not statistically significant.

Following the analysis of the data, we can conclude that the high level of self-esteem and emotional maturity of the non-delinquent adolescents could be explained based on the fact that these variables are most probably in a directly proportionate bond, meaning that if the emotional maturity level is high, then the self-esteem level is also high, or if the self-esteem level is high, then the emotional maturity level is also high. In our Romanian sample, the non-delinquent adolescents have

the self-esteem and emotional maturity levels higher than the delinquent adolescents, who do not manifest a high level of self-esteem or a high level of emotional maturity.

One of the important limitations of the study is the low number of delinquent adolescents that expressed their desire to participate to the research, in comparison to the non-delinquent adolescents. This aspect almost lead to the usage of some inferential nonparametric tests (Mann-Whitney, 1947). Even so, the homogeneity of the variable dispersion that was researched allowed us to perform the inferential analysis (i.e. the parametric test t for the independent samples). This fact enforces as a future research direction, a detailed analysis on large adolescent samples with social problems extracted from the Romanian population.

Another limitation of our study is that the sample of Romanian delinquent adolescents consisted of adolescents coming from recovery centers or from the probation service. None of the adolescents from this category was in detention at the moment of data collection. For the category of delinquent adolescents, the felonies where the following: deviant behavior (37 participants), robbery (3 participants) and drug dealing (1 participant). As future research direction, detailed examinations can be made in the Romanian penitentiary system, measuring several factors regarding delinquency throughout the severity of the crime and the duration of the criminal punishment. Also, our findings could help clinical psychologists in the penitentiary system to optimally design personalized treatments for the delinquent adolescents in the direction of prevention of recurrent socially non-desirable behaviors.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL AND SOCIAL CONSEQUENCES OF INFERTILITY

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Abstract: In the current thesis we aim to analyze the psychological significance of infertility and the psychological causes and consequences of infertility. In the second part of the research, the experimental part, we make the comparison between the level of quality of life perceived by the infertile women and men, before and after their participation to a medical program of fertilization. By analyzing the results, we obtain significant differences between women and men, from the 4 indicators point of view: emotional, mind-body, relational and social.

Key words: infertility, counseling, quality of life

I. Introduction

Infertility significations

The demographic transition has become a more complex process, an integrated part of the economic and social development process, of society modernization. The decrease of birthrates is accompanied by a reorganization of the fertility model. The Romanian fertility has always been early, having its highest values at the ages 20 – 24. After 2000, we notice an increase of fertility share to the ages over 25. In the meanwhile,

in the urban environment, the curve of fertility rates has already moved away from the early model, having the features of the spread model, with higher values for the age group of 25 – 29, and this is an intermediary phase towards the tardy model, typical to west-European peoples. The intermediary model is also embraced by the country side population. Less children, preferably one, giving birth to an older age, it has become the rule to govern the behavior of the young couple, in a society that rapidly adopts the values and attitudes system of the developed countries.

Infertility is a medical and psychological experience, which requires the couple to redefine, as individuals as well as partners, the psychological and social identity. Infertility could be considered a crisis of generations, bringing damage in the loss of family's future.

Infertility is considered to exist when a pregnancy has not occurred after at least one year of unprotected coitus. In primary infertility, there have been no previous conceptions, in secondary infertility there has been a previous viable pregnancy but the couple is unable to conceive at present. Sterility refers to the inability to conceive because of a known condition, such as the absence of a uterus. Researcher McLaughlin (1989) shows that about one out of five to six couples is infertile.

Infertility is a problem that strikes at the core of a couple's self-image and self-esteem. Psychological assessment will often reveal that one or both partners feel inadequate or angry and frustrated. Evaluating both, the men and the woman together may also be advantageous because they may feel more comfortable speaking about their problem together.

Causes of infertility

Nearly 15% of U.S. couples have experienced a problem with infertility. If infertility causes loss of self-esteem or self-concept, this means that many individuals are affected. A study conducted to investigate the effect of infertility on marriage and self-esteem involved a sample of 28 married couples seeking fertility counseling (the experimental group) and 17 married couples who were not ready for child rearing and thus had no concerns in this direction (the control group). Data were obtained by administering questionnaires to both groups.

The results of the study showed that infertile couples experienced less sexual satisfaction than the fertile couples. Infertile females exhibited a greater degree of discontent with infertility than males. The more investment in fertility procedures a couple had made, the greater was the female's discontent. The more the investment increased, the more the woman's self-esteem decreased, in contrast, the man's self-esteem

increased. (Hirsch A.M., Hirsch S.M. (1989), quote by Pillitteri A., 1992).

The published psychology literature provides a series of studies on the subject. Many researchers, among them Sabatelli R., Meth R., Gavazzi S (1988), quote y Mc.Daniel S., Doherty W., Hepworth J., Mihăescu V. (1996) showed that 60% of men and women from a sampling group reported a low frequency of sexual contact and low sexual satisfaction after finding out the diagnosis. Another study, conducted by Bents (1995) on a sampling group of 18 cases of masculine sexual dysfunctions and infertility show that the sexual dysfunctions considerably decrease, but do not eliminate, the possibility of conception.

Despite Romanian people's preconceptions in regards to the high frequency of feminine infertility, a study conducted by Anghelescu A, Coricovac A., Dracea L., Codreanu D., Marinescu B. (2014) on the examination of infertility causes distribution for Romanian population in comparison to other analyzed populations, has indicated that the masculine factor represents the most frequent cause of infertility.

There are previous studies on infertility causes distribution that have been conducted in fertility centers from different countries (Israel, Sudan, Thailand, France). Their results supported the masculine factor as being the most common cause of infertility.

Some of them highlighted a regress in the sperm quality throughout the last decades, for the general population. The majority associates this fall with certain factors that are related do the lifestyle: smoking, drug addiction, alcohol, and obesity. Some other research studies have associated the paternal elder age (over 40) with the infertility and the presence of neurocognitive affections for the successors, such as schizophrenia and autism, conditions that are determined by the instability of the spermatic DNA. In Romania, the big number of sexually transmitted diseases could justify the high incidence of infertile men.

The causes of feminine and masculine fertility are both biological and psychologic. **Biologically**, infertility increases with age. Because of this gradual decline in fertility, approximately one third of women who defer pregnancy to their mid to late thirties will have an infertility problem (Kuczynski, 1989). Women who have been taking oral contraceptives should know that they may have difficulties in getting pregnant for several months after discontinuing the pills, because it takes this long to restore the normal body functioning.

Men psychological problems and debilitating diseases may result in inability to achieve ejaculation. Failure to achieve ejaculation may be a relatively easily solved if it is associated with stress that can be released. If the failure of ejaculation is caused by a deep-seated psychological issue

(psychogenic infertility) a solution to the problem will include psychological or sexual counseling and may involve long term care. Premature ejaculation (ejaculation before penetration) is yet another problem usually attributed to psychological causes. This may affect the proper deposition of sperm (Stine and Collins, 1990).

The factors that cause infertility for women are analogous to those causing infertility for men: anovulation (faulty or inadequate production of ova), problems of ova transport through the fallopian tubes to the uterus, uterine factors such as tumors or poor endometrial development and cervical and vaginal factors that immobilize spermatozoa. In 10% of couples, no known cause for infertility can be discovered. Within this couples, this is probably because both partners have minimal problems that by themselves would not be significant, but when combined with a partner's difficulty, they become significant enough to create infertility. It is obviously discouraging for couples to complete a fertility series and to be told, that there is no reason for the difficulty that could be explained. Such couples need support from health care providers to help them find alternate solutions to childrearing, such as adoption or agreement on childless living when this occurs.

Couples are in a vulnerable position when they call a health care facility to ask for help with infertility. The couple may be worried about the future of their marriage or relationship. For example, each partner may wonder whether the other will be able to accept marriage if he or she turns out to be the "infertile" one. (Pillitteri A., 1992)

From a psychological and social point of view, the modern women postpone giving birth to their first child till the age of 35 to 40, out of the desire of having a career and financial security, ignoring the consequences of such a delay in regards to having a family.

At a psychological and social level, women find it more difficult to accept the infertility issues, in comparison to men, because the social perception on the woman's role, transgenerational transmitted, is associated to procreation and mothering. Several studies state that many women have the experience of infertility as a role failure (Miall, 1985, Greil, Leitko and Porter, 1988), they develop a feeling of concern related to the sexual disorders. Myers show that one of the most difficult problems of men, caused by infertility, is their wives' pain. For others, *the denial and the moments of silence* can reflect strong feelings of infertility being unacceptable for them, as men and as husbands. Whereas women are preoccupied by the topic of infertility, men deny or avoid the feelings they have, caused by a diagnosis of infertility. There is a category of men who loose self-confidence and develop addictive

behaviors, and another category who tries to accept the situation but are not ready for adopting parenting roles.

Consequences of infertility

The psychosocial experience of infertility has been described by clinicians McDaniel Susan, Doherty W., Hepworth J., Mihăescu V (1996) as being, from the genetic traumatology point of view, similar to the death of a beloved person or to a chronic disease diagnosis. The patients experience several emotions associated with the mourning period, after being diagnosed: denial, shock, fury, negotiation, depression and acceptance (Kubler-Ross, 1969, Myers, 1990). During the treatment, they go through a cycle of hope, loss, each 28 days. Same as in case of a trauma determined by a chronic disease, they must adapt their lifestyle, cooperate within the couple and they mustn't blame the other one.

From a psychosocial point of view, the couple develops a series of expectations as well as oscillations between the parental rights and the fear of infertility. Mathew R. and Matthews A. (1988) label this experience as a transition to the position of not being a parent. The transition towards the involuntary acceptance of the lack of parental experience is painful and traumatizing, for the majority of couples. This experience is different from the voluntary absence of children, because in this case, alternatives are missing, disappointment, a sensation of lacking life hope, and fear of the future appear, associated with infertility. Psychosocial research from the past 20-30 years (Myers, 1990) focus on the psychosocial consequences more, and less on the infertility antecedents.

The diagnosis procedures can be overwhelming, embarrassing and stressful. There are also certain myths among patients, Menning, 1977, citing McDaniel Susan, Doherty W., Hepworth J., Mihăescu V (1996) showed that a big number of patients believe that infertility is a punishment from God for a sexual mistake or a mistake of any other nature.

Infertile couples counseling

Infertility testing is an intense psychological stress period for couples. Support from health care personnel is necessary during this time, not only to help couples go through the experience on an individual basis, but also to help them maintain their relationship as a couple.

It is important for the psychologist to spend some time alone with each patient, in case there is anything they wish to discuss privately. This might be the only opportunity they have to ask "silly" questions or express fear that they felt too foolish to ask or express in front of their

partner. Diagnoses related to problems of infertility are likely to focus on psychosocial issues associated with the inability to conceive and the long, arduous process of fertility testing and management. Possible diagnoses include “Fear related to outcome of infertility studies”, “Decreased self-esteem related to the inability to conceive”, “Anxiety related to the heavy schedule of planned testing”, “Sexual dysfunction” and might be applicable if a specific problem is revealed in this segment, or if therapy become so overwhelming for a couple and their relationship (including sexual patterns) begins to unravel. The feeling of “being powerless” when facing repeated unsuccessful attempts of achieving conception and “hopeless” when no viable alternatives are perceived, may also be relevant. Couples who are told that an infertility problem has been discovered are predisposed to suffering a great loss of self-esteem. They must be offered support and guidance into focusing on other aspects of their lives, where they are successful, in order to help them realize that even though they may not be efficient in accomplishing fertility, they are productive healthy people in every other way.

In 1974, Kernberg stated that “the ability to love, to be eligible for love and to maintain an intimate relationship reflects the individual development level of a person. Falling in love and remaining in a relationship require achieving a certain level of maturity and emotional depth.” In a couple, especially in the beginning of a relationship, the two partners are attracted to each other, mainly physically. Subsequently, there can be an intellectual attraction, the desire for common interests and aspirations, the fusion, the emotional addiction mentioned by Erich Fromm, as follows: “this desire of interpersonal fusion is humans’ stronger aspiration. It is the fundamental passion, the force that holds together the human race, the clan, the family, the society.” H. H. Wolf shows that a well-defined self-identity supports “a healthy interaction within the couple, it contributes to solving crisis situations that appear within human relationships in general and within the family relationships.” (citing I. Mitrofan 1997).

Self-identity includes the following dimensions: the physical, the psychosexual, the social, the vocational, the moral-spiritual dimension. They mirror in the psychological and behavioral characteristics that support the individual him/herself and his/her personality.

Klein R. (1990) considers that within the couple, the partners bring sanogenous or pathological experiences inside the relationship, through the referral to the conditions in which they had formed their self-identity. These experiences can influence in an ambivalent way the partners’ perception of the couple relationship’s evolution: it can either be a healthy, appropriated experience, having a development and growth

potential for each partner, or insecure, disharmonic, loaded with frustrations and personal dissatisfactions.

The psychological counseling process of the infertile couples focuses both on overcoming conflicts, traumas (generated by infertility) that determine a disharmonic relationship as well as on the harmonization, the strengthening and developing the couple that wants to have a family.

One of the major objectives of the *psychological counseling* focuses on the partner's capacity to admit and accept the real personality of the lifetime companion and also *to develop their own personality in relation to their spouses' personalities*.

In a sanogenous partnership, the two individuals have a tolerant, flexible personality, both within the conjugal couple, and also in relation to the external world.

During counseling, they communicate each other the values and the ideals in life and experiment the social feelings and behaviors that will prepare them for developing new social roles, the parental ones, both in the case of child birth or child adoption.

With the help of the demographic research, it was revealed that fertility rehabilitation is the only option capable to improve the country's demographical situation and eventually, to stop the upcoming demographical decline. A fertility rate of 1,5 children for each woman can only decrease the proportions of demographic decline, as a consequence in 2050, Romanian population will be of 14 million inhabitants. A fertility rate of 2,1 children for each woman stops the decline and reassures the situation's recovery, as in 2050 the population of Romania would be of 15 million inhabitants. A possible economic recovery could determine mortality decrease, and fertility – usually sensitive on a higher life standard – would react moderately. Fertility growth can only be achieved through demographical politics, through incentive politics, with respect towards the individual or the couple's right to making their own decisions, with information and access to the modern contraceptives.

II. Experimental research

Research objectives

- a. The evaluation of the representative indicators of infertile people's quality of life.
- b. The evaluation of the differences in people's perception of quality of life, before and after the medical treatment.

Research hypotheses

1. We assume that there are significant differences between the level of certain indicators (negative emotions, the mind-body relationship and the impact on infertility, the couple relationship and the impact on infertility, the impact of infertility on social interactions) between men and women.
2. We assume that there are significant differences in people's perception of quality of life, before and after the medical treatment.

The sample

The sampling group is composed of 49 people (24 men and 25 women), between 29 and 48 years old.

Evaluation instruments

1. The Fertility Quality of Life Tool Questionnaire (FertiQoL) , J. Boivin, J. Takefman and A. Braverman 2011, translated to Romanian.
2. Discussions about the consequences of infertility on couple's life.

Research results

The **Core FertiQoL** is the fertility quality of life across the **Emotional, Mind – Body, Relational** and **Social subscales**. *The Emotional subscale* score shows the impact of negative emotions (e.g., jealousy & resentment, sadness, depression) on quality of life. *The Mind-Body subscale* score shows the impact of fertility problems on physical health (e.g., fatigue, pain), cognitions (e.g., concentration) and behavior (e.g., disrupted daily activities, delayed life plans). *The Relational subscale* score shows the impact of fertility problems on marriage or partnership (e.g. sexuality, communication, commitment). *The Social subscale* score shows the extent to which social interactions have been affected by fertility problems (e.g., social inclusion, expectations, stigma, and support).

In order to interpret and validate the first hypothesis, we made comparisons, based on t test, between men and women, concerning negative emotions, mind-body relationship and the impact on infertility, couple's relationship and the impact on infertility, the impact of infertility on social interactions.

By analyzing the scores shown in Table no.1, we notice the existence of significant differences between the variables analyzed on a significance level $p=0,000$, as follows:

- Infertile women manifest a higher frequency of negative emotions, compared to infertile men (66,02 compared to 46,73)
- The mind – body relation is highly expressed by women, compared to men (67,66 compared to 47,82)
- Men claim that despite infertility, have a better level of communication inside the couple, compared to women (45,62 compared to 40,24)
- Women have a stronger need of socialization than men do (65,54 compared to de 52,6.)

Table no.1. Independent samples t test

Independent samples t tests		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Emotional	Equal variances assumed	,744	,393	-7,486	47	,000
	Equal variances not assumed			-7,323	38,532	,000
Mind_body	Equal variances assumed	1,190	,281	-4,488	46	,000
	Equal variances not assumed			-4,407	36,635	,000
Relational	Equal variances assumed	3,141	,083	3,312	47	,002
	Equal variances not assumed			3,237	38,186	,002
Social	Equal variances assumed	3,359	,073	-4,383	47	,000
	Equal variances not assumed			-4,297	39,570	,000
Total_core_score	Equal variances assumed	1,516	,224	-5,135	47	,000
	Equal variances not assumed			-5,041	40,105	,000

Total_treatment_score	Equal variances assumed	2,173	,147	-3,009	47	,004
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,973	42,661	,005

For the second hypothesis, by applying the t test we notice the fact that there are significant differences ($p=0,003$) in the perception of quality of life before and after the treatment (the global medium level of quality of life was 55,67 before the medical treatment, and it decreased to 52,3, after the treatment). Only for 40% of the subjects the quality of life improved, for the rest of the subjects, it decreased.

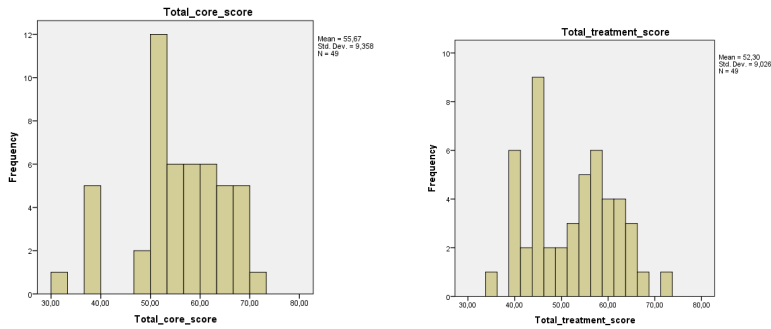


Figure no.1 The perception of quality of life before and after the treatment

Conclusions

‘Quality of life’ (QoL) was defined by the World Health Organization (WHO) as people’s perceptions of their position in life in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards and concerns.

The following dimensions of quality of life were analyzed:

1. Emotional impact on emotions (e.g. causes sadness, resentment, grief)
2. Mind-body impact on physical health (e.g. fatigue, pain), cognition (e.g. poor concentration) and behavior (e.g. disrupted daily activities)
3. Relational impact on partnership (e.g. sexuality, communication and commitment)
4. Social impact on social aspects (e.g. social inclusion, expectations and support)

5. Environment impacts related to treatment environment (e.g. access, quality, interactions with staff)
6. Treatment tolerability

The participants to the research claimed that there was no improvement in the infertile patients' quality of life and that a complex program regarding both psychological and medical counseling in infertility treatment is essential. From this perspective, we consider this to be a limit of the current study, and we aim to develop a further research, on the topic of a psychosexual counseling program.

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THE INFLUENCE OF THE PERSONALITY FACTORS IN THE LEADING STYLE

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Abstract: The leading style comprises all the particularities specific to the leading executives, the ensemble of attitudes, adopted working methods and the characteristics of the relationships with the subordinates and with the external environment. While evaluating a certain leading style, an important role is played by the interpersonal relationships system and thus, broadly, the leading style can be defined as way of working with people. An efficient leading style takes into consideration the approach of reality lead by the ideal functional model. The leading style always emerges from the way the director, the leader or the boss is seen by the people that he is in functional relationships with: subordinates, co-workers and superiors.

Key words: leading style, personality factor.

Introduction

Zlate (2007) defines the leading style as being the “concrete way of playing a role, therefore of effective transposition in behavioral plan of the demands deriving from the leading position”. This way, the attitudinal-motivational side, as well as the behavioral one are combined in the leading style that manifest special characteristics as soon as it is interpreted situationally.

The leadership is the service offered by the executives of the organization. Kats and Kahn (1966) considers that the leadership is necessary because:

- it ensures the dynamic of the organization;
- it allows a higher organizational flexibility and ability to answer to the environmental changes;

- it offers the possibility of coordinating the efforts of different groups from within the organization, especially during growth and changing stages.
- it eases the needs satisfaction of the organization's members, as working force stability premises.

Being a leader means, firstly, being alive, keeping your creativity, curiosity, compassion and love for people even when you are humiliated, cornered or silenced. But people of any race, from all over the world protect and isolate themselves, due to fear of failure. Protecting themselves makes sense as long as dangers are real. When you hide and cease being yourself, when you fight for survival and for self-preservation, you risk, equally, to miss the essence itself – the innocence, curiosity, and compassion. These become cynicism, arrogance, and lack of common sense. The most difficult task of a leader is learning how to overpass suffering. The virtue of a clear heart resides in the courage of keeping the innocence and curiosity, the doubt, compassion and love, even in the darkest and most difficult times.

The diplomacy, the power of persuasion, the initiative, taking responsibilities, the possibility of waking a vivid desire inside the others, the ability of moderating a discussion, the originality, the willingness of admitting his/her mistakes, the capability of listening empathically are the defining features of a leader. The leader is the one who identifies first the needs of the group and takes initiative in solving them. The person who has ideas can easily become a group leader, but he/she will easily lose this role if his/her reasoning capabilities are eliminated or if he/she is not popular among the group. The specialist has a decisive role in making decisions, but most of the times he/she is not the one who takes the initiative. A person with sense of humor can easily gain a group, but this happens mainly during the relaxing periods. Thus, the leader of the group is not grounded and can change his/her face depending on the situation. The power of leader attitude manifestation may, of course, be influenced by both the individual interests and the group's nature. Thereby, the director of a company can be the perfect leader professionally, but he/she can also play a totally different role among his/her friends. The leader of the group must be neither the most knowledgeable in a certain domain, nor the one who has the most original ideas, or the one who works the most, but he/she must definitely be the one who has a well-argued speech, the one who shows interest towards all the persons of the group, the initiative and the ideas that always have as a base the group interests will always be supported and approved by the group members (Zlate, 2002).

The quality of leadership is influenced by the ability of managers to assume the power sources and by the way they utilize this power in the process of influencing the behavior of the followers. The power itself comes, ultimately, from the desire and the will of the subordinates to follow the direction shown by the leader and from the ability of the leader to satisfy the needs of the subordinates. The process of leadership implies the use of power in the following phases:

- the allocation of tasks that implies activities of prevision, orientation and instruction nature;
- accomplishing tasks – through guidance, monitoring, authority delegation and support in subordinates activity;
- reward – through material or social stimulus offering and through feed-back on the level of performance approach to the set goals of the members of the organization.

The true leaders do not take advantage on their power over the ones around them – they influence with integrity. Before developing his/her abilities, a genuine leader has set a system of beliefs and values that allows him/her to exert his/her influence by bringing positive changes in the community (Spector, 1985).

Purpose of the study

The theses aims to identify the way personality factors influence the capacity of making decisions of leaders, as well as the way the motivational dominant relates with the personality factors.

Research methods

The research is based on applying three tests that measure the capacity of making decisions, the motivational dominant, and the personality characteristics. The subjects are guided to answer the first answer that comes to their mind and corresponds to reality.

1. The questionnaire of *Motivational Dominants* was elaborated byTicu (2004). Motivation is a fundamental concept in psychology, expressing the fact that at the base of the human behavior there is always an aggregate of motives – needs, tendencies, emotions, interests, intentions, ideals – that support the achievement of certain actions, facts, attitudes.

The listed motives represent internal conditions, interposed between the environment stimuli and the reactions of the organism, mediating, requiring, and maintaining on behavior or another. The motivation restructures and adjust continuously, along with the psychological function that it serves, including in its component multiple physiological, psychological and socio-cultural variables. Taking into

consideration all these, the motivation appears as integrating and explanatory factor of the most diverse psycho-social phenomena: statuses and roles, aspirations and performances, interpersonal relationships, different group phenomena (the cohesion, the conformism, the authority, the influence, the prestige, etc.). This questionnaire of Motivational Dominants is formed by four factors: leadership (power needs); expertise (achievement needs); relationship (affiliation needs); subsistence (existence needs).

2. *The CP5F personality questionnaire was carried out by Albu (2009) based on the model of FFPI (Five-Factor Personality Inventory) questionnaire. In order to deduct the significance of the hyper-factors, the items of each and every scale have been processed and the following interpretations of scales' scores were found:*

- for the scale **Extraversion**:

High score: Feels good in the society. Participates actively to fun activities. Likes to talk. Easily establishes contact with others.

Low score: He/she isolate from the others. He/she is quiet.

- for the scale **Kindness**:

High score: Manifests interest for the people around him/her. Respects the opinions and the rights of others. Tries to be in good terms with the others.

Low score: He/she is interested only by him/herself. Tries to get attention. Wants to impose his/her point of view. Disturbs the people around.

- for the scale **Conscientiousness**:

High score: Respects the rules. He/she is tidy. Plans all his/her actions. Tries his/her best to make everything good. He/she is trustworthy

Low score: He/she is nonconformist. Takes actions without thinking what is their use and how they wol end. He/she doesn't fit in fixed terms.

- for the scale **Emotional stability**:

High score: Thinks positive. He/she is optimistic. He/she controls his/her emotions. Trusts him/herself.

Low score: Worries for everything. Always restless. He/she looses temper in stressful situations.

- for the scale **Autonomy**:

High score: Acts different than th others. He/she is creative. Doesn't allow being lead by the others.

Low score: Doesn't have his/her own opinions. Accepts everything he/she is told. Can be easily manipulated.

3. The questionnaire *Capacity of making decisions* was taken out from the battery of CAS++ test (Miclea, Albu 2009) and evaluates the rationality of the decider. Through this we understand a low sensitivity to the decisional capacities highlighted by the empirical research that studied the subject of limited rationality of the human decider. A different construct that is being evaluated is the level of indecision of the decider. Through this, we understand the way the decider cannot choose one of the available alternatives (and goes for the alternative d) I cannot decide) or, in other words, he/she avoids making a firm decision in a situation in which the alternatives are known.

The decisional capacity test evaluates the decisional rationality of a person or his/her sensitivity towards the decisional heuristics. Hence, a good rationality means a reduced sensitivity of the decider to the decisional heuristics.

Therefore, a *high score* at the decisional capacity test (good and very good level) reflects a good capacity of rational analysis of decisional situations. The persons that get high scores at the decision test (level 4 and 5) analyze carefully the available information and the arguments for the decisional alternatives of which they must choose. They are people who use less general decisional heuristics, they would rather use each decisional situation separately. Even though they use sometimes decisional heuristics, the use of these, as well as the sensitivity to decisional errors (known as limits of rationality) is reduced to minimum. They are people who can professionally succeed in professions that imply making decisions (administrators, managers, economists, judges, lawyers, investigators, detectives, etc.).

Due to the fact that the high score at the decision test reflects successful solving of different types of decisional situations, we can consider that these persons choose a contextual analysis of these situations. They are not in a hurry to make inferences about a situation or an alternative not unless they analyze it carefully. They are persons who like to get involved in analyzing difficult situations and, in general, in solving problems.

Sampling

The study was carried on 198 participants, aged between 30 and 50 years old, all people that were interviewed having leading positions in different areas of a state owned organization. The leaders were tested during September – December 2015. From the genre point of view, the participants are divided into 39.39% women and 60.61% men. As far as the area they were selected from, the subjects are divided as seen in figure 1.

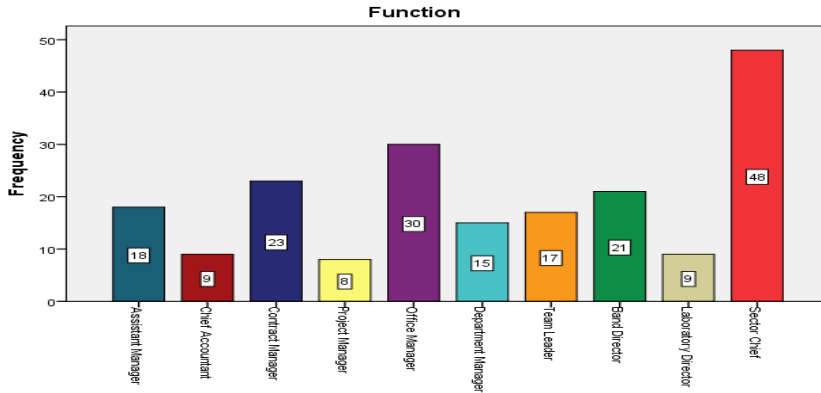


Figure 1. *The distribution of subjects according to the positions they have in society*

Working hypothesis

It is assumed that there are significant differences in the personality characteristics depending on gender.

It is assumed that there are correlations between the decision capacity and the motivational dominant of the leaders that participated to the study.

It is assumed that there are significant differences regarding the decision capacity and the position they have in the company.

6. Results

For the validation of the first hypothesis, the personality CP5F test was applied. After checking the normality and homogeneity of the data, the following resulted Table 1:

Table 1
The results of the t test for the independent samples

	t-test for Equality of Means		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Extraversion	-2.045	196	,042
Emotional stability	-2,489	196	,014
Autonomy	-2,844	196	,005

There were significant differences between the personality characteristics for a significance level $p=0.042$, the average score that men got is 5.89 compared to 6.11 got by women. For the emotional

stability characteristic, there were also significant differences at $p=0.014$, also in favor of women as they got a score of 6.17, compared to 5.78 that men got. There was another significant difference in the autonomy, $p=0.005$. The score that women got was 5.63 and the one that questioned men got was 5.23.

The personality structure of a leader has a structured aggregate of typical personality characteristics, that makes him/her different from the other categories of leaders. Each leader of this organization should have a little bit from each of the above factors. There shouldn't be a predominance only on work values, but also they must be sociable with everyone that they interact with, not only the people they sympathize. The sociable ones should also focus on work, not only on valuing their employees.

The study of the leader's personality also contains data of concrete situations in which personality was formed and evolved, as well as data about organizational contexts in which it currently functions. The personality structure is a result of interrelationship between hereditary, educational factors and the practice of profession and leadership which structured the features of personality and the socially practiced abilities as specific authority, that manifests in the leading act.

In order to verify the second hypothesis, it was necessary to run two tests: one that measures the motivational dominant and the test that measures the ability of making decisions of the leaders of an organization.

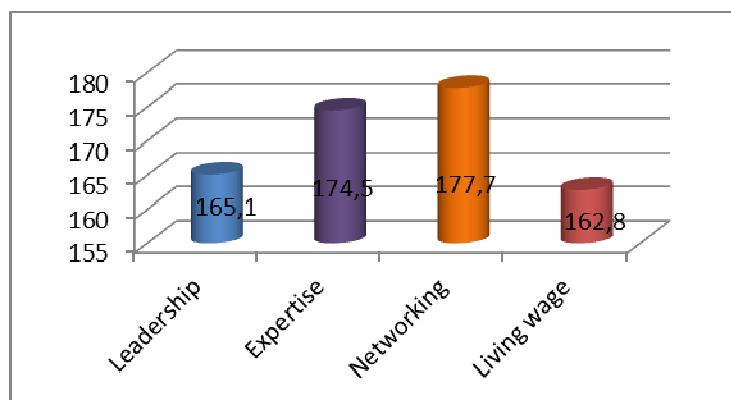


Figure 2: *The dominance of the factors in the leaders' organization*

As a result (Figure 2), the majority of leaders from this group manifest the desire of establishing and keeping friendship relations with both the new people, and with the persons that are already part of this

organization, especially with their subordinates. They also like to work in a pleasant team, with understanding people, in harmony.

Likewise, not too far from the factor that dominates this organization, is the expertise factor, the need of accomplishment. This need reveal the tendency, or more likely the desire that the leaders excel in the activities that they perform, of being seen as experts in everything they do, real professional people. They do not like to be the “men in the shadow”, but they like to be one of the persons that influence the decisions that are made, for the good performance of the organization.

On a lower level, we must also consider the need of power and the one of existence. Even though the first place belongs to the need of affiliation, that doesn't mean that these leaders do not have the ability of leading their subordinates. On the contrary, with a real tact and involvement, the leader stimulate the subordinates, they mobilize them towards success, in order to bring inside the organization the satisfaction and the will to succeed.

After analyzing the relationship between the two variables, a strong positive correlation is noticed $r=0.73$ at a significance level $p<0.01$.

The strength of changing behavior belongs to the person of whose behavior the leadership tries to modify; thus, motivation is a process that develops inside a person. The problem of the manager is to find a strategy through which he/she can make contact with the internal condition of the employee, determining the latter to be motivated, to act driven by his/her own feelings. Although managers wonder often how they could motivate someone, they are not the ones motivating the subordinates. People are motivated or demotivated depending on their inner state. In this trial of managers to influence this state, the best approach is trying to influence people's motivation.

In order to function and to be viable in a competitive world, the organizations must motivate their members to do the following: to join the organization and stay in it; to accomplish the tasks that they have been hired for; to behave creatively, spontaneously and innovative.

To verify the third hypothesis we used the ANOVA procedure of comparing three or more samples in order to see if there are any differences between the different departments in which the participant to the study leaders activate.

Table 2. *The results of the calculation of ANOVA procedure for the ability of making decisions variable.*

The ability of making decisions

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	15,790	6	2,632	2,321	,035
Within Groups	216,572	191	1,134		
Total	232,362	197			

As seen in Table 2, there is at least one significant difference between the leaders that participate to the study and the department they activate in.

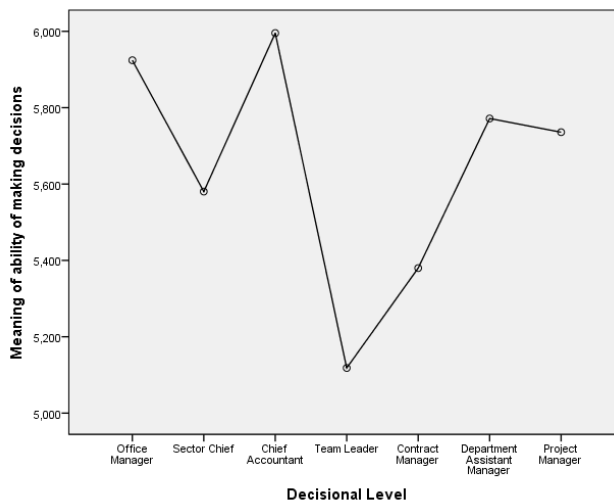


Figure 4. *The graphic representation of the averages obtained by each category of leader at the ability of making decisions variable.*

Thus, there were significant differences between the leaders that work as office bosses and the ones that are team leaders, at a significance level $p=0.021$, the average of the differences being 0.805, as in those who are team leaders have a lower ability of making decisions, in comparison to those who run an entire department.

Another significant difference was identified between the assistants and the department managers $p=0.048$, the average of differences being 0.653.

The leadership is not only a matter of organizational technique through specification of goals and means, complete and relevant information, optimization of decisions and quality control, but also a

matter of psychosocial interaction, in which the leader's influence on the members of the organization is extremely important, based on the authority, the prestige and his/her central position, and also, the participation to both the leadership and to the activity of all people involved. It is important that the leader, being at the intersection between the situation and the group, to make the best synthesis of the organization and group needs.

Conclusions

The organization must be seen as an open, dynamic system, characterized by a continuous process of entry, transformation, and exit. The entries are: human, material, energetic and financial resources with the help of which the organization provides products or services that influence the behavior of its members, who accomplish the tasks that are typical to society.

In other words, the organizations involve people, and finally they depend on people's efforts. The essence of each organization is represented by the effort of human resources, and the efficiency and the effectiveness are influenced, on a high level, by the behavior of the members of the organization.

Organizations are part of our daily life, representing the place where we spend most of our time. The behavior of each member of the organization is influenced by the behavior of the colleagues from work, but also, the behavior of this person may influence the behavior of his/her colleagues.

The organization maintains, functions and develops only if the persons belonging to it are motivated to accomplish the tasks that they have. The methods and the abilities that are necessary for running the organization, in our case of big dimensions, are totally different from the ones used two or three decades ago, for determining a good performance and obtaining success. We may say that the techniques, the concepts, the practices that dominate managers' thinking in this organization are: the power, the structure, the hierarchy, the control, the coordination, the discipline, the stimulation and last but not least, the loyalty.

For this matter, the organization leaders have the responsibility to create cultures in which the experience and the models or the dominant ideas questioning does not represent an opportunity offered only to those that are considered to be brave and imaginative. In this situation, innovation does not necessarily appear in pre-established contexts, but it can appear anywhere, sometimes being initiated by the people that where not specifically in charge with producing it.

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IS THE ROMANIAN SOCIETY ACCEPTING THE DRUGS BODYPACKING?

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Abstract: Drug consumption has ever depended on the possibilities of producing and transport the drug to the consumer. The substances in question being forbidden to produce, detain and commerce, made the object of activity for traffickers in the most diverse moments of human history. A less encountered alternative of trafficking in our country, but mentioned in the specialised literature as well as in the media recording the criminal behaviour of Romanian citizens abroad, is that of including the psychotropic substances illegally transported in their own bodies. The present work tries to elucidate the degree to which the Romanians are willing to adapt themselves to this kind of practice that has high levels of risks both in point of criminal consequences and for their life and their own physical integrity; the main question is how disposed are the Romanians to become drug carriers?

Key words: drugs, body packing, internal carriers, swallowers.

Introduction:

The Romanian folk pharmacopoeia has traditionally known various plants with psychotropic effect, such as: Deadly nightshade (mandrake), bay tree, poppy, wolfbane, hog's bean and hemlock, some of these having been used since back in the Dacian epoch, some of them being used as anaesthetics or in worshipping and divination. The contact with other peoples and civilizations has brought about new things, both in terms of the substances used and in terms of their destinations: Dimitrie

Cantemir, who lived in Istanbul for 17 years, between 1688 and 1705 in various capacities - student, ambassador and even hostage - certified that in that area it was the opium that was used. In the XVIII century, opium had reached, by means of the Turks, in the Romanian countries; the Moldavian ruler Constantin Racovita was said to "eat opium in the morning and at dawn", according to the chronicler Ioan Canta (Oisteanu, 2010).

Addicts are overarching in both historical and geographical point of view, and are recruited from various social levels. There are numerous theories try to account drug consumption from psychological, social, medical points of view (Ioan, Bulgaru-Iliescu, 2003).

An evaluation of drug consumption was made qualitatively in a study carried out by The National Institute of Forensic Pathology Bucuresti in 2010, which concluded that the first three places as far as the tests on the living addicted are concerned are occupied by tetrahydrocannabinol, opioids and benzodiazepines, and, in the case of the tests performed post mortem, opioids, benzodiazepines and barbituric respectively (Dermengiu & coll., 2010).

Consumers preferences are changing from one year to the following. The most recent and documented source in the field of the drug consumption in Romania remains "The National Report concerning Drug Situation in 2015" belonging to the National Anti-Drugs Agency. This mentions that in 2014 the first place in psychotropic substances consumers' preferences was occupied by cannabis, followed by stimulating substances belonging to the ecstasy and heroine categories. Therefore, 4.6% of the general population aged 15 to 64 declared that experimented cannabis consumption, out of which, 2% had done it in the last year and 1% in the last month, while 0.9% admitted to have consumed ecstasy and only 0.3% in the case of heroin (www.ana.gov.ro). According to the same source, in 2014 in Romania there were registered at a national level, 33 cases of death associated directly to drug consumption that was toxicologically proved.

Long and short term effects of drug consumption are well-known: medical emergencies following overdosing, associated infections (HIV, HVB, HVC), psychiatric pathologies, social lack of inclusion or even exclusion.

Obviously, these psycho-active substances are purchased illegally and among the strategies for decreasing drug consumption as negative medico-legal implications phenomena there can be mentioned the efforts to stop drug transport and commerce. Throughout the year 2014, a number of 547 people were sentenced for drug trafficking under Art. 2 of Law no 143/2000 (www.ana.gov.ro).

As the way of transporting drugs, the same source identifies in 2014 in Romania the following alternatives:

- Drugs that are carried by people: in luggage, stuck to the body, in laptop bags, in fanny packs.
- Drugs transported in automobiles: in spare parts, in cocoa packets, in the luggage, in food packs, in spaces specially created for dissimulating drugs
- Drugs transported by air: in the double bottom of bags, car fridge, food boxes;
- Drugs dispatched by courier service or mail (www.ana.gov.ro).

Those who carry drugs are known within the trafficker's circles as "mule" or "carrier" (en.wikipedia.org). There is also the term of "blind mule", designating a transporting person who doesn't even know that in their luggage it was introduced a certain amount of drugs, or who carries a pack whose content is unknown to them (Dragan, 2000). The riskiest ways of transporting illicit substances are those that suppose transporting substances either stuck to the body or in the luggage, as in these cases drugs are easily detected either by means of corporal searches or with the help of specially trained dogs. In 1973, the specialised Canadian literature describes a new method of transport of the illicit substances: the intra corporeal one, the people in questions being subsequently named "swallowers" or "internal carriers". The technique of body packing consists of packing drugs in waterproof bags, such as condoms or fingers of latex gloves and their introducing into natural or artificial body cavities – such as rectum, colostomy, vagina, and mouth, or, in the case of the alternative presented by the so-called "swallowers", in ingesting the bags. In 2003 there were reported the first cases of children involved in drug trafficking, the children carrying the heroine inside their bodies, such as the case of a boy of 16 who swallowed 53 packets and another, 12-years old who was introduced intrarectally 84 packets. They were detected due to over acute poisoning caused by the breaking of a pack in one's stomach, and due to rectal bleeding (Traub & coll., 2003).

Actually, most cases of body packing are detected due to such "transportation accidents", few cases being identified by means of medical imaging. Moreover, medical imaging procedures such as CT-scan, MR imaging, and ultrasound are useless, only the classical radiology being able to offer such diagnoses: hashish have a radio opacity denser than stool, cocaine appears with an image similar to stool and heroin appears as a gaseous transparency (Hergan, Kofler, Oser, 2004).

The official reports in Romania don't even mention in the cases of drug trafficking such phenomena as body packing or its alternative "swallowing", which means that on its territory the above-mentioned

occurrence is negligible. However, the media mentions such actions in the Romanians abroad: a Romanian woman in Spain was caught by the Spanish Border Police in 2013 as having hid in her body no less than 115 packs of hashish with a total amount of 620 grams: out of them, 92 packs were detected in the stomach, and the others in the vagina (www.ziare.com).

Another case reported by the media was that of a young man aged 25, who, together with his fiancée, was caught by the police on an airport in Ecuador while both being mules for the drug traffickers. The officers had them checked with X-rays, and they detected in men's and woman's stomachs a number of 55 and 45 respectively capsules of liquid cocaine. One of the doses swallowed by the man had got undone inside his stomach, and the content entered his body and the overdose caused his death (<http://stirileprotv.ro>).

The national media also reports, in 2015, cases of drug trafficking networks involving Romanians who acted as “internal carriers”, but all transports were aiming at other destinations than Romania, and leaving from other destinations than Romania. According to the official reports of the DIICOT, even those practicing such method and introducing drugs into the EU territory by means of their own bodies were to subsequently dispatch these drugs to the country by other means (<http://adevarul.ro>). On the other hand, there are countries where this practice is a well - known and even commonly method of cross-border drug smuggling. For example, in Mauritius, between 2000 and 2013 there were recorded 45 such cases, out of which 20 were 25 were foreign citizens, and the drugs carried in this way were heroin and cannabis (Gungadin, Ananda, 2014).

Hypotheses, material and method

Drugs transporting within the body is a dangerous and invasive technique, virtually safer for the "mules" - from a criminal point of view - than that consisting in transporting them stuck to the body surface or in the luggage. At the same time, it is far more dangerous in point of the accidents occurrences due to the release of psychotropic substances in the body.

Primary hypothesis:

The problem raised in the present work was that of the willingness of the Romanian population to accept and respectively to adhere to such practices. The fact that The National Anti-Drug Agency in Romanian did not report such technique among the means found to hiding drugs during transport make us consider that it may be either so effective that it surpasses the Border Police ability of detecting, or is really not employed by the carriers as a means for bringing/ taking out

drugs to or from Romania. We assumed that there is an enhanced susceptibility to such practices among the formerly perpetrators in the field of drug trafficking or violent crimes than among the general population.

The method employed and lot of study:

We devised a questionnaire that we applied to the inmates in the Bacau penitentiary. The purpose of the questionnaire was to evaluate whether the people in question had a negative open-mind to accept such practices as body packing. The target group was made up of inmates who had been convicted due to crimes more or less related to drug trafficking or violent crimes, and whose convictions were longer than 5 years depriving of liberty. Two supplemental criteria were restrictive to the application of the questionnaire to the group that met all the above-mentioned conditions: literacy (the illiterate convicts were excluded from the study) and the informed consent of the potentially questioned person. The cumulative criteria were fulfilled by 40 of the targeted convicts.

Questionnaire

Read the statements below. Decide how often you happened to go through such situations, check the box corresponding to your answer. There are no right or wrong answers, the questionnaire is but to evaluate the way you react.

1. I could ingest (swallow) drugs in order to carry them.
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always
2. I have ingested (swallowed) drugs in order to carry them.
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always
3. Carrying drugs by ingesting them is a good solution to make money.
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always
4. I would carry drugs in my body in order the use them myself later on.
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always
5. I would choose body packing over other transport alternatives.
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always
6. I think that the method of carrying by body packing affects the physical integrity of the person who does it.
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always
7. I think that the method of carrying by body packing affects the psychic integrity of the person who does it.
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

Secondary Hypothesis:

It is possible that among the general population it exists a tendency towards such practices in the people who possess a certain

degree of drug-seeking behaviour, even though it is directed to legal substances, more or less harmful: alcohol and tobacco. It was designed a simplified questionnaire to evaluate quickly both the presence of a possible drug-seeking behaviour and the willingness to carry drugs in one's own body:

Questionnaire:

Answer the following statements by checking the box that characterizes you best:

1.a. Smoking:

I am a smoker I sometimes smoke I seldom smoke I've quit smoking
I've never been a smoker

2.a. Alcohol beverages consumption:

I drink every day I drink for a reason I drink occasionally I've
quit drinking I have never drunk

3.a. Drugs:

I do drugs I seldom do drugs I've done drugs a few times It
happened once Never

1.b. If I were compelled, I would carry drugs:

Never Yes, in case my life would be at stake Yes, if somebody else's life
would be at stake For money

2.b. If I had to carry drugs well-packed but somewhere else than in my
luggage, I would do it:

Never Beneath my underwear, In my mouth, and I'd swallow them if
necessary Swallowed or in my rectum

The questionnaire was applied to 346 of the de customers paying their bills at a pay-pal point in Bacau within a month. The total of customers was of 408, but 62 of them refused to fill in the questionnaire. The responding customers were symbolically acknowledged the participation in the test by being offered a lozenge, the eventual occurring claims for a supplemental mint (e.g. for grandchildren) being favourably solutioned.

Results and discussions:

Primary hypothesis:

The first questionnaire applied to the convicts in the penitentiary proved to be unreliable, due to the given environment: all the given answers were the ideally desirable ones: none of the respondents confessed to be willing to swallow drugs in order to carry them, none had ever did such things, carrying drugs for money wasn't seen as a desirable solution nor for money or for one's own consumption, and all the 40 convicts considered that carrying drugs within their own bodies would affect their integrity, physically as well as from a psychic point of view. .

Taking into account that 13 out of the 41 convicts had been imprisoned for crimes related with drug trafficking or consumption, we appreciate that it is possible that the socially desirable answers to have been given following the fact that the above mentioned were integrated, most of them, in rehabilitation programmes, and/or the answers were altered by the emotional bearing of the prospect of their possible anticipated discharge.

Secondary hypothesis:

The second questionnaire enjoyed a split interpretation: within each subgroup a sum of the scores was calculated, where items answered by "never" were assigned 0, and then, increasing values were assigned, until the answers such as "I am a smoker", "I drink every day", "I do drugs" received a 4. The maximum theoretically possible score would have been 12, but the maximum factual score was 9. The minimum recorded score was 0, and applied to 51 customers. The results are registered in Table 1:

Table 1

SCORE	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Nr. Resp.	51	5	21	19	37	36	81	73	21	2

It can be seen that no respondent acquired the maximum theoretically possible score, therefore they did not admit to being a consumer of alcoholic beverages, tobacco or drugs. The average score was calculated to be 4.67. It was considered that the respondents whose answers scored above 4.67 could be considered to fall into the group of those running a higher risk of being prone to toxic substances consumption, as far as the present study is concerned with the matter. It was concluded that out of the total of 346 respondents to the questionnaire a number of 213 fall into that group, while the rest of 133 can be considering as running a low risk of drug-seeking behaviour. See Chart 1:



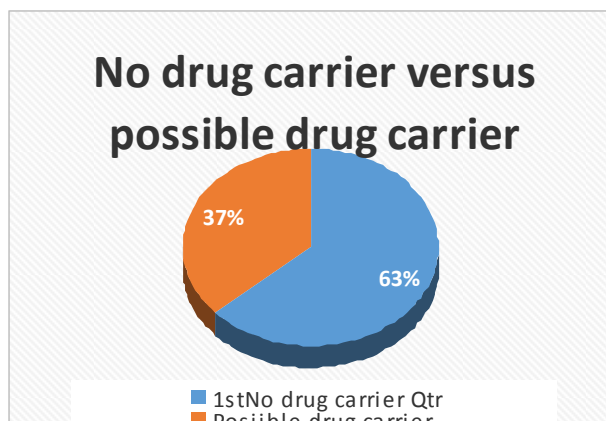
The answers of the sub groups b) of the questions were also evaluated by calculating a score where "never" was assigned 0 points, the rest of the of the answers increasing gradually by 1 point until the value of 3. The minimum theoretically possible score was 0 while the maximum theoretically possible score was 6. For each person, it was made the sum of the scores, then it was calculated the average for the total of customers. The results are presented in Table no 2:

Table 2

Score	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Nr.respond	219	64	44	11	6	2	0

The average score for the analysed group was 0.63. It is noted that, if we accept that the average of scores leads to a divide between a group with low risk of becoming a drug carrier and a group that would never become drug carrier, it is enough to give a positive answer to one of the questions of the b) series in order to make that person to be considered as having smuggling potential.

It was considered useful a division of the respondents into two categories: those who under no circumstances would carry drugs, and those who, under certain circumstances, would do it, the result being that 63.3% refused the idea of ever carrying drugs, no matter what the circumstances might be. Chart no.2:

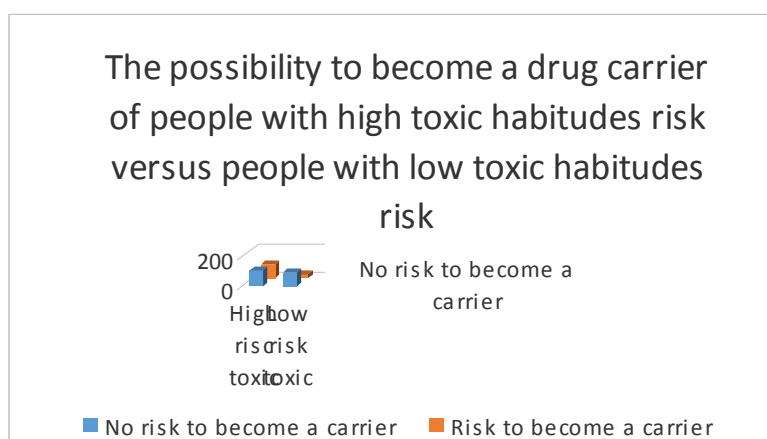


The final evaluation was made by a comparative appreciation of the number of respondents running a drug-seeking risk assessed by the series of questions a), that had at least a positive answer to the questions in the series b) compared to the number of respondents who had

minimum one positive answers to the b) series of answers selected from those considered not to be running a drug-seeking risk.

Out of the 133 subjects with low toxic risk, 101 scored 0 in the b) series questions, the rest of 32 scoring positively. Out of the 213 falling into the group with higher toxic risk, 118 scored 0 in the questions of the b) series, and 127 had at least one positive answer. None of the respondents admitted to be capable of transporting drugs inside their own bodies. The situation is presented in Chart no. 3: it can be noted that, when admitting that a positive answer to only one question of the b series could represent an indicator that the person in question might become, under certain circumstances, a drug carrier, in the group of those with low toxic habits risk, a percent of 24.06% frame in this situation, while out of those with high toxic habits risk frame in a percent of 44.6% -see chart no 3.

Chart no. 3:



It can be noted a definite prevalence of those running a certain risk to accept to be part in a drug trafficking activity, that is among the individuals with stronger toxic habits than those with moderate or even absent toxic inclinations.

Conclusions:

1. Applying such questionnaires to penitentiary convicts can be affected by a lack of sincerity and a tendency to give socially desirable answers whenever such questionnaires target facts or intentions that could jeopardize their conditional release.

2. Among the general population, there is a high percent of persons with high risk of toxic habits, without any of them acknowledging a constant consumption of drugs, tobacco and alcohol.

3. Out of the lot taken into account for the second study, a proportion of 63.3% declared that under no circumstances and in o way or modality would they accept to carry drugs.

4. Of the persons who admitted to having stronger toxic habits, a higher percentage, i.e. 44.6%, in comparison with the percentage of only 24.06% in the range of those with moderate or absent toxic habits who declared in the questionnaire that they would accept to do such things.

5. The Romanian population seems to be reluctant to the idea of trafficking drugs, and some of them, less than 37%, admitted however that under certain circumstances they would accept to do this.

6. None of the respondents of the questionnaire accepted the idea of carrying drugs inside their own bodies.

7. As yet, the phenomena of body packing as drugs smuggling technique is of a negligible proportion in Romania, the citizens mentioned by the media as being involved in such activities representing but exceptions.

Acknowledgment:

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METHODS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL INTERVENTION IN ANXIETY*

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Abstract: *Goal:* The present study investigates the efficiency of a psychological intervention for students who show symptoms of anxiety. What motivates this study is the fact that the psychologist must not only evaluate and monitor students psychological evolution, but also to intervene in a preventive or therapeutic way.

Methods and instruments: Out of the students we evaluated periodically, we selected 19 individuals who showed higher level of anxiety symptoms, in order to include them in a psychological intervention program. The intervention targeted cognitive aspects: positive reformulation of experiences, emotional aspects: awareness and acceptance of intense emotions and a behavioral aspect: development of new or improved coping strategies. The intervention comprised of six meeting. Pre-intervention and post-intervention psychological assessment was done with Hamilton Anxiety Scale.

Results: The scores for anxiety symptoms, for the entire lot, were significantly lower post-intervention than those pre-intervention, showing a decrease in the intensity of symptoms. Yet, 4 of the 19 subjects showed stagnation or an increase of scores, indicating no improvement of symptoms.

Conclusions: The short intervention we proposed had positive outcomes in most cases, 79% of participants showed significant decrease in symptoms. In the cases

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were the intervention showed no improvements we intend to continue it with the consent of participants.

Key words: students, anxiety, psychological intervention, Hamilton Anxiety Scale

Introduction

The students are frequently and constantly exposed to stressful life events. A critical incident represents a highly stressing event which can significantly disturb the physical and psychological function and wellbeing. The critical incident is a stimulus which can trigger a physical and psychological crisis (Burns, Rosenberg, 2001).

The response to critical incidents and to any other stressful situation is determined by objective features of the situation, by individual's subjective perception and interpretation of the situation, by the state of physical health and psychological wellbeing, by the coping mechanisms, by a series of psycho-individual factors such as emotional stability and responsiveness, self esteem, perceived self-efficacy, sense of coherence, locus of control, but also by several psycho-social factors (Baba, 1998; Iamandescu, 2002; Maier, 2011).

The stress generated by critical incidents induces changes both at a physiological and somatic level, as well as at a psychological and behavioral level. At physiological level, one can show cardiac dysfunctions, neurological and endocrine dysfunctions, myalgia, somato-visceral dysfunctions (Iamandescu, 2002). At psychological level one can show sensorial and perceptive dysfunctions, cognitive, emotional and affective dysfunctions and, in some severe cases, even psychotic decompensations. These dysfunctions can be reversible or irreversible (Maier, 2011).

Physical symptoms include: shivers, thirst, fatigue, nausea, faint or tendency to faint, vertigo, vomiting, headaches, myalgia, spurts of high blood pressure, chest pains, accelerated heartbeat rhythm, muscular tremor. Generally they can be described as high physiological responsiveness. At cognitive level one can show: confusion, uncertainty, denial, hyper-vigilance, concentration problems, time and space disorientation, decrease in decision making. At an emotional and affective level, the most frequent symptoms refer to: anxiety, self blaming, panic, agitation, irritability, impulsivity, depression, anger, fear, suicidal thoughts, inadequate emotional responses (either regarding the intensity

or the nature of expressed emotions), hyper or hypo-emotionality. And at behavioral level one can find: social withdrawal, antisocial behaviors, abuse of alcohol and substances, psychogenic flight, impairment in family (Maier, 2011).

Methods and instruments

The study was run on a lot of 19 students that showed some anxiety symptoms. All subjects are males, aged between 16 and 18. The age average is 17 years while the standard deviation is 3.77 years. Subjects were selected from the entire students periodically assessed on the basis of higher scores on Hamilton Anxiety Scale. The selection of subjects took in account the scores that could be consider of clinical significance at least at one of the two scales used.

The 19 subjects' lot has undergone a psychological intervention which aimed to reduce the intensity of anxiety symptoms. The intervention focused on following aspect: a) awareness of one's own intense emotions and feelings experienced after a critical incident; b) emotional unblocking and confronting with the intense experiences triggered by the critical incident; c) investigating and acknowledging the negative consequences of one's own inadequate response and coping strategy to stressful events in the professional and personal life (family, social relationships); d) positive reformulation of highly stressful experiences; e) replacing the less functional coping strategies, focused on emotion relief, with more functional ones, focused on problems and solutions. The intervention comprised of six meetings with each of the 19 subjects, respecting each subject's privacy. Five of the six meetings focused on one of the five aspect mentioned above and the sixth one consisted of a summarization, a feedback and a chance to re-evaluate the subject's anxiety symptoms.

The Hamilton Anxiety Scale consists of 14 items, scored on a five steps scale, from 0 to 4. Maximum score is 56. Scores above 20 show the presence of clinical intensity anxiety.

Data were centralized and processed with SPSS for Windows 10. In order to investigate the differences between pre-intervention and post-intervention anxiety and depression scores, we used the paired sample t test due to the fact that the research design is a two factor within group. All 19 subjects assessed pre-intervention were subjects to the final assessment.

Results

Initial assessment

The scores on the anxiety rating scale, pre-intervention, subject scored between 9 and 17 with an average score of 11 and a standard deviation of 2. The intensity of the anxiety symptoms is not of clinical level, but as they are associated with the mild depression symptoms, taken together it could represent a risk factor for developing more severe emotional, cognitive and behavioral dysfunctions later.

Post-intervention assessment

At the end of the intervention another psychological assessment of anxiety symptoms was done. Results on the anxiety scale show an average score of 9.26 with a standard deviation of 1.97 and individual scores ranging between 6 and 13. We notice a drop in the average scores both for anxiety

Comparing scores at pre-intervention and post-interventions, with the paired sample t test, turned the following results. We must mention that for both rating scales as well as for both assessments, the distribution was a normal one. For the anxiety scale, we obtained $t(18) = 3.511$ at $p = 0.002$. The magnitude of the differences in scores revealed by the r coefficient shows the following figures: 0.637 for anxiety.

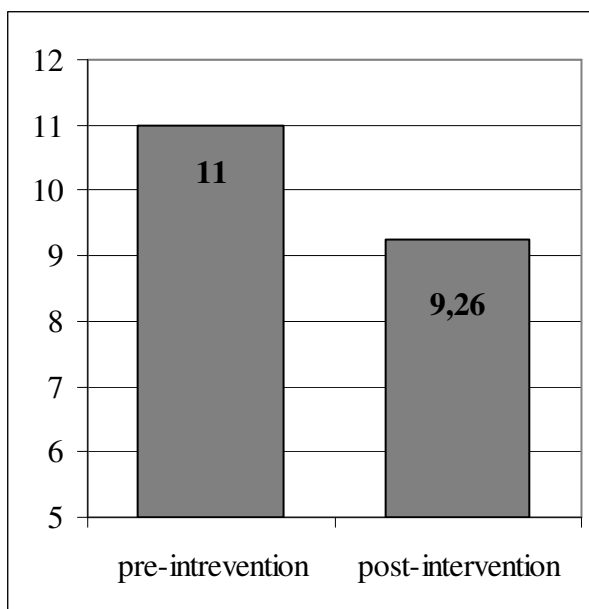


Figure 1. Average scores at the anxiety scale

Discussions

We notice that the t values, for anxiety are statistically significant at p values lower than 0.05 thus allowing us to state that anxiety levels dropped significantly as a result of the psychological intervention. Therefore we can say that our intervention achieved its goals, that of improving the students' emotional wellbeing as shown by the decrease of anxiety and depression symptoms. In the case of anxiety, the intervention explains 64% of the score variance from pre-intervention to post-intervention. Thus, the five step intervention we proposed seems to yield positive outcomes at an emotional and psychological wellbeing.

Analyzing the post-interventions scores, as for anxiety, 15 subjects show lower scores post-intervention, 1 subject scored identically post and pre-intervention while 3 subjects show an increase in scores post-intervention.

Also, in order to identify new strategies of intervention we consider necessary to investigate some other psychological variables which could influence students responses to stress as a consequence of frequent and constant exposure to critical incidents. Such variables are: self-esteem, perceived stress, post-traumatic stress growth, perceived self-efficacy, robustness, optimism, sense of coherence, tendency towards developing somatic symptoms as well as rational versus irrational beliefs (Băban, 1998).

The defusing represents a volunteer, short, individual meeting, in complete privacy that aims mainly to defuse the psychological and physical tension of the students. It has to take place short time after the incident, recommended at 4 hours but not later than 12 hours and does not have to be too formal, actually it is recommended to be as least formal as possible (Maier, 2011). The defusing is focused on the awareness and acceptance of one's own feeling as normal and on the adaptive or non-adaptive role of action taken post-event.

The debriefing is a more formal meeting, run within the group that took part in the incident, at an interval of about 24 – 72 hours and it focuses on different coping ways (Maier, 2011).

Research in the field of clinical and health psychology show that most recommended types of psychological interventions regarding the students are the short-term ones, focused on problems and solutions (Maier, 2011; Holdevici, 2002).

Conclusions

Our study shows that a short-term psychological intervention, centered on explicit goals, on problems and solutions, on positive reformulation of experiences without neglecting awareness and

acceptance of the students intense emotional responses in highly stressing situations and also these reactions' consequences on individual's, his family and peers' physical and psychological wellbeing can lead to a significantly improvement of anxiety and depression symptoms. Yet, there are individuals for which our intervention does not work. Therefore we must strive to improve our approach by looking for the causes of the intervention failure as well as trying to find other psychological variables that could enable us to improve the psychological intervention process. The diversity of therapeutic approaches and that of therapeutic methods available at the present allow us to develop improved therapeutic interventions.

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SINGLE SUBJECT EXPERIMENT EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN – IN THE BENEFIT OF STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES*

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Abstract: Single-subject research is a rigorous, scientific methodology used in clinical activity and in special education. Our article show that a specific study and practice offer a useful methodology in the benefit of children with disabilities and their families. We started from our desire to see the extent to which a disabled child can be helped in learning, when she was receiving a support teacher and the importance of knowing strategies to approach a child with some disability, by the class teacher, in order to provide truly equal opportunities to education. The experiment is a clear indication that when instruction is in accordance with educational requirements of children, the results of work can be surprising.

Keywords: Single-subject experimental designs, baseline, integrated in mainstream school.

The single-subject experimental paradigm has much to offer as a clinical and an educational research tool. It provides a flexible alternative to traditional group designs. Single-subject experiment may involve only one participant or multiple participants in a single study. Performance before intervention is compared to performance during or after intervention. Dependent variables are form of observable behavior and are measured repeatedly. Independent variable is the intervention, it is actively and manipulated. Measurement of dependent variable during baseline is sufficiently consistent to allow prediction of future responding

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in therapy. Experimental control allow confirmation of a functional relationship between manipulation of the independent variable and change in the dependent variable.

In our study we have only one participant, a nine grade girl with hard hearing disability which studies in an Art High School.

Method

We have proposed an action research which has as a **general objective**: increase the quality of life of pupils with disabilities and some **specific objectives**:

1. Changing the attitudes of the teachers regarding accepting children with disabilities in mainstream schools, by raising awareness and improvement.
2. Identify barriers of the teachers on the integration of children with SEN.
3. Acquiring specific strategies to address students with different disabilities by teachers working with integrating children into mainstream schools.

Because, using an experiment with a single subject, we could clearly establish the causal relationship between the attitude of teachers and school performance, we have done a research which showed the importance of strategies in order to address to pupils according to their specific disability.

Before therapeutic intervention, the research participant has undergone an observation periods, respectively two months. It was found the presence of maladaptive behaviors exhibited by topic in certain situations.

During the hours of specialized workshop (perspective, sketches, composition) students received work instructions while performing different tasks. After several consecutive hours on subjects requiring precision and execution of drawings by specific patterns, the girl failed to complete the task and became anxious.

The drawings were mediocre, they did not comply with the requirements requested by the teacher, the school marks reflected the quality of execution of tasks and the student manifests quitting: she do not wanted to attend these lessons anymore, and the teacher made her inhibited and anxious. When the teacher explains the particular pattern and logical approach of execution, the girl managed to execute the drawing correctly, and obtained high marks.

At first sight, teachers felt that the student is not consistent or is working inconstant.

Following the assessment of the situation, we have set ourselves the goal for the study: to develop the interest of the student in the sketches discipline by offering direct access to work tasks by another teacher, on after-school form of tutoring and delegating a colleague as a consultant in the classroom. We achieve the following objectives: to decrease anxious behavior of the student in the presence of the teacher and to develop the individual autonomy during school classes (by increasing confidence in her own abilities).

We started the following assumption: There are significant differences in terms of interest on drawing sketches in base phases and stages of intervention, meaning that it is raising with the help of therapeutic intervention (using individual counseling and positive reinforcement) and reflected by school marks.

Participant and design:

The participant of the study is a teenager, aged 16, in ninth grade at the Art High School. At age two, through computerized tomography, she has been diagnosed with hearing disability - bilateral atresia of middle ear, auditory canal total atresia. The causes are unknown, both parents and two years older sister are hearing. Hearing loss is 70 decibels on the right ear and 80 decibels on the left ear. She has a bone conducted prothesa, placed on mastoid with a removable belt. The disability can be included such a severe hearing loss. She made speech therapy from the age of two and a half and now she owns lips reading. She has a slight linguistic retardation associated with hearing disability. She pronounce correctly all the words, but the specific topic is according deafs, she makes linguistic disagreements. She was given Raven Standard Progressive Matrices test, being nonverbal is was easily administered to people with hearing disability. Intellectual coefficient (IQ) is 118 and she can be integrated in "above-average intelligence." We used also Unconditional self acceptance questionnaire (USAQ), where the score was 93 points (unconditional self acceptance - intermediate level) and Self-esteem Rosenberg Scale, the score was 31 points (medium level of self-esteem). We also use a sociometric test. We found that the girl is neighter rejected, nor preferated, but rather ignored by her school mates.

We used an experiment with a single subject, reversing ABAB pattern. In the first phase (A) design (the first baseline), we measured objectively and repeatedly anxious behavior of the participant to the research, thus establishing the basic behavior submitted to. In the second phase she was introduced to therapeutic intervention (B), which consisted of individual counseling after school. In the third phase (A) we eliminated the therapeutic intervention and we restore the level of base.

In the last phase of design (B), we were applied the therapeutic intervention again.

Instruments and procedure:

During observations carried out in the school class, we found that when the load of work was explained individually to the girl, the results were very good, as opposed to situations where teaching was front, due to the loss of hearing or the fact that hearing aid is not effective at a distance greater than about 2m. So we considered it was necessary individual counseling materialized after hours.

The intervention period lasted 56 days, 14 days for each of the four phases. We counted daily drawings made by the subject on its own initiative, and the results were accounted for in an observation grid, which helped us to organize and systematize intervention results during the 56 days:

Table. 1. Grid observation. The number of drawings executed by subject in each of the four phases of the experiment.

Day	Phase A	Phase B	Phase A	Phase B
1	2	4	4	3
2	0	3	2	4
3	0	4	2	4
4	0	5	3	5
5	1	5	2	4
6	2	6	1	4
7	1	7	4	6
8	2	7	3	4
9	0	5	3	5
10	0	5	1	5
11	0	5	5	5
12	1	5	5	4
13	1	6	2	6
14	1	8	1	6
<i>Total</i>	11	75	38	65

At the same time we watched the anxious behavior of the student during the execution of drawings, the quality of drawings, marks obtained in school or marks obtained in individual consultations. For

intervention phase (B), we worked with a specialized teacher who conducted individual counseling and explained the requirements from a small distance. The girl had the opportunity to ask if she did not understand something, thus she received further explanations. The intervention lasted 14 days, the student was monitored daily during this period. There were four meetings with the teacher, at intervals of time (Monday and Thursday) and on other days the student was assisted by a classmate, who possesses very good technical work and was delegated by the teacher to provide advice when needed. In the next phase of the experiment, the basic level 2 (A), all means of intervention were withdrawn and we returned to observing the behavior of the student, without intervening treatment but monitoring of the grid. In this phase we had the opportunity to see if changes in behavior are due to our intervention. The last phase of the experiment, intervention 2 (B), meant the reintroduction of therapeutic intervention that we used a first intervention. It was kept the same structure of the intervention. The news in this phase was the moving to another stage in teaching sketches (outline of the human body placed asymmetrically), which means a new challenge in terms of technical learning.

Results:

The degree of stability of the base level of experiment was calculated using the turning points test and the results are shown in the following table:

Table 2. The basic level of stability A

T calculated	T expected	P calculated
3	14	.21<.66

The string of 14 data of the first phase are: 2, 0, 0, 0, 1, **2, 1, 2**, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1. There are two points of the top, one bottom point, and three turning points. The number of expected turning points is greater than calculated points. It indicates that successive points are correlated and there is a certain trend in the average variance of the data. This is confirmed by calculated p-value (.21) higher than the critical p (.66), which represents the probability of finding a turning point in three successive observations, respectively 2/3 (.66). Thus we can say that in our experiment, the characteristics of the basic level meet the requirements of the degree of stability.

We compared the results of the four phases of the experiment, respectively basic phases alternate with phases of intervention. For statistical processing of the data we used simple ANOVA for independent

samples, considering repeated measurements of the basic levels and interventions levels as data from independent groups of subjects.

The decision to use ANOVA for independent samples was taken after previously we checked the normal distribution of data ($K S = 1.138$, $p = .150$ $\text{cal} > .05$), graphical representations of data from four experimental phase.

Table 3. Statistics index for the variables involved

	M	Σ
Baseline 1	.78	.80
Intervention 1	5.35	1.33
Baseline 2	2.71	1.38
<i>Intervention 2</i>	4.64	.92

From the table above we can see that the average of observed behavior (interest in drawing sketches resulted in the number of drawings made on her own initiative) in phases 2 and 4, respectively during interventions, is greater than the stages of base 1 and 3 when the subject was monitored without intervention.

Table 4. Comparison between the number of observed behaviors manifested in the four experimental phase

	SP	Df	PM	F	P calc.
intergroup	177.48	3	59.16	45.47	.000
<i>intragroup</i>	67.64	52	1.30		

Data presented in table 3 confirm our expectations and reveal significant differences $\{F(3,52) = 45.47, p \text{ calc.} = .000 < P \text{ critic} .01\}$, which highlights a growing interest for drawing phases of intervention compared to basic phases. Increasing interest in drawing can be seen in the quality drawings executed, too (Annexes).

The drawings of the first phase of the experiment are clumsy, they do not respect any rule of execution. The first intervention phase shows remarkable progress and understanding tasks. In the third stage there is a slight grasp of the art fixed during the intervention, but without individual support, new enforcement of contrapost details are deficient. In the last phase, introducing the second intervention, the subject manages to perfect her technique, this creates a psychological comfort, less anxious, more relaxed work and pleasure.

Anxiety during the observations and the first phase of the experiment was due, on the one hand, to uncertainty given to the inability to understand workloads at times when the teacher addresses the whole class, from a distance too great to understand what he or she says, and on the other hand, the fact that there was no manual or other written support from which to find the necessary information. The subject is very technical and the execution of sketches is making after some very precise rules, which once learned, provide safety and enables students to improve their execution, to make the step to detail, finesse and quality executions.

During the observation and basic phase (A), the teenager was tense, she was upset because she could not make the homework alone, she tried several times to make sketches at home but she failing and erased much of what she drew, she broke the sheets, then became agitated. She told her parents that she was afraid to go to the sketch class because that teacher "would believe I am stupid", she could not sleep well.

During the classes she was inhibited, she failed to do almost anything and the teacher, in turn, threatening her and told her that she does not belong to an art high school, that she "entangled" and punished her to do another ten sketches for next class without explaining her the technique individually.

On the intervention phase it was chosen another teacher from the same school, with which the subject had another discipline, less technical (color) and with which she had a much closer relationship. During the classes of consultation, the girl listened carefully, was able to engage in dialogue with the teacher, to request an explanation of technical terms. The tasks were more easily understood, she was cooperative, relaxed. The first drawings were executed with small mistakes but from the beginning, one could see that she understood the technique of work, followed the rules and proportions. Drawings gradually became well done and quite beautiful. At home she was quieter, she was drawing on her own initiative, she had the desire to improve her technique and to reduce working time. If at first she needed an hour for a sketch, at the end of 14 days of intervention she could make a sketch in about 5 minutes.

In the third phase, after the withdrawal intervention, the specialist teacher switched to teaching contrapost sketches, involving drawing of a human body in a relaxed position, or sitting and also introduce other technical rules. The girl managed to draw the body proportions fixed during the intervention phase but she failed to understand without individual support, the new rules of drawing according changing the center of gravity and body relaxation. She started

to be tense again, agitated, her fear of going to school appeared and she asked her parents to find a teacher to teach her in private because she realized how much she was helped during the intervention phase.

The last phase of the experiment, the second intervention, was eagerly awaited by the girl and by her parents, and the results were again spectacular.

Another proof of the successful intervention were the marks resulted in school class. In Phase 1, she received two marks of 5, in the second phase she received 7 and 10, in the third phase she received a 5 and a 6, and on the last phase she received good marks again, 9 and 10.

The success of the experiment enables us to say that for students with disabilities integrated into mainstream education in high schools, there needs to be a support teacher. Also we consider that the attitude of the teachers is extremely important. Very often teachers, even if they know that the student has a sensory or locomotor disability, they do not know how to approach them and labels them from the beginning as incapable, although these children may be very intelligent and with expert support they are able to achieve even performance.

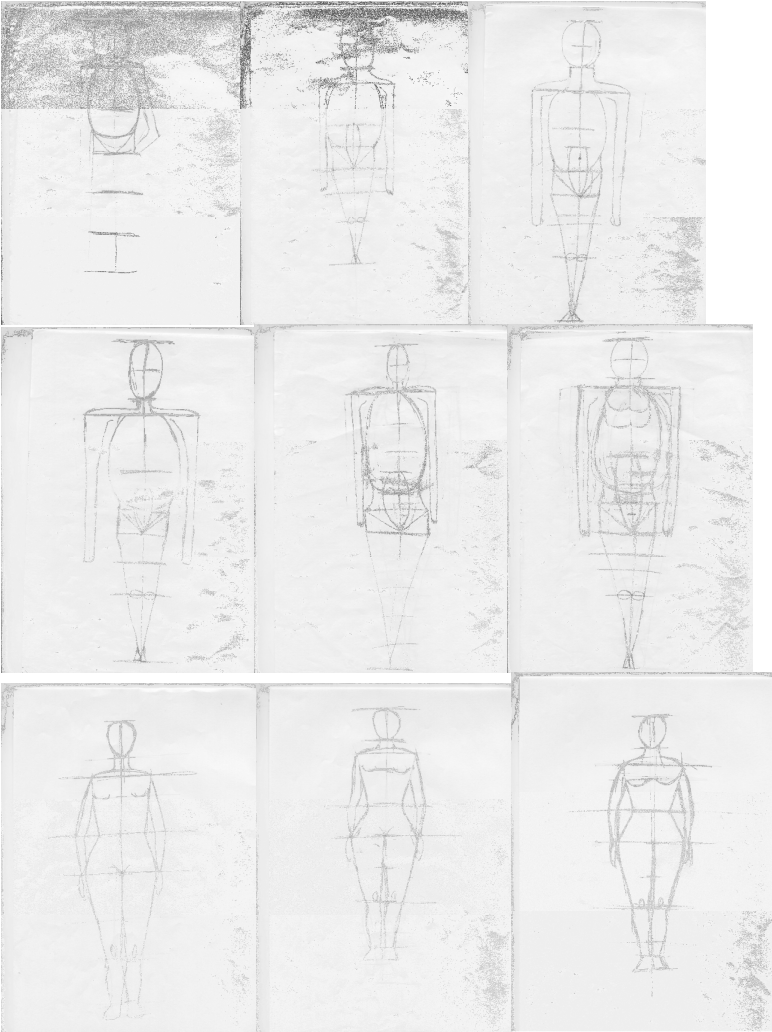
In order to change the attitude of teachers there are needed training courses in order to identify the existence of possible obstacles to their availability, to value their experience, for raising awareness and empathy with parents and pupils concerned. To approach the needs of children with disabilities integrated in mainstream schools, we need well-defined strategies, a very good information and documentation. This can not be done if there is not availability and the integration of children is done without preparing ourselves. Therefore we find it is very important that the first part of a course on the integration of children with disabilities to focus on awareness. Without awareness, being familiar with all the problems faced by children with disabilities and their families, without knowing the full implications of disability, the real limits of possible recoveries, the effort required from the child, the teacher is failing. He or she has no the right perspective on particularly heavy and generous burden it involves.

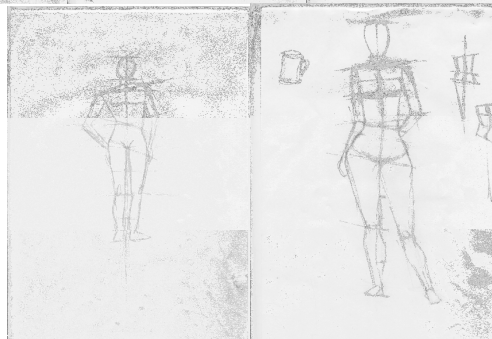
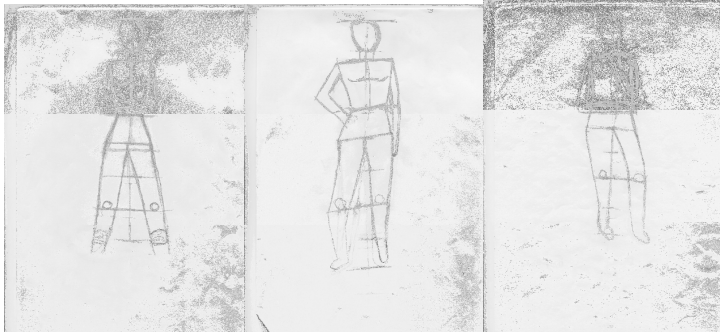
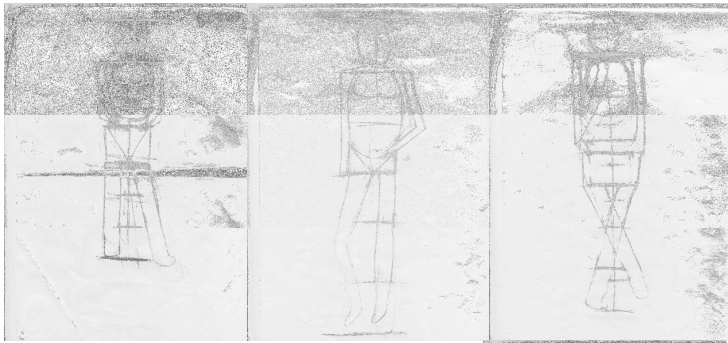
Conclusion

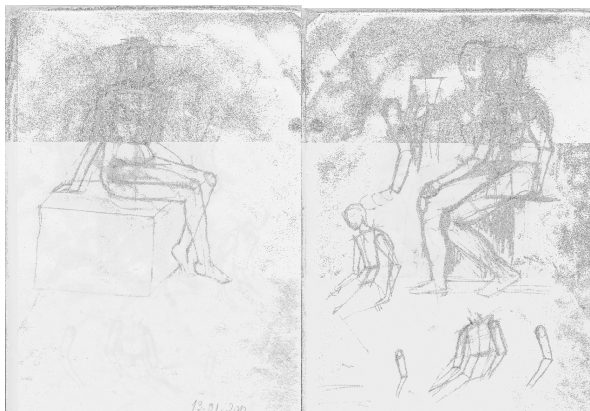
The experiment with single subject, started from our desire to see the extent to which a disabled child can be helped in learning, when she was receiving a support teacher and the importance of knowing strategies to approach a child with some disability, by the class teacher, in order to provide truly equal opportunities to education, on the other hand, in order to increase the psychical and physical potential of a child to its true value. The experiment is a clear indication that when instruction is in

accordance with educational requirements of children, the results of work can be surprising. When the child understands what he or she have to do and feels accepted and encouraged, he or she is more interested in school tasks and more motivated.

Anexes:







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YOUTH, YOUTH WORK AND THEIR IMPACT IN THE COMMUNITY*

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Abstract: The contribution of the youth in the development of the local communities has been a well preserved asset all over the world's nations. However, the support given to this category of people and the potential of them has, and sometimes still is, not exploited to the maximum. Youth work is an old profession but the professionalization is yet a new concept, under continuous construction, in order to meet the rapid development of the youth in such a way that the youth workers can constantly be the pillars the youth can lie on and which can support and promote the impactful work the youth are conducting. In this context the present article aims to highlight both theoretical and practical aspects of youth work by presenting the development of the profession and by illustrating impactful activities of youth in their communities as best practice examples.

Key words: youth, youth work, community, development, case study

1. The youth and the youth worker

Being rather considered as a period of transition, the word "youth" stands for the not children, nor adult persons, but for the young people, usually aged between 13 – 30 years. The exact years (age limits) are difficult to establish and differ from one region or country to another

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(The Romanian Youth Law defines youth as people aged between 14 - 35 years, in Art. 2 (b)). as there is no real or natural border based on which a person is up to an age a child but becomes a youth by the next birthday. Youth is there for a transition period between the childhood and adulthood and it is generally situated between the period of leaving compulsory school and getting the first job.

This is the age in which the person being in the “transition period” explores himself/herself, the community and the world in which he/she is living in order for him/her to get a better understanding of him/her self and in order to develop or to obtain a series of competences and life skills, especially independent life skills, which he/she will use in the close future.

Based on the knowledge and competences developed or gained, the young adult will be able to take fundamental decisions, rooted in a solid personal and general knowledge, given the fact that he/she will understand the reaction of each action. Eventually, based on the gained knowledge he/she will be able to aim for a destination which he/she understands.

Youth work is defined in the Council resolution on a renewed framework for European co-operation in the youth field (2010-2018) as “a broad term covering a large scope of activities of a social, cultural, educational or political nature both by, with and for young people. Increasingly, such activities also include sports and services for young people.

Youth work belongs to the area of ‘out-of-school’ education as well as specific leisure time activities, managed by professional or voluntary youth workers and youth leaders and is based on non-formal learning processes and on voluntary participation.”

The youth worker is representing a trustworthy ally of the youth throughout the process of leaving childhood and welcoming adulthood.

The youth worker is the professional supporting and promoting the development of the youth in order for this to be able to reach his/her full potential, by means of especially non formal and informal education methods.

The youth worker is a very useful resource for the young people, a person who is always capable to provide young people with reliable information or advice, facilitating the connection between the young people and the community they are living in and developing a proactive attitude which will influence later on their entire existence.

The work conducted by a youth worker can either be done under the umbrella of an NGO or a state institution, but the activities are

conducted in the environment of the youth, being, as the definition states, essentially “out-of-school” activities.

If we were to make a connection between the definition of the youth worker and the youth, we could conclude that the youth worker is the person who facilitates the access of the youth to the information needed for a solid growth and for being able to pick his own path in life and start the voyage for the desired destination.

1.1. Youth work and the legal framework

Even if it is very difficult to set a pattern in terms of the governing legislation in the field of youth work, most of the EU member states, thanks to the EU strategy to promote and sustain youth work have managed to align their legislation in such a way that the youth worker – as a professional – is able to have some clear expectations in terms of what it would mean to conduct his/her work in any EU member country.

Given the fact that the youth work profession is a newly recognized profession, the place is usually not precisely settled in the eyes of the community viewers.

However, by examining the existing legislations of the EU member states, “*youth work provides both expressed and latent functions*”. (McGinley, 2014)

On one hand, one of the main “express” functions is the provision of non-formal and in-formal education to its beneficiaries – the young people/the youth – in such a way that it accomplishes the learning objectives settled by the youth worker, based on a needs assessment and in such a way that it achieves its developmental goal.

On the other hand, some of the “latent” functions would be “interpersonal friendliness based upon a dialogue through which the young person can dictate the place, time, extent and achievements of the encounter.” (McGinley, 2014)

When speaking about the legal framework with regards to the youth work/youth worker, the reference document shall be the Council Resolution of 27 November 2009 on a renewed framework for European cooperation in the youth field (2010 – 2018).

This recognizes, under Art. 1 that: Young women and men have a crucial role to play in meeting the many socio-economic, demographic, cultural, environmental and technological challenges and opportunities facing the European Union and its citizens today and in the years ahead. Promoting the social and professional integration of young women and men is an essential component to reach the objectives of Europe’s Lisbon strategy for growth and jobs, at the same time as promoting personal fulfillment, social cohesion and active citizenship.

Further on, at Art. 2 this states that: The EU Youth Report 2009 shows that, although a majority of today's young Europeans enjoy good living conditions, there are still challenges to be met such as youth unemployment, young people not participating in education or training, poverty among youth, low levels of participation and representation of young people in the democratic process and various health problems. Economic downturns, such as the one which began in 2008, tend to have a significant negative impact on young people and the effects risk being long term. (Council)

Based on the above mentioned document, the member states have developed internal legislations to support the youth work and have modified and adapted the national youth policies in order to meet the requirements settled by the EU in terms of a higher recognition of voluntary activities, development of non-formal education, youth inclusion in the labor market or, generally speaking, avoidance of marginalization.

According the Commission Staff Working Document, Situation of young people in the EU, part 1/6, published by the European Commission in Brussels, on the 15.09.2015, *“non-formal learning can help release the potential of many young people by uncovering and developing their knowledge, skills and competencies and by encouraging the acquisition of new kinds of capacities.”*

The same report however highlights the fact that sadly the participation of young people in non – formal activities differs very much from one country to another. *“While at least one in five young individuals participate in non-formal education activities in Denmark, France, Cyprus, Sweden and the UK, other countries register much lower percentages; in particular, Bulgaria, Croatia, Romania, Slovakia and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. Overall, in individual European countries between 2011 and 2014 only minor variations occurred in the proportions of young people undertaking non-formal learning.”*

As with regards to the Romanian legislation, Law No. 350/2006 – Young People Law -describes the general principles which are the fundament of the Romanian youth policy in Art. 4 (a) – (j) like ensuring the participation of youth in the decision making process, stimulating the mobility of the youth, stimulating volunteering, sustaining youth initiatives and economically sustaining the youth.

Also, the before mentioned law, establishes the creation and functioning of the National Youth Authority the county youth directorates, the information and counseling centers and the obligations of the local public authorities to ensure and facilitate the participation of the youth in the decision making process.

Further on, the same law, in the third chapter describes the aims and functioning of the youth NGOs and of the National Youth Council. Then, a series of economic and educational facilities are listed in chapter 4. Eventually the law foresees the areas which can be financed as youth activities.

Youth work – from past to present

The category of young people has evolved in time, especially during the last century, from a biological state of being, to a recognized and distinct biological category, further on to a distinguished social category with identified and addressed needs, rights, laws to state and protect their rights and programs to sustain and promote their developments and abilities.

After the formal recognition of this previously considered emancipated children or young adults the need of workers aimed to protect their rights, promote their needs and sustain their development was identified. This is the way the “youth worker profession” was established.

The professionalization process of the youth worker was recognized and proclaimed by means of the Declaration of the 1st European Youth Work Convention which took place in July 2010, nine years after the European Union launched the White Paper on Youth.

The Declaration states that “Youth work is both complex and often misunderstood on account of that complexity. Put simply, however, it does two things. It provides space for association, activity, dialogue and action. And it provides support, opportunity and experience for young people as they move from childhood to adulthood. In today’s Europe, it is guided and governed by principles of participation and empowerment, values of human rights and democracy, and anti-discrimination and tolerance. It is informed by a range of policies and research knowledge. It is delivered by both volunteers and paid workers. It is established through a voluntary relationship with young people. It is financed and managed in a variety of ways. It is quintessentially a social practice, working between young people and the societies in which they live. For these reasons, it has had to accommodate and deal with a range of tensions generated by this relationship. These include reconciling youth research, policy and practice, making sense of different youth policy agendas (European, national, regional and local), establishing a position in cross-sectorial activity, dealing with issues of training, competence and recognition, as well as furthering pedagogical, relational and methodological approaches to youth work practice”.

Because youth work, as a profession, did not appear based on a certain national legislation which's best practice then rapidly spread in numerous other countries, and because this profession neither appeared because an international treaty or convention was signed, the spotting of the first spring of this concept is very difficult and leaves place to numerous debates.

Its deepest roots seem to go back to the 18th century, to the period related to the Industrial Revolution when in many European countries young men started to leave their homes and move to big, industrial cities, in search for their own path in life and for better opportunities than they had access to in their small home town and villages.

Identifying the need for offering support to this newly built social category, The Young Men's Christian Association was founded. The immediate purpose of this association was to offer low cost housing, in safe, Christian conditions, for the young people who have left their homes and moved to the industrialized cities.

In Germany the roots of the youth work started also during the Industrial Revolution, but in the school context. There, different youth movements started, approximately during the same time span, but the best known one would be the Wandervögel. The youngsters of that period who have decided to join such youth movements have done so as they were tired of the restrictions and obligations the society was imposing and they did not want to follow the footsteps of their parents.

In Italy, during the above mentioned time span children who have left school but were unemployed or were too young to be employed have started to spend their time in gangs, committing all sorts of small crimes, but especially thefts. This was the moment the youth care institutions were created in Italy. In these centres, adults worked with the youth to support and motivate them by means of prayers and lectures.

Regardless of the countries, such social movements have been felt all over the Europe. In such a situation the European countries had to find practical solutions to integrate them into the labour market the lower social class and to integrate into the society the emancipated and newly formed social category – the youth.

In Romania, the earliest roots of the expression of youth and “youth activities” organized and put together by a non-formally selected “youth worker” can be traced back some hundreds of years ago, strongly linked with the initiation rituals of young men, conducted mostly within the traditional Romanian villages. Such rituals would start a rather long, challenging and sometimes even dangerous skill development, competence gaining and educational process which would lead the way to adulthood.

Later on, during the 1848 revolution period, the youth movement had a very strong voice, as the leaders of the revolution were mainly youth. Also, amongst the most representative figures of the time many young men can be pointed out who have studied abroad and came back and dedicated their life in trying to bring a change in the communities they belonged to and many succeeded in bringing such a “fresh air” at national level. Having mostly an aristocratic background they quickly became political elites. “Their aim was to facilitate cultural development and social contact.” (Mitulescu, p. 82)

At the end of the 19th century – beginning of the 20th century the national policy was, amongst others, to promote education by means of an educational reform. During this period a significant number of youth took up higher education where the teacher started to promote informal education, supporting experiments and observations and the students were encouraged to switch from a theoretical learning to an experimental learning progress and by exploring the fields they were studying in order to be able to practically understand it. Also, even in the villages, by means of the local teachers, the young people were encouraged to get involved in the community development activities and, this way to gain civic competences. “*It can be said that the rural teacher who had to deal not only with children but also with adults (especially young adults who did not have the chance to go to school at the right time) became a kind of youth worker*”. (Mitulescu, p. 83)

After the First World War the scout was “imported” also to Romania, led by teachers and different other scholars. Both girls and boys had the possibility to be part of this organization. However, this got under the umbrella of the government later on and was transformed into the Youth Guard. Then, the Legionary Movement developed and took the lead in the field of youth movement. By means of several youth work camps in which any young person had the opportunity to enrol voluntarily many areas of the country were significantly developed as the volunteers built shelters for poor, bridges or created mountain roads.

One of the main actors in that time was Dimitrie Gusti, a sociologist who has studied for a very long time the life in the rural areas (the traditional Romanian villages) and was the author of the first rural monographic works, entering this way into the world history of sociology. Promoting the principles and values of social – pedagogy, Dimitrie Gusti has desired to introduce health education programs, cultural education programs and different other programs which would promote personal development into the Romanian schools. His endeavour was concluded in establishing the social service aimed to improve the quality of lives of those living in rural areas.

Now, the Ministry of Youth and Sport alongside with student organizations and youth organizations are working about spreading the importance of the youth work to the wide public in order to attract more and more youth involved in non – formal or informal educational activities and in order to have more and more persons professionalized in becoming a youth worker.

The impact of youth activities in the local communities

By means of different European funds, especially Erasmus+ projects, by means of funds offered by the local authorities or by means of different sponsorships from companies and private persons, youth are able to enroll in a series of “out of school” non-formal or sportive activities aimed to develop different skills and abilities.

However, by conducting the activities of which they personally are the primary beneficiaries, they support a whole range of different other beneficiaries be it their peers (by teaching foreign languages, by organizing intercultural events to promote exchange of knowledge in terms of history, culture and civilization), vulnerable persons like children, elderly, victims of violence (by means of organizing charity events or programs tailored to the need of these persons) or the community as a whole (planting trees, cleaning up the green places, organizing recycling activities, promoting a healthy lifestyle through sport activities) etc.

In these contexts a series of successful projects could be illustrated like:

- **“Meetings with Languages”** implemented by Millennium Center Arad, which is a project financed by the European Commission through Erasmus+ program. This project, which activities are implemented in 3 stages, by EVS volunteers from Italy, Spain, Turkey and Germany, has offered the possibility to increase the basic foreign language skills of tens of local children, youth, adults and elderly in English, Spanish, Turkish and German through non formal, free, language lessons offered by the volunteers. Additionally, the Language Clubs and intercultural evenings have given the possibility to hundreds of local people to get a sense of the historical, cultural and culinary aspects of the represented countries. On the other hand, such activities have led to the development of different skills and competences on behalf of the foreign volunteers too. Besides of learning Romanian culture and civilization, they have learned how to be non-formal language teachers, they have gained strong knowledge in the field of youth work by means of trainings organized by the association;

they have organized the lessons, the activities and events with tens of participants which have contributed to the development of organizational skills, they have prepared and translated materials which has led to the development of digital competences and, overall, by means of their dedication, effort and commitment they have set an example to their local volunteer peers and to the local persons they came in touch with, leading the way as door openers to multiculturalism.

- **“Many faces of the bicycle”** implemented by Experienta Multisport Arad, a project financed by the European Commission through the Erasmus+ program, is also a very good example of contributing to the development of the local community from a healthy life perspective. By promoting biking, the EVS volunteers have succeeded in promoting sport activities to other local youth and the wide public and have also raised awareness about it’s benefits as a cheap transport, road safety, ecology, recreation activity and, overall, health). By organizing major sport activities like the Duathlon, Marathon and Triathlon of Arad, the volunteers have developed very strong organization skills but also digital skills, promotion skills, awareness rising competences and, naturally, foreign language skills. Driven by their very strong motivation, the volunteers have capacitated hundreds of other local volunteers and hundreds of local participants to the organized events, thus contributing to the healthy development of the local community.
- **“The suitcase, the map and the voyage of a youth worker”** is a cofounded project by the Erasmus+ Programme of the European Union, on Key Action 2 - Cooperation for innovation and the exchange of good practices. It is implemented by 9 partners: Predict CSD Consulting, Millennium Center, “Aurel Vlaicu” University of Arad, SC Schultz Development SRL – from Romania alongside of 5 partners from 5 different EU countries - Dacorom Council for Voluntary Service from the United Kingdom, Asociacion Cultural Integra from Spain, Organization for Promotion of European Issues from Cyprus, Fundacja Centrum Aktywności Tworzej from Poland and Euro-Net from Italy. The objectives of the 24-month project (1st September 2015-31st August 2017) are: to prepare 3 necessary tools for youth workers; to build and test an online training course for 50 people interested in becoming youth workers; to allow 200 young people to test a full range of innovative tools in order to develop their personal and professional life plan with the support of youth

workers; to create and have 200 young people test an online training course for one key competence from the Reference Framework; to certify 14 people interested in becoming youth workers on the Romanian Occupational Standard; to build an international partnership network of 9 structures, in the field of youth work. This way the project consistently contributes to the professionalization of youth work and to the development of young people who conduct the free on-line courses from Romania and all over the Europe.

The examples above are just a few from a very large and diverse field of activities carried out by the young persons in their local communities with a major impact on the community members, on the environment and ultimately on themselves.

Conclusions

The attempts to define and conceptualize youth work as a profession have led to the development of different theories among which the positive development theory to which, by means of the previously shown examples, we concur. The theory aims to focus on the strengths of adolescents, being conceptually similar to the fundamentals of positive psychology. It supports the idea that the youth work profession was not created because the society has left the need to educate the youth, based on several negative experiences but due to the identification of enormous resources recognized within this category and based on the positive aspects and features this category has demonstrated over the time. This theory was well deepened by Lerner, in 1999, sustaining that the youth, in order to be able to reach the targets set by the society as a whole need to be involved in all sort of educational and developmental activities which should be conducted in clearly set up safe places, specially designed for such activities. (Dunne, Ulicna, Murphy, & Golubeva, 2014)

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THE ENCLAVE-EFFECT IN SOCIAL CARE FROM SOCIAL ENCLAVES TO SOCIAL EXCLAVES

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Abstract: The paper proposes a new concept referring to social integration (social inclusion): social enclaves. It also analyses the so-called enclave-effect.

The social enclave defines a situation of pseudo-integration of groups (populations), living in a certain „social space“ (social areal or territory).

The social enclaves and the enclave-effect are to be found in different cultures, different countries and periods of time. The phenomenon is not recent, but was less identified and analysed as a particular case of social integration. The usual approaches are mostly focused on terms like integration, inclusion, marginalization and exclusion. The in-between social dynamic was less considered as a distinct item with distinct characteristics and specific evolution in different circumstances, but simply as an intermediate status of an integration process.

The enclave-effect is, in our opinion, not only a transitional status: in most cases we can consider it as a permanent live condition, strongly influenced by different social and political determinations, cultural and conjectural factors, like the formal and ideological rejection of some categories of people, social incomprehensibility, prejudices, political orientations.

The enclave effect is not only a temporary one. Sometimes it could be seen as a fiasco of some governmental social programmes and strategies, as a failure of the traditional social policies.

Key words: enclave-effect, social enclaves, enclavisation and exclavisation, social permeability,

Social enclaves are not a new phenomenon. They are to be found more frequently than currently accepted in different cultures, regions (countries) and different periods of time. Usually they have not been considered as structures having an autonomous dynamic, or as a separate social structure but as an intermediate stage of an on-going integration process.

Our data confirm the fact that the social enclaves can develop as long time structures, stable and having their own development and internal rules system.

The conclusion of our observation and research data is that the social enclaves should be analysed and not only as an intermediate stage of an inclusion process in progress but as a distinct reality. The social enclaves are separate entities, defined by and influenced by certain social and local surroundings and circumstances and by certain social environments. They develop themselves as distinct social spaces (Dragoi, 2015, p.3-10).

The increasing of the labour force migration from rural to urban and from country to country and the flexibility of the labour market has accelerated the process of setting of new structures, respectively new kinds of standards, new dimensions of living spaces.

The enclaves represent one of the most prevalent and widespread categories of the contemporary social milieus, not only in the large urban areas but in the last decades also in the rural areas.

The most common social enclaves are:

Ethnic enclaves.

Some of the very well known ethnic enclaves: Indian reservations in the XIX-the century in America, the ghettos in the big urban agglomerations, Little Italy, Chinatown (like for instance the one that had emerged and increased in Bucharest in the last decades).

Institutional enclaves.

The residential care centres in Romania in the communist period – the so-called “mammoth homes for children” (Dragoi, 1981, pp. 118-121) are one of the most illustrative examples. The residential child care institutions were formally isolated (having their own school, their own rules prohibiting leaving the institution without a permission note from the educator, rules concerning the visits of friends or relatives, etc..). They were “closed institutions”, having few and sporadic contacts with the outside world.

The local population silently rejected them. *In some cases for instance mothers scared their children telling them that, if they do not behave and*

keep quiet, they will be given away to a “home for children”. And that kept the children quiet....

Lifestyle enclaves.

Makarenko’s colonies. Makarenko's pedagogical theories are well known and have had a tremendous impact in the development of social pedagogy in the post-war period. His successes are largely due to the positive results obtained in the social integration of children and youth in the so-called “youth colonies” in the early 20th century.

We consider Makarenko's colonies as a typical example for the social lifestyle enclaves.

- They functioned as “closed spaces and aimed to “rehabilitate” young people by creating some kind of a "new human being", that personifies the values and ideals of communism.
- In this process the influence of peer group (called “collective” – Hilling, 1999, p. 291-292) was regarded as decisive and always positive. The individual was considered as subordinate to the group.
- Colonies functioned according to their own rules of conduct and according to their own ideals. Work occupied a central role, both pedagogically and morally.
- The colonies evolved as independent bodies, as institutions that have relatively few links with the outside world.

These enclaves have functioned in that period quite successfully. This was due on the one hand to some specific circumstances (i.e. they worked with street children, who had no better life alternative) and on the other hand to the fact that the system remained flexible (ins and outs that were not blocked; leaving the colony was always possible). “The collective” could however decide to exclude someone. Likewise, the newcomers’ situation and the “returns” were also discussed in the formal group.

The colonies imposed a specific lifestyle for the period of enthusiasm that characterized the evolution of the communism in the mentioned period, respectively behavioural patterns and scales of values. These models were surprisingly enduring. They influenced the social pedagogy for more than four decades.

Ad-hoc social enclaves.

The refugees’ intake centres in west Europe or the residential care institutions for minor refugees. These kind of institutions have become very numerous in most of the European countries in the last years and have a strong impact on the established social protection systems. The massive immigration has also generated a new integration culture and some new pedagogical approaches concerning for instance the cultural dissonances and behavioural patterns.

Some of the main characteristics:

- despite of the fact that a chain of formal integration structures is present and accessible, most of the social enclaves remain de facto "outside" those structures
- the enclaves do not have as an explicit functionality and as a high priority the achievement of an equitable social inclusion and are not focused on integration, even if this aim is "officially" in many projects declared as main target
- they operate more or less as self-governing structures, functioning according to their own rules of coexistence and value systems
- they function "in parallel" with the officially accepted systems of values and behavioural models. Sometimes they are even in contradiction with the commonly accepted patterns.
- they have a particular group dynamics and a well defined group hierarchy, usually focused "inward" and acting "for themselves"
- the population is usually defined in a restrictive way. In relatively many cases it consists of "risk groups" (certain social groups – like the institutionalised children for example, or certain ethnic groups)

Informal enclaves.

The development of enclaves can be a process that occurs "by itself", determined by socio-historical factors. In this case the enclaves are set up in time, under the pressure of socio-political factors related to the general social dynamics of the respective society and culture.

Formal enclaves

Enclaves are also the expression of peculiar economic conditions, such as difficulties of the real estate market (lack of housing, too high prices and rents, unemployment - all factors finally leading for example to the appearance of slums) or political (decisions of grouping without any questioning or agreement certain categories of population in clearly defined areas, usually with incontestable rules of access - income and outcomes controlling).

Unspecific enclaves

Another category, actually more difficult to define and to identify, is represented by the "unspecific enclaves". They occur in situations where a particular group is de facto isolated inside a community, despite of all existing opportunities. This isolation appears because it is simply imposed to the group by some of its members.

A relevant example in this respect: some students are "rejected" by other students and are in the classroom in an in-between situation. They are

"tolerated" (e.g. due to formal interventions of some teachers), but do not actually have any real chance to overcome this social status. For the time being there exists no relevant typology for such situations of active "enclavisation", but they are witnessed in schools more frequently than generally accepted.

New forms of social enclaves

Intake centers for migrants

Is the most recent exemple of "social enclaves". The large number of immigrants who came to Europe last year have overloaded the welfare system in some European countries, which have been constrained to adopt a policy of "emergency".

Among other measures there were created in record time the so-called "intake centers" having different accomodation facilities and capacities. Almost all of them have "hosted" ad hoc hundreds of people, of different nationalities, speaking different languages, having heterogeneous traditions, lifestyles and behaviours. That was extremely difficult and conducted to almost unavoidably conflicts, stress, aggression, frustration and tension, to name only a few of the phenomena beeing specific for such enclaves.

For some local communities such centres still represent enclaves, which are difficult to manage, despite of all the integration structures created ad hoc and of the already existing well developed social infra-structures.

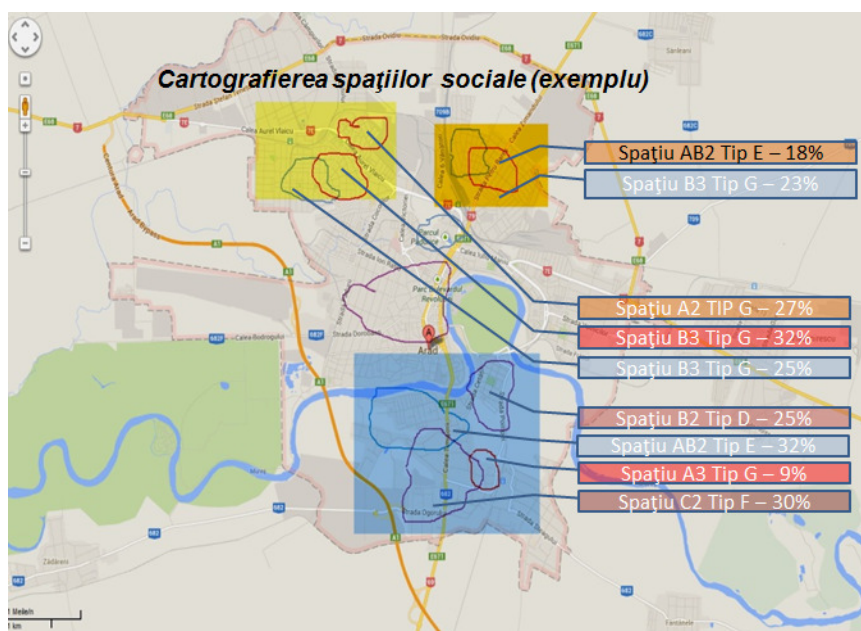
Multi-ethnic social spaces

One of the most acute problems in Romania and in some other countries in Eastern Europe is the spreading of multi-ethnic social spaces. A lot of them have appeared in the last decades mostly because of the migration of certain ethnic groups in areas originally inhabited by another local community (usually a different ethnic group).

The phenomenon has inevitably lead to social enclaves, to social spaces promoting different rules of social behaviour and different ways of networking and communication.

A research carried out in the county of Arad in the years 2011 - 2012 pointed out that the classical "neighbourhoods" (vicinities), created according to different social and ethnic criteria is actually an obsolete model. In urban areas appeared increasingly a new kind of social spaces, which are frequently reduced to a handful of streets, which are usually inhabited by a certain ethnic population (Diagram 1- Dragoi, 2013, p.59).

Diagram 1 - Identifying social enclaves ("problem areas") of a municipality by sinuses method (social milieus having specific social behavioural patterns).



The social cartography of some rural localities in west Romania pointed out that the social enclaves are also numerous in some villages and cannot always be associated to a delimited geographical area.

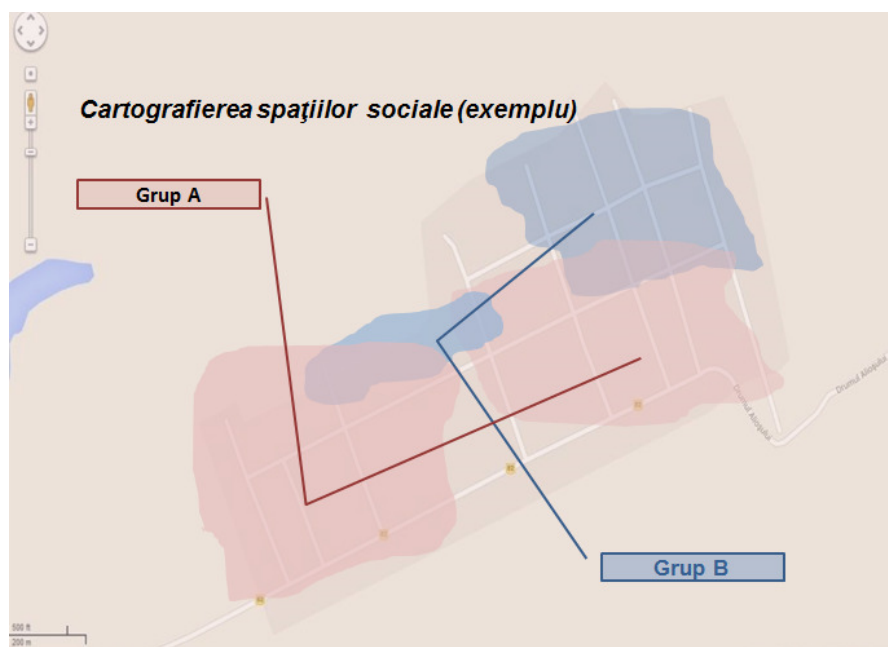
The typical phenomenon observed was the gradual setting of a social group in a certain territory by occupying a particular social space, usually consisting of houses abandoned by owners. The degree of acceptance of these newcomers varies from locality to locality. The beginning of social enclaves, however, is usually unavoidable.

Our study also revealed that the social enclaves have the tendency to reproduce themselves. The reproducing process remains self-regulating and independent from economic and cultural contexts. We observed for instance, that the dynamics of the informal peer-groups in rural schools reproduces the power structures and inter-dynamic group-relations existing in the community (Diagram 2 - Dragoi, 2013, p.59)

Diagram 2 - Social enclaves. Populations at risk.

The map represents the partial results of the investigation (social cartography) of the school population of two villages with predominantly Roma population in the county of Arad. The red areas show the "peer-

risk group" (group A), characterized by absenteeism, deviant group values and oppositional behaviour.



Social enclaves vs. social exclaves.

The "exclavisation" is the opposite of enclavisation and represents in most of the cases a process of desorption (re-absorption) of a social enclave. The success of so-called social inclusion programs depends largely on the behaviour of the "the silent minority" (Candel) respectively on the "social permeability" of the groups of inclusion.

The term "social permeability" is used in this context to describe the actual acceptance of a community living in a certain "social space of inclusion" and its willingness to be challenged with the issues of people coming from "enclaves".

For example, many programs for social inclusion of the Roma population in rural areas (the provision of living space - houses - providing opportunities to work - in agriculture for example - school places for children, medical care, etc .. .) have not had the expected success (also) because residents of those localities have not expressed willingness to accept newcomers.

The local groups have just been "not permeable", even without being hostile.

Overcoming the pseudo - integration is a long and complex process.

Some of the components that may facilitate a better and a faster social inclusion:

- Adequate mapping of the social enclaves
- An objective evaluation of risk factors that have acted and act on the respective social space
- Identifying the factors that cause pressures and determine the cultural "resistance" and resilience of a certain social habitat
- Identifying the "cultural dissonance" and axiological dissonance between different categories of people directly involved (inside the enclave) and indirectly responsible (outside the enclave)
- Identifying available local resources and enabling to act effectively at the level of the social space taken into account
- Coherent action, both at the level of each group living in the enclave and at the level of the community, preferably with political cooperation
- Low-cost proposals for actions (projects) initiated and implemented "on the spot" (like teams of street-workers, youth centres, leisure centres, etc ...)
- The involvement of non-governmental organizations and other institutions in the implementation of short and long term specific and sustainable projects, appropriately financed and suitably logistically supported.

Conclusions

The enclave-effect appears in most unexpected situations and is determined by a complex of social, political, cultural, financial, non-repetitive contexts. Local factors, conjectural political backgrounds and settings play a decisive role, which gives the phenomenon a local specificity and a distinctive internal dynamics.

The most commonly used exclavisation-strategies include three fundamental components:

- Assessment cultural dissonances
- Identifying ways to diminish axiomatic and cultural incompatibilities (dissonances)
- Structuring and implementation of projects anchored in the realities of a certain cultural space.

But the effectiveness of such interventions is largely dependent on the extent to which the local determinations we have mentioned are taken into account, namely the degree to which the interventions are strictly tailored to "local specificities". Developing programs on general level

(macro level) represent in this case not only a difficult and expensive operation but they are sometimes simply superfluous.

The permeability of a system usually decreases in time. The structures are becoming more rigid and they tend to be characterized not only by resistance to changes but also by certain hostility. Early (at the right time) recognition (assessment) of the enclaves (not always easy, especially if the enclaves are unspecific, in which case we might be confronted with resilient "silent minorities") is the precondition for success and reaching exclaves.

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THE KEY ROLE OF EDUCATION IN THE FORMATION OF NATIONS

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Abstract: In this paper I focused on the role of school and education in the process of nation formation and the development of nationalism as political ideology. Nations and nationalism are products of modernity: even if the nationalist ideology describes the nation as a natural frame for human existence, nations are born at the crossroads of industrial and political revolutions of 19th century and religious reform. Profound economical and political transformations changed social relations and created new forms of identity. Nations are best described as imagined communities, constructed by nationalist intellectuals. In this complex transformation process, the educational system played a key role.

Key words: nationalism, nation, education, school, ethnic groups

Introduction

Nations and nationalism are products of modernity. The 19th century made ethnic and cultural diversity the main affiliation criterion for the people: in the nationalities century, state and nation became each other's project. Nationality became the main identity criterion and history has been revised and interpreted from a nationalist point of view. The perception of the nation as natural frame of human life was facilitated by profound cultural and social life transformations, under the impact of three revolutions: religious reform and secularization, industrial revolution, and political revolution. Promoted by culture, education, institutions, the idea of nation was projected back in immemorial times, considered to be immortal. In this paper, I will focus on the key role of

school and education for the birth and evolution of nations and for development of nationalism.

For the romantic historian Jules Michelet, the national conscience represented already the main reference system. Without nation, confessed the French mentor of Romanians revolutionists from 1848, he won't be himself anymore and he would lose his reason of existence. The generation of European intellectuals brightly represented by Michelet had a tremendous effort for disseminating education, for developing the educational system, for writing and re-writing history from a nationalist point of view, they were strongly interested in shaping national identities. In the momentum of rethinking history, Michelet wrote about what some characters "really meant" and "really wanted", even if those characters "didn't understand" at the moment their own mission. It wasn't a singular case, rather a typical one. Benedict Anderson observed that starting with romantic intellectuals from 19th century, "the silence of the dead was no obstacle to the exhumation of their deepest desires" (Anderson 2006: 198). The subjective approach of intellectuals like Michelet is common to those who, under the influence of Romanticism and late Enlightenment (the case of intellectuals from Eastern Europe) worked to shape the national identity of their communities and tried to mobilize people in that way. The school, especially educational system monopolized by the State, played a key role in the nation's construction and development of nationalism.

In the second half of the 19th century, the German historian Heinrich von Treitschke observed the close relationship between the State and nationalism, the State's tendencies to create a homogeneous society, to realize a national language and national habits, instead of local dialects and regional habits (Lawrence 2006: 20). For Ernest Renan, the nation is not a natural form of solidarity, inherent to human nature. In his well-known conference "What is a nation?", he defined the nation as "*a soul, a spiritual principle*". Renan enounced two fundamental conditions for the formation of a nation: to have glorious moments in common in the past, especially heroic memories, and the will to live together. One of the revelatory ideas of Renan anticipated the thoughts of Benedict Anderson: the forgetfulness, even historical error, is important, same like memories, in the nation's consolidation process. Even if Ernest Renan didn't mention in particular school as key-element for the construction of a nation, the educational system played a crucial role in organizing the shared collective memory, as well as in forgetting facts and events. The well-known Renan's definition of the nation is that of a vast solidarity that relies on the will to live together, but he admits the importance of

past memories, especially a common view on national history, the importance of agreed discourse on the past events.

In interwar period, researchers emphasised the modernity of nationalism and underlined the intellectual's effort to spread nationalism through mass educational system and through mass-media. But the systematic study of nations and nationalism began after de Second World War.

The most important approach in the study of nations and nationalism is the group of theories named generic "modernism" or "classic modernism". The modernist theory relies on three ideas: nationalist ideologies and the system of national states are modern; nations and national identities are also modern; nations and nationalism are products of modern age and modernity.

The modernist theories benefitted from the excellent researches of Karl Deutsch. Communication theorist, he described nation as "community of social communication". Karl Deutsch related nationalism with growing social communication fluxes. The nation is "built" on urbanization, social mobility, the rate of literacy growth, media exposure and vote participation, all of them products of modern age (Smith 2009: 4). He argued that the ability to communicate with some men rather than with others by language and cultural affinities is the main characteristic of nationalism. In that extent, nation and nationalism can not be dissociated from the evolution of educational system and State organized education.

Probably the main theoretician of classic modernism is Ernest Gellner, who deconstructed old theories on nation and nationalism. He clearly asserted that nationalism created the nation, not otherwise (Gellner 1997: 88). He considered nations and nationalism social constructions, cultural creations of modernity.

Ernest Gellner analyzed the mechanisms of the transition to modernity. In feudal age, the people's culture was local and contextual. The language and cultural differences were not that important. The modernization and the industrialization generated a degree of social mobility which broke the old stability. The social relations became fluid, the individuals identities relied strongly on culture. New conditions asked for a new type of citizen, with new skills, produced by a new educational system. The modern state pretended and imposed the coincidence of cultural and political borders. For Gellner, it is essential the way that industrial society generalized and standardized education. In the modern age, nobody can organize his own educational system. Society needed mobile, dynamic population, open to new professions, objective attained by a new level of education, general and generalized. Education became

important not only as instrument, education conferred identity. The modern man, considered Gellner, is not loyal to a king, to a country or to a faith, the modern man is loyal to a culture (Gellner 1997: 59).

Gellner focused on the role of education in obtaining “cultural standardisation”. He asserted that the major part of training in industrial society is generic, not highly specialized. The new education is universally standardized, that is why it contributes heavily to cultural standardization – essential feature of nationalism.

New technology asked for learning. New conditions asked for a framework of communication at large scale. Ernest Gellner transformed Max Weber’s definition of state and asserted that the monopoly of legitimate education is now more important than the monopoly of legitimate violence (Gellner 1997: 57). He insisted that in modern age only the State can guarantee and maintain a high and alphabetized culture, through the monopoly on educational system.

Ernest Gellner thinks that nationalism uses historical legacy, but it uses it selectively, it transforms it sometimes radically, sometimes traditions are simply invented. In some cases, a foreign and high culture is imposed to a people with low culture. If a nationalist movement turns over in this case, it eliminates the foreign and high culture, but the substitute is not the old and low local culture – nationalism gives birth or invents another high culture, alphabetized and taught by specialists, even if the new high culture reclaims the authenticity of old low culture. That way, Gellner explains the formation of new national cultures under the empires of Central and Eastern Europe, including the Romanians from Transylvania. In those areas, intellectuals had a great effort to create in the same time a culture and a nation – some would say a cultural nation – and claimed a state for it in the name of popular culture.

The British historian Eric Hobsbawm considered nationalism a product of political and industrial revolutions. In *The Age of Revolution*, he said that main supporters of nationalism were middle class and low class professionals, administrative apparatus and intellectuals, the educated men. He observed that “*the progress of schools and universities measures that of nationalism, just as schools and especially universities became its most conscious champions*” (Hobsbawm 1977: 167).

Hobsbawm believes that the rate of literacy growth and elite's nationalism in Eastern Europe and colonies were not enough, before 1848, for the large spread of solidarity commitment asked by modern nationalism. In those regions, the Western ideology of nationalism was imitated. But the agents of imitation were the intellectuals who studied in Western Europe. Indeed, in Romania, the modernity agents were young boyars who studied in France and Germany. They returned home with

new ideas about society and politics, especially with the strong idea that the world is divided in nations, that the idea of nation is strong related to progress and democracy. Eugen Lovinescu in his book *The history of modern Romanian civilization*, brightly argued that Romanian modernity is related to the imitation of political and social European ideas.

Eric Hobsbawm accentuated the artificial, invented features of nations. Historically, nationalism is prior to the nation (Hobsbawm 2004: 10). He thinks that some traditions which appear to be old are in fact new, sometimes ~~are~~ simply invented. The invention of tradition is described as “*a set of practices, normally governed by overtly or tacitly accepted rules and of ritual or symbolic nature, which to inculcate certain values and norms of behaviour by repetition, which automatically implies continuity with the past*” (Hobsbawm 1983: 1). Moreover, even the historical continuity was invented, to attend a certain level of social stability. In the process of consolidation of invented traditions, school and education played a key role.

Benedict Anderson in his influential book *Imagined Communities* underlined the importance of culture in the formation of nations. The nations are “*cultural artifacts of a particular kind*” created by “*spontaneous distillation of a complex crossing of discrete historical forces.*” “*Once created, they became modular, capable of being transplanted, with varying degrees of self-consciousness, to a great variety of social terrains, to merge and be merged with a correspondingly wide variety of political and ideological constellation*” (Anderson 2006: 4).

In that way, it is possible the modern imagination of the nation: “*the idea of a sociological organism moving calendrically through the homogeneous, empty time is precise analogue of the idea of the nation, which is also conceived as a solid community moving steadily down (or up) history*” (Anderson 2006: 26). The history was marked in this point by three forces: the invention of print, the development of capitalism and fatal diversity of human languages. The print and literacy made possible large scale spread of information and the reader consciousness to be a part of a great community of thousands of individuals who don't know each other.

For Benedict Anderson, decisive for the birth of the nations is the alliance between Protestantism and what he called print-capitalism – writings and cheap prints, available in vernacular languages. The slow consolidation of vernacular languages as administrative tools contributed to the decline of Christian imagined communities. The languages became standardized with the spread of novels and newspapers within the national state, but also due to the educational system standardization. The

language gets a new “fixity” that helped, paradoxically, to the consolidation of idea that languages, like nations, are very old. Print-capitalism created languages-of-power, imposed dialects similar to the language used by print-capitalism (Anderson 2006: 42-43).

For Anderson, the transformation of temporal perception that made possible the imagination of nation is revealed by the large spread of newspapers and novels. The newspaper is an extreme form of the novel, sold at huge scale, which presented a sum of events apparently without any connection. Newspapers, as one day best-seller, created a mass ceremony: newspapers were simultaneously consumed as fiction. Every reader knew that thousands or millions of persons were sharing the same experience in the same time. In that way, the imagined world became a part of everyday life, strengthening the idea of nation as imagined community.

Education produced a knowledgeable and literate population. Moreover, Anderson pointed that the centralised educational system, especially universities, brings together different individuals from different places. All the young students knew that they read the same books, share the same values (Anderson 2006: 122), consolidating the “imagined community” of nation. The common training contributed to the feeling of communality and loyalty. Travelling and learning together contributed to standardisation of society. The students shared the same ideas on national history.

The French historian Guy Hermet asserted that education had a privileged role in nation-building process. Nationalism, he thought, fulfils under the impact of three political initiatives: the recognition of effective citizenship by universal vote, the development of public educational system and compulsory military service (Hermet 1997: 99-100).

The modernist theories about nation and nationalism have been criticized by some intellectuals who called themselves ethno-symbolists. They agreed with modernists that nation and nationalism are born in modern age, but they focused on the importance of symbols, myths, values and traditions in the formation and persistence of the modern national state. Inspired by Annales School and the idea of the *longue durée* in the study of history, they stressed the importance of ethnic identity for the formation of nations. They considered that traditions are not simply invented and scholars should study the ethnic and national groups during the centuries. Nationalism builds on pre-existing kinship, religious, and belief systems. Anthony Smith classified the important ideas of nationalism, as autonomy, unity, identity and authenticity. Identity and authenticity are close related to formal education and the

spread of knowledge, values, theories, myth, interpretation on past and history through educational system (Smith 2009).

Conclusions

Most researchers consider that the birth of nations and the spread of nationalism are modern phenomenon. Education, especially the State's monopoly on educational system, is a key factors in modernization and implicitly in the process of nation-formation. Without the development of state educational system, the growth of literacy rate, vernacular languages standardization, we can not conceive the vast imagined community of the nation as Benedict Anderson best described it. As Eric Hobsbawm rightfully asserted, the progress of schools and universities measures that of nationalism.

The creation of nations as imagined communities is the work of militant intellectuals, which called for solidarity the people Ț until then excluded from political life. The main agents of nationalism were, not by chance, intellectuals, professionals of writing, journalists, novelists, poets, schoolteachers. The nation, once imagined in industrialized Western countries, made the model available for other communities. The identity construction of Romanian nation, for example, was inspired by intellectuals with strong connections to the European educational system: The Transylvanian School and later on young men who studied in Hungary or Germany, in the case of Transylvania, young boyars who studied in France or Germany, in Wallachia and Moldavia.

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DEPRESSION AND ADDICTION IN GAMBLING

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Abstract: The main objective of this work is the theoretical knowledge and practical exploitation of pathological consequences on life game player chance, depression and addiction are two of the most important factors that are reflected in the gambler personality.

This study can be a help for those who want to learn more about this topic so widespread and, at the same time controversial. Pathological form of the gambling is not an isolated phenomenon, but a highly complex issue that profoundly affects in the same way the pathological chance players and their families and society as a whole.

The overall target of this work is a gambling foray into pathological. Based on two personality disorders, addiction and depression, I have demonstrated the close connection between them and gambling through research conducted during years 2014-2016 on a sample of 40 respondents. I chose this topic from the idea that depression influences the emergence and development of the pathological gambling, but I concluded that this relationship is bivalent because both depression and addiction influencing the onset pathological gambling and pathological gambling induces addiction and depression. I have selected respondents from different backgrounds because those players are part of all walks of life, not just individuals with a very good financial situation, but any individuals who come from the lower class of society. The link between all social backgrounds from which they belongs to ans gambling is possible because human rationality can be lost during the game regardless of the status and intellectual level of the gambler.

Keywords: gambling, addiction, depression, obsessive behavior, personality.

1. Introduction

Gambling is a form of social entertainment or a pleasant way to spend free time accompanied by the desire to win money in a relatively short time, pleasure that can turn into addiction when it occurs excessively (Rizeanu, 2013).

Games of chance and gambling have existed since ancient times and were manifested in various forms, desire to win, to gain wealth and prestige by adding risk has always been a force which is represented by instinct that is present the human gene. Instinct is part of the broad scope of the survival mechanisms of the individual (Rizeanu, 2012).

Cambridge International Dictionary (1996) gives us a very good definition of what constitutes gambling or games of chance as "those games aimed gains money or other rewards." This definition covers all of gains arising from practicing any type of gambling. Gamblers Anonymous Association defines the game of chance as any form of betting, significant or not, the gain is safe or not and depends largely on the skills of gambler.

Games of chance were practiced in ancient times. In archaeological researches has been found throughout China and attested since 2300 BC, which shows that people were playing dice thousands of years ago. If you leaf through a little world history is revealed that around 100 AD leaders of today Norway and Sweden have resolved an issue of territory using dice, the winner being the one who gives more six to six double, so they found a solution without bloodshed specify those wars. In the Middle Ages, King Richard <the Lionheart> forbade his soldiers to play dice for fear of losing control over them, and Roman emperors Claudius and Nero were gaming enthusiasts.

Playing cards has the origin in China, it practices during the 12th century, while in Europe and Spain appeared only in the 13th century.

Lotteries exist from Roman Empire and were brought to England in 1569 by Queen Elizabeth I with the aim of raising funds for its projects. American War of Independence was financed with the help of the lottery, George Washington was the first who bought lottery tickets to encouraged this event.

In 1834, Charles Caldwell was the first who labeled gambling as a vice addictive. Fyodor Dostoyevsky, in his novel "Player", published in 1866, described in detail the distortions of payers thinking, loss of control, self-esteem and hopelessness, his personal experience gave him the opportunity to know all these details; he managed to heal itself from this dependence without resorting to any type of specialized treatment,

promise that there will never play made to his wife gave him the necessary motivation.

2. Theoretical Background

Addiction to gambling is a major psychiatric disorder that is part of impulse control disorders, psychiatrist community framing a gambling as the pathological disorder. Human rationality can be lost during the game regardless of the status and intellectual level of the player.

In the last five years this public health problem began to receive attention from the representatives of various fields of science (psychology, medicine). Manual of Diagnostic and Statistical Mental Disorders DSM IV-TR (American Psychiatric Association, 2000) gives us the main definition of the pathological form of the gambling "gaming behavior chance persistent and recurrent maladaptive (criterion A) interrupts the pursuit of personal goals, family or professional. Diagnosis does not arise if the gambling behavior is explained better of a manic episode (criterion B) ".

Some experts believe that the pathological form of the gambling can be classified as obsessive-compulsive disorder, which describes the addict as a person who realizes that his thoughts obsessive push him toward these actions illogical and inadequate, but feeling anxious, helpless when trying to quit.

Depression has been a subject of study from 1800 through poetry, drama and non-didactic prose. The concept of depression was used incidentally in the 19th century, the term established itself permanently as a result of systematic use of it by Kraepelin to describe periods of sadness and discouragement alternating phases of excitation and euphoria of psychosis manic-depressive (Toma, 2008).

Therefore, the word depression is beyond pathological, being present in all episodes of sadness, lowering tone mental and behavioral change, capacity and delaying the subject experiences occur.

It makes a huge confusion between sadness and depression. The feeling of sadness is not depression, but depression involves a sadness that has a high impact on the lives, daily activity, self-esteem, judgment and basic functions, such as sleep and appetite, being highly affected (Filimon, 2002).

The frequency, severity and universality are the three essential features of depression. Depression is not always obvious; cheerfulness can be hidden under an olympian calm. The frequency of depression is apparent from the statistics, but not all cases are recorded precisely because it can be hidden. The most common factor leading to depression is the tendency towards suicide (Filimon, 2002).

Addiction is usually a condition of slavery, namely a very strong inclination to serve this custom. Dependence is the ground state of an individual to exist. Obsession is a feeling, often irrational, over which the individual has a very low control. There are factors that most often are confused or are used without documentation in advance by individuals who break the psychological threshold cabinets. All inclinations needs to be discussed thoroughly and symptoms cannot be a wedge issue without knowing all the feelings and emotions of the subject. Personality represents all physical structures, intellectual and emotional aspects of an individual, all are exposed through consistent patterns of behavior (International Encyclopedia of Psychology, Volume II) ..

3. Assumptions and objectives

Global Assumptions:

- There is a correlation between depression and five personality traits (paranoia, psychopathy, mental level, resistance to frustration and motivation) measured between depression and SP13-intraversie extraversion (E / I) measured EPQ.

- It is assumed that there are significant differences in the dimensions of DAS, EPQc (behavioral problems), EPQI (sincerity scale) based on group membership (group from Romania and Romanian group from England) of the participants.

Hypotheses:

It is assumed that the player addict develops a strong trend towards installing depression;

- It is assumed that the number of unsuccessful attempts to quit gambling increases a higher emotional instability;

- It is assumed that after the game ended with a loss, a gambler develop sense of guilt, the need to lie to cover his loss;

- It is assumed that the player develops pathological paranoia elements involving guidelines for superiority, exaggerated behavior, susceptibility exaggerated, rigidity, psycho tendencies, logical interpretation but with false premises;

Work objectives

- Examine the relationship between depressive disorder behavioral factors and gambling;

- The possibility of examining the relationship between elements of paranoia and games of chance;

- Examine the relationship between frustration and resistance to gambling;

- Examine the relationship between lies and games of chance;

- Identifying the relationship between irrational beliefs and gambling.
- Identification of a link between genetic vulnerability and risk pleasure;
- Evidence of some elements of paranoia in choosing appliances, betting numbers and favorable days;
- Demonstrate a relationship between high mental level and a general culture rich and predisposition to addiction;

4. Research Tools

Personality Scale 13 (SP 13) - contains 130 questions on 13 pathological manifestation of personality tendencies. The 13 scales are: Validity (lie) (V), history (A), Psych asthenia (PA), Depression (D), Immaturity-Lability (IL), Schizoid (SCH), Elements of Paranoia (Pa), Hysteria (Hy), Psychopathy (Pt), Mental Level (NM), Frustration resistance (RE), Mood (EE), Motivation (M). This personality questionnaire answers are "Yes" at all scales less than 1, 11 and 13 which will be count the "no" answers. If the first scale (validity) have more than five negative answers, the questionnaire will be canceled because the information that follows is given rational answers are thoughtful, information does not reflect the true subject.

Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) -is based on the theory of Jung and contains the following five scales: Extraversion-Introversion (EI), Neuroticism (N), Psychotism (P), Abnormal Behavior (C), Sincerity Scale (IT). For each item scale we count affirmative answers. Particular attention pay to scale "Sincerity". If a score of between 17 and 19 have to do with a slight distortion, and if the score is greater than 19, the questionnaire will not be considered because the respondent is lying. .

Attitude Dysfunctional Scheme (DAS) - contains 40 statements to which the respondent must decide to what extent agrees with that statement, as follows: 1 = fully agree; 2 = largely agree; 3 = somewhat agree; 4 - neutral; 5 = somewhat disagree; 6 = largely in disagreement; 7 = totally disagree. At listing, indirect factors are their opposites on the scale and direct factors retain their value. A score lower than 79 indicating low value of dysfunctional attitudes, while a score above 170 indicates a very high level of dysfunctional attitudes.

Rating Scale of Irrational Beliefs Related Games Luck (ECI) is a questionnaire with 23 items developed by Raylu and Oei (2004), with which participants can self-assess irrational beliefs related to games of chance on a Likert scale in seven steps where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. Scale is used to identify irrational beliefs related to a game of chance among players as a first step in the cognitive

restructuring therapy. The score is obtained by summing the results of answers to all items; high scores indicate high levels of irrational thoughts of the players.

The 23 items used to assess participants' irrational beliefs on the game of chance are divided into five subscales:

- biasuri interpretative (bi) on the ability to control the game (sample item: Losses during the game will be followed by a series of earnings);
- illusion of control (ic) (sample item: My prayers helps me gain);
- prediction control (PC) (sample item: I have some power to make predictions about the gain that follows);
- unrealistic expectations (an) related to games of chance (eg item: Gambling make me happy);
- inability to stop the game (is) (sample item: I'm not strong enough to stop me from playing).

Scores items can be calculated for each subscale and total score is calculated by summing responses to all items; in both cases, higher scores indicate strong presence of irrational beliefs on the gambler.

Freedom from Gambling Problem Questionnaire - the Freedom from Problem Gambling program, by Fontaine and Rosenthal (2008), developed self-assessment questionnaire of the pathological gambling. It contains 17 items so the answer affirmative (YES) or negative (NO). If the number of positive responses is greater than five, then we can speak about significant problems, even serious addiction. To calculate the final score is awarded one point for each answer and interpretation of results slightly in context is as follows:

- 0 = no addiction problems;
- 1-4 = mild addiction problems, to moderate;
- >= 5 or more significant problems of addiction.

5. Sample

The present study was conducted in the following casinos and gaming halls: Metropolis Casino & Slots Roulette Arad and Ladbrokes Barnsley, UK. Subjects were selected based on their openness to respond concretely and honestly to questions. I explained to the subjects what involving this research, I have made very detailed briefing and that I will not disclose the identity gave a note of confidence.

The bulk sample of the research is composed of 40 respondents of which 10% are female and 90% are male. Participants aged between 18 and 55 years old and belong to two groups: the first group consists of people who live in Arad and playing at the casino in Arad mentioned, and

the second group consists of people of Romanian origin, which currently living in England, Barnsley town and attending the games room.

Romanian respondents in England, throughout the interview, tended to compare investment earnings and wages in Romania are much smaller than the gain currently registered in one week.

Arad sample consists of 20 players of which four are women accounting for 20% and 80% are male. Romanians in Britain sample consists of 20 subjects represented 100% of males. I must disclose that I didn't meet in England females from Romania who attends gambling halls.

6. Data analysis

1. There is a correlation between depression and five personality traits (paranoia, psychopathy, mental level, frustration resistance and motivation) measured between depression and SP13 – extraversion-introversion (E / I) measured EPQ.

After applying personality testing SP13 and EPQ I obtained the following significant correlations proportional between depression scales test SP13 (paranoia, psychopathy, mental level, frustration resistance and motivation), and between depression and unrealistic expectations related to gambling play the ECI (evaluation of irrational beliefs related to a game of chance):

SP13 D and SP13 Pa → 601 **

SP13 D and SP13 Pt → 400 *

SP13 D and SP13 NM → 543 **

SP13 D and SP13 RE → 385 *

SP13 D and SP13 M → 386 *

SP13 D and ECI an → 340 *

Between SP13 D (depression) and EPQ E (extraversion-introversion) I got an inverse correlation worth 544**, which suggests that depression increases as the participant is more introverted. Introvert is quiet, introspective, has a rich inner life; is the thinker type, possess abstract thinking, he is unrealistic; slightly tensioned, lacks the ease externalization, rich inner experiences; in social relationships is reserved, it is incredulous and planned; leaning towards a lifestyle ordered dominate their aggressiveness.

This psychological profile is valid only when the light is not on them, in game machines room they become interest and sociable. He gets in the game room extroverted, he is sociable, loves fun, has many friends; easily assume the risk, he loves adventure and is exposed to hazards; seeking agitation, he likes to make jokes, he is oscillating; He wants to look optimistic.

From the above mentioned values, we obtained significant correlations in terms of depression and inner feelings of the player's choice. Depression is the emotional state that is characterized by malaise, sadness, motor inhibition, decreased libido, suicidal ideation. Depression, as defined by the widest generality, is a decrease of the provision of basic, focusing on unpleasant sad feelings. Depressive syndrome has as defining components depressed mood, slowing of thought processes, psychomotor slowness that installs with a number of ancillary symptoms of somatic expression. Depressed mood is perceived as "vital sadness", loss of feelings, inner restlessness and emptying the contents bleak.

In my research, all these symptoms about significant correlations are being directly proportional to the feeling of paranoia, with psychopathy suffered by the respondent, with the mental resistance to frustration and motivation.

A significant amount, 601**, I have obtained from the correlation between depression and paranoia elements, beyond what means that depression increases as paranoia elements are present; This shows guidelines for supra evaluation, exaggerated superiority in personal behavior and in assessing availability and susceptibility exaggerated, rigidity and a tendency very high to psycho logical interpretation. but departure is based on false premises that have no relation to reality.

Psychopathy is the second element influencing the onset and development of depression. Thus, by a factor of 400*, denotes the presence of psychopathy mental fragility and extreme type behavior (between passivity and exaggerated type to unpredictable reactivity). All induce the presence of psychopathy and impulsiveness with crosscurrents in relation to ethical moral rules, depriving censorship (self-control) and sometimes state of awareness.

From the group of questions related to mental level found in SP13, I noted the question "Are there strangers staring at you with hatred and wantonly you talk ugly?" While the answer was 80% positive, which means that the environment and suspicions are the main factors influencing the installation of depression.

Resistance to frustration obtained a quota of 385, which means that depression increases as higher resistance to frustration. This correlation indicates the subject adapt and resist the imposition scheme and the deprivations, especially in your social context in which it operates.

The correlation between depression and motivation indicate awareness of behavior and attitudes towards socio requirements in family or socio-professional. Added value (386) shows that problems and disputes are present both in the social, family, emotional and socio-professional phenomena that we study with other research tools.

The value of the correlation between depression and unrealistic expectations related to the game of chance, 340, indicates that the player believes that gambling make their life easier and waits as his life to simplify, to feel they can breathe, to feel peaceful, gambling giving these moments (examples: "Gambling make me happier." "When you play, things seems better." "When you play, the future seems to rising (pink). " Bets reduce tension and stress. "

The hypothesis is validated in part because only certain scales of personality questionnaire SP13 correlated with extraversion-introversion and paranoia scales measured by EPQ. So:

1. SP13 Pt and EPQ e \rightarrow -461 **
2. NM SP13 and EPQ e \rightarrow -640 **
3. RE SP13 and EPQ e \rightarrow -507 **
4. SP13 EE and EPQ p \rightarrow -404 **

All four are inversely proportional correlations, such as the subject is more introverted, the psychopathy increases, so the respondents have mental fragility, highly-like behavior, impulsivity and lack of control in family, relationships and professional. Introversion is responsible for resistance to frustration. As more as introversion decreases, the participant adapt more easily to new situations at work. There is an inverse correlation, between emotional balance (SP13) and psychotism (EPQ). Thus the greater emotional balance, there will be less psychotism. This correlation suggests that when the frequency decreases, the expression of antisocial behavior, desire to show cruelty and hostility towards others and things preference for strange, unusual diminishes intensities of emotional reactions occur; psycho-emotional precarious balance is characterized by excessive shyness aside and harder to control excessive excitability on the other side. These are usually the source of decompensation and disordered behaviors in context with the rules and rigors and sometimes social environment.

2. It is assumed that there are significant differences in the dimensions of DAS (dysfunctional attitudes scale) EPQc (behavioral problems), EPQI (sincerity scale) based on group membership (group from Romania and Romanian group in England) of participants (Table. 1).

To test this hypothesis, I used **t test**, with independent variable group. T test for independent samples used to test the difference between the averages of the same independent variables measured in two groups, made up of different subjects.

T test can be used to test samples as small if the sampling distribution for the two groups is normal and if the variance values in the two groups did not differ significantly. SPSS data table contains the

independent variable (group) with two values, depending on membership in one group or another. The independent variable is numeric conventional coding 1 and 2.

Table 1

GRUP		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
DAS	1 – group from Romania	20	134.65	35.807	8.007
	2 – Romanian group in England	20	163.25	42.159	9.427
EPQc	1 – group from Romania	20	14.35	2.254	.504
	2 – Romanian group in England	20	12.30	2.618	.585
EPQI	1 – group from Romania	20	8.05	.759	.170
	2 – Romanian group in England	20	7.30	1.031	.231

The coefficients obtained from the processing of data in SPSS (Table. 1) shows that there is a significant difference depending on size of group affiliation: DAS, EPQc (behavioral disorders) and EPQI (sincerity scale).

Regarding DAS, I got $t = -2.312$ coefficient significant at a threshold of $p < 0.05$, demonstrating that there is a significant difference between the group from Romania and Romanian group from England in terms of dysfunctional attitudes, group Romanian in England is significantly more prone to introduce these attitudes toward including depression ($m_{eng} = 163.25$ and $m_{rom} = 134.65$).

Depression is a mental state of sadness and bitterness which runs long periods. Symptoms that persist for more than two weeks and are of a severity that begins to hinder normal daily activities announces installation of clinical depression. Only a small proportion of those suffering from depression are able to recognize this condition and undergo the necessary treatment. The reasons are fear of social compassion, personal pride and ignorance. Even severe cases of depression can be cured even if the company does not believe in a cure for this disorder. It is estimated that by 2020 depression will become the second cause of disorder worldwide after cardiovascular diseases. Currently, the disease affects about 121 million people worldwide. In Romania, there was a significant increase in major depressive episode with age, from 2.1% - 2.6% (18-49 years) 4.4% - 5.2% (over 50 years) and with a growth rate of 1.2 percentage points for every other age

groups: 50-64 years and above 65 years. Symptoms: Feeling anxious or worried without an obvious reason; low frustration tolerance; loss of interest in activities that were produced before pleasure; self-accusation; feelings of helplessness; low self-esteem; thoughts of death and / or suicide.

Regarding EPQc (behavioral disorders), I got a coefficient $t = 2.654$, significant at a threshold of $p < 0.05$, demonstrating that there is a significant difference between the group from Romanian and Romanian group from England on behavioral disorders, Romanian group from England is significantly more aggressive and emotionally unstable ($m_{rom} = 14.35$ and $m_{eng} = 12.30$).

In the field of behavioral disorders, an important place is for antisocial behavior. In this sense, those who have studied the antisocial behavior of gamblers arrived at highlighting a "profile" their psychological:

a) trends towards aggression, either latent or manifest, based on a background of hostility, denial of socially accepted values;

b) emotional instability generated by educational shortcomings, and the last phase of the fragility of the ego;

c) social maladjustment due to insecurity, the individual seeks to replace, for example by changing his home dense loitering or by avoiding organized forms of life and activity;

d) conduct duplicity manifested on two different planes: one, the behavior secret intimate the offense and the other is prepared, the behavioral relationship with society, whereby they often betray offense;

e) existential imbalance, as evidenced by passions, addictions, perversions, absurd waste of money.

Regarding EPQl (sincerity scale), I got a coefficient $t = 2.620$, significant at a threshold of $p < 0.05$, demonstrating that there is a significant difference between the group from Romanian and Romanian group from England on the scale of honesty ($m_{rom} = 8.05$ and $m_{eng} = 7.30$). This coefficient shows the validity of the research.

On the other hand, social desirability (Tanasanu, 2009) is a thoroughly studied concept in a lot of fields such as psychology, industrial-organizational psychology, personality psychology, social psychology and health psychology. Author who have dealt for the first time this concept has been Marlon Crowne in 1960, social desirability is considered that participants need to obtain the approval of others by providing answers in a manner acceptable and appropriate from a cultural standpoint. Thus, social desirability may be interpreted as a problem of subjects responding, rather, according to rules and social needs, rather than according to their personal values

In other words, social desirability is the tendency of an individual to present themselves in a favorable light to others just to hide some flaws or exaggerate some qualities.

Impression management refers to the control of information transmitted in order to improve the views of others for their own benefit or to achieve certain social goals. People want to control the impressions of others, but the most important and most common form of impression management is related to personal image of each of us (Tanasanu, 2009).

7. Conclusions

Reaching the end of the research, I must say that this study has some limitations. It has made clear that all data presented is limited to two groups investigated: 20 respondents from Romania and 20 Romanian respondents who lives and work in England who present addictive gambling. It is possible that a larger sample research findings to be different from what I have presented in this study. The fact that all 40 respondents were taken only two casinos could be a limit too.

The 20 respondents in Romania showed a slight opening to me because we know each other before applying questionnaires. Romanian respondents in England agreed to provide me with information only after I guaranteed that their identity will not be disclosed, which suggests skepticism and lack of trust in new people.

After applying personality questionnaires I have noticed an increased trend towards more dependence and depression Romanian players in England. In this case, the factor that predisposes the occurrence of depression is the missing family. Even though they were followers of gambling that went abroad to work does not empowering, threw him into a situation where they cannot go out alone.

By applying DAS scores were very high, which means that both groups show a very high level of dysfunctional attitudes that may constitute a predisposition to depression installation.

SP 13 brings high levels also so that we can make a general characterization, an individual appears so anxious, he presents obsessive phobic, is indecisive, lacks confidence in its own forces; depressed by the lack of interest manifested in emotional relationships, has ridden and quirks of behavior. He present exaggerated superiority and exaggerated susceptibility. He presents theatrical mood and exaggerated desire to be noticed regardless processes. Mental fragility and extreme type behavior, lacking confidence and impulsivity shown by illustrating picture is true to the player's chance of disease.

The EPQ shoes that all these behavioral disturbances very nice contoured, showing tendencies towards aggression, based on a

background of hostility and denial of social values. He is always in conflict with someone or something. Not be required to accept a very hard working and responding to the demands of others. Feels like enclosed, tight, suffocating the society in which he has no place. Thus recourse to the theater and to lie with the hope that he will be accepted for a period of time even if that aggression and impulsivity appear when lacking of self-control.

Pathological chance players put their trust in prayers, rituals and objects that can attract good fortune, something which is very clear from the application assessment Scale of unrealistic expectations related to the game of chance. In their view, a gain arises from their skills acquired over time and due to the gaming experience, while loss is attributed to fate, to predict a possible win. Irrational beliefs of the participants on the game of chance, pathological tendency reflects player trust in signs and predictions, unrealistic expectations related to gambling are those that can be observed (example: gambling make me happy).

Depression is closely related elements of paranoia, psychopathy, resistance to frustration, motivation and unrealistic expectations related to the game of chance. Thus I have an introverted individual who use to extraversion is liked to have friends; trends show very elevated logical interpretation of phenomena, but departure is based on false premises that have no relation to reality; It is fragile psycho and presents a highly-like behavior, is always exaggerated reactivity between passivity and exaggerated type unpredictable; It is impulsive and lacks self-censorship; adapts very hard working regime imposed; he is not without problems and disputes in the socio-familial and socio-professional caused by gambling which can not give up because of unrealistic expectations which, according to him, make him happier and games reduce tension and stress.

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